JUNE 1962


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(Calibrated also in $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{cs}$ and $\mathrm{M} / \mathrm{cs}$ A flve valve superhet chassis-ECH81. EF89. EBC81. EI,84 and EZ80 for A.C mains. $90 / 110 / 2010 / 230 / 250$ F Four watts output. negative lecdback Push-button selection of gram, and wavechange. Volume on/off Tone and runing controls. Tropicalised high grade mains and output transformers, separate from main chassis, reduce hum and heat Black. Gold and Red. Chassis dimensions isin iong x bindeer x 7 in. high ('This includes mounting brackets which can be removed and reduces the depth to 51 in .) Dial aperture $133 \times 3$ in supplied complete with rotatable separate ferrite od aerial Quantity hriftly Jimited AT HALGAIN PIRICE OF
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| AC2PEN | 21\% | ECC88 ECC91 | 1716 $4 / 2$ | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { EY86 } & 8 / 6 \\ \text { EZ35 } & 6 / .\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { PCC89 } & 916 \\ \text { PCF80 } & 916\end{array}$ | U10 U12 | $\begin{aligned} & 918 \\ & 9 f^{2} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { UY4I } \\ & \text { UY85 } \end{aligned}$ | $716$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5 Z 4 \\ & 5 Z 4 G T \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 916 \\ 1216 \end{array}$ | $6 \mathrm{~L} 18$ $6 L 19$ | $10 \%$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \mathrm{C8} \\ & 12 \mathrm{~J} 5 \mathrm{GT} \end{aligned}$ | 816 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AC2PEN |  | ECF80 | 816 | EZ40 7\%. | PCF82 7. | U14 | 91. | VM54B | 1216 | $5246 T$ | 1216 91. | 6LD20 | $17 \%$ $14 \%$ | 17GT | 16 |
| DD | 211. | ECF82 | 816 | EZ41 7\%. | PCF84 16\% | U22 | $8 \%$ | $V \mathrm{~V}_{4}$ | $15 \%$ |  | 816 | 6P25 | $10^{\prime} 6$ | 2K7GT | 51 |
| ACTP | 321. | ECH3 | 211 | EZ80 71. | PCF86 151. | U24 | 211- | VP4A | $17 / 6$ |  | 1316 | 6P28 | $17 / 6$ | 12 K 8 GT | 101 |
| ACVPI | 1716 | ECH2I | 221. | EZ81 7! | PCL82 916 | $\cup 25$ | 1216 | VP4B | 1716 | 6 | 91. | $6 \mathrm{Q}^{7}$ | 616 | 12Q7GT | $6^{\prime}$ |
| $A Z 1$ | 151. | ECH42 | 916 | E290 7\%. | PCL83 1216 | U26 | $10^{\prime}-$ | VRI0530 | $7 \%$ | 6 AJ8 | 916 | 6Q7GT | 816 | 125A7 | 16 |
| AZ31 | 101. | ECH35 | $10^{\prime}$ | Eli48 21. | PCL84 1016 | $\cup 27$ | $8^{\prime}=$ | VR15030 | 71. | 6 AK5 | 51. | 65A7 | 71. | 125K7 | 61. |
| B35 | 101. | ECH81 | 81. | FC2 $21 \%$ | PCL85 161. | U31 | 91. | VU39 | 91. | 6 AK 8 | 716 | $65 \mathrm{G7}$ | 71. | 125Q7 | 816 |
| CIC | $12 / 6$ | ECH83 | 816 | FC2A 211. | PENA4 1716 | U35 | 1716 | VUll\| | 216 | 6AL5 | 61. | $65 \mathrm{H7}$ | 61. | $125 L 7$ | 81 |
| CBL3 | 211. | ECL80 | 91. | FC4 151. | PENB4 1716 | U37 | 1716 | VU120 | 216 | 6AM5 | 51. | 6517 | 616 | $12 \mathrm{SN7}$ | $10^{\prime}$ |
| $\mathrm{CCH}^{25}$ | 211. | ECL81 | 101. | FC13 21/- | PEN4DD | $\cup 43$ | 816 | W6I | $11 / 2$ | 6AM6 | 41. | 65K7 | 516 | 13 D 3 | 127 |
| CL33 | 1816 | ECL32 | 916 | FCI3C 21' | 251 | $\cup 45$ | 10\% | W76 | 51. | 6ANS | 716 | 6SL7GT | 61. | 14 H 7 | 101 |
| CYI | 151. | ECL83 | $12^{1}$. | FW4/500 9'- | PEN4VA | $\cup 47$ | 1216 | W77 | 4/ | 6 6AS | 616 | 6SN7GT | 516 | 14R7 | $10^{\prime}$ |
| CY31 | 1519 | EF6 | 21\% | FW4/800 91- | 1716 | U50 | 716 | W81 | 61. | $6 A Q 8$ | $9 / 3$ | 6 SQ 7 | 816 | 1457 | 151 |
| D77 | 4. | EF9 | $21 \%$ | GZ30 10/6 | PEN36C21'- | U52 | 41. | W8IM | 61. | 6AT6 | 61. | 6U4GT | 101. | $19 \mathrm{AQ5}$ | 81/ |
| DAC32 | 916 | EF22 | 141. | GZ32 1016 | PEN45 10\% | U76 | 716 | $\times 17$ | 816 | 6AU6 | 91 | 6U5G | $7 / 6$ | 19B6G | 211 |
| DAF91 | 716 | EF36 | 41. | GZ33 1913 | PEN45DD | U78 | $4 / 6$ | $\times 18$ | 91. | 6B8G | 31. | 6 V 6 | 416 | 2001 | $10^{\prime}$ |
| DAF96 | 819 | EF37 | $8{ }^{\prime}$ | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { GZ34 } & 13 / 6\end{array}$ | $27 / 6$ | U191 | 151. | $\times 41$ | 15\% | 6 BA | $6 \%$ | 6V6GT | 81. | 20F2 | 1716 |
| DCC90 | $14 / 6$ | EF37A | 81. | GZ37 19/3 | PEN46 51\% | U251 | 1216 | $\times 61$ | 1216 | 6BE6 | $6 \%$ | $6 \times 4$ | 416 | 20LI | 1716 |
| DF33 | $10 \%$ | EF39 | 41. | HABC8010\% | PEN4530D | U281 | 181. | $\times 61 \mathrm{M}$ | 2216 | 6BG6 | 716 | $6 \times 5$ | 716 | 20PI | 251. |
| DF91 | 41. | EF40 | 151. | HL4IDD 816 | 2716 | U282 | 1916 | $\times 65$ | 1216 |  | 81. | $6 \times 5 \mathrm{GT}$ | 816 | 20P3 | 25\% |
| DF92 | $7 \%$ | EF4I | 81. | HL92 816 | PENDD 4020 | U301 | $22 / 6$ | $\times 76$ | $12 / 6$ | 6 B | 61- | $6 \times 6$ | 151. | 20P4 | $22 \%$ |
| DF96 | 816 | EF42 | 10\% | HLI33DD | 25\% | U329 | 1216 | $\times 76 \mathrm{M}$ | 1216 | 6 B | 81 | 630 L 2 | 101. | 20P5 | $25 \%$ |
| DF97 | 916 | EF50A | 41. | $10^{\prime \prime}$ | PL33 151. | U339 | 151. | $\times 78$ | 21\% |  | 1216 | 785 | 1216 | 2186 | 121. |
| DH63 | 6\% | EF50E | 316 | HN309 20'. | PL36 15\% | $\cup 403$ | $10 \%$ | $\times 79$ | $21 \%$ | 6BS | 1216 | 7B6 | 101. | 25A6 | 81. |
| DH77 | 7\% | EF80 | 51. | IW4/35010' | PL38 21' | $\cup 404$ | 10\% | Y61 | $10 \%$ | 6BW6 | 1216 | 787 | 816 | 25 L 6 | 81 |
| DK32 | 1116 | EF85 | 51. | IW4/50010'. | PL81 12\% | U801 | 291. | Y66 | 916 | 6BW7 | $5 \%$ | 788 | 81. | $25 Y 5$ | 81 |
| DK91 | 81- | EF86 | 1016 | KT33C 8'. | PL82 8' | UABC80 | 71- | Z63 | 716 | $68 \times 6$ | 5\%. | $7 \mathrm{C5}$ | 8'. | $25 Z 4$ | 716 |
| DK92 | $8 / 6$ | EF89 | 91. | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { KT36 } & 1716\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { PL83 } & 1016\end{array}$ | UAF42 | 816 | Z66 | $10 \%$ | $6 B \times 6$ 684 | 316 | 7 C 7 | 81. | 25Z5 | 81. |
| DK96 | 816 | EF91 | 41. | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { KT55 } & 1716\end{array}$ | PL84 91. | UB4! | 716 | 277 | $4 \%$ | 6 C 4 | 316 | 7 D 3 | 151. | 25Z6 | 81 |
| DL33 | 816 | EF92 | 4!- | KT61 916 | PL820 181. | UBC4I | 816 | Z152 | 51. | 6 C |  | 7D5 | 151. | $275 \cup$ | 1716 |
| DL35 | 1016 | EF95 | $7 / 6$ | KT66 151- | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { PM24M } & 136\end{array}$ | UBC8I | $101-$ | ZD17 | $8 \%$ | 6C6 | 616 1216 | 7D6 | 151- | 30 Cl | 916 |
| DL92 | 716 | EF97 | $12 / 6$ | KT76 10\% | PX4 151 | UBF80 | 816 | ZDI52 | $0 / 6$ | 6C966 | 1216 | 7D8 | 151. | 30F5 | 101. |
| DL93 | 71. | EF98 | $10 \%$ | KT81 151. | P $\times 2525$ | UBF89 | 716 | OZ4 | 51. | 6CD6G | 321. | 7H7 | 716 | 30 FLI | 1016 |
| DL94 | 81. | EFI83 | 181. | KT88 21\% | PY31 15'. | UBL2I | 211. | \|A7 | 1116 | $6 \mathrm{CH6}$ | $10^{\circ}$ | 7 K 7 | 816 | 30LI | 916 |
| DL96 | 816 | EFI 84 | 141. | L63 51- | PY32 1216 | UCC84 | $10^{\prime} 6$ | ICI | 816 | 6 | 4/6 | 7 Q7 | 10\% | 30 L 15 | 1116 |
| EASO | 21. | EK 32 | $8 / 6$ | LNIS2 91. | PY80 716 | UCC85 | 716 | $1 \mathrm{C}_{2}$ | 91. | 6D6 | 516 | 7Y4 | 716 | 30 P 4 | 211 |
| EABC80 | $6 \%$ | EL2 | 211. | LN309 1216 | PY81 716 | UCF80 | $13 / 6$ | $1 C^{C}$ | 916 | 6E5 | 101. | 8 D 3 | 41. | 30 PI 12 | $10 \%$ |
| EAC91 | 4. | EL3 | 21\% | LZ319 1216 | PY82 7/6 | UCH2I | 211. | 1 C 5 | 1016 | 6 FI | $10 / 6$ | 9 PW 6 | $12^{\prime 6}$ | 30 PI 16 | 91. |
| EAF42 | 916 | EL6 | 211. | MKT4 1716 | PY83 816 | UCH42 | 916 | $1{ }^{1} 5$ | $8 / 6$ | $6 F 6$ | $6 / 9$ | 10 Cl | $12 / 6$ | 30PLI | 15\% |
| EB34 | 216 | EL32 | 416 | MS4B 1716 | PZ30 18/6 | UCHBI | 81. | 1D6 | 101- | 6FII | 10\% | 10C2 | 1716 | 30PLI3 | 1216 |
| EB41 | 716 | EL33 | 10\% | MVSPEN | QS9510 10\% | UCL82 | $10^{\prime}=$ | 1 H 5 | 916 | 6 FI 2 | 41. | 10 FI | 15\%. | 35L6GT | 816 |
| EB91 | 41. | EL34 | 151. | 1716 | QS1501510'. | UCL83 | $13 / 6$ | IL4 | 51. | 6F13 | $10 \%$ | 10F3 | 15\% | $35 \times 4$ | 716 |
| EBC3 | 211. | EL35 | 10\% | MVSPENB | R2 10\% | UF41 | 716 | ILN5 | 416 | 6 FI 4 | $10^{\prime}$ | IOF9. | 1216 | 3523 | 16\% |
| EBC33 | 416 | EL37 | 1716 | 1716 | R3 10'. | UF42 | 716 | INS | 916 | 6 Fl 5 | $12 / 6$ | IOLD\|| | 15\%. | 3524 | 716 |
| EBC4I | 91. | EL38 | 211. | MU14 91. | R12 816 | UF80 | 710 | IRS | 716 | 6 Fl 9 | 1216 | IOLDI2 | 10\% | 3525 | 816 |
| EBC81 | 10\%. | EL4I | $10 \%$ | M×40 15\% | R16 1716 | UF8S | 716 | 154 | 81. | 6 F 23 | 1016 | IOP\|3 | 151. | 405UA | 151. |
| EBF80 | :16 | EL42 | 101. | N18 8\% | R19 191. | UF86 | 1216 | 155 | 716 | 6F33 | $5 / 6$ | IOP14 | $19 \%$. | $415 T H$ | $21 \%$ |
| EBF83 | 816 | EL81 | 1216 | N37 141. | R20 191. | UF89 | $6 / 6$ | IT4 | 41. | 6H6 | 21. | 10P18 | 151. | 42 | 1216 |
| EBF89 | 816 | EL84 | 619 | N78 1716 | S130 716 | UL41 | 816 | IU5 | 519 | 6.5 | 416 | 1103 | 23/6 | 50C5 | 10\% |
| EBLI | 2216 | EL85 | $10^{\prime}$ | N108 18' | SP41 316 | UL44 | 21'. | 2 P | 2417 | 6.5GT | 416 | 1105 | $23 / 6$ | 50 L 6 | 816 |
| EBL2I | 221. | EL90 | 816 | N308 20\% | SPGI 318 | UL46 | 1416 | 3 A 4 | $5 \%$ | 616 | 316 | 12 A 6 | 616 | 50CD66 |  |
| EBL31 | 2116 | EL91 | 41. | N339 30\% | SU2ISO 25\%. | UL84 | $7{ }^{\prime}$ | 3 AS | $10 / 6$ | 617 | $5 \%$ | $12 \mathrm{AH8}$ | 91. |  | 3616 |
| ECC34 | 151. | EL95 | 1016 | N369 1016 | SU2ISOA | ULBS | 716 | 3Q4 | 81. | 617GT | 716 | 12AT6 | 716 | 53 KU | $12^{16}$ |
| ECC3S | 81. | EM80 | 816 | OD3 5\%. | 251. | UM80 | 1016 | 3Q5 | 91. | 6 K 7 | 27. | 12 AT7 | 51. | 75 | 81. |
| ECC40 | こ11. | EM81 | 816 | OZ4 516 | T41 15'. | URIC | 151. | 354 | $7 \%$ | 6K7GT | 816 | 12AU7 | 816 | 78 | 716 |
| ECC8I | 519 | EM84 | 916 | P2 10\% | TDD4 12/6 | UU6 | 191. | $3 \vee 4$ | $8 \%$ | 6K8 | 51. | $12 \mathrm{~A} \times 7$ | 716 | 80 | 91. |
| ECC82 | $8 / 6$ | EM8S | $10 \%$ | PABC80 13\% | TDDI3C | UU8 | 211/ | SU4 | 41. | 6K8GT | 916 | 12AU6 | 1716 | 85A2 | $12 / 6$ |
| ECC83 | 716 | EYSI | 816 | PCC84 91. | $17 / 6$ | UU9 | $7 / 6$ | $5 \vee 4$ | 719 | 6K25 | 181. | 12BA6 | 716 | 185BT | $30^{\prime}$ |
| ECC84 | 818 | EY81 | 816 | PCC85 916 | TH4I 24'. | UYIN | $12 / 6$ | $5 Y 3$ | $8 / 6$ | 6LI | 131. | I2BE6 | 716 | 305 | 916 |
| ECC85 | 81. | EY83 | 15/. | PCC88 55\%. | TY86F $12 \prime 6$ | UY2I | 1516 | 5Y3GT | $8 / 6$ | 6L6 | 716 | 12BH7 | $10 \%$ | 8078R | 51. |

METAL RECTIFIERS

| RMI | 5/3 | 14RA | $\begin{array}{llll}\text { 1-2-8-2 } & 1716\end{array}$ | (FC31) | 14 A97 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RM2 | 716 | 16RC | 1-1-16-1 816 |  | 14 Al 100 |
| RM3 | 719 | I4RA | 1-2-8-3 191- | (FC31) | 16RD 2-2-8-1 |
| RM4 | 141. | I8RA | 1-1-16-1 6/6 | (FCII6) | 16RE 2-1-8-1 |
| RM5 | 1916 | I8RA | 1-2-8-1 11\% |  | 18RA J-I-8-1 |
| 14 A 86 | 1716 | J8RD | 2-2-8-J 151- | (FCl24) |  |

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AL60 | 61. | EBC90 | 51. | EZ40 | PY32 | 12/. | VU39 | 61. | ${ }^{6 C 5}$ | 61 31. | $7 V 7$ $7 Y 4$ | 51. | 210VPT |  |  |  |
| AR8 | 5\%. | EC52 | 81. | EZ41 619 | PY80 | $6 / 9$ | W31 | 71. | 6C6G | 31. | 7 Y 4 | 61. | 7-pin | 216 | ACRI | 15\%. |
| ARDD5 | $2^{\prime}$ - | EC70 | $10^{\prime}$ | EZ80 6/- | PY81 | 71. | $\times 66$ | $81-$ | 6C8G | 51. | 724 | 416 | 250 TH | 69 | V1596 |  |
| ARP3 | 31. | EC90 | 201. | EZ81 6/9 | PY82 | 81. | Y63 | 51. | 606 | 41. | 8D2 | 216 | 350B | $8 \%$ | (09J) | 551. |
| ARP4 | 316 | ECC81 | 516 | FW 4/500 | PY83 | 713 | Y65 | 41. | $6 F 60$ | 4'- | 9 D 2 | 31. | 393A | 151- | $3 \mathrm{FP7}$ | 25\%. |
| ARP12 | 31. | ECC82 | 616 | 616 | PZI-35 | 91. | Y66 | 81. | $6 F 7$ | 5\% | 12 A 6 | 216 | 705A | 151- | 5BPI | $35 \%$ |
| ARP21 | 5/6 | ECC83 | 71. | G120/1B 9\% | QF21 | 61. | Z31 | $6 \%$ | 6F8G | 51. | $12 \mathrm{AH7}$ | 51. | 715B | $60 \%$ | SCP1 | 4216 |
| ARP24 | 316 | ECC84 | $7{ }^{1}$ | GL450 10'- | QP25 | $5 / 3$ | 143 | 31. | 6 Fl 2 | $4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | $12 A T$ | 516 | 717A | 816 | 5FP7 | 451. |
| ARP34 | 41. | ECC85 | 81. | GL464A 10'- | QS75/20 | 819 | IASET | 5 '. | 6 F 17 | 51. | $12 \mathrm{~A} \mathrm{U}^{6}$ | 91. | 801 | 61. | $78 P 7$ | $40 \%$ |
| ARTH2 | 71. | ECC91 | 41. | GZ32 9\%. | QS95/10 | 6/9 | IC5GT | 716 | 6G6C | 216 | $12 A \cup 7$ | 61. | 803 | 2216 | 12DP7 | $60 \%$ |
| ATP4 | 219 | ECF82 | 816 | H 63 7 $7-$ | QSIO8/45 |  | ID8GT | $6 \%$ | 6 H 6 M | 116 | $12 \mathrm{AZ7}$ | 71. | 804 | 551 | VCRX 25 |  |
| ATP7 | 516 | ECH42 | 716 | HL23 6'- |  | 619 | IE7G | 716 | 615 | 316 | 12 CB | 31. | 805 | 30\% | with | ann- |
| AUI | 51. | ECH81 | 719 | HL23DD 8\%- | QV04/7 | 1216 | IG6GT | 6/2. | 6J5C | 31. | 12 El | $22 / 6$ | 807 |  | ing coi | 45\%. |
| AU4 | 51. | ECL80 | 81. | HVR2 1216 | R3 | 81. | $1 L 4$ | 316 | 616 | 413 | $12 \mathrm{H6}$ | 21. |  | 61. | VCR138 | 30\% |
| AW3 | 41. | ECL82 | 91. | KRN2A 191. | R3/10 | $4 / 6$ | ILD5 | 51. | 617 G | 51. | $12 \mathrm{K7GT}$ | 416 | $8078 R$ | $6 \%$ | $\checkmark$ CRI39 |  |
| AZ31 | $8 \%$ | EF22 | 71. | KT32 8\% | R10 | $12 / 6$ | 1 R 5 | 61. | 6K6GT | ${ }^{61} 9$ | 12 K 8 M | 716 | 808 | $8{ }^{81 \%}$ |  | 35 |
| BS4A | 516 | EF36 | 316 | KT33C 4\% | REL21 | 25\%. | 155 | 519 | 6K7G | 213 | 12 JGT | 316 | 810 | 80\% |  |  |
| BT45 | 151. | EF39 | 41. | KT44 6/3 | RK34 | 216 | IT4 | $4{ }^{4}$. | 6K7GT | 419 | 12Q7GT | 414 | 813 | 60\%. |  |  |
| BT9B | 201. | EF50 | 216 | KT63 5\% | R $\times 235$ | 10\% | $\mathrm{IW4}^{\mathrm{W} 4}$ | 67 | 6K8G | 519 813 | 125A7 | 716 | 815 816 | $40 \%$ |  |  |
| BT83 | $22 / 6$ | EF54 | 313 | KT76 101- | SP2 | 41. | 2A3 | $5 /$. | $6 \mathrm{K8G}$ | 813 | 125 Cl | 41. | 816 | $30 \%$ |  |  |
| CV54 | 51. | EF55 | 51. | KTW62 716 | SP13C | 416 | 2A5 | 61. | $6 \mathrm{K8M}$ | 818 | 125G7 | 31. | 829 A | 15\% | CMG8 |  |
| CV264 | 201. | EF70 | $4 \%$ | KTW63 616 | SP41 | 216 | 2 Ca | 71. | ${ }_{6}^{6 L 5 G}$ | $6 \%$ | $125 \mathrm{H7}$ $12 \mathrm{SJ7}$ | 31. | ${ }_{832} 83$ | 15\% | CS16 |  |
| CY31 | 716 | EF73 | 61. | KTZ41 8\% | SP61 | $2 \cdot$ | 2 C 34 | 216 | $6 \mathrm{6L6}$ | 6 | 12557 $125 K 7$ | 316 | 8843 | 714 |  |  |
| D41 | 313 | EF80 | 516 | MH4 316 | SU2150A |  | $2 \times 2$ | 41. | ${ }^{6 L 6 G}$ | 6 | 12517 | 819 | 846 |  | Speclal Valves |  |
| D71 | 413 | EF85 | 616 | MH4I 51 |  | $4 / 9$ | 3A4 | $5 \%$ | 6L7G | 6 | l2SL7 | $8{ }^{81} 8$ | 886 | $20 \%$ |  |  |
| DA30 | $12 / 8$ | EF86 | 71. | ML4 4\% | T41 | 71. | $3 \mathrm{B7}$ | 51. | 6L34 6N7G | 416 519 | 12 SR 7 | $6 \%$ | 930 | 81. |  |  |
| DAF70 | 351. | EF89 | 719 | ML6 6 | TP25 | $15 \%$ | 3 B 24 | 5. | 6N7G 6 | $\begin{aligned} & 5 / 9 \\ & 6 \% \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 S R 7 \\ & 14 L 7 \end{aligned}$ | $7 \%$ | 954 | 41. | 2131 45\% |  |
| DAF91 | $6 \%$ | EF91 | 316 | MS/PEN 6\% | TTII | 31. | $3 \mathrm{E29}$ (829) |  | 607G | 6\% | 1502 | $6 \%$ | 955 | 216 | 3A/1481 45'- |  |
| DAF96 | 716 | EF92 | 31. | NT2 91. | TZ20 | 16\% | 304 ${ }^{(8298)}$ | 60\% | 6R7 | 81. | 20A2 | 1716 | 956 | 21. |  |  |
| DD41 | 41. | EF95 | 51. | $\mathrm{OB3}$ 71. <br> 0 Cl  | U17 ${ }^{1 / 4}$ | 5\% | 3S4 | $5 \%$ | 6SC7G | 416 | 2186 | 91. | 957 | $5 \%$. |  |  |
| DET5 | 15\% | EL32 | 319 | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { OC3 } & 5 / 6 \\ \text { OD3 } & 6 \%\end{array}$ | U18 |  | 354 <br> 3 | 61. | 6SC7GT | 51. | 25L6GT | 719 | 958A | 51. | 3J192/E 67.10 |  |
| DET19 | 316 | EL33 | $8 \%$ | OD3 68. | $\cup 18$ | 816 | 3 V 4 5 T 4 | $9 \%$ | 6SG7 | $5 \%$ | 30 | 51. | 1616 | 31. | 4331 | 635 |
|  | 71. | EL35 | 81. | PCC84 71. | U52 51- |  | $5 \cup 4 \mathrm{G}$ | 51. | 6SH7 | 31. | 35L6GT | 81. | $\begin{aligned} & 1619 \\ & 1625 \end{aligned}$ | 51. | $\begin{array}{lr}4150 & 635 \\ 5021 & 63\end{array}$ |  |
| DF72 | 716 | EL42 | 81. | PCC85 81. | UCH42 | 716 | $5 \vee 4 \mathrm{G}$ | $8 \%$ | 6SJ7GT | 5/9 |  | 1716 |  | 61. |  |  |
| DF91 | $3 / 3$ | EL84 | 71. | PCF80 71. | UBF80 | 816 | 5Y3G | 816 | $\begin{aligned} & 6 S 17 Y \\ & 6 S K 7 \end{aligned}$ | 616 | 3524GT | 71. | $\begin{aligned} & 1626 \\ & 1629 \end{aligned}$ | 416 | 725A 30\% |  |
|  | 81. | EL85 | $10 \%$ | PCF82 8/- | ULII | 5\%. | 5 Z 4 |  |  | 513 | 37 | $4{ }^{1}$ |  | 416 |  |  |
| DK96 | 713 | EL91 | 416 | PCL82 816 | ULI2 | 51. | 5Z4G | $8{ }^{\prime}$ | 6SL7GT | $\begin{aligned} & 616 \\ & 416 \end{aligned}$ | $38$ |  | 4043C | 1316 | 726A 2716 |  |
| DL92 | 61. | EM80 | 81. | PCL83 11. | UL4I | 71. | 6AB7 | $4{ }^{4}-$ | 6SN7G |  | 58 | 61. | 6064 | 101. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ACT6 } 1601= \\ & \text { ACT9 } \in 12.10 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| DL94 | 61. | EM84 | 91. | PCL84 9\% | UL84 | 716 | 6AC7 | 31. | 6SQ7 | $4 / 6$ 61. | 75 | 516 | 6120 | 119 |  |  |
| DL96 | 81. | EN31 | 151. | PEN45 416 | UL85 | 76 | 6AG5 | 31- | 6557 | 61. |  |  | 7193 |  | ACT9 El2.10 | 30\% |
| EA50 | 116 | EP71 | $6 / 6$ | PEN46 51- | UU9 | 516 | 6AG7 | 61. | 6V6G | 416 | 76 | 51. | 74758013 | 31. | CV980 31- |  |
| EABC80 | 713 | EP72 | 51. | PEN65 616 | UY41 | 61. | 6 AI7 | 31. | 6V6G | $5 \%$ | 77 | $71$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & 25 \% \\ & 10 \% \end{aligned}$ | ESU77 ${ }_{\text {200 }}$ KR6/3 |  |
| EAC91 | 416 | ESU208 | $6 \%$ | PEN220A ${ }^{3 /-}$ | UY85 | 616 | 6AK5 | 51. | $6 \times 4$ |  | 78 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 8013 \mathrm{~A} \\ & 8020 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| EB34 | 116 | EY5I | $8 \%$ | PL36 1016 | VP23 | 31. | 6AK7 | 67. | $6 \times 5 \mathrm{G}$ | 51. | 80 | 516 | 9001 | 31. | L57B | 30\% |
| EB91 | 319 | EY86 | 81. | PL8I 91. | VP41 | $5 / 6$ | 6AM5 | I- | 6 Y 6 | $\begin{aligned} & 6 / 6 \\ & 5 / 6 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 81 \\ & 82 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 / . \\ & 81 . \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9002 \\ & 9003 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5 / 6 \\ & 61 . \end{aligned}$ | WL417A 15. |  |
| EBC4I | 719 | EY91 | 316 | 82 8/2 | R99 | $8 \%$ | 6AM6 | 4. | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

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RECEIVER TYPE R.206. Frequency $0.55 \mathrm{mc} / \mathrm{s}$, to $30 \mathrm{mc} / \mathrm{s}$. in 6 bands. $100-250$ v. A.C. or 12 v. D.C. Loudspeaker in power supply unit. High performance super heterodyne, oleven valves including a separate local oscillator valve, beat oscillator valve and two valves (amplifier and detector) in the A.V.B.C. system. In vary good condition, $£ 15.10 .0$ including power pack. Carriage and packing $15 /$-. R. 206 FREQUENCY RANGE ADAPTOR, enabling the set to work on $50 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s} .-30 \mathrm{mc} / \mathrm{s}$, in 9 bands. 24.10 .0 . arriage 6/.
R. 209 RECEPTION SET. A lo-valve high-grade Super Heterodyne Receiver with facilities for receiving R/T (A.M. or F.M.) and C.W. frequency $1 \mathrm{mc} / \mathrm{s}-20 \mathrm{mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Hermetically sealed. Built on miniature valves and incorporating its own vibrator power supply unit driven by a $6 \quad v$ battery ( 2 poins connector included). The set provides for reception from rod open-wire or dipole aerial with built-in loudspeaker or phone output. Overall measurements: Length 12 in , , width Bin., dedth 9in. Weight 231b. In as new, tested and guaranteed condition, £23.10.0, including special headphone and supply leads. Carriage El .
AR 88's. Completely rebuilt with new, PVC wiring. Type "D" £75. Type "LF" 670.

VARIOMETERS for W/S No. 19. Fully eested and working, 12/6. P. \& P. 2/6. CARBON INSET MICROPHONE. G.P.O. type, 2/6. P. \& P. $1 / 6$.

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중



1．3－TRANSISTOR POCKET RADIO with MINIATURE SPEAKER，FERRITE hOD and 2 GERMANIUM DIODES，The only 3－transistor radio available at KOD and 2 GERMANIUM DIODES，The only 3－transistor rado available as
the price．Build it in l evening！Tunable over $M / L$ ．wives．Couplete with easy－tu－follow instrmotions and anl components（less Uatteries obtainable （anywhere $1 / 3$ ）27／6． $\mathrm{P}^{\prime}$ ．\＆ $\mathrm{r}^{2}$ ．w／t．（All parts avaibable separately）．
2．LINE E．H．T．TRANSFORMERS．Built－in lite width controi． 14 kJ ．Acan coil Woith，dethection on ferrite yokes．Frane U．P＇．Lransformer pi． 18 k＇smoothing conketiser，suitane for thin，hinh，or 2ini hubes．Hith circuit diagram， $29 / 6$ OSCILLOSCOPE for D．C．aud A．C．APPLICATIONS．Push－pull $\mathbf{X}$ amplifer； Fls－tuck suppression：Internal Tine－hase Suat Wave iorm available for exter bal use：pulse output a valable for checking TV tine O／P Transtorners，

 Jer thonthly paymems of $20 / 6$ ．
4．A．C．ID．C．POCKET MULTI－METER KIT．2in．moring coil meter，scale， talnbated it A．C．D．（ volt，nhma and millianhp，Foltage range A．C．／D．C．
 $0-104,00024 / 6$, P．\＆P． $2 /$ ．Wiring uidgram $1 /-$ ．iree whith parts．
CHANNEL TUNER．Will tume to
5．CHANNEL TUNER．Will tume to ali Band I and band III stations，Complete
 thoditied as an aerial convrrtm（antructions supplied），32／B，plus $4 /-\mathrm{P}$ ．\＆P．
6．STAAR＂ 45.9 VOLT BATTVRI RECORD PI．AYER Complete with pick＊ up and deck．A completel，portable record piayer．Head is protected by a plastic dome，winh a bush which cleans the stylus as it riges into playing
 attractive
 2 resistors， 2 watt output can be obtained．Push－pull output，complete with

9．SIGNAL GENERATORS．Cash £\％．5．0 or $30 /$－drposit and 6 monthly paymuts of $21 / 6 . \mathrm{F}^{2}$ \＆ P ． $5 / 6$ ．Coverage $100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ to $100 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ on fund a mentals and $100 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ to $200 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ of harmonics．Cuse 10 x $6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{x}$ 5tio． Three miniature Falves and Metal Rectifier．A．mains $200 / 250$ q．Inter－ hal modulation of 400 c．p．s．to a depth of 30 per cent．Modulated or and hut．switch，variatle A．F．output．Magic eve as output indicator． and hat．swith，va
Accuracy $\pm \because$ per cent


10．SIGNAL GENERATORS．Cash 25.5 .0 ．P．\＆P．5／6．Coverage $120 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$
 deptb of 30 per cent variable 100 millivults．U．W．and mod．gritch variable A．F．output ami moving coil output weter．Accuracy $\pm 2$ per cent．

CHANNEL TUNER I．F． $16.19 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ．Contínuously tunable from $174-216$ Mc／a．Valves required－PCF80 and PCC84（in series）．Covers is BC and iTA ramges．Also Police Fire and Tayls ete，Brand lew by famous maber，10／＝．1．S．P．3／－．

12．8－wBkt PUSH－PULL 5 VALVE AMPLIFIER．A．C．mains 200－250 v． Sice $\left.10 \frac{1}{2} \times 6 \frac{1}{2} \times 2\right\} n .5$ valves．For use with all makes and types of piek－up and mike．Negative feed back．＇Two inputs，fuike and gram，and controls tor same．Begarate controls for bass and Treble dift．Response Hat from 40 escles to $15 \mathrm{ke} / \mathrm{s}$ ．$\pm 2 \mathrm{db}$ dowh $1020 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ．Output 8 wat．ts at 5 per cent total distortion．Noise level 40 db duwh all hund．Outp1st trausformer tapped for 3 and 15 ohms speech coils．For use with sta．or 1．F．P records musival instrumembs such as gutars，etc．Sutable for sioall halls，£3．19．6．
 uit 12／6，ア．\＆ド．2／－。

13．B．S．R．MONARCH UAS WITH FUL－FI HEAD． 4 －speed，plays 10 records， L2in．， $10 \mathrm{in}_{\text {－}}$ or 7in．at 16， 33 ， 45 or 78 r．p．m．Intermixes 7 in ， 10 ．n．atw 12ni，records of the same speed．Has manual plas positiom：colour brow th． Dinensions：12t 天 103 in．Byace required above baseboas 43 in ．below base board $23 / \mathrm{n}$ ．Fitted with Ful－Fiturnover crygtal head．s6．19．6，I＇．in P． $5 / 6$ With Stereo Head 8\％．19．6．P．\＆P． $\mathcal{P} / \mathrm{t}$ ．
14．TRANSISTOR TESTER．For both P．N．P．and N．P．N．transistors incorpora－ ting moving coil nueter．In metal case，size $4 \frac{1}{2} \times 3 \geq 1$ in．Scale marked in giin aud leakage． $19 / 6$. F．\＆P．3／\％

15．PUSH－PULL OUTPUT STAGE inclusive of transistors with input ath out put transformers to match 3 ohme speech coll，stutable for use with the POCKET RADIO．Kil of parts，illeludiug traLesturs．19／6，P．\＆P．2／－． Wirlag diagram l／e，fiee with parts．

16．PORTABLE AMPLIFIER．On printed circuit for A．C．Mains 200／250 v Size $4 x$ 3h，with tone mind volume control．Complete with Valves：


## BADIO \＆TM COMPONENTS actón 1TD

## 23в HIGH STREET，ACTON LONDON，W．3．

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 The Recorder incorporates the iarest Colaro studio rane ranucrictor Ghe Audiotron high Best quape Anpe listed 226 . and a Handsome Portable carryjng Cabinet with latest attractive-two tone polychrome finish, size $14 \pm \times 15 \times 81 \mathrm{in}$. hiff. ilsted 44.10 .0 . and circuit. Total cost if purchased individually approx!mately e40. Performance Aqual to units in the s60-s80 class. S.A.E. for leaflet.HIGH FIDELITY 12-14 WATT AMPLIFIER TYPE A11 PUSH-PULL ULTRA LINEAR OUTPUT "BUILT.IN" TONE CONTROL PRE-AMP STAGES Two input sockets with associated controls allow mixing of "mike" and Bram, as in Alo. High sensitivity.
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| v. or 12 v . <br> 2 amps. <br> ted Ammeter d seloctor $v$ tor Louvred tal casc fined attrictive nmer bor use. th malas doutput ds. Only |
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BATTERY CHARGERKITS Consisting of Mains Trans ormer. F.w. Bridse. Meta Rectifer, well ventliated stee Crommets panels and circult Carr Cart. $3 /$ extra.
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$v$ or 14 v 2 amps. inciu- $31 / 6$ sive of Ammeter........ 42/9 6 v . or 12 y 4 mmps $42 / 9$ 6 v. or 12 v. 4 amps. with Ammeter and varlable chargo Cliselector … Aniinictivits. $\begin{array}{llllllll}0-1.5 & \text { a., } & 0-3 & \text { a., } \\ 0-4 & \text { a., } & 0-7 & \text { a. } \\ 0-25 & \text { a.. } & 0-60 & \text { a. } & 8 / 9 .\end{array}$

## R.S.C. MAINS TRANSFORMERS (guaraiteed)

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 $40-0-450 \mathrm{v} 250 \mathrm{~mA}$ 6.3v. 4 aC С. T. 5 v . 3 a . $89 / 9$ OUTHUT TIRANSI ORMERS Mudget Batcery Pentode 66:1 for 3S4, etc.
Small Pentade, $5000^{\circ}$ to 30 .
Small Pentode $7 / 8,000 \Omega$ to $3 \Omega$
Standard Pentode 5.000 n to 3 n Standard Pontode 7.8.000 to 3 n $10,000 \Omega$ to $3 \Omega$
 $3 n$ or matched to 15 n
Pumh-Pull $10-12$ watts io match $6 \mathrm{~V} \dot{c}$ or EL84 to $3{ }^{*}-8$ or 15 a
Following types for ? ${ }^{3}$ and 15 , $19 / 9$ Tush-Puil 10-12 watis 6 V6 or EL 94 . $18 / 9$ Push-Pull 15-18 watts. 6LG. KT66 Push-Puil for Mullard 510 Ultra Push-Pull 20 watts. " sectionadiy ${ }^{29 / 8}$


MIDGET MAINS Primaries $200-250 \mathrm{y}$. $50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}, 250 \mathrm{v}, 60 \mathrm{mA}$. 11/9 $50-0-200$ v. 60 mA .6 .3 v. 2 a FILAME: TRA.NFOIMMERS
All with $200-250 \mathrm{v}, 50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$. primarses 6.3 V . 5 a. 5/9; 6.3 v. 2 a, 7/6: 0-4-6.3 v. 2 a. 7/8 2 v. 1 a 7/11; 6.3 v. 3 a 8111 ; 6.3 v. $8 . \Omega$ 17/6: 12 v 1.5 a twlee, 17/6. HMOOTIING CHOKES $150 \mathrm{~mA}, 7-10 \mathrm{H} 250 \mathrm{ohms}$. 100 mA .10 H 200 ohms 80 mA .10 H 350 ohms
60 mA .10 H 400 ohms $60 \mathrm{~mA}, 10 \mathrm{H} 400$ ohms $\because \quad$. All with $200-230-250-v .50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ Primarles: 0-9-15 v. 11 a. 12/8; 0-9-15 v. 2a, 14/8; 0-9-15
 ค. 23/9: 0-9-15 v. 8 a. 38/9.
AUTO (Step uis/Ster down) TRANS. $0-110 / 120-230 / 250$ v. $50-80$ watts. 13/8: MICIROPIIONF, TRANSFORMERS
120:1 high grade clamned, 6/9; 120:1


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Senior 10 watts High Fitelity output Separate Bass and Treble "Cut" and "Boost" controls. Twin separately controlled high gain inputs so that wo instruments such as Guitar and Sime. Two loudspeakers are incorporated, a high Flux l2in. for' Bass notes and a | a high Flux |
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| $7 \times 4 \mathrm{~m}$. elling fical for Treble. Cabinet is | well made and finished as Junior model. S.P, Terms. Deposit $34 / 9$ and 15 Gns. 9 monthly payments of $34 / 9$. Carr. $10 \%$ Super hilpi ts Watt. All facilities as 10 watt. Cabinet size $20 \times 15 \times 13$ ins. pavments of $51 / 6 . \quad 22$ gns. Carr. $12 / 6$.

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LINEAK TAPE PIRE-AMPLIFIEIR Typer irth. Switched Negative feedpack equalisation. Positions for Itecord bitin. 3tin. 7in. and Playback, EMB4 Recording Level indicator. Designed briniarTranseriptor betweren a cotlaro Tape fer, but sultanle for almost any Tape Deek. Only 9 gns. S.A.E. for leaflet.

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$\begin{aligned} & \text { A.C. Voltage: } \\ & 10,000 \text { o.p.v.,. }\end{aligned}$
D.C. Current: 0 -120 $\mu \mathrm{A}, 0-12-800 \mathrm{~mA}$.
$\begin{aligned} & \text { Resistance: } 0-20 \mathrm{~K} \text {, } 0-: \text { Meg. ( } 150 \text {. }\end{aligned}$
$\begin{aligned} & \text { Resistance: 0-20K, o-: Meg. ( } 150 \\ & \text { ohm. } 15 \mathrm{~K} \text { at centre scale.) }\end{aligned}$
Capacitance: 0.005 to $15 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ (at A.C.
Declbels:- 00 to $\pm 83 \mathrm{db}$ ( 600 ohms
$1 \mathrm{~mW} ., \mathrm{odbm}-0.775 \mathrm{v}$.).
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$\begin{aligned} & \text { +2\% fis. A.C. Voltase } \pm 4 \% \text { f.s. } \\ & \text { Resistance } \pm 3 \% \text { of total scale }\end{aligned}$
length.
Size: dinn, x $3^{2} 1 n, x$ lin. Complete
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instrictions.
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Precision butt clear plasticminiature type. Featurina d'arsonval movements lewelled bearing, silvered dials
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Owing to colossal sales of these Owing to colossal sales of these ill meters our range has now been
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$\begin{array}{llll}\text { Suction type. Feedsintomi e inputui all } & 0,1 . Y & \\ \text { Amplifiers, \&ape Recorders, erc. Ideal for } & 14 /- & \text { P. \& } P \text {. }\end{array}$ Amplifiers, ape Recorders, erc. Ideal for

14/=
P. \& P.
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As previously advertised PS. 35 , Sub-miniature plug and socket CB. 25 "Tiny" plug and socket Telescopic 7"-30" Aerial K2.16 5k Edgewise yolume control with switch CR/5 Crystal earplece" MR. 4 Magnetic earpiece P. 217A $2 \frac{1}{\mathrm{in}} \mathrm{in}$. sa. 8 ohm 16/8 ea. TP. 22 K 2tin. round 75 ohm minlature spea1. T. $44 / 7000$ Miniature ariver and output transformer 200 mW .. SS. 3271 Miniature slide switch
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A pocket size meter but with sensttjvity of 20.000 ohms per volt D.C., there-
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All new and unused and in first class condition
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6 pole, 2 way $2 / 6: 6$ pole, 3 way $3 / 6$ 6 pole, 6 way $8 / 6$ : 6 pole, 11 way $16 / 6$ 6 pole, 12 way $17 / 6$ : 8 pole, 2 way $3 / 6$ 8 pole, 4 way $4 / 6: 8$ pole, 6 way $11 / 6$
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10 $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Watt } \\ \text { WIRE－WOOND RESISTORS }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & 1 / 3 \\ & 1 / 6\end{aligned}$ 10 watt
15 watt $\left\{\begin{array}{c}20 \text { ohms－} 10,000 \text { ohits }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & 1 / 6 \\ & 2 /-\end{aligned}$ リ．ラに 1030310 w

> ouble Plag 7in. recl, $\because$, foldft. BO/- Spare $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { hin. reel, j, 2onft. }\end{aligned}$ Long Play 7in. reci, 1, 400 it. 35/- Reels $5 \neq \mathrm{in}$. recl, $1,200 \mathrm{ft} \mathrm{R} / 6 / 631 \mathrm{n}$. $1 / 6$ 5 in , reel, 900 it. . $18 / 8$ 1ifi. $2 /-$
> Standa rd
Ilearl Detbuxer，200／250 v．A．C．． $27 / 6$ ．

CRYSTAL SET BOOKLEA．1／＊ CRYBTAL DIODE（i．E．C＇，${ }^{2 /,}$ GEX34，4／－，OA81，3／－


HIGHGAINTHIPIE－AMPLIFIEKS Tunable channels 1 to 5 ．Gain 18 db ECC84 valve．Kit price $29 / 6$ or $49 / 6$ with power pack．Details 6d．（PCC84 valves if preferrad．
IHND III 1．T．A．－Same prices．
Tunable channels o to 13 ．Gaín 17 dB ．
paxolin pancls， $1 \sigma^{\circ} \times \sigma^{\circ}$ ． $1-$
Diniature（ontacel Cooled Ifeetiliors $250 \mathrm{~V} 50 \mathrm{~mA}, 7 / 8: \quad 250 \mathrm{~V} 60 \mathrm{~mA}, \quad \varepsilon / \mathrm{B}^{\circ} 250 \mathrm{~V}$ $85 \mathrm{~mA}, 9 / 6 ; 200 \mathrm{~mA}, 21 /-300 \mathrm{~mA}, 2 \% / 6$ ． TVetc．．Silicon Eut，IIn．Rectifter． 125 V $300 \mathrm{~mA}, 6 / 8: 250 \mathrm{~V}, 300 \mathrm{~mA}, 14 / 6$.
Selenium liect， $300 \mathrm{~V} 85 \mathrm{~mA}, 5 /$－
coils Wearite＂P＂type，3／－each．
Osmor Midget＂Q＂type，adj．dust core． from 4／－each．All ranges．
Telftron Ibiliti．ise and Med．T．R．F with reactions， $4 /-$ Med，wave D．R． $3^{\prime} 6$. Irtrrite Aeriaik，M．，8／9：M．and L．， $12 / 6$ Donior Frerite Ron Arrials．L．and NI for transistor circuits， $10 /-$ each．
 11．F．Chokes，2／6．Oemor Q（1，6／9
T．R．F．（olls，A／HF，7／－pair；HAX， $3 / \%^{2}$ Repanco DRR2，4／E DFX1， $2 / 6$.
Neon Mains Tester serewilriver， $5 /=$ solder Mandiograder，4d．3ul．the，5／＊ IBlack crackje tanat．Air drying， $3 /-11 n$.

Aluminiun chassis， 18 s．w．g．Plain undrilled， 4 sides，ryeted corners， lattice nxing holes， $41 n$, sides．$x$ xin 8／6； $14 \times 111 \mathrm{~m} .10 / 6 ; 15 \times$ 141n． $12 / 6$ ； $18 \times 16 \times$ Sin．， $16 / 6$ ．
Aluminjumirancin， 18 s．w．g．， $12 \times 121 \mathrm{n}$ ． 4／6： $14 \times 9 \ln ., 4 /=12 \times 8 \operatorname{in} ., 3 /-; 10 \times 71 n$. 2／3， $8 \times 6$ xn．． $2 /$－

> 6 ＇IRANistsTOR IfADIO MEI）．$\alpha$ First class components to make a 6 iransistor 2 wave band sumerhel chassis． ldeal for portable or table raulo．All ldeal Lor portable or table rauio．All parts liciuding BVA tiancistors ierril EXCLUDING spealter and cabinet．P．\＆ H．2／6．Simple instructions $1 / 6^{\circ}$（ $F$ ree with kit）． 35 ohm 7 x 4 in．

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rV Plug－in＂V＂Aerial 16＇6
JA．Kg．English open cirnit，2／6．Closed circuit 4／8．Grundi～ts pe， 3 pin，I／o．
JACIS PLUUS．Finglish， $3 /-$ ；screened $4 / \mathrm{m}$ ．Urumdig， ；pils，：3／b．
Wirewound Ext．§peaker Oontrjl． $10 \Omega 3 /-$ ，
 O．3n，PORMERS 5937 or 4 and cans TV＇I or ： 2 ，in
 SLOW MOTION DRIVES．fi：1， $2 / 3$ ．
SOLON IRON， $25 w, 2004$ or $2304,24 /-$

##  29／：H．F．coll，aerlal coil oscillator detector transiormer and heater choke detector transiormer and heater choke  kit．Iason！chassis with cillbrated dial． combonents and 4 valves，\＄ 6.5 .0 ．

MAINS DROPPER．： $\ln$＇in．With eudingtahle sliders， $0.3 \mathrm{~A}, 1,016$ ohmes $4 / 3: 0.2 \mathrm{~A}, 1,000$ shma， $4 / 3$ ． LINE CORD．0．3A 60 nhina per foot， 0.24100 nhtin ber fool，2－way，1／－per foot；3－wisy 1／－per ifot． HLIKE TRANS． $50-1,3 / 8 ; 60: 1$ ，potted， $10 / 8$ ． P．V．C，Conn．Wire，$x$ colours，single or st rabrler，2d．


 i1．Mamples，M．A．F．Expanded Motal，（iohl， $1:$ 又 I： i1．Marn

1．F．TKANSIOREMEIRS 7／6 mair $465 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ slug tuning miniature can width．Data sheet supplied．


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AIRIENTJTR．ANSISTOR Type D3035， 7.3 CT＇Push Pull
Type D3035，7．3 CT：Push Pull to 3 ohms for OC72，etc．， $1 \times$ i $x$ in．． $5 / 6$ ． Type D3034． 1.75 ： $1 C^{T}$ ．Push Pull Driver Ior ocid，etc． $1 x$ ：$x$ ynn．， $8 / 6$. Iype D $053,11.5 ; 1$ Output to 3 ohms for type D16\％， 18.2 ： 1 Output to 3 ohms for OC72，etc．，$x \frac{1}{2} x$ in．， $12 /=$ ． 3 ohms 10 Type Dsu3， $45^{2}$ ： 1 Driver Transformer， type Din， $10 /$ ．
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Type VCl545， 5 K with switch，dia．0．91n．8／ Type VC1760， 5 K with switch，dia． 0.7 t ：． $10 / 6$ Deal aid ear plece xial or magnetic． $7 / \beta^{10 /}$

## WEYRAD

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4 x iin． $9 / 6$.
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B．Is．lyockot z Transistor．M．W． and L．W．Radio Kit，22／6．Phones $7 / 6$ or deal ald arpiece，7／6．Batt．2／－．

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BRITAIN'S MOST COMPREHENSIVE PRACTICAL COURSE IN RADIO•ELECTRONICS TELEVISION!


# Practical Wireless 

Vol. XXXVIII No. 664 JUNE, 1962


## Contents



## ANOTHER BLUEPRINT

ANOTHER double-sided blueprint is presented free with every copy of this issue; the two sides cover Designs Nos. 3 and 6 in our series of six graded constructional articles. Design No. 3 (The Troubadour) is a seven-transistor pocket portable receiver which has been designed to fit into a readily available plastic cabinet. Blueprint 3 gives complete details of the circuit employed in the receiver and also clear diagrams of the wiring on both sides of the paxolin panel which forms the "chassis" of the set. The diagrams are in fact considerably larger than the actual receiver and with their aid, no difficulty should be experienced in making the set. The Troubadour covers both medium and long waves and will give good reception of BBC programmes and a large number of Continental programmes (especially in the evening).

The Everest Tuner-Design No. 6-is a six-valve unit for reception of the Home, Light, and Third (or Network Three) programmes on the BBC's VHF/F.M. service. As is well known, reception of medium and long wave broadcasts, anywhere except close to the transmitter, is marred, particularly at night, by interference between stations operating on adjacent wavelengths. The broadcasts on VHF provide a means of obtaining interference-free reception over a wide area and the Everest Tuner has been designed to take account of this fact. Broadcasts on VHF are also of greater fidelity both as regards frequency response and dynamic range and the Everest will provide a high quality signal suitable for feeding to a hi-fi amplifier.

The use of switch-tuning for the three programmes simplifies the tuning of the receiver for the non-technical user and is made possible by crystal control of the local oscillator circuit in each of the three switched positions. Thus, tuning drift is eliminated and construction made easier.

## COMMERCIAL RADIO

Although the report of the Pilkington Committee has not yet been received, and it is not known whether it will recommend the introduction of commercial radio stations in Great Britain, there have been several demonstrations of the form which commercial broadcasts would take if eventually permitted. One such was recently given in Bristol on closed-circuit-permission for a public broadcast had been refused. Two hours listening was provided to demonstrate the possible coverage of a day's programmes and the advertisements in the broadcasts included good support by both national firms and local traders, no charge being made for the programme time. Publicity was given in the local Press and attendance at the demonstration included representatives of more than 50 of the independent radio companies in other parts of the country.

Demonstrations of this sort seem to us to be of great value in enabling the possibilities of commercial radio to be explored without actually transmitting programmes. Certainly, it is more constructive than operating "pirate" transmitters which can only cause more overcrowding of the medium wave broadcast band.
|||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||เ|||||||||||||||||||||||||
Our next issue dated July, will be published on June 7 th.


## NEWS AT HOME AND ABROAD

## Broadcast Receiving Licences

${ }^{r}$ ]HE following statement shows the approximate number of Broadcast Receiving Licences in force at the end of February, 1962, in respect of wireless receiving stations situated within the various Postal Regions of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The numbers include Licences issued to blind persons without payment.

| Region |  |  | Tolal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| London . ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | 648,410 |
| Home Counties | .. |  | 599.572 |
| Midland |  |  | 434.334 |
| North Eastern. | . |  | 465,043 |
| North Western | $\ldots$ |  | 401.655 |
| South Western |  |  | 355.385 |
| Wales and Border Co | Counties |  | 206.133 |
| Total England and W | Wales |  | 3,110.538 |
| Scotland |  | $\because$ | 335.886 |
| Northern Ireland | . |  | 107.385 |
| Grand Total | $1 .$. |  | 3,553,809 |

Embassy Send-off for Demonstration Unit
$A^{N}$ attache of the Belgian Embassy in London, $M$. Jean Coene, inspected a mobile demonstration unit belonging to the Westminster firm of Avo Limited before it left London for Belgium recently on an extended tour of the Continent.

The unit carries a complete range of Avo's electrical, electronic and nucleonic measuring instruments for demonstrations at Government departments, technical colleges and industrial concerns in Belgium as well as in Holland, Denmark, Sweden and Norway.

## Equipment Exhibition in Milan

'I'O promote sales in the rapidly expanding market for electronic equipment in lialy, EM! Electronics Ltd. held a special exhibition of latest equipment in the Museo Nazionale della Scienza e della Technica in Milan during March.

Senior members of Italian industrial and scientific organisations visited the exhibition and saw films featuring the EMIDEC range of fully-transistorised electronic computers and EMI machine tool control system.
Among the exhibits were EMI closed-circuit television, nuclear health monitoring equipment, professional tape recorders, oscilloscopes, stroboscopes and special electronic tubes and valves. The EMIAC II analogue computer was also shown.

A working model of the EMI Robotug driverless truck and a scale model of an EMIDEC 1100 electronic digital computer were also displayed.

## Equipment for New Ships

'I'HREE new ships which have just been completed are fitted with radio, radar. intercommunication, navigational and other equipment supplied by the Telecommunications Division of Associated Electrical Industries Lid. They are the "Ocean Transport", built for the Houlder Line Lid.; the "Teakwood", for John I. Jacobs and Co. Lid.; and the "Clan Graham ", built for the Clan Line Steamers Ltd.

Equipment supplied for the "Ocean Transport" includes main W.T. R.T. transmitter,

M. Jean Coene (right), an attaché at the Belgian Embassy in London, is seen here inspecting one of the instruments in the Avo mobile demonstration unit before it left London today for Belgium on an extended tour of the Continent.
H.F. W.T. transmitter, main receiver, portable lifeboat equipment, "escort" radar, broadcast receiver with seven loudspeakers and an emergency assembly.

For the "Teakwood" the main W.T. R.T. transmitter, H.F. W.T. transmitter, main receiver, emergency assembly, portable lifeboat equipment, communal aerial system with 45 outlet boxes, escort chart plan with reflection plotter, Bergen Nautik log, echo sounder 28-channel VHF transmitter/ receiver and direction finders have been supplied.

The "Clan Graham" has been fitted with a main W.T. transmitter, H.F. W.T. transmitter, main receiver, emergency assembly, 28-channel transmitter/ receiver reflection plotter and broadcast receiver.

## Public Address Equipment for Theatre

## PUBLIC address equipment for the theatre-assembly hall

 at the Harrow (Middlesex) factory of Kodak Ltd. has been supplied and installed by Associated Electrical Industries Ltd. The equipment is used for dances, theatrical productions and other social functions.The apparatus includes a main control console housing 60 W amplifiers, turntable and control panels. a portable transistorised mixer unit and loudspeakers on both sides of the hall consisting of two 5 ft . line source loudspeaker units, two 18 in . bass speakers and two pressure horn speakers.

## EEV Klystron for Marconi Traffic Radar

ANEW application for English Electric Klystrons has been found in the Marconi "Peta" Traffic Radar equipment. More than 60 sets of this equipment are now in use with police forces at home and overseas.

The klystron used in this equipment is the K357, a low voltage reflex type operating in the range $10660-10720 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ and giving a typical output power of 12 mW .

It was specially developed by English Electric Valve Co. Ltd. for this application with its requirements for low power consumption, portability and a long and reliable life.


The Marconi Sea-EVA (Electronic Velocity Analyser), was experimentally demonstrated recently to a technical representative of the Dunlop Sports Co. Ltd. as being suitable for gathering data on golf balls.

## Testing Golf Balls

T'O the manufacturer of golf balls it is important to have precise and continuous information of the speed of the ball in flight, but this has hitherto been impossible.

Recently the Marconi SeaEVA (electronic velocity analyser), the normal function of which is to provide an extremely accurate assessment of aircraft landing speeds on carriers, was experimentally demonstrated to a technical representative of the Dunlop Sports Co. Lid. as being suitable for gathering data on golf balls. The data (velocity/ time) is displayed in graphical form on a teledeltos paper recorder for subsequent analysis and storage.

## Motorists Radio Service

']HE Automobile Association announced today that it has asked the Pilkington Committee on Broadcasting to recommend that approval be given for the A.A. to operate an on-the-spot local road and traffic information service to motorists, obtainable through their car radios.
The A.A. has asked for a frequency on the medium wavelength on which broadcasts can be made over a radius of 10 to 12 miles, and for permission to operate a mobile broadcasting, unit which would "cover"
big outdoor events attracting thousands of motorists such 'as race meetings, agricultural shows and public displays.
An A.A. spokesman said: "As long ago as 1956 the A.A. was exploring the possibility of providing a broadcast service of information for motorists listening on car radios.

## Hi-Fi in U.S. Trade Centre

H-FI sound amplifying equipment has been installed by Associated Electrical Industries Ltd. in the United States Trade Centre in London. This is an exhibition centre where ranges of American-made goods ate displayed by the manufacturers themselves or by their accredited U.K. importers to the trade in Britain. The system, ordered by the U.S. Embassy from the Sound Equipment Group of AEI Electronic Apparatus Division, is used for making announcements but later it is intended to relay music.
The large size and awkward shape of the centre presented problems which made it difficult to obtain good sound coverage. Furthermore, the difficulties were increased when exhibition stands were erected. These were overcome by siting selected louidspeakers on baffle boards which were substituted for the existing acoustic tiles of the ceiling at certain points.


A SWITCH-TUNED, VHF/F.M. TUNER.

7HIS receiver is a tuner unit for the BBC's VHF/F.M. service and is intended for use with a hi-fi amplifier (if the best results are to be obtained from it). It is a superhet which uses the standard intermediate frequency of $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Six valves are used, two of which are "double" types-a double triode and a double diode. The six valves perform the following functions: R.F. amplifier; local oscillator; mixer; I.F. amplifier; limiter and discriminator.

## R.F. and Oscillator Circuits

The R.F. stage uses an EF80 in a conventional circuit (see Fig. 1 on the Blueprint), the purpose of this stage is two-fold; firstly, it amplifies the signal from the aerial and, secondly, it isolates the oscillator circuit from the aerial, thus preventing radiation from the receiver which might otherwise interfere with reception on neighbouring receivers.

The oscillator circuit is not conventional and is designed to eliminate the criticism that F.M. receivers are difficult to tune (at least so far as nontechnical users are concerned). One of the difficulties in most home-built F.M. receivers is the drift of tuning with time as the set warms up; of course, this can be eliminated by the use of combinations of capacitors having negative and positive temperaturc coefficients, but for most amateurs, this would complicate the construction of the receiver too much. Another difficulty is that of tuning the receiver accurately; F.M. receivers differ from A.M. receivers in that, off tune, they generally give a distorted output rather than a diminished output. The correct tuning
point is often very hard to locate by ear, and it is wise to include a visual tuning indicator (magiceye) in the design. Maximum or minimum shadow angle in the indicator can be made to represent the correct tuning point of the receiver. However, the inclusion of such an indicator increases the expense of the set and does not sufficiently simplify the tuning of the receiver for the lay user.
The difficulties mentioned above can be eliminated by the use of a switch-tuned oscillator circuit in which a three-position switch is used to select the three available programmes - Home, Light, and Third (or Network Three). In order to do this, of course, the oscillator circuit must be inherently stable both with time and temperature


Fig. 7-The chassis drilling dimensions for the coilformer bases.
so that no appreciable drift occurs. The usual method of doing this is to use some form of automatic frequency control (AFC). A voltage is derived from the output of the receiver which is proportional to the error in tuning. This voltage is used to operate a device connected in the oscillator circuit which is in effect a voltagedependent capacitor. The sense of the voltage is arranged so that if the tuning of the set varies, the oscillator tuning is altered to correct the error. In the oscillator circuit of this receiver, tuning drift is eliminated rather than corrected. This is
made possible by the use of crystal control of each of the three frequencies required for reception of programmes.

## Crystal Unit

The three crystals used are enclosed in a glass envelope rather like a valve and in fact the unit fits a B7G valveholder. Of course, the crystal unit must be purchased bearing in mind the area in which it is to be used since the required frequencies will differ from area to area. The units are made by Standard Telephones and Cables Ltd., and a table giving the type numbers for various areas is given on page 118. The type required must be specified when ordering.

The oscillator circuit uses an ECC81 double triode (V2), the crystal unit being connected between the two cathodes, and the tuning trimmers between chassis and one of the anodes. The switching can be seen in Fig. 1 on the Blueprint.

The R.F. and oscillator valves are connected via C5 and C8 respectively to the mixer valve (V3). The oscillator circuit operates on the fifth overtone of the crystal in use at $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ below the signal frequency; the difference frequency ( $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ) is picked out in the anode circuit of $V 3$ by the primary of IFT1.

The I.F. signals are passed to the grid of V4, the I.F, amplifier, via the secondary of IFT1. After amplification, the signals reach the grid of V 5 , the limiter, via IFT2.

## The Limiter

Here, it is necessary to explain the function and operation of the limiter stage. As is well known, with frequency modulation, the amplitude of the carrier radiated from the transmitter is kept at at constant level and only the frequency is varied. The detector circuit in an F.M. receiver is therefore not required to respond to an A.M. signal. Also, the effects of external interference on the broadcasts received should be minimised as much as possible in order to ensure reception of high quality and high entertainment value. Most interference is mainly amplitude modulated and if



The underchassis wiring of the Everest.
the detector in the F.M. set will respond to A.M. then a method will have to be found to remove the amplitude modulation prior to the detector. This is the function of the limiter stage.

The limiter valve is operated with low anode and screen grid potentials; this has the effect of reducing the voltages necessary at the grid of the valve to give saturated anode current and to cut off the anode current completely. The result is that if the input signal is large enough, the valve anode current is saturated and cut off on alternate


Fig. 8-The construction of LI, L2, and L3.
signal half-cycles. The peak excursions of the waveform are cut off by this process and, as it is the peaks which are mainly affected by amplitude modulation, this is removed or reduced considerably. The valvê operates with grid current flowing and the time constant of the components in the grid circuit (R16 and C19) is arranged further to reduce the effects of amplitude modulation.

## Discriminator Circult

The detector circuit or discriminator comprises IFT3 and V6, a double diode. The circuit used is of the Foster-Seeley type rather than the ratio type-it was felt that the former circuit would make construction easier for the amateur constructor. The operation of the circuit will not be dealt with here since it can be found in many text-books.


Fig. 9-The winding dato for IFTI añd IFT2.
The audio output appears across R19 and R20 which are in effect in series across V6A and V6B. The audio signals are fed via R21 and C25 to the audio output socket. R22 and C26 comprise the de-emphasis network (at the transmitter, the higher audio frequencies are emphasised and must be corrected in the receiver).

The power supply used for the tuner should give a well smoothed H.T. output at about 150 V and be rated at 50 mA . A 6.3 V supply is needed for the valve heaters; it should be rated at 2 A .

## Construction

Construction of the receiver should begin with drilling and preparing the chassis (see Fig. 3). The chassis can be made larger than that given on the Blueprint if desired and this would give improved heat dissipation (to be mentioned next month). Chassis drilling details for the I.F. transformers are given in Fig. 7 (page 116).
When the chassis has been prepared, the coils and transformers should be constructed. Full details are given in Figs. 8, 9 and 10. L1 and L3
can be close-wound on a former of about fin. diameter, such as a pencil, which is then removed, and L2 can be wound direct on to its former. Note that L1 and L3 are self-supporting and use no former-see Fig. 8. Finally, the turns of each coil can be pulled apart to give the correct turns-spacing.

The tinned copper wire used for the coil and transformer lead-out wires ( 18 or 20 s.w.g.) should be prepared by unwinding about 4 ft . from the reel and clamping the end in a vice. The other end is then gripped in a pair of pliers and the wire is stretched until a distinct "give" is felt and the wire lengthens slightly. The wire will now be found to be stiff and springy.


Fig. 10-The construction of IFT3.
table 1

| STC Crystal | $\underset{\text { Transmitters }}{\text { BBC }}$ | Crystal Frequencies (Mc/s) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | LIGHT THIRD HOME |  |  |
| 4434/A | Wrotham | 78.4 | 89.6 | 82.8 |
| 4434/B | Peterborough | 79.4 | 81.6 | 83.8 |
| 4434 C | Rosemarkie | 78.9 | 81.1 | 83.3 |
| 4434/D | N.H. Tor | 77.4 | 79.6 | 81.8 |
| 4434/E | Sutton Coldfield | 77.6 | 79.8 | 82.0 |
| 4434/F | Pontop Pike | 77.8 | 80.0 | 82.2 |
| 4434/G | Meldrum | 78.0 | 80.2 | 82.4 |
| 4434/G | Blaen Plwyf | 78.0 | 80.2 | 82.4 |
| 4434/H | Holme Moss | 78.6 | 80.8 | 83.0 |
| 4434/F | Rowridge | 77.8 | 80.0 | 82.2 |
| 4434/B | Divis | 79.4 | 81.6 | 83.8 |
| 4434/1/ | Douglas | 77.7 | 89.9 | 82.1 |
| 4434/K | Kirk O'Shots | 79.2 | 81.4 | 83.6 |
| 4434/C | Llanddona | 78.9 | 81.1 | 83.3 |
| 4434/L | Llangollen | 78.2 | 80.4 | 82.6 |

[^2]Before L2 can be fixed in position, two 5 in . wires. prepared as described above, must be passed through holes 3 and 4 in the base of the coil former and soldered to the eyelets leaving about lin. to project inside the coil can and about 4 in . outside. The screening can may then be placed in position and the retaining lugs bent over. A meter can be used to check that neither wire is contacting the screening can.


The arrangement of the concentric trimmers around the programme switch.

## Making IFTI and IFT2

In the construction of IFT1 and IFT2 (Fig. 9), the coil nearest to the base of the former is wound on first. The coil wire is anchored by passing it through one of the eyelets and a few overlapping turns wound on. The required number of turns. side by side. then follow and a further number of overlapping turns is wound on. Balsa cement is then thinly applied to the turns to fix them in position. When the cement is dry, the surplus (overlapping) turns are unwound and the ends of the coil reduced to $\frac{3}{3}$ in. in length and bared for about $\frac{1}{6} \mathrm{in}$. and tinned with solder.

In order to wind the second coil, several overlapping turns of wire are wound on to the former touching the lower winding and in the same direction. Then. about 35 turns should be wound on and anchored with Balsa cement. When the cement has dried, turns should be unwound from the end of the coil nearest to the lower coil until the start of the second coil is at the required distance from the lower coil-4mm. Turns should then be removed from the upper coil until the correct number of turns remains (28).

## Completing the I.F. Transformers

The ends of the second coil are, like the first, shortened to about $\frac{3}{3}$ in, and bared for about $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$. and tinned with solder. The eyeletted paxolin wafers should now be placed in position at the tops of the formers. The 18 or 20 s.w.g. tinned copper wire that was previously stretched and straightened may now be cut into lengths of about 5 in. and passed through holes 1, 3, 4 and 6 of the


Fig. II (top)-The dimensions of the R.F. screen. Fig. 12 (bottom)-The dimensions of the I.F. screen.
formers of IFT1 and IFT2 (Fig. 9). The wires should be soldered to the two eyelets through which each passes, one in the base of the coil and one in the paxolin wafer at the top of the coil. Care should be taken to ensure that the wires do not protrude so far through the eyelets in the paxolin wafer that they will contact the screening can of the coil when this is in position.

The ends of the coils can now be soldered to their appropriate wires taking care not to make bulky joints which will contact the screening can. Next, the 50 pF condensers can be soldered to the wire connections as shown in Fig. 9, positioning them at the tops of the coils.

## Meter Check

If a meter is available, it is as well at this stage to check that there is continuity between wires 1 and 3 and 4 and 6 of the coils. The screening cans may now be placed over the formers and the fixing lugs bent over to hold them in position (make sure that the holes in the lugs coincide with the threaded holes in the bases of the coil formers). The meter may now be used to check that none of the coil wires is shorting to the cans.

## Making IFT3

For 1FT3. the lower winding is wound on in the same manner as for IFT1 and ITF2. Full winding details are given in Fig. 10. The upper winding of ITT3 is "bifilar" wound. This is wound by taking two lyd lengths of the coil wire ( 36 s.w.g. enam. in this instance) and winding on the required number of turns ( 18 turns of the double wire are required making in effect 36 turns). The spacing between the two coils is 3.5 mm and must be accurate even if several attempts at winding the coils have to be made.
(Continued on page 145)

# How to make 

 A.C. AMMETERS
## USING READILY AVAILABLE TRANSFORMERS TO GIVE LINEAR SCALES ON HOMEBUILT METERS

By S. W. Hunt

JHE method of calculating the main shunt value was described last month. Fig. 4 shows the universal shunt arrangement (which can be extended to any desired number of ranges, by tapping at suitable points), and the calculation of the authors' shunt is given in full below Fig. 4 as a typical example.

## Trial and Error

$\therefore$ It may also be mentioned that trial-and-error methods for making shunts are equally permissible for the non-mathematical experimenter, provided these are made carefully, and at first using very small test currents, so that there is no danger of overloading the meter movement. Several yards of bare tinned copper wire of about 0.7 mm diameter can be stretched zig-zag between two supports and fed with a small known A.C. current from a heater transformer and series resistor. Short thick leads, with test-prods are connected to the winding "a"" of the transformer (Fig. 2 last month), and touched very close together on to the currentcarrying wire. The prods are then slowly slid apart until the meter shows the deflection desired for the current flowing in the wire. The length of wire then between the two test-prods is the length of the' same wire required for the necessary shun:. and it should be measured and cut off from insulated wire of the same diameter.

- This procedure just described should be made for the most sensitive range desired. For all higher ranges, this shunt will be tapped, and the taps can be found by trial-and-error as follows: the required shunt for the most sensitive range having been found as above, it should be cut and soldered to the transformer winding "a", using for the present bare wire. The test prods are now wired in series with a low voltage A.C. supply and variable resistor set so that the desired full-scale current flows when the prods are shorted together. One prod is then securely fixed to one end of the existing shunt, which is going to be the "common" terminal (it does not matter which is aken). The other prod is at frst also touched on to this point. and then slowly slid away along the existing shunt, until the meter reads full-scale. The moving prod has then arrived at the correct point for making a tap for the range in question. In this way, all the taps for all the desired ranges can be found, and

(Continued from page 30 of the May issue)

in fact this method is probably the simpler, even for mathematically minded constructors, if many ranges are desired. It is in cases of one single range, or at most two ranges, that calculation is simpler and quicker than trial-and-error. To complete the trial-and-error method, there is still one final step. When all taps required on the experimental shunt have been located, the question of current-carrying capacity
 must be considered when replacing the experimental shunt by separate final shunts between the input terminals of the various ranges. Each sub-shunt must be capable of carrying the current represented by the input terminal to which it is connected on the side away from the common terminal. Any length of wire, as shunt between two terminals, which is to be capable of

Fig. 4-The circuit of a 2 -range universal shunt.

## CALCULATIONS:

IA range:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R I a+R I D & =\frac{100 R 4+50}{1-100} \\
& =\frac{(100 \times 1.175)+50}{1000-100} \\
& =0.186 \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

10A range:
Here Rla is the shunt, and Rlb is added to R4. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R I a & =\frac{100(R 4+R I b)+50}{1-100} \\
& =\frac{100(1.175+R 1 b)+50}{10,000-100}
\end{aligned}
$$

which simplifies to

$$
99 R 1 a-R 1 b=1.675 \Omega
$$

The equations are thus:

$$
99 R 1 a-R 1 b=1.675
$$

$$
R 1 a+R 1 b=0.186
$$

( 1 ) + (2) give $100 \mathrm{R} / a=1.861$
$R / a=0.0186 \Omega$
Thus, from (2),

$$
R 1 b=0.167 \Omega
$$

carrying a current " $n$ "-times larger than its actual rated current, must be replaced by " $n$ " strands of the same wire in parallel, each " $n$ " times as iong, when making the final sub-shunts. Current-rating should be very conservative, to avoid any heating, which would cause variation of copper resistance and consequent drift of readings. Not more than 2 A per strand of 0.7 mm diameter tinned copper wire should be allowed. This does not, of course, apply for the experimental shunt for determining the position of taps-but work at high current should then be rapid, so as not to give the shunt wire time to heat up.

Of course, copper is in one sense undesirable for shunts because of its high temperature coefficient of resistance, but the use of resistance wires has its problems, too. Most resistance wires in the hands of the amateur cannot take solder, so that pinches and cleats are required, with consequent dangers of insecure contacts after a time, which -in the author's experience-can often cause errors exceeding the thermal errors of copper, in


Fig. 5-An adaptor mains-monitor for a multimeter. whatsoever is required.

The meter is then usable on A.C. or as a D.C. ammeter, according to which set of terminals is used. It is not necessary to disconnect R2 or the rectifier when using the D.C. - shunt; these components cause no disturbance. Thus no switching

The extensions can be carried even further: the negative side of the meter, bottom of R3, and the A.C. amps common terminal may be wired together and used as common/minus for everything, A.C. and D.C. The positive meter terminal may be connected through the usual series resistors to further terminals, giving D.C. voltage ranges. In the same way (but now switching is required), A.C. voltage and ohms ranges may be added, to complete a whole multimeter. Alternatively, merely the transformer and main shunt R1 are required, the winding " $b$ " of the transformer feeding direct into an existing multimeter on a low voltage A.C. range. The author has built such a unit as an addition to his multimeter, which is fixed (removable at will) on a bracket above the workbench. The 10 V A.C. range is used. It has a resistance of 40 k , which transforms to $4 \Omega$ at the input to the $1: 100$ transformer, and with these values the shunts were calculated accordingly, as described above. Fig. 5 shows the circuit of this unit, in fact built as a mainspower consumption meter in series with the mains power-plugs on the workbench.

## Calibration

As already said as a main feature of this type of A.C. ammeter, the scale is virtually linear, as for a D.C. moving-coil ammeter. There is, however, a very slight remaining cramping
such low-resistance circuits. If the constructor has solderable resistance wire available, all well and good The author has a type known as Isotan-Soft, which solders excellently, has an extremely low temperature coefficicnt, and good current-capacity. With great difficulty he has been able to obtain two reels of this, one of $10 \leq 2$ per yard, and the other of $2.5 \Omega$ per yard. But the necessary lengths for the shunts here required are very short with this wire, so that cutting error easily exceeds the thermal errors of copper. Thus, in spite of the availability of resistance wire which could be soldered, copper shunts were chosen.

The trial-and-error systematic method of making shunts and universal shunts, described above, is of course not limited to the type of A.C. ammeter described in this article. It is applicable just as well to D.C. shunting of moving-coil meters.

## D.C. Ranges

The type of A.C. ammeter described in this article is, of course, not usable on D.C., though D.C. within the rated A.C. range values should normally cause no damage: apart from possibly an initial kick, the meter reading is simply zero on D.C. It is, however, a very useful and neat extension for the ambitious constructor to make R3 in Fig. 1 (last month) in the form of a universal shunt as just described, fitted with its own set of terminals.
below about $10 \%$ of full scale, and thus calibration is advisable for best accuracy. This is not essential, however, and a linear scale 0 to 10 will do reasonably well, the final adjustment being made with R 2 as described in the text above.

## Marking the Scale

The author suggests the following procedure, which automatically includes any calibration necessary:

The meter should first of all be connected up into the circuitry as described in this article, and all shunts, etc. finalised, working on full-scale deflections on the existing-scale of the meter. The current should then be reduced in steps of onetenth of an amp, working on the 1 A . range. The corresponding readings on the existing scale should be noted for later use. The current itself may be measured either with another ready calibrated A.C. ammeter in series, or by measuring the voltage drop across a known series resistor, using the lowest A.C. voltage range of a multimeter.

The meter should then be opened and the scaleplate carefully removed by unscrewing the two holding screws. Whilst working on this scaleplate. the meter casing should be closed again to avoid unnecessary entry of dirt or other foreign bodies.
(Continued on page 146)

# selivicing TAPE RECORDERS 

## THE MAGNETIC RECORDING TAPE

By T. S. Smith

$\rightarrow$GENERAL picture of the recording process and the various circuit sections involved has been given in previous articles in this series; this article will be concerned with a more detailed discussion. Let us begin with the tape itself. It is not intended to delve into the construction of magnetic recording tape in any detail, but one or two points will be of interest. Magnetic recording tape was first made with paper as the base, but it was not long afterwards that cellulose acetate took its place. Then development was towards a polyvinyl chloride (PVC) base. The overall development in this direction is just about being completed by the use of a polyester film base. and this is now replacing PVC tape-in America it is used almost exclusively.

Magnetic recording tape requires about six major features. These are [i] freedom from "pinholes", thereby reducing drop-out effects ("drop-outs" refer to lack of recording due to some imperfection in the tape): [ii] good fexibility, which permits the tape to remain in intimate contact with the heads (it also facilitates winding): [iii] maximum strength to avoid frequent breakages; [iv] high resistance to temperature changes and storage defects; [v] immunity to curling and good dimensional stability over a wide range of conditions of temperature and humidity; and [vi] the best possible finish to avoid undue wear of the heads and to enhance recording and replay quality.

All these features are given by the modern tapes now available and, as already intimated. improvements are always being made towards better and better quality. The tape base is, of course, coated with an iron oxide of characteristics to provide low noise and good high-frcquency sensitivity (i.e., high coercivity-see page 53, May issue). Where the base is of PVC. a homogeneous mixture of the plastic and the magnetic material is arranged in the form of a finish for the working side of the tape. Even so, some of the oxide ultimately leaves the tape and often finds its way on to the heads and associated mechanism, as we shall see later. The recording pattern, in terms of magnetism, is thus imparted to the oxide side of the tape, and in that way the sound signals are stored.
(Continued from page 54 of the May issue)

## Tape Tracks

There are three chief recording systems. These are sometimes called "whole track ", "half track" and "quarter track" (or " single track", "twotrack" and "four-track" respectively) and are illustrated in Fig. 9.

Single-track recording (Fig. 9a) is used essentially by professional recordists for extremely high quality studio work at a tape speed of $30 \mathrm{in} . / \mathrm{sec}$. Two-track recording (Fig. 9b) is practised by the majority of amateur operators, and most domestic recorders in present use employ two-track working. This type of recording is also used professionally. Four-track recording (Fig. 9c) is gradually


Fig. 9-Recording tracks and directions: (a) single track recording, (b) two-track recording and (c) fourtrack recording. (The arrows on the tracks indicate the top of each track during the recording process.)
becoming more popular, but there are several schools of thought concerning the desirability of dividing a $\frac{1}{4}$ in. tape into four tracks.

There is no doubt that it is possible to secure better results in a less exacting manner by using as much tape width as possible. With full-track recording, the replay gap length covers about 0.215 in . of the oxide face. With half-track operation this is reduced to about 0.1 in ., with 0.03 in . between the two tracks, and with four-track
working the width of each track is about 0.043 in ., with 0.025 in . spacing between the tracks.
However, at the time of writing it would seem that four-track parameters have not been finalised, since some machines are arranged for 0.039 in . and (at least one) 0.03 lin. track widths. The track spacing also tends to differ somewhat, as also do the equalisation recommendations.

## General Parameters

The generally recommended direction of tape motion (for all systems) is from left to right with the coated side of the tape away from the observer and the recording being made on the upper track. It is thus usually necessary to remove the spools and invert the tape (by transposing the two spools) for recording and replay on the other track unless the machine features switching to enable recordings to be made on the lower track with the tape movement reversed,

Four-track operation is undoubtedly useful for stereo work as it gives the same playing time as mono on a two-track system (assuming the same speed, of course). A four-track record/replay head has two gaps and two windings. Thus, in one direction of the spools two tracks are catered for and by changing over the spools (as for twotrack working) the other two tracks are produced. This arrangement gives compatibility for playing back two-track tapes-as will be seen shortly.
The idea can be better understood by reference to Fig. 10. In Fig. 10a it will be seen that with the tape placed on the left-hand spool and travelling in the direction shown, tracks 1 and 3 can be recorded or replayed. If we assume two-channel stereo, then track 1 will accommodate the signal of one channel ( A ), and track 3 the signal of the other channel (B). In order to record on the other two available tracks the tape is simply inverted as shown by the positions of tracks 1 and 3 in Fig. 10b. Tracks 4 and 2 may then be recorded or replayed.
On four-track mono it is usual first to record on track 1 with gap A, reverse the tape physically by transposing the spools to record on track 2 with gap B. reverse the tape again to record on track 3 with gap B and finally reverse the tape to record on track 4 with gap A. Replay, of course, follows exactly the same pattern.

There is, at least, one tape deck, shortly to become generally available, which will replay mono on four tracks, automatically switching from the finished track to the next and so on through the whole tape. When the four tracks have been played in that manner the whole process is automatically repeated if required. The track confguration is somewhat different in this case. since the tape direction changes on track change.

It should be noted that the signal across the replay head winding of a four-track system is appreciably below that on a single or two-track system and. for that reason, greater amplification is essential fully to drive the power amplifier. Moreover. for equipment of a given specification, the signal-to-noise ratio on four-track working is poorer than that on single or two-track systems. The equalisation required for optimum replay quality also differs as the track width is made smaller.

## Four-track Compatibility

The two gaps of a four-track recorder are arranged so that they will scan a part of the track of a two-track mono or stereo tape record. Fig. 11 shows how this is accomplished. When replaying a two-track mono recording, for example, gap A works in conjunction with track 1. For the other track gap A is still used and the tape is inverted as for normal two-track working.


Fig. 10-These diagrams show how the four tracks are put into order by the use of two gaps and tope reversal.

For stereo, gaps A and B are used simultaneously, as is already the case with two-track stereo. Although the gaps embrace only a part of the recorded track, the signal is nevertheless complete, but the output across the replay winding will be of a smaller level as compared with that obtained from a head with a gap embracing the whole of the track width.
Of course. one is sometimes tempted to arrange a machine in a way that the second track is recorded by switching gaps, thereby avoiding removing the spools and inverting the tape. There is nothing against this technically provided the "recording sense" of the tape is clearly labelled for future reference. Some two-track and fourtrack machines have switching and multiple heads to enable recordings to be made on all tracks without the need to transpose the spools, at the same time keeping to the correct recording senses.)

In future articles in this series we shall be investigating the detailed mechanism of specific tape decks, but there are several items which are common to all decks and these will be considered first.

## Heads and Their Alignment

To achieve optimum high-frequency performance from any tape recorder the gap of the replay head must be exactly at right-angles to the edges
of the tape except where a machine is used solely to replay its own recordings. In this case any effects occur equally on record and replay and the results of a small misalignment are counteracted. However, where the same machine is used to replay either tape records or recordings produced on another machine, misalignment will produce undue background noise and loss of treble.


Fig. II-How a four-track, two-gap head can be used to replay two-track stereo or mono recordings. For mono, gap A only is used and track 2 is replayed by inverting the tape, while for stereo both gaps are used simultoneously.
Most machines provide adjustments for setting both the angle of the face of the head to the vertical and the angle of the gap itself to the vertical (known as azimuth adjustment). These adjustments are provided in a diversity of ways, depending upon the design and type of machine, but a popular arrangement incorporates three adjusting screws arranged appropriately around the baseplate of the head as shown in Fig. 12. Coiled springs or rubber washers are sometimes used between the head baseplate and the panel of the deck at each screw to maintain a constant tension and to hold the head firm at all adjustment settings.

The idea is first to set the face angle adjustment so that when the tape is running past the head with the pressure pad released and with the tape guides in correct alignment the tape remains in contact with the centre of the gap area over its whole width without curling, twisting or jumping. Under this condition the face of the head will be parallel with the back of the tape.

## Azimuth Angle Adjustment

There is only one method of setting the azimuth angle for optimum results and that is by playing back a test tape carrying a constant level, high frequency recording. Test tapes of this nature are available commercially. The azimuth screws should then be very carefully adjusted to give maximum output of the test tone.

As small changes in level at high frequencies are extremely difficult to detect by ear an A.C. volimeter or output meter, which is capable of responding to the test tone. should either be connected across the loudspeaker or across a suitable load resistor used in place of the loudspeaker. The load resistor should be of the wirewound variety and its resistance should closely approximate to the impedance of the loudspeaker.

The replay volume control should be adjusted to give a little under half-scale deflection on the meter, but care should be taken to avoid overloading the replay amplifier in order to achieve sufficient deflection. If the desired deflection


Fig. 12-One arrangement used for the face-angle adjustment and the azimuth adjustment of the record/replay head.
cannot be obtained with the replay volume control set to about three-quarters, a more sensitive output meter or A.C. voltmeter is required.

On two- and four-track machines the height of the head is of considerable importance to ensure correct alignment with all tracks. It may be necessary, therefore, first to set the height for maximum output on one track of a multi-track test tape (frequency is not so important here). Then the face-angle adjustment must be set and. finally, the azimuth adjustment for maximum high-frequency response. All the other tracks should then be in correct alignment.

On some machines the height of the head may not be adjustable, as the azimuth adjustment may pivot on a small dimple on the head baseplate, in which case there may be only two adjusting screws. On the other hand, some machines have four adjusting screws, which are best dealt with in pairs. Normally it is not desirable to interfere with the overall height of the head, the main adjustment being that of the azimuth, which can usually be set without disturbing any of the other adjustments.

## Magnetised Tools

Residual magnetism is a very real danger so far as tape recorders are concerned, and it is most important that all adjustments in proximity to the heads and associated mechanism are carried out with non-magnetic tools. Almost all steel screwdrivers. for example, used for radio work are endowed with slight magnetism, picked up from loudspeaker fields and so on.

Non-magnetic screwdrivers are available and a set is well worth acquiring if much work is done on tape recorders. A bulk eraser can be used for clearing magnetism from small tools, and there are other methods of dealing with the problem, as will be given later. It must be remembered. though. that residual magnetism on a tape guide. mu-metal screen or head, considerably impairs the noise performance and can introduce hiss on to a tape record which was previously noise free.
(To be continued)

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quencies around 125,86 and $70 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. These stations, of course, are not used for communication purposes. but transmit a continuous-wave carrier which operates automatic navigational and position-finding equipment on board ships and aircraft. So the long waves are by no means dead, or even dying!
"In closing, I may mention that I have been a reader of Practical Wireless (and its predecessor Amateur Wireless) since issue No. 1, and have therefore been reading your column for something like 40 years!"

It was certainly nice to hear from a reader of such long standing. I am, of course, aware of the Rugby and similar transmissions, but when first I mentioned long waves, I was thinking more of the much longer wavelengths such as were used for the above-mentioned "Mars signals", and it is these, I feel, which may eventually prove most interesting. Still, only time will tell!

## Meteorological Research

Shortly after I had finished writing the above note, I received a letter from a reader in Germany giving very similar notes concerning Rugby etc., but adding the information that the ultra long waves are used extensively in meteorological research on tracking thunderstorms, as the latter radiate particularly efficiently at these frequencies. He goes on to say that there is little point is using the ultra long waves for communications, as echo-satellites and directional VHF will give a better combination of range and signal-to-noise ratio. Yet for meteorological purposes, the ultra long waves continue to be of high value, as such stations can track thunderstorms and regions of atmospheric disturbance, and locate them accurately on the map, even if they are thousands of miles distant from the tracking receiving stations.

## Peculiar Faults

I have received a lot $o$ : correspondence at different times on faults of a strange nature, which normal servicing procedures or techniques could not solve. I must say that one of which I recently heard was indeed strange, and just shows how careful one has to be, and in fact makes one think that besides being an electrician, a good radioman has also to be a chemist! This fault arose because an amateur constructor had used a particular adhesive to stick some silk-covered wire to a former made of paxolin or some similar material. Apparently a chemical action has been set up by the adhesive and paxolin in combination, and this had attacked the silk covering of the wire. The wire was rather thin and it had been eaten away by the the corrosion to a length of over $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$.

Any more cases of chemical trouble?

# POWER Rectifier Circuits 

## A SURVEY OF PRINCIPLES OF <br> PRACTICAL IMPORTANCE, AND USES OF SUCH CIRCUITS



By L. N. Nash

NUMBER of very useful and thorough practical articles have appeared in recent months in Practical Wireless and Practical Television concerning rectifiers, rectifier circuits, metal rectifiers, crystal diodes, etc. It is now felt that a useful addition to this series would be a practical discussion of power-rectifier circuits in particular, and consequently the author has compiled the present article from his own practical experience in the workshop, in building the most varied of such circuits.

## Varied Circuits

After a preliminary discussion of some important general principles, and a brief survey of conventional circuits as a brief recapitulation of more detailed material in past articles, the author will proceed to introduce a number of more unusual and unconventional power-rectifier circuits, pointing out their individual advantages and disadvantages. These circuits form the actual main subject of this article. All circuits given have actually been built and used by the author, principally in the form of the power-supply portion of a chassis of equipment. Where actual component values are quoted in the diagrams, these may be used directly by constructors if they wish to build any of the circuits concerned as power-supply portions of a chassis of equipment for any purpose they may desire. All circuits bearing specific component values have been built and proved by the author. Those circuits intended to illustrate only a principle, however. will bear a note to that effect since some component values specified will be approximate, and the circuits should then be treated merely as the basis for the constructor's own experiments.

Naturally, if the same circuit is desired, but a different output voltage or current or both. modifications may be necessary even to those component values specified. It is highly likely that the constructor will have gained sufficient knowledge from this article and other rectifier-articles in this magazine to be able to judge the extent and direction of such possibly necessary modifications.

## Construction and Layout

It is assumed that almost all power-rectifier circuits connected with the normal experimenter's

## common and

## uncommon

work receive a $50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ mains-frequency input, so that all questions of critical layout and short wiring as arising in high-frequency circuits do not apply here. The layout is thus not in any way critical in any of the circuits, and leads of even considerable length are perfectly tolerable if deemed necessary for any particular purpose, such as bringing a particular switch or fuse to the front panel, etc.
Far more important is the question of adequate and substantial insulation. Many modern wires with plastic insulation soften at relatively low temperatures, and it is inadvisable, for example, to run such wires unprotected hard against cores of transformers which heat up considerably in normal operation. A good quality oil-fabric sleeving should be used for such wires at all such danger points, and for voltages above about 500 it is the author's practice to use two such sleevings pushed over each other, having different diameters to suit. All leads going through the chassis should be protected by substantial rubber grommets. Apart from the danger of mechanical damage by chafing, unprotected chassis holes for wires promote danger of flashover at higher voltages. due to the concentration of the electrostatic field at sharp corners. This is very important here, because it is for the various higher voltage rectifier circuits that the full advantages of the unusual circuits to be introduced ia this article become apparent.


Fig. 1a-A fuse taken direct from the transformer to the rectifier would be likely to blow easily on switching on, due to the charging surge of the reservoir condenser;
b-with a valve rectifier, the condenser charges more slowly as the valve heots up.

## Fusing Considerations

It is necessary to use switches of adequate voltage rating, and to pay proper attention to any fuses that may be deemed necessary. A fuse in the lead direct from the transformer to the rectifier protects against rectifier and smoothing condenser faults as well as output overloads, but has the disadvantage of easily blowing upon switching on, due to the charging surge of the reservoir condenser (Fig. la). This trouble is present if a metal rectifier is used. With a valve rectifier, the reservoir condenser charges more slowly as the valve heats up, and thus this form of fuse is then more applicable (Fig. 1b).

It is of course necessary to use a sufficient number of fuses to ensure complete cut-off in the event of a failure. Thus, in the conventional fullwave valve rectifier circuit of Fig. 2, a single fuse placed at A will protect against output overloads, but a pair of fuses is necessary at $B$ and $C$ to protect adequately against internal faults of the circuit as well as output overloads. A single fuse at $D$ is to be considered dangerous, as in the event of a short between anode and cathode of one diode, the transformer winding is then shorted through the other diode on one half-cycle, which renders the transfer of the fuse from $A$ to $D$ pointless.

## Comprehensive Protection

In small power units of normal voltage output, an output fuse at $A$ and a mains fuse in the transformer primary circuit (which takes care of internal faults) are sufficient. But for high-voltage or high power units, this simple protection is not sufficient. If other circuits (heaters, subsidiary H.T. voltages, etc.) are fed from the same large transformer, it may be impossible to make the rating of the mains primary fuse low enough for it to blow before excessive fault currents could flow in the faulty recifier circuit in question. In such cases fuses at such positions as B and C in Fig. 2 are necessary. For conventional rectifier circuits, the matter need not be taken too critically, but for the more unusual circuits, where faults could have a whole chain of expensive consequences, proper fuse protection is well worth the extra expense and trouble. This does not mean that the unusual circuits here to be discussed are in any way unreliable or prone to breakdown due to improper operation of components other than under specified conditions. On the contrary, no components are operated under other than permissible conditions in the specified circuits, and the author has found a high degree of reliability of such circuits, under periods of continuous operation even as long as a week at a time.

## Modulation Hum

A rectifier is the basis of normal detector circuits, as will be known to all experimenters. The question of "detection", i.e. removal of the audio or video signal from the modulated R.F. carrier, is in principle little different from the reverse process, that of "modulation" of the R.F. carrier with the audio signal at the transmitter. so that in principle the same rectifier circuit could function for both purposes.

If in any way the wiring connceted to a power
rectifier picks up an R.F. signal, over the mains wiring in the house, or by any other available process, then the rectifier (be it a valve or a metal rectifier, that makes no difference) will invariably modulate this picked-up signal with the $50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ mains hum, in addition to any modulation it may already have. If now the same circumstances which led the rectifier wiring to receive the R.F. signal enable it to be radiated again, then any receiver picking up this re-radiated signal cannot distinguish the original modulation from the distant transmitter from this local " modulation hum". Consequently a powerful hum is present on the radio concerned, but only when stations are tuned in. Normally only local stations are affected, as distant weak stations provide insufficient signal at the power rectifier. However. it is perfectly possible for even weak stations to be affected if the power rectifier circuit picks up and modulates an R.F. signal and re-radiates it to an I.F. stage in a poorly screened recciver. In such a case hum will be present as soon as any station whatsocver is tuned in.


Fig. 2 (above)-Possible positions for fuses in a fullwave rectifier circuit.
Fig. 3 (below)-Shunting a condenser across a power rectifier, to remove modulation hum.


## Remedies

Now for the practical consequences of this discussion! Two measures are available to combat modulation hum. The first is to render the power rectifier inoperative as a rectifier for R.F. whilst being unaffected at mains frequency. This is achieved by shunting a condenser across it between anode and cathode. Naturally, this shunt condenser (see Fig. 3) forms an A.C. bleeder together with the reservoir condenser. and thus increases the A.C. ripple on the D.C. output. Thus there is an upper limit to the size of the shunt condenser usable. It is a good rule of thumb to use a shunt-
capacity of about $1 \%$ of the value of the reservoir condenser used, but not exceeding $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$.

The second measure is to assign the rectifier a proper place on the chassis in relation to other circuits. The power rectifier should always be as far away from all R.F. and I.F. circuits as possible, and the latter should be adequately screened, for this and other reasons. A mains transformer with a shield between primary and secondary is very helpful. In high-voltage circuits, where shunt-condensers across the rectifiers may be impossible, because maximum values tolerable on account of the low values used for the reservoir condenser are useless to shunt R.F., it may be necessary to use a good transformer with a screen and build the whole rectifier circuit into a screening can. But such severe cases should be extremely rare.

## Neighbouring Receivers

It must be added on this topic that the author has several times been called upon to repair a receiver suffering from " severe hum ", and finally cured the fault by shunting the rectifiers in a radio belonging to a completely different family, in some cases several floors removed in the same house. Careful work with a portable direction-finding receiver was necessary to locate the offender, and such work is really the job of GPO interferencetracing vans. It is here mentioned merely as an example of the surprising range of re-radiated signals with modulation hum, under "favourable" conditions. One can cause considerable annoyance


Fig. 4 (above)-Curing modulation hum in older mains installations sometimes requires more than just a shunt-condenser.

Fig. 5 (left)-The relation between r.m.s. input and peak inverse voltage (PIV) ratings.
to one's neighbours with an unsuitable rectifier circuit, as well as impair the performance of one's own equipment. Notorious offenders are A.C./D.C. sets drawing H.T. through a rectifier connected direct to the mains, as this arrangement offers easy entry and exit of R.F. signals over the mains. Sets using a transformer are far better, and in many cases the R.F. losses of the mains transformer are high enough to remove all trace of modulation hum even without rectifier-shunt condensers.

It is virtually impossible ever to make an A.C./D.C. set run free of modulation hum without a shunt-condenser, which then takes a familiar simple form of a $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ condenser straight across the mains input to the set. Whilst this measure virtually cures modulation hum in the set concerned, it is sometimes less effective in older domestic mains installations using long runs of wire without conduit, which function as efficient aerials. In such cases, the addition of the items in Fig. 4 may help.

## Peak Inverse Voltage and A.C. Input Rating

The peak inverse voltage of a rectifier is the maximum voltage it can withstand in the nonconducting direction (i.e., with anode negative and cathode positive) without breakdown. The A.C. input rating is the maximum permissible r.m.s. voltage output of the transformer winding feeding the rectifier and smoothing circuits. Sometimes the one and sometimes the other is quoted in the characteristics for a rectifier, and there exists a definite relation between the two.

Considering the simple conventional half-wave rectifier circuit of Fig. 5, it is clear that the reservoir condenser charges up until it reaches a D.C. voltage equal to the peak of the applied A.C. voltage. Now this peak is roughly one-and-a-half times the r.m.s. value for the mains sine wave (exactly, peak $=1.414$ r.m.s.).

## Inverse Voltage Stress

On the subsequent half-cycle, in which the rectifier is blocked because the transformer voltage has reversed, the peak condenser voltage and the negative peak transformer voltage (another one-and-a-half r.m.s.) act additively in series across the rectifier in the non-conducting (" inverse ") direction. Thus, the total inverse voltage stress on the rectifier is three times the A.C. r.m.s. voltage output of the transformer.

Thus for a 350 V r.m.s. A.C. transformer winding, the rectifiers must be rated for " 350 V A.C. input", or for " 1000 V peak inverse voltage", both statements amounting to the same thing. It is this factor which limits the use of metal rectifiers at the higher voltages. In principle, sufficient elements of metal rectifiers may be connected in series to withstand the inverse voltage, but this becomes prohibitively expensive if high-current operation is desired. In such cases one finds valves more economical.

## Valves

At normal H.T. current ratings of 50 mA to 100 mA it is at present relatively uneconomical to


Fig. 6a-Basic half-wave rectifier circuit.


Fig. 6b-Positive-output half-wave rectifier circuit: $c$ and d-negative-output half-wave rectifier circuits, e-obtaining positive and negative outputs simultaneously in a half-wave circuit.
construct metal rectifier elements for A.C. input voltages exceeding at the very most 500 V (peak inverse voltage 1,500 ), though series piles of elements for low-current EHT rectifiers are relatively cheap and common, even up to A.C. inputs of many thousands of volts. The modern developments in silicon power-diodes capable of carrying currents up to some amps in the larger types have a present peak inverse voltage limit of about 1000 , so that naximum A.C. inputs of about 350 V are permissible. There is nothing except the price, to prevent the use of two or more such diodes in series (to increase the voltage rating in direct proportion), but a valve would almost always be more economical in such cases. The silicon diodes need a heat sink in the form of a metal plate to which they are bolted, and if several such diodes are connected in series, the heat sinks will be at different potentials, and must be adequately insulated. This can introduce problems outweighing the disadvantages of a valve rectifier in the particular application envisaged.

## Combination of Rectifier Types

The author is of the opinion that the "valve rectifier versus metal rectifier" controversy is largely futile. The truth is that the scope open to the constructor has been enriched by the availabilty of both types of rectifier. There are a number of applications where the ideal solution of a problem involves the use of a mixed circuit, using both valve and metal rectifiers, as will become apparent in the course of this article. However. as a general principle, valves score on their high inverse voltage rating, but are clumsy and require heater voltage, and generate appreciably more heat. Metal rectifiers of copper oxide, sclenium or silicon types score on high current ratings. but have limited inverse voltage rating. As a result. modern circuit practice has justifiably relegated valves to the higher voltage circuits.

When connecting metal rectifiers in series to increase the voltage rating. only identical types may be used in each series connection, as the series-connection of different types with different inverse resistances cannot enable the desired equal sharing of voltage to be realised. To allow for tolerances, it is not advisable to run a pair of series connected rectifiers to a voltage higher than $1 \frac{1}{2}$ times the rating of a single rectifier of the same type.

## Conventional Half-wave Rectifier Circuits

The rectifier diodes in all the following circuits of conventional type have been drawn in the form of valves. They are of course equally applicable to the use of metal rectifiers or silicon diodes, bearing in mind the remarks in the previous paragraph.

Fig. 6a gives details of the simplest conventional rectifier circuit, the "half-wave" circuit, together with the most common equivalent symbols for valves and other types of rectifier. It is very important that the constructor familiarise himself with the accepted circuit symbols and representation of polarity of rectifiers because connection of a rectifier with wrong polarity in a circuit can lead to serious consequences. It is conventional to make the thin line of a metal rectifier symbol correspond to the valve-cathode, and this corresponds to the terminal marked " + "or "red" or "cathode" in a metal rectifier. The "triangle" or "arrow" of the metal rectifier symbol corresponds to the valve anode.

## Chassis Connections

According to which side of the D.C. output of the half-wave circuit of Fig. 6a is connected to chassis (earthed), we can get a negative or a positive output voltage with respect to chassis, as shown in Figs. 6b and 6c. The "positive" form of Fig. 6b is used for H.T. supplies in A.C./D.C. sets, where the transformer winding of the diagram is actually replaced directly by the mains. Fig. 6 b is used as it stands, with input from a mains transformer secondary winding of the desired voltage, in H.T. supplies for the simpler forms of A.C. mains radios, amplifiers, etc, where the current drain is not high enough to warrant the expense of the more efficient full-wave circuit. The "negative" version of Fig. 6c is often used to provide the input D.C. voltage to a negative grid-bias voltage.bleeder chain in such circumstances which require higher grid bias voltages than are easily obtainable by the use of cathode resistors for the valves. or other conventional methods. An independent grid-bias supply of this type also has the advantage of greater stability and of fundamental independence from the anode currents flowing in the valve circuits being biased.

The half-wave rectifier circuit of Figs. 6 a to $e$ derives its name from its simple function. When the transformer winding voltage is of the same polarity as the ultimate output D.C. voltage, i.e. on alternate half cycles of the A.C. waveform, the rectifier conducts to charge the smoothing condensers. On the other half cycles, the rectifier is blocked, and the inverse voltage. discussed in the previous paragraph, is operative across the rectifier.
(To be continued)

Elements of Electronic Circuits-by J. M. Peters. 94 pages. Published by Iliffe Electrical Publications Limited. Price 21 s .

TTHE most complex-looking electronic circuit is usually capable of being reduced to a number of recognisable elements. If the function of all such circuit elements is thoroughly understood, then the operation and function of the whole complex circuit can generally be deduced without much difficulty.

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Subjects covered include: time constants and differentiation, clamping or D.C. restoration, amplitude limiting, multivibrators, electronic markers, gates and coincidence circuits, delay circuits, performance of mathematical functions.

This publication forms a valuable source of reference for both amateur and professional.
Problems in Radio Engineering-by E. T. A. Rapson. 170 pages. Published by Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons Limited. Price 15 s .

T1 HIS book sets out, in a comprehensible form, typical problems that the National Certificate student in radio communication is likely to meet in his examinations. The questions are drawn from past examination papers of the City and Guilds of London Institute in Radio Communication. the Institute of Electrical Engineers in Electrical Communications, and the University of London in Telegraphy ind Telephony. All students of radio engineering. no matter for which examinations they are preparing, will find this book invaluable.

There are forty-nine chapters covering every aspect of radio communications fully and no attempt has been made to cram too many subjects into one chapter. so that " series resonance". for example, has one complete chapter devoted to it "and is not included in the chapter concerning "series circuits". Each set of problems is preceded by a number of formulae with which it is imperative that the student be acquainted. in order that he be able to answer the question fully.

All the answers are listed in one chapter at the end of the book.

This is the eighth edition of this book, bringing it right in line with all recent advances made in the field of radio communications.

The Electronic Musical Instruments Manual -by Alan Douglas. 301 pages. Published by Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons Limited. Price 37s. 6d.

THIS is the fourth edition of a useful book which was first published in 1949. It deals very fully with the many note generators, vibrato generators and tone formant circuits which are now employed. and it may safely be said that there is no electronic musical instrument at present on the market which does not employ at least one of the many circuits which are illustrated. The latter part of the book is devoted to a brief description of the major circuitry of some of the commercial instruments now on the market, and this includes the Gulbransen transistorised organ, probably the most up-to-date instrument to appear in this very large market. Although much thought has obviously gone into the preparation of this Manual it is clear that much of the data has been taken straight from manufacturers service manuals etc., and as a result the experimenter will find that many of the circuits leave out certain essential data, such as condenser and resistor values, so that experimental work on these circuits cannot easily be carried out. It is also felt that there is a wide gap in the information covering key switching, which we think is at times more important than generator or tone formant circuitry. However. for the student there is much to be found in this particular volume which we do not think can be found in any other publication, even on the American market. and it should help many who are interested in either finding out how a modern electronic organ functions, or in trying to design one for their own use.
Radio and Television Retailers' Handbookby F. X. Carus. 216 pages. Published by George Newnes Limited. Price 35 s .

1HIS is believed to be the first work of its kind. devoted to the business and managerial aspects of radio and television retailing.
After reviewing the growth of the Radio Trade and assessing its future prospects, the author discusses the problems associated with the setting-up of a retail business. The merits of the various trading arrangements. i.e. sole trader, limited company and partnerships are analysed in detail.

Four chapters are devoted to the selection and training of staff. selling techniques, window displays. advertising and similar subjects.

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# A 4-valve Signal <br> THIS INSTRUMENT WILL ALSO <br> PROVIDE A SIGNAL FOR TESTING AUDIO AMPLIFIERS <br> By V. E. HOLLEY 

7HIS versatile piece of equipment is a worthwhile addition to any bench. It will trace a signal through all the stages of a radio receiver fron the grid of the first valve onwards and will itself provide a signal of good quality for testing audio amplifiers or loudspeakers; it can also be used as a general purpose bench amplifier and when not in use for any of these purposes, will serve as a portable local station receiver for the workshop or the house.

## Signal Production

The first stage, which employs a high gain R.F. pentode, EF91. is concerned entirely with the provision of a signal, the source of which may be any radio transmission which is readily receivable at consistent strength. In the area in which the prototype is used, the Light programme on $200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ is the only one which meets this requirement and it was accordingly selected. As will be seen troni Fig. 1, a ferrite rod aerial with long-wave coil, tuned by a fixed capacitor of 330 pF . collects the signal and presents it to the grid of V1, the anode load of which is the 4.7 k resistor. R2. The amplified signal passes through the capacitor C 4 to a miniature jack socket $J 1$. and thence through C5 to the following stage. Decoupling is provided by
resistor $\mathbf{R} 1$ and capacitor $\mathbf{C} 2$, while bias is obtained in the usual manner by means of a by-passed cathode resistor.

## R.F. Tracing

Signals to be traced are fed in at J1, where insertion of a plug applies them to the grid of V 2 and breaks the connection between this point and the first stage. It was found that the miniature socket used in the prototype had sufficient capacity to pass on a small portion of V1 output despite the disconnection, and the switch S1 had to be fitted to silence it. The valve V2, another R.F. pentode. acecpts and amplifies signals of any radio flequency and the tracing range is limited only by the characteristics of the choke Chl, which loads the anode circuit. This is an "all-wave" component which, in the prototype, has a range of from $0.2 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ to $60 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

## Demodulation

Diode DI accepts for demodulation the signals appearing at V2 anode. Resistors R8 and VR2 form the load proper, and R7 completes the D.C. continuity of the circuit. Capacitors C9 and C11 remove the now unwanted radio frequencies and


Fig. I-The circuit of the instrument.

the audio output is passed on for amplification via C13. It will be noticed that a simple top cut tone control (C10/VR1) is connected to the diode circuit; this relates entirely to the receiver service and was added to reduce television whistle which is apt to be troublesome on $200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$.

## Visual Tracing

In addition to the audio fre quencies, there appears across the diode load a negative D.C. voltage proportional to the strength of the signal at V2 anode. This is used to control a tuning indicator valve V3, so that unmodulated or frequency modulated signals which, of course, produce no sound output, may be traced visually. Resistor R9 isolates the indicator grid from audio frequencies and capacitor C 12 removes any which may reach this point.

## Audio Tracing

Socket J2, which is included in the diode circuit, is the A.F. tracing input. Insertion of a plug transfers VR2 from the diode to the test lead.

## Audio and Output Stages

A triode-pentode valve ECL80, is employed here. The triode section is arranged as a resistance-coupled amplifier with an anode load of 220 k and included in its output circuit is the


Fig. $2 a-A$ modification of the circuit, omitting VI; $b$-An additional input to the grid of V 3 .
socket J3. Insertion of a plug here provides an audio output which, controlled by VR2, can be made large enough to load any normal output stage.

The two sections of the ECL80 share a common cathode but require different bias voltages; the triode grid resistor R12, is therefore returned to a tapping on the cathode resistor instead of to chassis. For satisfactory operation, this cathode network must be by-passed by a really large capacitance and C16 has accordingly been given a value of $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. The optimum load of the pentode section of V4 is $11,000 \Omega$, and the output transformer should have a ratio of $60: 1$ to suit a $3 \Omega$ speaker. Suitable transformers are readily available. The primary windings of these com-



Fig. 3-The drilling dimensions of the chassis.
ponents usually have sufficient resistance to produce a noticeable voltage drop at the valve anode and resistor R14 is included in the screen supply so that the voltage nere will not exceed that at the anode. Connected across the transformer primary is the capacitor C15, which corrects the response at the higher audio frequencies. The output from the transformer secondary is ted to a loudspeaker via a jack socket, J4. Insertion of


The unit without its cabinet.
a jack here provides a low impedance audio output for testing loudspeakers.

## Power Supply

The total H.T. requirement is 45 mA at 250 V . and a supply of 1.2 A at 6.3 V is needed for the valve heaters. This is provided by a half-wave mains transformer and a contact-cooled metal rectifier, MR1. Smoothing is by resistor, R17 in conjunction with the electrolytic capacitors C17 and C18. The value of the resistor may need adjustment to provide the correct H.T. line voltage of 200 , depending on the output of the transformerrectitier combination employed.

## Modifications

If the tracer is to be used in an area of good signal strength, V1 may be omitted, the ferrite aerial being connected through socket J 1 to the grid of V 2 as shown in Fig. 2(a). In this case, R4 will need to be increased to avoid excessive damping of the tuned circuit and R17 musi also be increased to take account of the reduced current requirement.

## How

## Transistors Work

By B. N. Rolfe

## A BASIC NON-MATHEMATICAL EXPLANATION

0AST month we learnt more about the semiconducting process: how the two " $p$ " and " $n$ " types of semi-conducting materials are produced by the addition of "impurities", how the two types are integrated to form either a simple diode rectifier or threc-element transistor and, most important, we discovered that minority-carriers quickly increase in number if the semi-conducting device is allowed to rise in temperature.

Normally, the collector current increases with increase in base current, but, due to minority carriers, the collector current will also rise with increase of temperature of the junction. Previous articles in this series revealed how the operating temperature of a transistor is stabilised from the circuit aspect, and this article will start with a few more notes on the operating limits of transistors.


Fig. 23-The power dissipation in a resistor in wotts is equal to the voltage multiplied by the current in amperes.

## Collector Dissipation

Dissipation in the context considered is the "power" that a device can safely withstand. Power is usually rated in watts. Take an ordinary resistive circuit across which is a potential of 50 V and through which a current of 0.02 A (e.g., 20 mA ) is flowing-see Fig. 23. The product of the voltage and the cur- rent in amperes gives the power dissipation in watts. Thus, in Fig. 23, the power dissipation is 50 times 0.02 , which works out at 1W.

An ordinary thermionic valve has an anode dissipation value which is calculated in the same way as with a resistor. In Fig. 24 is shown a simple valve circuit with 100 V on the anode and, again, 0.02 A of current (called anode current). The product of the two works out in this example to 2W.
The maximum dissipation of a resistor is, of course, determined by its physical size and, if wirewound, the diameter of the resistance wire used coupled with the heat withstanding property of the former on which the wire is wound. Power dissipation produces heat, and in a resistor this is caused by the resistance that the wire or couductor possesses to the flow of electric current.

## (Continued from page 38 of the May issue)

## Anode Heating

In a thermionic valve, the electrons from the cathode are accelerated to a very high speed by the positive anode, and since the electrons have mass, on striking the anode they liberate their kinetic energy and in that way cause the anode to become hot. The maximum anode dissipation of a valve is related to the maximum permissible values of cathode current and anode voltage, and, in turn, these ratings depend upon the size and physical construction of the valve.

From the foregoing, therefore, it will be appreciated that a transistor has a collector dissipation rating. This is usually denoted pe and is given by the product of the maximum collector voltage (Vc max) and the maximum collector current (Ic max). However, with a transistor, there is also another important factor-temperature. As indicated in previous articles in this series, the maximum junction temperature (which is often the same as the maximum storage temperature) is in the region of $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for most germanium transistors. This means that if the temperature of a transistor is allowed to rise above that value it may well cease to work as a transistor and change into an ordinary resistor. The same applies if a transistor is stored for any length of time at a temperature much above $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

## Thermal Resistance

It is thus necessary to introduce a temperature


Fig. 24 (left)-A thermionic valve has an anode dissipation value equal to the anode voltage times the anode current.
Fig. 25 (right)-The collector dissipation of a transistor is given by ( $k \times \times C$ ).
factor into the equation dealing with maximum collector dissipation. This factor is called thermal resistance and is given on transistor data sheets in terms of ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$ for small units.

A typical value is $0.33^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$. This relates the collector dissipation to the rise of temperature of the junction. It is not really as complicated as it sounds, as a simple example will show.


Fig. 26 (above)-Curve showing the voltage limits at the collector.


Fig. 27-With the bose open-circuit, the collector current present is usually denoted Ico (a-left); and with the bose connected to the emitter l'co (b-right).

As we are considering a rise in temperature from the ambient, there are four factors which have to be considered. These are (i) collector dissipation pc, (ii) junction temperature Tj . (iii) ambient temperature Ta and (iv) thermal resistance $R_{1}$. These are used in the following equation to permit the calculation of collector dissipation:

$$
\mathrm{pc}=(\mathrm{Tj}-\mathrm{Ta}) \mathrm{Rt},
$$

Suppose $\mathrm{Tj}=75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{Ta}=50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, and $\mathrm{Rt}=0.33$.
Then, pes $75-50) / 0 \cdot 33$ which works out to a little under 76 mW . This means that a transistor with a thermal resistance rating of 0.33 and a maximum junction temperature of $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ working in an ambient temperature of $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ has a permissible collector dissipation of 76 mW .

## Increased Dissipation

A small transistor would probably not require to operate with a collector dissipation in excess of 76 mW , so all is well. However, larger transistors may be called upon to dissipate a power in excess of that allowed by the "free air" thermal
resistance. This is possible by the use of a heat sink which consists of a good conductor of heat on which the transistor is mounted and which drains away the heat produced; is not to be confused with a heat shunt which is used primarily for by-passing the heat from a soldering iron away from a transistor during soldering.
In effect, a heat sink keeps the junction temperature below that which would have been reached under free-air conditions for a given collector dissipation. Thus, a transistor with a free-air thermal resistance rating of, say, $0.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$ may well have its rating modified to $0.3^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$ by the use of a suitable heat sink.
For example, a transistor with a thermal resistance in free air of $0.4^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$, with a maximum junction temperature of $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and working in an ambient temperature of $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ would have a collector dissipation of about 62 mW . However, by the use of a heat sink (thereby reducing the thermal resistance, say, to $0.3^{\circ} \mathrm{C} / \mathrm{mW}$ ) the same transistor could have a collector dissipation of about 83 mW -a useful increase.


Fig. 28-A circuit of a simple transistor and semiconductor diode comparator.

After finding the permissible collector dissipation, we can then put voltage and current values in the collector circuit, as shown in Fig. 25. Let us suppose that we found that the collector dissipation was 50 mW . Then, the circuit elements would have to be arranged so that the product of the voltage and current did not exceed that value. This would be satisfied by 10 V and 5 mA .

The maximum voltage, however, is somewhat related to signal swing at the collector, whereas the maximum current has its limit in terms of permissible collector dissipation. For example, it is possible to operate a transistor at a very low voltage and draw from it relatively high currents.

## Maximum Collector Voltage

The converse is not possible (e.g., a very low current and relatively high voltage) as already intimated. Without going into too much theory, we can see why this is the case by referring to the curve in Fig. 26.
It will be recalled that the base-emitter junction is biased by the power source in the reverse direction (e.g., negative at the collector and
(Continued on page 165)


$\triangle$HIS receiver uses seven transistors in a superhet circuit, and will be found to give very good results indeed, with ample volume in even unfavourable circumstances. It tunes both medium and long waves and fits in a ready-made cabinet which is approximately $5 \frac{3}{4} \mathrm{in}$. $x \quad 3 \frac{3}{8} \mathrm{in} . \quad x \quad 2 \mathrm{in}$. (external dimensions). It is thus very compact and portable, and is capable of a really good output from the internal speaker.

## Circuit

The circuit is shown in Fig. 1 on Blueprint 3, and is very satisfactory for this type of set. VCl and VC2 constitute the twin-gang tuning condenser, and TC1 and TC2 are for trimming the aerial and oscillator circuits on the M.W. band. TC3 and TC4 permit trimming and padding on the L.W. band. These adjustments are not particularly difficult, and will be dealt with next month. After two stages of intermediate frequency amplification, diode D1 acts as detector, and provides sone measure of automatic volume control bias for Tr2, via R7.

Tr4 is a high gain, low noise audio amplifier, and should employ a genuine OC71 or comparable transistor; Tr5 is the driver, the output stage using a matched pair of NKT251 transistors. These permit high volume output when wanted, yet have a low resting current under "no signal" condi-
 tions. or when volume is lower. This is important, for long life from a miniature battery. As plenty of gain is available, it is possible to provide negative feedback, via R23, including Tr5. Tr6 and $\operatorname{Tr} 7$, and both audio transformers; quality of reproduction is therefore good.

If other transistors are to hand, and it is wished to try these, satisfactory results should generally be possible, with comparable types. In general, the values of R14, R 18 and R22 might then need changing, to obtain proper working conditions.

## Paxolin Panel

The receiver is constructed on a piece of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. thick paxolin $5 \frac{3}{8}$ in. x $3 \frac{1}{8}$ in. The correct positions for all holes are shown in Fig. 5, and if this is followed it will allow parts to be mounted easily. Small holes, for leads, can be made with a $\frac{1}{16}$ in. drill. For the oscillator coil and IFT pins, $\frac{1}{8}$ in. holes will do well, and these will also suit the three 6B.A. securing bolts. A hole nearly $\frac{5}{8}$ in. in diameter is required for the tuning condenser, and three $\frac{3}{16}$ in. or similar holes for the 4B.A. bolts holding this item.

After drilling, check that parts will fit, and that the holes for the three $6 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{A}$. securing bolts agree with the matching holes in the cabinet front. A small round file may be used to elongate or enlarge any holes which have been inaccurately drilled.

The opening for the loudspeaker magnet is made by drilling a few holes close together each side, so that a small saw may be used. After cutting out the piece, level up the edges with a flat file.

The whole work of preparing the panel should prove to be quite straightforward. Rough edges and holes are cleaned up, and the panel is dusted off. No further drilling or similar preparation will be needed, though if any holes have been missed it is possible to make these later, taking great care not to damage parts already fitted.


## Ferrite Aerial

When the ferrite rod has been fitted to the receiver, a little confusion may arise in wiring it correctly. This can be prevented by soldering colour coded leads to the various tags, in advance. Very thin coloured flex is satisfactory for this purpose, and can be obtained in the required colours. Alternatively the leads can be marked with pieces of coloured sleeving, or with temporary paper tags, or any other convenient system.

With the L.W. section, the unused tag identifies the connections. Viewing the coil from its tagged end, the next tag clockwise also has a white lead, for TC3 and the wavechange switch. Next is the tapping, connected to the orange lead, as already mentioned. Finally, a red lead provides a connection for the "earthed" end of the L.W. winding.

After soldering about 6 in . of thin flex to each tag. to agree with Fig. 6, the aerial is put aside, as it is not wircd until last. The wires can then be cut down to suitable lengths, but left a trifle slack, so that the windings can be moved along the rod.


The chassis complete and connected to the loudspeaker, ready for mounting in its case.

Fig. 6 shows the aeria! connections. Each winding is so placed on the rod that its tagged end is outwards, as in Fig. 6. The M.W. winding has one tag bent up, to identify the end of the tuned section. This is coded white, and goes to TC3 and the wavechange switch. The next tag (clockwise) is the beginning of the coupling winding, and goes to Cl, being coded black. The orange tag is the end of this winding. and goes to the L.W. tap. The final tag on the M.W. portion goes to the tuning condenser VCl and TC , this lead being marked green.
washers, to avoid shorting or damaging the condenser.
Insert the driver and output transformer leads so that they emerge as in Fig. 4. "Durofix" or a similar adhesive will hold these items to the panel. It may prove necessary to reverse the two output transformer secondary connections. This always arises in circuits with negative feedback.
The volume control is held with an 8 B.A. $\frac{1}{2}$ in. countersunk-headed bolt, the nut being near the tuning condenser (Fig, 2). The control tags are bent flat, so that leads may be soldered to them.

The slide switch is held by two 10B.A. $\frac{1}{2}$ in. countersunk-headed bolts. A tag is placed under one nut, and trimmers TC 1 and TC 2 are soldered to this, as in Fig. 2. A lead connects this tag to the tuning condenser frame (via hole B).
Trimmer TC3 has one tag inserted through a hole, this being wired to the positive line (via hole D). All three trimmers are kept close against the paxolin, to avoid obstructing the ferrite rod.
C17 is mounted by passing its appropriate ends through the holes. A short piece of thin flex. subsequently fitted with a battery clip, is soldered to the negative tag. The positive tag merely passes through the paxolin (hole K) to support the condenser.
All other small parts are generally held by their wire ends, and are added as wiring progresses.

C6 and R5, are then inserted through the appropriate holes.
$\operatorname{Tr} 3, \operatorname{Tr} 4$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 5$ are added in exactly the same manner. C14 and C16 are elctrolytics, and the positive ends must go to the positive line. If the $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ condensers C6 and C9 have a band, or one end marked O.F., this denotes the outside foil connection, and it should preferably be wired to the positive line.

The few remaining leads in Fig. 2 may be added, and this completes this side of the panel, except for adding the aerial.

## Remainder of Wiring

Fig. 4 shows the other side of the panel. All the can tags and earth points can be connected together first using 26 s.w.g. tinned copper or similar wire, and 1 mm sleeving. It


A view of the front of the chassis when nearing completion. is quite a good plan to use red sleeving for all "earth" (battery positive) wiring, and black for all negative line wiring, as this greatly simplifies checking. Another colour is used for other leads, if this system is followed. One yard each, of red, black and yellow slecving will easily be more than enough.

The large capacity condensers are all electrolytics, and have positive and negative ends, which must be connected as shown. The cans of these condensers are negative. Other condensers, and all resistors, may be wired in either way round. Each resistor value should be carefully checked as it is inserted, because a mistake will upset the working of the set.

## Insulation

No bare leads or joints must touch each other, or other parts. This includes the cans of electrolytic condensers, which can be

## Transistors

All the transistor holes are placed so that they are closely in line, for each transistor, with increased spacing between base and collector. This increased spacing agrees with the space between leads, for Tr5, Tr6 and Tr7. With transistors Trl, $\operatorname{Tr} 2, \operatorname{Tr} 3$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 4$, a red spot identifies the collector leads.

Transistors Tr2. Tr3. Tr4 and Tr5 each have an emitter resistor, with a condenser in parallel. These components are placed near the transistors. All the transistors may thus be prepared as in Fig. 3; Trl, Tr6 and $\operatorname{Tr} 7$ have all leads passing directly through the paxolin. About $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. of 1 mm sleeving is placed on the centre lead of each transistor, to space it from the paxolin, and avoid shorts.

Transistors $\operatorname{Tr} 2, \operatorname{Tr} 3, \operatorname{Tr} 4$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 5$ are all prepared in the same way. With Tr2, solder C6 and R5 closely together, cutting both leads of R5 short. Place insulation on the emitter and base leads of the transistor. Bring the emitter lead up, cut it to length, and solder it to the junction of C6 and R5, as in Fig. 3. Do not bend the emitter lead immediately at the bottom of the transistor. The two remaining transistor wires, and lead from
wrapped with tape if necessary. This particularly applies to C15.
A careful check on work can be kept. if desired, by inking over each part on the diagrams, as it is added. and inking over each lead, as it is soldered. There should then be little chance of omitting anything.
Trimmer TC4 only requires initial adjustment on long waves, so it is placed as in Fig. 4, its leads and a touch of adhesive holding it in position.

## Transistor Leads

Transistor leads should not be overheated while soldering. There is no need at all to cut these leads as short as possible. All parts and wiring on the right of the panel in Fig. 4 should be kept down to the level of the body of the wavechange switch, which will rest flush against the cabinet front. To the left of the panel, around the loudspeaker opening, the clearance is greater, for TC4. C 12 and C 17.
The secondary ends of the output transformer, marked "enamelled wires" in Fig. 4, should be left temporarily disconnected.
(To be continued)

# Using your 

By G. J. King

# THE USE OF THE MULTIMETER IN RADIO CONSTRUCTION AND SERVICING 

(Continued from page 70 of the May issue)

$\mathcal{J}$HE D.C. or "static" operating condition of a valve or transistor circuit can specdily be determined simply by making a voltage measurement across the cathode or emitter resistor, as shown by Test 1 in Figs. 6(a) and 6(b). The fact that a voltage is recorded indicates conclusively that current is flowing in the resistor, and in the case of the valve this is the total cathode current due to the sum of the anode and screen currentsor the anode current alone in a triode. In a transistor, it is due to the current in the collector and base circuits.

## Conditions

The value of the voltage is governed by two factors: one, the current in the resistor and, two, the value of the resistor. For example, a reading of 10 V across a 1 k resistor would reveal that the current was 10 mA (from Ohm's law, where the current in amperes is equal to the voltage divided by the value of the resistor in ohms).

This measuring technique can be employed in almost any current-carrying circuit, and allows the current in the circuit to be assessed by measuring the voltage across an associated resistor without breaking the circuit. The alternative method, of


Fig. 60 (above)-Voltage and current tests in a valve circuit.
Fig. 60 (right)-Tests in a transistor circuit.
course, is to break the circuit and insert a milliammeter, as shown by Test 2 in Figs 6(a) and 6(b).

In some cases, Test 1 is not sufficiently accurate owing to the shunting effect of the voltmeter, as discussed in last month's article. However, in the cathode or emitter circuit. the resistor is of a relatively low value in comparison with the resistance of the meter, and there will thus be very little error indeed.

## Expected Voltages

At this point the value of the voltage to be expected across the cathode or emitter resistor should be considered. In a valve circuit, the voltage may range from about 0.5 to 15 or more, depending on the type of circuit. The voltages are usually given in the service sheet or manual, and if there were a marked deviation between what they should be and what they actually measure, this would indicate fairly conclusively that there was trouble in the stage. A high reading would mean that the valve was passing more current than it should, while a low reading could indicate a low emission valve or an increase in value of a resistor in the screen or anode feed circuits.

In a transistorised circuit, the emitter voltage is usually little more than 1 and may be even less than that, depending on the stage and type of transistor concerned. This shows the importance of using a voltmeter with a full-scale deffection of 1 V or 2.5 V . A reading which is definitely above normal could indicate excess collector leakage current, since that current would flow in the cmitter resistor. Lack of base current would cause a marked fall in the reading. while excessive base current would cause a rise in the reading.


## Further Checks

It should be stressed, of course, that cathode and emitter readings, whilst indicating the presence or otherwise of a fault, do not show precisely where the fault lies. Other follow-up checks are necessary.

For example, if in the valve circuit, there were zero cathode voltage and Cl were not shortcircuited, then a voltage measurement would be made at the anode, as shown by Test 3 in Fig. 6(a) and, if the reading were normal, it would be followed by a voltage check at the screen gridTest 4. If there were no voltage at the anodeyet the H.T. line voltage were normal-R 1 would be open-circuited. Similarly, R2 could be opencircuited if zero-voltage were recorded at the screen grid. There is also another possibility here, and that is a short-circuit in the by-pass capacitor C2. With the set switched off, this can be checked by switching the multimeter to an "ohms" range.

## Leaky Capacitors

In A.F. amplifier and output stages, the coupling capacitor sometimes leaks and makes the control grid slightly positive. This counteracts the bias produced by the voltage drop across the cathode resistor and, as a consequence, causes an increase in anode current, which is reffected as an increase in voltage across the cathode resistor.

A conclusive check if such trouble is suspected is to check the cathode voltage with C3 (Fig. 6a) disconnected from the control grid and then, while observing the voltmeter, reconnect the capacitor. Should this cause the cathode voltage to rise, the capacitor has too great a leakage and should be replaced.

In the transistorised circuit, follow-up checks are shown by Tests 3 and 4, at the collector and base respectively. The same reasoning as with the valve circuit applies here also. R1 is the collector load which, if open-circuited, would prevent any emitter current, while resistors R2 and R3 form the base-bias potential-divider. If R2 were opencircuited, there would be no base current and very little emitter current, while if R3 were opencircuited, the base current might rise above the normal value and cause on increase in emitter current.

## Meter Loading

Service sheets and manuals give anode and screen voltages when taken with a certain meter of specified sensitivity. If a different type of meter or one with greater or lesser sensitivity were used, then the voltages would be bound to differ from those given in the manual. The amount of error would depend on the difference between the meters and the value of the resistance connected to the point where the measurement is made.
For example, R2 in Fig. 6(a) may be in the region of $220,000 \Omega$, and if a meter with a sensitivity of, say, $2,000 \Omega / \mathrm{V}$ were used on the 100 V range, R2 would be shunted with $200,000 \Omega$ (the meter resistance). Thus the actual voltage read would be approximately half of that which is present with the meter disconnected. A meter with a greater sensitivity would read a greater voltage and a meter of lower sensitivity would read a smaller voltage.

However, if any meter is connected to the H.T. line, the reading should be almost the same as that given in the manual; say $\pm 5 \%$. This is because H.T. supplies have very low internal resistances and will deliver even the current required by a meter of quite low sensitivity without the voltage dropping. These factors tend to confuse the experimenter when comparing voltage readings with those given in manuals, and may weil lead to incorrect diagnosis.


Fig. 7 (left)-When measuring current in an R.F. circuit, the milliammeter should be connected at the low-signal-potential side of the circuit, as shown. In certain cases-to avoid instability-a by-pass capacitor may be required, such as Cl .
Fig. 8 (right)-Resistance measurements in complex networks should be made with one side of the resistor disconnected.

## Current Measurements

It sometimes becomes necessary to measure anode and screen currents in R.F. or signal stages. The set should be switched off and the H.T. feed circuit should be broken at the low signal potential side so that a milliammeter may be inserted, as shown in Fig. 7. Care should be taken to ensure that the meter is connected the right way round (positive to H.T. positive input and negative to the actual circuit which is being fed), and that the correct current range is selected. To be on the safe side in the latter connection, a range higher than the expected current should be selected initially. The set should then be switched on.

As the valve warms up the meter deflection will rise, and eventually settle at a steady value. If a small deflection only is given on the selected range, the set should be switched off and the multimeter should be set to the next lower current range. The aim should be to obtain a deflection a little beyond the centre of the scale, where the most accurate readings can be taken.

In R.F. circuits, instability may result due to the meter leads. As this could cause an incorrect current reading, a small $(0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F})$ by-pass capacitor should be connected between the negative side of the circuit and chassis, as shown by C 1 in Fig. 7.

## Ohmmeter Tests

Under no circumstances should an ohmmeter be connected to a component with the set connected to the power supply and switched on. In some cases it is possible to measure the value of a resistor or the insulation of a capacitor without removing the component from the circuit. For example, RI and R2 of Fig. 6(a) could be checked in situ, as also could $\mathrm{C} 2 . \mathrm{C} 1$ would require disconnecting because it is in parallel with the cathode resistor.

In complex networks it often happens that one component has shunted across it the resistance of one or more other components, thereby making a test in situ impossible. The same may apply to capacitors. Thus, if a check in sith gives a reading completely removed from that expected, the component should be isolated and the test performed again. It is necessary to disconnect only one side of the component under measurement, as shown in Fig. 8.

In transistor circuits, forward current in the transistor junctions may occur with the ohmmeter connected round one way, while a very small reverse current would then flow with the test leads reversed. This latter connection would give less error when performing measurements in situ in transistor sets.

## Capacitor Checks

An ohmmeter can give a reasonable indication

Fig. 9-Two methods of measuring A.C. (signal) output voltage. The capacitor $C$ should have a value of $0.1 \mu F$.

of the quality of a capacitor. For example, if the leads of the ohmmeter are connected across an electrolytic capacitor one way round, the capacitor will acquire a small charge from the ohmmeter battery. There will be a deflection on the meter which will quickly reduce almost to read "infinite resistance ", as the capacitor charges. Now, if the test leads are reversed, the charge will flow out of the capacitor and there will be a tendency for it to re-charge in the opposite polarity. This will produce a definite kick on the pointer, thereby indicating that the component is, as least, still useful.

The lowest resistance range should be used on electrolytics, while higher ranges are more suitable for checking smaller paper units. By adopting the procedure detailed, even an $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor should give a small kick on a high "ohms" range. If a permanent reading is obtained, then, of course, the component is useless.

## Output and Power Measurements

The A.C. voltage ranges are also useful for checking A.F. signals and power-in addition to heater and A.C. power checks as detailed last month. By connecting the meter across the loudspeaker or, preferably, across a resistor used in place of the loudspeaker having a value equal to the impedance of the Ioudspeaker (R in Fig. 9), a small A.C. voltage will be recorded, the value of which varies with the sound signal.

The A.F. power across the load $R$ is equal to the square of the voltage recorded divided by the value of the resistor $R$ in ohms. Thus, if a reading of 2 V A.C. is recorded on a peak and $R$ is $4 \Omega$, the power of the peak is 1 W .

A greater deflection is possible by connecting the meter between the anode of the output valve and chassis, via a capacitor ( C in Fig. 9). A peak reading of about 50 V A.C. is possible, depending on the power of the output stage. It is difficult to measure power output by this method, however, but it is useful as an output meter when making adjustments to the receiver's alignment.

## The P.W. Everest Tuner

(Continued from page 119)

## Bifilar-Winding Connections

As before, the ends of the coils are shortened to about $\frac{4}{4}$ in., bared for $\frac{1}{8}$ in. and tinned with solder-the ends of the enamelled wire will have to be scraped lightly. Five connecting wires are required for this transformer as shown in Fig. 10, and the coil wires should be connected as shown. Note that the two outer wires of the bifilar winding are connected together to form the secondary centre-tap connection. If there is any doubt as to which two to connect together, check that when two are joined, the two coils of the bifilar winding are effectively in series. The 10 pF and 50 pF condensers may now be soldered in position and the screening can placed over the coil. The meter may be used to check for continuity of the windings and for lack of short circuits to the can.
Although complete winding details have been
given for the I.F. transformers, commercial transformers may be purchased and used in their place if desired. For IFT1 and IFT2, standard $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ F.M. I.F. transformers may be used, and for IFT3. a standard $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ Foster-Seeley discriminator transformer. Coils L1, L2 and L3 are easy to make and substitution of other coils is not to be recommended.

## Underchassis Screens

Next, the underchassis screens may be cut out. drilled, and bent to shape-note that the one in Fig. 11 differs slightly from that indicated on the Blueprint. The alteration has been made to give increased screening between the oscillator circuit and the R.F. stage.

All required components may now be bolted to the chassis, taking care to include soldering tags under fixing bolts where indicated in the wiring diagram (Fig. 2) on the Blueprint. Wiring should follow the Blueprint wherever possible since the layout has been carefully designed for maximum efficiency.
(To be continued)

# Short-wave Listeners' Log 

$\ell$T is very easy indeed to set up a short-wave listening station, and much interest can be obtained from one. Simple equipment serves quite well, when used in such a way as to give best results.

The receiver is naturally essential. A receiver tuning all bands from about 14 to 170 m (21 to $1.8 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ) will prove to be very satisfactory, though a more restricted coverage will also bring in many interesting transmissions. For home construction, simple 1,2 and 3 -valvers are capable of astonishing range, and are easily built, or an ordinary domestic set, with S.W. bands, may be utilised. There are, of course. specially sensitive and selective receivers designed for such purposes, and termed "communications" receivers, but many S.W. listeners commence activity with small sets.

For general listening, an all-band aerial will be needed, and it can be any of the types previously described here. Many S.W. listeners spend a lot of operating time on a particular band, such as the long distance $14 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ and $21 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ bands. In such cases. it is a good plan to have a second aerial, designed for optimum results on the chosen band. This might be a dipole. made as previously described. A 2 -way switch will allow selection of either aerial.

Provision for using either phones or speaker may be required, especially with a fairly small receiver, or to avoid disturbing other persons. The normal receiver speaker can be silenced by having an on/off switch in one lead from the output transformer to the speaker speech coil. With battery sets, high impedance phones can be connected across the transformer primary. A switch giving easy choice of phones or speaker is handy. With mains sets, the phones must be isolated by a coupling transformer, or 750 VW condensers. Weak transmissions can give ample phone volume, while being almost inaudible with a speaker. It may be convenient to fit a jack with extra contacts, so that plugging in the phones automatically silences the speaker.

A log book of results will be useful. This can include wavelength or frequency of stations heard, time, signal strength, aerials used, and other information. If 300 is divided by any wavelength in metres, this will give the frequency in $\mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Each S.W. band has a period of maximum coverage of various parts of the world, as previously described.

Some S.W. Iisteners collect QSL cards. These are acknowledgements of reception reports, obtained from transmitting stations. Some listeners have "SWL" cards printed for this purpose. These have spaces to fill in frequency, time, signal strength, type of receiver and aerial, etc. They can be filled up from information noted in the station $\log$ book.

Some means of checking frequency is often useful. This can be a signal generator, crystal frequency standard, absorption meter, or similar device. A simple wavemeter, of moderate accuracy, is very handy indeed for locating the
various bands on home-built receivers. More elaborate equipment, such as a crystal marker, will allow frequencies to be read off with great accuracy. Some other test gear and similar equipment will probably be added from time to time.

Quite a number of S.W. listeners read Morse, to increase the scope of operation, and with a view to having their own transmitting licence one day. But even without a knowledge of Morse, there will always be stations of interest audible, on some bands, at any hour.

## How to make A.C. AMMETERS

## (Continued from page 121)

A piece of relatively thin paper should now be cut to the correct size and shape, and glued carefully over the existing scale. The author has found the type of rubber-plastic solution used for gluing lino or Formica sheeting on to plywood to be the most ided glue for this purpose. It allows a neat uniform film to be applied, which is not easily possible with other adhesives. Scales glued on with cellulose glues, especially when of paper, as here, tend to have uneven bumps which could contact the pointer, and at least spoil the appearance. This trouble is not experienced with rubber solution. A few streaks should be squeezed out of the tube on to the middle of the new paper scalepiece, which is lying on a sheet of paper. These streaks are then smudged into a thin even film with the finger, taking good care to overlap over all edges on to the surrounding sheet of paper. No film of glue is applied to the metal meter scaleplate. The paper piece is then carefully positioned on to the scale plate, another new sheet of paper laid over the top, and fixture ensured by means of pressure from the fingers.

The choice of paper used for this new glued-on scale should have been such that the original scale is just still legible through the glued-on paper. The author finds normal typing paper in every way satisfactory for this purpose. As soon as the glue has dried fully, the scale 0 to 10 may be marked on, using the corresponding reference points determined above, on the still faintly visible original scale. The scale-arc should then also be traced through. For all this marking, a good blue-black ink, or preferably lndian ink, should be used. The contrast is then so great that the faint scale showing through the paper is virtually invisible.

The scaleplate should then be replaced on the meter, taking great care not to damage the pointer. The casing should be closed by replacing the grubscrews, and the calibration is finished.

This meihod of providing a meter with a new scale, here just described in detail, is used by the author whenever he needs to carry out such work -which is in fact with practically every meter he uses, as the original scale on a surplus meter is seldom usable as it stands.

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# FAULTS IN VHFFF.M. RECEIVERS 

By G. J. King

$P_{\text {RE }}$
(Continued from page 62 of the May issue)

REVIOUS articles in this series have dealt with the installation of receivers, VHF tuners, combined receivers (both valve and transistorised), circuit techniques, and general faults relating to the circuits described. In this, concluding, article we shall be looking at some fairly common troubles which occur in both F.M.-only and A.M./F.M. models, but which are often persistent and difficult to cure.

One such trouble is station drift and, although relatively common, particularly in the older models, its cause is not usually fully understood. The symptom is well known; although a station may be accurately tuned when the set is first switched oa, the tuning point drifts as the set warms up. On F.M.. detuning causes distortion accompanicd by impaired A.M. limiting.

## Ratio Detector

Most sets feature the popular ratio detector, the circuit of which is given in Fig. 17. This gives an audio output across the impedance of Cl (which is the A.F. load) of a frequency equal to the rate of change of the signal frequency and of an amplitude proportional to the frequency deviation of the signal.

This happens because of phase changes associated with the tuned circuits of the ratio detector transformer resulting from a change of frequency. There are many good books describing the effect in great detail for those who are interested.

Most F.M. detectors have two diodes like the ratio detector, and are thus "balanced" so far as the signal is concerned.

This causes the response at the detector to be rather like that in Fig. 18(b). Response A results from one half of the circuit, while response $B$ results from the other half.

If the circuit is balanced, the nominal I.F. carrier will occur accurately in the centre between the two responses, as shown by $f c$. Now, when the signal is frequency-modulated, each deviation from the resting frequency ( $f$ c) will give an audio output. Maximum modulation in BBC transmissions is equal to a frequency deviation of $\pm 75 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. This means that. on loud music, the signal may deviate from $f \mathrm{c}$ by $\pm 75 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$.

This will be all right on the curve shown, as the signal will not deviate outside the limits of the points marked " $X$ ". This part of the combined curve is straight (linear), which means that there will be very little distortion and extremely good audio quality should be obtained.

## Tuning Drift

What happens when the tuning drifts? This is shown in Fig. 18(c) over a drift of about $50 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$
on the same curve. The range of maximum modulation (between points " $X$ ") is still within the linear part of the curve, so the reproduction should be hardly impaired.

However, trouble starts when the drift is sufficient to cause peaks of modulation to reach the curved (non-linear) portions of the response, and this would happen should the carrier point $f \mathrm{c}$ shift by about $75 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ on the curve in Fig. 18(c).

In practice. one would not expect the local oscillator to cause such a big drift, but drift does occur, nevertheless. In the illustrations, we have


Fig. 17-The basic circuit of a ratio detector, showing the load across which a direct voltage is developed due to the I.F. signals being rectified by the seriesconnected diodes. CI is the A.F. load, RI a currentlimiting resistor, and $R 2$ and $C 2$ the de-emphasis network. The pre-set resistor R4 facilitates a balance adjustment for optimum A.M. Iimiting.
assumed that the bandwidth of the detector is $\pm 200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. This is an ideal value, but is rarely found in commercial receivers for various reasons. To achieve such a passband, the response of the I.F. channel would have to be something like that in Fig. 18(a). Most commercial sets can be aligned to give a response of that kind, but only at the expense of gain.

Most sets are aligned with a passband of about $100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. This is reasonable from the aspect of quality of reproduction, but does not always provide sufficient tolerance for oscillator drift. Some sets handled by the author had bandwidths of
only about $5.0 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ and some also had a very distorted I.F. response curve.

## Limited Response

The overall I.F. response curve on a set with a $\pm 100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ bandwidth is shown in Fig. 19(a). This is quite a good curve since it has a fairly flat top and, provided the ratio detector were correctly
balanced, the detector response would be something like the curve in Fig. 19(b). This would handle full modulation over the linear part of the curve as long as the undeviated carrier were kept fairly close to the centre of the linear part (at point $f \mathrm{c}$ ). A small deviation from this centre, however, would cause the signal to enter the curved part of the response and result in severe distortion. A drift of only $50 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ would


Fig. 19 (below) - With a narrow I.F. bandwidth (a), and a linear discriminator response (b) of only $100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$, tuning drift would cause distortion when the signal frequency excursions reached the curved parts of the discriminator characteristic-as at $X-X$.
An asymmetrical I.F. response (c) would give rise to lack of linearity in the discriminator response (d).

(a)

(c)

(b)

(d) cause the signal to traverse between the points marked "X" on the curve.

Clearly, then, the more limited the overall response, the more critical becomes the tuning. and the more oscillator drift is magnified. On a set with a bandwidth less than $100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. it is virtually impossible to maintain accurate tuning for any length of time without automatic correction (AFC).

## Distorted Response

A distorted response, which is also limited in bandwidth, makes results even worse, as revealed by the curves in (c) and (d) of Fig. 19. In Fig. 19 (c) the top of the I.F. response is far from flat, and this is reflected into the ratio detector response as severe non-linearity between the two responses. At a certain critical tuning point it may be possible to cause a signal with low-level modulation to ride over a reasonably linear portion of the response with not too much distortion, but a small drift from the critical point or an increase in modulation level would result in extremely poor quality.

Unlike A.M., F.M. produces multiple sidebands which extend up to about six times the modulation frequency. Thus, if the modulation frequency is, say. $16 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$, then the sidebands would exterd up to about $96 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. A fairly wide pass-band is necessary, therefore, simply from the sideband angle - to avoid attenuation of the higher audio frequencies.

## Older Sets

With the advent of VHF/F.M., much of the country was in the fringe of the service areas and sets with the highest possible gain were needed. As gain and bandwidth are not compatible, many early models were aligned for extra high gain and reduced bandwidth, and such adjustment resulted in the problems described in the foregoing text.

As VHF/F.M. became country-wide with the erection (Continued on page 153)

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## (Contimued from page 150)

of main stations and translators, and as the figure of merit of valves improved, so it has been possible on later receivers to provide sufficient gain coupled with adequate bandwidth. Thus, more recent models are considerably less prone to , critical tuning and distortion than their "vintage " counterparts.
Nevertheless, there are many thousands of the older VHF/F.M. sets still in use, and a very large percentage of these can be brought into line with the new models by nothing more elaborate than carcful realignment.

## Simple Alignment Check

Many experimenters and service technicians immediately concentrate attention on the oscillator stability of the VHF tuner on a set which suffers badly from tuning drift. This is a good point but rarely the cause of the trouble (or effect). All VHF oscillators drift as they warm up. Much has been done to reduce the effect by the use of positive and negative temperature coefficient capacitors arranged in critical proportion in the oscillator tuned circuits. But drift still occurs in a small way, and it is unlikely whether improvement could be achieved by changing the positions or coefficients of the capacitors. The designers


Fig. 20-judging the alignment of o F.M. set by tuning through a station-see text.
spent a lot of time in the first place to reduce drift by these means, so unskilled tampering with the oscillator circuits of the tuner would probably make matters even worse. In nearly all cases the trouble is the inability of the I.F. passband to cater for "reasonable" drift.

A rough assessment of the bandwidth and alignment of an F.M. set can be secured by tuning the set over a station while observing certain factors. Detuning either side of a transmission will result in bad cistortion, as we have already seen, but if the distortion occurs the same distance away from the station either side of the correct tuning point it can be assumed that the ratio detector response is reasonably symmetrical.

On low-level modulation, a distortion-free but reduced output should be obtainable either side of the correct tuning point - just before the areas of heavy distortion (due to the signal riding up and down only one half of the linear detector response) as shown in Fig. 20. The distances from the correct tuning point to the points of no response either side should be equal, and the distance between the correct tuning point and the


Fig. 21 -The overall pass-band of the receiver can be plotted by measuring the D.C. load voltage ot the ratio detector against the input infrequency.
point of no response one side should equal at least $100 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ for good quality and freedom from excessive drift effects.

## Use of a Signal Generator and Voltmeter

As it is rather difficult to measure frequency on the scale of an ordinary VHF/F.M. set a better way is to plot the overall passband on graph paper by measuring the voltage across the D.C. load of the ratio detector at various spot frequencies within the I.F. passband-see Fig. 21. The voltmeter is connected across the load as shown in Fig. 17, and an unmodulated signal at the nominal I.F. is injected into the mixer grid. The signal input should be adjusted to give about 10 V on the meter (more is likely to overload the set and bring in any other A.M. limiters that may be in circuit), and the frequency should be adjusted in steps of about $10 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ either side of the nominal I.F.

A curve such as that shown in Fig. 21 would be ideal. Usually, however, it is either narrower or asymmetrical, indicating that realignment is necessary. In this event the set should be completely realigned in accordance with the service sheet or manual. The best idea, of course, is to use an oscilloscope and wobbulator so as to obtain a display of the response on the screen of the CRT. The cores of the I.F. transformers may then be adjusted, while observing the response, to secure the required passband and symmetry. Such alignment procedures have been deait with in past pages of this magazine.

[^3]
#  <br> ews <br>  

## REPORTS OF CURRENT ACTIVITIES

## amateur radio mobile society

Hon. Sec.: G3FPK, 79 Murchison Road, London, E.IO.
Sunday, June 24th, has been slected for this year's International Mobile Rally and A.R.M.S. annual general meeting, which will once more be held at Bariord Sc. John. The largest gathering of mobile hams during April was at the North Midlands Mobile Rally held on April 29th.

Future Events:
May 6th-South Eastern Counties Mobile Rally.
June 17th-Longlear Mobile Rally.
BARNSLEY AND DISFRICT AMATEUR RADIO CLUB Hon. Sec.: P. Carbutt, G2AFV, 19 Warner Road, Barnsley, Yorkshire.

On April 13th members heard a talk, given by J. Walker, on workshop practice, and on the 27 th of the same month, W. Lee gave a lecture on $\mathrm{VFO} / \mathrm{CO}$ mixers.

Furure Event:
May IIth-Transistors in a station, by J. Ward.

## BRADFORD RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: M. T. G. Powell, G3NNO, Gledhow Avenue, Roundhay, Leeds 8.

A sale of spare equipment was held on April 10th and on April 25 th the arrangements for the field day were discussed.

Future Event:
May 8th-A visit to an automatic telephone exchange.

## EXETER AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: S. Line, 46 Roseland Crescent, Heavitree, Exeter, Devon.

At the meeting on March 6th, members of the sociery challenged amateurs from the Torquay club in a general knowledge quiz. The meeting which was well atrended, proved an enjoyable evening, with Tarquay ending up the victors by a narrow margin.

## FLINTSHIRE RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: H. T. Jones, GW3NQP, "Bedwyn", Queens Walk, Rhyl.
GW3JGA/T gave a talk on amateur colour television on March 26th, and on April 30th, members enjoyed a film show.

GUILDFORD AND DISTRICT RADIO SOCIETY
Hon. Sec.: J. Barker, G3PDX, 35 Banders Rise, Merrow, Guildford, Surrey.

At the meeting on March 23rd, E. Drackley gave a talk on aerial tuning units and aerial couplers.

The election of officers for 1962/3 was one of the items on the agenda of the annual general meeting which was held on April 12th.
HALIFAX AND DISTRICT AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY Hon. Sec.: G. Sunter, 24 Booth Fold, Luddenden Foot, Halifax, Yorkshire.
Life on two metres was the subject of a talk given to members on May 8th, by G5YV.
Future Events:
May 22nd-Ragchew.
June 5th-Visit to Ferranti.
MEDWAY AMATEUR RECEIVING AND TRANSMITTING SOCIETY
Hon. Sec.: W. E. Nutton, G6NU, 42 Richmond Road, Gillingham, Kent.

Elliote's radio society has combined with the Medway society to hold a Hamfest and Mobile Rally at Rochester Airport. It is to be held on May 20th and will start at 2.30 p.m. There will be parking space for 300 mobiles. Admission will be by ticket and these may be obtained from the address given above or at the door.

NORTHERN HEIGHTS AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY Hon. Sec.: A. Robinson, G3MDW, Candy Cabin, Ogden, Halifax, Yorkshire.

Recently members have heard a talk, given by G3GIV, on his activities as a mobile amateur. On May 2nd members visited the Leeds and Bradford airport at Yeadon.

Future Events:
May 16th-Converters, by G3OGV.
May 30th-Visit to the Holme Moss television station.

## PETERBOROUGH RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: D. Byrne, G3KPO, Jersey House, Eye, Peterborough, Northamptonshire.

At the invitation of the Telephone Manager of the Peterborough automatic telephone exchange, members toured the exchange at their March meeting. On April 6th members attended a lecture on short-wave communication receivers. 'Aerials' was the subject of the talk given at the meeting on May 4th.

## PRESTON AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: W. K. Beazley, 9 Thorngate, Penwortham, Preston, Lancashire.
Meetings are held on the second and fourth Tuesdays of each month. They are held at St. Paul's school in Preston, and commence at 7.30 p.m. All local licenced amateurs and SWL's are invited to any meeting.
Basic valve circuits was the title of the illustrated tape lecture given on April 10ch.

## RHONDDA VALLEY RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: A. Chapman, Royal Hotel, Trealaw, Rhondda,
Despite the extremely cold weather and an outbreak of smallpox in the area, many members turned out for the society's annual dinner on March lst, to make it a memorable occasion. The guest speaker was Mr. A. Williams, the zonal represencative of the R.S.G.B. in Port Talbot.

## ROYSTON AND DISTRICT RADIO CLUB

Hon. Sec.: H. E. Taynor, G3NAH, 103 Cross Lane, Royston, near Barnsley, Yorkshire.

On April 19th members heard about a modulator for a top-band transmitter, and on May 3rd a power supply for a transmitter or receiver was the subject for the meeting.

## SOUTH MANCHESTER RADIO CLUB

Hon. Sec.: M. Barnsley, G3HZM, "Greenways", II Cemetery Road, Denton, Manchester, Lancashire.

The address of the club's new headquarters is; Fallowfield Bowling and Lawn Tennis Club, 81 Wellington Road, Fallowfield, Manchester 14.

The title of G3HZM's talk on April 6th was "Simple transmitters, methods of modulation". On April 13th, single sideband transmitting and receiving techniques were discussed in the lecture given by G3GRO. The club's transmitter was on the air at the meeting on May 4 th.

## SLADE RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: C. N. Smart, IIO Woolmore Road, Erdington, Birmingham 23.
T. J. Hay ward-G3HHD-gave a lecture on aerials at the meeting on April 6th, and on April 20th, an evening direction finding contest was held.

## SPEN VALLEY AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: N. Pride, 100 Raikes Lane, Birstall, near Leeds.
Railway signalling was the subject chosen for the meeting on April 11 th and on 25 th of that month, L. Stevenson talked about simple maths.

Future Event:
May 9th-More abour counting, by Dr. N. H. Chamberlain.

## TORBAY AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: Mrs. G. Western, G3NQD, II8 Salisbury Avenue, Torquay, Devon.

At the society's annual dinner held on March 3rd, trophies were presented to the five winners in each class.

The annual general meeting was held in April.
Future Event:
May 12th-Discussion on preparation for N.F.D.

## YORK AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

Hon. Sec.: N. Spivey, G3GWI, 80 Melton Avenue, Clifton, York.

At the AGM held on March Ist, G. F. Nottingham was elected chairman and N. Spivey was elected secretary and treasurer. The committee was also elected.
The club transmitter was the subject under discussion at the meeting on March 29th and on April 26th plans were laid for the N.F.D.

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The switches can be supplied with one, two or three wafers, with one, two or four poles per wafer and giving 2 to 12,2 to 7 or 2 to 4 positions, depending upon the number of poles. Shorting or non -shorting contacts are optional.

Indexing is in $30^{\circ}$ steps and the detent mechanism is of positive single-ball type. One fixed and one adjustable stop are provided: the latter is adjustable to operate at any position between the second and eleventh and is omitted where 12 -position switching is required.
N.S.F. Limited, 31-32, Alfred Place, London W.C.I.

## H!-FI CABINETS

I RANGF of cabinets designed specifically for hi-fi equipment has recently been introduced by G.K. Developments. The range goes under the name of "Spacemaker".

The standard "Spacemaker" units will accommodate most makes of amplifiers or record players, and consists of two cabinets-one for equipment, the other, a speaker enclosure. The equipment cabinet measures $35 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in} . x 11 \mathrm{in} . \times 16 \mathrm{in}$. and is finished in sapele woodgrat with the facia and sides in black, gold and silver. The speaker enclosure is constricted throughout of $\frac{3}{4} \mathrm{in}$. non-


Above-A newly designed hi-fi cabinet by G.K. Developments.


The model JK rotary switch from N.S.F. Limited.
resonant material. and is of bass reflex design, fitted with internal filter, suitable for speakers up to 10 in . (12in. version available). The top is veneered in sapele mahogany and the facia and sides in white, gold and silver.

The "Spacemaker" units are made by G.K. Development: (Sound Division), 18 Albany Road, London N.I4.

## MULTIMETERS

'YHERE are two models of the
Selectest multimeter, made by Salford Electrical Instruments Limited: the Super K and the Super 50.

Most of the components in both models are mounted on a printed circuit board, enclosed in a strong, two-tone moulded case. The overall dimensions of this case are approximately $9 \frac{1}{2}$. $x$ 7in. $x 4 \frac{3}{4} \mathrm{in}$.

Three scales are provided, with a mirror inset and knife-edged pointer to eliminate parallax errors. On the Super K model, two scales, 0 to 75 with 75 divisions and 0 to 300 with 150 divisions are used for all current and voltage ranges, and the third, 0 to $1,000 \leq 2$ covers all three ohn ranges. The Super 50 's current and voltage scales are 0 to 100 with 100 divisions and 0 to 25 with 50 divisions.

The range required is selected by two rotary multi-position switches capable of continuous rotation in either direction.

The sensitivity of the Super K D.C. voltage ranges is $1,000 \Omega / \mathrm{V}$, and A.C. voltage ranges $50012 / \mathrm{V}$. The sensitivity of the Super 50 D.C. voltage ranges is $20,000 \Omega / \mathrm{V}$, A.C. voltage ranges $2,00012 / \mathrm{V}$, and 2.5 V A.C. range $167 \Omega / \mathrm{V}$.
Salford Electrical Instruments Limited, Peel Works, Silk Street, Salford 3, Lancashire.

instrument made by Salford Electrical Instruments Limited.

of the range. costing 128 guineas.
This model has two speeds; $3 \frac{3}{\frac{3}{4}}$ or $7 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in} . / \mathrm{sec}$. The TK 60 weighs 55 lb . and has a frequency response of 50 to $15.000 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$.

Grundig (Great Britain) Limited, Newlands Park, Sydenham, London S.E.26.

## portable radio

${ }^{7}$ 'HE model TB.61, from Pam Radio and Television Ltd.. is a new transistorised portable receiver. It includes six transistors and features printed circuit design. Primarily the receiver uses an internal ferrite rod aerial but provision has been made for its use with an external aerial. The set covers both medium and long wavebands and tuning is achieved by a slow-motion tuning dial.

The recciver is finished in tan and grey with a silver and black facia. It measures only $9 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. x 5 in . $x 3$ in. and weighs $2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{lb}$. The price of the TB. 61 is 15 guineas and it is manufactured by Pam Radio

## RANGE OF TAPE RECORDERS

$\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}$ this ye year's International Grundig (Great Britain) Limited exhibited their current range of tape recorders-the TK1, TK14, TK40 and TK60.
The TK40 is a four track model, incorporating every facility that the keen amateur enthusiast coukd possibly need - three speeds, facilities for superimposition, synchronised superimposition and the mixing of two inputs etc. It has a frequency response of 60 $18,000 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ and costs 75 guineas.
The model TK1 has a speed of $3 \frac{3}{4} \mathrm{in} . / \mathrm{sec}$. and uses a 3 in . spool. It weighs only $81 b$ and has a frequency response of 100 to $8,000 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$. The price of this model is 29 guineas.
The TK 14 also runs at 33 in. $/ \mathrm{sec}$. but uses a $5 \frac{3}{4}$ in. spool. The frequency response is somewhat better than the TK1, being 60 to $12,000 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$. This machine costs 35 guineas.


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Referred to maximum output and including integral pre-amp.-70 d.b.
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N the course of experiments and constructional work, it repeatedly happens that a small one- or two-valve circuit has been built, which requires a small H.T. current of a few milliamps, at voltages between about 100 and 300 . Unless the constructor has built, or purchased, a universal variable stabilised power unit (which will, of course, be the ultimate aim of most serious constructors) it is always a problem to meet such low-power H.T. needs. The output voltage of


Fig. I-Using the normal cathode bias and grid leak resistors with on output valve as rectifier.

normal H.T. units is generally too high, so that various series-resistor voltage-droppers are used. These serve the purpose very well for rough adjustment of the final output voltage, but do not lend themselves well to providing continuous regulation, so that a particular desired valtage may be set exactly. If control down to very low voltages is desired, high-resistance variable resistors would be needed, whilst these must also be capable of carrying the maximum current. Consequently potentiometers of high wattage are required, which are expensive.

## Output Valve as Rectifler

It would thus be more economical to use an output-valve as the series resistor, controlled by means of its grid-bias voltage. The grid-bias potentiometer can be of normal carbon type, as negligible power is needed in the grid circuit. Now the ultimate benefit of this type of circuit is apparent when it is further realised that the same valve can be made to function as H.T. rectifier, and to supply its own control grid bias, as well as an automatic limiting bias to prevent excessive current if the output is short-circuited.

It is the subject of this article to discuss such a circuit, with special attention to the factors governing the choice of the most suitable type of output valve to use as "grid-controlled rectifier". and also to some other important Dractical factors to be observed.

## Electrode Connections

lt is, in principle, possible to strap all electrodes except the cathode together, for use as "anode". to make any valve whatsoever function as a rectifier diode, and in practice this will also work very well-up to a certain maximum voltage of operation, which is usually very low.
It is necessary to pay careful attention to peak voltages, especially inverse voltages (i.e., for the non-conducting direction, when the anode is negative to cathode). and also to the question of "what to do with the grid", when using an output valve as an H.T. rectifier. It is most certainly not permissible to strap the grid to the anode, even via a series-resistor of normal grid-leak value to limit grid current on positive half-cycles to a safe value, unless the operating voltage is to be very low (not exceeding about 50 V r.m.s. applied A.C.). The smoothing condensers charge up to the peak of the applied A.C. on positive half-cycles (about 1.5 times the r.m.s. voltage), which thus constitutes the cathode voltage of the valve (see Fig. 1). On the peak of the negative half-cycles, where the valve does not conduct, the anode will be negative to chassis by about 1.5 times the r.m.s. A.C. voltage-i.e., negative to the cathode by a total of three times the r.m.s. A.C. voltage. If the grid were strapped to the anode, even via a large resistor, this large voltage difference would appear between grid and cathode. If a 250 V r.m.s. transformer winding were used, the grid would thus go to a peak of about 750 V negative to the


Fig. 2-Feeding the screen from a tap on the transformer instead of strapping it to the anode.
cathode, if it is strapped to the anode, which will certainly produce breakdown in any ordinary output valve.

## Normal Cathode Resistor

This discussion shows that it is necessary :o connect the grid to some point with a potential in the region of that of the cathode. Thus, the next most obvious thing to do is to use the normal cathode bias resistor Rk , and grid-leak Rg, for the valve, and connect these in exactly the same way relative to the valve as if it were used for its normal purpose as an output valve. This is shown also in Fig. 1. One advantage of doing this
is already apparent, for if the output terminals in Fig. 1 are completely short-circuited, the valve is seen to have actually degenerated to the normal output-vaive connection, apart from the minor difference that the loudspeaker transformer is


Fig. 3-A variable output circuit using an EL34.
missing in the anode circuit, and that A.C. instead of D.C. feed is used. The latter means that the full voltage is only present some of the time instead of all the time at the anode, so that the maximum current through the valve and into the short-circuit certainly cannot exceed the normal anode current of the valve. The circuit is thus necessarily short-circuit proof. Furthermore, initial surge-current into a discharged reservoir condenser Cr cannot ever exceed the normal H.T. current of the valve, for the same reasons. Thus the usual restrictions on the maximum size of reservoir condenser present for diode rectifiers are not required, and very large smoothing and reservoir condensers may be used, to give excellent smoothing if needed.

## Anode and Screen

This has taken care of the grid. It remains to consider the voltage stresses on anode and screen. If these electrodes are strapped together, as is normally permissible in this circuit, and as is shown in Fig. 1, the peak inverse voltage impressed on these, relative to the cathode, is three times the r.m.s. transformer voltage, for reasons explained above. It may safely be assumed that the peak inverse voltage rating is at least as large as the peak positive normal operating voltage at these electrodes. Thus the problem of choice of output valve resolves to finding one of suitably high peak anode and screen voltage rating. The use of line-output valves from television circuitry is immediately suggested, as these are built for very high transient anode voltages occuring in a line timebase outpui stage. Thus one would consider, for
(Continued on page 165)

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## (Continued from page 162)

example, using a PL36 here. This is rated at 7000 V transient peak anode voltage, which is ample under all circumstances for our present purposes, but the screen rating is only 250 V peak, which is too low for safety. A further disadvantage is the 23 V heater voltage, which is not easily available. A normal output valve of the 6V6-type, or an EL84, has a normal 6.3 V heater, but maximum anode and screen voltage ratings of about 300 . This would not safely allow a transforme: input voltage of more than about 100 V r.m.s. to be used in Fig. 1 if breakdown were to be avoided.

## Test Circuit

The writer, for purposes of a practical test. has however, set up the circait of Fig. 1 with a 6 V 6. using a transformer A.C. voltage as high as 350 V r.m.s. This arrangement was left operating for many hours and did not break down, nor showed the slightest tendency io do so, although the peak
inverse anode voltage must have been nearly 1000 V under these conditions, at least three times as high as the normal rating of a 6 V 6 . The fact that this circuit worked for a long period without breakdown should not be taken as recommendation for its copying by experimenters, but rather as an indication of the quality of modern components. The writer remains doubtful of the reliability of a 6 V 6 in this circuit for really longterm operation. We must look further for a really suitable valve. The 807, with a peak anode rating of 600 V , sereen 300 V , is easily obtainable on the surplus market for a few shillings, and in view of the results mentioned already for a 6 V 6 , is almost certain to frovide long-term reliability in the circuit of Fig. 1, The writer would thus safely recommend the use of an 807 for an r.m.s. A.C. voltage up to 250 at the transformer (the 6 V 6 . of lower rating, was tested at 350 V r.m.s.), It might be advisable to feed the screen from a tap at about 200 V on the transformer, instead of strapping to the anode, as shown in Fig. 2.
(To be continued)

## How Transistors Work

(Continued from page 139)
positive at the base-see Fig. 25). This, then, gives the curve of Fig, 26 which. for a circuit in the common base mode, is really a representation of the leakage current (ico).

This leakage current rises to a constant value with increase in negative collector voltage from point $A$ to point $B$. Point B is sometimes called the "softening voltage" (rather the same as the turn-over voltage of a semi-conductor diode biased for reverse conduction). When point $B$ is reached, Ico starts to rise rapidly. The peak voltage swing of the collector is usually limited to a value which is about $25 \%$ below the softening voltage, while the maximum equivalent direct voltage of the collector is usually considered as being about $75 \%$ below the softening voltage, as shown on the curve.

When a transistor is arranged in the common emitter mode, then the factors as described above still apply, but the whole curve is scaled down, since, undet this condition, the softening voltage occurs at a value below that for common basc operation. The curve then shows leakage current with the base open-circuited, usually denoted 1'co-see Fig. 27.

## Tester for Comparative Checks

From the foregoing it will be understood that both Ico and I'co increase in value with increase in temperature. Either when a transistor is too warm or in some way defective the value of leo or l'co rises considerably and in severe cases could result in a reversed conduction approaching the value of forward conduction. It is then that a transistor ceases to operate as such.

The D.C. gain of a transistor is really a measure of the ratio of lco and collector current when base current is flowing. In Fig. 28 is given a simple circuit which facilitates ratio measurements of this kind on both $n p n$ and $p n p$ transistors. With
a transistor connected correctly to the terminals indicated, and with S2 in the appropriate position, a very small reading will be recorded on M1 when $S 1$ is closed. This is effectively the leakage current between emitter and collector with the base open (e.g., Ico). On a good transistor the reading should not exceed $0.1 \mathrm{~mA}(100 \mu \mathrm{~A})$, but should normally be less than this.

This reading will be influenced by the air temperature around the transistor, as already explained, and the temperature sensitivity can vividly be demonstrated simply by bringing the heat from a soldering iron towards the component under test (avoid too much heat!).

Transistors are also light sensitive, which is one of the reasons why they are painted black or sealed in a light-proof container. If there is any leakage of light through the case Ico will change with room illumination,

## Indication of D,C. Gain

Now, when the button marked " press to test D.C. gain" is depressed, the base circuit is closed through the 8.2 k resistor which goes back to the battery at the appropriate polarity. The meter reading will then rise up to the region of 0.6 mA at least: and it is this change in current which gives an indication of the D.C. gain. The greater the change, the greater the gain.

Clearly, then. the tester can be used to select transistors from a bunch and will. at least, al'ow comparative checks and show whether a unit is serviceable or not. It can also be used to select matched pairs of transistors for push-pull output stages. It is fairly fool-proof as the battery voltage almost prevents burning out transistors.

The circuit can also be used to test semiconductor diodes., The diode is simply connected between the "E" and "C" terminals and the reverse and forward conduction ratio can be assessed by switching $S 2$ from one position to the other. With a good diode, the current change should not be less than about 0.6 mA .
(To be continued)


The Editor does not necessarily agree with the opinions expressed by his correspondents.


#### Abstract

Whilst we are always pleased to assist readers with their cechnical difficulties, we regret that we are unable to supply diagrams or provide instructions for modifying commercial or surplus equipment. We cannot supply alternative details for receivers described in these pages. WE CANNOT UNDERTAKETO ANSWER QUERIES OVERTHETELE. PHONE. If a postal reply is required a stamped and addressed envelope must be enclosed with the coupon from page iil of tha cover.


## P.W. MINUETTE

$\mathrm{S}^{I R},-1$ have just constructed the P.W. Minuette, which was described in the January and February issues of Practical Wireless, and I am very pleased with the results. Among dozens of other stations it receives Luxembourg loud and clear.

I have omitted the telescopic aerial and used a $5 \frac{1}{2}$ in. ferrite slab instead. I have also fitted a personal earpiece socket.
The tuning condenser I have used is a solid dielectric type and I have found that a 100 k reaction control works well instead of the 50 k potentiometer shown in the issue. - V. Lowe (Droylesden, Lancashire).

## TELEVISION SOUND -

SR,-I know that much has already been said about the reception of television sound on short waves, but most reports mention signals picked up on the 80 m band. One evening while listening on short waves, TV sound came in quite loud on 15 m . The signal was definitely being emitted from the receiver downstairs, as my commercial superhet receiver picked up whichever channel was selected on the television.

I see that one reader suggests that the signals come from the A.F. stages of the TV receiver, but I doubt if this is the case, as reception of ITV sound was much weaker than BBC. no matter how high the volume of the television.-P. Foster (Denmead, Hampshire).

## CORRESPONDENTS WANTED

SIR,-I have only recently taken up radio and electronics as a hobby and I would like to correspond with English radio amateurs wishing to exchange ideas, news and information on these subjects. I will answer all letters received.Ahmed Awad Aboul Enien ( 8 Ebn fernas Street, Fleming, Alexandria, United Arab Republic).

## PURCHASING BY POST

SIR,-I often hear complaints about the service given by mail order firms-about slow service, wrong components sent, etc. But I wonder how often it is the fault of the purchaser and not the supplier that causes problems when ordering components by post.

I am sure that if people indicated precisely which articles are required, addressed the envelopes correctly and enclosed the exact cost of alt, including the postage, many more of the public would realise that mail-order firms are a very convenient sales medium. By experience I have found that careful attention to the above three points will, in nearly all cases, ensure swift service, and if there is any delay-caused by heavy demands for a particular component, for example-patience or a polite reminder note will work wonders.-P. S. Harrison (Guildford).

## local station pick-up

SIR,-I have experienced a trouble which appears, from my chats with workmates, to be fairly common. The effect I refer to is the direct pick up of the local station on a taperecorder, when this is set up to make recordings with an ordinary microphone-not with a radio jack. It appears to be due, in many instances, to the input valve of the recording amplifier "bottom bending" and I have improved this with a modification in the value of the cathode bias resistor. In other cases, this was ineffective and the only cure was to shorten the microphone lead, and to use coaxial cable in place of thin screened lead as fitted to the microphone. It would be interesting if other readers' cures for this trouble could be enumerated, as there appears to be a real fault with this type of apparatus, and there must be a single "cure-all" for all types of recorder.-R. Ferguson (Barnet).

## THE AMATEUR TRANSMITTER

SIR.-With reference to G. D. Thornton's remarks in the November issue. "Let would-be hams ioin the C.D." I agree, but, what about those who cannot, such as serving soldiers? Let's face it, the licensing regulations were written when Marconi was a boy and are still in force. With the GPO now clamping down on Radio Clubs, no person, who is not a licence holder, will be allowed to transmit, no wonder there are pirates and Ghost Clubs with no members. No wonder why, on 40 m and 80 m I have heard G's saying, "Sorry O.M. unmodulated $S 9$ carrier". If a person could operate and study, the result would be no, or very few pirates. As the transmitter stands today, a child could operate one, and keep it TVI-proof (cost $£ 50+£ 3$ 10s. for low pass filters-TVI-proof; l've done it). The manufacturer has taken the first step and produced a low cost, good Tx. Now let the GPO act. A simple test of ability to tune and erect aerials should give grace for 18 months to take the R.A.E.--E. J. Booth (Ex 9M2, DL2, now BRS15100), York.

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A discussion of some factors of fundamental practical importance in the design of circuits using neon-tubes, leading to some simple but worthwhile further improvement to the "Experimenter's Power Pack" published in Practical Wireless, January 1962 etc.

By M. L. Michaelis

$\rightarrow$FTER completing nearly 2,000 operating hours successfully, mostly non-stop for periods of over a week at a time, the author's prototype of the " Experimenter's Power Pack" was taken down for a routine inspection.

This inspection was carried out extremely thoroughly, as it was of great experimental interest to examine all effects of such prolonged non-stop usage. Thus not only were voltages and currents checked at every point of importance in the circuit, using a meter, but also all such points were tested for the slightest A.C.-components of voltages present, using an oscilloscope with a sensitive Ydeffection amplifier. This oscillographic investigation was primarily intended to test for possible deteriorations regarding hum-levels after such drastic long period usage. No drifts in this respect were found compared with the original values noted just after the original completion of the unit, but some other, most unexpected and mysterious effects were shown up on the oscilloscope, in that various A.C.-components of frequencies vastly different from the mains (anything from a few cycles per second, to many kc/s) were present. chiefly of good sawtooth waveform, often amplitude of frequency modulated at mains frequency or harmonics. These A.C.-components were present at the most varied points of the circuit, and their exact waveforms and frequencies depended greatly on the magnitude of loadings placed on the various outputs of the unit. They appeared and disappeared in an apparently haphazard manner, too, as the loadings at the ouputs were changed.

## Levels

All amplitudes were, however, invariably very small, seldom amounting to more than about $1 \%$ or $2 \%$ of the actual D.C. voltages present at the points concerned. Thus they were invariably of the same order of magnitude as hum levels to be expected in simple unstabilised power supplies of conventional design which is the reason why these peculiar oscillations here had not manifest themselves earlier as interference in apparatus fed from the unit, but were noticed only during the routine inspection. Nevertheless, they represent a definite "fault" to be diagnosed and cured, particularly as this unit, being a fully stabilised power supply, has very low intrinsic hum-levels.

Initial checks after completion of the original construction also included oscillographic checks,

## in the

## Experimenter's

## Power Pack

and showed no such peculiar oscillations whatsoever in the final design at that time. These oscillations have thus definitely appeared some time during the long and continuous usage since.

## Investigation

Being thoroughly puzzled as to the exact cause and method of cure for these oscillations, the author decided to extend what was originally supposed to be a routine check, in order to perform a detailed experimental investigation of these effects, with a view to understanding them and removing them. The cathode-ray oscilloscope and an electionic audio frequency meter proved invaluable tools for a successful conclusion of these experiments. Knowledge gained therefrom is considered to be of such fundamental practical importance that it has formed the basis of this article.

Some hours were spent in a systematic recording of all frequencies, waveforms and amplitudes observed at all important points, for systematic


Fig. 1-Basic neon stabiliser circuit; a very steady voltage appears awoss $C$ and the neon tube. This voltage is constant for large variations in the current drawn from the output. The neon is permanently struck and the current through it is always such that, when added to the output current, the correct voltage drop is given across $R$ to keep the voltage across the neon (output voltage) constant.
variation of load-currents in steps at the outputs. With the tabulated results, circuit diagrams, valve data tables, etc. an interpretation was worked out and circuit modifications devised which thereupon ought to effect a full cure. Upon returning to the workshop and performing the small circuit-modifications devised, the cure was in fact immediate and complete. It was no longer possible to induce the slightest trace of low-amplitude oscillations under any circumstances within the normal ratings of the outputs.

## Causes of the Instability

The causes of the peculiar instability were traced to be entirely due to the neon-tubes. Fig. 1 shows a conventional neon-stabiliser circuit. four of which appear in the 'Experimenter's Power Pack’. Fig. 2 shows a conventional neon-osciliator giving a sawtooth waveform output. It is at once seen that there is absolutoly no outwardly visible difference between the two circuits. Yet the one is supposed to oscillate, and the other to stahilise (i.e. suppress oscillation-etc.)-two contradictory functionsfrom


Fig. 2-Basic nean oscillator circuit with the output waveform. The circuit is apparently identical to Fig. I, yet it is an oscillator with a sawtooth output instead of a stobiliser.
$C$ chorges through $R$ until the striking voltage of the neon is reached at time $A$. The neon strikes, and $C$ is rapidly discharged to the extinguishing voltage, which is reached at time B shortly ofter $A$. The neon is then extinguished, and $C$ recharges slowly through $R$ until at time $C$ the striking voltage is reached once again. The cycle repeats CDEF, etc., and thus a sawtooth woveform appears of the output.
apparently identical circuit arrangements. That the same circuit in fact does perform hoth functions is an experimentally proved fact. and thus it is obvious that the precise operating conditions of voltage and current must determine which of the two opposing functions the circuit will actually perform. There will be a region of operating points promoting oscillation, and a region of operating points promoting stabilisation. The border-line between the two regions may be more or less ill-defined, giving rise to erratic behaviour partially oscillating and partially stabilising. which was clearly the case with the author's power supply. The fact that the main function in his case was still pretty good stabilisation, with only very small amplitude oscillation of erratic character, shows that his operating points lay within the "stabilisation region ", but not far enough from its boundary to secure absolute stability. It was necessary to obtain a clear understanding of the factors which determine whether an operating point lies within the "oscillation" range or the "stabilisation" range, and subsequentiy to modify values of resistors to secure ,operating points further within the "stabilisation" ranges.

## Negative Resistance

This magazine is of a practical nature, and does not wish to burden its readers with matters of theory. Nevertheless, small theoretical points must be dealt with briefly if these are necessary for a proper appreciation of practical matters, and thus no apology is needed for the following brief discussion of negative resistance.

The concept of negative resistance can be looked at in two ways. A greater current flowing through such a resistance causes less voltage drop instead of more voltage drop across it. i.e. it obeys Ohms Law in reverse. To drive a larger current through a negative resistance we need to reduce the voltage. The other way of looking at it is to say that current passing through a negative resistance does not consume power, but generates power. Now it is obvious that such a peculiar thing as a negative resistance, were it to be connected into a circuit containing otherwise normal components. could not settle down to a particular voltage and current value, as its own requirements for a relation between the two defy all the normal rules of electricity. Consequently, the voltages and currents must oscillate up and down continuously, in a futile attempt to find a stable operating point. The result is simply an oscillator circuit.

If a net resulting negative resistance is present in any circuit whatsoever, i.e. a negative resistance conponent in excess of that necessary to compensate the total normal positive resistance present in the circuit. then the circuit always oscillates, without exception. The converse is also true: if a circuit oscillates in any form whatsoever, then net negative resistance must be present in it, without exception. Oscillation and negative resistance never occur separate from one another. Consequently. if a circuit is unstable, we must seek the causes of a negative-resistance component. which is certain to be present. On the other hand. if we wish to cause a circuit to oscillate, we must take steps to create sufficient negative resistance in it, i.e. create a portion in its characteristic where either decreasing the voltage causes the current to increase. or where increasing the current causes decrease of power consumption (increase of power generation).

## Examples

The conventional valve-oscillator using some form of reaction coil is the most familiar example. Here the grid-circuit is caused to go negative in its net resistance value, for the following reasons. If current increases in the grid circuit, greatly amplified power is fed back into the grid circuit from the anode circuit, via the reaction coil, so that the net consumption of power in the grid circuit is reduced, representing the conditions of negative resistance. In other forms of valve oscillators or their transistor equivalents the powerfeedback to create negative resistance is via internal or external valve capacities, etc. Similar, though more involved, forms of reasoning are applicable to the various multivibrator types, etc. used in timebase circuits. All these oscillators are of the "externally produced " negative resistance type, i.e. the characteristics of negative resistance are created by using external influences to modify an otherwise normal, stable, positive resistance circuit element.
(To be continued)

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