$E=I \times R$
$R=\frac{E}{1}$
$1=\frac{E}{R}$

| CONDENSERS IN |
| :---: |
| SERIES |

$C_{\text {GTTAL }}=\frac{C_{1} \times C_{2}}{C_{1}+C_{2}}$

| RESISTANCES |
| :---: |
| PARALLEL |

$R_{\text {FOTAL }}=\frac{R_{1} \times R_{2}}{R_{1}+R_{2}}$


5 3PRONG SOCKE!
56.46-47-76.27.

# 25 C [n.w] OCTOBER, 1934 

## SHORT-WAVE AND EXPERIMENTAL

## -IN THIS ISSUE-

New Tube Operates Without Filament or Grid
RCA Announces One-Half-Meter Tube "The '45 Is a Better R. F. Tube Than the ' 46 Superheterodyne Tracking Problems Radiotelephony for Beginners

## *

A new chapter in radio history is written. The lilustration shows Mr . Ralph M. Heintz adiusting a 150 -watt R.F. Amplifier which is being driven by the sensationally new Farnsworth Electron Multiplier Tube, This new tube uses neither filament nor grid. "Among those present" in the photo are Dr. Leonard Fuller, Dr. F. E. Terman, Arthur H. Halloran, Herbert E. Metcalf, Donald Lippincott, George Everson, and other radio engineers and scientists.


FEATURE ARTICLES BY
CLAYTON F. BANE ARTHUR H. HALLORAN

## Sylvanias

## FIRST TO SUCCESSFULLY MANUFACTURE GRAPHITE ANODE TRANSMITTING TUBES

The specialized transmitting tube engineers of Hygrade Sylvania Corporation's Electronics Department originated and developed the only complete line of standard air cooled transmitting tubes embodying GRAPHITE ANODES.

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That Sylvania can give you better transmitting tubes than anyone else, is


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# The NEW 5C PROFESSIONAL SINGLE SIGNAL SUPERHETERODYNE 



The 5C is the 1934 improved model of the now famous 5B-choice of WYOUSA of the World's Fair and amateurs the world over in preference to all available competition.

The first outstanding feature of the new 5 C is the accurately calibrated large airplane "watch" dial, having one pointer for the three-gang main tuning condenser, and a second pointer on a $0-100$ division scale for the three-gang band spread condenser-available by simply pulling out the tuning knob!

The 5C has a new high-gain tuned r.f. stage on all bands for image selectivity, and manual ${ }_{5}$ or automatic volume control at the turn of a switch, plus all the features that have made the 5B famous, including air tuned i.f. amplifier.

That it is far in advance of all other competitive receivers is proven conclusively by the roster of its users-from W9USA to Col. Foster W6HM.

## TECHNICAL FEATURES

## SEE WHAT WGUSA SAYS ABOUT ITS PRECISION

"After four months' continuous daily operation at World's Fair Station W9USA and public demonstrations daily at Hall of Science Theatre, very glad report most uniformly lations excellent design.,
F. J. Hinds, Chairman, World's Fair Radio Amateur Council.

## TYPE 10D 100 WATT PROFESSIONAL PHONE-C.W. TRANSMITTER

The type 10D transmitter is the amateur's dream come true. It provides 100 to 120 watts of crystal controlled r.f. power on the $10,20,40,80$ and 160 meter amateur bands modulated $100 \%$ with high fidelity broadcast station modulation, all at a cost below what you can build it for!

It employs one RK20 screen grid r.f. pentode as a crystal controlled Tritet (electron coupled) oscillator. Modulation is affected by suppressor grid voltage variation, which is obtained from a simple three stage audio modulator. But read its specifications, look at its price, and get on the
 air with 100 watts of broadcast station voice quality cheaper than you can build a 100 watt telegraph transmitter! stages), 1-80 Rectifier.
anywhere in range of receiver by pulling out tuning knob.
Wave Length Change: One knob, with colored indicators matching dial scale colors. Knob actuates positive three position, sixgang selector switch having positive nonwearing, silver plated contacts.
I.F. Amplification: Two stages of dual air tuned 465 kc . amplification using a total of five "Litz" wound tuned circuits and two '58 super control tubes.
Shielding: All r.f. and i.f. circuits completely shielded from external pickup. Two antenna binding posts only "hot" points exposed. Heavy cabinet provided with hinged top for easy access.
Loud Speaker: Specially designed and matched Jensen dynamic unit in cabinet $7^{\prime \prime}$ square and $31 / 2^{\prime \prime}$ deep.
Tropical Climate Provision: All transformers, coils and condensers specially sealed against moisture, particularly for tropical climates. All filter condensers, power transformers, chokes and resistors greatly oversize to avoid possibility of breakdown in places remote from replacement part sources. Finish: Crystalline black on all parts except tube and r.f. shields, which are polished aluminum.
Dimensions: $17^{\prime \prime}$ long over all, 10\% " deep and $83 / 4$ " high.
Antenna: Separate r.f. primaries for each band and allow use of doublets or Marconi antennaes at will.
Crystal: When ordered, the 5 C can be supplied with special Bliley quartz crystal resonator in Bliley holder, and with i.f. amplifier properly aligned to exact crystal frequency. Type 5C communication receiver as above, complete with eight tested Raytheon tubes, Jensen speaker and cabinets, ready to operate, list price $\$ 124.50$. Net price to amateurs $\$ 74.20$. Order it direct or from your dealer.
Add to above for Bliley 465 kc . crystal in Bliley holder and specific receiver alignment for individual crystal supplied, list price $\mathbf{\$ 1 5 . 0 0}$. Net price to licensed amateurs $\$ 9.00$.

Order it from your dealer or direct and join the P.W.A.C. Club (Phone Worked All Countries).

## SPECIFICATIONS

R.F. Output: 100 to 120 watts on fundamental crystal frequency. 60 watts on crystal second harmonic. Frequency Range: 10, $20,40,80$ or 160 meter amateur bands. One pair of two plug-in coils covers each band. Tubes Needed: 1-RK20 Oscillator, 1-RK19 Rectifier, 1-2A5 Power Amplifier, 1-53 Voltage Amplifier (2
Modulation: Linear suppressor grid modulation variable from zero to over $100 \%$ at will. Harmonic distortion less than $5 \%$ at $100 \%$ modulation.
Audio Frequency Range: Modulation curve flat to 4 db . from 40 to 8000 cycles. Variable tone control provided for high audio frequency attenuation as desired.
A.C. Modulation Hum : Negligible.

Phone-Telegraph Section: Two position toggle switch and r.f. unit selects phone or C.W. telegraph operation at will.
Antenna Tuning: Two $\mathbf{3 6 5} \mathrm{mmf}$. condensers provided for series antenna tuning, or parallel antenna tuning for series antenna tuning, or pars.
(mounted on r.f. unit panel). One 0-150 ma. millameter and, if desired, one $0-2$ antenna thermoameter are all required to check operation.
Controls: Oscillator plate, r.f. plate and two antenna tuning dials. Phone-Telegraph, send-receive, modu lator on-off and power on-off switches. Screen and plate current measuring jacks. Key jack.
Size: Total height of all three $19^{\prime \prime} \times{ }^{3}{ }^{3}{ }^{\prime \prime}$, aluminum relay rack panels, $191 / 4$ ". Supplied complete in dust cover shielding cabinet of perforated steel with hinged rear door. May be operated on table, or mounted in relay rack.
Power Required: 350 watts at 105 to 125 volts, 50 to 60 cycle A.C.
Accessories Needed: One Bliley crystal and holder (specify frequency), one crystal microphone, and tubes as listed above.
Price net to Amateurs, $\$ 119.70$.
Five Raytheon tubes $\$ 25.23$ net.
Coils, per set of two (one set included, specify if for $20,40,80$ or 160 meter band) $\$ 3.60$.
Meters: None provided except on special order
Send 3 c stamp for new complete catalog describing above items, E.C. Frequency Meters, New Airplane Dials, Relay Racks, R.F. Chokes, Audio, Power and Filter Transformers, and a host of new and interesting amatcur and commercial apparatus.
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# RADIOTORIAL COMMENT 

THE thirty days which hath September were filled with good news about new tubes for the use of amateur transmitters, especially those who are working in the ultra-high frequency bands. There is a new RCA Radiotron of the "Acorn" type which oscillates at all frequencies up to 600 megacycles and which may also be used as an amplifier and detector. Another new ultrahigh frequency tube is the Western Electric 304A. And finally comes word of the remarkable performance of the Farnsworth cold-cathode tube as an oscillator. Early mention of the latter was made in these columns in July with promise of more complete details. These appear elsewhere in this issue.

Such new tubes should be the means for popularizing the ultra-short wavelengths with a great host of amateur transmitters. They offer a practical means for relieving the congestion in the longer wavelengths. Already, many amateurs have equipped their cars with 5 -meter transmitters and receivers for local communication. But it must not be forgotten that the ultra-short waves are not suitable for long distance work, and that other services will soon be clamoring for room therein.

## Politics

IN LAST month's RADIO was a request that the reader express his opinion of this magazine's political platform. The responses have been as many as they were varied. And still they come from all parts of the world. Those in foreign countries tell us that our politics don't interest them because they don't know what we are talking about . . . that our elephants are their mosquitoes. Others ask us to make it our business to see that the entire present clique of amateur radio's do-nothings be replaced by a more aggressive administration. Almost universally, the cry is for more frequencies.

So let's forget about politics and get down
to some fundamental facts. First of all, there's hardly a man in Congress who knows what an amateur is or what he does. Consequently, it should be our business to make Congressmen amateur-minded. We want them to come to our stations . . . we want them to talk to their associates in other states ... we want them to go to Congress with the indelible thought that the amateur is doing something, that he is the backbone of tomorrow's radio . . . and that his interests must be protected and respected.

How to do it? The International Radio Fraternity already seems to have the answer. Forty-one high-power phone stations will chain up for a transcontinental weekly chat, and Congressmen will be invited to come right into these stations and see, hear, talk and think amateur radio. Complete details are promised for the next issue.

## High-vs-Low Power

PROPOSALS for a 100 -watt power limitation for amateur transmitters arise from the simple fact that the amateurs do not have sufficient room in which to operate. Rather than to self-restrict themselves to any further extent, doesn't it seem more wise to ask for a power increase . . . to 5 kilowatts . . . and go about getting more space in which to operate, so that any amateur, no matter if he uses a watt or a kilowatt, can operate to his heart's content? Why not crowd some of those unprofitable "frequency holding" signals into a narrower band, make more room for the amateur and give the high-power men a restricted band of their own, in which they can operate without molestation from the lower-power stations? Surely, something can be done about it. Let the high-power man first prove that he is worthy to enter a sacred spectrum, let him prove it by Federal examination, and let us put a chain of stations on the air that will be as dependable and as reliable to Uncle Sam in times of emergency as any commercially-owned system.

The low-power men don't like to be bust-ed-up by those with high power. And who can say that this great majority of low-power users is not entitled to a voice? In the interests of public convenience and necessity, there is a place on the air where high-power men can operate to their heart's content, by special license, by possessing the required knowledge and experience to permit them to enjoy the special privilege-and it can be done if the amateurs will fight for what they need. When the highways became overcrowded the drivers of autos were not compelled to stay at home; they secured the necessary legislation to widen the highways. So it is with amateur radio. If there isn't enough room in the present bands to permit both high and low power stations to operate without falling all over each other's signals, then it is high time that something is done about it. There can be but one answer . . . not power restriction, but WIDER BANDS. If the amateurs voluntarily impose further restrictions upon themselves the time will soon come when they will have no bands at all left in which to work. A word to the wise should be sufficient here.
To this magazine has come a suggestion that the newicomer be restricted to the 80 and 160 meter bands for a period of one year before he is given the privilege to operate in the 40 and 20 meter bands, and that he be re-examined and re-licensed to prove his skill before he enters the higher-frequency spectrum. The CW portion of the 160 meter band is woefully void of signals, as every amateur knows. Statistical data and a comprehensive set of charts will be shown in November "RADIO" giving the facts as to what portions of the bands are used during the various periods of the day and night, and what the amateur must do if he intends to retain the ilmost unused CW portion 'way up there on 160 . If the amateurs don't make use of that portion of the band, it will very soon be taken away from them. Others are clamoring for the space. The police want it, the air-minded interests want it, others want it. To the man who knows nothing about radio, and it seems to be he who tells the amateur what he can and can not do, a cruise across the CW portion of the 160 -meter band will arouse in him the desire to hang a To Let sign on that wideopen space-or he may do as the squatter does. Then try to oust him!

## $\star$

## Farnsworth's

## Cold-Cathode

Electron Multiplier

## Tube Uses

Neither Grid Nor

# Filament 

By ARTHUR H. HALLORAN



Ralph M. Heintz (center) explains the operation of the Farnsworth Cold Cathode Tube to Bernard H. Linden (left), U. S. Radio Inspector, and Donald Lippincott (right), director of Television Laboratories, Inc.

THINK of a vacuum tube without filament or grid, thus requiring neither an A nor a C battery, which generates high-frequency oscillations! This is what P . T. Farnsworth, the television genius, accomplishes with the cold-cathode tube which he originally devcloped as a current-amplifier for use with his cathode-ray pickup tube. It it also an exceedingly efficient detector and modulator.
Its first public use as an oscillator was in a radio circuit whereby communication was maintained between San Francisco and Honolulu and between San Francisco and New York on September 13, 1934, over the Globe Wireless 35 -meter channel. In this test, with 30 milliamperes at 1100 volts on the anode, the tube drove a pair of 150 -watt tubes in the final amplifier of a transmitter at the


The Electron Multiplier as a high-frequency selfexcited oscillator.

Heintz \& Kaufmann factory in South SanFrancisco. The signals were received at both Honolulu and New York, and were reported as R9 by a ship 500 miles west of Honolulu. Wilkens of Dunedin, New Zealand, also heard the transmissions.
Previous laboratory tests proved that the tube is capable of generating oscillations of any desired frequency throughout the range from 200 kilocycles to 60 megacycles, these limits being set only by the dimensions of the available tuned circuits. An undistorted output of 25 watts was obtained from an input of 25 watts.

## As an Amplifier

THE performance of this new type of tube depends upon the emission of secondary electrons from two cathodes which are bombarded with high-velocity primary electrons. The cathodes are coated with caesium silver oxide to enhance secondary emission. They, together with a central ring anode, are assembled in an evacuated glass tube. The tube is placed within a solenoid which is supplied with direct current so as to maintain an intense magnetic field throughout the length of the tube. When used as an amplifier, a high frequency voltage is applied to the cathode terminals and a D.C. voltage is applied to the anode terminal to hold it at a positive potential with respect to the cathodes, which are shunted by a coil and variable condenser in parallel. The shunt circuit is tuned so as to be in resonance for the applied high frequency voltage.

When the DC voltage is applied to the anode terminal, any free electrons in the inter-electrode space would immediately be drawn to the anode were it not that the longitudinal magnetic field neutralizes the transverse electrostatic field from the anode and
were it not for the high-frequency electrostatic field which draws them to the alternately positively charged cathodes. The strength of these several fields can be adjusted to allow an electron to be shuttled back and forth in a zig-zag path between the


Oscillator circuit for cold cathode tube.
cathodes any desired number of times before it is finally drawn out of circulation at the anode.

Each time that a high velocity electron strikes a cathode it causes the emission of from 2 to 8 secondary electrons, the number of secondaries depending upon the velocity of the impacting electron, and thus (Continued on page 14)

# Further Comments on the Banehawk 

By CLAYTON F. BANE

ACONSIDERABLE number of those who have built the Banehawk frontend have attempted to do their testing by hooking it up as a T.R.F. unit. We mentioned previously that such operation was entirely feasible, but perhaps we did not sufficiently stress the importance of certain necessary changes. It should be remembered that the front-end, as described, was designed to operate as the RF, oscillator and mixer portions of a superheterodyne, and not as a separate oscillator, TRF set. The stipulations for proper operation of one or the other are entirely different.

Whether working as an autodyne or a superheterodyne receiver, the RF stage will remain substantially the same. The regenerative feature gives added gain and some measure of added selectivity, in either case. It is in the detector circuit that the trouble arises. It is certain that none will question the advantages of the power detector over the grid-leak type for the mixer stage in a superheterodyne. Remember, however, that even an excellent power detector with bias adjustment set to the optimum value will not give a gain higher than 10 or 15 . Contrast this with the relatively enormous gain of several thousand, obtainable from a regenerative, grid-leak type detector, and there you have the reason why the original frontend does not have as much volume as a TRF set. The Banehawk was designed to work as the front-end of a super, and not as a TRF.

It might be very desirable, for a number of reasons, to operate the unit as a TRF. In this case some minor changes are necessary. Fig. 1 shows a TRF diagram. It will be seen that no radical changes are necessary.

For some unaccountable reason, many of those who tried this TRF idea on their Banehawks overlooked some simple but important points. Who would ever think of hooking-
up an autodyne detector without an RF choke in the plate lead? On the other hand, no one would think of hooking a pair of 8000 ohm phones in the plate circuit of a screen-grid detector. But some have done it. If the circuit as shown is followed, the builder should be entirely satisfied.
One common trouble in Banehawks lies in failure to observe the correct polarities of the windings on the detector grid coil. Remember that both the detector grid winding and the RF plate winding are wound in the same direction, also that the lead of the RF winding nearest the grid end of the detector coil goes to the plate. If this polarity is not observed the results will be miserable, with no apparent cure. It is very easy to get these leads mixed when digging into the insides of the coil form and thus it is always well to check up, then come back later and make certain.

If the RF stage refuses to regenerate, look to the polarity and direction of winding on the cathode coil. This coil should be wound in the same direction as the grid coil, with the top of the winding (that nearest the ground end of the grid coil), going to cathode. If this is correct and still no regeneration is secured, measure the screen voltage or move the voltage divider tap on the potentiometer so as to have a greaer latitude of voltage range available across the poentiometer. At the optimum point of regeneration, the voltage (measured at the screen) should be approximately 80 volts. It is possible to obtain regeneration at much lower values of screen potential by increasing the number of cathode coil turns, or by moving this coil closer to the grid winding. In this case the tube will go into oscillation with the screen at a lower potential than is best for optimum gain. Should the stage still fail to regenerate after these precau-


Circuit Diagram for T.R.F. Connection
For Front-End of Banehawk Receiver
C1-Double Section, 100 mmf . per section, Hammarlund variable condenser. C2-75 mmf. trimmer condenser, Hammarlund, C3-. 01 mfd .
C4-. 006 Sangamo mica.
C5-. 1 mfd.
C6-. 0001 Sangamo mica.
C7-9. 00025 mica.
C8-9-100 mmf. variable condensers, Hammarlund.
$\mathrm{C} 12-.00025 \mathrm{mica}$.
C13-. 5 mfd.
C14-. 02 mfd .

C15-. 1 mfd .
C16-. 0001 mica.
R1-500 ohms.
R2-25,000 ohms.
R3- 500 ohms.
R4-50,000 ohm variable. Centralab. R5- 25,000 ohm, slider type voltage divider. Ohmite.
R6-1 megohm
R7-200,000 ohm, carbon type.
R8-50,000 ohm, carbon type.
R9- 500,000 ohm variable. Centralab.
R10- 2000 ohm, 1 watt.
RFC-Hammarlund, short wave radio frequency
Sce "RADIO" for March, 1934, for coil data.
tions have been taken, the one remaining trouble is the possibility of too-close antenna coupling. If the coupling is too close, exactly the same condition exists as in any autodyne detector with the antenna coupling jammed up tight . . . no oscillation. If the reverse is true, and the stage breaks into violent oscillation with possible attendant howl, the condition can be remedied by either tightening-up the antenna coupling or lowering the voltage divider tap on the screen so that the stage, with the regeneration control full-up, will just reach the verge of oscillation.
In lining-up the front-end in conjunction with the IF, it is well to realize that the tracking of the RF and mixer stages is rather critical, more so that the usual front-end, due to the fact that the regeneration sharpensup the RF stage considerably, and therefore the lining-up must be done carefully if the full potentialities are to be realized. One simple procedure for lining would be as follows: Tune in some signal with the oscillator and bring the signal strength up to the best possible value by tuning the RFDetector gang condenser. If the trimmer is now rotated very slowly, meanwhile moving the RF-Detector dial rapidly back and forth over three or four degrees, a very definite point will be found on the trimmer where the signal strength increases tremendously. The stages are now in line, or very nearly so. An output meter would give an absolute check. Failure to find the optimum point means simply that turns must be added to, or removed until the stages come into line. Usually the position of the trimmer where the loudest signal is heard will show whether more or less turns are needed.
If it is found that the loudest signal is heard with the trimmer at minimum capacity, obviously a turn or two must be removed.

## Crystal Filter

It will be recalled that we stated that an impedance step-down ratio of 30 to 1 was necessary for proper impedance matching of the usual 465 crystal. Please note that we said impedance ratio, not turns ratio! The impedance varies as the square of the number of turns; in this case a 30 -to- 1 impedance ratio would represent the square root of 30 , or roughly 5.47 turns ratio. To show what happens when using the impedance ratio instead of the turns ratio, let us give an example: If an IF coil had, let us say, 225 turns, then according to the impedance ratio, the secondary should only have about 7 turns! The step-down ratio should be 5.47 , or roughly 5 -to- 1 , making a total of 45 turns on the secondary. Since the original step-down ratio was based on the assumption of certain values of impedance of the resonant circuit and the crystal, it is entirely possible that further experimentation with the turns ratio might prove advantageous.
The numerous requests for a good A.V.C. for the Banehawk must go unanswered until we work out a system that suffers from fewer evils than those commonly advocated. If you must have A.V.C., a diode second detector is an easy, but none too satisfactory answer. More on this subject at a later date.
To the hundreds of readers who have written for the promised pamphlet on the Banehawk we offer our apologies for the delay. We promised the pamphlet, and we will have it ready soon.

R. G. Martin, Manager of KUP

SPARKS is the familiar nickname of the radio operator who sails the seven seas It originated from the crash and crackling of the once-famous spark gap, now sinking into oblivion. But the name 'Sparks' will proabbly stay with the radio operator forever.
We scan the ocean with imaginary eyes, peer into the radio room of a slow tramp freighter, a sleek racing passenger liner, or an inter-island schooner and we find "Sparks" in his shirt sleeves, phones on his head or hung around his neck, twiddling the dials of his receiver at the zero hour for his few pages of press. Some vessels require from two to six sheets of press daily, others only one to two pages. The slow freighter needs only a page or so of press because the crew is small. But for passenger liners, carrying from two hundred to five hundred passengers, more press is necessary. A miniature newspaper is printed aboard ship daily. "Sparks" is always ready for his daily reception of press. If conditions are bad he loosens his collar, opens an extra pack of ciragettes and prepares for a strenuous job. But if conditions are good and when signals are booming through, ah!-it is a real pleasure to pound the mill and copy some fifteen to eighteen hundred words of press. No vessel is seldom out of reach of press.

We pause aboard the S.S. Mariposa, southbound from San Francisco to Sydney, Australia. The eight o'clock TR is about 4000 miles south of San Francisco. The second operator is lining up his receiver for the 0900 GCT press. Right on the nose at 0900 ( $1: 00 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m} . \mathrm{PST}$ ) he hears the 240 -cycle or 360 -cycle note pounding through announcing the day's press dispatches from KUP, the Mobile Press Station of the San Francisco "Examiner." The operator pounds the mill,

Flash San Francisco, Cal.-The Inter, national Longshoremen's Association an nounces continuation of strike . . . Washing, ton, D. C.-President Roosevelr's signature re, quired on War Debt agreements . . Chicago, Ill.-One of the worst droughts in history is being experienced throughout Middle West

San Francisco, Cal.-Jimmy Rolph Jr., Governor of California, dies . . West Point, N. $\mathfrak{Y}$.-Two hundred fifty cadets graduate

Washington, D. C.-Silver Bill becomes part of Constitution . . Rome, Italy-Mus, solini urges greater air force . . . London, Eng.-England declares she will default next

# HOW PRESS IS SENT 

## R. G. MARTIN of "KUP" Takes You Behind the Scenes of a Newspaper "PX' Station

installment war debt . . . Shanghai, ChinaThree thousand bandits captured after fleeing with U. S. Missionary .. Asbury Park, N. J. -Primo Carnera listed favorite to win over Max Baer, challenger, June fourteenth Baseball scores, etc.
And for an hour the operator pounds out his press for the day in order that his shipmates may know what is going on in the outside world. Perhaps you can call him a reporter as well as an editor of the ship's newspaper; nevertheless he's the man who supplies the news to the passengers and crew.
Let us wander to the source of these press transmissions. We stop before a tall skyscraper in the heart of San Francisco's business district. Here is the metropolitan newsPaper of the Pacific coast, the San Francisco "Examiner." On the sixth floor of the Annex we find KUP, busy with transmission of news flashes. The operator is punching a tape perforator. The news is taken directly from dispatches received from the editorial rooms. Each bulletin is timed after each transmission.
We leave the operating room and steal into the transmitter room. Here we see the 1.5 KW DeForest transmitter. It is a wellgroomed piece of apparatus. The front panels hold the twenty-one meters, ten tuning controls, and three circuit control switches with the red and green pilot lights.

The transmitter is six feet six inches high, six feet long and three and a half feet deep. It is divided into three panels, amplifier, exciter and power supply.
The oscillator is crystal controlled. An oven, which is kept at constant temperature by thermostatic control, accommodates ten crystals and is maintained at a temperature of 50 degrees Centigrade. A 210 triode is employed in the oscillator at the present time, but a 247 pentode will be substituted, because the grid current across the crystal will be considerably lowered, thus improving the stability. The output of the oscillator is


Relief Operator George Conklin (CN) and the Receiving Line-up at KUP
circuit of the 861 "exciter" stage employs split inductances, enabling balanced excitation to be supplied to each grid of the final tubes. There is nothing unusual in the transmitter's final amplifier. The antenna coupling is clipped on the cold ends of the tanks, coupled to the feeders through .004 condensers.

The power panel contains practically all of the voltage supplies, with the exception of filament transformers. The crystal power supply is a full-wave rectifier unit delivering approximately 750 volts. This is well filtered and has a voltage divider across the output in order also to obtain the plate voltage for the 865 buffer stage. The grid bias voltage supply (base) is obtained from the same type of a full-wave rectifier unit delivering 750 volts. A voltage divider is also connected across the output and additional bias is obtained through series resistors. The main power supply voltages are supplied from a 7.5-KVA 220 -volt three-phase transformer, employing six 872As as rectifiers. This power supply can be varied in three steps, low power, 2000 volts; medium power, 3000 volts; high power, 5000 volts. Screen voltages for the larger tubes are obtained from this power supply. The 7.5 -KVA transformer weighs approximately 500 pounds, the choke weighs 100 pounds, and the filter condensers weigh approximately 50 to 60 pounds each. The primary circuit (high voltage unit) containn overload (AC) relays and the secondary (DC) also has an overload relay to protect all circuits. In case of short circuits, or if excessive plate loads are drawn, the circuit breakers kick out. All overload relays can be reset from the front of the panel after the overload has been corercted. All doors and panels in the transmitter have safety switches.
The transmitter was originally keyed in the first 860 grid circuit, "blocked grid keying," as it is commonly called. This system was discarded in favor of vacuum tube keying in the filament center-tap of the same stage. Since the plate current of that particular stage does not exceed fifty milliamperes a W.E. 211 E is used as the keying tube. A type ' 45 was also found satisfactory. When this tube has sufficient grid bias it will not pass current, but when the key is closed, shorting out the grid bias, current passes in the stage which is being keyed. A low mu tube, one with exceedingly low internal resistance, should be used in a tube
keying purposes, although a number of them should be connected in parallel if the keyed stage draws heavy current. Further tests with vacuum tube keying circuits are now being made. The results will be printed in RADIO in the near future.

Now let's climb the stairs and go on the
roof to inspect the antenna systems. Nearly three hundred feet high hang KUP's main antennas. The high end is suspended from an 85 -foot mast on top of the fifteenth story of the Hearst Building and the lower end is supported from a 65 -foot mast on top of the seventh story of the Call-Bulletin Building. Two half-wave voltage fed matched impedance antenna systems are supported in this 500 -foot span. The feeders run along the top of the building to a frame rack on the edge of the roof directly above the transmitter, and terminate in the transmitting room. A few receiving doublet antennas dot the roof.

Back to the radio room. On the right as you enter the door is the tape perforator, tape transmitter head and polarized relay. On the west side of the room the receivers are situated, along with the controls, keys, etc. A $75-1000 \mathrm{KC}$ receiver, LSR-101, is kept in readiness for any emergency. Two National jobs are used on high frequencies.

KUP took its bow seven years ago, licensed to operate as 6ARD and in the amateur bands. Fred G. Roebuck, an old-timer to the commercial brass pounders, with the aid of Mr. George Hearst, founded 6ARD. A 500 -watt self-excited transmitter built by
keying circuit. The 45 s are good tubes for


SIMPLIFIED VACUUM TUBE KEYING SYSTEM
An Ideal System for Keying an Amateur Transmitter. KUP uses this identical method with the exception than a 2 IIE tube is used in place of a ' 45.

| XA | 7:00 p.m. | (0300GCT) | Pres | 6440 KC | 1500-1800 words |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XB | 8:00 p.m. | (0400GCT) | Weather Bulletin | 40 K | 350-500 words |
| XC | 9:30 p.m. | (0530GCT) | Special Press Bulletin | . 6440 KC | $500-1000$ words |
| XD | 1:00 a.m | (0900GCT) | Press-Stocks Bulletin | . 6440 KC | $1500-1800$ wor |



BIAS BATTERY a

During the seven years of service, KUP has transmitted approximately $21,000,000$ words of press, weather, and stock bulletins, not to mention the many special broadcasts, such as popular boxing bouts, world baseball series, and other events of interest.

At the present time the following schedules are transmitted daily, with the exception of Sundays and major holidays:

The following frequencies are assigned to KUP: 6440, 6230, 11340, 16700 and 22225 kilocycles.

Now that we know everything about a press station-let's wander back to the "Mariposa" and enjoy a trip to the South Seas and ask Sparks-"Didja get the press yet?"

Heintz and Kaufman Ltd. was the first transmitter used. This transmitter served faithfully until regulations of the Federal Radio Commission made it necessary to install a crystal-controlled transmitter.

In 1928 the writer came to the station as assistant to Roebuck, later taking over man-


Tape Perforator, Tape Transmitter and Polarized Relay.

ager's duties when Roebuck went with the Dollar company to pioneer their present radio circuits, Globe Wireless.

# The New RCA 955 ½-Meter Tube 

EVER since the ultra-high frequencies became known, research in these bands has been handicapped because the high inter-electrode capacity of conventional tubes effectively prevents them from efficiently oscillating or amplifying in conventional circuits at frequencies higher than approximately 30 MC . The high capacity of conventional tubes from grid to cathode and from plate to cathode makes it impossible to use Low-C grid and plate circuits and therefore the resonant voltage which could be applied to the tube is limited. In other words, this high capacity acts as an effective by-pass condenser which, to all intents and purposes, short-circuits the input and the output of the tube.
Under the direction of Mr. B. J. Thompson of the Research Laboratories of R.C.A. Radiotron Co., Inc., experiments were conducted with tubes specifically designed for use at the ultra-high frequencies. It was discovered that if all the physical dimensions of a conventional vacuum tube are proportionately reduced, the inter-electrode capacities can be tremendolsly reduced without causing an appreciable change in the electrical characteristics of the tube itself. The new RCA 955 is approximately the size of an acorn and, figuratively speaking, a microscope is needed to find the elements in the tube. In spite of its small size, the tube has a low plate resistance, 12,500 ohms, and a high amplifica tion factor of 25 with the resulting high mutual conductance of 2,000 micromhos. Mutual conductance is a fairly-accurate yardstick of tube performance, and regardless of the compromises which have been made to enable this tube to operate as a regenerative oscillator at a wavelength of only 20 inches, the mutual conductance is higher than any of the conventional general purpose triodes, such as the 56 and 76 .
In order to keep the capacities low, no base is used on this tube. The leads to the grid


Plan view of transmitter.
plate and indirectly-heated 6.3 volt cathode come directly out of the glass envelope, and are widely separated. No attempt should be made to solder to these wires because soldering usually results in breaking the glass envelope.
With very low internal capacities and excellent characteristics, this tube will come into prominence for 5 meter work, although it is in the high frequency field that such a tube will really prove its merit. Although a number of the present tubes will oscillate at around 2 or 3 meters, the 955 , to the best of our knowledge, is the only tube that will operate in the conventional manner as low as $1 / 2$ meter.

With the B-K type of oscillator used by many experimenters for operation at frequencies below one meter, a number of difficulties limit the effectiveness of such oscillators. In the B-K circuit the grid must run positive, while the plate is negative. The

[^0]By CLAYTON F. BANE

power input to the tube is consequently greatly limited by the low heat dissipation of the average grid. With these limitations in mind it is easy to see why the conventional
left in the tank. It is safe to predict that the little tube will work nicely in the conventional Jones Self-Quencing circuit.
None of the troubles due to instability of oscillation were encountered. If this lack of crankiness is carried over to the super-regenerative receivers for ultra-high frequen-


Showing minute size of the new RCA 955.
type of oscillator is much to be preferred.
Using the little transmitter shown in the illustration, the 955 was given its first test. The extremely small size eclipsed anything in our previous experience, so we did not look forward to a great deal in the way of performance. However, the tube proved to be a very stable, vigorous oscillator. Calling on previous experience, we considered the number of turns in the tank and reached for the frequency meter which covered a range up to 60 megacycles. No deflection on the frequency meter galvanometer was visible, although the galvanometer coupled to the tank was showing a strong indication. The use of lecher wires was finally considered to determine the exact frequency of oscillation. We found that we were on 2 meters! Subsequent experiments showed that 1 meter was easily achieved, with a number of turns still
cies, it is reasonable to expect that records for two-way communication on low power will soon fall.

Here are some of the characteristics of the 955:
Heater voltage........................................ 6.3 volts
Heater current ..................................... 0.16 amp .
Max. plate voltage............................................. 180 volts
Grid voltage........................................-5 -5 volts
Max. plate current................................. 4.5 MA
Mutual conductance................ 2000 micromhos Amplification factor $\qquad$
Plate resistance.......................................................... ohms
We understand that these tubes will soon be available through RCA-De Forest distributors for amateur and experimental use, but it should be emphasized that the tubes have been developed solely for the experimenter and are not to be considered as an addition to the standard line of receiving tubes.

RCA 955-CIRCUIT DIAGRAM AND SUGGESTED LAYOUT

## LI-8 turns, $1 / 2$-in. outside di-

 ameter, No. 18 wire, spaced $1 / 4$-in. between turns.CI-Tuning condenser: 2 circular brass plates, $3 / 4-\mathrm{in}$. in diameter; $10 / 32$ thread on adjusting screws.
C2-. 00025 mica condenser, postage stamp type.
RI-15,000 ohms, I watt carbon resistor.
RFC-1/4-in. bakelite rod wound I $1 / 2$-in. with No. 32 DCC wire.


Circuit diagram of transmitter using RCA 955 tube.



## The Resonant Filter

 Simplifies High-Power ProblemsBy CHAS. PERRINE, JR.*

NOT yet a year old, the resonant filter is already in use at a number of amateur stations but its advantages are not generally known.

Fig. 1 shows the complete circuit of a typical resonant filter as it would be connected to a two-tube, full-wave rectifier. $\mathrm{Cl}_{1}$ is the main filter condenser and should be rated, as is usual practice, at 1.4 times the RMS voltage delivered by the plate transformer, each side of the center-tap. $L$ is the resonant choke, the "heart" of the whole affair, which forms a series resonant circuit with Cl across the rectifier output. C 2 is a small condenser of about one-fourth the voltage rating of $\mathrm{Cl}_{1}$; it serves to iron out undesirable effects caused by harmonics developed across $L$.

This circuit increases the effectiveness of the condenser C1 several times. For example, one mfd. at C 1 will filter a 2000 to 5000 volt, 500 watt load to near pure DC, while two mfds. easily handles a full kilowatt at the same voltages. Two mfds. will also take care of 500 -watt loads down to 1000 volts. The filtering action of smaller loads will be even better. Compare the cost of such a setup with the ordinary brute force filter using two filter condensers and a much larger ( 30 H .) filter choke which must pass the full plate current. The photograph strikingly shows the small size of a typical resonant choke, capable of handling I KW.

The resonant choke is truly the heart of the filter, and too much care cannot be taken in selecting a suitable choke. Chokes designed for this work are, of course, best, although quite often a suitable winding can be found in the form of the primary on an old 110 -volt power transformer ( 100 to 200 watt), or some low-inductance choke. The value of the inductance should be such that the choke resonates with C to twice (1)* the ripple frequency ( 200 cycles in the case of 50 cycle power), and since the resonance peak is broad, the values to be given apply equally well to 60 -cycle supplies. The inductance required for a 1 mfd . condenser is about .70 henry, and .33 henry for 2 mfd . Since it is almost impossible to know the true inductance (2)* of a choke without measurement, the best choke must be found by experiment. The DC resistance must be low, preferably less than 10 ohms. The current rating should be $500-100$ M.A. No air gap is required because only AC flows in the choke.

It is well to repeat that C 2 is very important for good results. If it is not used, the higher harmonics in the filter output will cause a serious $A C$ modulation of the signal, which sounds like a low-pitched buzz superimposed on a pure DC carrier. The exact value of C 2 depends on the remainder of the filter constants and varies somewhat with the load. On the average it will be about 1 mfd ., varying from $1 / 2$, to 2 mfd . in certain cases.

An input choke cannot be used with the resonant filter because it seems to destroy
Co. Amateur Equipment Engìneer, Audio Products
the resonant action. Hence the filter is essentially a capacity input filter, and if mercury vapor tubes are used the average load current should never exceed one-third the peak current rating of the rectifiers. But in these days of high voltage and low current operation, this limitation is not serious. In fact, it is advantageous in that it steps up the voltage just as much as the condenser alone does.

Now for the various applications of a resonant filter. If the filter is used alone, it will produce a two- or three-hundred cycle modulation of very low percentage (usually

fig. 1 - complete circuit
about 5 per cent). The signal in such cases will sound very much like filtered threephase and is suitable (3)* for CW men who desire a little tone in the note. For fone and PDC CW men, the same resonant filter can be used with the addition of one or two mfds. across the output. Such a combination smooths the 200 -cycle ripple left by the resonant part of the filter. In other words, the resonant part gets rid of practically all of the fundamental ripple, leaving only overtones which are easily taken care of by the output condenser. Even the resonant filter alone can give 98 per cent pure DC if properly designed-in many cases additional filter is not required.

Many have doubtless heard some of the various types of resonant filter notes on the air. What the performance of some of these might look like is shown by the curves in Fig. 2. These curves were taken on an oscillograph while in the process of developing a special resonant choke. The load was 300 ma . at 2000 volts. A 2 mfd . main filter condenser was used. Curve No. 1 in " $A$ " is the output with the condenser alone, and shows a strong ripple. No. 2 was taken with the primary of a 100 -watt transformer in series with the main condenser, C2 being left out. The smoothing is good, but the sharp Vs represent the AC buzz which is present when C2 is not used. Curve " B " shows the result when $3 / 4 \mathrm{mfd}$. is placed across the winding; the buzz is gone, but so is the smoothing action. Curve "C" shows the output using a special choke, C2 remaining at $3 / 4 \mathrm{mfd}$. The fundamental ripple is almost gone, and the remaining 200 -cycle ripple is very pure in quality, as denoted by the wellrounded peaks. And last of all, "D" shows the result of connecting 2 mfd . across the output shown in "C"- 99 per cent pure DC.

So "much for the results obtained with the resonant filter. If you have any questions, the writer will be glad to hear from you.

The filter has been thoroughly tested at a number of amateur stations. Its use has even been considered by local BC engineers for microphone pre-amplifier power supplies because of the saving in weight. A large 2 mfd . and a small 1 mfd . condenser, plus a $1 / 3$ henry choke, are all that is required. If the all-important resonant choke is of the cor-


C



FIG. 2
see text for explanation of curves
rect value, the results will surprise you. No matter what your present filter may be, a resonant filter section will vastly improve your note-and for the fellows who want that 4500 volts, here is a very cheap way to filter it.
(1) Contraty to previous opinions, the filter has little effect when tuned to the fundamental 100 cycle ripple. But when tuned to the second harmonic. it
smooths the note by filling in the valleys with an smooths the note by filling in the valleys with an
extra bump, so to speak, and producing a 200 cycle ripple of greatly reduced amplitude.
(2) Ordinary chokes have been known to vary as much as 400 per cent from rated inductance.
(3), Unofficially, this filter has been judged "ade, quate" by representatives of the FCC.
EDITOR'S NOTE: In some cases, the modulation caused by a resonant filter may be objectionable. It is advisable to use at least a one microfarad condenser across the output of all such filters. As the author states, this small capacity is enough to change the note to a shrill, piercing DC.

## W6CTT Code Tests

W6CTT is now in its third year of volunteer code transmission. The rig has been rebuilt with 511 in final, grid-bias mdoulated. Link coupling is now being installed. A microphone in front of speaker from audio oscillator picks up the code signals. Texts from printed manuals are used. Lawrence Rauch, W6JVT, is code instructor. L. C. Barnes, W6CWX, installed the grid modulaC. Barnes, W6CWX, installed the grid modulation, as supervising engineer. Bud Per
tion manager. G. H. Seward, licensee.
tion manager. G. H. Seward, licensee.
Transmissions are on Friday evenings, 7:00 to 8:00 p.m., 1900 KC radiophone. At 7:30 a secret message is sent, which is printed in the newspapers the following day. At $7: 45$ an educational feature is given, usually some theory or interview with an invited guest or visitor. Contact is always made with some other station for monitoring purposes, QRN, etc. Checks are made each 15 minutes and reports secured.
Listeners are registered and assigned numbers with district prefix, e.g., W6-516. Over 500 are on the register in which is noted the age and telephone number. A certificate of membership and a copy of a new "Short-Wave Magazine" is given. The organization is known as the Amateur Short-Wave Laague-"The Air Audience."

## The New 2B6 Tube

THE new 2B6 is a super triode that combines the merits of other output tubes without their disadvantages; yet possesses greater flexibility in circuit applications. The tube provides Class A triode quality of reproduction most economically because of its higher power output, greater sensitivity, and lower power consumption. The 2B6 may be used singly or in push-pull at low or medium current operation. The tube requires no costly fixed-bias voltages or good power pack regulation. It has a high input impedance even under overload conditions, making resistance couple push-pull or phase inverter input stage practical. The tube has a unity match between its impedance and the output transformer. Explanation and application of these advantages follow:

## Fundamental Explanation

THE new 2B6 embodies two sets of triode elements mounted in tandem, using a common heater but electrically separated cathodes. An examination of Fig. 1 will show the simplicity of the tube and circuit. In this diagram, the left hand set of triode elements represents the small input; and the right hand set the large output. The voltage across $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ determines the bias for the input grid. Since the second grid is internally tied to the input cathode, the drop in $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{o}}$ would put this grid at a high positive bias with respect to its cathode. This is nearly offset by the drop in $\mathrm{R}_{1}$. Thus, the output grid bias is the difference between these two voltages. This bias is normally 2.5 volts positive with respect to its cathode. Therefore, the grid conductance is appreciable, causing the input plate current to divide, part flowing through the output grid resistance and part through $\mathrm{R}_{0}$. Consequently, the current for determining the input grid bias should be measured between the input cathode and $\mathrm{R}_{0}$, not between input plate and $\mathrm{B}-$. The average DC current through this resistor is 3.0 MA. This resistor also forms part of the input section's load resistance, so it must not be shunted by capacitance. The complete load is the parallel combination of $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ and the grid impedance of the output section. Degeneration in resistor $R_{1}$ is prevented by capacitor $\mathrm{C}_{1}$.

The high efficiency of the 2B6 is obtained by a new principle. The large triode section delivers the output power. It operates at nearly the mid-point of its eg-ip characteristic. The entire characteristic is utilizedthat is, not only the usual negative half where the plate current swings between zero grid bias and plate current cut-off, but also, the positive half, making the swing just twice as great. Since the grid draws current when the signal excursion travels in the positive region, the grid must be driven during that part of the cycle. The input section performs this duty and also provides a high input impedance as its grid does not draw current. Hence, no input power is required. The compensating theory of the input section for developing a signal voltage across the gridcathode of the output section, independent of the variations in the grid impedance of this output section, has been published ${ }^{1}$, and therefore, will not be treated here. Summarizing, however, the characteristics of the first section are arranged so that the internal impedance varies with the amplitude of the signal, during the positive half of the cycle, to maintain a constant ratio between this impedance and the output load of the first section. Hence, the voltage developed across this load is not influenced by changes in the load's value. In other words, the voltage impressed across the input of the second
section is not affected by variations in the grid impedance of this section.

Now it should be evident that the tube cannot be driven extraneously as in Class B or so-called Prime A since the input section actually accomplishes this action by driving the power grid.
The 2B6 is absolutely stable as the circuit functions are free of regeneration and since no reaction exists in the coupling of the two sections, there is no phase displacement. The steady-state power consumed by the tube is

## TRIAD TYPE 2B6-Technical Data


in excess of that taken under maximum excitation. Thus, there are no complications in the power pack, and its design principles may be the same as used with any Class A system. A high DC resistance may be used in the grid circuit as the transconductance of this section is relatively low, and its physical size helps to minimize residual grid emission or gas current. The use of a high grid resistance is often advantageous as its shunting effect on the plate load resistor of the preceding stage is lessened.

## Output Speaker Load

THE unity match between the internal plate impedance and the speaker load largely explains the improved rendition of the 2B6 over Class B and Pentode. The optimum load for maximum power and the optimum for minimum distortion are the same. This value almost perfectly matches the plate impedance of the tube, rather than the plate impedance being some multiple of the load. Also, the only harmonic that climbs at any appreciable rate with increasing load, is the second. These conditions aid in minimizing the transient response of the speaker, especially when the signal frequency approaches speaker resonance. Then, too, the fall in power with increasing load beyond the optimum value is not as steep as ordinary negative bias triodes. For example, with three times the rated load, the power is down only 1.6 DB . Thus the average speaker, whose impedance varies consider-
ably with frequency will receive more nearly a constant power, regardless of the signal frequency. It has often been noted that the aural frequency response, when compared under similar conditions, is improved over ordinary triodes. The high register is more prominent. This improvement is explained by the load characteristic mentioned above. Also, this condition permits greater flexibility in designing the speaker.

It should be noted that the input grid does not draw current even though a 27 -volt r.m.s. signal (low gain input connection) is required for full output while the grid is only biased to -24 volts. This is possible due to unrestricted degeneration in the input section, making its voltage transfer less than unity. Under these conditions, the AC component of the voltage developed across $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ is approximately 16 volts. Since the input voltage and this developed voltage are in phase with respect to ground, the voltage difference, 11 volts, is the actual alternating potential difference between the grid and cathode ${ }^{2}$. However, the DC potential difference between these two points is 24 volts which is more than adequate to prevent grid current.

The optimum output load for a single 2B6 is 5000 ohms, for push-pull, 10,000 centertapped. These values should be used for best results. However, since the tube's load characteristic is quite flat, some existing speakers may be used with more or less success, providing the speaker can withstand the increased power output and providing the output transformer does not saturate. Such speakers designed for 45 or 50 tube operation, having 4000 ohms for single tube or 8000 for push-pull, may do. Speakers for 47 tubes, having 7000 ohms or 14,000 ohms, have also been used with success. A common fault in attempting to economize in the size of an output transformer is to use one whose primary inductance is far too small. This condition often accounts for distorted reproduction at certain frequencies. The transformer may reflect the proper load to the tube at, say, 400 cycles but as the frequency decreases, the impedance falls off rapidly with the consequent steep rise in distortion introduced by the output tube. In nearly all output tubes, distortion rises rapidly if the load decreases much below the recommended value. The effect is 'more noticeable in single tube operation. The rising impedance of the speaker at its resonant period may aid in offsetting the low reflected load, but to use this advantageously, care must be used in both the design of speaker and transformer. In general, if it is necessary to economize on the size of the transformer, it is better to use one that will reflect a greater load at 400 cycles than that recommended so at lower frequencies, the load is still not too low. Exact values cannot be cited here since particular design characteristics are necessary to ascertain the proper values.

Most modern speakers are designed to op-

erate, in addition to matching load conditions, with certain other characteristics of the particular output system and, therefore, in order to obtain ultimate results, the speaker manufacturer should be consulted for individual requirements.

## Single and Push-Pull Circuits

FIG. 1 is the basic circuit for a single tube. The components required are few in number, but the usual by-pass condenser represents an appreciable expense. The circuit in Fig. 2 shows a very satisfac tory method of eliminating this condenser. Here, the voltage drop supplied by $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ in Fig. 1 is obtained from a resistance in the negative leg of the power pack. This arrangement supplies the necessary by-passed voltage without an extra condenser. The frequency characteristic is slightly better than that obtained from the circuit in Fig. 1. The inherent hum of the 2 B 6 is so low that the slightly higher lever introduced by the circuit in Fig. 2 is still a negligible factor.


The 2 B 6 is readily adaptable to push-pull operation, the same as any regular Class A triode. A typical circuit is shown in Fig. 3. A common bias resistor, $R_{1}$, of 270 ohms, capable of continuously dissipating 2 watts, is used for the output sections. Shunting of this resistor by capacitance is not necessary, since the push-pull action prevents the developing of any appreciable alternating voltage across $R_{1}$. Again the voltage drop produced by $R_{1}$ may be supplied in some other manner. Note that each input cathode has its separate 8000 ohm load resistor.


FIG. 3 PUSHPULL 286
Higher Voltage

THE characteristics of the 2B6 are given for standard 250 plate volt operationthat is the voltage between cathode and plate or a supply voltage of 275 . The tube may also be safely operated at higher plate voltages than 250 , providing the plate currents are restricted by correct bias values. When more power output is desired, this flexibility is definitely advantageous. For example, a full clean six watts may be obtained from a single tube or sixteen from a pair in push-pull, when operating with 320 volts between plate to cathode or at a supply voltage of 355 . The current requirement is remarkably low-approximately 50 MA for a single tube and 100 MA for push-pull. Higher plate voltages than 320 are not, recommended except in special over-bias applications where the plate current is held well down.

Recommended values for both 250 and 320 volts operation follow:
$\mathrm{Eb}=275$
$\mathrm{Ep}=250$ (plate to cathode)
$\mathrm{Eb}=355$
$\mathrm{Ep}=320$ (plate to cathode)

Power Output-...................................... Single
Load impedance (Plate to Plate) -.-........................................ 5,000
Resistor- $\mathrm{R}_{0}$
8,000
Voltage across $\mathrm{R}_{0}$.
24
Current through Ro
Resistor- $\mathrm{R}_{1}$
21.6

Voltage across $\mathrm{R}_{1}$
21.6

Current through $\mathrm{R}_{1}$
40
See circuits for location of Resistors.

## Low Current Operation

IN SOME push-pull applications, especially for the sake of economy, it may be advantageous to lower the current consumption. In fact, the total plate current may even be reduced to one-half its original DC value with only about $15 \%$ loss in power output, and of course, some decrease in sensitivity. This is accomplished by using the push-pull over-bias method. Resistance $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ is simply increased until the desired plate current is reached. The value of $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ should remain the same as recommended for normal push-pull operation. For the best results, degeneration caused by the alternating voltage developed across $R_{1}$ which is produced by the somewhat unbalanced currents of an over-bias system, should be suppressed. $R_{1}$ may be simply shunted by suitable capacitance or the bias voltage provided by $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ may be obtained from some other place in the power pack where effective by-pass shunting can be obtained. For a small degree of over-biasing, capacity shunting is unnecessary. The output load impedance is not critical but best performance is obtaired when operating into a higher load. It should be increased from 10,000 ohms to 18,000 (plate to plate), depending upon the degree of over-biasing; at one-half the total current, 18,000 is approximately correct. Good regulation of the power pack is not entirely necessary, since for example, the current increase's only about $10 \%$ from no signal to full signal as measured by a DC meter in series with the center lead of the output transformer.

## Phase Inverters

EXCELLENT results may be obtained by using a phase inverter circuit in place of the usual push-pull input transformer. Since a gradual overload of the 2B6's output section occurs long before in-put-grid current flows, the quick break in quality at high levels commonly experienced with resistance input coupling circuits is eliminated. Such a coupling system is more economical, has better high frequency response, and weighs less, besides eliminating the bother of orienting the transformer. The type 53 tube has sufficient gain and performs admirably well as a phase inverter. A circuit for this operation is shown in Fig. 4. A pair of 56 tubes coupled in an inverter circuit or in resistance push-pull is also recommended.

fig. 4 resistance coupled pushpull

Sensitivity

$\xrightarrow{\square}$$\checkmark$ HE sensitivity of the 2 B 6 , connected as shown in Fig. 1 is between the pentode and the triode. A signal of 27 volts is required for rated output. This represents an actual voltage gain of 5.25 or a power

| Push-Pull | Single | Push-Pull |
| :---: | ---: | :---: |
| 10 | 6 | 16 watts |
| 10,000 | 5,000 | 10,000 ohms |
| 8,000 | 10,000 | 10,000 ohms |
| 24 | 34 | 34 volts |
| 3 | 3.4 | 3.4 MA |
| 270 | 730 | 365 ohms |
| 21.6 | 33.5 | 33.5 volts |
| 80 | 46 | 92 MA |

sensitivity of .074 . Since the advent of high gain detectors, the problem of directly feeding into an output tube having the sensitivity of a 2 B 6 is no longer difficult. Detectors of the 57, 2B7, and 55 type, when operated under optimum conditions with a supply voltage of 250 , will deliver ample output to fully load the 2B6.


In a previous paragraph, it was shown that the voltage transfer of the input section was less than unity. If degeneration in this section is suppressed, the overall sensitivity increases more than twice. The input signal is simply isolated from ground and coupled through a suitable cathode input condenser so that the signal is impressed between grid and cathode rather than grid and ground. This connection is identified as "high-gain". Now, only 11 volts are required for full output. Although this is a considerable improvement in sensitivity, the harmonic content is somewhat higher. Consequently, for ultimate quality it is not recommended, but such operation may be advantageous in small receivers where the speaker or cabinet design is responsible for certain quality limitations rather than the tube. Fig. 5 shows a method of isolating the signal when using an input transformer. The 0.5 meg. resistor simply provides a DC path for the grid return. Figs. 6 and 7 show several methods for resistance coupling. The circuit in Fig. 6 provides the better gain. The output of the detector or pre-stage is developed across resistor $R_{2}$ and arrives at the 2B6's cathode via condenser $C_{2}$. The resistor $R_{3}$ isolates the signal off ground and also functions as a hum filter. Since the detector plate current returns through $\mathrm{R}_{0}$, the current must be sufficiently low as not to be seriously upset the voltage drop across $\mathrm{R}_{0}$. $\mathrm{R}_{0}$ should not be greatly lowered in the attempt to compensate for an appreciable increase in current, otherwise this resistance will become too small to properly provide the cathode load for the input section. Specific values are not given here as particular detector operating conditions would be necessary in each case. The detector cathode is above ground exactly the same as the 2B6's cathode. Consequently, the input to the detector is also above ground. This offers no problem when coupling with the usual intermediate frequency transformer. Circuit in Fig. 7 is limited to coupling with very high plate impedance detectors-that is, the tetrode or pentode type. $R_{2}$ must be
(Continued on Page 32)

# A Resonant-Line Transmitter 

THE conventional 5 -meter transmitter or receiver is limited in several respects by the tube interelectrode capacity. The high-C oscillators, the high-efficiency output tanks, the link-couplers, and other elements so well used on the lower frequencies, are of small help at 56 MC .

It is fortunate, then, that at the frequencies where ordinary lumped tank circuits begin to lose their utility, resonant lines begin to have dimensions within reason. For resonant lines can be used to simulate an inductance, capacity, tank circuit, or what-not. Those interested in the background of the subject


A '53 tube and some No. 12 wire makes an excellent 60 MC Transmitter
would do well to look up the references given below.
In the photo, and in the circuit of Fig. 1 is shown a 5 -meter rig using a ' 53 tube and some No. 12 copper wire and not much else. The simplicity approaches the ultimate, yet the transmitter puts out a more stable signal, and a stronger signal at less plate input than the more usual types. The No. 12 wire is the output tank, the grid coupling condensers, the transmission feed line, and the wavemeter.


In the layout of Fig. 1, the portion of the line to the left of the shorting bridge is the oscillator tank. The grid coupling wires are spaced from and tied to the plate wires by knotted string, fixed in place with a drop of paraffin or rosin. Tuning of the oscillator is done by sliding the shorting bridge. The portion of the line to the right of the bridge is a non-resonant transmission line, properly terminated on the antenna by the usual Yspread, Pickard or Johnson scheme. The transmission line is coupled to the oscillator by the impedance in the shorting bridge.
To check the wavelength, the feeders can be opened up at the antenna and a flashlightlamp bridge slid out along the transmission line, till it lights at maximum. The distance in meters from the oscillator bridge to the lamp bridge is one-half the oscillator wavelength. This, of course, is nothing more than the usual Lecher wire set-up.
If 5 -meter work palls for awhile, and $10-$ meters wants a try, all that is necessary is to slide the oscillator bridge on out the line, and couple up a 10 -meter radiator.
A short-circuited transmission line less than a quarter-wave long presents an inductive reactance at the open end. When connected to a vacuum tube, the electrode capacity in combination with the line inductance forms a

[^1]By G. F. LAMPKIN*

tank circuit. The losses of the tank inductance can be made comparable to or smaller than those of the low frequency tanks.
An open-circuited line less than a quarterwave long has a capacitive reactance. The


The unity-coupled ' 53 tube on 60 MC used for comparison
transmitter arrangement in Fig. 2 uses a line very nearly one-quarter wave long for the grid tank. The open-circuit portion to the left of the grid connections is a capacity, and the shorted portion to the right is an inductance. The effective capacity can be made of the order of 100 to 200 mmfd .-impossible to use in the ordinary lumped condenserand the oscillator performance compares to that of the high-C on lower frequencies. The output is somewhat lower, and the note is more stable. The oscillations persist over only a small range of the plate line tuning.

In using the quarter-wave line as a high-C grid tank, sometimes inductive coupling exists to the plate tank, and the performance can be improved by reversing the grid connections. The grids should be tied in about 5 or $10 \%$ of the conductor length from the shorted end.

A point which perhaps should be brought out is that a high-Q circuit does not necessarily make a stable oscillator. By $Q$ is meant the usual definition, $w L / R$. Assume a tank circuit is at hand with a $Q$ of infinityi.e., its resistance is zero. Even though this be in the grid circuit of an oscillator tube, the frequency would still hop around as long as the effective tube input capacity varied. What is more important, as regards frequency stability, is the arrangement of the frequency determining circuit, in order that tube capacity shall have small effect. In a parallel tuned circuit, the tank capacity must be large -such as in the high-C method; or, in a series tuned circuit, the tank capacity must be small -as in the equivalent circuit of a quartz crystal.

A long resonant line is an excellent means of stabilizing ultra-high frequqency oscillators. Any shorted line less than an odd and more than an even quarter-wavelength long presents inductive reactance at the open end, and will form an oscillator tank against the grid capacity. Imagine a very long line used in the grid tank. If the tube capacity tries to create a frequency change of, say, $.01 \%$, each quarter-wavelength along the line would have to change $.01 \%$, and would shift the last quarter-wave the total accumulated

fig. 2-a high e 5 meter oscillator
difference. As a result, only a very slight frequency shift will make large changes in the line input reactance, which will offset the tube variation. RCA used a 10 -wavelength line on a $40-\mathrm{KW}$ oscillator with average measured frequency stability as good as with crystal.

Actual full-size long line control for the amateur is hardly practical. However, even a $1-1 / 8$ wavelength ( 225 inches of No. 12 spaced $\frac{5}{18}$-inch with Isolantite beads and string) grid tank on a 5 -meter modulated oscillator gave noticeable improvement. Where other carriers, as received weakly on an autodyne detector, would completely disappear under modulation, the line-controlled carrier did not wobble more than 10 KC , roughtly.


Fixed tune high-C oscillator with tuned-line plate tank

These paragraphs are given mainly as something to break the ice. It should not take much amateur experimenting to develop some very practical methods with resonant lines.

## Reprerences:

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2. A New Type of Ultra Short Wave Oscillator, J. E. Mouromtseff and H. V. Noble. Proc. I. R. E., v. 20, Aug. 1932, p. 1328.
3. Resonant Lines in Radio Circuits, Frederick Emmons Terman, Electrical Engineering, v. 53, No. 7, July 1934.

## Farnsworth Cold Cathode Tube

(Continued from page 6)
upon the amplitude of the voltage applied to the cathodes. Each emitted secondary likewise causes the emission of more secondaries, so that the process is rapidly cumulative and gives rise to a tremendous amplification of current.

In the foregoing simplified account of the tube's operation as an amplifier, one important factor has been omitted. The anode attraction, which causes an electron to leave the vicinity of a cathode and which accelerates its velocity as it approaches the plane of the anode, also decelerates its velocity as it leaves the anode plane and approaches the second cathode, which is now positively charged so as to attract it. Its resultant velocity may therefore not be sufficient to cause emission from the second cathode. To insure emission, additional energy must be imparted to it, this energy being obtained from that stored in the resonant circuit, as indicated in the accompanving circuit diagram.

The high-frequency supply is of the order of 50 megacycles and is loosely coupled to the tuned circuit so as to apply from 25 to 90 volts across the cathode terminals. The positive potential on the anode may be 100 volts or more, depending upon the desired current output.

The tube has a discontinuous voltage-current output characteristic with a series of successively higher current peaks as the voltage is increased. Maximum current output is obtained when the anode voltage is just sufficient to allow an electron to travel from one cathode to the other during $1 / 2$ cycle of the high frequency excitation. Other successively lower peaks occur at anode voltages corresponding to transit times of $3 / 2,5 / 2$, $7 / 2,9 / 2$ cycles, the last being the least which has yet been measured.
(Continued on page 18)

# Impedance Matching 

By A. E. THIESSEN*

ONE of the first and best learned lessons in communication-system design is that, to obtain the greatest possible transfer of energy from one circuit to another, the impedances of the two circuits must be matched. So straightforward is the concept that the lesson may have been overlearned. In very many cases the reason for the use of transformers as impedance-matching devices is not so much to gain in power transfer as to reduce distortion, frequency discrimination, and other common defects in voice-transmission circuits.

It is very easy to fall into the error of exaggerating the amount of reflection loss that occurs due to mismatched circuits. From the single consideration of power loss a surprising amount of mismatch can be tolerated. To arrive at a figure for reflection loss, the simplest example is the case of a resistive power source connected to, a resistive load. In actual practice it is not often that pure resistances will be found in radio- or audiofrequency circuits, but in most cases the phase angle is so light that for purposes of practical demonstration it may be considered to be zero. In Fig. 1 a generator producing a


FIG. 1
Circuit on which to base calculations of the reflection loss at a single junction.
voltage $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{G}}$ and with an internal resistance $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{G}}$ is shown connected to a load $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{L}}$. The current that will flow in the circuit is

$$
\mathrm{I}=\frac{\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{G}}}{\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{L}}+\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{G}}}
$$

When $R_{L}=R_{G}$, that is, in the case where the generator and load impedances are matched, the current, $I=\frac{E}{2 R_{G}}$, and the power in the load is

$$
I^{2} R_{L}=I^{2} R_{G}=\left(\frac{E_{G}}{2 R_{G}}\right)^{2} R_{G}=\frac{E_{G}}{4 R_{G}}
$$

When the impedances are not matched the current in the load $I^{\prime}=\frac{E_{G}}{R_{G}+R_{L}}$ and the power is

$$
I^{12} R_{L}=\left(\frac{E_{G}}{R_{G}+R_{L}}\right)^{2} R_{L}
$$

'The ratio of the power in the load for the matched condition to the power for the mismatched condition expressed in decibels is the mismatch or the reflection loss. That is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{Ndb}=\frac{I^{2} R_{L}}{I^{12} R_{L}}=10 \log _{10} \frac{\left(R_{G}+R_{L}\right)^{2}}{4 R_{G} R_{L}} \\
& \mathrm{Ndb}=20 \log _{10} \frac{R_{G}+R_{\mathbb{L}}}{\sqrt{4 R_{G} R_{L}}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

From this formula can be calculated the reflection loss that occurs due to connecting together any two impedances having small phase angles. For instance, if a 5000 -ohm
vacuum tube were connected directly to a 500 -ohm line, the impedance mismatch of 10 to 1 would calculate to cause a loss of 4.8 decibels. The losses calculated for a number of different impedance mismatches are shown in the chart in Fig. 2. For phase angles of less than $45^{\circ}$ the loss curve is practically the same, but the mismatch loss is always less when either circuit has a reactive component."
It is obvious, therefore, that in many cases the actual power loss due to operating between mismatched impedances is not serious. If "ideal" or no-loss transformers could be realized, it would certainly be worth while to use them where every milliwatt of the available power must be utilized. However, well-designed and carefully made audio-frequency transformers of the usual types may have an inherent copper and iron loss of about $20 \%$, or 2 decibels. When it is considered that small power transformers have efficiencies in the neighborhood of $85 \%$, an efficiency of $80 \%$ for audio-frequency transformers is quite good in view of the many other problems involved in their design, such as frequency characteristic, freedom from distortion, etc.
The real value, however, of audio-frequency transformers and the reason why their use is so essential is to keep the circuit impedances at the correct operating values. For example, the design of a transformer to operate from a low-impedance line to the grid of an amplifier is not a simple job, and the successful operation of this sort of transformer depends upon its operation from the impedance for which it is designed. A line-to-grid transformer designed to operate from 500 ohms is apt to show frequency discrimination if operated from a line of 200 -ohms impedance. Thus, a designer of a voiceinput circuit finding that the output impedance of his mixer panel is 200 ohms, which has probably been determined by the microphone impedances, would certainly insert a 200 - to 500 -ohm transformer between the mixer and the input of his amplifier, if its input transformer were designed to operate from 500 ohms. The use of the transformer is dictated not by the consideration of the reflection loss between the 200 - and the $500-$ ohm circuit, which is less than one decibel, but by the fact that the impedances must be kept to their correct value to maintain proper frequency characteristics.

Another example of the necessity for correct impedance matching is in the familiar case of output transformers from vacuum tubes. The distortion introduced by a threeelement tube is a function, among other things, of the impedance into which it works. Ordinarily, the distortion is a minimum when the tube is worked into an impedance equal to approximately twice the plate resistance of the tube. In the case of the 2A3 tube the plate resistance is about 800 ohms and for two tubes in push-pull is 1600 ohms. The General Radio Type 541-D Transformer is designed to couple this system into dynamic speakers. When operating at a fixed bias potential, it is recommended that these tubes in push-pull work into 3000 ohms, which is approximately twice the plate resistance. From a consideration of the power loss due to mismatch the tubes could be worked into impedances varying widely from 3000 ohms, but the distortion would become a serious factor. This is one of the reasons why the
selection of the correct output transformer is so important.

The impedance of ribbon and velocity microphones averages between 25 and 40 ohms. The customary volume control used with these microphones has an impedance of 50 ohms. An inspection of the chart in Fig. 2 will show that the reflection loss due to coupling a 25 - to 40 -ohm generator and a $50-\mathrm{ohm}$ load is negligible. The frequency characteristic of these microphones is not affected by such a small impedance mismatch. Therefore, it is sound practice to operare them into the regular 50 -ohm mixer. If a transformer were used to couple these two circuits together, it would introduce a loss approximating 2 decibels which would be entirely unnecessary. Similarly, 500 -ohm and 600 -ohm lines can be connected together without trouble, unless special balancing or isolating problems are present. Impedance-matching transformers play a very important part in the


FIG. 2
Reflection loss at a single junction in decibels as a function of the ratio between the absolute magnitudes of the two impedances. This curve is for phase dieffrent of $0^{\circ}$.
circuits where these questions are serious. Generally, telephone lines are well balanced, particularly high-quality lines of the sort used to connect remote pickup points with the broadcasting studio. If these lines are connected directly to an unbalanced amplifier, which is one without a balanced and shielded input transformer, the resulting unbalance would affect the line and might introduce cross-talk. The customary cure for such a condition is to insert a 1-to-1 transformer between the line and the amplifier input transformer. The General Radio Type 585-R Transformer is an example of this. It has balanced windings and an electrostatic shield between the primary and secondary circuits so that a balanced line connected to its primary will remain balanced even though the secondary be connected to an unbalanced circuit. On short lines running around a studio or a laboratory, the question of unbalance is not usually so serious, but it is surprising the amount of pickup difficulties that have been encountered due to the fact that some part of a short link between a mixer panel and a speech amplifier or some other short local circuit is unbalanced. In the case of larger studios where several' voice channels are running parallel through patch boards, relays, or other switching mechanisms, it is always considered good practice to run the wires in the form of twisted pair, shielded by flexible copper braid. This type of connector maintains a capacity balance to ground, and if well-balanced transformers are used most of the cross-talk difficulties are eliminated.
*Reprinted from General Radio "Experimenten:"

# A 5-Meter Transceiver 

By FRANK LESTER, W2AMJ*

ONE of the most interesting pieces of apparatus in amateur radio is the fivemeter "transceiver," which gets its name from the fact that it is a combination transmitter and receiver using the same tubes and accessories for both purposes. A recent ruling of the Federal Communications Commission permitting mobile as well as portable operation on five meters has greatly accelerated amateur activity along these lines, and amateurs everywhere are deserting the hopelessly crowded 20,40 and 80 meter bands to find considerable pleasure on the shorter wave.

Five meters offers many opportunities because one can pack a complete outfit into a box about the size of a typewriter case and set it up for operation in a few seconds. A 5 -meter set can be operated in a car in motion, and dozens of different "hams" can be contacted as you drive from one town to another. Five-meter "fiield days" held on Saturdays or Sundays, are getting to be regular affairs in amateur circles.

In recognition of this growing acclaim of five meters, the writer has designed a threetube transceiver which has proved exceptionally successful, and can be purchased complete for a price that would have been considered low a few years ago for just an ordinary power pack.

A single case, made of steel finished in durable black crackle, and measuring $151 / 4$ inches high, 8 inches wide and 7 inches deep, houses the complete outfit, which is known as the Lafayette Transceiver. Why

* Engineer, Wholesale Redio Service Co., Inc.


A he-man's carrying case.


The Author and his Transeiver atop the 100 Sixth Ave. Building.
steel and not aluminum for a portable job? you may ask. The writer has found that steel stands the punishment of portable service better than aluminum, and its extra weight pays for itself in durability.

As shown in the illustrations, the case is formed on four sides and has removable front and back panels. A man-sized carrying handle is fastened to the top. The upper half of the box is occupied by the transceiver proper, the lower by all the required filament, plate and microphone batteries. A decorative plate for the front panel carries three controls and two jacks; the former are the main tuning knob, in the upper center, volume control, lower left, and receive-transmit throwover switch, lower right. The jacks are for earphones and a small hand microphone.

The knobs are of the new pointer type and look very distinctive. A plain knob and not a vernier dial is used for the tuning condenser ( C 1 in the diagram) because the tuning is not critical and a knob permits quick scanning of the entire five-meter band.

The three tubes in the Lafayette Transceiver actually do the work of five, and this accounts to some degree for the effectiveness of this little outfit. The diagram shows all of the connections in detail.

Transceiver hookups always look confusing at first sight, but this particular one is really easy to understand if you follow it through carefully. Tubes V1 and V3 are both type 19 double triodes, V2 a type 30. The four switches marked $S$ are all part of a single four-pole, two-position unit; the points marked $T$ represent the transmit position; the points $R$ the receive position. The variable resistor R1, which acts as volume control, is combined with the filament switch

SW. C1, R1 and S are the only variable instruments in the whole transceiver.

The coil marked L2 looks a bit peculiar. It consists of two turns of $1 / 4$-inch copper tubing about 2 inches in diameter, with a split length of insulated flexible wire inside. The tubing acts as the plate coil, the wire as the grid coil, of a simple push-pull oscillator. The close coupling between the two coils makes this a powerful oscillator indeed. Tuning condenser C1 (a 15 mmfd . midget) is connected across the ends of the plate or "tank" coil and to the plates of V1, with a center tap for plate voltage. The grid coil connects to the corersponding grids and is similarly tapped.

Let us throw the changeover switch to the reccive position and see what happens. Tube V1 now acts as a self-quenching super-regenerative detector, with C4-R3 as the grid condenser-leak combination. Transformer T1, with primary P1 functioning, acts as an ordinary amplifying transformer, working into V2 as first audio stage. V2 in turn feeds into T2 and V3, which act together as a complete class B audio output stage, the output transformer T3 operating the earphones.

Now switch to the transmit position, and the same parts act altogether differently. V1 becomes a push-pull oscillator. Primary P2 of transformer T1 is cut in, and T1 becomes a microphone coupling transformer. The secondary of T 3 is switched from the phones to the plates of V3, so T3 is now the modulation transformer.

In the receive position, R1 is a volume control on the received sigrals. In the transmit position, it is a mike gain control

The whole idea works out perfectly, with (Continued on page 22)


Interior view of Transceiver, showing unitycaupled coil and battery compartment.

# "The '45 Is Better R. F. Amplifier Tube Than the '46" 

ACHECK-UP of the "W" cards on the wall of a typical CW and Phone amateur station revealed that of the cards received since the first of the year-excepting those from stations using self-excited trans-mitters-approximately $35 \%$ were from stations using "a pair of ' 46 tubes in the final amplifier. It was also found that threefourths of the remaining $65 \%$ were using at least one ' 46 in the transmitter as a buffer.

Why the ' 46 has come into such general use as an RF amplifier is hard to understand. A pair of push-pull ' 46 tubes in class B makes a very economical and fine modulator, a setup that is hard to beat for 25 watts or so of fairly respectable audio. But the only nice thing we can say about them as neutralized RF amplifiers is that gridleak bias can be used

By W. W. SMITH, W6BCX

than a ' 45 of the same make operated under the same conditions. Apparently the '45s are pumped harder, probably because of their smaller envelope, and the fact that there is less metal within the envelope also seems to contribute to their "hardness". To obtain a given output at a given plate voltage, the lower plate impedance of the ' 45 allows us to do it with a higher ratio of load impedance to tube impedance, and correspondingly better efficiency. It is presumed, of course, that sufficient excitation is available in either case to allow its adjustment to the optimum value. We are referring here only to output efficiency. We may therefore say that the ' 45
' 45 s in parallel, capacity coupled, two 75,000 ohm, 2 watt resistors in parallel should be used; a single 35,000 ohm resistor would get quite warm unless the excitation is kept low. By using '45s the grid choke ceases to be a problem when capacity coupling is used and we can economize on that potential source of trouble by simply leaving it out of the circuit. The amount of RF wasted across the resistor when no choke is used is very small, and the loss is justified, not only from a standpoint of economy, but also because of the stabilizing effect of a purely resistive load in the circuit.
When used as a buffer to isolate the final from the oscillator, the ' 45 provides better "buffing" action than a '46. Even slight changes in plate voltage or plate load cause


Left-47 oscillator capacitively coupled to a pair of 45 s in parallel. Right-Single 47 to single 45. Constants: CI-100 mmf.i


C2—Preferably a $25-50 \mathrm{mmf}$. variable; C3—Closely-spaced plates, receiving type condenser; R1-25,000 ohms; R2—Filament C.T. Resistor, 100 ohms; R3-30,000 ohms; R4-Two 75,000 ohms, 2 watt resistors in parallel. No grid choke is required; R5-Center-tapped filament resistor, 100 ohms.
without danger of the beginner burning them up by kicking out the crystal stage.

When its performance as an RF amplifier is compared to that of a " 46 , the lowly '45, which is again coming into its own for audio use, makes the " 46 look pretty sick.

Comparing the two tubes we find the following in faver of the ' 45 :

In spite of the fact that the ' 45 has a somewhat lower wattage filament, it also has a higher mutual conductance (measured at zero bias) than the ' 46 (grids tied together and considered as a single grid). The lower mutual conductance of the ' 46 is largely due to the greater "shadow" effect of the grid (s), which becomes quite appreciable in multiplegrid tubes. Because of its higher mutual conductance, the ' 45 actually requires fewer WATTS excitation than a ' 46 to drive it TO A GIVEN OUTPUT WITH A GIVEN EFFICIENCY. Though it takes more VOLTAGE SWING, we may say that the ' 45 is the easier to excite, because driving POWER, not voltage, is the criterion of ease of excitation.

The plate impedance of the ' 46 is several times that of the 45 . Thus for a given efficiency in the output circuit (ratio of load impedance to plate impedance), much looser coupling must be used to the plate tank of the ' 46 (raise the load impedance). Then, to bring the output back up, the plate voltage must be run sky high, and high voltage spells "bad medicine" for '46 tubes. Although the interelectrode spacing and the spacing of the plate lead coming through the stem is much greater in the '46, it will not stand any more plate voltage than a '45. The gas content ... not the spacing ... limits the plate voltage that can safely be applied to a "46. Oddly enough, many '46s will turn more blue at a given plate voltage and input

permits GREATER EFFICIENCY than is possible with a '46, both adjusted to a given output at a given plate voltage.

Because of its high grid impedance, the ' 45 may be more advantageously capacity coupled to the preceding stage than a ' 46 (presuming that we desire to clip right off the "hot" end of the plate tank of the preceding stage to avoid parasitics). The ' 46 , with its very low grid impedance, requires an extremely small coupling capacity to give the preceding stage a sufficiently high load impedance, and most of the excitation is being wasted. The grid impedance of a '45 offers a very respectable load for most tubes, and the grid of a ' 45 can be capacity coupled on the lower frequency bands with almost as much efficiency and as great a transfer of energy as can be obtained with link coupling.

The optimum value of grid resistor being very high (between 50,000 and 75,000 ohms for a single tube), it is permissible to dispense with the grid choke in capacity-coupled circuits using a '45. The only precaution necessary is to make sure that the grid resistor is either of the carbon or metalized type (non-inductive). The temperature coefficient of the metalized type is lower, and therefore recommended in preference to the carbon type. The 2 watt sizes have ample heat radiation for a single '45. For a pair of
a noticeable change in the grid impedance of a '46. When using a ' 45 , changes in the output circuit react but little upon the grid impedance. The difference between the two types of tubes in this respect was brought home strongly when a typical low-powered, 160 -meter phone, using a ' 47 link coupled to a pair of ' 46 s in the final was found to have such a bad case of frequency modulation as to be objectionable. The '46s were replaced with ' 45 s , and the frequency modulation was cut down to a point where it could not be detected by the "zero-beat, beat-oscillator" method. At the writer's station, which ordinarily uses a class $B$ linear to feed the antenna, no buffer is used between the modulated stage (originally a '46) and the crystal oscillator. When using the '46, UNSOLICITED reports of frequency modulation were numerous. Raising the value of bias resistor on the ' 46 to as high a value as could satisfactorily be used, helped matters only slightly. Operation being on 75 meters, the frequency modulation was just twice as bad as would have been the case on 160 . As the modulated stage was run with very low input, and the crystal oscillator consequently provided sufficient excitation for class $C$ operation of the modulated stage, it seemed a shame to resort to an extra tube merely to provide some buffing action. A ' 45 was substituted for the '46, and the first ten stations worked were ASKED to check for frequency modulation. Nine reported "none"
probably meaning that it was not noticeable. Theoretically ALL phone transmitters are afflicted with frequency modulation, though it may be only to a minute degree in the case of a transmitter using several buffers. One station reported "negligible" frequency modulation.
(Continued on page 18)

## Farsnworth Cold Cathode Tube <br> (Continued from page 14)

The external magnetic field is unnecessary when the cathodes are properly curved instead of being plane. Their curvature can be calculated to focus the electrons automatically for specified anode and cathode voltages. This eliminates the nede of a DC supply for magnetic focusing.

The tube's theoretical output is twice that of an equivalent hor-cathode tube operated as a Class A amplifier. Its practical output is limited by the ability of the cathodes to withstand the high temperature to which they are subjected by bombardment from a rapidly increasing number of electrons. One test of a small tube showed an output of 100 watts of undistorted energy before the cathodes were destroyed by heat. Such destruction is prevented by means of resistors in the cathode leads. A small tube can be safely operated so as to deliver 45 milliamperes with 200 volts on the anode. It is to be noted that the tube operates as a current amplifier and that the amount of voltage amplificaion is dependent upon the resistance in the output circuit.

The theory of the tube's operation as a detector or modulator should be evident from the non-linear voltage-current characteristic and requires no elaboration here. It is especially sensitive in the detection of ultra-high frequencies.

II IS a well known fact that any amplifier circuit generates oscillations when arranged to furnish an input voltage of proper magnitude and phase. Consideration of the manner in which Farnsworth's tube functions as an amplifier shows that it conforms to this requirement when connected to a resonant circuit which is tuned to a frequency whose half-period is equal to an electron's time of transit, as determined by the frequency of the oscillations applied to the cathodes.

But the great value of the Farnsworth tube resides in the fact that it is self-exciting, i.e., that it requires no external high frequency voltage when used as an oscillator. Aside from the energy which is required for the magnetic focusing field and which may not be needed eventually, the only external source of energy is that which maintains a positive potential on the anode. It apparently represents a new discovery in vacuum tube phenomena. Among engineers there is a difference of opinion as to its cause.

One plausible explanation is based on the assumption that there is no appreciable space charge effect in the tube when oscilaltions start. There are always some free electrons present in the inter-electrode space, if only those due to photoelectric emission from the cathodes. These are attracted by the anode when it becomes strongly positive but are prevented from immediately going to it by the longitudinal mangetic field. Their acceleration as they approach the plane of the
anode causes a current to flow, through half the inductance coil in the tuned circuit, to one cathode. This provides an out-of-phase voltage drop which accelerates the electrons toward the other cathode with sufficient velocity to cause secondary emission therefrom. The emitted electrons then establish a current flow through the other half of the midtapped coil and cause a voltage drop in opposite phase so as to accelerate the electrons toward the first cathode which is thus caused to emit more secondaries. Repetition of this process quickly builds the current up to a point where it can be delivered to the output circuit without stopping the internal oscillations. The oscillating frequency is that to which the resonant circuit is tuned. This explanation has not been confirmed by physicists, but is presented only as a means for visualizing possible actions in the tube. When engineers disagree, the physicist must experiment.

Much work has yet to be done before standardized tubes will be available for experimental use. Television Laboratories Ltd. has licensed two factories for commercial production. But it will probably be a matter of some months before tubes are available for amateur use.

## "The '45 Is a Better RF Tube Than the '46'

## (Continued from page 17)

While on the subject of linear amplifiers, the ' 45 was found to be a better exciter tube than the ' 46 for the linear stage. The lower impedance of the ' 45 provides better RF "regulation", which is an advantage when working into a linear stage because the grid impedance of the linear varies under modulation. A low impedance driver is here desirable for the same reason that a low impedance driver tube is preferable to drive the grids of a pair of class B audio tubes. The matter of RF regulation is also important when using "grid current" grid bias modulation, a low impedance driver being preferable ahead of the bias modulated stage.
Utilizing a couple of rolls of chicken netting for the grid, the ' 46 has a somewhat higher grid-filament capacity than the ' 45 . The lower grid-filament capacity of the ' 45 is especially advantageous at 10 and 20 meters. The small surface area of grid in the ' 45 also allows less oxide from the filament to collect on the grid, the action of which sometimes is responsible for erratic operation of ' 46 s . The simpler construction of the ' 45 also makes it a "sturdier" tube from a mechanical standpoint. And, needless to say, the ' 45 costs considerably less than the ' 46 .

The filament of the ' 46 pulls a bit more current than the ' 45 , but the very high grid current drawn by the ' 46 when fully excited detracts from the emission available for plate current. Because the ' 45 pulls but very little grid current, as much emission is available

## Crystal Microphone Circuit for Turner

An improved hook-up for the Turner Type G Crystal Microphone is shown in Fig. 1. Due to its high impedance of approximately 80,000 ohms at 60 cycles, the microphone may be connected direct to grid and ground
of the amplifier input tube. When so connected, it is necessary that a parallel resistance or grid leak of not less than 5 megohms be used. Using a resistance of lower value at this point will reduce the low frequency response.


FIG. $I$
for plate current as is available in the " 46 .
When much more than 25 watts input is applied continuously to a '46, the plate current has a tendency to slowly rise in value, until after a time it reaches a critical point where the milliammeter gets real active and proceeds to "bang the pin". It was found that when using high excitation and bias, and a fairly high plate voltage (to permit higher ratio of load impedance to plate impedance), that a ' 45 of good manufacture can be run continuously at 30 to 35 watts input all day long. The ' 45 under test was pulling 68 mils at 520 volts.

Because of its much lower mu, the ' 45 is much more stable in operation than the 46 , being somewhat easier to neutralize. In addition, parallel operation seldom requires special precautions

When keyed, a maximum of 650 volts at 75 mils per tube should be observed. When the tube is running constantly, as in a buffer, it is necessary to reduce the input power by one-third . . either the plate voltage, current, or both being reduced. When used as a modulated amplifier, a maximum of 450 volts at 60 to 65 mils per tube should be observed.

If over 650 volts is used on a ' 45 and if the load is removed from the plate tank, the tube may possibly flash over in the base. This is usually aggravated by the fact that when the load is removed, the plate current drops to a very low value, allowing the plate voltage to soar to a still higher value, dependent upon the regulation of the power supply,
Accidents to the tube (due to this cause) can be prevented by using a tank condenser with NOT-TOO-WIDE SPACING between the plates. The condenser will flash before the tube will arc in the base, thus protecting the tube and warning the operator (provided " he is, close enough to hear the condenser "sing"). If a solit-stator arrangement is used, a blocking condenser is advisable in order to prevent the DC from riding actoss the arc along with the RF. Receiving condensers will usually be satisfactory from the standpoint of not arcing across when the tube is running under normal load, and will protect the stem from flashovers. If less than 600 volts is used, the above precautions are un necessary.

The ' 46 sometimes gives the illusion of being more easily excited than a ' 45 because when loaded to a GIVEN OUTPUT at a GIVEN PLATE VOLTAGE, the ratio of load impedance to tube impedance is lower. We have obtained ease of driving power from such an impedance ratio, but where, oh where, has our efficiency gone?

All the aforementioned statements are made with reference to neutralized RF amplifiers (working on the same frequency). As a frequency multiplier in the more-commonly used circuits, the ' 45 is a rather poor performer as compared to the '46. However, some work along that line points to the possibility of low mu tubes making very effi cient frequency multipliers, when used in the proper circuirs and under the proper conditions.

Summing up the relative merits we find:
Gridleak bias can be used on the ' 46 without danger of burning-up the tube, should the excitation fail without the operator noticing it.

Weighed against this lone advantage, we find the ' 45 easier to excite (to a given output with a given efficiency), permits better plate circuit efficiency, is cheaper, is more rugged mechanically, makes a better driver for a class B linear or bias modulated stage, is more stable in operation, will stand slightly more input without "going crazy", provides better "buffing" action, is better adapted to capacity-coupled operation, requires no grid choke with capacity coupling, and has lower grid-filament capacity.

AMATEUR NEWS

Pacific Division Convention at Fresno, November 10 and 11
W msTERN amateurs are promised one of the most interesting and educational conventions yet held on the Pacific Coast when amateurs of Fresno, California, become hosts to their brother hams on November 10 and 11 . The technical talks will be of more than usual interest. New $1 / 2$-meter transmitters and receivers will be described and operated, all of the new tubes will be analyzed by tube engineers, new data on Pen-


Ralph A. Jack
Chairman, Pacific Division Convention W6FPWexW6AOH, graduate Pacific University, Oregon, and four years post graduate work University of California, as Whiting research fellow in physics doing cathode
ray oscillograph and high frequency work. First entered ray oscillograph and high frequency work. First entered
Ham radio at W6AHO portable. Conducted experiments Har Undio at States Forest Service on Radiophone. At the for United States Forest Service on Radiophone. At the
present time unit commander, unit 3 section 3, United present time unit commander, unit 3 section 3 , United
States Naval Communication Reserve. President of ValStates Naval Communication Reserve. President of Vadio Club. At present time operating W6FPW at ley Radio Club. At present time operating W6FPW at
home, W6YE at Fresno State College, W6KDS at Unit Reserve Headquarters.
tode Transmitting Tubes will be given and co tests of many and varied kinds will be staged.
It seems likely that the Ralph M. Heintz $\$ 50$ prize for the best-operating $3 / 4$-meter transmitter will go to someone who attends the Fresno convention. The new $1 / 2$-meter tubes should enable the contestants to build the ultra-high frequency rigs with comparative ease.
Grid modulation, 5 -meter systems, directive antennas and new receiver circuits will be discussed, and some of the Coast's best known technical men will lecture at the convention. Jim Warner, radio operator on the "Southern Cross" on its flight to Australia, will give a thrilling Cullough, J. N. A. Hawkins, Frank C. Jones, Cullough, J. N. A. Hawkins, Frank C. Jones, known amateurs will conduct technical sessions. Prizes will be awarded for the best 5 -meter Prizes will be awarded for the best 5 -meter who present the best stunts.
Convention headquarters will be at the Hotel Fresno. The cost of convention tickets is $\$ 3.00$. Reservations should be made nov, through Mr. C. L. Kirkpatrick, W6DWE, Box 739, Fresno, California.

## CALLS HEARD

At WICNU, Stamford, Connecticut
JULY 15 TO AUGUST 15-20 METERS
G's Heard on CW: G2DC, G2DI, G2DL, G2KB, G2KM, G2KY, G2LA, G2MA, G2MY, G2NM, G2OD, G2RF, G2WQ, G2XU, G2ZJ, G2ZJ, G5BD G5FV, G5HC, G5JU, G5KT, G5KU, G5LC, G5MA, G5NF, G5NI, G5PL, G5QY, G5SH, G5SR, G5UF, G6CL, G6HB, G6IR, G6IZ, G6JG, G6KI, G6LM,

G6NJ, G6PK, G6QP, G6QX, G6RB, G6RV, G6TJ, G6NJ, G6PK, G6QP, G6QX, G6RB, G6RV, G6FJ, G6TT, G6UF, G6UJ, G6
G6YL, G6UT, G6ADE.

G's Heard on Fone: G5BJ, G6DL, G6PY.
GI's Heard on CW : GI2OY, GI5QX, GI5UR.
F5s Heard on CW: F3AK, F3BR, F8BF, F8BS, F8EF, F8FC, F8GG, F8JJ, F8RJ, F8TQ, F8UG. F's Heard on Fone and CW: F8DR.
CT's Heard on CW: CT1AA, CT1AZ, CT1BG.
CT's Heard on Fone: CT1BY.
D's Heard on CW: D4BAR, D4BCC, D4BDR, D4BER, D4BFN, D4BHH, D4BIU, D4BKK, D4BKN, D4BMR, D4BUK, D4CAF, D4CET, D4CPJ.

EA's Heard on CW: EA2AD, EA3AN, EA3EG, EA5AF, EA5BJ, EA5BL, EA7FG.
PA's Heard on CW : PA0AX, PA0AZ, PA0CE, PA0FLX, PA0FX, PA0HG, PA0LL, PA0VB, PA0XF, PA0XG, PA0ZZ.
PY's Heard on CW: PY1DW, PY1IF, PY2BX, PY2CD, PY5AD, PY9AD.
ON's Heard on CW: ON4JA, ON4VC.
OK's Heard on CW: OK1JB, OK1LM, OK1PK, OK1WG, OK2DD, OK2HM, OK2MS, OK2PL, OK 2SI.
All Heard on CW: EI1T, EI2D, EI5F, EI6F, EI8B, OE1FH, OZ7PU, YL2BB, HAF3H, EZ4SAX, K5AA, K5AF, K5AZ, NY1AB, NY2AB, VO8W, VO8Z, I1ID, I1TKM, I1UL, CX1CC, CX1FB, CX 2AM, TI2RU, TI2TAO, TI3WD, LU1CA, LU1EP, LU1EP, LU3DH, LU9AX, SU1CH, SU1EC, SU1SJ, VQ4CRP, VP2BX, VP4AA, VP5AA, VP5AB, VP5PZ, HB9AF, HB9AQ, HB9AU, FM8BG, FM8DA, X1AA, X1AG, X1AY, X1CM, X ${ }^{\prime}$, HC , FG fone, LA1F fone, LA3C, XZN2B, HC2JM, HC1FG fone, LA1F fone, LA3C, XZN2B XOH2FJ.

Conditions as a whole not so good for DX. Most of the month signals were weak and only the highpower gang were coming through. Would like
to see more reports from other W's and DX fellows in "RADIO" each month, so how about it, gang? The receiver is a SS Comet "PRO" with a Transposed Doublet.

Calls Heard by W3CCF W3SI, Charlie Myers, 48 West Main St.,
Mechanicsburg, Pa.

## 14 MC Band

J2CE, J2GX, J2HB, J2HI, J2HX, J2IN, J3DP, J5CC, ZS1H, ZS2A, ZS2D, ZS2H, ZS4T, ZS5X, ZS6AA, ZT1R, ZU1E, ZU1N, VK2BA, VK2EV, VK2MA, VK2XU, VK3DP, VK3HG, VK4DD, VK4GK, VK4RV, VK5FM, VK5HG, VK7JB,
ZL2AC, ZL2CI, ZL2GN, D4BAR, D4BAU, D4BBN, ZL2AC, ZL2CI, ZL2GN, D4BAR, D4BAU, D4BBN, D4BBU, D4BCC, D4BCK, D4BDR, D4BFN, D4BGG, D4BIU, D4BJF, D4BKK, D4BKN, D4BLI,
D4BMJ, D4BPJ, D4BSR, D4BUF, D4BUK, D4BMJ, D4BPJ, D4BSR, D4BUF, D4BUK, D4CAF, D4UAG, D4UAO, F8EB, F8EO, F8EX, F8RJ, F8TP, F8TQ, F8UQ, F8VJ, F8VK, F8VP, F8VT, F8WB, F8XI, F3AD, CTIAA, CT1BY, CT1CB, CTICQ, CT1EC, CT2AP, CT2BK,

 EA5BE, EA7AO, EA8CGG, OK1BC, OK1GK $\begin{array}{lll}\text { OK1JK, } & \text { OK1WX, OK2DD, OK2HM, } & \text { OK2KP, } \\ \text { OK2MA, } & \text { OK2MS, } & \text { OK2OP, } \\ \text { PA0AF, } & \text { PA0AZ, }\end{array}$ OK2MA, OK2MS, OK2OP, PA0AF, PA0AZ,
PA0CE, PA0CO, PA0DC, PA0FX, PA0HG,
 $\begin{array}{lll}\text { PA0JM, } & \text { PA0KT, } & \text { PA0LL, } \\ \text { PA0PF, } & \text { PA0QL, } & \text { PA0QQ, } \\ \text { PA0RP, } & \text { PA0MH, } \\ \text { PA0SD, }\end{array}$ PA0SM, PA0VB, PA0VG, PA0VK, PA0XF, $\begin{array}{llll}\text { PA0XG, } & \text { PA0ZZ, } & \text { LU1CH, } & \text { LU6CR, } \\ \text { HC1FG, } & \text { HC1JW, } & \text { HC1PZ, } & \text { ON4AU, } \\ \text { ON4BZ, }\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { HC1FG, } & \text { HC1JW, } \\ \text { ON4DX, } & \text { ON4EN, } & \text { ON4FZ, } & \text { ON4AU, ON4GU, ON4BZ, } \\ \text { ON4GW }\end{array}$ ON4JB, ON4EN, ON4FE, ON4GU, ON4GW, ON4CSL, OZ3J, OZ5R, OZ7HL, OZ8D, PY2BN, PY2BM, PY2BW, PY2BX, PY5AD, PY7IC, PY7IG, U1DC, U2PZ, FM8CR, FM8DA, FM8IH, SP1AR, SP1BC, SP1DC, SP1DE, HB9AQ, HB9AD, HB9B, HB9J, HB9W, HB9Y, HAF3D, HAF7A, HAF4D, I1T1ちM, I1KI, LA1X, LA1Z, LY1J, OE1GM, OE1ER, OE3FL, OH3NA, OH3NP,
 OA4B, G2AV, G2BG, G2BH, G2BO, G2BQ, G2BS, G2BY, G2DC', G2DI, G2DL, G2DV, G2DK, G2GF, G2HF, G2HD, G2KM, G2LA, G2LC, G2MA, G2MC, G2ML, G2MR, G2NH, G2OA, G2OI, G2PN, G2QO, G2RF, G2SD, G2VX, G2WA, G2XS, G2ZJ,
G2ZP, G2ZQ, G5BJ, G5BY, G5CV G5FV G2ZP, G2ZQ, G5BJ, G5BY, G5CV, G5FV, G5GQ,
G5IZ, G5JU, G5MA, G5ML, G5MR, G5NF, G5NI G5IZ, G5JU, G5MA, G5ML, G5MR, G5NF, G5NI, G5NJ, G5PH, G5QA, G5QY, G5RZ, G5SR, G5UC,
G5UY, G5VB, G5VQ, G5WB, G5WR, G5WY, G5XB, G5XT, G5YH, G5YJ, G5YV, G6AC, G6BX, G5XB, G5XT, G5YH, G5YJ, G5YV, G6AC, G6BX,
G6CL, G6CJ, G6CT, G6CW, G6DL, G6GS, $\begin{array}{ll}\text { G6CLD, G6CJ, G6CT, G6CW, } \\ \text { G6GV, G6HP, G6IR, G6IZ, G6LI, } & \text { G6LK, G6GS, } \\ \text { G6LM, }\end{array}$ G6GV, G6HP, G6IR, G6IZ, G6LI, G6LK, G6LM,
G6ML, G6MY, G6NJ, G6OS, G6PY, G6QB, G6QC, G6QQ, G6QX, G6QY, G6RB, G6RL, G6RV, G6TT, G6XQ, G6XS, G6ZR, G6ZU.
G2GF, G2SD, G5BY, G5CV, G5ML, G6DL, G2GF, G2SD, G5BY, G5CV, G5ML, G6DL,
G6LI, G6PY, G6RL, F8VP, GT1BY, ON4AU, HC1FG' IUUL, LƯ่8DR, LA1G, OA4B.

## Notes On High Frequency Crystal Holders

## By ALBERT F. HOEFLICH

CRYSTAL oscillators, using plates ground to fundamental frequencies of from 6000 to 28,000 kilocycles, are becoming more popular all the time. The design and adjustment of the quartz plate mounting has an important effect upon the efficiency and output of the oscillator, especially at these high frequencies. Therefore a few pointers on this subect are in order.
In the first place, if the manufacturer has given any. instructions, you should follow them carefully, as these instructions usually cover the case in hand very thoroughly. If the data is not included with the crystal, the following instructions will be found of value:

Be sure that the pressure on the top plate, or electrode, of the crystal mounting is correct. To check this adjustment, use the method described by the writer in July "RADIO". This method of checking the adjustment makes use of the law that the increase of efficiency and output of the crystal oscillator is approximately proportional to the amount of direct grid current flowing through the grid leak.

To make this test connect a DC milliammeter with a full-scale reading of about 5 ma, in series with the oscillator grid circuit. Then be sure that the top electrode of the crystal mounting is connected to ground, while the bottom is connected to the grid. In this condition the top plate may be moved about over the surface of the crystal without throwing the circuit out of oscillation. Adjustments can now be made on the circuit, and on the holder; observations of the meter readings giving an indication of oscillator efficiency, due to the correct adjustment of pressure, etc.

Crystal manufacturers use various shapes for the holder electrodes, but a series of tests for forty meter crystal plates has shown that the best size and shape of mounting electrodes depends upon the curvature of the crystal surfaces; i.e., the surface contours Briefly, and without going into the technical side of the matter, a deeply curved crystal plate, which is not perfectly accurately ground, will give maximum output with small electrodes. A fairly flat crystal plate will give best output with a large plate and light pressure. An accurately ground crystal plate, evenly, but not deeply curved, will give maximum output with a plate that almost covers the full surfaces, and will work best with relatively firm pressure on the top electrode.

To sum the results of these experiments up, it is safe to say that the deeper the curvature of the crystal plate surface, the greater the pressure necessary for best output. This data applies to the X -cut crystals only, as these are almost invariably used for highfrequency work.
With regard to the X-cut 20 -meter crystal plates it appears that the smaller electrodes have an advantage. In fact, 20 -meter crystal plates frequently refuse to oscillate with electrodes larger than $3 / 8$ inch square. The position of the electrodes on the crystal plate, and the applied pressure, also have considerable effect upon the strength of oscillation.
The correct mounting for high frequency crystal plates would, in the writer's opinion, have a large bottom electrode, a means for varying the applied pressure, and a system for substituting various top electrodes, each with a different surface area.

# Analysis of the New Silver 5C Super 

IT IS not at all difficult today to build amateur transmitters that will lay down good signals half way 'round the globe, and many thousands of such are in daily operation. The amateurs are, however, badly handicapped by receivers unable to render perfectly good signals readable at considerable distances under the variety of conditions under which they may be operated.
The majority of amateur receivers in use today are the good old one RF stage regenerative detector, and one or two audio stages. These receivers are adequately sensitive, but provide signal selectivity which is almost purely a function of ear discrimination to beat notes of varying audio pitches, and their noise rejectivity is almost nil.
Because of these facts the superheterodyne

is daily growing in favor. One such super which has proven popular in amateur and commercial circles, and has now been redesigned and improved for 1935 operating conditions, is described herewith. It is the McMurdo Silver SC.

Before considering this new receiver, it is well to review the essential specifications which must be met in the design of a good high frequency receiver. The initial requirements in undertaking such a design are extremely rigid. No singie poina may be neglected if a satisfactory receiver is to result. They summarize substantially as follows:
(a) Sufficient sensitivity to insure reaching the lowest possible residential noise level, which means about 1.0 microvolt.
(b) Absolute selectivity, for the ability to select one telephone station channel at a time without interference.
(c) Absolute 50 cycle crystal selectivity for CW code reception, with ability to shift the crystal circuit elimination notch to insure this absolute 50 cycle selectivity.
(d) An order of image selectivity adequate to eliminate interference from signals the image frequency ( $2 \times \mathrm{IF}$ ) away from desired signals.
(e) Fidelity for telephone reception flat to cover the fundamental musical range of 30 to 4000 cycles, or flat to 4 to 6 db . over this range.
(f) Sufficient undistorted power output to give ample headphone or loud speaker volume without overloading the audio system.
(g) Lowest possible inherent noise level in order not to vitiate the necessarily high sensitivity.
(h) Full coverage of the entire wave range of 1500 to 23,000 kilocycles.
(i) Ample bandspread for easy. dependable tuning over amateur and commercial bands, coupled with "reset" dependability that assures ability to permanently $\log$ and calibrate receiver.
(j) Ease of operation and dependability.

In order to meet these general fundamental requirements many corollary requirements must be met.
If requirement (a) of sensitivity is to be satisfied in an all-wave superheterodyne, a first detector and oscillator of high gain will be needed, at least two IF stages, second detector, automatic volume control to minimize fading of weak stations, and two audio stages.

In meeting the selectivity requirement (b) two problems must be considered. Adjacent telephone channel selectivity will necessitate at least six tuned IF circuits as had in two IF stages. Obviously a single IF stage with its four tuned circuits, as now popular in some commercial receivers, will be insufficient for absolute 10 KC telephone selectivity. The second selectivity problem (d) is
involve at least three watts undistorted out put for loud speaker volume without distortion. It can be had from a well designed twostage audio amplifier with pentode output stage, not skimped on transformer size or available voltage.

Requirement ( g ) of low inherent noise, is most stringent. Noise inherent in a receiver design may originate in a number of ways, but assuming competent design and high quality tubes and parts, it may be localized. The frequency conversion effected by the first detector and oscillator will always produce some tube hiss,, which can be minimized by operating these circuits at as high a signal level as possible. This can be effected on weak signals only by the use of a single tuned RF stage preceding the first detector

FIG. 2 (left): Inside the 5C shows a neatness and symmetry of layout.

FIG. 3 (right): The underside of the chassis is busi-ness-like.

that of image, or repeat spot, interference. Initially this requires a high intermediate frequency in order to render the image rejection as simple as possible for the input circuits. In addition, with any logical choice of IF between 450 and $500 \mathrm{KC}, 465 \mathrm{KC}$ being the best average, a tuned RF stage will have to be used on short waves for image rejection, and it will also be necessary to insure a good signal to noise ratio.

The requirement (c) of 50 cycle CW telegraph selectivity necessitates either IF re-


FIG. I-The new Silver 5C receiver.
generation, which is not adequately helpful for noise rejection, or preferably a crystal filter. This crystal filter must be arranged so its "elimination notch" is available for rejection of unwanted carriers within a heterodyning frequency difference of the wanted signal. It must be so arranged that no noticeable loss of sensitivity or volume results when it is in use.

The requirement of good audio fidelity for telephone reception (e) necessitates good audio design and compensation for RF-IF side band cutting. It will also necessitate a diode, rather than a three-element triode, second detector for elimination of second detector distortion. The audio amplifier should consist of two high gain audio stages, preferably a triode first stage and a high gain pentode output stage. The output, insulated from DC must be quickly available for headphone or loud spekaer operation.

Good power output, requirement (f) will
which will not only eliminate image interference as previously indicated, but from which sufficient amplification can be obtained to allow frequency conversion to occur, even on very weak signals, at a level sufficiently high to swamp oscillator hiss. With this done, the remaining noise will be entirely a function of overall gain, showing up thermal agitation noise in input circuit and in input tube. This is the final limitation of usable gain or sensitivity in a radio receiver. The answer is to strive for a sensitivity of between $1 / 2$ and $11 / 2$ microvolts absolutemore than this results only in excessive noise with no gain in signal pickup, while less than this loses signals that could be copied under favorable local noise conditions. The question arises that if one RF stage is a help, why not use two? Assuming good coil and tuned circuit design, one RF stage satisfies the requirements of image selectivity and noise.
Requirement (h) of full coverage is vitally important. Full coverage includes all frequencies from 1500 KC to about $23,000 \mathrm{KC}$, the limits of the American amateur, commercial and broadcast bands at which a superheterodyne may advantageously be used, including all services such as police, amateur, airport, ship, telephone and broadcast-three bands are needed for this full coverage.
Band spread tuning (i) as an absolute necessity on any full-coverage high-frequency receiver. It can be provided in a number of ways, that of separate low capacity tuning capacities shunting the necessarily fairlys large main tuning condensers. This method is simple and cheap, and hence most desirable. An ideal arrangement is that shown herewith-a single calibrated airplane type dial with two pointers actuated by a single push-pull tuning knob operating on two sep. arate gang tuning condensers through a positive cone clutch with smooth, easy, automatic take-up belt drive. The degree of band spread desired is a matter of the service to be effected. In the 5 C receiver, it may be adjusted to suit individual needs by simply removing rotor plates from the band spread
tuning condensers. It is initially set at slightly over 100 degrees for the 160 -meter amateur band.
Requirement ( j ) of ease of operation and dependability covers much territory. In terms of controls, it necessitates as many, but no more than all those necessary of obtain maximum possible results at all times. There should be one single tuning control, with, of course, a calibrated dial, having smooth, positive and easy adjustment and with easily readable main and band spread tuning ratios. Both actual tuning ratios should be between 8:1 and $10: 1$ for simple, easy finding and ability to tune for proper tone quality of short wave telephone or broadcast stations. These two ratios are essential if best results are to be had easily, the second (band spread) ratio being essentially band spread tuning-fine enough to be easily operated with the actual 50 cycle crystal selectivity available. A volume control should be provided, and a tone control to meet individual tone tastes and for noise reduction, and, of course, a solid, substantial and trouble-free wave-chaneg switch. In addition to this, an audio beat oscillator is essential for CW reception. A choice of manual and automatic volume control is essential, necessitating a separate IF sensitivity control (manual volume contiol) and audio ( (AVC) volume control. A crystal switch, crystal phasing control and audio beat oscillator pitch control are necessary (these last two are also "elimination notch" controls). A send-receive switch to prevent receiver blocking and paralysis is vital for use in the transmitting station.
Upon reviewing these general requirements, we find that a high-quality high-frequency radio must have the following tube and circuit functions:

## 1. Tuned RF stage on all bands.

2. First detector and oscillator, prefer, ably in a single tube of high conversion gain and good frequnecy stability such as the 2A7 or 6A7 electron coupled oscillator, first detector.
3. Two IF stages for adequate adjacent channel selectivity, operating at 465 KC to insure complete image rejection in con, junction with the tuned RF stage. Neces, sarily air tuned to insure permanent retention of initial alignment, sensitivity and selectivity and dial calibration.
4. High efficiency crystal circuit for 50 cycle CW telegraph selectivity with variable elimination notch.
5. Automatic volume control of extended range to effectively minimize effects of fading on weak and strong signals alike. Optional manual volume control for tele. graph reception at the turn of a switch.
6. Audio beat oscillator for CW recep. tion.
7. Diode second detector for minimum distortion and adequate output.
8. First audio stage for voltage amplif. cation and gain to precede output stage. 9. Class A (preferably pentode) audio power output stage, developing 3 watts undistorted output, insulated against DC for headphone and loud speaker operation.
9. Dependable, trouble.free power supply turning out adequate power for opera, tion of the entire receiver without undue heating or strain on its components.
10. Large enough loud speaker to insure good fidelity over fundamental musical range and good electric-to sound conversion efficiency in order not to waste in conver, sion audio power previously developed.
To leave much unsaid in order to conseive space, a receiver to embody all of the above important features will need eight tubes, which may be '58 tuned RF stage, 2A7 electron coupled oscillator and first detector, two
' 58 IF amplifiers, ' 55 diode second detector, diode automatic volume control and Class A triode first audio stage, two 2As pentodes, final audio stage, and one " 80 rectifier.

The completed receiver is illustrated with its dynamic speaker in Figures 1, 2 and 3,
diode second detector, diode AVC and triode first audio tube, ' 58 electron coupled audio beat oscillator tube, beat oscillator coil and condenser-assembly in shield similar to that used for IF transformers, 2A5 Class A pentode power output amplifier, ' 80 rectifier


FIGURE 4. Circuit diagram of the Silver 5C receiver.
while its circuit diagram appears in Figure 4. At the center of the chassis is seen the threegang tuning condenser with its calibrated airplane dial which tunes the ' 58 screen grid tuned RF stage, and the 2A7 first detector-electron coupled oscillator circuits. At its right from front to rear, are the polished aluminum shields housing, the ' 58 RF amplifier and 2A7 first detector-electron coupled oscillator tubes, while just to the right of these tube shields is the crystal circuit, and crystal holder. From right front to left rear, the shields and tubes are: First IF transformer, ' 58 first IF amplifier, second IF transformer, second '58 IF tube, third IF transformer, '55


FIGURE 5. Sensitivity as measured on a typical 5C receiver. The saw-toothed effect of this curve is due to the fact that it is really three curves shown on one sheet indicating the sensitivity of the three separate bands of the receiver. The $3: 1$ variation observed in each range is due to the variation in $L C$ humps, due to deleterious natural periods of adjacent coils is absent in this receiver.


FIG. 6
FIGURE 6. Selectivity as measured at 6000 kc . This shows the selectivity without crystal at its worst since the adjacent channel contribution of input tuned circuits is negligible at this frequency and the selectivity is essentially that of the i.f. amThe switching in of crystal will narrow this curve to 50 cycles.
tube, and at the left front the power transformer.
The controls are, upper left, down and to right: Beat oscillator pitch tone control; noiseless, tapered volume control and on-off switch, headphone jack, tone control and manual AVC switch; lower center, three-position wave change switch, below it the beat oscillator toggle switch, sensitivity or manual volume control, send-receive toggle switch, crystal switch, and, upper right, crystal phasing control. Immediately below the airplane "watch dial" is its tuning knob, pushed in for main tuning, pulled out for band spread. The airplane dial has a large 180-degree scale, giving excellent dial spread


FIGURE 7. Fidelity antenna to speaker as measured on a 5C with crystal out. The rising high frequency characteristic of the speaker compensates
for the 6 db. drop of 4,000 cycles, which, however, is of no consequence on speech reception, being rather an academic consideration of high quality broadcast receiver design.


FIGURE 8. This curve indicates the automatic volume control action of the receiver, showing how the output rises constantly with increasing signal
input up to 100 microvolts and then levels off to the maximum output of three watts. For all practical purposes, as can be seen from the relative increments at the left, the volume may be said to be held constant for all signals of 20 microvolts or stronger since the ear will not accurately discriminate between signals of .6 of a watt and 3 watts, as is beat indicated by the sound sensation graduations at the left of the curve.

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## A Five-Meter Transceiver <br> (Continued from page 16)

the tubes performing their dual functions just as efficiently as if the receiver and transmitter were separate units.

Two binding posts are provided on the top of the case for antenna or feeder connections. Best results were obtained with a quarter-wave antenna, consisting of a fourfoot length of aluminum tubing, fitted at one end with a threaded brass insert that screws directly to one of the stand-off insulators. An eight-foot, half-wave antenna has also been found good. The four-foot tube is convenient because it is shorter. It is especially valuable when used on a car in motion, because it whips around less.

For power supply, dry batteries are used throughout. Two standard No. 6 dry cells light the filaments. Three 45 -volt B batteries energize the plates. A $71 / 2$-volt C battery furnishes bias for V2. A separate $41 / 2$-volt C battery is used for microphone current, one of the switch sections opening this circuit when the transceiver is in the receive position. A single set of batteries withstood two months of experimental service, and still seem to be all right.
As for actual results, the five-meter band is full of surprises, the right kind of surprises. Although these waves are supposed to be of the quasi-optical type, and a receiver and a transmitter must be practically within sight of each other for communication, the writer has worked more than ten miles "blind" between 100 Sixth avenue, New York, and some of the outlying sections of the city. Some of the contacts were made with stations apparently blanketed by steel buildings. In fact, one QSO was accomplished with this transceiver on the fifth floor of a 17 -story steel building, and the other station about three miles uptown! One of the beautiful features about a transceiver like this is that you can pick it up and move on, if one location isn't so good, and if another looks better.
The owner of a car can spend whole months running around with this transceiver. A favorite trick of five-meter operators is to look up the address of sime five-meter ham, drive around the corner from him and then "QSO him" over the air. The strength of the received signals is not always an indication of the transmitter's location. During one test made from the roof of 100 Sixth avenue view shown in an accompanying photo), the writer worked W2CTF in Forest Hills, L. I., a distance of about six miles airline. W2CTF was completely out of sight, vet his signals on this transceiver could be heard plainly fifty feet from the phones; This is no fiction story; witnesses were called in to hear this reception, as the writer was afraid no one would believe him later!

# Decibels-Technique and Practical Application 

By BERNARD EPHRAIM, E.E.*<br>IN TWO PARTS-PART I

THIS discourse aims to give the man with limited mathematical training the ability to make use of the decibel as he needs it in his work. To this end the explanations are detailed and complete. The exposition avoids involved mathematical terms and phrases whenever possible. - No extra books tables or reference data are needed; nor need one be very familiar with logarithms or the tiresome study of algebra, because all of the mathematics necessary for a thorough understanding of this discussion is supplemented in the subsequent paragraphs.

## Evolution of the Decibel

AFEW years ago it was customary to measure the transmission loss or gain in an audio-frequency system (telephone line) by a measurement known as the "standard cable mile." This reference represented the loss due to one mile of open wire old-type No. 19 gauge cable when connected to a special reference circuit arranged for making transmission measurements. The "standard cable mile" was actually an artificial cable of certain resistance and capacity designed to either increase or decrease the number of standard mile units while making a test. The survey consisted of making comparisons of the volume of sound received over a given number of miles. This gave a rough indication to the transmission loss or gain. While the "standard cable mile" served its purpose it had a number of disadvantages Of the most important were, first, that the attenuation constant varied for different frequencies; second, that the transmission meas urements could only be made at only one frequency and yet maintain any great amount of accuracy; and third, the unit was largely meaningless unless the frequency attenuation constant was computed and measured at the same time the standard measurements were being carried out.
For a long time the "standard cable mile" was used as a measurement until some better method was finally adopted. This led to the dropping of the old standard and substituting in its stead an arbitrarily selected unit. This new unit, called the DECIBEL (ab breviated DB), has many of the character istics of the old "standard cable mile", but fortunately has none of its disadvantages. The greatest difference between the old measuring unit and the new decibel is, that in the latter, the attenuation characteristic does not change at any or at all frequencies, while in the former, each frequency had a different at tenuation constant. The decibel always represents a fixed percentage increase or decrease in power no matter what frequency is involved.

The decibel unit used in radio engineering, and now virtually universal it all power and energy measurements, is actually a unit of amplification expressed as the common log arithm of a power or energy tatio. One decibel is $1 / 10$ of a bel. One bel or 10 decibels indicates an amplification by 10 , the common logarithm of 10 being 1 . Similarly, 2 bels or 20 decibels means amplification by 100; 30 decibels means amplification by 1000 and so on. It is well to remember that an attenuator (losser network of resistances)

[^2]equating to 10 decibels the output power will always be one-tenth of the input power. Mathematically, the power ratio for 1 decibel may be expressed as
$$
\frac{P_{1}}{P_{2}}=10^{1} \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots
$$

Where $P_{1}$ is the power input; $P_{2}$, the power output. The number of decibels really represents a power gain or loss depending upon whether the relation $P_{1} / P_{2}$ is greater or less than 1.

Expressions for various power ratios are now commonly employed in communication engineering at audio and at radio frequencies. To express a ratio between any two amounts of power, it is convenient to use units on a logarithmic scale based on the Briggs System of logarithms. This system is now in general use for all practical purposes. A logarithmic scale facilitates making conversions in positive or negative directions between the number of decibels and the corresponding power, voltage and current ratios.

## The Logarithmic Table

ATABLE of logarithms is presented in Fig. 1. This table does not differ essentially from any other similar table except that here no proportional parts are given and the figures are stated to only three decimal places; this arrangement has been found to be satisfactory for all practical purposes. A complete exposition on logarithms is without the scope of this paper, however, the very essentials together with the practical use of the tables and their application to decibels is given herewith. Thus, a person need not be concerned with the study of logarithms other than their direct employment to decibels; this salient point completely simplifies more than half of the mathematical pre-requisites needed for this discussion.

The logarithm of a number usually consists of two parts: a whole number, called the characteristic, and a decimal called the mantissa. The characteristic is the integral portion to the left of the decimal point (see examples below), and the mantissa is the value placed to the right. The mantissa is all that appears in any table of logarithms. In the logarithm the mantissa is independent of the position of the decimal point, while on the contrary the characteristic is dependent only on the position of the number with relation to the decimal point. Thus in the following examples:

|  | Number | Logarithm |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| (a) | 4021. | $=3.604$ |
| (b) | 402.1 | $=2.604$ |
| (c) | 40.21 | $=1.604$ |
| (d) | 4.021 | $=0.604$ |
| (e) | .4021 | $=-1.604$ |
| (f) | .04021 | $=-2.604$ |

It will be seen that the characteristic is equal, algebraically, to the number of places minus one, which the first significant figure of the number occupied to the left of the decimal point. In (a) the characteristic is 3 ; in (b) 2 ; in (d) 0 ; in (e) -1 ; and in (f) -2 . The following should be remembered: (1) that for a number greater than 1 , the characteristic is one less than the number of significant figures in the number; and (2), that
a number wholly a decimal, the characteristic is negative and is numerically one greater than the number of ciphers immediately following the decimal point. Notice (e) and (f) in the above examples.

## Finding a Logarithm

TO find a common logarithm of any number simply proceed as directed here. with: Suppose the number to be 5576. First, determine the number of figures there are to be in the characteristic. An inspection will show that this number will be 3 . This figure is placed to the LEFT of a decimal point. The mantissa is now found by referring to the logarithm table in Fig. 1. Proceed by selecting the first two numbers which are 55 . then glance down the N column until coming to these figures, advance to the right until coming in line with the column headed 7 , the number will be 745. (Note that the column headed 7 corresponds to the third figure in the number 5576.) Place the mantissa 745 to the RIGHT of the decimal point making the number now read 3.745 . This is the logarithm of 5576. IMPORTANT: Do not consider the last figure, 6 , in the number 5576 when looking for the mantissa; in fact, disregard all figures beyond the first three when determining the mantissa, however, be doubly sure to include ALL figures when ascertaining the magnitude of the characteristic.

Practical applications applying the logarithm to decibels will follow. Other methods. using the iogarithm will be discussed as the subject develops.

## Three Place Logarithms

N

10000000000000000000000000000000 .
000004008012017021025029033037 041045049053056060064068071075 079082086089093096100103107110

 176 |79 |8| | 84187190193195198201 204206209212214217220222225227 230233235238240243245248250252 255257260262264267269271274276 278 28। 283285287290292294296298. 301303305307309311313316318320 322324326328330332334336338340 , 342344346348350352354356358359 . 361363365367368371372374376378 380382383385387389390392394396 397399401403404406408409411413 415416418420421423424426428429 431433434436437439440442444445 $\begin{array}{llllllllll}447 & 448 & 450 & 451 & 453 & 454 & 456 & 457 & 459 & 460 \\ 462 & 463 & 465 & 466 & 468 & 469 & 471 & 472 & 474 & 475\end{array}$ 462463465466468469471472474475 477478480481482484485487488490. 491492494495496498499501502503 505506507509510511513514515517 518519521522523525526527528530 531 532534535536537539540541542 544545546547549550551552553555 556557558559561562563564565567 568569570571572574575576577578 579580582583584585586587588599 591592593594595596597598599601 602603604605606607608609610611 612613614616617618619620621622 $\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllll}623 & 624 & 625 & 626 & 627 & 628 & 629 & 630 & 631 & 632\end{array}$ 633634635636637638639640641642 643644645646647648649650651652


IN the design of radio devices and amplifying equipment the power level is taken at six milliwatts (.006w.). This corresponds to the arbitrary reference level of ZERO DECIBELS. All power levels above the reference level are designated as PLUS quantities, and below as MINUS. The figure always being prefixed by a plus $(+)$ or minus $(-)$ sign commanding the direction in which the quantity is to be read.

It is unfortunate that all reference levels of zero decibels do not represent a power of six milliwatts; of course, this leads to confusion. However, conversions are easily made from one reference level to another by simply adding or taking away the necessary amount of units from the scale in question; then these values, or conversions, are compared to the six milliwatt, zero decibel level. Some power levels used in allied engineering fields are:

## RADIO BROADCASTING

$0 \mathrm{DB}=6.0$ milliwatt at input to 600 ohm load
N. B. C. SYSTEM
$0 \mathrm{DB}=12.5$ milliwatt at input to 500 ohm load

TELEPHONE
$0 \mathrm{DB}=2.4$ milliwatt at input to 600 ohm

## OUND PICTURES

$0 \mathrm{DB}=6.0$ milliwatt at input to 600 ohm load
ACOUSTICS (Acoustic Soc. Amer., new stds.)
$0 \mathrm{DB}=1 \times 10-.16$ watts per $\mathrm{sq} / \mathrm{cm}$ (this is equal to 0.207 millibar sound pressure.)

## Power to Decibels

T IS sometimes customary to designate an amplifier having an output of 15 watts to be 14.994 watts above the zero level of 6 milliwatts. This power corresponds to a gain of approximately 33 decibels above the reference datum. Should there be a loss or gain in an amplifier or in an attenuating network, the decibel value would be either PLUS or MINUS according to the direction of amplification or attenuation.

The power output (watts) of any amplifier may be easily converted to decibels if the input and output impedances are equal. The following methods explain the technique in detail:

ILLUSTRATION: An amplifier using a 2A5 tube is said to deliver an undistorted output of three watts. How much is this in decibels?

The formula for solving this problem is:

$$
\mathrm{Ndb}=10 \log _{10} \frac{\mathrm{P}_{1}}{\mathrm{P}_{2}}
$$

Where Ndb is the desired power level in decibels; $P_{1}$, the output of the amplifier; and $P_{2}$, the reference level of 6 milliwatts. The subnumeral, 10 , affixed to the Log, indicates that the logarithm is to be extracted from a table based on the exponent of a power to which 10 must be raised in order to produce a number.
SOLUTION:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{P_{1}}{P_{2}} & =\frac{3}{.006}=500 \\
\text { and } \log 500 & =2.69
\end{aligned}
$$

therefore $10 \times 2.69=26.9$ DECIBELS
By substituting other values for those in the solution, any output power may be converted into decibels PROVIDED that the decibel equivalent is ABOVE the zero reference level or the power is NOT LESS than 6 milliwatts.
A slightly different procedure must be fol lowed to determine the decibel equivalent of a power BELOW the 6 milliwatt reference datum. Here, as in the illustration above, the same formula is applied, but, involving slight mathematical modifications.
To solve most all problems to which the solution will be given in minus DBs, a simple understanding of algebra is required. Follow carefully these fundamental processes: To add algebraically, it is of cardinal importance to observe the plus and minus signs of expressions. (Do not confuse these signs with decibels.) In the succeeding illustrations notice that the result was caused sometimes by addition and other times by subtraction.

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
+2 \\
-4 & -4 & -4 & +4 \\
-2 & -6 & -2 & \frac{+2}{-2} \\
\hline \mathrm{~b} & \frac{+6}{+6}
\end{array}
$$

The terms arranged in $c$ are most often used in decibel calculations.

When a solution to a problem involving logarithms will be in minus DBs, note particularly that the characteristic of the logarithm will be prefixed by a minus sign ( - ). This sign only effects the characteristic while the mantissa remains positive. The mantissa always remains thus, no matter what direction the solution brings the decibel. A prefix -1 to a logarithm means that the first figure of the number will be the first place to
the right of the decimal; -2 , will occupy the second place to the right, while a cipher fills the first place; -3 , the third place with two ciphers filling the first and second places, and so on.

To multiply a minus characteristic and a positive mantissa by 10 , each part must be considered separately, multiplied by 10 , and then the products added algebraically. Thus in the following example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
10 \times-1.9 & =-1 \text { ANSWER } \\
10 \times-1 . & =-10 \\
10 \times .9 & =+9
\end{aligned}
$$

-1 (adding algebraically)
Combining all the preceding mathematical processes the following examples demonstrate how to apply the aforegoing technique to decibel calculations.

ILLUSTRATION: An amplifier using a 199 tube has an output of 5 milliwatts. How much is this in decibels?

SOLUTION: By Equation (2)

$$
\frac{\mathrm{P}_{1}}{\mathrm{P}_{2}}=\frac{.005}{.006}=.83
$$

$\log .83=-1.9$ (act. -1.920 )
Therefore $10 \times-1.9=-1$ DECIBEL

$$
(10 \times-1=-10 ; 10 \times .9=+9
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { adding the products algebraically } \\
& =-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

## $=-1$ )

By substituting other values for those in the above solution, any power output BELOW 6 milliwatts or the zero reference level may be converted to decibels.

## Determining DB Gain or Loss

T using amplifiers it is a prime requisite to know the decibel gain or loss when - the input and output powers are known To determine the gain or loss in DB , the following examples are given:

ILLUSTRATION: An intermediate amplifier is being driven by an input power of .2 watts; after amplification, the output is found to be 6 watts. If equal impedances are assumed the gain in decibels will be given by the following equation:

$$
\text { (gain) } \mathrm{Ndb}=10 \log \frac{\mathrm{Po}_{0}}{\mathrm{Pi}_{\mathrm{i}}} \ldots \ldots \text { (3) }
$$

Where Ndb is the number of decibels gained; Po, the output power; and Pi , the input power.

SOLUTION: By Equation (3)

$$
\frac{\mathrm{Po}}{\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{i}}}=\frac{12}{.2}=60
$$

$\log 60=1.77$
Therefore $10 \times 1.77=17.7$ DECIBELS GAIN.

In the above illustration should there have been a loss in decibels instead of a gain, it would only have been necessary to invert the power input and output ratios in the fraction $\mathrm{Po} / \mathrm{Pi}$ to $\mathrm{Pi} / \mathrm{Po}$.
ILLUSTRATION: A certain frequency was being partially attenuated during amplification which caused the power output at this frequency to drop from 12 to 9 watts. What was this loss in decibels?
A simple solution is given by the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { (loss) } \mathrm{Ndb}=10 \log \frac{\mathrm{Pi}}{\mathrm{Po}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where Ndb is the number of decibels lossed; Pi , the input power; Po, the output power.

SOLUTION: By Equation (4)

$$
\frac{\mathrm{Pi}}{\mathrm{Po}_{\mathrm{o}}}=\frac{9}{12}=.75
$$

$\log .75=-1.8$
Therefore $10 \times-1.8=-2$ DECIBEL LOSS
Since 12 watts correspond to approximately 33 decibels, a loss of 2 DB is therefore in the negative direction making the output level be PLUS 31 DB during amplification.

POWER amplifiers used for either public address work or for low-powered modulators are usually rated as having a certain power output in watts together with a certain gain in decibels. The power output is meant to signify the actual wattage delivered to the output terminals, while that of the rated gain is the difference between the number of decibels exciting the input and the number delivered to the output. An amplifier having a power output of 14 watts with a rated gain of 104 decibels does not mean that there are 104 decibels delivered at the output terminals. However, it does mean that the difference between the input power level, which is in minus decibels, to that of the output power level, plus, is 104 DB . Actually, this amplifier has only an output of approximately 34 decibels above the zero reference datum, but is capable of amplifying powers from a minus 70DB level.

The technical specifications or rating on power amplifiers given by engineers and custom-builders contain only the most meager of information. In general, the details only encompass the overall gain in decibels, the power output in watts, and the value of the input and output impedances. This complement is incomplete as there should have been included the input signal level in DB , the input signal voltage, and the power output level in decibels. Since none of these specifications are given, each may be calculated by various formula. The procedure to follow in computing any of these unknown values is systematically carried out in these papers under random topic headings.
Should the specifications on amplifiers had included only the input and output signal levels in decibels, it then would be necessary to know how much these values represented in power. The methods employed to determine power levels are not similar to those used in previous calculations. Caution should therefore be taken in reading the following explanations with particular care and attention being paid to the minor arithmetical operations.

## The Anti-logarithm

TO determine a power level from some given decibel value, it is necessary to invert the logarithmic process formerly employed in converting power to decibels. Here, instead of looking for the log of a number it is now necessary to find the antilogarithm or number corresponding to a given logarithm.

In deriving a number corresponding to a logarithm it is important that these simple rules be committed to memory: (1) that the figures that form the original number from a corresponding logarithm depend entirely upon the mantissa or the decimal part of the $\log$; (2), that the characteristic only serves to indicate where to place the decimal point of the original number; and (3), that if the original number was a whole number the decimal point would be placed to the extreme right.

The procedure of finding the number corresponding to a logarithm is explained as follows: Suppose the number to be 3.574 . First, search in the table under any column from 0 to 9 for the numbers of the mantissa 574 . If the exact number cannot be found, look for the next lowest figure which is nearest to, but less than, the given mantissa. After the mantissa has been located simply glance immediately to the left to the N index column and there will be read the number, 37. This number comprises the first two figures of the number corresponding to the anti$\log$. The third figure of the number will appear at the head of the column in which the mantissa was found. In this instance the number heading the column will be 5 . If
the figures have been arranged as they have been found the number will now be 375 . Now since the characteristic is 3 , there must be four figures to the LEFT of the decimal point; therefore, by annexing a cipher the number becomes 3750 ; this is the number that corresponds to the logarithm 3.574. If the characteristic was 2 instead of 3 , the number would be 375 . If the logarithm was -3.573 or -2.574 the anti-logs or corresponding numbers would be .00375 and .0375 respectively. After a little experience a person can obtain the number corresponding to a logarithm in a very few seconds.

## Converting Decibels to Power

IT IS always convenient to be able to convert a decibel value to a power equivalent in order to determine the ratio differences. The formula used for converting decibels into watts is similar in many respects to Equation (2), the only difference being that the factor $P_{1}$, corresponding to the power level, is not known. The mathematical expression for converting decibels into power is usually written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{Ndb}=10 \log \frac{\mathrm{P}_{1}}{.006} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

In practice it has been found that it is too difficult to explain the solution to the above equation on account of the expression being written in the reverse. However, by re-arranging the various factors, the expression can be simplified to permit easy visualization, thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=.006 \times \text { anti-log } \frac{N d b}{10} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where P is the desired power level; .006 , the reference level in milliwatts; Ndb, the decibels to be converted; and 10 , the divisor.
To determine the power level, P , from a decibel equivalent simply divide the decibel value by 10 and extract the anti-logarithm of the quotient, then take the number comprising the anti-log and multiply it by .006 ; the product gives the power level of the decibel value.
ILLUSTRATION: The output power level in a certain low-powered amplifier was said to be PLUS 27.6 decibels. How many watts does this value represent?

SOLUTION: By Equation (6)

$$
\mathrm{Ndb}=\frac{27.6}{10}=2.76
$$

Anti-log $2.76=576$
$.006 \times 576=3.456$ WATTS
Another example will illustrate how the above operation is carried out when the decibel value is NEGATIVE.

ILLUSTRATION: A popular make of twobutton microphone is said to have an output level of -40 DB . Express this value in milliwatts.

SOLUTION: By Equation (6)

$$
\mathrm{Ndb}=\frac{-40}{10}=-4
$$

Anti-log $=.0001$
$.006 \times .0001=.0000006$ or .6 Microwatts
IMPORTANT: In all problems dealing with the conversion of MINUS decibels to power it often happens that the decibel value -Ndb , is not always equally divisible by 10 . When this is the case, the numerator in the factor $-\mathrm{Ndb} / 10$ must be made evenly divisible by the denominator in order to derive the proper power ratio. Note that the value -Ndb is negative, hence, when dividing by 10, the negative signs must be observed and the quotient labeled accordingly. Always remember that from the negative quotient the anti-log must be extracted.

To make the numerator in the value -Ndb equally divisible by 10 , proceed as follows:

Assume -Ndb to be the logarithm -38 with a zero mantissa, hence, in order to make -38 divisible by 10 simply annex as many units as is necessary from the zero mantissa and add them to the -38 until the figure can be equally divided. An examination will show it was only necessary to add two urlits to bring - 38 up to -40 . CAREFULLY NOTE that every unit borrowed from the zero mantissa must be returned to it as a positive quantity multiplied by 10. Thus, the two units borrowed to bring -38 up to -40 is returned as 20 , making what was a zero mantissa now have a value of 20 . The numerator -Ndb , now becomes -40.20 ; this figure can now be equally divided by 10 .
While the above discussion applies strictly to negative values the following examples will clearly show the technique to be followed for most all practical problems.

ILLUSTRATION: The output level of a popular velocity ribbon microphone is rated at -74 DB . What is this equivalent in milliwatts?
$\begin{array}{rc}\text { SOLUTION: } & \text { By Equation (6) } \\ -\mathrm{Ndb} & -74\end{array}$
$-\mathrm{Ndb}-74$
$\frac{}{10}=\frac{-74}{10}$ (not divisible by 10 )
Routine,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -74 \text { mantissa } \\
& \frac{+660}{-8060}(6 \times 10) \\
& -\mathrm{Ndb} \quad-80.60 \\
& \frac{-}{10}=\frac{.6}{10}=-8.6 \\
& \text { Antilog } \\
& -8.6=.00000004
\end{aligned}
$$

$.006 \times .00000004=.000000000240$ or

## 240 MICRO-MICROWATTS

In the next example a somewhat different arrangement will be found from that of the above illustration. However, while the solution is substantially the same, particular attention must be given to the method of adding the mantissas.

ILLUSTRATION: A low-powered amplifier has an input signal level of -17.3 DB . How many milliwatts does this value represent?

SOLUTION: By Equation (6)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{-\mathrm{Ndb}}{10}=\frac{-17.3}{10}=-2.33 \\
& -17 \cdot 3 \\
& +3 \cdot 30 \\
& \hline-20 \cdot 33
\end{aligned}
$$

(the mantissas were added as 30 plus 3 , and NOT . 3 plus .30)
Anti-log $-2.33=.0398$
$.006 \times .0398=.0002388$ or .24 MILLIWATTS

## Calls Heard at Radio WIDDO

CM2DO, CM2GR, CN8MP, CX2AM, D4BBN D4BGT, D4BHH, D4BNK, EA1BC, EA3BV, EA3EG, F3BR, F3DM, F3DN, F8EC, F8FC, G2HG, G2LAK, G2XUF, F2ZJ, G5KU, G5ML, G2BM, G5VB, G5VH, G5WP, G5WZ, G5YV, G6GV, G6HB, G6VK, HAF3D, 'HAF3H, HAF4H' HB9AV HC1FG, HC1PZ, HC2JM, HJ5ABG, HJAAW HP1A, K5AA, K5AF, NY1AB, NY NAB, LU1EP, LU2AM, LU3DE, LU3DD, LU4DJD, LU4FO, LU6DJK, LU6ER, ON4ABC, ON4DX,
ON4FE, ON4GW, ON4HBP, ON4MAD, ON4RX, ON4FE, ON4GW, ON4HBP, ON4MAD, ON4RX,
OK1AZ, OK1JB, OK2HM, PA0SD, PAOXG OK1AZ, OK1JB, OK2HM, PA0SD, PA0XG, PA0XR, PA0ZK, PA0CE, PA0PA, PY1AW PY1IF, PY1IX, PY2BX, PY2CD, PY2IB, PY9AH TI2KF, TT2TAO, UINP, VE4CD, VE4GQ, VE4TJ VE4TO, W6AWA, W6BAM, W6EBM, W6EGH W6FNY, W6IQ, W6HML, W6KNF, W6LFL W7AYQ, W7BCE, W7BRU, W7CGR, W7DRJ VP5AB VP2CD, VP2BX, VP4AA, VP4TC X1LB, $\mathrm{X} 1 \mathrm{AG}, \mathrm{XOH} 2 \mathrm{FJ}, ~ X Z 4 F$.
CM2QY, CM2RA, CM2SV, CM6XS, G5BY, G6BJ, G5ML, HC1FG, HI7G, H18X, K4SA, TI3WD, W6CNE, W6FFN, W6KS (?), W7ARK All these calls were heard on the 14 MC band from August 14 to September 5. Conditions on " 20 " were fair. $\begin{aligned} & \text { Respectfully submitted, } \\ & \text { Bob" Ruplenas, W1DDO }\end{aligned}$

# Radiotelephony for Beginners 

By 'LINEAR'

## A Complete Instruction Course PART I

THE TRANSMISSION of intelligence from one point to another by means of the human voice is a much more complex process than the transmission of code signals and calls for a somewhat more technical knowledge on the part of the operator. The successful operator of a Radiophone station must know a great deal about the transmission of CW signals in addition to a knowledge of the fundamentals of sound amplification and modulation. The average CW transmitter can stand a reasonble amount of mal-adjustment without seriously affecting the quality or intelligibility of the received signal. On the other hand, a phone station must be properly designed and adjusted, otherwise various forms of undesired distortion and interference will arise.
To the layman, a phone transmitter may seem very complicated, but all types can be grouped into several components which, in themselves, are relatively simple.
The average phone transmitter can be divided into three major components: (1) The portion that generates and amplifies the radio frequency carrier wave. (2) The portion that converts the sound waves from the operator's lips into electrical waves and then amplifies these audio frequency waves. (3) The portion of the transmitter that takes the amplified audio frequency voice currents and mixes them (modulation) with the radio frequency carrier waves in such a manner that the power output of the phone transmitter varies in exact accordance with the variations in sound pressure applied to the microphone.
While the carrier itself has no effect on the loud-speaker at the receiving station, any variation in the carrier is detected and it is this variation which is turned back into sound waves by the loud speaker. Thus it is seen that the variations in the carrier output are important, not the characteristics of the carrier itself.
A study of the fundamental principles of Radiotelephony will materially aid the operator in obtaining satisfactory results. It will further help him avoid most of the common troubles which are so often encountered by the newcomer in the field.

## Modulation Fundamentals

IN GENERAL, all communication systems utilize audio frequency waveforms. These can be pure tones and square-topped waves, for use in code transimssion, on either land lines or over radio circuits. Or these waveforms can be quite complex, for conveying telephonic speech directly, without translating the intelligence conveved into the dots and dashes of the telegraphic or radio codes. The range of audio frequencies required to transmit the intelligence varies from a few cycles per second to 10,000 cycles, depending on whether telegraphic or high-quality telephonic speech is used. For amateur purposes, an audio frequency range of from 200 to 2800 cycles per second will provide intelligibility, although fully-natural and pleasing reproduction of the transmitted speech requires a range of from at least 100 cycles to 4000 cycles. True high fidelity reproduction of speech means that all audio frequencies between 80 and 8000 cycles are faithfully reproduced at the receiving point. Whereas this order of fidelity is all too rare in amateur practice, it should
nevertheless be encouraged because high fidelity makes an R 2 phone signal intelligible. Thus high fidelity is a distinct advantage in working that elusive DX, especially if the receiving operator speaks a foreign language and has difficulty in understanding the particular variety of English you happen to speak.

Communication systems have two essential features, whether land lines or a radio circuit are used between the transmitting and receiving points.

1. A means of transferring energy from the transmitter to the receiver. A land line system utilizes the flow of current through a conductor. A radio system utilizes electro-magnetic waves, propagated through the ether.
2. A means of "moulding" the transferred energy in accordance with the intelligence conveyed. This is the modulation, and the portion of the transmitted signal which actuates the receiving device, whether it is a loudspeaker or telegraph sounder.
In the transmission of telegraphic sig. nals over a radio circuit, the carrier is radiated only during the "mark" period. The "space" is obtained and defined by an absence of the carrier. On the other hand, when telephonic communication is used on a radio channel, the carrier remains on between syllables and words. The audio signal periodically augments and reduces the amplitude of the carrier, but the average amplitude of the carrier remains constant. Inasmuch as it is the VARIATION of the carrier, and not its absolute value, that conveys the useful signal, many amateurs and experimenters have wondered why a transmitter could not be arranged so that no carrier is radiated except when an audio signal is present, and the carrier amplitude increased from zero to maximum, then down to zero with each audio impulse. Such a system would enable small tubes to give a tremendously high modulated output. It also would permit the use of smaller modulator tubes, whose economies are greatly to be desired. Such transmitters have been built but they have so many offsetting disadvantages that it may require some time before they are applied to amateur practice. Certain commercial telephone circuits use this type of modulation, termed "Suppressed Carrier Single Sideband," but it is not very widely used because of the difficulty in obtaining satisfactory speech quality. The principal reason for the difficulties involved in Suppressed Carrier systems lies in the inability to maintain the oscillator in the receiver in exact synchronism with the oscillator in the transmitter.

## The Sideband Theory

THERE ARE two ways of visualizing the effect of amplitude modulation on a radio frequency carrier. First, the audio frequency modulating signal alters the amplitude of the carrier wave so that the envelope, or outline, of the carrier wave conforms to the audio signal applied. It is assumed, in this case, that the carrier wave remains perfectly constant in frequency and in average amplitude. This concept of a modulated carrier is quite useful until one starts to analyze the distribution of power between the carrier and the audio frequency speech components.
The second conception is based on the fact that any complex modulated wave can be re-
solved into its component frequencies and their harmonics. Thus, when a modulated carrier is analyzed, it is found that the original carrier is present, plus two groups of sum and difference frequencies, which have been named the upper and lower sidebands. These sidebands are generated in the transmitter by the familiar heterodyne process, which is commonly used in superheterodyne receivers. Thus one sideband consists of waves whose frequencies equal that of the carrier PLUS that of all the individual audio components, and the orher sideband consists of waves whose frequencies equal that of the carrier MINUS all the audio components. In other words, the carrier and the audio signal were HETERODYNED together into a group of BEAT FREQUENCIES by the detecting action of the modulated amplifier.
DETECTION and MODULATION mean much the same. In fact, the detector in the receiver which receives the modulated wave and turns it back into an audio frequency wave which is applied to the loudspeaker, repeats the heterodyne action of the radiophone transmitter and completely reverses the process. In the receiving detector (or audio de-modulator, as it is sometimes called) the incoming carrier BEATS with the incoming sidebands and thus the sum (or difference) frequencies between the two become an exact equivalent of the original audio frequency modulating signal, which can now actuate the loudspeaker. When a suppressed carrier system is used a local oscillator must be provided in the receiver in order to re-supply a carrier wave for the incoming sideband (or sidebands, when both are used) to heterodyne with, in order that an audio beat frequency can be obtained to reproduce the signal. It will be seen that the local oscillator must maintain exactly the same frequency as the oscillator used at the transmitter, which was modulated to produce the transmitted sideband. If the frequency of the receiver oscillator drifts slightly, it will not only change the pitch of the fundamental tones in the transmitted speech, but will also shift the frequencies of all the overtones in such a manner that they will no longer be integral harmonics of their associated fundamental tones. The resulting distortion and quality impairment will utterly destroy the intelligibility of the channel. A drift of only a few cycles is sufficient to make most speech absolutely unintelligible, and it is almost impossible to maintain high frequency oscillators sufficiently close together without extensive frequency stabilizing equipment.
Let us therefore eliminate any consideration of suppressed carrier modulation systems until such time as cheap filters and stable oscillators are available to the amateur.
The sideband theory quite satisfactorily explains the interference which occurs when two phone stations use carrier frequencies that are close together. The carrier takes up practically no room in the frequency spectrum, but each sideband contains all of the audio signal components so that the modulated signal requires a frequency band twice as wide as the highest audio modulating frequency. If the transmitter responds to all audio signals impressed on the microphone between 100 and 4000 cycles per second, then-the band width extends 4000 cycles below the carrier and 4000 cycles above the carrier frequency. This 8000 cycle band will cause some interference to any other sta(Continued on Page 33)

# All-Wave Receiver Circuit Tracking 

ALARGE number of the new superheterodyne receivers use a stage of tuned radio frequency amplification as a means of improving the signal-to-noise ratio and to reduce image interference. This means three tuned circuits, one of which is detuned by the intermediate frequency of 465 KC , or some such value. For simplification of tuning adjustment, these circuits should track so that a single dial control may be used without resorting to panel-controlled trimmers. If a band-spread control is used, it should control all three circuits simultaneously, either mechanically or by means of a three-gang trimmer condenser. Unless this is done, the image ratio will be poor and the signal-to-noise ratio and sensitivity will also suffer badly.

Tracking the detector and r.f. circuits does not offer any great obstacles, since the coil inductances can be made equal for each band; the tuning range is the same for each circuit, and individual mica trimmer condensers can be used to compensate for unequal circuit fixed capacities.

Tracking the oscillator circuit to the other two circuits is a different problem. The oscillator, for example, works at 450 KC higher frequency than the other two tuned circuits and has to maintain that difference over each tuning range. The range of from 15 to 550 meters is usually split up into four or five bands by means of a multi-section switch. This means a different set of tracking calculations for each band, since the tuning ratio of the oscillator to the signal frequency circuits is different for each band. By the proper proportion of circuit constants, the three tuned circuits can be made stants, the within less than one-half of one per cent, which is ample for coils of relatively high " $Q$ " or efficiency.

Calculation of the inductances and capacities for an all wave receiver are exact, but some of the values used in the calculations are necessarily approximate due to the circuit layout and type of switching used. The easiest system is one in which each band has its own set of coils with the switching done on the grid end of each coil. The circuit fixed capacities can be fairly closely approximated, and by having individual trimmers on every coil, very good tracking can be obtained. In one super, image ratio measurement at 75 meters gave a value of 4500 and in another similar receiver "which had not been tracked properly, a ratio of less than 1000 to 1.
In Fig. 1 is shown the usual coil and tuning condenser with the circuit and tube shunt capacities $C_{0}$ and the oscillator series padding condenser $\mathrm{C}_{s}$. The value $\mathrm{C}_{0}$ includes the added trimmer condensers. THE RF oscillator and detector tuning condensers could be a three gang 18 to 360 uufd. condenser without trimmers. The tube capacities, primary windings, wiring and switch capacities can be lumped up to a value of 30 uuf, part of which is in the coil trimmer condenser. This gives a minimum of 48 uuf. and a maximum of 390 . A coil of 220 microhenrys inductance will tune from about 540 to 1510 KC using the familiar old formula

$$
f=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{\text { LG }}}
$$

The oscillator would have to track by a difference of the intermediate frequency used, which might be 450 KC . This circuit should then tune from about 990 to 1960 KC , which is a smaller range or ratio. The detector and RF have to cover a frequency range of 2.8 to 1 , while the oscillator covers a range of 1.98 to 1. To track the oscillator as nearly perfectly as possible, both the tuning capacity

By FRANK C. JONES

ratio and the value of inductance have to be reduced. Several values of $L, C_{O}$ and $C_{S}$ in the oscillator will give correct tracking at the high and low frequency ends of the tuning condenser but not in the middle portion. By a series of substitutions of values the final results work out with a value of $\mathrm{C}_{s}$ of 450 uufd an oscillator inductance of 121 uh . and $C_{O}$ of $62,18+44$ uufd.

The next coil range might be from 3500 to 9330 with a coil of 5.2 microhenrys, and a $C_{D}$ of 38 mmfd . The corresponding oscillator range would be from 3950 to 9780 . This works out to give an $L_{O}$ of 4.6 microhenrys, $C_{S}$ of .003 mfd , and $C_{O}$ of 39 mmfd .

Similarly the next and shortest wave coil would cover from 8 MC to 21 MC with an inductance of one microhenry and a total shunt capacity $C_{D}$ of 39.2 mmfd . The oscillator would cover the range of 8.45 to 21.45 MC with a $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{O}}$ of .95 uh . a $\mathrm{C}_{s}$ of .006 and a $C_{C}$ of $391 / 2 \mathrm{mmfd}$.

## Checking this

$$
\mathrm{f}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{\mathrm{LC}}}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{121 \times 10^{-6}\left(\frac{[360+44] \times 450}{360+44+450}\right) \times 10^{-12}}}=990 \mathrm{KC}
$$

At the other end

$$
\mathrm{f}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{121 \times 10^{-6} \times\left(\frac{450 \times 62}{450+62}\right) \times 10^{-12}}}=1960 \mathrm{KC}
$$

At the middle

$$
\mathrm{fdet}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{\mathrm{Lc}}}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{220 \times 10^{-6} \times(120+30) \times 10^{-12}}}=875 \mathrm{KC}
$$

At the middle

$$
\mathrm{f} \text { osc }=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{121 \times 10^{-6}\left(\frac{[120+44] \times 450}{120+44 \times 450}\right) \times 10^{-12}}}=1324
$$

which gives a value of 449 KC difference, well within the limitations desired. The ratio of oscillator to detector inductance was .55 for the broadcast range coils.
The other coils are figured in a similar manner. The next RF and detector coils should tune from about 1460 KC to 4000 KC in order to provide a slight overlap. The oscillator coil should cover from 1910 to 4450 WC or a ratio of 2.33 to 1 as against 2.74 to 1 for the other two circuits. The oscillator has to cover a little greater range in proportion this time so the padder condenser $C_{S}$ would be greater. An RF and detector coil of 30 microhenrys will tune


FIG. 1

These various values of $C_{O}$ and $C_{D}$ are easily obtained by means of individual trimmers on each coil circuit. The values of $\mathrm{C}_{s}$ can be fixed, of the type $+3 \%$ mica condensers, and the coil inductances varied slightly by moving an end turn or two; or the coils can be wound to a fixed number of turns in a given winding length, and these $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{s}}$ values made slightly variable by means of adjustable padders across fixed mica condensers.

It should be remembered that for high frequency oscillators, air trimmer condensers, and special mica condensers for $\mathrm{C}_{s}$, are necessary to minimize frequency drift.

In some coil switching circuits, the coils are in series instead of using individual coil circuits. The proper values of industance for each section can be found by subtracting the other coil inductances as is done in the following example.

The presence of shielding and interwound primary circuits has not been considered ex-

| Signa! Freq. Range | R.F. or Detector Inductance per coil | No. of Turns | Osc. Inductance per coil | No. of Turns | $\underset{\mathrm{mfd} .}{\mathrm{C}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $540-1510$ $1460-4030$ | $190$ $24.8$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { II5t \#30 Enam. } \\ & 34 \dagger \text { \#26 DSC } \end{aligned}$ | 98. $18.4$ | $\begin{gathered} 65 t \text { \#30 E. } \\ 27 t \text { \#26 DSC. } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & .00045 \\ & .0012 \end{aligned}$ |
| $3500-9330 \mathrm{KC}$ | 24.8 4.2 | $13+\# 24$ at 24 t.p.i. | 3.65 | $12+$ \#24 at 24 t.p.i. | . 003 |
| $8 \mathrm{MC}-21 \mathrm{MC}$ | 1.0 | $41 / 4$ t \#24 at 24 t.p.i. | . 95 | 4t \#24 at t.p.i. | . 006 |
| Total | 220. | Total | 121. |  |  |

All on I inch Bakelite coil forms.
All trimmers are 5 to 25 mmfd .
from 1460 to 4030 KC with a minimum total capacity of 52 and a maximum of 394 uuf. This allows 34 mmfd for miscellaneous capacities, including trimmer, as against 30 in the broadcast band. The tuning condenser minimum is still 18 uufds.

The oscillator would actually cover from 1910 to 4480 KC and the values work out as $C_{S}=1200$ uuf. $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{O}}=39$ and $\mathrm{L}=23$ microhenrys.
cept as to the capacity effects involved. Since the inductance of each coil would be reduced slightly by the presence of the shields, it might be necessary to add a turn or two to the largest coils, but this would not be ne: cessary if all metal shields are kept at least $5 / 8$ of an inch clear of all parts of each coil. Long leads should be avoided, especially on the short wave coil leads to the switches and tuning condensers.

# Real Economy in Grid Circuit Neutralizing Of Single-Ended R. F. Amplifiers 

By J. N. A. HAWKINS

MOST amateurs have, for years, pre ferred plate circuit neutralization, as shown in Fig. 1, which was originally invented by Hazeltine. This form of neutralization utilizes a split plate tank (whether split stator condenser or split coil) to provide the out-of-phase voltage which, when applied to the grid of the tube, cancels out the feedback voltage which is fed back through the grid-plate capacity of the tube itself. If this feedback voltage is not neutralized it will overwhelm the excitation voltage applied to the grid from the preceding oscillator or buffer stage and thus the amplifier under consideration would os cillate by itself, at a frequency determined largely by the industance and capacity of the plate tank. It is this undesirable oscillation that is prevented by the process known as neutralization.
A surprisingly large number of amateurs have never heard of the form of grid circuit neutralization invented by Rice, and which utilizes a split grid tank to provide the out-of-phase neutralizing voltage. The circuit of this method is shown in Fig. 2. Let us consider the relative advantages of each method. Let us also limit ourselves to a modern, link-coupled stage.

Fig. 1 shows the usual method of plate neutralization. The plate tank is split by grounding the rotor of the split stator tank condenser. This method of splitting the plate tank has so many advantages over the method which by-passes the center of the tank coil to ground, that the split condenser method only will be considered.

The grid circuit is rather simple. A single section tuning condenser is entirely satisfactory because one end of the condenser is at ground capacity, with respect to $R F$, when neutralizing in the plate circuit. The blocking condenser Cb usually has a low voltage across it, and thus it need not be of an expensive type. However, some users report a strange tendency for this condenser to blow up, although no satisfactory explanation for this trouble has yet been given.

The split plate circuit, on the other hand, is rather complicated and the split stator condenser is quite expensive, because it must be much larger in size than a single section condenser of the same overall capacity. The split stator condenser also has twice as many points of support for the stators and thus must have twice as many insulators as the single section type. At first glance it would appear that each of the insulators on the split stator condenser has only one-half of the RF voltage across it as has the insulators in a single section condenser, but this is not the case. Note that the amplifier tube's plate circuit is tapped across only one-half of the total plate tank, because the radio frequency filament return is to the center of the tank. Thus there is a voltage step-up across the whole condenser and coil and the total voltage across the tank is just twice that which is across the single section tank shown in Fig. 2, assuming equivalent operating conditions for the tube. Thus the spacing between rotor and stator plates in each section of the split stator condenser must be the same as in the single section condenser, in spite of the fact that there are two sections in series. And in addition, each side of the split-stator condenser must have twice the
capacity of the single section condenser in order to have the same effective capacity across the tank coil. For example, 100 uufds per section, or a total of 200 uufds of a given plate spacing, is required in order to equal 50 uufds of the same plate spacing in a single section circuit. Thus the split stator condenser must cost at least FOUR times as much as a single section condenser whici would do the same job, if the necessity for splitting the plate tank were eliminated.
The radio frequency choke in the plate voltage lead to the center of the plaie coil usually has very little work to do, but sometimes it has much to do, as evidenced


FIG. 1
Plate, or Hazeltine Neutralization.
by the number of chokes that go up in smoke when something becomes detuned or deneutralized. This choke must be husky enough to carry the total plate current. Receiving type chokes are usually too small and an expensive transmitting choke must therefore be used.

Plate circuit neutralization has another important disadvantage. As shown above, the tube is connected across only half of the plate tank. Thus the impedance across the

whole tank is four times the impedance across an equivalent single ended tank. This means that, for inductive coupling to the load, whether it be the antenna or a succeeding amplifier stage, a four-to-one stepdown must be added to whatever ratio of transformation would be used out of the simpler single section plate tank. Extreme ratios of transformation reduce coupling efficiency, no matter what particular iype of coupling is used, especially when coupling fairly high powers, due to the corona loss in the air caused by the high RF voltages present across the high impedance of the split tank. This also requires the use of twice as much insulation in the tank coil supports.

The neutralizing condenser and the grid-to-plate capacity of the tube in series act as one small condenser shunted across the main plate tuning condenser. Thus each has onehalf of the total tank RF voltage across it. And the neutralizing condenser must be insulated and spaced for the same voltage which is actoss each half of the split-stator
tank condenser, or the same voltage that would be across a single ended condenser if plate neutralization were not used. This usually amounts to about four times the plate voltage, in a Low-C, CW transmitter. For phone use the breakdown voltage would have to be eight to ten times the plate voltage, under the same conditions of extremely low C. However, a phone transmitter, plate modulated, should not have too-low $C$, otherwise the linearity of the class $C$ stage will suffer.

Let us now consider the advantages and disadvantages of grid circuit neutralization, as shown in Fig. 2. Note that the split stator condenser has been transferred to the grid circuit. This effects a real economy because a much lower voltage is across the grid tark and the break-down rating of this condenser need only be about one-fourth to one-sixth of the rating of a similar condenser in the plate circuit. The RF choke used to feed the DC grid bias into the center of the grid tank coil will almost never have to carry more than 25 to 50 mills of current, so that the small receiving type chokes are quite satisfactory. The grid coil itself must stand twice as much voltage across it as the grid coil used with plate neutralization. Nevertheless, this voltage is still quite small as compared to the, RF voltages in the plate circuit. Rarely will the insulation in ordinary ceramic receiving coil forms be insufficient to prevent breakdown. Let us again consider the neutralizing condenser. Now it is in series with the tube capacity across the grid coil. The RF voltage across this condenser is only a fraction of what it was when plate neutralization was used. In fact, the DC plate voltage is now the highest voitage across this condenser, consequently a rating of from one-and-a-half to twice the plate voltage will usually be sufficient to prevent breakdown. By this time the reader should be convinced that the single section plate tank condenser will cost only about onefourth as much as the split stator condenser required when plate neutralization is used. As a matter of fact, in some cases investigated, the split stator condenser cost between five and six times as much as compared with the same breakdown voltage cost in the single stator type, both condensers having the same overall effective capacity. A high voltage, plate blocking condenser has been added in the grid neutralized stage, but, strange as it may seem, more 5000 volt .006 ufd. mica condensers have "popped" when used as grid blocking condensers, as shown in Fig. 1, than when used as plate blocking condensers as shown in Fig. 2. In anv event, even the most expensive type of plate blocking condenser will not begin to use up the money saved for tuning and neutralizing condensers when grid circuit neutralization is used.

Congratulations, Mr. Rice, for your circuit. You invented it many years ago, but only recently have we learned to properly appreciate it.

These advantages of grid circuit neutralization are of no benefit to the man who uses a push-pull amplifier because he already uses a combination of grid and plate neutralization, and split stator condensers should be used in both plate and grid circuits.


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Headquarters International Radio Fraternity, 71 S. Hope St., Los Angeles, Calif.

## Forest Service Radio

W6CVL, ITK Brother up in the high Sierras, gives us some first hand information on the recently installed forest service radio system. Amid the tall pines at an elevation of 4000 feet and upwards Russ Hossack tells us that these forest service portable fone transmitters consist of two are SP-83, SP-84, SP-85 and powered. The calls are SP-83, SP-84, SP-85 and M-23, M-24, M-25, operating on a frequency of 3445 KC just outside the 80 -meter ham band. The " M " stations are AC, alleled in the final with link coupling. The 46 par end consists of a balanced armature induction mike into a 59 pushing a pair of 46 's class $B$ for modulators.
Russ has been engaged in testing these rigs and operates station "M-23". They are on the air nearly every evening between 7:30 p.m. and $9: 00$ p.m., P.S.T. These stations have proved out to excellent advantage with consistent reports being received from all over the state of California, audibility R9, and with a good R7 in Colorado, no little distance. Many of these reports are for daylight reception. The rigs are operated in the Sequoia National Forest and W6CVL (M-23) is at Northfork, Calif., about 50 miles in an easterly direction from Fresno near Bass Lake.
Last minute news from CVL says that there are now 18 of these fone rigs in operation and they have just received a number of $91 / 2$-meter ultra-portables that are being tested. Fair results up to distances of 15 miles are reported, the mountainous terrain giving these portables some advantage over higher-frequency equipment. Need-
less to say, radio has proven invaluable to the Forest Rangers and without doubt will become far more extensive in use and a "Permanently new necessity.

## 28 MC Contest Nears Close

$\mathbf{R}^{\text {EPORTS }}$ received indicate excellent 10 -meter . work at the beginning of the contest in July with results tapering to little if any during most adverse conditions in late August. At this writing the contest has not yet closed and certified reports have not yet been made by the contestants but some indications may be given in several letters received by Headquarters. Lloyd Jones W6DOB says: "Have heard W7AVV, W6DHZ,
W4AJY, W6BXV, W3BWD, W6PT, W6CLH, W4AJY, W6BXV, W3BWD, W6PT, W6CLH, W6IDF, W6BOQ. Have worked ,W7AVV and W6CLH so far (one watt input!)" A glance at
this list indicates some transcontinental heard this list indicates some transcontinental heard stations. Bill Ellsworth W1BZC has been on reg-
ular 28 MC skeds $6: 30 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. and $9: 00$ p.m. EDST. ular 28 MC skeds $6: 30$ p.m. and $9: 00$ p.m. EDST. Best DX worked has been W4TZ. The following
were heard during June: W4AJX, W4BFH, were heard during June: W4AJX, W4BFH, W9KEP, W9NY and W9TH Z, W8ICW, W9GFZ W9KEP, W9 NY and W9TH. From which list we recognize some live-wire ITK experimenters. As development, primarily, and a rather low power affair.

## New Members Order of ITK

$\mathbf{W}^{E}$ WELCOME these new members to the fraternity as Degree men: W6BQP, W6DEC W6GAT W6GWX, W6KGO, W6ALO, W3KJ W6HLN, W7BRG, W1CSV, W9CJJ, W8GWY W6AGB, W9CK, W8EBJ, W6AKH, W6HC W9APM, W4ZZQ, W8EQN, W1EER, W6EZK W9ARE, W1FFL, W6SJ, W6BTN, W1FGM.

## New Members Sorority

THE Iota Rho Sigma welcomes these well-known women radio operators to its Sorority W6DVH, W5PK, W6AET and W6HEG.

## Sorority News

W6HEG Harriet Gilbert was hostess to the September meeting of the Southern California ITK Chapter at her home. Attendance was unusually will and the refreshments served by W6HEG cakes with be remembered. A delicious variety of the meeting extending into the wee hours of the morning with no let-up in enthusiasm. Other YLs present were Florence Jones W6AET and a future IRS in the person of Marie Meloan Mrs. W6CGM.
W6EK Miss Flora Card won high honors at the Santa Barbara hamfest when she took first


Left: Kennetb Isbell, Radio W6BOQ Secretary-Treasurer IRF
CUTTING his teeth on an old rock crusher back C in 1913 as W9AQA in Maywood, Ill., Kenneth ras has been an activo amateur ever since. The first stations he owned were of the usual early type with slide tuners, catwhiskers 'n' everything, not to mention the profane use of fotograf plates for condensers. In about 1925 he became acquainted via radio with W9BPX of
East St. Louis, Ill. (Now W6CGM) and thus the

TKK plan was originated and born in the air anes. 1sbell had a cupl of high-power bottles powered by 2000 volts of wet " $B$ " batteries, to be sure he got pure DC!!!!
Since 1924 he has been a commercial radio od erator and although he has been in the broadcast field most of the time has had some bras pounding on an are transmiter and on a Morse wire. Migrating to California he became W6BOQ and is now employed at KFI-KECA.
The larger photo above shows Mr. R. G. Martin San Francisco Division Chief of IRF.

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## Silver 5 C Super

(Continued from Page 21)
for the narrow short wave bands on its large scales, and full spread on its $0-100$ band spread scale.
The three wave ranges of the reeciver: 1500 to $4500 \mathrm{KC} ; 4000$ to $13,000 \mathrm{KC} ; 9000$ to $23,000 \mathrm{KC}$.
The low values of tuning capacity these ranges make possible for the four important amateur and the 31,25 and 19 meter broadcast bands go far to explain the receiver's excellent sensitivity and volume on these important short wave bands. For example, it will be noted that the 31 and 25 meter broadcast bands ( 9500 KC and $11,800 \mathrm{KC}$ ) are covered by both of the last two bands. Actually, however, the third (yellow) band will give much better results on 31 and 25 meters due to the much lower tuning capacity in use, than will the fourth (orange) band.

The reason for the considerable overlap between the third and fourth bands is, first, that $23,000 \mathrm{KC}$ represents the high frequency limit of the short wave spectrum today and tuning higher in frequency would yield few more stations while setting 23.000 KC as the top end of the fourth band allows the important 20 meter amateur and 19 meter broadcast bands to be tuned by a satisfactorily low value of tuning capacity to insure maximum sensitivity on this band. No at tempt is made to take in the 10 meter band, since it is today so uncrowded that a simple regenerative receiver handles it well and cheaply.

On very short waves it is now posible to accurately measure the gan of the RF stage, and that its gain is quite considerable-from thirty to forty times-is evidenced by tuning in a weak station and then shifting the antenna lead-in from the RF stage primary to the detector primary, when a considerable drop in signal will be noted. This RF gain is very important, for it permits operation of the first detector oscillator at a high signal level in order to eliminate noise due to oscillator hiss, which becomes excessive when the first detector is forced to operate on a very weak signal. The additional selectivity of the $\overline{R F}$ stage also eliminates "repeat spot" or image interference, when any short wave signal can be heard at two points on the dial-the proper point, and a second point twice the IF away from the proper point.

From the circuit diagram of Figure 4, it will be noted that not only is each of the three tuned input circuits (RF, detector and oscillator) tuned by a separate section of the three-gang condenser, but each of the total of nine indiivdual circuits (three to each of the three bands) is individually padded or trimmed to insure accurate tracking throughout the entire tuning range of the set. In Figure 3, the high frequency trimmer capacities are seen close to the wave change switch, just above the separate short wave coils, where leads can be kept very short and direct. The three oscillator low frequency padding condensers are located just behind the oscillator coils on the rear coil shield positions in Figure 3. The combination of this total of twelve alignment trimmers (four for each wave band) insures not only the accurate tracking of all three circuits for maximum amplification and minimum noise, but the ability to maintain very accurate dial calibration for all four bands. This calibration accuracy is to plus or minus $1 / 2$ of one per cent, or to less than $1 / 16$ in. of error in dial scale reading, at worst, and represents an unusually high order of accuracy today.

It can be seen from Figure 4 that separate anterina primaries are used for all bands, with both ends brought out to antenna binding posts. Thus a doublet antenna may be used, or the conventional single wire antenna, if preferred.

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## The New 2B6 Tube

(Continued from Page 13)
large with respect to $R_{0}$, but small with respect to Rg in order to develop a large per centage of the available detector output voltage across the 2 B 6 's grid to cathode.


Heater Voltage
T IS important to operate a cathode type of output tube at or slightly above rated heater voltages. Early failure of life is often caused by low heater voltage. Furthermore, distortion increases rapidly if the temperature of the cathode is not hot enough to supply the peak current demands. The heater supply for the 2B6 should be a full 2.5 volts. It is much better to run slightly above than below the rated voltage.

## Conclusion

THE principles involved in the 2B6's operation have only been generalized in this article. However, the tube's advantages are evident. The flexibility of the system permits general adoption in improved AC radios. Other applications naturally present themselves. The load characteristics make the tube admirably suited for modulators in small transmitters. Television problems of power amplification over wide frequency ranges are lessened by the use of 2B6.
Reprrences:
(1) Proc., p. 1163, July 1932, Charles F. Stromeyer. Radio Engineering, p. 12, Aug. 1933, Charles F. Stromeyet.


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## Radiotelephony For Beginners

(Continued from Page 26)
tions whose sidebands extend into this particular portion of whatever amateur band the transmitter is working in. Almost 90 per cent of the power in the radiated sidebands consists of the lower frequency audio tones below 1500 cycles per second. Thus the effective band width, as far as the interference is concerned, is only about 3000 cycles wide. However, do not labor under the false impression that the 10 per cent above 1500 cycles per second is not important. It improves the intelligibility and naturalness of the speech tremendously, even though none of the higher frequency sounds contain much power.

## Power Distribution in a <br> Modulated Wave

IT IS QUITE important to consider the power distribution in a modulater wave because this power distribution is closely related to the size of the modulator tubes required.
The amplitudes of the sidebands depend on the percentage of modulation; the higher the degree of modulation, the greater the sideband amplitude. It takes POWER to modulate a wave. Power must be expended in altering the amplitude of a wave. When a carrier is 100 per cent modulated by a pure audio tone, the power in each of the two sidebands equals one-quarter of the unmodulated carrier power output. Thus the power in both sidebands equals one-half of the carrier wave and, therefore, complete modulation increases the power output of the phone transmitter 50 per cent. If a class $C$ radio frequency amplifier is plate modulated, the plate power input must therefore be increased 50 per cent in order to get a 50 per cent increase in output, because the plate efficiency remains constant during modulation. This 50 per cent increase in plate input is obtained from the modulator tubes in the form of AC. It is superimposed on the DC plate input in such a manner that the instantaneous plate voltage (and current) is alternately raised to twice the unmodulated value, and then reduced to zero. In order to swing the plate voltage of the class $C$ amplifier from zero to twice normal, the modulators must alternately supply and absorb power. This involves energy storage during the time the plate voltage is below normal. This energy is stored in the Heising choke, or in the modulation coupling transformer, depending on whether capacitative or inductive'coupling is used between the modulators and the modulated amplifier.

One hundred per cent modulation is approached only on the extreme voice peaks. Ordinary voice peaks should rarely be allowed to modulate a phone transmitter more than about 80 per cent, and the average modulation during the time that the operator is actually speaking will barely average 40 per cent. However, 100 per cent modulation CAPABILITY is essential if heterodyne interference with other stations is to be kept at a minimum.

All plate modulated RF amplifiers operate as class C amplifiers. In other words, they are biased to at least twice that value of DC grid bias which would reduce the plate current to zero, at the particular value of DC plate voltage used. This value of grid bias is termed "twice cut-off." Cut-off bias depends on the amplification factor of the tube and the plate voltage used. It is equal to the plate voltage divided by the amplification factor. The plate voltage is usually known, or can easily be measured with a voltmeter. The amplification factor of any tube can be found either in a table of tube
(Continued on Page 34)

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## Radiotelephony <br> For Beginners

(Continued from Page 33)
characteristics or can be secured from the tube manufacturer. The grid of the tube must then be heavily excited by a buffer amplifier so that the power output of the stage will rise as the square of the plate voltage without any "dropping off" tendency as the instantaneous plate voltage approaches twice the normal value under modulation,

It is rather hard to define the amount of excitation power necessary because it varies over wide limits, depending on the particular type of tube used and the plate load impedance and plate voltage. However, the grid should be driven somewhat positive, as indicated by the flow of grid current, although the maximum value of the DC grid current will probably never exceed 15 to 25 per cent of the unmodulated plate current. The required excitation power varies inversely with the mutual conductance of the tube (see tube tables)). The higher the mutual conductance, the less grid driving power is required for a given output. Choose tubes with as high a mutual conductance as possible in order to economize on driving power.

Because the plate input to the class C mod. ulated amplifier increases during modulation, and because the plate efficiency remains constant, it is evident that the plate dissipation of the tube will increase when audio modulation is applied. Therefore, some available plate dissipation must be held in reserve because the heat dissipation must increase up to 50 per cent for complete modulation.

Another reason for operating modulated amplifier tubes below their maximum rating is that the peak plate voltage and the peak plate current are doubled during complete modulation. Make certain that the insulation and gas content of the tube allow peak plate voltages of twice the unmodulated value to be applied. The filament emission should be sufficient to allow the normal plate current to double on the peaks without damage to the filament. If the filament emission is insufficient to allow the peak current to flow, the desired linearity of the amplifier will be affected, with consequent distortion. Ordinarily most transmitting tubes can be operated at three-quarters of their maximum rated plate current for radiotelephony, without damage to the filament or danger of non-linearity. Obviously this is based on the assumption that the circuit is efficient enough so that the plate loss is not excessive, at this value of plate current.

## Low Level vs. High Level Modulation

THE HIGH LEVEL modulation system (which is most widely used by amateurs) consists of coupling the antenna directly to the modulated class C amplifier, without further amplification of the modulated wave. When a low-power stage is modulated and the modulated output then ampli. fied with one or more linear amplifiers, the method is termed low level modulation."

Each system of modulation has its advantages, each has disadvantages.

A high level modulation system is relatively simple to design and adjust and is probably somewhat cheaper to build, for a given amount of carrier power. The class $C$ modulated amplifier can easily be made 75 per cent efficient and 85 per cent plate efficiency can be secured with proper tubes and fairly high plate voltages. Class $B$ modulators are usually at least 50 per cent efficient and in certain new tubes the plate efficiency is as high as 72 per cent, which means that small tubes can give high outputs when used as modulators or modulated amplifiers in a high leevl modulated transmitter. The prin-
(Continued on facing page)
cipal disadvantage in high level modulation is that a relatively large amount of audio power is necessary; in fact, it will generally amount to from 60 to 80 per cent of the RF carrier power output, in watts. High power audio amplifiers present some difficalties in eliminating stray feedback and in obtaining high fidelity; they also require rather expensive coupling transformers. The plate power required for the modulators often ex ceeds that required for the modulated radio frequency amplifier. Also the power supply must have good voltage regulation if the modulators operate in class AB or class B because the plate current varies quite widely with the amplitude of the radio signal.
Low level modulation systems apply the modulation to some low power RF amplifier stage and thus very little audio power is necessary to obtain deep modulation. The modulated output from the low power mod ulated amplifier is then amplified in one or more class B or class B prime linear RF amplifiers before being radiated from the antenna. By modulating in a low power stage, all of the troubles of high power audio amplifiers are avoided. It is largely for this reason that this system is so widely used in broadcast transmitters and in high frequency telephone transmitters. However, the advantages are only half of the story. The amplification of a radio frequency wave after it has been modulated is rather inefficient, because the amplifiers must operate with constant DC plate input, but with variable RF output. The average power output of a linear RF amplifier must be such that it will increase 50 per cent without distortion, and the peak power output must equal four times the unmodulated value, during complete modulation. The plate input must remain constant and the output can be increased only by increasing the plate efficiency during modulation. Thus the amplifier is least efficient when unmodulated. In order to increase the average power output 50 per cent when amplifying a sine wave modulated carrier, the unmodulated plate efficiency must exactly double. In practice, the unmodulated plate efficiency of a class B linear RF amplifier is only about 30 per cent. Even the newer class B prime linear amplifier is only about 40 per cent efficient. Thus the available plate dissipation in the amplifier tube must be from 2 to 2.5 times the carrier power output, which necessitates large and expensive amplifier tubes compared with the small tubes permissible when high level modulation systems are used. For example, one cype 354 tube can easily give 450 watts of carrier output when used as a class C RF amplifier with high level plate modulation ( 75 per cent plate efficiency). The same tube used as a linear class B amplifier in a low level modulation system can only give 67.5 watts of carrier output ( 30 per cent plate efficiencv), and even when used as a class B prime linear amplifier it gives a carrier output of only 100 watts ( 40 per cent plate efficiency). The low plate efficiency also indicates that a large power supply, in proportion to the carrier output, becomes necessary when low level modulation is used.
The principal objection to low level modulation, especially for amateur use, is the critical nature of the adjustments necessary to obtain normal class B or B prime plate efficiencies together with linear and symmetrical 100 per cent modulation capability. Some form of well regulated bias supply is also necessary. Batteries or a motor generator are essential if distortion due to variations in grid bias during modulation is to be avoided. Cathode bias and grid leak bias, as well as the garden variety of $B$ eliminator, can not be used.
Part II will appear in an early issue.

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Osockme, Japan, Aug. 23rd, 1934.
Dear Sir Editor of "RADIO"
Gentleman:
I have make recent study of amateur radio textbooks to find knowledge of proper operating proseedure for ham station and find that such information are as conflicting as it are confounding. I make squint at The Radio Amateur's Code of Ethicks. It say many things which amateur should, should not, would not and cannot do. But many of its prinsiples are wrong. I have proceed make New Code of Ethicks of my own, which are based on facts and so I get right down to brass tax and give herewith my Code of Ethicks. (1) The Amateur is a Gentleman 1 ?? ?? He never goes to a hamfest without throwing hot rolls at brother hams at next table, and he never forgets to put big lump of butter on such roll so that recipient thereof will have nice spot to remove from new suit when return home. (2) The Amateur is Loyal?? ??? He never borrows a quartz crysta cracks like earthquake in it. (3) The Ampateur is Progressive ????? His station are clean like gar bage can and only time when shack are cleaned out is when Inspector from Bored of Health make forced visit into shack with large shovel and shot gun. (4) The Amateur is Friendly? ?? ? ? He send slow and patiently only when he are green lid and cannot yet make use of fast twittering bug which would jump right up and bite ham operator on nose if such bug had a soul. (5) The Ama teur is Balanced??? ?? I are still looking for him. More safe to say that he once WERE balanced before he become radio ham.

I study over such rules with great and cautious care and I have make determined to mysel practice such things as are preached. I look back at ethick Rue 300 . 4 and grab hold or key with fist and send 30 times CQ. Firs contact come from ham in next block who wish for me to mak relay of traffic for him. He say he are Ethical most important nature He send me first mese of which read "Fujiyame Grocery and Hard ware Co.. Self Addressed. Please send two pound warter, six two lumps sugar, four bottles cow juice, ten gallons Lydia Pinkam's extra strong Compound. Last night my wife give birth to a fine baby boy. Also a rat trap, door mat and a screwdriver."* I read such silly message and file it where all other traffic of Scratchi station are filed -0 on
hook No. 86, which are post-dated for year 1942 hook No. 86, which are post-dated for year 1942, A.D. (After Depression).

I wish give few friendly words of advice to bother hams. It seems to Scratchi that too much time are wasted with messages which are far too long and which could make send by slow freight via ham route. One of first things which Scratchi via ham route. One of first things which Scratch Course are great slogan which say "Be Breef," It give striking example of telop B Breet. who also was station agent in small val ley town. Such telegraph operator make send very long daily report to main office and chief operator give him severe roastpanning for making such long messages out from nothing. He send instructions to operator which say, "Be breef, be breef." Next day great flood come to town Whole railroad washed away. Station house and telegraph shack take swim. Operator save his life by climbing telegraph pole. He make remember that each day he must send report to chief operator and he also make remember he must be breef. So he cut into telegraph line and send following breef message to chief operator.
Where the rallroad was, the river is.
I must make short for this letter, Hon. Editor, as I are writing this while waiting for train to take Scratchi to great New York Radio show which open some time this week this month. have receive free admission ticket to such show, from Gyp Row in New York and he also send me personal mimeograph letter which are signed with rubber stamp and whick say he expeck to see me at show in persons.
I shall make stop over at your office, Hon. Editor, and if you are not in such office when make call I will look you up in County Jail Number One, which are where 1 also make my home by request each time I make visit to your city. Hoping you bring enough money with you to bail us both out, I am,

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| NS-1 | 1 plate to 1 grid. 81/2:1 ratio | 2.35 | \$ 1.41 |  | CLASS B OUTPUT TRANSFORMERS |  |  |
| NS-2 | 1 plate to 2 grids, split secondary. | 2.50 | 1.50 | NS-32 | Push push 46 or 59 plates to 8, 4, or 2 | 3.25 | 1.95 |
| NS-5 | Single or double button mi | 2.50 |  | NS-33 | Push push 49, 53, 79 or 89 plates to 5000 or 3500 ohms | 3.50 | 9.10 |
| NS-6 | Single or double button mike to 2 grids. | 3.00 | 1.80 | NS-34 | Push push 46 or 59 plates to 5000 or 3500 ohms. | 3.50 | 2.10 |
| NS-8 | Ribbon velocity mike to 500 or 200 ohms | 3.50 | 2.10 | NS-3 | Push push 46 or 59 plates to $500,8,4$, or 2 ohms. | 3.75 | 2.25 |
| NS-9 | Mixing carbon mike, 500 or 200 ohm line to 500 or 200 ohm line. | 3.50 |  |  | FILTER AND AUDIO CHOKES, FILAMENT TR | SFO |  |
| NS-10 | Single plate and carbon mike to one or two grids...- | 3.50 | 2.10 | NS-38 | Filter choke. 15 henrys 60 MA ; resistance 240 ohms | 2.00 | 0 |
|  | CLASS A OUTPUTS |  |  | NS-41 | Filter choke. 10 henrys 150 MA ; 95 | 3.00 | 1.80 |
| NS-13 | Push pull 250, 245, 59 triode or 71A plates to 8, 4, or |  |  | NS-42 | Class B input choke Max. D.C. 175 MA . | 3.00 | 1.80 |
|  | 2 ohm voice coil. | 3.00 | 1.80 | NS-44 | Detector plate shunt choke. Max. D.C. 3 MA | 2.25 | 1.35 |
| NS-15 | Push pull 2A3 plates to 8, 4, or 2 ohm voice coil | 3.00 |  | NS-45 | Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. $21 / 2$ V.C.T. 6A | 1.75 | 1.05 |
| NS-17 | Single 250, 245, 59 triode, 71A to 500, 8, 4 or 2 ohms | 3.00 | 1.80 | NS-46 | Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. 6.3 V.C.T, 3A | 2.25 | 1.35 |
| NS-19 | Push pull 250, 245, 59 triode or 71A plates to 500 , |  |  | NS-47 | Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. 21/9 V.C.T. 12A | 2.25 | 1.35 |
|  | 8 , 4 or 2 ohms. | 3.50 | 2.10 | NS-48 | Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. 5V 4A | 2.25 | 1.35 |
| NS-20 | Push pull 18, 20, 33, 41, 42, 2A5, 59 pentode, 89 triode plates to $500,8,4$ or 2 ohms |  |  | $\xrightarrow{\text { NSS-49 }}$ | Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. $71 / 2$ V.C.T. 3 A ( ${ }^{\text {Plate }}$ Transformer for small power tubes, Class A | 2.25 | 1.35 |
| NS-21 | Push pull 2A3 plates to $500,8,4$ or 2 ohms. | 3.50 | 2.10 |  | and B. Pri. 115 V.A.C. 60 cycles. Secondaries: 30000 |  |  |
| NS-24 | Push pull 250, 245, 59 triode, 71A to 4000 or 2000 |  |  |  | 300 at 75 MA ; 5 V.C.T. 3 A., 6.3 V.C.T. $21 / 2$ A., |  |  |
|  | Push pull 18, 20, 33, 41, 42, 47, 2A5, 59 pentode or |  |  |  |  |  | 4.20 |
|  | 89 triode plates to 4000 or 2000 ohms, 69 pentode or | 3.2 |  | NS- | Plate transformer for push pull power tubes Class A and B. Pri. 115 V.A.C. 60 cycles. Secondaries: |  |  |
| NS-26 | Single 26, 56, 27, 55,77 triode or 864 plate to 500 |  |  |  | A and B. Pris ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |  |  |
|  | or 200 ohms. | 3.00 | 1.80 |  | 10 A., 5 V.C.T | 9.00 | 5.40 |
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NS-12, NS-29, NS-40, TYPES


NS-50, NS-51 TYPES


NS-1, NS-9, NS-37 TYPES

CLASS B INPUT TRANSFORMERS
NS-29 Driver plate to 49, 53, 79 or 89 grids.
CLASS B OUTPUT TRANSFORMERS
NS-32 Push push 46 or 59 plates to 8 , 4 , or 2 ohms
NS-33 Push push 49, 53, 79 or 89 plates to 5000 or 3500 ohms
NS-34 Push push 46 or 59 plates to 5000 or 3500 ohms........ 3.5
FILTER AND AUDIO CHOKES, FILAMENT TRANSFORMER
NS-38 Filter choke. 15 henrys 60 MA ; resistance 240 ohms 2.00
NS-39 Filter choke. 20 henrys 90 MA ; resistance 400 ohms
NS-42 Class B input choke Max. D.C. 175 MA
NS-44 Detector plate shunt choke. Max.
NS-46 Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. 6.3 V.C.T, 3A
NS-47 Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. 21/2V.C.T
NS-49 Pri. 115 A.C. Sec. $71 / 2$ V.C.T. 3A. and B. Pri. 115 V.A.C. 60 cycles. Secondaries: 300-0
300 at 75 MA ; 5 V.C.T. 3 A., 6.3 V.C.T. $21 / 2$ A.,
Plate transformer for push pull power tubes Class
$A$ and B. Pri. 115 V.A.C. 60 cycles. Secondaries
$400-0-400$ at $125 \mathrm{MA} ; 21 / 2$ V.C.T. 5 A., $21 / 2$ V.C.T.
10 A., 5 V.C.T. 3 A. 9.00
5.40

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[^0]:    * W6wb.

[^1]:    * Lampkin Laboratories, Cincinnati, Ohio.

[^2]:    * c/o "RADIO".

