January 1962

Printed Circuit Matchbox Receiver

Temperature Operated Switch • Experimental Transistor VHF Receiver for the Aircraft Bands • Simple Musical Instrument • Small High Quality Amplifier • Interpretation of Valve Data • Resistors and Capacitors as Mains Droppers • Emitter Follower Circuits, Part 1 • Improving Radio Luxembourg Reception • Radio Astronomy, Part 4 • Understanding Radio, Part 5
HARVERSON SURPLUS CO. LTD

2-BAND SUPERHET CHASSIS
WITH SPEAKER
ONLY £4.19.6

A quality 4 valve AC/DC superhet chassis made by a world famous manufacturer. Long and Medium wave coverage. Fitted with a cord and drum reduction tuning drive and attractive illuminated glass dial (size 6¾" x 5½"). Controls: volume on/off, tuning and wave change. The receiver is self-powered, employing a mains dropper and a valve rectifier. Chassis dimensions 6½" x 9" x 5½" high. Supplied complete with a good quality 5" loudspeaker, valves (UCH42, UAF42, UL41, UY41), AC/DC mains input lead, ivory knobs, etc. DON'T HESITATE, ORDER NOW! This unbeatable bargain is bound to sell out quickly at as only £4.19.6, plus 6/6 post and packing.

AM RADIOGRAM CHASSIS

A chassis of distinction by a famous maker. A chassis of distinction by a famous maker. Covering Long, Med. and Short waves, plus gram position, this chassis (size 15¼" x 7" x 6½" high) incorporates the latest circuitry, using fully delayed a.v.c. and negative feedback. Controls: tone, volume on/off, wave-change (L.M.S. and gram), tuning. Tapped input 200-250V a.c. only. An attractive brown and gold illuminated dial with matching knobs make this one of the best performing, chassis yet offered. This chassis (size 6½" x 9½" x 5½" high) is supplied complete with a good quality 5" loudspeaker, valves (ECH80, EF89, EBC81, EL84, EZ80), knobs, output transformer, leads, etc. OUR PRICE ONLY £9.19.6

MIDGET 2 GANG TUNING CONDENSERS

Polystyrene cased with built-in trimmers. Size 1" x 1" x ¾". Not used, but removed from printed circuit boards. UNBEATABLE VALUE AT ONLY 9/- for TWO plus 1/- P.P.

HARVERSON'S FM TUNER

At last a quality FM Tuner Kit at a price you can afford. Just look at these fine features, which are usually associated with equipment at twice the price! NOW AVAILABLE

FM TUNING HEAD

A robust cabinet made from heavy gauge metal which has been specially designed to house the above F.M. Tuner. Beautifully finished in a choice of glossy hammer green, or hammer grey enamel, or black crackle. The front panel (illustrated) has holes for control spindles, and apertures for tuning dial and magic eye. PRICE 25/- F. & P. 1/9. (Front panel only, 10/- P. & P. 1d.).

MINIATURE EARPHONE WITH CORD, SUB-MINIATURE PLUG AND SOCKET

A deal aid type earpiece of top grade quality. Gives an exceptionally crisp reproduction of both speech and music. Brand new and fully guaranteed. Two types available. CR-5 high impedance crystal, MR-4 low impedance magnetic. Plus 1/-.

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Probably one of the most outstanding soldering instruments ever produced, this iron has a detachable handle which can be placed over the bit and barrel, enabling it to be carried in complete safety even when hot. The provision of an extremely stable 30W element makes this ideal for transistor and all similar lightweight applications. Brand new in P.V.C. bag, with lead and plug. ONLY 18/9, plus 1/3 P. & P.

HARVERSON'S FM TUNER HEAD

A permeability tuned tuner head made by a famous maker, supplied without valve (ECH85). 18/6 Plus 1/9 P. & P. Value 8½ extra
14 Watt Hi-Fi Amplifier Kit

A kit designed to meet the exacting requirements of the audio enthusiast, yet remain within the price range of the average constructor. A stylishly finished monaural amplifier with an output of 14 watts from 2 EL84s in push pull. Super reproduction of both music and speech. (Frequency response ± 3dB c/s 60 kc/s with negligible hum). Separate inputs for mike and gram allow records and announcements to follow each other and make this amplifier ideal for small halls, youth clubs, etc. Fully shrouded Linear output transformer (to match 3-15Ω speaker), and fully shrouded mains transformer (these alone are worth over £3.10.0). 2 independent volume controls, and separate Bass and Treble controls are provided, giving good lift and Cut. Valve line up 2 EL84s, ECC83, EF86 and EZ80 rectifier. All parts down to the last nut and bolt, including valves, heavy gauge metal chassis finished in glossy hammer green enamel (mains and output transformers finished to match.).


QUALITY RECORD PLAYER AMPLIFIER KIT

A top quality record player amplifier in kit form. This amplifier (which is used in a 29 gn. record player) has a printed circuit and has an internal fully smoothed power supply (input AC/DC Mains) using a mains dropper and contact cooled rectifier. A flying panel is supplied accommodating BASS, and TREBLE and VOL-ON/OFF controls. 2 valves U8184 and U89), and linear output transformer give crisp reproduction from all records at 4 WATTS. Our price for the complete kit of parts (including valves) only 59/6 plus P. & P. 6/6

Super Stereo Kit

Mark II

A kit of ready-built units only requiring inter-connection. Comprising two midget 3W amplifiers, push-button switch, transformer, control unit (bass, treble and vol.), power pack, two speakers, indicator light, valves (ECL82, EZ80 range), and comprehensive instructions.

£3.19.6

Plus 6/6 P. & P.

Super Table Radio Cabinet

A very fortunate purchase allows us to offer this quality table radio cabinet for only 18/6 (this cabinet cost the manufacturers 35/- each to make). The positions of the controls make it ideal for housing our 6 TRANSISTOR SUPERHET KIT described opposite. Beautifully finished in walnut and tygan. OUR PRICE ONLY 18/6 plus 1/6 P. & P. and ins.

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In response to numerous requests from delighted purchasers of our "SUPER STEREO KIT" we have produced a "MONAURAL AMPLIFIER" on similar lines.

* A UCL82 valve provides a triode amplifying stage, and a pentode output stage (3 watts), enabling good amplification and sparkling reproduction to be combined with physical compactness (amplifier size 7" x 34" x 64" high).

* Modern circuitry design, good quality o.p. transformer (to match 3t3) keep hum and distortion to a low level.

* The controls, volume on/off and tone, are complete with attractive cream and gold knobs.

* The amplifier has a built-in fully smoothed power supply, using a good quality mains transformer (a.c. mains only) and metal rectifier.

* All you need is supplied including easy to follow instructions which guarantee good results for the beginner and expert.

All components, leads, chassis, valve, knobs, etc., are first grade items by prominent manufacturers.

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5" LOUDSPEAKER TO SUIT, 14/6 EXTRA

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OC36 ... 10/-
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XA103 ... 6/-
PX101 ... 7/-
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DIODE
OA81 ... 3/-

Please add 6d. postage for each transistor.

TRANSISTOR SPEAKER
Weston Electric 3i) or 80t3 speaker. Size 2½" x ½" deep. 12/6 P.P. 1/-

SUPERHET CHASSIS — LESS VALVES & CABINET
Modern AC/DC chassis with printed circuit and ferrite rod aerial. Although not completely built, the main components are mounted. L. & M. wave coverage, 4 valves (UB89, UCL83, UCH81, UY85). Everything supplied except valves and cabinet. With simple instructions. £3.6.6 P. & P.

COIL AND TRANSFORMER SET FOR TRANSISTOR SUPERHET
3 i.f. Transformers, one oscillator coil, one driver transformer and wound ferrite aerial (Med. Long and aerial coupling) 28/6 complete, post 1/-. 6 transistor printed circuit board to match 8/6. post 9d. Circuit diagram 1/6 extra.

CONDENSER/RESISTOR PARCEL
50 mixed pF Condensers and 50 mixed Resistors. An assortment of useful values. All popular sizes—all new—a must for the serviceman and constructor. ONLY 10/-

THE HARVERSON 6 TRANSISTOR PLUS DIODE SUPERHET KIT
A first class 2 waveband transistor superhet in kit form.

* Printed circuit panel (size 8½" x 2½")

* 3 Pre-aligned I.F. Transformers

* Output Transformer

* 5" 51/2 Speaker

* High gain Ferrite rod aerial

* Car aerial socket

* First grade G.E.C. transistors

* Push-Pull output

All parts down to the minutest item with simple instructions.

ONLY £6.19.6

Plus 2/6 P. & P.

Cabinet to Suit (if available) 15/- extra.

THE HARVERSON COMPLETE FM/VHF RECEIVER KIT
At last! A complete FM Receiver in kit form.

Specially designed with the home constructor in mind, this kit enables the construction of a completely self-contained VHF receiver at a fraction of the normal cost of comparable equipment. This is basically a quality self-powered FM tuner plus 2 separate audio amplifier stages and output transformer and speaker.

* FM tuning head by famous maker

* Guaranteed non-drift

* Permeability tuning

* Frequency coverage 88-100 Mc/s

* OA81 balanced diode output

* Two i.f. stages and discriminator

* Self-powered, using a good quality mains transformer and valve rectifier

* Valves used: ECC85, two EF80s, ECL82 and EZ80 (rectifier)

* Fully drilled chassis

* Good quality speaker

* Well designed output transformer

* Attractive maroon and gold glass dial

* Two output stages (using ECL82 value)

* Everything supplied, down to the last nut and bolt

* Compact size

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OUR PRICE £6.19.6

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Canvas and Leather Case, with retractable aerial. £22.10.0

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HI-FI FM TUNER. This model is available as two units which, for your convenience, are sold separately: the R.F. Tuning Unit, model FMT-4U (£35.8 incl. P.T.) with I.F. output of 10.7 M.c/s., and the Amplifier Unit, with power supply, valves, and attractive cabinet, model FMA-4U (£111.10.0) total ... ... £141.16.0

TRUVOX TD-1 Mk. 6 TAPE DECK. Mono/ stereo tape deck of semi-professional standard. Two tracks with safety gap. Limited quantity available at the greatly reduced price of £29.15.0

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Mono, model TA-1M, Stereo model TA-1S

For use with most tape decks. Thermometer type recording indicators, press-button speed compensation and input selection, 3-position bias level and printed circuit construction.

TA-1M ... ... ... ... £18 2 6
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TA-1M and TRUVOX Mk. 6 ... ... £46 17 6
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TA-1M ... ... ... ... £18 2 6
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TA-1S ... ... ... ... £23 6 0
TA-1S and Collaro "STUDIO" ... ... £35 14 0
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MATCHED HI-FI STEREO KIT

We offer as a "packaged deal" the following matched Hi-Fi Stereo Equipment:
4-speed Record Player (RP-1U) £121.16. 4
6W Amplifier (S-33) ... ... £12. 8. 6
Twin Speaker Systems (SSU-1) ... ... £21.15. 0

Cost of Units ... ... ... ... £66.19.10
At an "all in" price of Pedestal Speaker legs £2.2.0 optional extra.

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4-speed Record Player (RP-1U) £121.16. 4
6W Amplifier (S-33) ... ... £12. 8. 6
Twin Speaker Systems (SSU-1) ... ... £21.15. 0

Cost of Units ... ... ... ... £66.19.10
At an "all in" price of Pedestal Speaker legs £2.2.0 optional extra.

available from DAYSTROM Ltd Dept. RC1, Gloucester, England

406 THE RADIO CONSTRUCTOR
GRID-DIP METER KIT. Model GD-1U. Functions as oscillator or absorption wave meter. With plug-in coils for continuous frequency coverage from 2 M.c/s to 250 M.c/s. £10.9.6
Two Additional Plug-in Coils Model 34-1U extend coverage down to 350 c/s. With dial correlation curves.

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6-W STEREO AMPLIFIER KIT. Model S-33. 3 watts per channel. 0.3% distortion at 2.5 w/ch., 20dB N.F.B. inputs for Radio (or Tape) and Gram., Stereo or Monaural, ganged controls. Sensitivity 100mV. £12.8.6

COLLARO “STUDIO” TAPE DECK. The finest buy in its price range. May be converted to stereo. Two tracks. “Wow” and “flutter” not greater than 0.15% at 71 f.p.s. Long Term Speed Stability better than 0.5%. £17.10.0

THE “COTSWOLD”. This is an acoustically designed enclosure 26” x 23” x 15½” housing a 12” bass speaker with 2” speech coil, elliptical middle speaker together with a treble unit to cover the full frequency range of 32-20,000 c/s. Capable of doing justice to the finest programme source, its polar distribution makes it ideal for really Hi-Fi Stereo. Delivered complete with speakers, cross-over unit, level control, Tygan grille cloth, etc. All parts pre-cut and drilled for ease of assembly and left “in the white” for finish to personal taste. £21.19.0

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S-88

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2 2 1/250v. | 3 - 100 250v. | 3 - 32 350v. | 5 -
3 3 1/250v. | 5 - 200 200v. | 1 - 100 270v. | 5 -
4 4 1/250v. | 2 - 100 125v. | 1 - 200 250v. | 5 -
5 5 1/250v. | 2 - 80 650v. | 1 - 32 500v. | 7 -
6 6 1/250v. | 2 - 65 500v. | 1 - 32 450v. | 5 -
7 7 1/250v. | 2 - 50 450v. | 1 - 32 400v. | 5 -
8 8 1/250v. | 2 - 45 400v. | 1 - 32 350v. | 5 -
9 9 1/250v. | 2 - 40 350v. | 1 - 32 350v. | 5 -
10 10 1/250v. | 2 - 35 350v. | 1 - 32 350v. | 5 -
11 11 1/250v. | 2 - 30 300v. | 1 - 32 300v. | 5 -
12 12 1/250v. | 2 - 25 200v. | 1 - 32 250v. | 5 -
13 13 1/250v. | 1 - 22 150v. | 1 - 32 200v. | 11 -
14 14 1/250v. | 1 - 22 150v. | 1 - 32 200v. | 11 -
15 15 1/250v. | 1 - 22 150v. | 1 - 32 200v. | 11 -
16 16 1/250v. | 1 - 22 150v. | 1 - 32 200v. | 11 -
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- 600 ohm

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- COILS AND TRANSFORMERS FOR A 2-WAVE TRANSISTOR SUPERHET WITH PRINTED CIRCUIT GATHER AND FERRITE ROD AERIAL.
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- BUILD IT YOURSELF USING 4-SPINDLE BSR MONARCH AUTOCHANGER READY BUILT 1W AMPLIFIER. HAND-CASED. HIGH FLUX LOUDSPEAKER. FULL INSTRUCTIONS SUPPLIED
- Total Price £12.10.0

RECORD PLAYER BARGAINS
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- Garrard 4H Transformer, 17/6.
- Garrard Stereo Heads £2 extra.
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ARDENTE TRANSISTOR TRANSFORMERS
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- Type D167. 18/6. Output to 3 ohms for OC72. etc., lin. x lin. 9/6.
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- Type D240. 8/6. Transformer. lin. x lin. x lin. 10/-.

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Jackson “Dilemin” condensers. Measuring only $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$ and available in 300pf, 500pf single gangs. High grade insulation and d/c. Electric, Standard 12 dia. spindle. Really excellent for miniature receivers, etc. Delivery from stock. Brand new and boxed. PRICE 7/6 each.

JASON ARGUS TUNER

Superhet three transistor AM tuner for Medium and Long wave with self-contained high efficiency ferrite rod aerial giving excellent reception of the main Continental stations. Complete in neat wooden case. Size 9" x 4" x 2\". Offered deal for use with tape recorder or Hi-Fi equipment. PRICE OF KIT £7.10.0, post 1/6.

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Prepared by Mullard’s technical laboratories, this exciting book on audio design is now regarded as a standard reference book on all aspects of quality reproduction. In addition to the theory of reproduction and distortion there are practical designs for twelve different popular circuits. All parts are standard and available from stock and detailed price lists are available on request. Prices shown are average figures for sets of parts exactly as specified by Mullards.

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<td>Stereophonic pre-amplifier</td>
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Price list being prepared for the new ECL86 amplifier.

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January 1962

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A Constructor Visits the 1961 International Radio Hobbies Exhibition

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The circuits presented in this series have been designed by G. A. FRENCH, specially for the enthusiast who needs only the circuit and essential data.

**suggested circuits**

**No. 134**

**A TEMPERATURE-OPERATED SWITCH**

The circuit described this month employs a simple two-transistor amplifier to operate a relay when a heat sensitive device is raised or lowered to a pre-determined temperature. The heat sensitive device is a small and inexpensive thermistor whose resistance variations with temperature change cause corresponding changes in input current to the amplifier. The writer visualises the most useful application of the switching unit as that of providing a warning of overheating in any equipment to which the thermistor is coupled. Such equipment could consist of electronic apparatus, engine cooling systems, and the like; and it would, in many cases, also be possible for the unit to switch off the equipment if temperature reached an undesirable level. A further application would be that of employing the switch to give warning of fire, in which case the warning system could be tested from time to time by momentarily holding a lighted match below the thermistor.1

The switching unit could also be used for the temperature control of ovens, but it must be pointed out that change of thermistor resistance with temperature is too low to permit a very close degree of control to be obtained.

The switching unit, as described in this article, allows relay operation to occur at temperatures within the range of some 40° to 120° C. It can, in consequence, provide warning or protection for most types of overheating. A method of enabling the switching unit to operate outside this range is suggested, but it must be pointed out that maximum operating temperature for the thermistor is of the order of 200° C. Since the thermistor is a filament protection device, a minimum operating temperature is not quoted in the manufacturer’s literature, but there seems little reason why it could not be employed below 0° C.

A meter capable of measuring the current flowing through the relay coil (or the voltage dropped across it) is required during the setting-up of the unit.

**The Circuit**

The circuit of the switching unit appears in Fig. 1. The CZ10 thermistor is connected between

---

1 The match should be applied for a short time only, as is discussed later.

---

Fig. 1. The circuit of the temperature operated switch
negative source of 1.5 volts and the 1k52 potentiometer, R1. Since the thermistor has a negative temperature coefficient its resistance drops as temperature increases. In consequence, an increase in temperature in the thermistor causes increased current to flow through it and, also, through the base-emitter circuit of TR1.

TR1 collector current passes through R3 and R4 in series and is normally of a low level, thereby allowing a relatively high base-emitter current to flow in TR2. The base-emitter current in TR2 is sufficiently high to enable the collector current of this transistor to energise the relay.

When the resistance of the thermistor falls, due to increasing temperature, the increased base-emitter current in TR1 causes a corresponding increase in its collector current. This, flowing through R3 and R4, causes a reduced base-emitter current in TR2, and a consequent reduction in TR2 collector current. The relay then de-energises.

If the switching unit is intended to detect a fall in temperature to a pre-determined level the relay normally remains de-energised. When the temperature is sufficiently low, the increase in thermistor resistance causes a decrease in TR1 current, a corresponding increase in TR2 current, and the energising of the relay. The relay specified may be fitted with two sets of contacts, these being used to operate warning circuits or to switch the equipment whose temperature is being monitored.

Thermistor sensitivity control R1 functions in an extremely simple manner, since it merely regulates the change in TR1 base-emitter current brought about by changes in thermistor resistance. Adjusting R1 varies the temperature at which the relay operates. The variable resistor R1 is used to bring TR2 on to its correct operating point.

Design Features

A CZ10 was employed as the temperature sensitive device in the switching unit because it has a high initial resistance (i.e. resistance at ambient temperature). Most thermistors exhibit approximately the same ratio of resistance change with change in temperature, and a high initial resistance enables this change in ratio to be sensed by the first transistor in the amplifier without the necessity of driving a heavy energising current from the power supply. The CZ10 has the further advantage of being small in physical size, its dimensions being \( \frac{1}{3} \) in long by \( \frac{1}{36} \) in in diameter. The thermistor may, therefore, be readily fitted in equipment where space is limited.

The potentiometer R1 offers an extremely simple means of controlling sensitivity, but its use incurs the disadvantage that the rate of change of relay current for temperature change reduces as the slider moves towards the lower end of the track, wherein variations in relay performance become more liable to vary the temperature at which external circuits are switched. However, results with the prototype indicated that the simple sensitivity circuit given by R1 was adequate in practice, especially if the device was merely intended to give protection against excessive temperatures.

No tests were made for repeatability of operation, and this point can only be ascertained by experience. One of the performance curves obtained with the prototype was determined from two sets of readings, and these tallied with each other satisfactorily. If the device is to be used to check a temperature having a fixed maximum level (such as a water cooling system, whose maximum level would be 100°C) it might be advisable, until repeatability had been reliably ascertained, to set the switching device such that it operated at a minimum of some 10 to 15°C below the maximum temperature. Such a procedure should give reasonable protection against any long-term shifts in performance which might occur.

It will be noted that a separate 1.5 volt supply is required for the thermistor. If desired, this could be obtained from a potentiometer connected across the 12 volt supply, the upper arm consisting of a 390Ω 1 1W resistor and the lower arm of a 56Ω 1W resistor. Such a potentiometer would draw a standing current of some 27mA, and both resistors should preferably be ±5%. If the 1.5 volt cell is retained it will need to supply less than 1mA energising current for temperatures of up to 100°C. The resistance of the thermistor at maximum operating temperature (200-250°C.) is 148Ω, with the result that the maximum current liable to be required from the cell (assuming zero base-emitter resistance in TR1) is 10mA. (This figure falls comfortably within the maximum base current rating for the OC72 of 20mA.)

If it is desired to have the switching unit operate at temperatures outside the range 0-120°C, this could be achieved by varying the energising voltage applied to the thermistor. Lower temperatures could be accommodated by increasing the voltage, and higher temperatures by decreasing it. Performance at such temperatures has not been checked by the writer.

The relay circuit employed with the switching unit employs a transistor and relay combination which have been used in previous circuits in this series. Brief details of relay operation are given at the end of this article. It is not necessary to connect a protective diode across the relay coil (to prevent the formation of high reverse voltages on the sudden cessation of energising current) because, in this circuit, changes in relay current should take place relatively slowly.

Setting-up and Operation

After the unit has been completed it needs to be set up. For this process it is necessary to connect a milliammeter capable of reading 20mA in series with the relay coil (or a voltmeter capable of reading 10 volts across it).

Initially, R4 should be adjusted to insert maximum resistance and the 12 volt supply only should be applied. When the unit is switched on under this condition, TR2 should be capable of passing maximum collector current. Pre-set resistor R4 should now be adjusted until the relay coil current is 20mA in series with the relay coil (or a voltmeter capable of reading 10 volts across it).

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that its terminals are not short-circuited. If such a short-circuit were to occur, TR1 could pass an excess base-emitter current and be irreparably damaged.

Results with the Prototype
Several temperature runs were taken with the prototype, the results obtained being illustrated in Fig. 2. Fig. 2 (a) shows the results given at full sensitivity and, as may be seen, the slope of the temperature/current curve about the relay operating points is comfortably steep, despite the simplicity of the switching unit circuit. Readings for the curve of Fig. 2 (a) were taken on two separate occasions and tallied satisfactorily.

Fig. 2 (b) gives the curve given for a reduced sensitivity setting. In this case the slope at the relay operating points is not as steep, but it is still adequate for the applications envisaged by the writer.

The current consumed by the prototype from the 12 volt supply was approximately 21mA when the relay was energised, and 1mA when it was de-energised.

The Relay Circuit
The circuit around TR2 is designed to allow this transistor to control the robust relay specified in an efficient manner, and the constructor is strongly recommended to employ a relay of the same type. That a coil resistance specified is a Post Office type 3,000 employed.2 although more than two contact sets should be preferable to clamp TR2 to a heat sink, the latter having the minimum dimensions of 1½ in square. The supply voltage should be reasonably well regulated, a desirable figure being better than ±2 volts on 12 volts.

Two-Tone Alarm Generator

Marconi Marine Radiotelephony Alarm Signal Generator

The two-tone radiotelephony alarm signal generator now being fitted in many British fishing vessels and small craft by The Marconi International Marine Communication Co., Ltd., has been type-approved by the British General Post Office and fulfils all the requirements of the C.C.I.R. (International Radio Consultative Committee) recommendations. Although there will be some delay before all the authorities concerned bring appropriate regulations into force, the British Ministry of Transport has already made a strong recommendation that all United Kingdom ships carrying radiotelephony apparatus should be fitted with alarm generating equipment by 1st January, 1962.

Marconi Marine’s alarm generator has been designed for speed and simplicity in operation: the operator starts up the associated transmitter, tuned to the international radiotelephone distress frequency of 2182 kc/s, switches on the alarm generator with the telephone handset clipped on to it, and pulls the alarm knob. The two-tone signal—alternating tones of 1,300 c/s and 2,200 c/s, each tone lasting for 250 milliseconds—is transmitted for approximately 30 to 60 seconds and the verbal distress message can then be transmitted by simply disengaging the handset and speaking into it.

The distinctive two-tone alarm signal is the result of exhaustive tests designed to discover a signal which will be heard through the normal traffic noise and atmospheric interference of intermediate frequency radiotelephony and above the normal noises of a ship’s bridge.

The alarm generator unit is powered by the vessel’s 24 volt battery supply and delivers twelve milliwatts into a 300 ohm loudspeaker which feeds the signal into the microphone of the handset and, at the same time, enables the signal to be monitored while transmission is taking place.
An Experimental

TRANSISTOR VHF RECEIVER

for the Aircraft Bands

By D. T. Bradford, VQ4EV

There has for some time been a need for light weight v.h.f. equipment in some of the older aircraft, as are sometimes used by private flying enthusiasts. These aircraft are particularly mentioned because of their popularity, due to relatively low cost, and because there is usually a complete absence of storage battery electrical facilities and/or radio installation.

With an aged Leopard Moth in mind, the author set out to investigate the possibilities of useful transistorised equipment which could improve the safety of flying in the vicinity of crowded aerodromes. The fairly strong signals to be expected encouraged experiments using transistors alone. While the resultant receiver as it stands does not offer immediate applications for amateurs, a description is given as it is felt that the circuits used, and difficulties involved, may well prove of interest to those working in the 70 or 144 Mc/s bands.

The only transistors available at the time of these experiments which appeared to be suitable for use up to 120 Mc/s were the Ediswan type XA131 and four of these were purchased. These transistors are normally only recommended for use as amplifiers up to 100 Mc/s but it was resolved to attempt to squeeze them past this limit if at all possible. Very little other data could be found on these semiconductors and all of the results have been achieved by pure experiment without manufacturer's data.

Crystal control of the oscillator was considered essential because of the possible vibration, etc., to which any final model would be subjected.

Front End Circuit

As may be seen from the circuit diagram, an XA131 is arranged in a grounded base circuit amplifying at the signal frequency. The aerial is coupled into the input tuned circuit L2, C3, C4 using a series tuned link L1, C1, C2, the signal frequency tuned circuit feeding the XA131 emitter via a bias-blocking capacitor C5 from a low impedance tap in the coil.

C3 is merely a small piece of tinplate approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{6}{8}$in soldered to a short supporting wire from the top of C4. The proximity of this small capacitance to chassis is sufficient to provide final adjustment to resonance of the input circuit, which in this case was required to give a reasonably broad response across the range 118.1 to 119.7 Mc/s.

The collector circuit of this first stage is also broad tuned by means of L3 which is “squeeze tuned” to resonance in the centre of the required band. This coil feeds the following XA131 mixer via a blocking capacitor, C8, and a low impedance tapping. Bias for the XA131 mixer is fed from the usual potential divider through a series v.h.f. choke RFC1 to minimise losses.

Local oscillator injection is fed into the mixer emitter from the multiplier chain, again using an r.f. choke, RFC2, in series with the resistor R7. Care should be taken to avoid stray coupling between the two r.f. chokes in this stage. The value of the emitter resistor was found to be quite critical, and reducing this much below the stated value of 4.7kΩ was found to increase the output at i.f. considerably, amplifying breakthrough, etc., but causing a serious drop into the noise level of the wanted converted signal.

Crystal controlled oscillator injection is obtained from a 23 Mc/s overtone crystal (chosen because it happened to be available!) using yet another XA131. A conventional tuned circuit in the collector of this stage feeds the base via a pair of capacitors, C19 and C20, in an “impedance dividing” circuit to provide the necessary feedback at low impedance. The crystal is in series with this path and was found to oscillate readily on the overtone frequency. Several small plated crystals in the range 21 to 24 Mc/s were tried in this circuit, and all worked well as soon as the coil was resonated, there being no noticeable attempt to self-oscillate on detuning. Off resonance the crystal merely stops working after a very slight frequency pulling.
Brief attempts to use 5 Mc/s 10X crystals on their 5th overtone and FT243 7 Mc/s units on their 3rd overtone proved fruitless, although no very serious efforts have so far been made to press them into use owing to their clumsy size for the present purpose.

The 23 Mc/s output from the overtone oscillator circuit is taken via a series tuned winding consisting of 5 turns of plastic covered wirewound on top of the oscillator winding, and tuned to chassis with a variable capacitor C16 with C15 as a padder. The 5th harmonic generating stage is operated in the grounded base Class C condition and gives best output at 115 Mc/s with no base bias whatsoever! Attempts to bias the base of this stage only reduced the output. The latter is taken from a low impedance tapping on a conventional tuned circuit L6, C14 via a blocking capacitor C12, to the mixer emitter. Variable capacitance is used in this tuned circuit in order to reduce the amount of unwanted harmonics present, for to have a broad band characteristic here would only cause trouble.

The tuned circuit in the collector of the mixer is conventional and is tuned by a 500pF section of the two-gang variable capacitor, C10. A low impedance winding on this coil, L5, provides output for the next stage. All original experiments were carried out by feeding this low impedance output into the aerial terminals of an Eddystone S750 receiver, using the front-end as a crystal controlled converter only. When properly aligned, this “converter” circuit puts S9-plus signals into the S750 with the i.f. gain control set at minimum, the r.f. gain advanced by about one-third and audio gain at maximum. With these rough settings the background noise was just audible with the “converter” switched on.

The I.F./A.F. Section
Having obtained a “converter” capable of resolving signals of well below 10pV, the next step was to build some sort of receiver into which it could be fed. In the
interests of low consumption, sensitivity, and above all, cheapness, a t.r.f. circuit using a regenerative detector with a fair amount of audio amplification was selected. The high audio output is a requirement peculiar to aircraft use and is possibly unnecessary for an amateur portable application.

With an injection frequency of approximately 115 Mc/s, the Nairobi Approach frequency of 119.7 Mc/s appears at 4.7 Mc/s on the receiver, while the Tower frequency of 118.1, at 3.1 Mc/s, represented the lowest channel needed. Therefore a range of say 3–5 Mc/s would conveniently cover the required i.f. when using a 23 Mc/s crystal.

This section of the overall receiver consists of an OC44 grounded base amplifier following the XA131 v.h.f. mixer, and is fed on its emitter by the coupling coil L5 which was previously used to couple into the S750. A suitable resistor and bypass capacitor is inserted at the earthy end of this coil. The output from the amplifier stage is taken, via a conventional tuned circuit using L9 and the other half of the two-gang capacitor, C25, to an OC44 functioning as a regenerative detector. This stage is operated in the grounded-emitter condition and signals are fed to its base via a low impedance coil, L11. The collector of the detector stage is connected to L10, which provides feedback controlled by C28, a 60pF trimmer. RFC3 and C29 filter out any radio frequency signals which would otherwise reach the first OC71 audio amplifier. This feeds a second OC71 acting as a driver stage which in turn feeds a conventional transformer-coupled Class B audio amplifier using a pair of surplus red spot transistors. Negative feedback has been included from the loudspeaker output transformer winding, although for speech purposes this is probably an unnecessary embellishment.

Alignment and Adjustments

As mentioned earlier, the front-end is best tested first, on its own. Output from L5 (X-X) is taken to the aerial terminals of a receiver covering the intermediate and oscillator frequencies. The receiver is tuned to the crystal oscillator frequency of 23 Mc/s and L8 is adjusted for maximum stable output. This should sound S9 in the receiver with only the coupling as above.

After this the receiver is tuned to the intermediate frequency for the required channel (oscillator injection frequency being 115 Mc/s) and noise is peaked by adjusting L4, C10 to resonance. A fairly strong signal should be injected into the aerial socket to L1 at the required signal frequency, and the following trimmers adjusted for maximum signal in this order:

C14, C16 are adjusted, followed by touching up L9 and C16 again for maximum signal.

L3 is “squeeze-tuned” to resonance, also L2 in conjunction with C3 and C1. All are adjusted for maximum signal. By this time the front-end should sound lively and car ignition and/or aircraft signals should be audible when an aerial is connected in place of the signal generator.

Having ascertained that the front end is operating correctly, the i.f./a.f. section should be connected in place of the receiver. C25, L9, and regeneration control C28 are now all adjusted for maximum signal on the wanted channel. The regeneration control will be found to cause some frequency pulling of the detector and final adjustments are best made on noise from a fluorescent lamp or other broad band source rather than from a signal generator.

---

**Coil Winding Data**

| L1    | 1 Turn 22 s.w.g. plastic covered introduced into earthy end of L<sub>9</sub> (same dia.) |
| L2    | 7½ Turns 22 s.w.g. tinned copper. Self supporting 1 cm. long, 8 mm. i.d. (Tapped 1T from chassis.) |
| L3    | 12 Turns 22 s.w.g. tinned copper. Self supporting 1.5 cm. long, 8 mm. i.d. |
| L4    | 50 Turns 32 s.w.g. enam. copper on 7 mm. miniature Aladdin D.1 cored former. |
| L5    | 9 Turns 32 s.w.g. enam. copper wound on top of L4. |
| L6    | 9 Turns 22 s.w.g. tinned copper. Self supporting 2.3 cm. long, 8 mm. i.d. (Tapped 2T from h.t.) |
| L7    | 5 Turns 22 s.w.g. plastic covered on top of L8. |
| L8*   | 10 Turns (approx.) on 7 mm. miniature Aladdin D.1 cored former. Close wound 32 s.w.g. enam. copper. |
| L9    | 50 Turns on 7 mm. miniature Aladdin D.1 cored former. Close wound 32 s.w.g. enam. copper. |
| L10   | 30 Turns 32 s.w.g. enam. copper on top of L9. |
| L11   | 9 Turns 32 s.w.g. enam. copper on top of L9 and L10. |
| R.F.C.1, 2 | 27 inches 32 s.w.g. enam. copper close wound on body of any convenient resistor over 100kΩ. |
| R.F.C.3 | 1.5mH single pi dust iron cored. |

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*The size of this coil was found to vary a few turns either way among the XA131's used. This coil will also of course depend on the crystal frequency being 23 Mc/s, and on small differences in the values of C19 and C20. In most cases the dust iron core should compensate sufficiently for such changes.*

Because of this pulling effect it is recommended that at this stage all trimmers and coils are re-adjusted for maximum signal several times to ensure best results.

**Points to Watch**

The use of a preset regeneration control was found
to be unsatisfactory as the required amount of feedback varied considerably from channel to channel and a larger variable would be needed on anything other than a prototype model. Regeneration was found to be quite smooth provided that the emitter bias resistor $R_{17}$ was not too low in value.

Insufficient bypassing of the h.t. supply to the early audio stages can cause modulation of the supply by the output transistors. This produces feedback, and a form of motor-boating can also occur. The latter seems to be due to frequency modulation effects on the detector when the h.t. voltage swings as above, and is noticeable on very strong signals. Some form of a.g.c. would perhaps help with this trouble, but increasing the values of $C_{11}$ and $C_{34}$ to 1,000µF each also minimised this effect. It is important to remember that transistors are, by valve comparisons, very low impedance devices, and as such require equally low impedance power supply sources. The use of old batteries whose internal resistance has risen too far can cause endless trouble and the author has used “lantern” cells or “bell” cells for all test purposes to good effect.

**CAN ANYONE HELP?**

Requests for information are inserted in this feature free of charge, subject to space being available. Users of this service undertake to acknowledge all letters, etc., received and to reimburse all reasonable expenses incurred by correspondents. Circuits, manuals, service sheets, etc., lent by readers must be returned in good condition within a reasonable period of time.

Transistorised DF Circuit.—W. N. Perioli, 22 Perch Meadow, R.A.F., Halton, Bucks, requires circuit of this loop or ferrite rod DF receiver.

Radio Altimeter, type RT-40/APN.1X.—A. L. Wakeman, 29 Islington Road, Southville, Bristol 3, has recently acquired this unit and is in need of the circuit diagram. Has any reader any conversion details for the 430 Mc/s amateur band or any other use?

R1155A Receiver.—R. Mouat, 22 Norfolk Road, Thornton Heath, Surrey, would appreciate any advice on this receiver.

Jason FM Tuner.—D. Byrne, G3KPO, Jersey House, Eye, Peterborough, Northants, would appreciate circuit and details of the Jason FM Tuner (original kit), and the T1131 VHF Transmitter.

Combination Tester Model No. 104 (?SC7051.A).—W. B. Glayzer, 126 Trenchard Avenue, R.A.F. Halton, Aylesbury, Bucks, wishes to buy, borrow or purchase any information concerning this tester and the meter, this latter being missing. The tester was manufactured by Espey Mfg. Co. Inc., of U.S.A.

The Radio Amateur's Handbook 1961.—J. Langford, 20 Eastlake Avenue, Parkstone, Dorset, would like to receive this manual for two weeks only. Postage, carriage and hiring fee to instructions received.

Receiver type RL85.—4019253, Cpl. Peyton, W., Signals Workshop, R.A.F. Driffield, Yorks, is in need of the circuit diagram or any other information of the r.f. section of this receiver.

Bendix Receiver Unit type BC624.—J. A. Taylor, 16 Springfield Gardens, Lowestoft, Suffolk, wants to convert this unit to cover the 2 metre band and would appreciate any details from readers.

Original Senior HRO Receiver.—A. W. Mann, 62 Costa Street, Middlesbrough, wishes to purchase, or obtain on loan, the instruction manual or drawing of under-chassis showing values of components.

Ex-R.A.F. Indicator Unit Ref. AB/414.—P. J. Horn, 81 Brockley Rise, London, S.E.23, wishes to know if any reader can supply the circuit or service manual of this equipment, also any modifications to convert to general purpose oscilloscope. Willing to purchase information if necessary.

Wavemeter W1191A and AR88D Receiver.—J. Hudson, 68 Glebe Street, Great Harwood, Blackburn, Lancs, wishes to obtain any technical information on these equipments.

Ekco TU211 TV.—R. S. Waite, 17 Southdown Road, London, S.W.20, would like to borrow the service sheet or manual for this television receiver.

Philco Stereo Record Player Model 62.—J. Goodworth, 29 Chestnut Avenue, Oswestry, Salop, urgently requires the circuit diagram of this player.

R1147 Receiver.—P. W. Ellis, 354 North Road, Hull, requests tuning coil/capacitor modifications to cover any useful waveband.

R107 and R110 Receivers.—F. J. Lubbock, 12 Derwent Close, Cambridge, would like to receive the circuit diagrams and any other data concerning these two receivers.
A SIMPLE
Musical Instrument

By R. C. MARSHALL, M.A., Grad.I.E.E.

This article describes an oscillator that was built as a child's toy, but has proved a useful musical instrument. It will play only one note at a time, but cannot produce a discord if two keys are pressed simultaneously. The keyboard covers the scale from middle B to top F. The basic instrument only consumes power from its battery when a key is pressed. If the vibrato oscillator is fitted, the consumption rises to about 10mA and an on/off switch is desirable.

Fig. 1. Circuit of the Simple Musical Instrument described by the author. The capacitors C1 and C2 should be adjusted on test (see text). All resistors are rated at ½ watt ±10%.

The basic circuit, Fig. 1, is that of a multivibrator using two OC71 transistors. The output is connected to an earphone via a resistor-capacitor filter that reduces the harshness of the square waveform. To feed an external power amplifier, connection can be made between one collector and the -9 volt line as shown dotted in Fig. 1. The frequency of the oscillator is determined by the potential at point “A”. Normally this is positive to the emitters and both transistors are cut off. Pressing a key connects the appropriate portion of the resistor chain, raising the potential as required, and oscillation commences.

The lowest frequency is obtained with “A” about 2½ volts negative to the emitter. At lower voltages the oscillator ceases to work as a multivibrator and produces a sinewave of higher frequency. Above this voltage, frequency is proportional to voltage, and is limited only by the battery voltage available. If it is desired to extend the keyboard beyond 19 notes a higher voltage is needed. Alternatively a switch can be arranged to double or halve the values of C1 and C2, to give a scale an octave lower or higher than the basic one. Frequency stability is good, as frequency depends largely on the ratio between the 9 volt and 18 volt supplies, which will not vary during the life of the battery. The use of transistors of lower leakage current, and a higher minimum voltage at “A”, would improve the stability further.

The realism of the sound can be improved by adding vibrato, that is, modulation of the frequency or amplitude at about 10 c/s. A suitable oscillator is shown in Fig. 2.1 It is a “Twin T” oscillator using the transistor in grounded base, and frequency modulates the main oscillator by supplying a fluctuating voltage to the keyboard. The components shown give a frequency of about 12 c/s. This may be varied by changing C3, C4 and C5, keeping their ratio constant. An OC72 is used as the output is

required at a fairly low output impedance. Variation of the 100Ω resistor R1 will control vibrato amplitude, but as it affects pitch also, the potentiometer corresponding to the highest note must be reset.

The photograph shows the construction of the author's instrument, which, being intended for a small boy, is "narrow gauge". The keys are dismantled springsets from post office type relays, and they are clamped between strips of paxolin in two tiers, with the black notes on the upper tier. Two strips of tinplate link all the keys together and thus to the 18 volt line or the vibrato oscillator. The baseboard is also of paxolin and carries cheese-headed bolts, with heads above, and solder tags and nuts below: These bolts act as fixed contacts for each key, and are connected to the preset potentiometers. Longer bolts are used for the black notes, with nuts above and below so that the heads nearly reach the upper tier of springs. The heads of the bolts need cleaning occasionally. A proper keyboard from an old piano and a pair of relay contacts for each note would be much better.

The adjustment procedure is as follows. Capacitors C1 and C2 are adjusted to bring the highest note within the range of its potentiometer, and then each lower note may be set in turn. This sequence is essential, as each potentiometer affects all lower notes. The vibrato oscillator can be stopped by disconnecting one of the capacitors. The frequencies can be set against an accurate oscillator, or they can be set approximately with an oscillator and adjusted into tune with a piano.

A Small High Quality Amplifier

By PETER J. L. BINNS, M.Sc.

The audio output in watts which is needed to reproduce music realistically in a normal living room is a subject for argument. Many people will maintain that a minimum of 10-12 watts is necessary with ordinary moving coil loudspeakers, and the writer is inclined to agree with this view: but nevertheless the results which can be obtained with an output of only 4 watts are frequently surprisingly good, provided that this 4 watts is delivered with very low distortion. The present amplifier design is suggested as fulfilling this requirement and is also both sensitive and economical. A pair of these small amplifiers for stereo use, employing a common power supply, can be built for a price not much greater than that needed for a conventional 10 watt monophonic push-pull amplifier.
The one component on which the quality of the amplifier depends is, as usual, the output transformer, and it is advisable not to try to economise on this. A nominal rating of 10 watts is suggested: the prototype amplifier used a 20 watt "C core" push-pull triode transformer (still quite small), and the excellent performance is no doubt related to this. There must, however, be many readers who have good quality output transformers rated at 10 watts or more, designed for push-pull triode operation but without the tappings necessary for ultra-linear circuits. Such transformers are excellent for the amplifier here described, as the centre tapping on the primary winding approximates closely to the 43% tap preferred for the ultra-linear operation of a single-ended output stage.

The writer has used the prototype amplifier in direct comparison with a Mullard 20 watt ultra-linear design using push-pull KT66 valves and giving a distortion of 0.05% and a damping factor of 50. The tests were conducted in a room roughly 18 x 12 x 10ft (i.e. not by any means the smallest of modern living rooms), and at full realistic listening volume the small amplifier was almost indistinguishable from the larger when both were operating a large three-speaker system. On exceptionally heavy passages of organ music, the deep bass occasionally lacked the clarity provided by the 20 watt amplifier, but this only at a volume level which even an organist described as "excessive!"

A perusal of the circuit diagram (Fig. 1) shows it to be fairly conventional. A low noise pentode \( V_1 \) is RC coupled to the output stage \( V_2 \), the screen grid of the latter being fed from the centre-tap (ideally at 43% from the anode) to provide ultra-linear operation. Negative feedback is applied from

### Components List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resistors</th>
<th>Components List</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All ( \frac{1}{2} ) watt unless otherwise specified</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_1 ) 1MΩ</td>
<td>Cartridge, 250mA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_2 ) 1MΩ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_3 ) 10kΩ 1 watt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_4 ) 330kΩ high stability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_5 ) 2.2kΩ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_6 ) 47Ω</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_7 ) 470kΩ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_8 ) 150Ω</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_9 ) 4.7kΩ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( VR_1 ) 500kΩ log.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( VR_2 ) 200Ω wirewound, pre-set</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fuse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Capacitors

| \( C_1 \) 0.5µF 350 w.v. paper |                                                       |
| \( C_2 \) 50µF 12 w.v. electrolytic |                                                       |
| \( C_3 \) 16µF 450 w.v. electrolytic |                                                       |
| \( C_4 \) 0.1µF 350 w.v. paper |                                                       |
| \( C_5 \) 50µF 25 w.v. electrolytic |                                                       |
| \( C_6 \) 16µF 450 w.v. electrolytic |                                                       |
| \( C_7 \) 8µF 450 w.v. electrolytic |                                                       |

### Valves

| \( V_1 \) EF86         |                                                       |
| \( V_2 \) EL84         |                                                       |
| \( V_3 \) 5Z4          |                                                       |

### Transformers

| \( T_1 \) Output transformer (see text) | Output transformer (see text) |
| \( T_2 \) Mains transformer 350-0-350V, 60mA, 5V at 2A, 6.3V at 1A | Mains transformer 350-0-350V, 60mA, 5V at 2A, 6.3V at 1A |

### Choke

| \( CH_1 \) Approx. 20H at 60mA | Approx. 20H at 60mA |
the secondary of the output transformer to the cathode of \( V_1 \), and the cathodes of both valves are bypassed to keep the overall gain as high as possible. The power supply uses a full-wave rectifier, and a smoothing choke is employed to keep hum to a minimum without needing large values of capacitances, though no doubt RC smoothing would also prove satisfactory. Provision is made for supplying power to both a preamplifier and an f.m. tuner, though if this is not required the size of the mains transformer can be correspondingly reduced. With the values given in the components list sensitivity is approximately 200mV for 4 watts output.

Fig. 2. Diagram showing layout and position of the larger components. (See also text.) \( V_1 \) is mounted vertically on a small aluminium bracket, which also supports \( C_1 \). \( V_2 \) is mounted below \( VR_2 \) on an aluminium bracket held between the output transformer and the choke. \( C_4 \) is not shown, being below \( C_2 \) and \( C_5 \).

Layout

The layout of the prototype amplifier is somewhat unusual but has proved very satisfactory, being surprisingly compact and well protected. A conventional metal chassis is not used: instead, a rectangular wooden shell, open top and bottom, is used as the main framework (Fig. 2). On the rear wall are placed the three heavy components—mains transformer, smoothing choke, and output transformer, with a small gap between the latter two for the mains input and loudspeaker sockets. Also in this space are mounted horizontally the output valve and the “humdinger” potentiometer, \( VR_1 \). The valveholder and potentiometer are fixed to a small metal sub-chassis, which is in turn secured to the “top” of the choke and output transformer.

The rectifier valve is also mounted horizontally, with the valveholder fixed to the shell with wood screws but spaced from it by means of spacers. There can be sufficient room to employ a large rectifier of the international octal class as is used in the prototype. A miniature of the EZ80 type could alternatively be used. It is advisable to solder the leads to the valveholder before mounting it in position. Above the valveholder is the reservoir capacitor \( C_7 \) (unless mounted as shown in Fig. 2). The EF86 (\( V_1 \)) is mounted vertically, its base being fixed to a small metal sub-chassis screwed to the wooden shell adjacent to the input jack and potentiometer \( VR_1 \). The position of the remaining small components will be clear from the foregoing: small tagboards or strips are easily screwed to the wooden shell to support them as necessary.

A further unexpected virtue of this method of construction results from there being no definite metal chassis, and hence no opportunity to make indiscriminate earth connections to it! Instead, an earth bus-bar is run round the amplifier, starting at the input jack and extending finally to the mains input socket earth connection, and all other earth connections are made to this. To keep hum down to a minimum, only one earth connection is made to ancillary equipment (preamplifier, tuner, etc.) and this will normally be via the shielding of the coaxial input cable.

One word of repetition. To realise the full potentiality of this small amplifier, it is essential to use an output transformer of the highest quality, preferably rated at a minimum of 10 watts. After all, the design is still considerably simpler and cheaper than a genuine 10 watt amplifier! And it provides an admirable use for any available “push-pull triode” transformer without the ultra-linear tappings.

Stereo Version

The design of a stereo version calls for no special comment: the circuitry of \( V_1 \) and \( V_2 \) will be duplicated, and the ratings of the power supply components increased accordingly. It is important that the output transformers are similar, and also that critical components such as anode load and bias resistors are closely matched. It is suggested that the input potentiometers be made concentric, but with separate operating spindles: in this way, an additional balance control becomes unnecessary. Other refinements such as channel reverse and...
speaker phasing switches can be added if required, though it seems to the author that these things should be settled once and for all at the time of initial setting up, and then left alone!

In conclusion, do not be misled by the simplicity of the circuit. If you still think that 10 watts of undistorted sound are essential for real "hi-fi" reproduction, build this amplifier and see for yourself. You may be surprised!

Note: It should be pointed out that a single-ended output transformer normally has butt-jointed laminations (e.g. all the E's on one side and all the I's on the other) with spacing at the joint to prevent the formation of a complete magnetic circuit. The iron is thus less driven towards saturation by the constant d.c. in the primary. Push-pull transformers, on the other hand, normally have interleaved laminations (e.g. alternate E's and I's down the stack) because the steady d.c. currents in the primary cancel each other out. This fact also necessitates the use of a relatively large push-pull transformer in the single-ended circuit discussed here.

The output transformer ratio is experimental, but we would suggest a reflected anode load of some 4 to 5kΩ. The value of R9 may, also, require adjustment according to speaker impedance.—Editor.

TRADE REVIEW...

New Oryx Micro-miniature Soldering Tweezers

A revolutionary type of soldering instrument has been developed to meet the need for precision soldering in laboratories and on production lines with micro-miniature circuit modules, diodes, transistors, other semi-conductors, relays, etc.

Designed, developed and manufactured in the U.K. by Oryx Electrical Laboratories Ltd., the instrument is in the form of a pair of tweezers having a pair of heating elements to both tips. The quality long-life elements are as provided for the popular range of Oryx standard miniature soldering instruments and operate at up to 554°F tip temperature from a 6 volt supply.

Incredibly light to handle and requiring only minimum finger pressure, these tweezers provide an unobstructed view at all times for close precision soldering. An operator can hold work and give simultaneous heating on both sides of a circuit module with only one hand. It is claimed that heating times are considerably reduced and cold joints are virtually eliminated.

World-wide patents have been applied for and the introduction of these instruments in America has been well received by the electronic, radio and television, electrical, jewellery and fancy goods industries where precision soldering of miniature and micro-miniature components is carried out.

These soldering tweezers are being added to the standard Oryx range and are marketed in the U.K. by W. Greenwood Electronic Ltd., 677 Finchley Road, London, N.W.2.
Understanding Radio

By W. G. Morley

In last month's issue, we discussed the resistor colour code and introduced the subject of variable resistors. We shall now carry on to a further discussion of these components.

Mounting Arrangements

It is normally necessary for a variable resistor to be securely mounted on a chassis, a means being provided for rotating the shaft. The most frequently encountered mounting method employs a threaded bush and nut, as in Fig. 17 (a). The threaded bush is passed through a hole in a panel and is secured by a nut and shake-proof washer, as shown, or by a specially designed nut which has shake-proof properties of its own. A locating lug on the variable resistor fits into a second hole in the panel and prevents the whole assembly from being rotated out of position if excessive torque is applied to the shaft after it has reached the end of its travel.

An alternative method of mounting is shown in Fig. 17 (b). In this case the variable resistor is secured by two screws on either side of the shaft, these fitting into tapped holes in the housing. In some instances the holes may not be tapped, whereupon the housing is secured by self-tapping screws, or by normal BA (or similar) screws cutting their own thread in the material. Untapped holes of this type are encountered in plastic housings and normally have square sections, the corners of which offer space for the material cut away by the screw.

The bush mounting method shown in Fig. 17 (a) is employed generally with carbon-track variable resistors and with some wirewound variable resistors, whilst that of Fig. 17 (b) is employed most commonly with wirewound components.

Variable resistors of the type shown in Figs. 17 (a) and (b) usually have shaft diameters with a nominal dimension of 0.25 in. A knob may be fitted to such shafts with the aid of a grub screw, as in Fig. 17 (c). To ensure a more positive mechanical coupling between knob and shaft, it is normal to provide a flat on the shaft, as illustrated in Fig. 17 (d). The grub screw then tightens down on to this flat. When a flat is provided the knob may be affixed to the shaft by an inexpensive spring device instead of by a grub screw. Many present-day variable resistors are miniaturised (for use in transistor radios and the like) whereupon shaft diameters tend to be smaller than the nominal 0.25 in. just mentioned.

Some variable resistors need occasional adjustment only, and they may then be fitted with a slotted shaft, as in Fig. 17 (e). No knob is fitted, and the shaft is rotated by a screwdriver. Such components are described as pre-set variable resistors, (or pre-set potentiometers). Another variation is shown in Fig. 17 (f), in which a variable resistor having two-screw mounting is fitted with an integral knob. The latter may also have a screwdriver slot at the end, whereupon adjustments can be carried out either with the fingers or by screwdriver. Integral knob designs are normally
Variable resistors are commonly mounted by means of a threaded bush and nut. An alternative method using two screws. A knob may be secured to the shaft with a grub screw. Normally, the shaft is provided with a flat. A preset variable resistor. Some variable resistors have integral knobs, which may also have a screwdriver slot. A miniature variable resistor, which is adjusted through a slot in the front panel of the associated equipment. The whole ring, which forms the housing, rotates. A miniature variable resistor of the pre-set type encountered with wirewound resistors only.

A miniature variable resistor of a type commonly fitted to transistor radios is shown in Fig. 17 (g). This component is mounted by its tags, these being soldered into position on a printed circuit board. The milled edge of the assembly protrudes through a slot in the case of the radio to enable adjustments to be made.

Another miniaturised variable resistor commonly encountered in this country and on the Continent is illustrated in basic form in Fig. 17 (h). This is again mounted by its tags, and it is a pre-set component.

The Slide-Wire

Some circuits need a variable resistor having an extremely low value of resistance. This requirement may be met by employing a track which consists, quite simply, of a length of resistance wire. Such a component is known as a slide-wire. Slide-wires are not used in conventional radio receivers, but are employed in measuring equipment. Apart from its low resistance, the slide-wire has the important advantage of having a low inductance (especially when compared with wirewound components), and this latter point may furnish the major reason for its being used in some equipment. We have not discussed inductance yet, but when we do so the reason for the low inductance of the slide-wire will become self-evident.

Tapered Tracks

A variable resistor may be manufactured such that the resistance between the slider and one end of the resistance element varies in direct proportion to the rotation of the shaft. Such a component is described as being a linear variable resistor, or linear potentiometer, or (in the case of carbon-track components) as having a linear track.

However, a large number of radio applications require that the resistance between the slider and one end of the element does not vary in direct proportion with shaft rotation. A typical instance would be given if the resistance between the slider and the starting end varied as the logarithm of rotation as the shaft was turned clockwise. Variable resistors in which resistance does not vary in direct proportion with shaft rotation are described as being tapered, or as having tapered tracks. The relationship between resistance and rotation is then referred to as the law, or taper, of the variable resistor. In practice, a large number of different laws are available, these having been designed for particular applications. That most frequently encountered in elementary radio work in this country is the logarithmic law which, in practical variable resistors, corresponds approximately to

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the logarithmic relationship just referred to. Frequently, the abbreviation "log" would be used.

Tapered variable resistors are usually of the carbon-track type. Tapered wirewound variable resistors may also be encountered.

**Taps and Combinations**

For certain circuit requirements, a variable resistor may have one or more taps made into the resistance element. Such taps are brought out to solder tags to enable external connection to be made.

Two (or more) variable resistors may be coupled together as in Fig. 18 (a) and (b). In Fig. 18 (a) the two resistors share a common shaft, so that both sliders rotate in unison as this is turned. The two variable resistors can then be described as being ganged. In Fig. 18 (b) the two variable resistors are not ganged because the sliders operate independently by means of concentric shafts. The outside shaft controls the forward variable resistor, and the centre shaft the rear variable resistor. Combinations of this nature have the advantage of allowing two variable resistors to occupy the same panel space as would normally be required by one. A very common combination is shown in Fig. 18 (c), in which a switch is fitted at the rear of a variable resistor. The switch is operated when the slider is at one end of the track.

---

2 The word "linear", as applied to a variable resistor, defines a different characteristic than in the case of a "linear resistor" which follows Ohm's Law. See "Understanding Radio", part 3, October 1961 issue. The two usages are, of course, quite separate and would be obvious from their context.

---

**Resistor Symbols**

As we already know, a cell is shown in a circuit diagram by means of a symbol. So, also, are resistors. A fixed resistor is represented by the symbol shown in Fig. 19 (a); a variable resistor by the symbol illustrated in Fig. 19 (b). In the latter diagram the arrow in the centre represents the slider, which could then move up and down the resistance element. If a fixed resistor has a tap this may be represented as in Fig. 19 (c). Alternatively, if the tap is fixed, two separate resistors may be drawn about the tapping point, as in Fig. 19 (d). A tap into the resistance element in a variable resistor is illustrated as shown in Fig. 19 (e). If a variable resistor is employed as a rheostat (i.e. with the slider and one end of the resistance element only in circuit) it may sometimes be presented as in Fig. 19 (f). The arrow drawn through the component indicating "variable". Pre-set variable resistors may be drawn as in Figs. 19 (b), (e) or (f), the fact that they are pre-set being indicated on the drawing or in the accompanying text; or they can be illustrated as in Fig. 19 (g). Occasionally, the symbol of Fig. 19 (h) for a pre-set variable resistor employed as a rheostat may be encountered.

It will be noted from Figs. 19 (g) and (h) that a change of function from "variable" to "pre-set" is indicated by replacing the arrow which indicates "variable" with a T-shaped symbol. As we shall see later when we come to consider other components, this is a general practice in circuit diagram presentation.

Individual resistors in a circuit diagram are normally identified by the letter R with a number suffix. A circuit with three resistors would, therefore, identify these as R₁, R₂ and R₃. The letter R may be applied to fixed and variable resistors alike.
although the latter are sometimes identified by the letters VR, also with a number suffix. Occasionally, variable resistors are identified by the letter P (for potentiometer).

**Resistor Circuits**

We have seen\(^3\) that when we connect two wires of equal resistance in series, the total resistance is doubled. In other words, the total resistance is equal to the sum of the two individual resistances. If we were to add another wire of equal resistance in series we would obtain three times the initial resistance, because the total resistance is now equal to the sum of the three individual resistances. This rule applies to all resistors connected in series: the total resistance is the sum of the individual resistances.

Fig. 20 (a) illustrates a 10Ω resistor in series with a 22Ω resistor. The total resistance is 32Ω. Fig. 20 (b) shows three resistors in series, these having values of 100kΩ, 220kΩ and 820kΩ. Once more, the total resistance is the sum of these, and it is equal to 1,140kΩ, or 1.14MΩ.

At the same time that we examined the effect of connecting two wires of equal resistance in series we also looked at the result of connecting them in parallel. In this case the total resistance is one half the resistance of each wire. If we connect a third wire of equal resistance in parallel, the total resistance becomes one third. This relationship is easy to understand if we consider it in terms of the expression \(R = \frac{E}{I}\). Obviously, three wires of equal resistance in parallel allow three times as much current to flow as does a single wire. If \(E\) in the expression remains constant, multiplying \(I\) by three reduces \(R\) to one third of its initial value.

The formula for determining the total resistance of resistors in parallel is:

\[
\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \ldots
\]

where \(R\) represents the total resistance, and \(R_1, R_2, R_3, \text{etc.}\), the individual resistors.

\(^3\) In "Understanding Radio", part 2, September 1961 issue.

![Fig. 20. Two series resistor combinations, showing also the total resistance](image)

![Fig. 21. Three and four resistors in parallel](image)

**Fig. 21 (a) illustrates three 9Ω resistors in parallel.**

From our formula:

\[
\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{3}{9} = \frac{4}{9}
\]

\[\therefore R = \frac{9}{4} = 2.25Ω.\]

As we would expect, the total resistance is a third of the individual equal resistances.

In Fig. 21 (b) we have four resistors in parallel, these having unequal values. In this case, and working in units of kΩ, we have:

\[
\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{200} + \frac{1}{150} + \frac{1}{300} + \frac{1}{1000}
\]

\[= \frac{15 + 20 + 10 + 3}{3000} = \frac{48}{3000} = \frac{48}{3000}\]

\[= \frac{48}{3000} = 62.5kΩ.\]

The total resistance is 62.5kΩ.
The formula we have just considered may also be expressed as:

\[ R = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \cdots} \]

which is merely another way of saying the same thing.

If only two resistors are connected in parallel, the formula may be simplified to:

\[ R = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \]

Most beginners will probably find it convenient to work to the formula for parallel resistors given first, as this is easiest to remember and covers all cases.

Fig. 22 (a) and (b). Two series-parallel resistor combinations

(c). A series-parallel combination, the total resistance of which is 50Ω

Fig. 23 (a). The internal resistance of a cell may be shown as a separate resistor

(b) and (c). Showing the effect of increasing the current flowing through the internal resistance of a cell

Series-Parallel Combinations

Combinations of resistors in series and parallel are frequently encountered in radio work, typical examples being given in Figs. 22 (a) and (b). To find the total resistance of such combinations it is necessary to work in separate steps. Thus, in Fig. 22 (a), the total resistance of \( R_2 \) and \( R_3 \) in parallel must first be determined, this then being added to the resistance of \( R_1 \). In Fig. 22 (b) there are three steps. First, the total resistance of \( R_3 \) and \( R_4 \) in series must be calculated. This total resistance is then considered as a single resistance in parallel with \( R_2 \), whereupon the combined resistance of the parallel combination is determined. This last figure is then added to the resistance of \( R_1 \) to give the total resistance.

Fig. 22 (c) gives a series-parallel combination of resistors, with values, the total resistance of which readers may care to calculate on their own. This total resistance is 50Ω.

Internal Resistance

We have up to now looked upon cells, and batteries made up of cells, simply as devices which are capable of providing an e.m.f. This does not, however, provide a full picture.

When we apply a source of electromotive force to a conductor there is a flow of electric current. Electrons leave the negative terminal of the source of electromotive force and a similar quantity enter at its positive terminal. Thus there is a flow of current through the source itself. In practice,
we might employ a cell as the source of electro-motive force, whereupon we would find that this cell offered a resistance to the flow of electric current. Resistance is present in just the same manner as it is present in any conductor: it is impossible to have a perfect conductor of electricity.

The resistance in a cell is known as its internal resistance, and it may be represented in a circuit diagram as a separate resistor in series with the cell, as in Fig. 23 (a), the cell itself now being assumed perfect. Because of the presence of internal resistance, the e.m.f. on the terminals of a cell drops as the current which flows increases. This is an effect which can be easily verified. If we connect a flash-light bulb to the terminals of a small partly exhausted flash-light battery (dry Leclanché) the bulb will light up in normal manner. See Fig. 23 (b). If we add a second similar bulb in parallel to the first, as in Fig. 23 (c), the brightness of the first bulb will noticeably drop. This is because the additional current flowing through the internal resistance of the battery causes a larger e.m.f. to appear across it, and a smaller e.m.f. to be available for the bulb. This particular effect is especially noticeable with a small partly exhausted dry Leclanché battery because, in general, the internal resistance of such a battery increases as its size decreases; also the internal resistance of a dry battery of this type tends to increase as it becomes exhausted.

It was stated earlier that cells are not normally connected in parallel to increase current capability unless they are identical, or nearly identical, in electrical performance. The reason for this now becomes apparent. Fig. 24 (a) illustrates three cells in parallel, each having its own internal resistance. If all the internal resistances are equal each cell is capable of providing its fair share of current to an external circuit. If, however, the internal resistance of one cell is higher than the others it will not be capable of providing the same current, and an unfair burden of the total current is carried by the remaining two cells. When cells are connected in series, as in Fig. 24 (b), the situation is somewhat different. In this case all the individual internal resistances add up to a single overall resistance (Fig. 24 (c)), which can then be described as the internal resistance of the battery. In this case all cells must provide the same current and dissimilarities in internal resistance (provided they are not exceptionally great) do not detract from the overall performance of the battery.

Sources of e.m.f. other than cells and batteries also have unavoidable internal resistances, and these may similarly be expressed in the form of series resistors.

Two new points of terminology may now be introduced. Fig. 23 (a) shows a cell with its internal resistance in series with the terminals. The e.m.f. at these points is known as the terminal e.m.f. Obviously, terminal e.m.f. falls as current increases.

It was stated just now with reference to Fig. 23 that increased current flowing through the internal resistance caused a larger voltage drop across it, and a smaller voltage to be available for the external circuit (in this case a bulb). This statement could have been condensed by saying that the increased current caused a larger voltage drop across the series internal resistance, the fact that less voltage was available for the external circuit being then understood. The term “voltage drop” may be applied to any form of resistance which performs the same function.

Next Month

In next month’s issue we shall deal briefly with a few remaining aspects of resistance, and shall then carry on to capacitance.

THIRD PYE I.L.S. FOR CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Pye Telecommunications Limited of Cambridge, England, announce that a Pye Instrument Landing System has been ordered by the Czechoslovakian Government for installation at Bratislava International Airport.

The Instrument Landing System will be the third supplied by Pye to Czechoslovakia, the previous two installations being at Prague International Airport.

This Pye contract brings the value of I.L.S. and ancillary equipment supplied by the Company to Czechoslovakia to over £100,000.

The latest contract covers additionally the supply of transistorised radiotelephones for use on Czechoslovak airfields.
This month Smithy the Serviceman and his able assistant Dick tackle their first job for 1962. They also experience their first taste of the rigours of winter!

A happy New Year to you all, Smithy!

Smithy, the Serviceman looked up, and Dick was surprised to see that he was sporting a full day's stubble on his normally immaculate chin. "You must have had a session last night!"

"Nothing of the sort," replied Smithy indignant. "I had a very quiet and sedate New Year's Eve."

"Blimey," remarked Dick, regarding the Serviceman closely. "You must have had a session last night!"

"Nothing of the sort," replied Smithy indignantly. "I had a very quiet and sedate New Year's Eve."

"Well, why the beard?" persisted Dick. "Are you trying to wangle a staff job on the Committee of Dick?"

"Forgotten something?" questioned Smithy, frowning. "I don't think so. Oh yes, I have too! A happy New Year to you as well, Dick."

**F.M. Receiver**

Satisfied, Dick walked over and filled the kettle whilst Smithy started work on his first receiver for 1962. The Workshop soon settled into its normal industrious rhythm, with Smithy and Dick quietly occupied with their respective tasks.

But not for long.

"Well, that's queer."

Smithy, wise with the years, let Dick's remark go unheeded.

"Yes, that's a very queer thing."

Smithy ignored this further comment, and concentrated on his own receiver.

"This is a most queer effect."

Smithy sighed and looked at his watch. If matters pursued their normal course, Dick should be finally calling out for assistance within five seconds.

"Smithy!"

"Four seconds," muttered Smithy to himself with sombre satisfaction. He liked his predictions to come out accurately.

"What did you say?" called out Dick suspiciously.

"Oh nothing," said Smithy, hastily.

"What do you want, anyway?"

"There's something queer happening with this f.m. receiver I've got here." replied Dick. "Could you come and have a look at it?"

"What's the trouble?" asked Smithy, as he wandered over to Dick's bench.

"It's an f.m. set, and it's responding to a.m!"

"More details please."

"Well, I'm pumping an amplitude modulated signal into the r.f. strip at 10.7 Mc/s," stated Dick, "and it's coming out of the speaker!"

Smithy glanced at the signal generator Dick had coupled to his receiver.

"Even if the receiver were in perfect order," he remarked, "I wouldn't be too surprised at an effect like that. You happen to be using a relatively inexpensive a.m.-only signal generator, and quite a few of these give a small amount of frequency modulation as well. So you might well hear a weak tone from the speaker!"
Dick looked disappointed. "Then that particular effect won't have anything to do with the trouble I'm experiencing," he remarked moodily. "I suppose I'll have to look somewhere else now!"

"What is the trouble anyway?"

"This set came in as 'weak reception',' replied Dick. "And, when I tried it out I could only just get our two local stations with the volume turned fully up. Even so, there was quite a lot of background hiss behind them. I then thought that the set wasn't limiting properly, and that my experience with the a.m. signal genny had confirmed this."

"I shouldn't be too sure about diagnoses like that," commented Smithy. "When the signal is as weak as that, it may well mean that the only circuit which can do any effective limiting is the ratio detector itself. If there is a limiting i.f. amplifier it probably wouldn't have enough signal to limit on."

Dick looked puzzled. "Why do you refer to the presence of a ratio detector so confidently? This set could just as easily have a phase detector or any other f.m. detector."

"Not in this country, it couldn't," replied Smithy firmly. "Ratio detectors are just about standard equipment in domestic f.m. receivers."

"I suppose you're right," conceded Dick. "At any rate there's an electrolytic capacitor sitting in the detector wiring, and ratio detectors need electrolytics if they're going to work."

"We'll go into that at a later date," said Smithy. "What have you done up to now?"

"One of the first things I did," said Dick, "was to insert my finger into the works, applying it, therein, to the a.f. triode grid. I was rewarded with a good loud 'um from the speaker."

"And then?"

"I next followed," said Dick, "some advice which has been given much publicity recently. I pulled my finger out!"

"Which is," approved Smithy, "a good servicing gambit. So we can now say that the a.f. stages seem to be in pretty reasonable shape."

"That's right," said Dick. "I next turned my attention to the i.f. stages, whereupon I encountered the queer business with the a.m. and f.m. we've just been talking about."

Smithy frowned. "Have you checked the valves?" he asked. "It would be foolish to start serious work without swapping bottles."

"Oh I've done that," said Dick. "None of the new valves gave any improvement, and so I've left all the old ones in."

"Good show," approved Smithy. "It's always a sensible thing to do the easy tests first, even if it's unlikely that they'll reveal the cause of the trouble. What about voltage tests?"

"I haven't done any yet."

"Well," said Smithy, "I think that these are the next thing to do, rather than start playing around with the signal genny. Have you got the service manual out?"

Dick looked uncomfortable. "I was just getting around to that."

Smithy frowned.

I.F. Stages

Dick quickly obtained the manual and passed it over to the Serviceman. As usually occurred, the latter had become completely absorbed in Dick's fault; and he was now firmly seated on Dick's stool with test prods at the ready. Smithy opened up the manual and laid it on the bench so that they could both look at the circuit of the receiver.

"Ah," he said, "it seems nice and straightforward. A double triode r.f. amplifier and mixer in a separate tuner unit to handle the signal frequencies; after which we get a two-pentode i.f. amplifier and a triode ratio detector and a.f. amplifier (Fig. 1). Nothing much to be scared of here."

"I've done that," said Smithy, "that's nice."

"Tuner unit anode voltage seems to be O.K.," he remarked, "so let's tackle the i.f. amplifier. The h.t. rail voltage is around 180, and the first i.f. anode is reading 155 volts. There's a 3.3kΩ anode decoupling resistor, so this means that the anode's drawing some 7 or 8mA. Which is quite a reasonable figure."

"That's a pretty quick mental calculation for the current, isn't it?" commented Dick. "Dash it all, I have to start with \[ R = \frac{E}{I} \] before I can even think of current. And
even then I need a bit of paper to
to get the I over to the left-hand
side!"

Smithy looked surprised.

"Oh, I never bother with that
sort of thing when working out
currents from voltage and resistance,
he said. "All you have to remember
is that 1 volt across 1kΩ gives you
1mA. Here we have 25 volts dropped
across an anode decoupling resistor
of 3.3kΩ. Now, 25 volts across
1kΩ is obviously 25mA; and across
3.3kΩ it would be slightly less than
a third of this figure. My guess
was some 7 to 8mA. And that's
near enough for the present job."

"What's the anode voltage on
the second i.f. pentode?"

Smithy applied his test prods.

'It's 165 volts," he announced.

"Near enough," confirmed Smithy.

"It's 165 volts," he announced.

"Let's see now! 1 volt across
1kΩ is 1mA, 15 volts across
1kΩ is 15mA, so 15 volts across
3.3kΩ would be slightly less than
a third of 15mA. Would the anode
current be around 4mA?"

"Near enough," confirmed Smithy.

Dick thought for a moment and
then a sudden gleam came into his
eye.

"Well, there it is," he exclaimed.

"What?"

"Why, the fault of course," said Dick excitedly. "We have
two pentodes, and one draws only
each the anode current of the
other."

"So?"

"They've both got 3.3kΩ anode
dropping resistors," continued Dick
impatiently, "and if you look at
the circuit you'll see that both
cathodes go straight down to deck."

"Go on.""

"Well, it's obvious!" rushed on Dick. "Something in the circuit
is causing the second pentode to
draw less anode current."

"You're perfectly right there."

Dick examined the circuit in
greater detail.

"Both grids go to chassis via
parallel resistors and capacitors," he continued, "so they're the same.
Both suppressors are tied to cathode.
And, confirmed Dick triumphantly,"both screen-grounds go up to h.t.
plus via 68kΩ droppers."

"You have forgotten to point
out," concluded Smithy gently,"that the screen-grid of the second
pentode goes to chassis via a 15kΩ
resistor."

Dick looked more closely at
the circuit, and his finger traced the
connections from the screen-grids
down to the chassis line. There
was silence for a moment.

"Well," he said eventually, "I
suppose you could say that the
screen-grid voltage on the second
pentode must be lower than that
on the first, and I suppose you
could say that this would make the
second pentode anode current
less."

"I like the way you say you
could say these things," protested
Smithy. "You jolly well should
say them, because they happen to
be true! I'll measure the screen-grid
voltages right now just to see what
they really are. The first one is
80 volts and the second one is 30
volts. Does that satisfy you?"

"O.K. Smithy," said Dick, looking
slightly abashed. "I was rather
jumping the gun, I suppose.

"I'll say you were," confirmed
Smithy.

Dick stroked his chin absent-
mindedly, and suddenly realised
that it was covered with stubble.

"Dash it all," he remarked, "I haven't had my shave. Is that
telegraphing yet?"

"I'd forgotten all about it," confessed Dick.

He walked over to the battered
Workshop kettle, which was now
giving off steam furiously and
picked it up. Its weight caused
him to open the led and look inside,
whereupon he turned a somewhat
doleful face to the Serviceman.

"Sorry Smithy," he remarked.

"But it's nearly boiled dry. I'll
have to fill it up again."

Limiting

Smithy shrugged.

"Not to worry, lad," he remarked.

"It's just in the nature of things
today. My main hope is that our
pipes and hobs will have got un frozen
by the time I get back tonight.
It's most inconvenient being without
water. Particularly on a Monday."

"What's so special about Mon-
day?"

"Monday's my bath-night."

"Do you only have one bath
a week, then?" asked Dick, interested-
ly.

"Of course not," said Smithy
defensively. "I have another one
on Thursdays as well."

"I suppose that's all right," commented Dick critically.

"Of course it's all right," said
Smithy irritatedly, "What's wrong
with having two baths a week?"

"Nothing," really," said Dick.

"After all you don't do a dirty job,
do you?"

"I wish you'd stop discussing
my personal hygiene in this way,"
said Smithy, vexedly. "I have two
baths a week and that's that."

"O.K. Smithy."

"But I will admit it's a darned
nuisance if I have to go without one
tonight."

"You can always," suggested
Dick, "dust yourself down with
D.D.T."

Smithy turned a furious glance
on his assistant.

"I shall dust you down in a
minute," he glovered. "Now let's
change the conversation."

"Fair enough, Smithy," said Dick
equably.

There was quiet for a long moment
whilst Smithy's ire slowly evaporated.
Dick maintained his innocent expres-
sion throughout this period. But
only just.

"Where were we?" growled
Smithy.

"We'd realised that the second
pentode anode current was lower
than the first because it had a lower
screen-grid voltage."

"You'd realised, you mean," grunted Smithy. "Oh well, I suppose
I might as well get on and finish
off this job, I'll check the voltages
on the control grids next. This is
not because I have much certainty
that there's anything wrong there
but because I've got the test prods
handy."

Smithy applied the test prods
and noted the meter readings.

"As I thought," he nodded.

"They're both reading slightly nega-
tive of chassis, which is to be expected
because they are both connected
to chassis via high resistances.
The negative voltage is, of course,
contact potential."

"Might there have been some
other voltage on those grids?"

"It's conceivable," said Smithy,
"zero volts would have indicated
an actual short between grid and
chassis, and a positive voltage
might have indicated a leak to h.t.
via, say, the previous i.f. transformer.
If there'd been a high negative voltage
it would mean that a high level of
r.f. was getting to the grid because
of oscillation somewhere, whereupon
the grid would bias itself back by
leaky-grid action. All these possi-
bilities are a bit far-fetched but
they could happen nevertheless.
And it only took a second to
measure the grid voltages anyway."

"Where do you get the leaky-grid
action from?" asked Dick. "There
are no grid leaks or grid capacitors."

"Yes, there are," replied Smithy.

"They're the ones on the other side
of the i.f. secondaries."

He scribbled a circuit on Dick's
pad.

"Now the normal leaky-grid
circuits," said Smithy, "are like this
(Fig. 2 (a)), whilst the pentode
grid circuits in our receiver are
like this (Fig. 2 (b)). If you re-draw

THE RADIO CONSTRUCTOR
the latter you’ll see that the grid and cathode rectify in familiar manner. (Fig. 2 (c)). The diode given by the grid and cathode rectifies the r.f. from the coil, causing the capacitor plate connected to cathode screen-grid voltage which we have already discussed. High amplitude i.f. signals applied to the grid cause this to bias back so much that only the peaks affect anode current (Fig. 3 (a)). This biasing back is affected by the 220kΩ resistor and the 100pF capacitor sitting at the chassis end of the i.f. transformer secondary as we’ve just seen. The tuned circuit between anode and h.t. positive now responds only to the peaks. Since the pentode grid is fed with peaks it is not concerned with input amplitude, and amplitude modulation cannot therefore affect the tuned circuit in the anode. You may note that the time constant of the 220kΩ resistor and 100pF capacitor is only 22 microseconds, so that these two components will keep the input peaks at the pentode grid in their proper place for amplitude changes up to several hundred microseconds at least.”

Dick threw an admiring glance at the Serviceman.

“You are in form today on the mental arithmetic,” he remarked. “Where do you get the 22 microseconds and the ‘several hundred’ microseconds from?”

“Well, I’ve used a few short cuts again,” said Smithy. “First of all, the time constant in seconds of a C R circuit is microfarads multiplied by Megohms. A picofarad is a millith of a microfarad, so Megohms times picofarads gives you time constant in microseconds. In this case the resistance is 220kΩ, which is 0.22MΩ; so that the time constant is 0.22 times 100. That
to go positive. The other plate goes negative and therefore biases back the grid by a voltage equal to the peak value of the applied r.f.”

“Oh, I see,” remarked Dick. “It’s just the same effect as if they were connected in the more usual circuit. Why do both valves use this circuit anyway?”

“The second pentode,” explained Smithy, “is a limiter. It has a short grid base—that is, the valve cuts off at a low negative grid voltage—by reason of the reduced

Fig. 2 (a). A conventional leaky-grid circuit

(b). In this diagram, the resistor and capacitor are transferred to the chassis end of the coil

(c). The components of (b) rearranged. The grid and cathode form a diode, and the capacitor charges to the peak value of the r.f. voltage appearing across the tuned coil. The upper plate of the capacitor is positive

Fig. 3 (a). Limiting action. Most of the input signal is outside cut-off and only the most positive part causes anode current to flow
(b). Reducing input signal level causes the width of the anode current pulses to increase
"What about the 'several hundred' microseconds?" persisted Dick. "That's a guess," admitted Smithy. "Time constant defines the time the capacitor takes to charge to 63½% of the applied voltage, or to discharge to 37%. It should have gone a good way towards completing its charging, or discharge when ten times the time constant has passed." "Several hundred microseconds," mused Dick. "That corresponds to a frequency of 5 kc/s, doesn't it?"

"You're on the ball too," chuckled Smithy. "And you're quite right as well. One cycle at 5 kc/s would take up 200 microseconds. In this case, however, we would be asking the resistor and capacitor to follow half cycles within 200 microseconds. So, working from this figure, the circuit should be capable of limiting amplitude modulation up to 10 kc/s."

"Well, I'm dashed," exclaimed Dick. "That's knobby, isn't it? Limiting is effective over the whole audio spectrum."

"You've got it," said Smithy. "But we're only talking in very round figures here. One point that needs making is that the limiter isn't perfect, and that it is at its least effective if amplitude modulation causes the input voltage to be heavily reduced. (Fig. 3 (b)). You still get peaks in the anode circuit, but they're much fatter peaks than in the previous case (Fig. 3 (a)), and they can cause a greater current to flow in the anode coil. Nevertheless, the limiting provided by the second pentode in our i.f. amplifier is not to be sneezed at and it will augment the further limiting given by the ratio detector."

"Is the first i.f. pentode a limiter too?" asked Dick. "It has a resistor and capacitor in the grid circuit in just the same way."

"It's not really a limiter," replied Smithy. "The main purpose of the resistor and capacitor is to bias back the valve if a really hefty signal comes along. There's no point in passing fantastically large signals to the second i.f. pentode, and so you should say that the resistor and capacitor offer a rudimentary form of a.g.c. With really heavy signals they will ensure also that a fairly constant signal is passed to the limiter."

"What happens if you get a weak signal?" asked Dick. "The first valve will then be working without bias."

"That's all right," said Smithy. "The particular valve employed in this circuit is capable of working without external bias, provided it has a high resistance down to chassis. Just like those a.f. triodes you see without bias."

Alignment

Smithy looked at his watch and started.

"Phew," he said. "I'm gassing too much. We'll never get anything done today if we go on like this. Let's get on to the next stage in clearing up this receiver."

"What's that, Smithy?"

"I think we'd better carry on with what you were doing just now," replied Smithy, "which is to check the alignment of the i.f. trannies. There's a test point on the tuner unit, so we can inject our 10.7 Mc/s into this."

"How are you going to check output—listen to the speaker?"

"Well," said Smithy, thoughtfully, "that's not entirely a bad thing. But to do so, you need a proper frequency modulated signal generator and you have to attenuate it such that you can just about comfortably hear the output when the receiver volume control is set to full. You shouldn't try the loudspeaker scheme with an a.m. signal generator because you'd need a lot of carrier from this to enable what accidental f.m. exists in it to be heard. My own favourite method of alignment consists of popping a meter across the stabilising capacitor and trimming for maximum voltage."

"The stabilising capacitor being the electrolytic in the ratio detector circuit?"

"That's right," said Smithy. "You can line up all the i.f. cores except the ratio transformer secondary with the aid of a meter connected across it."

"I still don't quite understand the detector circuit in this receiver," said Dick. "You'll have to explain it to me some time."

"We'll have to go into that later," said Smithy hastily. "For the time being, I'll just pop the testmeter on to the stabilising capacitor, and see what happens as I tune the signal generator around 10.7 Mc/s."

Smithy adjusted the signal generator frequency to his satisfaction and so I would guess that the parallel capacitor has gone open-circuit or something like that."

"Okey doke," said Dick. "Leave it to me, and I'll get the tranny out and have a shuffle at it."

Decision

Smithy stood up and allowed Dick to sit at his bench. Absent-mindedly, he watched his assistant
for a moment as he started to remove the i.f. transformer from the printed circuit board.

"Isn’t it easier to get the can off?" asked the Serviceman. "Quite a few cans are held by clips only, and it’s much simpler to take them off and leave the innards still fixed to the board than it is to unsolder all those connections."

"Right you are, Smithy," said Dick. "And you’re right about the clip-on type."

Dick removed the can and examined the coil assembly. At the same instant Smithy gave a sudden start.

"Dash it all," he exclaimed, "I’ve forgotten the kettle again."

He walked over to the sink and picked up the kettle which was now almost hidden in a cloud of steam.

"Drat it," said the Serviceman, "It’s boiled dry again."

Smithy put the kettle under the tap and proceeded to fill it once more. At the exact moment when the kettle was full, the tap gave a gurgle and no further water flowed.

"It was a poor joint," called out Dick from his bench.

"What was?" asked Smithy, tearing his attention away from the tap.

"The fault in that i.f. transformer," replied Dick. "One end of the capacitor was almost completely adrift. I’ve soldered it in properly now."

Deftly, Dick replaced the can on the transformer and switched on the receiver again. As soon as it warmed up the needle on the meter connected across the stabilising capacitor swung hard against its end stop. Hastily, Dick further attenuated the output of the signal generator until a satisfactory reading was given in the meter. He then re-aligned the bottom core of the i.f. transformer for peak voltage.

"I think we’re on the last leg now, Smithy," he called out jubilantly.

Dick quickly disconnected the signal generator and meter and tried the receiver out on its own internal aerial. It functioned perfectly.

"Well, that’s something good that’s happened today," commented Smithy, grumpily.

"Why, what’s wrong?" said Dick, turning round.

"We’re frozen up in the Workshop now!" said Smithy. "I’ve just managed to get the last kettleful of water out of the tap for my shave."

"You can’t waste that water on a shave!" said Dick, scandalised.

"What about our tea?"

Smithy pondered.

"I’d forgotten about tea," he remarked. "Oh well, I’ll have to make a big decision and forego my shave. It’ll have to wait until later."

"I’d like to have a talk about that ratio detector circuit later, as well," commented Dick. "I’ve got stacks of queries about it."

"That particular talk," said Smithy firmly, "will be much later. In fact, I think we’d better leave it till our next little session together!"

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**Interpretation of Valve Data**

*By F. E. Ash*

The majority of valve manufacturers publish their valve data in a form which is understandable to engineers, but may not be entirely clear to the home constructor. It is hoped therefore that the following notes may be of some assistance in interpreting such data.

In general the data may be divided into the following main headings: limiting values, characteristics and operating conditions, it being important to distinguish between these three subdivisions.

**Limiting Values**

These values must not be exceeded. For normal receiving types, the values given are design centre ratings. This means that an allowance is made, in the data, for normal variations of mains voltage and component tolerances, so that if a valve has a maximum anode voltage of 250V for instance, it can be used in a design where the working anode voltage is 250V when the mains supply is at its nominal value. A temporary increase of 5% in the mains voltage may cause the anode voltage to rise above 250V, but the valve manufacturer has already allowed for such variations in determining the ratings, this not harming the valve in any way.

Some special purpose and industrial valves are rated not on design centre, but absolute ratings. This means that the maximum values quoted must never be exceeded, whether due to mains fluctuation or other causes, and the equipment designer must make due allowances for these. Where a valve is rated on the “absolute” system, this will be stated in the data.

For a pentode valve, the limiting values given will probably include the maximum anode voltage ($V_a$ max.), the maximum screen-grid voltage ($V_{g2}$ max.), the maximum dissipations of these two electrodes ($P_a$ and $P_{g2}$ max.) and the maximum cathode current ($I_k$ max.). It may be found that at the maximum anode and screen-grid voltages, the maximum cathode current cannot be attained, the limit being the dissipation. The “working area” of such a valve is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows that voltage, current and power ratings are all important.

The $V_{dc0}$ maximum is sometimes quoted in valve data. This is the maximum voltage which can appear on the anode when the valve is not passing current, and must not be confused with $V_a$ maximum, this being the maximum voltage which can appear at the anode during normal operation.

If a pentode is to be triode connected, it will be realised that the maximum voltage which can be applied to the “anode” will be limited by either the maximum screen or maximum anode voltage, whichever is the lower. It must not be assumed that the maximum dissipation is $P_a$ max. + $P_{g2}$ max. This will depend on the ratio of anode to screen current, and which of these electrodes first reaches its
maximum dissipation.

The \( V_{g-k} \) maximum is often quoted in the limiting values, particularly in the case of valves for series operation where the heater-to-cathode voltage is likely to be quite high.

Very often, particularly in the case of power output valves, a maximum value for the grid resistor \( (R_{g1-k} \) maximum) is given under fixed bias and self bias conditions. This is a very real limit although the reason may not be immediately obvious. In power valves, the grid becomes heated due to its proximity to the cathode, tending to emit electrons.

Providing \( R_{g-k} \) is not too large, this state of affairs still leaves the grid with a slightly positive charge and it therefore attracts electrons from the cathode. This leaves the grid with a slightly positive charge and it therefore attracts electrons from the cathode. Providing \( R_{g-k} \) is not too large, this state of affairs will reach equilibrium, but if \( R_{g-k} \) is large, the charge on the grid becomes accumulative, the cathode current rises, the anode dissipation rises, the grid emission increases, and this state of affairs can lead to the destruction of the valve.

**Characteristics**

The characteristics quoted in the manufacturer’s data are normally measured under static conditions. In the case of r.f. pentodes and output pentodes these correspond fairly closely to the operating conditions, the main difference being that whereas characteristics are usually measured with fixed bias, the operating conditions refer to operation with cathode bias, unless otherwise stated.

For **voltage** amplifying triodes and pentodes, however, there is a wide difference between the two. The characteristics are given with fixed anode (and screen-grid) voltages, whilst in normal use a resistance is used in the anode setting a limit to the anode current which will flow.

For many of the older type triodes, the characteristics are given at \( V_a=100V, \ V_g=0V \). It may even be found that under these conditions both the maximum cathode current or maximum anode dissipation is exceeded. This indicates that the characteristics cannot be measured under d.c. conditions, but only under pulsed conditions.

Line output valves, which are normally biased well back, also have their characteristics quoted under pulsed conditions, and this is also true of the triode sections of some frequency changers.

The three main parameters, \( g_m, \mu \) and \( r_a \) are probably already well known to constructors. For triodes, all three are normally quoted, but if only two are given the third can be calculated from \( \mu = \frac{g_m}{r_a} \) where \( \mu \) is the amplification factor.

\( g_m \) is the mutual conductance (in mA/V)

\( r_a \) is the anode impedance (in kΩ)

For r.f. pentodes, \( g_m \) is the most important of these parameters, since the gain of a stage having a tuned circuit with an impedance \( Z \) as load, is given by: \( \text{Gain} = \frac{g_m Z}{R_a} \).

The \( r_a \) is also important, this effectively being in parallel with the load and, unless it is fairly high compared with \( Z \), will reduce the stage gain.

It is not usual to quote \( \mu \) for a pentode, since it is rarely used; the value is exceedingly high, being several thousand. The parameter \( \mu_{g1-k} \) is often quoted for pentodes. This is known as the *inner-mu* or amplification factor between the control-grid and screen-grid. It has several practical uses, and can be regarded as the \( \mu \) of the valve when triode connected.

The most useful parameter for a voltage amplifying triode is \( \mu \), since this gives some indication of the voltage gain which can be obtained from the valve.

Since the voltage gain is given by: \( \text{Gain} = \frac{\mu R_a}{r_a + R_a} \) (where \( r_a \) is the anode impedance of the valve, and \( R_a \) is the load) the gain can never in fact reach \( \mu \), but if for example \( R_a \) is made equal to 3\( r_a \), the gain will equal 75% of \( \mu \).

For frequency changers the important parameter is \( g_c \), the conversion conductance. This is rather similar to \( g_m \) in the case of a pentode, being the relation between a change in grid voltage and the consequent change in anode current. In this case, however, it is a d.c. measurement, and is carried out with the oscillator section working. A known voltage is applied to the signal grid at one frequency, and the corresponding anode current variation—at the intermediate frequency (i.e. difference between signal and oscillator frequencies) is measured. Thus the value of \( g_c \) given corresponds to the operating conditions. The characteristics of the triode section may be given either under static conditions (\( V_g=0 \)) or under working conditions, in which case \( g_m \) (effective) is given and the value of \( R_{g-k} \) and \( I_g \) quoted. The bias due to the grid current is equal to \( V_g = I_g \times R_{g-k} \).

**Operating Conditions**

As already mentioned, the operating conditions for frequency changers, r.f. pentodes and output valves in class “A” will correspond with the characteristics. In the case of output valves, however, a few additional figures are required. These include \( R_a \) (the optimum load, not to be confused with \( r_a \)), the power output which can be obtained (\( P_{out} \)), the drive required to give this output (\( V_{in} \) (r.m.s.)) and the total harmonic distortion (\( D_{tot} \)).

The distortion sets a limit to the amount of power which can be obtained from the valve, and it is usual to limit the distortion to 10%.

If the input voltage required for full output is not given, it can be easily calculated, since \( P_{out} = (V_{in} \text{ (r.m.s.)})^2 \times R_L \).

\[ \text{Hence } V_{in} = \sqrt{\frac{P_{out}}{R_L}} \times \frac{1}{g_m} \]

With cathode bias, the value of \( g_m \) is slightly lower than that obtained with fixed bias, and allowance should be made for this factor when calculating \( V_{in} \). For push-pull operation, the bias can be obtained either by a common cathode bias resistor or separate resistors for each valve. The data will usually state which method is used but if in doubt, a quick check can be made by multiplying the total cathode current (under no-signal conditions) by the cathode bias resistor, thereby calculating the bias.
voltage. Valves in push-pull are usually biased back slightly from the class "A" operating point, and operated under class "AB" conditions. Some textbooks recommend that for push-pull working the anode-to-anode load should be twice that for a single valve, although in practice this is rarely found to be the case. The reason is that with single valve operation, the load is chosen to give the maximum output with 10% total distortion. This distortion is made up of 2nd, 3rd and higher order harmonics.

When two valves are used in push-pull, the even harmonics cancel, therefore with twice the normal load, twice the output is obtained with less than 10% distortion. By biasing the valve back slightly and reducing the load, more than twice the output can be obtained for 10% distortion, and there is also a reduction in the standing anode current of the two valves.

**Fig. 1. Voltage, current and power limitations**

For class "B" output stages cathode bias cannot be used, and the fixed grid voltage required is given. It is quite usual that for the grids of class "B" stages to be driven positive during operation. Since the valve will take grid current under these conditions the impedance of the driver stage must be kept low or distortion will result. If the peak value of the input voltage (=1.4 x V in (r.m.s.)) exceeds the bias voltage, the grid will go positive. With both class "AB" and class "B" output stages, the anode current increases with the output power. This is indicated in the data by Ia (o) (no-signal current) and Ia (max. sig.). When considering rectifier requirements, the latter figure must be used.

**R.F. Pentodes**

In addition to the information given under characteristics, several other figures may be quoted. The grid voltage for a 100:1 reduction in gm may be given. This indicates that the valve has a variable-mu characteristic.

Rin and Req are sometimes given, particularly in the case of valves intended for use at v.h.f. Req, the equivalent noise resistance, is a measure of the noise introduced by the valve. It is given as a resistance since the noise from a resistance is a constant value, depending on the value of the resistance (temperature and bandwidth assumed constant). If a valve has an Req of 1kΩ, it means that a resistor of 1kΩ connected between grid and cathode would produce as much noise as the valve itself.

The input impedance Rin is usually several times larger than Req. At low frequencies, the input impedance of a valve is very high, but at frequencies of the order of 30 Mc/s it begins to fall. This is due to the transit time of electrons between grid and cathode. Rin is usually quoted at 50 Mc/s. The value at any other frequency can be calculated from:

\[
R_{in}(f) = R_{in}(o) \times \left(\frac{f}{f_o}\right).
\]

Where Rin(o) is the input impedance at frequency f_o and R_in(f) is the input impedance at frequency f.

Thus if Rin = 4kΩ at 50 Mc/s it will fall to 250Ω at 200 Mc/s.

**Inter-electrode Capacitances**

The capacitances between various electrodes are often given on data sheets. These are important when the valve is used at r.f. The three most common capacitances quoted are Cin, Cout and Cog.

The input capacitance, Cin, is the capacitance between the grid and all other electrodes except the output (i.e. the anode). If a tuned circuit is used in the grid circuit of a valve, Cin will be in parallel with it and will contribute to the total capacitance in the circuit.

**Fig. 2. Effect of Cout on frequency response**

The output capacitance, Cout, is measured between the anode (output electrode) and all other electrodes except the grid, it having a similar effect on a tuned circuit connected in the anode. When a valve is used as a video amplifier with a resistive load (R_a), the combination of R_a and Cout will form a top-cut circuit. (See Fig. 2.) The gain of the stage will fall by 3dB (to 70.7% of its value) when
Thus the value of $R_a$ must be kept low if the frequency response is to be maintained up to 3 Mc/s. Since the gain $=\frac{g_mR_a}{C_{in}+c_{out}}$, $g_m$ must be as large as possible.

These requirements have resulted in the derivation of a "figure of merit" for wide band amplifying pentodes which is given by $\frac{g_m}{C_{in}+c_{out}}$.

This is a useful factor when comparing different pentodes for their relative merit as wide-band amplifiers.

The capacitance between the output and input, $c_{a-g}$, can be used to calculate the amount of feedback, providing sufficient information is known about the input and output circuits.

**Voltage Amplifying Stages**

Tables showing the values of $R_a$, $R_k$ and stage gain, together with the appropriate electrode currents are normally given in the manufacturer's data sheets. The current taken by such stages is usually very low—only 1 or 2 mA. It is also normal to quote the grid resistor of the following valve in these tables, since this reduces the effective value of the load. This should therefore be large compared with the load—if possible, at least five times as large. There will, of course, be a maximum value for the grid resistor of the next valve, as explained above.

Operating conditions are sometimes quoted for grid current biasing. In this case no cathode bias resistor is required, but a large grid resistor (10 MΩ) is employed.

**Rectifiers**

The two most important ratings for rectifiers, the maximum r.m.s. input voltage ($V_{in}$ (r.m.s.) max.), and the maximum output current ($I_{out \ max.}$) are fairly self-explanatory.

On negative half cycles the anode will reach 280 V with respect to earth, and the total peak inverse voltage across the valve will be $2 \times 280 \approx 560$ V or $2.8 \times V_{in}$ (r.m.s.). This is the worst possible case: in practice the load on the circuit will prevent the capacitor from attaining its full charge, and in the case of a choke input filter the P.I.V. will be much lower (approx. $2.4 \times V_{in}$ (r.m.s.).)

The peak anode current of a rectifier may at first seem irrelevant, but a consideration of how the rectifier operates, however, will show that the rectifier does not in fact pass a steady current, but a series of pulses—one pulse every time the anode goes more positive than the cathode.

When the circuit is first connected, the reservoir capacitor must charge up, the charging current passing through the rectifier. The current will be limited by the resistance of the circuit, and the time for which it flows by the $CR$ time constant. It is for this reason that a maximum value of reservoir capacitor is given ($C_{\ max.}$) and also a minimum value for the limiting resistor to be used with this capacitor ($R_{lim \ min.}$).

Incidentally, strapping the anodes of a full wave rectifier valve and using it as a half wave rectifier does not double its mean current rating as some constructors might hope.

**Base and Connections**

There are various methods of showing base connections. Some manufacturers prefer to tabulate them, whilst others give a sketch of the valve base with the abbreviations for the electrodes written in.

The most common of these are:

- $a$ — anode
- $f$ — filament
- $g$ — grid
- $h$ — heater
- $k$ — cathode
- $M$ — Metallising
- $s$ — internal shield
- $t$ — target (tuning indicators)
- $x, y$ — deflection plates (electrostatic cathode ray tubes)

In valves having more than one grid, such as an r.f. pentode for instance, the grids are distinguished by numbers, $g_1$ being the grid nearest to the cathode (control grid), $g_3$ the second grid (or screen-grid) and $g_4$ the final grid (or suppressor). The same system is used in cathode ray tubes having more than one anode.

When more than one electrode structure is included in one envelope, such as in the case of a triode-pentode, the electrodes are distinguished by the subscript letters $t$ and $p$. These are only used where confusion is likely to arise: in a triode-pentode $a_1$ is the triode anode, and $a_p$ the pentode anode. The triode grid is $g_1$, but the various grids of the pentode are denoted by $g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4$. Without a subscript $p$ these obviously cannot refer to the triode.

Other subscripts which are sometimes used in this way include:

- $d$ — diode
Grid (shorting to cathode)  
Anode  
Grid  
Cathode  

Fig. 4 (left). Major axis of grid horizontal,  
(right) major axis of grid vertical

|h—heptode, hexode or octode  
|g—tetrode

Valves which have two similar electrode structures in the same envelope (e.g., double triodes) use a system of “primes” to distinguish between section.  
’a’, ‘g’, ‘k’, make up one triode whilst the other consists of ‘a”, ‘g”, ‘k”.

In the old days, when the British 4 and 5 pin bases were in vogue, it was usual for all the pins to be occupied. The introduction of multi-electrode valves brought in its train, side terminals, top caps, the British 7-pin base and the British 9-pin base, before an attempt was made to standardise and use the octal base.

With rectifiers and some other types, there were, of course, more pins than required and the unwanted pins could either be left blank or omitted from the base. The abbreviation “NP” is used to denote no pin whilst “NC” is used when the pin is present but not connected to an electrode.

With the introduction of miniature valves of the “A” construction using “all-glass” bases, the problem of electrode supports came into the picture.

With the old “pinch” type valves, the anode was supported by two rods mounted in the glass pinch. An electrical connection was taken out from one of these. The miniature valves do not use a pinch, and supporting rods can only be connected down to the base pins. It is sometimes necessary to provide an additional support for the electrode structure. This support may not make good electrical contact with any electrode, and the pin to which it is connected should therefore not be used for electrical connections. The pin will be marked “IC” on the base diagram and must be left blank.

Most small valves can be mounted in any position, although it is as well to consult the valve data to ensure that there is no restriction. In the case of power valves having a high gm, horizontal mounting is only permissible if the major axis of the grid is kept vertical. This is because the grids of power valves run quite hot and are liable to sag. If the grid to cathode spacing is small—in order to obtain a high gm—there would be a danger of the grid touching the cathode if the major axis was horizontal. (See Fig. 4.)

Evo-Stik ‘Impact’ Adhesive 528 used for a variety of do-it-yourself radio construction jobs

If you are a radio constructor you will have used a variety of adhesives for various jobs. Evo-Stik “Impact” Adhesive 528 has proved one of the most useful and efficient adhesives for this work.

Mr. A. H. Oliver, radio enthusiast, of 105 Walsworth Road, Hitchin, Herts., gives an account of a selection of uses he has put the adhesive to.

One of the first jobs Evo-Stik “Impact” Adhesive 528 was used for was the repairing of a large bakelite radio cabinet which dropped and shattered in 20 pieces. The adhesive made a most successful repair and the joins are barely visible. In fact the cabinet is now as good as new.

It often happens that the top cap of a valve seating becomes loose. A drop of Evo-Stik under and round the edge of the cap will permanently fix this, with no further fear of it loosening. Also, if a small amount is spread round the glass base where it joins the seating, this will create a permanent fixture.

It is sometimes necessary to wind a new coil from an old disused one. If the coil is one of the old, large diameter, solenoids, the job is not simple, for as soon as the wire is unanchored it becomes a large, loose spring and if care is not taken it can become completely tangled. If a smear of Evo-Stik is applied with the tip of the finger down the side of the coil and allowed to dry, this will effectively hold the turns while the new coil is wound.

If at any time it is required to leave the coil during winding, a dab of Evo-Stik will anchor the loose end of the wire safely until the job is ready to proceed with.

Evo-Stik has also proved useful for filling holes in bakelite or other brittle material where strip-threading has taken place. The hole should be filled in and the Evo-Stik allowed to partly dry, then the screw can be re-applied. It will hold firmly when the adhesive has dried.

Evo-Stik can be used for fixing components such as large capacity capacitors to the chassis which frequently have no other means for attachment.
NEWS AND COMMENT . . .

Although most of us, particularly those who are middle-aged, think of radio as a relatively recent invention the number, one almost might say spate, of jubilees connected with radio during the last few months remind us that, to the younger generation, radio and TV are just part of the natural order of things. The one freshest in most minds will be the Silver Jubilee of B.B.C. television transmissions.

Appeal
We mentioned in our November issue that the London Wireless Club, which became the Radio Society of Great Britain, was founded in 1913. Therefore the Society will be celebrating its Golden Jubilee next year.

To note this milestone in Amateur Radio the President of the R.S.G.B., Major-General E. S. Cole, has launched a Headquarters Fund Appeal. The object of the Fund is to assist in financing the purchase of a permanent headquarters which would not only provide office accommodation but also a technical library and rendezvous for British and Overseas amateurs.

Recently the opportunity for purchasing suitable premises had to be turned down because of lack of funds. It is the first time that the Society has made such an appeal, and although it has only been launched a short time well over £1,000 has been donated.

This is, perhaps, a suitable occasion to commend membership of the R.S.G.B. to our readers. Corporate membership is open to those engaged in radio research experiment or communication, and Associate membership to those, under 21 years of age, who are interested in radio. Associate membership can be invaluable to beginners as the society has branches all over the country and old-timers are only too glad to assist, newcomers. Applications for membership must be supported by two corporate members, or by two references from people of standing. Details may be obtained from the General Secretary at New Ruskin House, Little Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

Exhibition
Also following from our opening remarks, we would draw attention to the exhibition to be held at the Science Museum, South Kensington, London, S.W.7, from Wednesday 13th December, 1961, to Thursday 25th January, 1962, to celebrate the diamond jubilee of Transatlantic Radio. On the 12th December, 1901, Guglielmo Marconi became the first to send a radio signal across the Atlantic. This remarkable achievement with primitive equipment marked the birth of world-wide communication.

The museum is open from 10 a.m. to 6 p.m. on weekdays and from 2.30 p.m. until 6 p.m. on Sundays.

Time Check
For over 100 years the Royal Greenwich Observatory has been responsible for providing exact time signals for a wide variety of users both at home and abroad. In recent years this service has become increasingly important in various fields of scientific research where extreme accuracy is essential.

In order to provide the various users with more frequent opportunities for checking the time, the present twice daily transmissions from Rugby are being increased to four as from 1st December. This will mean that the transmissions on the low frequency of 16 kc/s, now radiated at 10 a.m. and 6 p.m., will be superseded by signals at 3 a.m., 9 a.m., 3 p.m., and 9 p.m. There will, however, be no change in the form of the signals. The 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. signals will also be transmitted on short-waves.

As long ago as 1833 the Royal Greenwich Observatory provided hourly time signals for the operation of "time balls", i.e. devices consisting of a large ball secured to the top of a mast and released by a special catch at a precise time. One such ball is still in use in the grounds of the old Observatory at Greenwich.

Rights
It may not be long before the symbol (P) on gramophone records will be as familiar as the copyright symbol seen on the contents page of this magazine—the capital "C", enclosed in a circle.

The draft of an International Convention protecting the so-called "neighbouring" rights of interpreters of broadcast or recorded musical, dramatic and literary works and of broadcasting stations and manufacturers of records was submitted to a recent diplomatic conference.

The text is based on the same principles as those underlying the Universal Copyright Convention, in which contracting states pledge themselves to accord the same rights to authors of other countries as they accord to their own nationals. The new Convention would guarantee the rights of performing artists, stations and manufacturers, who will be able to prevent unauthorised recording or broadcasts of their work in foreign countries, and who will be entitled to remuneration whenever reproduction is authorised.

Radio Australia
The "VL" callsigns, which have been associated with Radio Australia broadcasts since the inception of the service, have been discontinued and are no longer heard in station identification announcements. However, the various other identifications have been retained, including "Radio Australia, The Overseas Service of the Australian Broadcasting Commission", together with full details of frequencies and wavelengths, the station tuning and interval signal "Waltzing Matilda"; the laugh of the kookaburra and the chimes of the Melbourne Post Office clock.

Television in Ships
According to The Times a transatlantic liner soon to be built will probably be equipped to receive television programmes from satellites. The ship-owners are confident that by the time the liner enters service in 1963 TV programmes will be rediffused over large areas through special satellites.
A Printed Circuit
Matchbox Receiver

By R. DAVIS

This transistor set started off as little more than a printed circuit "doodle", but such good results were obtained that a serious attempt was made to develop a really useful receiver on the same lines.

General Description
The final result of a number of experiments is a portable receiver so small that it fits snugly into an ordinary matchbox. Its small size, together with its neat and robust construction, is made possible by the use of a printed circuit. The printed circuit panel acts as the chassis, and accommodates all the components except the aerial, which is a piece of ferrite rod ¾ in diameter by 1¾ in long, wound with the tuning and reaction coils. The detector is permeability tuned, and so its range is limited to the reception of one of the main broadcasting stations only, the local Home Service being chosen in the original model. The tuning coil can, however, be modified for the reception of any other reasonably strong Medium wave station. The sensitivity of the set is such that the Home Service is good and loud at a distance of 50 miles from the transmitter (on 330 metres); it is also possible to tune in a few Continental stations late at night. Distant stations can be made a good deal louder by adding an aerial of a few feet of wire, but this spoils the portability of the set, and defeats its purpose.

Constructing the Receiver
The first step in building the set is to prepare the printed circuit panel. A rectangle of copper-clad laminate measuring 1¾ in by ¾ in is required. Since matchbox trays are not all the same length, it may prove necessary to alter the length of the panel slightly to obtain a good tight fit in the box. A semi-circular section is cut from one corner of the panel to make room for the mercury cell which powers the receiver. (Fig. 2.)

Fig. 2 also shows the positions of the holes which are drilled through the panel after etching the printed circuit. At this stage the holes are only marked lightly with a centre punch on the copper side of the panel. The copper side of the laminate is then cleaned and polished very thoroughly to remove any grease which will prevent etching being carried out properly. The parts of the copper which have to be left on the board to form the printed circuit are protected by painting them over very carefully with coloured aircraft dope or nail-varnish. (Fig. 2.) Great care is needed to avoid rough or careless work at this stage, since a mistake in the

![Circuit diagram of the matchbox receiver](image)

Components List

Resistors
- R1 15kΩ ½ watt 10%
- R2 56kΩ ½ watt 10%
- R3 4.7kΩ ½ watt 10%
- R4 47kΩ ½ watt 10%

Transistors
- TR1 V6/R4
- TR2 V10/50B

Earpiece
- 250Ω impedance with 3ft cord

Capacitors
- C1 100pF subminiature polystyrene
- C2 0.01µF 150V (Hunts)
- C3 0.001µF 350V (Hunts)
- C4 4µF 6V electrolytic (Hunts)
- S1 See text

Mercury Cell
- Mallory RM640
painting means a mistake in the printed circuit itself. After the dope has dried the printed circuit is ready for etching.

**Fig. 2. Underside of the printed circuit, shaded areas to be painted. Connect phone leads to X and Y**

Ferric chloride solution is the etchant used. It can be obtained easily at most chemists; 2 fl. oz. should be sufficient. Enough to cover the printed circuit panel to a depth of at least \( \frac{1}{8} \) in is poured into a saucer, and the panel is immersed, copper face upwards. The dish should be rocked slowly to and fro during the process, which will be completed after about half an hour. The solution is very corrosive to fabrics and due care must be taken when handling it, all traces being washed away after etching the printed circuit. The dope is removed with acetone, leaving the printed circuit exposed. The insulation between the sections of the circuit should be tested at this stage, since even a small leakage may prevent the set from functioning correctly.

The final work on the printed circuit is to drill the holes through which the connections will be made. A \( \frac{3}{4} \) in drill is used for all the holes except those for the on/off switch and the earpiece lead, which are drilled \( \frac{1}{8} \) in and \( \frac{3}{8} \) in diameter respectively. Drilling is started at the punch-marks previously made in the copper. A good finish is obtained if the holes are lightly countersunk with a \( \frac{1}{8} \) in drill on the other side of the panel. This completes the printed circuit, leaving it ready for soldering in the components, as shown in Fig. 3.

**Fig. 3. Upper side of the printed circuit board showing the layout of components**

Fitting the Components

The resistors are the first components to be mounted (Fig. 4 (a)), \( \frac{1}{2} \) watt \( \pm 10\% \) types being used. \( C_2 \) and \( C_3 \) are too large to fit on the panel as obtained, and the material covering them has to be removed. It can be softened by heating in a match flame, when it will peel off cleanly, leaving the capacitor itself exposed. The capacitors are easily damaged in this state, and must be handled very carefully.

The earpiece lead (Fig. 4 (b)) and the mercury
battery (Fig. 3) are the next to be soldered in. The on/off switch presented a bit of a problem at first. Finally, the design shown in Fig. 4 (c) was used. The switch contacts are $\frac{3}{4}$ in lengths of hard drawn brass wire $\frac{1}{8}$ in diameter, and contact is made between them by another piece of brass wire $\frac{1}{8}$ in diameter, the details of which are shown in Fig. 4 (c). The transistors are the last components to be mounted on the printed circuit panel. Since the leads have to be cut very short to enable the transistors to fit neatly into the set, great care must be taken during soldering to prevent any heat from entering and possibly damaging the transistors.

The choice of transistors may seem a little unusual, but the performance of the set using a white spot type for TR1 and a red spot type for TR2 is very poor indeed; the two transistors specified give easily the best performance of all the combinations which were tried.

**Ferrite Rod Coils**

All that remains now is to wind and connect up the tuning and reaction coils. The coil formers are made from cartridge paper; L1 former is 1 in long and free to slide over the ferrite rod, whilst L2 former is $\frac{1}{2}$ in long and free to slide over L1 former. This arrangement is used so that the tuning and reaction coils can be moved together over the ferrite rod when tuning the set, since their relative position does not need changing once it has been set for optimum performance.

![Fig. 4. Ferrite rod aerial assembly](image)

L1 is wound with 40 turns of 9/47 litz wire, close wound at one end of its former in a single layer. L2 is similarly wound, but has only 6 turns. (Fig. 5.)

The leads from the coils are soldered in position and the ferrite rod is inserted in L1 former. The receiver is now finished and ready for operation.

**Adjusting and Operating the Receiver**

To make sure that there are no serious faults in the circuitry, connect a 5mA f.s.d. moving coil meter across the switch contacts. If all is well, a current of about 2mA should flow. An indication that the set will work can be obtained by temporarily connecting a 0.01µF capacitor between TR1 base and TR2 collector, when a loud tone should be heard in the earpiece. It is not advisable to wear the earpiece at this stage! This being so, after removing the capacitor and meter, the earpiece may be safely worn. The switch should now be inserted in its hole, and rotated until a loud click, followed by a faint hissing, is heard.

L2 is then slid along L1 former, towards L1 until the receiver starts to oscillate. It is then moved slowly away from L1 until the oscillation just ceases (If no oscillations can be heard, reversing the connections to L2 should effect a cure.) The whole coil assembly is then slid along the ferrite rod until the Home Service can be heard. L1 may be modified as required at this stage by adding or removing turns. A rudimentary tuning control may be fixed to L1 former after placing the set in its matchbox. (Fig. 5.) This control is to enable slight tuning drift caused by changes in the ambient temperature of the transistors to be covered.

The quality obtained with this set is noticeably better than that normally expected from transistors, this being due to the large value of C4, and to the careful choice of transistors.

**New Ceramic-Cased Tunnel Diodes from S.T.C.**

The operating frequency of tunnel diodes has been raised by a technique of miniature ceramic encapsulation developed by Standard Telephones and Cables Limited. The extremely small size (5.6mm diameter less tabs) of these new devices and their tab-ended configuration have reduced their inductance to such an extent that a typical limiting frequency of oscillation of 900 Mc/s is now attainable.

A single version, known as the JK30A, is now in production. It is being followed by a new version incorporating a matched pair of tunnel diodes and forming a single integral unit having three tabs. These units are matched for peak current and capacitance and are intended for applications in the computer field. They may be used in high speed logic and counting circuits or as the threshold amplifier/gate at the input of a pulse amplifier.

Advance data sheets are available.
The last article dealt with the construction of the aerial system and we now come to a consideration of the receiver and ancillary gear. We will deal first with equipment that may be on hand or can be obtained from the surplus market.

Noise Factor

The basic units of the receiver are a radio frequency section, an intermediate frequency section and an a.f. and recording section. The radio frequency section is the most important for it is here that we must combine the highest possible sensitivity with the lowest internal noise. Internal noise emanates from two main sources, the input circuit and the first valve. Neglecting the noise which is generated by the aerial, the main source of noise in the first circuit will be due to the components. When a current flows through a conductor the electrons are agitated, a voltage is built up across that particular section of conductor or across a component such as a resistor, energy is dissipated and there is therefore, a temperature rise. This agitates the molecules of the conductor and results in what is termed thermal agitation noise. There is a formula for the calculation of this quantity which is as follows:

\[ \frac{4KT}{\Delta F} \]

- \( I_n^2 \) = mean squared noise current (amperes^2)
- \( K \) = Boltzman’s constant (Joules per degree Kelvin) = 1.37 x 10^-23
- \( T \) = Temperature degrees Kelvin
- \( \Delta F \) = Bandwidth in cycles per second
- \( R \) = Resistance in ohms

Since all noise currents and voltages are random and occupy the whole of the band of frequencies in the electro-magnetic spectrum, it is usual to speak of the average noise power. This may be expressed as mean squared noise current or mean squared noise voltage.

It will be clear now why the term \( \Delta F \) relating to bandwidth appears in the formula. There are certain precautions which we must observe to keep this first circuit noise within as low a limit as possible.

All soldered joints should be mechanically sound, care should be taken to see that there are no dry joints; resistors should be of ample rating and have plenty of ventilation in order that the temperature rise shall be kept to a minimum. The chassis of the r.f. unit should be of heavy material capable of dissipating most of the temperature rise.

Fig. 23. Layout and circuit of the translator unit
The author has arranged with Denco (Clacton) Ltd., of 357/9 Old Road, Clacton-on-Sea, Essex, that the coils specified for the units featured in this issue be manufactured and supplied direct to interested readers. Those readers who would prefer to obtain the coils ready made should therefore contact Denco (Clacton) Ltd. direct.—Editor.

Components List
(Translator)

Resistors
R₁ 1MΩ
R₂ 500Ω pot.
R₃ 25kΩ pot.
R₄ 100kΩ

Capacitors
C₁ 0.1μF
C₂ 1.0μF
C₃ 0.25μF

Switch
S₁ Single pole, 2 way

Valve
V₁ 12AX7/ECC83
The next contributor to the noise in the first part of the circuit is the valve itself. This valve is important and there are a number of low noise valves available on the market at the present time. A good deal has been written on this subject and a number of manufacturers issue pamphlets dealing with it very comprehensively. Calculations of the total input noise are referred to the grid of the first valve. Each of the sources of noise must be calculated and referred to this reference point. As has already been stated, noise is a random effect and is calculated on a power basis.

![Diagram](image)

**Fig. 24. Modification of Pye i.f. strip for use with the pen recorder d.c. amplifier**

**Components List**  
(Detector modification of Pye Strip)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resistor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R₁</td>
<td>1MΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacitors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₁</td>
<td>50pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₂</td>
<td>50pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₃</td>
<td>1.0µF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C₄</td>
<td>0.1µF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up the various noise voltages that must be referred to the first grid are, (i) thermal agitation noise of the tuned grid circuit, (ii) shot noise of the input valve, (iii) induced grid noise of the input valve, and (iv) the following stages of grid circuit noise referred back to the first grid.

R.F. units are available in the surplus market, some of these are single tuned and others, such as the many turret tuners available, cover a wide range of frequencies in the television bands. As was stated in an earlier article, one of the principal receivers used by the writer consists of first, a modified turret tuner, second, an i.f. strip (the familiar Pye strip), and finally an audio output and recorder section. The intermediate amplifier can be, as just stated, an i.f. strip or it can be a communications receiver set to a particular frequency. Among the receivers that would be suitable are the R1155, the AR88, the CR100, the R208, the S27, the CR150, and the National HRO. Each of the communication receivers will, of course, have its own audio output. We may use this directly to record on tape for subsequent analysis by a translator described herewith, or we may use the translator direct for instantaneous observations. This is the simple method which can be put into immediate operation. The tape recorder can make a permanent record but, even at the slowest speed of say 1/2 in per second, observations would be limited by the length of tape available. However, at this slow speed it would be possible to cover the whole period of the passage of the Sun through the aerial, or of the Milky Way containing the constellation Cygnus where one of the most powerful radio sources is located.

**Pen Recorder**

The most desirable part of the equipment is, of course, the pen recorder. Such a piece of apparatus enables us to make permanent records of everything received at the aerial. The speed at which the records are made depends largely upon the observation to be carried out, and all
Fig. 26. Front panel layout and circuit of the noise generator

speeds are available from, say, 1 in per hour to 24 in per hour. For special observations very much higher speeds are sometimes used. From the amateur's point of view the two most useful speeds are 1 in and 6 in per hour. At 1 in per hour a steady examination of the whole of the galactic system may be made. This is accomplished by setting the angle of the aerial at a different position for each sweep. Such a process would mean that a complete map of the radio sky could be built up in, say, seven or eight successive runs of 24 hours each. This, of course, represents the ideal, but it should not be thought that the lack of a pen recorder will preclude any work of a useful nature being done. The use of the tape recorder and subsequently the translator, or the translator direct (though somewhat slow and laborious), will still enable the observer to complete quite useful records. If the translator is used direct the presence of the observer is, of course, required at the time that observations are made. As previously mentioned, the cost of the equipment including the pen recorder is no more expensive than that of many other hobbies such as ciné or even amateur radio. Indeed, the purpose of these articles is to enable any amateur with the available equipment to enter into and enjoy this fascinating section of electronics combined with astronomy. The translator will be described next since it becomes the only additional apparatus to that already discussed.

Components List
(Receiver RF Section)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resistors</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>4.7kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>47kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>1kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R4</td>
<td>47Ω</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5</td>
<td>5kΩ pot. (linear)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R6</td>
<td>150kΩ 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R7</td>
<td>150kΩ 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R8</td>
<td>100kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R9</td>
<td>2.7kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R10</td>
<td>3.3kΩ Hi-Stab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R11</td>
<td>3.3kΩ Hi-Stab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R12</td>
<td>10kΩ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valves</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V1</td>
<td>PCC89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V2</td>
<td>ECC81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capacitors</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>3.3pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>2pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>2pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>1000pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>4.7pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>1000pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>5pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>1000pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>3pF (or suitable value to tune L5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10</td>
<td>1000pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C11</td>
<td>25pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12</td>
<td>2000pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C13</td>
<td>10pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C14</td>
<td>10pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C15</td>
<td>5pF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C16</td>
<td>3-30pF variable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 27. Circuit of the r.f. section of the receiver. Note that V1 has 6.3V applied to the heater and not 7.5V, this assisting in the reduction of receiver noise. For coil winding details see Table 1. All coils are dust-core tuned.
if observations are being made of rapidly fluctuating sources a short time constant may be useful in order to record these sudden fluctuations. On the other hand, when observing long period variations a longer time constant is more satisfactory. The values shown in Fig. 23 are arbitrary and will in fact give time constants of one-tenth of a second and of one second. For some work which will be described later it may be necessary to use a time constant of several seconds. When using communications receivers, this unit can obviously be incorporated in the receiver using the existing power supply. A suitable meter would be one having a full scale deflection of 1mA, although this is not absolutely necessary. The requirements are that the meter shall be sufficiently sensitive to enable accurate measurements to be recorded in action by direct observation. It would, or course, be used as a guide point when plotting a graph with readings taken say every half or one second, or even longer. This will enable a graph to be plotted against time. If the translator is used with a tape recorder it will be necessary to arrange for the output of the recorder to be at a sufficiently high level to be fed into the unit. Where long periods of observations have been made with the tape recorder, much of the time may show little variation in level. The time taken to reduce this to graph form can be reduced by speeding up the tape on replay, the record given will be quite valid provided the time shown on the graph is corrected. The amplitude of the variations will not, of course, be affected by the change of speed.

Those who propose to use a turret tuner and the Pye i.f. strip will find that modification of the output at the detector is required. The circuit for feeding a pen recorder from the Pye strip is shown in Fig. 24, this also having the variable time constant. For use with the translator, the Pye strip could

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### TABLE 1

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>1 ¼ turns 22 s.w.g. (p.v.c.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>3 ½ turns 22 s.w.g. (p.v.c.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>4 turns 18 s.w.g. (p.v.c.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L4</td>
<td>1 turn 14 s.w.g. (p.v.c.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5</td>
<td>7 turns 26 s.w.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L6</td>
<td>2 turns 14 s.w.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L7</td>
<td>4 turns 18 s.w.g. (p.v.c.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### Components List

(Receiver IF Section)

**Resistors**

| R1 | 33kΩ |
| R2 | 47kΩ |
| R3 | 2.2kΩ |
| R4 | 180Ω |
| R5 | 22kΩ |
| R6 | 33Ω |
| R7 | 68Ω |
| R8 | 2.2kΩ |
| R9 | 22kΩ |
| R10 | 2.2kΩ |
| R11 | 33Ω |
| R12 | 68Ω |
| R13 | 22kΩ |
| R14 | 100Ω |
| R15 | 2.2kΩ |
| R16 | 22kΩ |
| R17 | 150Ω |
| R18 | 470Ω |

**Valves**

| V1 | 6AK5 |
| V2 | 6BW7 |
| V3 | 6BW7 |
| V4 | 6BW7 |
| V5 | 6BW7 |

**Capacitors**

| C1 | 1000pF |
| C2 | 1000pF |
| C3 | 1000pF |
| C4 | 8μF 350wV |
| C5 | 2000pF |
| C6 | 2000pF |
| C7 | 1000pF |
| C8 | 2000pF |
| C9 | 1000pF |
| C10 | 2000pF |
| C11 | 1000pF |
| C12 | 2000pF |
| C13 | 1000pF |
| C14 | 2000pF |
| C15 | 1000pF |
| C16 | 3000pF |
| C17 | 1000pF |
| C18 | 2000pF |
| C19 | 1000pF |
| C20 | 3000pF |

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### TABLE 2

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>9 turns tapped at 3 turns 26 s.w.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>12 turns 26 s.w.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L3</td>
<td>7 turns 26 s.w.g.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
have the conventional audio frequency stage after the diode, this then being followed by the translator. It is important to have an audio stage to which a loudspeaker is connected, thus enabling the observer to listen to the various changes in level. Indeed, when working in the workshop with the loudspeaker switched on, any sudden change or special phenomena which takes place will be immediately apparent. Attention can then be turned to the apparatus directly and, if necessary, plots made from the translator while the phenomena is in progress. This is particularly interesting in the case of the active Sun, for sometimes the sudden increase in noise is of such an amplitude that the audio stages may even become overloaded.

**Pen Recorder D.C. Amplifier**

For the sake of completeness in dealing with existing apparatus a d.c. amplifier for the pen recorder is included. This is shown in Fig. 25. The amplifier is again quite a straightforward piece of apparatus and may be used by the more ambitious in place of the translator. In this case, of course, it will have to follow a circuit containing a time constant. Referring back to Fig. 24 it will be seen that it may be either added to the Pye strip or the diode section of the communications receiver, (the latter being then modified). This unit requires a stable source of h.t. supply and it should perhaps be noted that stability of the supply is very important. Should there be any doubt about this aspect of the apparatus, steps must be taken to ensure that reasonable voltage stability is obtained.

**Noise Generator**

The apparatus so far described forms now, with the aerial, the complete radio telescope. It is however necessary to make a calibration of the noise level and this can best be done with the use of a noise generator. Fig. 26 shows the circuit of a simple piece of apparatus containing a silicon diode and a meter. The control $R_2$ sets the level. The noise generator is used as a comparator. The noise input is fed into the aerial terminal of the receiver and the level of output noted. The generator is then disconnected and the aerial itself connected to the receiver, this should produce a rise in reading. The position of the control on the noise generator should be noted, for this will now become the reference point. In cases where the extra-terrestrial radiations are near to, or possibly even less than, that of the noise generator, comparison of the two inputs will show whether or not there has been a change in the level for, having established the setting on the noise generator, comparison of the two positions will show to what extent it has been changed. It is advisable to check the receiver once at the beginning and once at the end of the period of observation if these are short, or once a day if long-term observations are being made. The noise generator will be found to be an extremely useful piece of apparatus for it provides an immediate check on the condition of the receiving system. It is of more value for our purpose than the standard type of signal generator which deals with a particular frequency only. It must be remembered that, although our receiver is set to the middle of the band, it was noted earlier that noise voltages receiver by the aerial cover an infinite band of frequencies. The output of a noise generator corresponds more nearly to the energy received by the aerial than does the ordinary signal generator modulated with an audio frequency source.

**The Receiver**

We next discuss a particular receiver which was developed for the purpose of these articles. It is a modification of a receiver originally designed for use between 200 and 240 Mc/s and the first prototype was in fact demonstrated to the Duke

---

**Components List**

(Pen Recorder Unit)

- **Resistors**
  - $R_1$ 220kΩ
  - $R_2$ 1MΩ
  - $R_3$ 500kΩ
  - $R_4$ 22kΩ
  - $R_5$ 3.3kΩ
  - $R_6$ 3.3kΩ
  - $R_7$ 22kΩ
  - $R_8$ 100kΩ
  - $R_9$ 25kΩ pot.

- **Valve**
  - $V_1(a), (b)$ 12AU7/ECC82

- **Capacitors**
  - $C_1$ 50pF
  - $C_2$ 0.02μF
  - $C_3$ 0.02μF
  - $C_4$ 500pF
  - $C_5$ 50μF 350wV

- **Chokes**
  - $CH_1$ Interference suppressor choke (1A)
  - $CH_2$ 4 turns 18 s.w.g. insulated

- **Diode**
  - $D_1$ Germanium Diode

---

**Fig. 29. Circuit of the pen recorder unit**
of Edinburgh on the occasion of the opening of Crawley Technical College, where there had been installed a portable radio telescope of the author's design. The majority of the development work on this receiver has been directed to making it simple in design and easy to build. The circuit has been broken down into three sections for the sake of clarity. These three sections are shown in Figs. 27, 28 and 29. The input from the aerial is fed into the transformer, $L_1$, $L_2$, and from thence to the grid of one-half of $V_1$ (a) which is cascode coupled to the other half, $V_1$ (b). From there it is fed to the double-triode frequency changer. It will be observed that this follows conventional practice. The layout is important and details of this can be seen in the accompanying illustration. The output from the r.f. section is fed into the i.f. stages, which again are conventional although considerable development work was necessary to provide stability with high gain. The layout will be apparent from the photograph. The output section includes the diode and the pen recorder unit with provision for a.f. monitoring.

This receiver has been designed nominally for operation in the 210 to 220 Mc/s but modification of the r.f. section is all that is required to make it suitable for the other frequencies for which the aerial was designed. Within the limits of space available the individual amateur can choose his own frequency at any point between 60 and 240 Mc/s. The power supply chosen for this receiver is one of the many which are available on the surplus market at a reasonable price. That employed by the writer is the ex-R.A.F. unit type 234A.

The complete receiver with pen recorder and power unit is shown in the illustrations. For the sake of completeness in this part of the series it is necessary to show what the receiver actually does and a further illustration shows two of the recordings made during tests in the past seven weeks. One trace shows the Sun passing through the beam of the aerial and the other shows a section of the Milky Way. The difference between the types of radiation received are clearly visible on these charts and the amplitude of the variations can be readily seen. Those amateurs who enter this field will find that the interpretation of these results is, indeed, a fascinating pursuit.

(To be continued)
The JR1/JTL Stereo Tape Recorder Unit

PART 4. By G. BLUNDELL

The JR1 JTL Stereo Tape Recording Unit offers stereophonic record and playback facilities, together with instantaneous tape monitoring. It is employed with a stereo amplifier. The unit can also allow all tape tracks to be recorded and played back in conjunction with a monaural amplifier or amplifiers, the instantaneous monitoring facilities still being retained for this application.

The JTL TAPE LINK has been primarily designed to use with the Jason J2-10 Stereo Amplifier, but equally successful results have been obtained with other amplifiers, after a few minor modifications have been made. Notes on converting a Leak Varislope Stereo pre-amplifier were made in conjunction with Teleradio (1943) Ltd., of 189 Edgware Road, London, W.1., who have co-operated throughout and who would carry out these modifications for a nominal fee. While these modifications to the Varislope Stereo have been discussed with Messrs H. J. Leak & Co. Ltd., it can be readily understood that they can in no way be responsible for any modifications so made or the results obtained.

The object of these modifications is to separate the first stage of the pre-amplifier from the final stages, so that, as explained elsewhere, the first stage can correct the signal which is being applied to the tape, whilst the tone controls are being used on playback. Switching off the JTL then leaves the amplifier operating as though the tape unit were not connected.

Varislope Stereo

1. Remove top and bottom covers.
2. Remove two leads connecting the “Extra” sockets to the gain switch, which is mounted immediately below.
3. Remove two leads connecting the “Record” L and R sockets to the volume control (P41 and P42) at the extreme right of the front panel.
4. Refer to the layout diagram on page 5 and the circuit diagram page 6 (of the Varislope manual) and locate the junction of C14R and C15R. Trace the lead from this junction to C17R and R30R on top of the tagboard. Disconnect this lead at the junction of C17R and R30R and reconnect to the “Record R” socket. If the lead is re-routed it may be long enough, otherwise replace with a longer wire.
5. Again, refer to diagrams and locate C14L and C15L. Disconnect C17L from the tagstrip. Disconnect R30L from the tagstrip. Reposition R30L pointing towards C17L. Join a length of tinned copper wire to R30L and cover with 2in of sleeving. Join the other end of this wire to C17L and from this joint a further length of wire is connected to the “Extra L” socket.

6. Find the junction of R30R and C17R with the unit upside down and the front facing away. This junction is on the 9th tag from the left on the edge of the board nearest the controls. Connect this junction to the socket. (“Extra R”)

7. Find the junction of C14L and C15L, which is on the 8th tag from the left. Connect this junction to the “Record L” socket.

8. Find the junction of C14R and C15R and connect a 10MΩ resistor from this point to tag 3, which is connected to chassis.

(9) From the junction C14L and C15L, which is tag 8 as previously mentioned, connect a 10MΩ resistor to tag 3, from the left, on the front row. These last two resistors are required to prevent a charge building up on capacitors C14 and C15 when the monitor switch is operated. Normally the connection to the tone control circuit through R30 prevents this voltage appearing.

(10) If the Leak pre-amplifier is to be used before the JTL is obtained, the sockets must now be joined together externally otherwise there will be no output. Two 6in lengths of screened wire are required with the appropriate plugs at each end. With these leads, join “Extra R” to “Record R” and “Extra L” to “Record L”. With these leads in position the performance of the Varislope pre-amplifier will be in no way altered from the original specification.

If the Leak pre-amplifier was manufactured before September 1960, it may be necessary to carry out a further modification. Referring again...
to the layout and circuit diagram, find the junction of $R_{9R}$ and $R_{8R}$ and see whether this is connected to $C_{3R}$. If $C_{3R}$ exists, it should be short-circuited so that the above junction connects directly to $R_{7R}$. The same modification is required on the other channel and if $C_{3L}$ exists, it should also be short-circuited.

This modification is required because with $C_3$ connected, operation of the monitor switch results in clicks being recorded on the tape, due to the discharge of $C_3$. It should be emphasised again that deliveries since September 1960 of the Leak pre-amplifier already have this modification included.

(Conclusion)

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**THE PHOTOGRAPH ON THIS PAGE is a visual presentation of sound. We have to reproduce it here in black and white, of course, but it would appear in practice in one or more colours. The pattern is obtained by electronic means on the screen of a cathode ray tube, and it represents just one of an infinite variety of figures which can depict sounds in abstract form. It is a simple example, in fact, of what is offered by very recent developments in the art of Chromasonics.**

1 "Chromasonics" is a Registered Name.

---

**Chromasonics**

Mr. F. C. Judd is well known in audio and home-constructor circles as a protagonist in the field of electronic music and musique concrète, and I am indebted to him for the details he has passed on to me concerning Chromasonics.

The term Chromasonics was coined to segregate abstract visual presentation of sound in colour from normal colour films having their own sound tracks. In the latter case there is complete co-ordination of aural and visual impressions because it is the primary function of the sound track to provide sound which is synchronised with the actions and speech of the film characters (live or cartoon), and which stresses the changing emotions dictated by the plot. With Chromasonics the visual display is still directly related to the sound but, in this instance, its purpose is to provide abstract aesthetic impressions to further emphasise the character of the sound reproduced. Chromasonics can enhance enjoyment by creating patterns and colours which move and change to the mood of different kinds of music; an obvious instance being given by rhythmic movements with rhythmic sound.

What could be described as a crude form of abstract visual presentation is given when displays of coloured lighting, in conjunction

---

with music, are employed to create pleasing effects at exhibition displays or in the cinema during intervals. On a much more impressive scale are the Vortex concerts of electronic music held annually in U.S.A., these being invariably presented up a long, medium and short-wave job and he bumped into a snag which baffled him completely. Although the cause of the fault is an "oldie"; it is still not generally known. So I shall relate what happened in this case.

![Fig. 1. A simple oscillator circuit, which gave peculiar results on medium-wave band circuit](image)

The receiver, which was a superhet, worked excellently on long and short waves, as well as over the high frequency end of the medium-wave band. Round about 450 metres, however, sensitivity dropped. When my friend tried the medium-wave range with a signal generator, the dial calibration held accurately enough until the mysterious 450 metre region was approached. The set tuning then hopped several kc/s at that point. Obviously, there was trouble in the oscillator circuit.

![Fig. 2 (a). The coil layout originally employed for the oscillator (b). The revised coil layout](image)

The trouble, of course, was absorption. When it was switched out of circuit the long-wave coil still had the trimmer connected across it. This now provided the only parallel capacitance and resulted in the long-wave oscillator grid coil resonating at the oscillator frequency which corresponded to 450 metres on the dial. In consequence it formed an absorption tuned circuit which took a considerable amount of energy out of the medium-wave oscillator coil at this point, as well as causing the queer hop in frequency. The cure was to change the layout to that of Fig. 2 (b), whereupon the medium- and long-wave coils were spaced further apart from each other, a useful bit of screening being provided by the short-wave coil in between.

If you're surprised at the fact that a long-wave oscillator coil can ascend to the heights of the medium-wave band, a look at some typical facts and figures may be of interest. Assuming a medium-wave range of 500 to 1,500 kc/s (600 to 200 metres), the medium-

---

Absorption Effects

Despite the introduction of v.h.f. sound transmissions, home-constructors are still very interested in broadcast band receivers. A friend of mine has, indeed, just knocked...
wave oscillator covers (with 465 kc/s i.f. transformers) 965 to 1,965 kc/s. The corresponding long-wave oscillator frequency range (assuming a dial coverage of 2,000 to 800 metres, or 150 to 375 kc/s) is 615 to 840 kc/s. If the long-wave oscillator trimmer is set to a fairly low capacitance, it is pretty easy to imagine that switching the long-wave coil out of circuit (with the consequent disconnection of stray wiring capacitances, valve capacitances, and minimum tuning gang capacitance) can easily cause the grid coil to jump up from a top frequency of 840 kc/s to 965 kc/s or more.

In the past, this effect has been one of the main reasons why many coil-packs have the short-wave oscillator coil mounted between the medium- and long-wave oscillator coils. In the absence of a short-wave coil, the trouble can of course be avoided by adequate spacing between the two coils or by mounting them at right angles.

Hitting The Jackpot

Talking of "oldies" reminds me that this is how colleague W. Holmes referred to one of his "Gadgets For Your Christmas Party" in last month's issue. The gadget consisted of a metal ring which was moved along a bar. When the ring touched the bar a bell sounded.

Those of our readers who watch the I.T.V. programme "Sunday Night At The London Palladium" will, of course, have seen the self-same gadget employed in the Jackpot Prize contest. This particular Jackpot series commenced after W. Holmes' article was written and set up, and we note that the London Palladium version of the bar sported considerably more bends and turns than did ours!

An Interesting Discharge Circuit

Mr. D. E. Launchbury, of Leamington Spa, has sent in details of an interesting discharge circuit. The circuit appears in Fig. 3 and, as may be seen, it consists for the most part of a fairly conventional tape recording level indicator arrangement. The a.f. voltage fed to the record head is applied also, via R3, to diode V1 (a), this rectifying and causing an appropriate negative potential to be applied to the grid of the Magic-Eye, V2. The latter then offers a display corresponding to the peak level of the applied a.f.

It is normal to have a capacitor and resistor in parallel connected between the Magic-Eye control grid and chassis in order to provide a relatively slow decay in the display, and time constants here for commercial recorders are usually of the order of 0.2 to 0.3 seconds. Such time constants necessitate a relatively large value in the capacitor of the circuit. An arbitrary indication of discharge time (given by the Magic-Eye display) was used, and this was probably significantly longer than the time constant of a capacitor and parallel resistor.

Discharge time with V1(b) and C3 disconnected was 60 seconds. In this instance C2 discharged via circuit leakage paths.

Discharge time with V1(b) and C3 in circuit as in the diagram was 15 seconds. Since V1(b) anode was coupled to one side of a centre-tapped heater line it received an a.c. potential of 3.15 volts relative to chassis.

Discharge time with V1(b) anode connected to chassis was 25 seconds, whilst discharge time with V1(b) anode connected to 6.3 volts a.c. relative to chassis was 13 seconds. From these results it would appear that C2 discharges more rapidly when the a.c. voltage applied to V2 anode is increased. Also, the combination of 30pF capacitor and diode (particularly with a.c. on its anode) would appear to cause a marked decrease in discharge time when they are initially applied. Incidentally, capacitor C3 has been thoroughly checked and appears to be 100% both for capacitance and leakage.

Technical News

That well known speaker fabric "Tygan" (manufactured by Fothergill & Harvey Ltd., Littleborough, Lancs.) has exceptionally low sound absorption because it employs polyvinylidene chloride yarn. Tests have shown that such yarns, used in speaker fabrics, can even give a 2% increase in sound. This is because they do not absorb the sound but reflect it back into the speaker.

Do you remember those miniature metal-cased Sprague 0.1 and 0.01μF capacitors that appeared in such large numbers after the war? You may well be seeing quite a few more Sprague products in the future, as the result of an agreement between Sprague Electric Company and the Telegraph Condenser Company. By means of the agreement, Sprague and T.C.C. now share their research facilities, manufacturing experience and know-how; also T.C.C. are the sole distributors for Sprague products in the U.K. Sprague Electric Company is the largest manufacturer of capacitors and electrical components in America.

Seen at the recent Engineering Materials and Design Exhibition at Earls Court—knitted "armour" suits for protection against injury from micro-waves in radar stations.
The suits are very flexible and light in weight, and are made of a mesh of silver-copper material.

The largest International exhibition ever to be staged in Britain is planned for April 23rd to May 2nd, 1963. This will be known as The London International Engineering Exhibition, it will occupy both Olympia and Earls Court, and it will cater for every type of engineering product from the largest items of capital equipment to the smallest component.

Rechargeable portable TV batteries are now available in this country from G. A. Stanley Palmer and Co. Ltd., Maxwell House, Arundel Street, W.C.2. These are DEAC units, 6 volt versions of which are available in either 4 amp-hour or 6 amp-hour capacity. The batteries can provide 2 and 3 amp outputs respectively for five hours of continuous use, recharging being accomplished via inbuilt circuitry when the associated TV receiver is plugged into the mains. The DEAC batteries can be operated in any position, and they are entirely free from gassing, swelling, fumes and corrosion. They are guaranteed for a year or 300 recharges, whichever is the less.

Signing Off

And now, let me end this month with the wish that all readers have a truly happy and prosperous New Year, with all equipment working immediately after the last solder joint has been made and with television tubes and transistors down to a tanner each.

All the best for 1962!

A Constructor's Wife...

a warning to constructors and to any girls considering marrying one

By MRS. J. ANDERSON

A THIS TIME OF YEAR MANY GIRLS ARE THINKING of getting married, and I am sure that quite a high percentage of them have no idea what they are in for if their future husband is keen on electronics, especially as this is sometimes concealed from them.

I thought that my husband must be very clever, being able to understand radios and things, and that he would be very useful in the house. Now, I’m not so sure about this.

We have a “house phone”, so that I can tell my husband when a meal is ready if he is working in his workshop. A good idea? If you had only seen the floorboards that were up, the dirt that came out of them! To be quietly working in the kitchen and suddenly he startled by a loud and decidedly unmelodious buzzing, and then, perhaps having interrupted some particularly delicate cooking operation to answer it, was greeted by a request as to whether I have seen some tool or other which I’ve never even heard of, is not funny any more.

About once every two months, some small and inconspicuous plug appears on the skirting board. When there are more than five or six of them in several rooms, it becomes a little trying, especially when I forget which one is for the vacuum and which for the radio extension.

We had a thing for answering the front door electrically, so that from the kitchen I could ask who was there through a microphone or something: apart from the fact that I never could remember which button to press to speak, we nearly had to go to court when something went wrong and a sheet of flame blew the milkman’s eyebrows into a new shape!

There was another thing for ringing a bell when it began to rain, so that I wouldn’t have to keep one eye on the weather on Mondays... What my husband didn’t say was that the bell was an ex-government alarm gong which nearly gave me a heart attack when it went off: and the first time it did so, I couldn’t turn it off, it had a “locking relay” in it so that if I was upstairs it would still be on when I came down to the kitchen. I had to phone him, 300 miles away, to ask him how to stop it.

Only a week ago, I woke up at about three in the morning, and thought my husband was having an epileptic fit and wandering around the house hurting himself, there was such a strange bubbling and gurgling coming from downstairs and he wasn’t in bed. On going to see what was wrong, I found him sitting with his radios, trying to “get Australia”... the noise was interference! Often I have been called away from the phone, or from the oven, or even from a guest, because “Old Bill in Honolulu wants to say hello.” The majority of our friends seem to live in a heap of grey steel boxes; we certainly haven’t got as many as we used to have locally, because even after the time when the steel poles which hold up the aerials fell down and broke some rose trees and a fence or two, the steady procession of people on a Saturday afternoon didn’t stop... “Hello, Mrs. Anderson. Is your husband in?” I was watching the Test Match and all of a sudden the television went funny, voices and things and a sort of snowstorm on the screen.” Oh, dear me.

One day last year I wanted to go to a garden party, but we had to get the car out and go miles and miles, with an incredible stock of food, for a “Field Day”. This wasn’t much fun either... I sat all...
day in a car listening to whizzing noises from the boot and everywhere else, whilst we dashed from place to place meeting cheery men with headphones and handlebar moustaches who called my husband by an unspeakable nickname which he apparently picked up at college. Then when I said I was bored I was given a little dial to watch, and I had to say “UP” when the pointer got to the highest point: that gave me a headache.

About the middle of 1960, my husband advertised some gadget he had made to work off the mains, because he didn’t want it any more. He said he had put “callers only”, but I spent most of the day answering the phone; we even had two telegrams: the thing was sold by eleven in the morning to one of the innumerable men who thundered at the front door!

If you aren’t discouraged yet, then buy a book on first-aid. Several years ago, when we lived in London, I was sitting enjoying a cup of coffee and reading the paper one morning, when there was a sort of scraping at the back door; I opened it, and my eldest son CRAWLED in on his hands and knees, as white as a sheet, and shaking all over. He gasped something about electricity, and collapsed. The doctor, who was one of these awful radio people as well, roared with laughter and said that a few free electrons in the body isn’t as bad as people think: I don’t know what that means, but I’ve always remembered it because it annoyed me so much! My husband has a scar on his chin, a mark which is all that is left of a hole straight through his thumb, and at this moment a wad of bandages conceals his right arm from wrist to elbow: and he’s a dentist, that hole in his thumb could have lost him a job. Although then perhaps he wouldn’t have been able to afford all these radios and things!

Now, think about that lot, you girls who are being blinded with science. Our television is in pieces at the moment, there are more knobs on the radio, which was a beautiful wedding present, than I know what to do with, we’re losing our friends, my sons have got the disease, the kitchen table has a soldering-iron burn on it, my husband is still trying to disable himself, and I can’t even get a decent sleep nowadays. And, men, take this as a warning!

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Resistors and Capacitors as Mains Droppers

By J. B. DANCE, M.Sc.

In order to avoid the cost, bulk and weight of a mains transformer, it is common practice to supply valve heaters from the mains with the use of a series resistor to drop the mains voltage to the required value. It is not so well known, however, that if the mains supply is a.c., a series capacitor can be used instead of a resistor to drop the mains voltage. The advantages and disadvantages of the two methods will be discussed in this article and graphs are given which will enable the required value of the dropping resistor or capacitor to be quickly found for most practical cases.

Series Resistor Circuits

A circuit employing a series resistor, $R$, to drop the mains voltage for valve heaters is shown in Fig. 1. The same current passes through each of the valve heaters in the circuit shown and it is therefore necessary that they shall all have the same current rating, $I$.

Let the total voltage across all of the valve heaters $= V_v$, and the voltage across the series resistor $R = V_R$. The current and voltage are in phase (as the circuit is purely resistive) and therefore the mains voltage, $V_M$, must be equal to $V_R + V_v$. The value of the series resistor, $R$, which is required can be calculated from Ohm’s Law:

$$ R = \frac{V_R}{I} = \frac{V_M - V_v}{I} $$

If it is assumed that the mains voltage is 240, the value of $R$ required can be found immediately from the graphs of Fig. 2 (which are based on the above equation) provided that the valves used require one of the four values of heater current shown in the graphs. Almost all modern valves require a heater current equal to one of the values shown.

Example

Suppose it was desired to con-
struct a piece of equipment containing a PCF80, a PCC84 and a PY80 rectifier. The heaters of these valves are rated at 9, 7 and 19 volts respectively, but as they are all rated to pass 300mA heater current, they can be connected in series. Let us imagine that a 6 volt 300mA dial light is to be connected in series with the valves to indicate when the apparatus is working. The total voltage, $V_v$, across all the valve heaters and the dial light is 41 volts. Using the 300mA line of Fig. 2, it can be seen that the resistor value required for $R$ is about 667Ω. The preferred value of 680Ω would be quite satisfactory, but the resistor would have to be capable of dissipating 60 watts or more.

If one of the valves in a series heater chain requires a smaller heater current than the others, this can be achieved by placing a resistor in parallel with the heater of that particular valve. The resistor must have such a value that it passes the excess current when the voltage across it is equal to the rated voltage of the valve heater.

### Series Capacitors

A capacitor can be used to drop the voltage of a.c. (but not d.c.) mains in a similar way to a resistor; a typical circuit is shown in Fig. 3. A resistor of about 680kΩ should be connected across the capacitor so that it will discharge when the mains voltage is switched off, this preventing a shock from the capacitor should the mains plug pins be touched for some reason after the apparatus has been switched off and the plug withdrawn from the socket. A fuse should be incorporated in the circuit to prevent damage to the valve heaters in the event of the capacitor developing a short circuit. Under no circumstances should the use of an electrolytic capacitor be contemplated. A good quality paper capacitor rated at 250 volts a.c. working or more must be used.

Let the total voltage across all of the valve heaters be $V_v$ as before (see Fig. 3) and the voltage across the capacitor be $V_c$. These voltages are not in phase with the mains voltage $V_m$. We can write:

$$V_c = \sqrt{V_m^2 - V_v^2}$$

where $X_c$ is the reactance of the capacitor. The following expression for $C$ can be derived from these equations:

$$C = \frac{1}{2\pi f V_m^2 - V_v^2}$$

where $f$ = the mains frequency.

It is most convenient to express this equation in the form of the graphs shown in Fig. 4. The graphs shown in Fig. 4 are for a 240 volt 50 c/s mains supply; graphs for four of the most common values of heater current are shown.

### Example

Let us suppose it is required to use two ECC81 (12AT7) valves in some apparatus. The heaters of the two sections of each valve can be connected in two ways (series or parallel) in order to provide a heater rating for the whole of each valve of either 12.6 volts at 0.15 amp or 6.3 volts at 0.3 amp. For use with a series capacitor, it is usually advisable to use the method of connection requiring the lower current, a smaller value of capacitor then being used. If the two valves are connected in...
series, the total heater rating will be 25.2 volts at 0.15 amp. Assuming the mains voltage is 240 volts, 50 c/s, the value of the series capacitor required can be found from the Fig. 4 graph; it is about 2 μF.

If the heaters of each valve had been connected so that they each required 6.3 volts at 0.3 amp, the value of the capacitor required would have been doubled.

Advantages and Disadvantages
The use of a capacitor instead of a resistor enables voltage dropping to be accomplished without any wastage of power. Circuits which employ resistors may have an efficiency of less than 20%. Voltage dropping resistors must be fairly large in order to dissipate the heat evolved. This heat may help to cause frequency drift in oscillators, etc. Whilst capacitors do not radiate any heat when used as voltage droppers, it has already been mentioned that they cannot be used when the mains supply is d.c.

The use of a series capacitor enables the current during the warming up period to be kept at approximately the same value as the normal heater current. If dropping resistors are used, the low initial resistance of the valve heaters can lead to large heater currents during the warming up period. Whilst these large currents may enable the apparatus to warm up more quickly, it may result in shorter valve and dial light life.

Stability
A change of resistance of one of the valve heaters will cause a slight change in the total current passing through the heater chain. This change will be much smaller, however, if a capacitor is used as a voltage dropper instead of a resistor. This can be deduced from the fact that the slope of the graphs of Fig. 4 is much less than those of Fig. 2. A small change in the total voltage required by the valve heaters (Vv) when a capacitor is used causes a negligible change in the value of the capacitor required providing that Vv is fairly small. The use of a voltage dropping capacitor thus helps to preserve stability, especially when the total heater voltage is much smaller than the mains voltage.

Another advantage associated with the use of a series dropping capacitor is that an extra valve can be inserted in a heater chain without the necessity of changing the value of the capacitor, provided that the total heater voltage is less than half of the mains voltage. This would not be advisable in apparatus in which a series resistor is used.

Fig. 3. A series connected capacitor may be used to drop the a.c. mains voltage

Fig. 4. Graphs showing the value of series capacitor required for 240V 50 c/s mains operation
This is the first of a series of four articles, each of which describes a particular application employing emitter follower transistor circuits. A special feature of the series is that a standard set of components may be employed, if desired, to construct all the devices discussed. Despite this, the circuits are extremely non-critical so far as component tolerances are concerned, and alternative values are dealt with fully.

Of particular interest are the d.c. coupling and negative feedback arrangements employed by the writer, these not only reducing the number of components required but also permitting excellent stability to be maintained, together with flexibility in component values.

The devices described can provide a valuable introduction for the newcomer to transistor theory, and have the advantage of being somewhat more sophisticated than the "beginners' circuits" which are normally published.

Because of the higher gain available, the transistor is used most frequently in the common emitter configuration, i.e. with input between base and emitter, and output taken from collector to emitter. When coupling several such stages together, the loading effect on each stage of the previous one considerably reduces the gain, and this loss is further accentuated by the presence of bias and stabilising components.

By using the other configurations sensibly, matching input and output impedances, it is often possible to produce results as good as those of cascaded grounded emitter stages and at the same time reduce the number of components. The designs that follow make use of direct coupling of the first stage into the high impedance of an emitter follower second stage, and by d.c. feedback eliminating several of the stabilising resistors usually required.

D.C. Stability

The d.c. stability of the circuit used (Fig. 1) can be understood when it is realised that the emitter and base of TR2 are at the same potential as the collector of TR1 (ignoring the small potential drop across the junction as it is a diode biased in the forward direction). If now the collector current of TR1 increases, due either to temperature rise or substitution of another transistor, then more voltage is lost across Re and the base and emitter of TR2 are brought closer to the positive supply line. Since the bias current of the first transistor is provided, through Rb, by the emitter voltage of the second transistor, this bias current will fall too, reducing the collector current to something near its original value. Similarly, if the collector current of the second transistor increases, the increased voltage across Re drives more bias into the first transistor, causing the collector current to rise and lowering the collector potential. This in turn returns the base and emitter of TR2 to a lower value. Each transistor thus provides the bias for the other, and the combination can cope with more widely varying conditions than if biased separately.

A.C. Operation

When we consider the a.c. operation of the circuit, we see that the base of TR1 is earthed via Cb. This prevents loss of gain through signal negative feedback without disturbing the d.c. feed-
back described above. The signal voltage across Re will be only slightly less than that across Rc because of the low junction impedance. At first sight it might seem from this that the second transistor is serving no useful purpose other than to establish the d.c. operating conditions. In fact, it also acts as a buffer and prevents much of the gain of the grounded base stage from being thrown away.

A practical example will illustrate this quite clearly. Since the emitter and collector currents of TR\textsubscript{1} are almost equal, the input current in this arrangement must also flow through the load resistance. This makes the voltage output directly proportional to the load and

\[
\text{Voltage gain} = \frac{\text{Load resistance}}{\text{Input resistance}}
\]

With the designed collector current of 0.3mA and collector resistance of 22kΩ, the input impedance is in the region of 80Ω. Inserting these values, Voltage gain = \(\frac{22k\Omega}{80\Omega}\) = 275

If the second stage is a grounded emitter stage with an input impedance of about 1kΩ, this appears in parallel with the load and the gain is very much reduced, Voltage gain = \(\frac{1k\Omega}{80\Omega}\) = 12.5

The action of the second stage can be described in this case as an impedance transformer since its current gain of, say, 50, enables it to provide a specified output to the emitter resistor while drawing only 1/50th of this current from the previous stage. Reducing the current at a fixed voltage implies an increased impedance, and the first stage now “sees” an impedance of 50 x Re in parallel with its collector load. This value is sufficiently high to prevent any loading, with the associated loss of gain, even when working into external loads as low as one or two kilohms.

We can summarise the working of the circuit as follows. The current injected into the emitter of TR\textsubscript{1} reappears in the collector load. This, being very much larger than the input impedance, has a proportionately larger voltage developed across it. Finally the voltage appears across the emitter resistor of TR\textsubscript{2}, very little reduced by the slight shunting effect of the high input impedance of the second stage, and by the small loss across the emitter-base diode.

“Pick Any Resistor”

This particular circuit has been amongst the most flexible and versatile that the author has tried, and the operating conditions were varied as widely as possible to try to find its limits of operation. So wide have these proved that the following section could almost be entitled “Pick Any Resistor”.

Satisfactory operation was in fact obtained with the following range of values, subject only to permissible dissipation: at one end of the scale and bottoming due to leakage current at the other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supply voltage</th>
<th>3-20 volts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Re</td>
<td>5-40kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rb</td>
<td>150-10,000kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re</td>
<td>2-5kΩ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cb</td>
<td>0.5-16μF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z'\textsubscript{1}</td>
<td>20-100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z'\textsubscript{2}</td>
<td>20-100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the extreme ends of the scale, of course, both gain and undistorted output will fall. Provided the constructor avoids the obvious pitfalls of high voltage together with low resistance and vice versa, he need only keep his eye on the usual limiting values specified by the manufacturer. These precautions apply only to large variations from the recommended values as these will be safe with all transistors.

To enable the constructor to select the conditions most suited to his own needs, a series of curves has been drawn up from the results, showing the gain available for various collector loads over a wide range of supply voltage. (Fig. 2.)

![Fig. 2. Measurements taken with transistors of current gain=20, Re=4.7kΩ, Rb=330kΩ](image)

Since one of the fundamentals of electronics is that “No result derived from theory or laboratory measurements works when put into practice,” the final test was to insert a microphone into the emitter lead and monitor the output.

A surplus moving iron earphone of about 50Ω impedance was used and the output checked while singing and whistling at various distances from it. Singing a few inches from the “microphone” produced inputs to the preamplifier of 1 or 2mV, which after amplification gave outputs of the order of one-third of a volt. Outputs as high as 3 or 4 volts could be obtained by whistling across the microphone with it coupled to the highest gain arrangement, and this would be sufficient to drive an output valve to very nearly its full power.

Finally it is suggested that the values shown in Fig. 1 be used, since further articles in the series will make use of exactly the same components. They will include a medium impedance preamplifier and an emitter coupled multivibrator.

(To be continued)
Improving Radio Luxembourg Reception

By GORDON J. KING, M.I.P.R.E.

WHilst BEING ONE OF THE MOST POPULAR stations, Radio Luxembourg suffers from disconcerting fading and distortion troubles when received in most parts of Great Britain. Numerous tests have revealed that the trouble is caused essentially by random changes in the polarisation and phase of the received signal, these being due to ionospheric refraction and bending of the sky wave over the medium-distant path at the rather susceptible wavelength of 208 metres.

Luxembourg Interference Pattern

The severe fading and bad quality are caused because Radio Luxembourg is received in the main towards dusk and during the night, when the sky wave and ground wave in this country approach equal intensity. In effect, the received signals represent the vector sum of the two waves that have travelled along different paths. At some locations these waves add, while at others they subtract. This causes a Radio Luxembourg interference reception pattern over most of Great Britain, particularly at night, since it is only after dark that the sky wave really comes into play.

During the daytime the ground wave contributes most of the signal received, and it is for this reason that the daytime Luxembourg signal is relatively poor, though less disturbed by fading.

The reception pattern is rarely consistent for any length of time, since slight changes in the ionosphere result in a change in length of the sky wave path. This modifies the interference from an addition to a subtraction, and vice versa, and thereby causes the typical Luxembourg fading which alternates with progressive increases in signal strength.

Distortion due to Selective Fading

The Luxembourg interference pattern is also somewhat sensitive to frequency because even a small alteration in frequency under these conditions is sufficient to change the relative path lengths by an appreciable fraction of a wavelength. This means, then, that the carrier and the sidebands of the Luxembourg signal are likely to occur out of phase or out of step at the receiver. For example, some frequency components will tend to cancel while others will tend to add, and the resulting distortion, which is commonly so severe as to destroy the entertainment value of the signal, is in this context known as "selective fading" or "selective distortion".

Sideband Suppression

It was required by the author to reduce this effect as inexpensively and as much as possible. Several methods were tried, including the reception of only one of the sidebands of the signal. This improved matters somewhat for it was discovered that when a fade occurred, one sideband was affected far more than the other.

This is because the worst quality distortion is invariably caused by the carrier fading, or reducing considerably in amplitude, while leaving the sideband frequencies almost unaffected. In order to receive just a single sideband, the receiver itself is called upon to supply the missing carrier, and this was accomplished by the use of a separate oscillator. This oscillator was arranged to heterodyne with the component frequencies of one of the sidebands, and the difference frequencies produced after detection corresponded to the original modulation signal. These were then amplified audio-wise in the ordinary way.

There are several problems to this method, one of which is that to secure reasonable quality the carrier oscillator must be held within a few cycles of the correct frequency. This can be achieved by the use of a crystal oscillator or by filtering the sideband signals from the carrier and then using that to control the frequency of the locally manufactured carrier. The latter idea is sometimes called "carrier reconditioning".

Ultimately, a method was devised for switching...
from one sideband to the other, depending on which gave the best reception, but this made life rather difficult and by now the expense was going way up.

Diversity Reception

The exercise continued with the use of a diversity receiving system. Here three receivers were used and each was fed from its own aerial which was removed from the other two aerials by approximately 300 yards. This required a lot of room, and because there was insufficient area to space the aerials adequately the system was not wholly successful in relation to its cost. Nevertheless, it would be interesting to relate.

It was hoped to take advantage of the fact that it is unlikely for signals of the same transmission to fade simultaneously when picked up on separate aerials spaced from each other. It usually happens that when the signal fades in one aerial it fades less in another aerial and may possibly rise in a third. With this in mind the arrangement of Fig. 1 was adopted.

Basically, three a.m. tuners were used, and each of these was fed from its own aerial through 75Ω coaxial cable. The detector output of each tuner fed an associated a.f. amplifier, and the outputs of the amplifiers were mixed in a combining network, giving a single a.f. output signal.

After taking care of various phasing factors, this arrangement appeared to work adequately, apart from the introduction of noise due to those tuners which were receiving little or no signal as the result of a fade in their aerials. The effect was reduced by including at each a.f. amplifier a quieting arrangement operated by the a.g.c. systems of the tuners. The result was that the outputs of the two a.f. amplifiers with the least signal at their detectors were considerably suppressed, and the majority of the signal was supplied by the tuner receiver at any time the strongest signal. In this way the signal-to-noise ratio of the system as a whole was improved.

Nevertheless, a degree of fading persisted, and this was possibly due to insufficient spacing between the aerials, for it would seem from subsequent experiments that the aerials would need to be spaced by at least ten wavelengths for optimum results. Ten wavelengths at 208 metres is over one mile, and this kind of reception can hardly be called inexpensive!

Two Aerials

Finally, the diversity reception idea just described was abandoned and two aerials were erected fairly close together, one vertical and the other horizontal. These were coupled to the two tuners in a semidiversity arrangement, similar to that in Fig. 1. Surprisingly, the results were as good, if not slightly better, than the costly and complicated three-aerial system.

One Tuner—Two Aerials

It was next decided to try just one tuner and couple the horizontal and vertical aerials to it through a coupling transformer with a centre-tapped primary, as shown in Fig. 2. This was not very successful at first, but after attention was given to the aerials, mainly in terms of length, an outstanding improvement was observed.

As a test, the vertical aerial was disconnected and the signal monitored using the horizontal aerial only. At the instant of a deep fade, the vertical aerial was connected. This improved the signal strength considerably and almost eliminated the selective distortion which was present with just the horizontal aerial.

The same experiment was carried out by first using the vertical aerial only, and when the horizontal aerial was connected during a deep fade the results were almost identical to those of the first test. These tests proved fairly conclusively that the Luxembourg fade and distortion are caused not only by the phase of the received signal altering but also by a change in the polarisation. It should be noted that the fading and distortion were not completely removed, but the improvement was well worth the small expense of an extra aerial and coupling unit. The set-up appeared to be somewhat critical in terms of aerial length, but a little over 50ft of wire for each aerial, including the down-lead
of the horizontal aerial, was found to work quite well in practice.

**Phasing Unit**

Finally, it was decided to try to improve on the simple aerial coupling transformer. After some experimenting, the circuit shown in Fig. 3 was evolved. Here the vertical signal is connected direct to the aerial socket of the set, while the horizontal aerial is connected through the phasing network comprising R1, R2, R3 and C1, and the transformer T1. This serves to permit adjustment of both the amplitude and phase of the horizontal signal in relation to the amplitude and phase of the vertical signal. Optimum balance may thus be achieved simply by adjusting R1 and R2.

How this happens is shown in Fig. 4. At (a) the horizontal signal is applied to the potentiometer R2 via resistor R3. Now since R3 is connected across the centre-tapped primary of T1, it follows that when R2 is at the centre of its travel there exists, in effect, a balanced bridge arrangement and no signal appears across the secondary winding.

However, when the slider of R2 is set towards position A signal currents circulate in the top section of the primary and a signal voltage is induced across the secondary. Similarly, when the slider is set towards position B signal currents circulate in the bottom section of the primary and a voltage, equal though of opposite phase to that in the former case, is induced across the secondary. From this description it can be realised that a horizontal signal is available at the secondary which can easily be adjusted from positive through zero to negative, as shown in Fig. 4 (b).

**Adding a Reactive Component**

At (c) is shown the other section of the circuit. This is identical to that at (a) except that the signal is applied through C1 to R1. This capacitor produces a reactive component which can also be adjusted from a positive value through zero to a negative value, but this time 90 degrees out of phase with the signal produced via the resistor, as shown at (d). This phase shift, of course, is attributable to the action of the capacitor.

It may now be seen how the two actions are combined in the complete circuit of Fig. 3. Clearly, the two potentiometers can be used to provide a horizontal signal which has any amplitude (being limited by the amplitude of the aerial signal itself) and any phase angle, as shown in Fig. 4 (e).

It is interesting to note that a circuit of a similar nature was evolved by Spencer-West some years ago as a means of eliminating pattern interference from Band III conversions.

The phasing unit almost completed the exercise, and Radio Luxembourg was received far better than hitherto with very little extra expense. The transformer was produced from an old medium-wave aerial coil to start with but, as it was found difficult to locate a good centre-tap a special coil was produced which gave improved coupling and far better balance. The transformer requires an overall 1-to-1 turns ratio and an inductance of about 150 microhenries at each winding. A suggested method of construction is shown in Fig. 5.

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**Fig. 4.** The circuit producing the "resistive" component of the horizontal signal (a) and the vector representation of the signal at (b). The circuit producing the "reactive" component of the horizontal signal (c) and the vector representation of the signal at (d). At (e) is shown resultant signal due to the two signals (b) and (d). It will be seen that the amplitude and phase of the resultant signal depends on the vectorial sum of the resistive and capacitive signals evolved. Here the vertical signal is connected direct to the aerial socket of the set, while the horizontal aerial is connected through the phasing network comprising R1, R2, R3 and C1, and the transformer T1. This serves to permit adjustment of both the amplitude and phase of the horizontal signal in relation to the amplitude and phase of the vertical signal. Optimum balance may thus be achieved simply by adjusting R1 and R2.

**Fig. 5.** Suggested transformer. Primary and secondary 84 turns, close-wound 32 s.w.g. enamelled wire on 1.25in former. Spacing between primary and secondary by thin cord. Primary centre-tapped

Initial adjustment was accomplished by removing the horizontal aerial until a severe fade occurred. It was then reconnected and the potentiometers carefully adjusted to obtain the best results. It was found necessary to carry through this procedure several times for optimum results, especially during periods of fairly rapid fading.
A Constructor Visits the 1961 International Radio Hobbies Exhibition

IN HIS OPENING ADDRESS TO THE 1961 International Radio Hobbies Exhibition, held at the Royal Horticultural Hall from 22nd to 25th November, Mr. Henry Loomis, Director of "Voice of America," stressed the points of similarity between the professional and the amateur electronic communications engineer.

In an extremely informative address in which the problems involved in putting over the "Voice of America" were fully detailed, Mr. Loomis made the observation that "whereas you amateurs are experts communicating with experts, we are experts communicating with an audience possessed of only enough technical know-how, in the main, to tune in and turn off and do some tuning." Mr. Loomis concluded with the statement that "we are all of us working for mutual understanding, a sentiment with which every amateur will be in complete agreement.

After the opening ceremony, the exhibition got away to an excellent start, and the writer was pleased to observe the high attendance.

Club and Society Stands

Prominent on the R.S.G.B. stand were beautifully constructed equipments including 2 and 4 metre transmitters by G3KMD, an s.s.b. exciter unit by GM3FJB, a home-built transmitter by GM3JAA, and a transistorised receiver by G3HBW. This last item was awarded the 1961 Silver Trophy for outstanding home constructed equipment.

The British Amateur Television Club staged an impressive display of colour television reproduction being given by monitors with shadow mask tubes. During the writer's visit reproduction from a colour bar generator was shown, whilst at other times B.B.C. pictures on the 405 line N.T.S.C. system were displayed. A further colour monitor used a rotating colour filter and was employed as a viewfinder for the B.A.T.C. colour camera, the latter having a similar filter in conjunction with a 3 in. image orthicon tube. This camera was built by J. Tanner especially for the Exhibition.

Another spectacular and imaginative presentation was evident on the Royal Air Force stand. This consisted of equipment used by the Royal Air Force Amateur Radio Society in their recent expedition to the island of Kamaran in the Red Sea, 200 miles north of Aden. The gear was mounted inside a tent on a table improvised from packing cases, and the whole floor area was covered with some six inches of very authentic-looking sand. Members of the expedition were present on the stand, and defied the rigours of London's November by being dressed in khaki drill.

Amateur radio astronomy was well to the fore, with an exhibit by G. A. Frampton, G3LRH. This consisted of a receiver, the input to which consisted of alternating bursts of noise from the aerial system and from a matched loudspeaker at known temperature. The difference in power between the two sources was then indicated on a valve voltmeter driving a pen recorder. The equipment was described as an experimental system to determine the performance likely to be obtained in an amateur system, and is the first of a series of projects undertaken for the British Astronautical Association.

Trade Stands

For the youngster or beginner, Daysstrom Ltd. exhibited their newly introduced Electronic Workshops Kit, Model EW-1. This comprises an insulated board holding a number of easily recognisable and well-identified components, each being coupled to spring connectors which enable wiring to be fitted quickly and without soldering. It is possible to wire up twenty different electronics sets-ups with this kit, these including amplifiers, three transistor radios and voice operated relays. The kit includes a loudspeaker. Also evident on the Daysstrom stand were samples from the well-known range of Heathkit equipment, including the DX-100U and DX-40U transmitters and the fully transistorised general coverage receiver type GC-1U. Announced by Daysstrom Ltd. at the Exhibition was the new transistor intercom kit consisting of Model XI-1U (master) and XIR-1U (slave station). This new kit should be available in early January.

Radiointercorder were well in evidence and displayed some of the equipment built up as part of their courses. These included a multi-testmeter, a signal generator, an oscilloscope, and a comprehensive a.m./f.m. receiver.

A wide range of cabinets, chassis panels and racks was shown by E. J. Philpott's Metalworks Ltd., these being available in a number of colours. Products in the Philpott's range are available in any size to meet customers' specifications and appear in a large number of basic designs. Especially attractive was this Company's well-tried and popular "5" line style of presentation, this consisting of "wire around" cabinets with up to 11 ins in the front to back dimension. Ventilation is available by perforated panel or louvres according to requirements. Once again, dimensions can be to users' specification.

Copp Communications and Electroniques (Felixstowe) Ltd. displayed samples of high quality inductors. The wide range exhibited included over 100 different types of "Stabquills", these consisting of coils with built-in adjustable capacitance trimmers, cores and temperature compensation components. Also displayed were high-Q i.f. transformers covering 65kc/s to 1.6Mc/s. These transformers feature high selectivity and give bandwidths, for 6dB down, of 2kc/s at 85kc/s and 9kc/s at 1.6Mc/s. Another interesting exhibit on the Electroniques stand was a series of "Qoipax", these comprising a complete chassis assembly for coils, tuning capacitor, range switch and the associated valve or valves. Careful layout and clean design were very evident in this case. Electroniques specialise in a wide range of components which are not generally available, and these include 6mm dust cores for varying frequency ranges, miniature ceramic trimmers, plastic fixing nuts and insulated nylon lead throughs.

Sound Vision Service (Electrical) showed a number of aerial mastst having particular value for the amateur. The main exhibit was the S.V.S. 45ft. telescopic mast which is completely portable, can be erected in minutes by one person, and which carries a full rotary head. Also exhibited was the 36ft. model incorporating a patent guy ring which enables the complete mast to be rotated regardless of strain on the guy ropes. This mast can be installed to heights up to 80ft. An innovation was the S.V.S. Automatic Rotator which offers rotation through 360 degrees for aerials up to 150lbs in weight.

This new unit is controlled, and functions from 50c/s a.c. mains. An indicator installed at the control position shows orientation relative to north on a fully calibrated circular scale.

Of interest on the stand of Avo Limited was the new model 9SX AvoMeter. This is a fully tropicalised instrument designed primarily for Service use and has sensitivities of 20,000 ohms per volt on d.c. and 1,000 ohms per volt on a.c. The meter will measure current up to 10 amp a.c. or d.c., potential up to 3,000 volt a.c. or d.c., and resistance up to 2MΩ. To meet the heavy climatic demands for which the instrument has been designed, the front panel, case and some of the internal components are moulded in a special phenolic material which not only reduces tracking and leakage but also inhibits fungus growth.
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<tr>
<th>L.O.T.</th>
<th>SCAN COILS</th>
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<td>PTC</td>
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<td>MURPHY</td>
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<th>Price</th>
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<td>688 sq. in.</td>
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<td>724 sq. in.</td>
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<td>760 sq. in.</td>
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<td>796 sq. in.</td>
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<td>832 sq. in.</td>
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<td>868 sq. in.</td>
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<td>904 sq. in.</td>
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<td>940 sq. in.</td>
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