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sockets for 1 or 2
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7.5 and 15 ohmm．Stack aize $2 \downarrow \times 1 \times 2$ n．approx．ONLY $18 /-\mathrm{P}$ ．\＆P．3／－
$7-10$
watt
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tion of recorde．A．C．Mains tion of records．A．C．Mains
operation．Ready bullt on
plated heavy gauge metal plated heavy gauge metal
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diagram 2／B（Free with Kit）．All parte sold geparately diagram 2／B（Free with Kit）．All parts sold separately，
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 antreret frint．（itt init fur ther when purt add internel
 thither feet，\＆6．15．0．If．\＆P
intif）． 10,41 ．
10．

THE SCOTT．Tanle top or wal nomuling speaker．size litis teal．Fittod $131 \mathbf{x} \times \mathrm{Km}$ ．Speake wieh volumie contril．Finished in teak cloth abn coutrastiug Vraar．©Pleave rtate 3 or 15 cahm imp．） 24.5 .0 ．P．\＆$P$


The Tennyson．Wertge shape

 133，xinh．mpeaker with purt． anll matchlug V＇siair，e2．2．6

The Vernon．Table tap nr wall mannting enclowire for $3 \mid x$ Mla．，speaker（Ritnilar to The Sent！illux．alowe．）． The Haydo P \＆ The Haydon． $181 \times 15 \times$ at in．．Woal grail cluth and suitulle for itin．speaker $72 / 6$ ． 5 P． $9 /$ ．
SPEAKERS：Flac Hoary duty Ceranic Manncta 11.000 ilne， 10 in ，rubil． $10 \times$ din， 3




 npeakers nippliet Mhomlanam，Bukers，W＇，B．．Wharfetale．Eagle，Jrupleton．

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CARTRIDGE：Henter gTID，2． $17 / 6$ ©P91．I，20／－．Mons Methtone．2T48，
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| AC126 | $2 /-$ | OC4 | 1／11 |
| ACL63 | 3／－ | OC45 | 1／11 |
| ACl67 | 41－ | 0070 | 8／3 |
| ACY19 | $3 / 9$ | 0 CO 1 | 1／11 |
| ACY：21 | $3 / 8$ | 0072 | 2／－ |
| AFl15 | $31-$ | 0073 | 2／3 |
| $4{ }^{+116}$ | $31-$ | 0075 | $21-$ |
| AF11＊ | 2／9 | $0 \mathrm{C81}$ | 2／－ |
| BFY18 | 4／6 | OC81D | $1 / 11$ |
| Bry ${ }^{\text {cid }}$ | 4／－ | OC82D | $2 / 3$ |
| H8Y24 | $3 /-$ | OC1 10 | $5 /-$ |
| BSY 28 | 3／9 | OC169 | 3／6 |
| H8Y65 | $3 /-$ | OCLIO | $2 / 2$ |
|  | $3 /-$ $8 / 6$ | OC171 | $2 / 2$ |
| OAS ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 2／6 | OC200 | $4 / 6$ |
| OA9 | $1 / 8$ | OC202 | $4 / 6$ |
| OABI | $1 / 6$ | OC203 | 4／8 |
| OA91 | $1 / 9$ | OC204 | $5 / 6$ |
| OCe3 | 6／6 | TK220 | 1／6 |
| OC゙25 | 51－ | $\because \mathrm{N} 70 \mathrm{H}$ A | 3／－ |
| Oc2h | $51-$ | 2N743 | $4 / 6$ |
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200 piv
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300 piv
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Midget Eleotrolytio Conds．Wire Ends

| At Ed．eaoh $0-8 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 volt |
| :---: | :---: |
| $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 275 volt |
| $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 150 rolt |
| $4 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 150 volt |
| $640 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $2 \cdot 5$ volt |
| At 8d．meoh |  |
| $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 300 volt |
| $\pm \mu \mathrm{F}$ | 12 molt |
| $8 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 volt |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 voit |
| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 volt |
| $30 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 volt |
| $43 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 volt |
| $80 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $6 \cdot 4$ volt |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 volt |
| $123 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | ＋volt |
| At 1／－eaoh |  |
| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 volt |
| $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 volt |
| $6+\mu{ }^{\circ}$ | 23 voit |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 volt |
| $200 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 15 volt |
| 320 HF | 10 |

Alan $A \mu \mathrm{~F} 350 \mathrm{~V}^{\prime} 1 / 2,25 \mu \mathrm{~F}^{2} 25 \mathrm{~V}^{\mathrm{C}} 1 / 3$ and $30 \mu \mathrm{~F} 50 \mathrm{~V}^{2} 1 / 8$ ．Other electmiytics in current ibst． Postafe，Parking and Insurance all abme 7d．up to $3 ; 1 /$－frunt $4 \cdot 11$ ； 12 and over pail． 2 GANG VAR．CONDENSER：Mod．，small，air－space．l，0005 ea．nec． $5 /-(1 /$ ）

TRANSFORMERS：Sub binin Output（ $3 \Omega$ fur Ociz etc．）and loriver $2 / 6$ caw（bi．）．Output $3 \Omega 25 \mathrm{~W}$ 万bon $\Omega$ for flo（ex－equip．Unt perfect） $2 / 6(1 / 9)$
PRINTED CIRCUIT PANELS：Eight boarchs with minlmum 30 Transistors，also Divien， TEST EQUIPME
 $0-50 \mathrm{~mA}, 0-2 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mA}, 0 \rightarrow 250 \mathrm{nA}$ ．Ren． $0-50 \mathrm{k} \Omega, 0-\mathrm{iM} \Omega, 300 \Omega 30 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ at centre scate．Cap

 fronts in 10， 50 ．110， 150 ，200， $300,500 \mathrm{~mA}, 1,5$ and $15 \mathrm{anup} 24 /-;$＂g＂Meter $25 / 6 ; 500$ DIA MOND
DIAMOND STYLII：Replacemeatx for TCBLP，TC8／Btered，TC8LP／8tereo．Studio＇O＇
 STYLII．All these（spen，aiso GP37 it R／11，GP91 at 6／－（bol，each all typey）．No 78 r．p．mp居保
PIOK－UP CARTR1DGES all with atylii ant standard replacement fittngs Mono GP＇s7／2
12／6．Nerent Stcreo GP93 $22 /$ ．Monn and sterea）（3P＇91 \＆：18／6．Ceramic Steren Compatible，top quality for expensive untits （：P94 38／6 tall ！
PP3 ELIMINATOR（A．C．） $17 / 6$（ $1 / k$ ）．TWO STATION TRANS．INTER－COM．Excellent FOUR TRANSISTOR 3 WATT AMPLIFIER
（2）$\times 2!\times 1!: 9 \times: 8 \Omega * 16 \Omega$ ，excellent on $3 \Omega$ TELEPHONE AMP


Hech．REV．COUNTER to 999，long spludle，reset wheel，for T／recorderm sc． $4 / 6(1 /-)$ ， BATTERY CEARGERS：stmall，sturdy，neat； 2 amp．12v． $35 /-$ ； $6 \mathrm{v} / \mathrm{L} 2 \mathrm{v}$ 39／－．Larger British Branler with ingter，fuse，cte． $42 / 6$ ．All $x$ bsolutely complete．（ $4 / 6$ ench，ill types）

RECORDING TAPE：Finemt itualty British Mylar．STANDARD；3in． $500 \mathrm{ft} 7 / 3.5 \operatorname{in} 850 \mathrm{it}$ 8．9． 1 in ．
（lar）．MEs
M1CROPEONES：CRYSTAL：MIC40．1）esk， $15 / 6$ ：MIC45，curved hand grip 17／3；Stick＂ 60 ＂ $20 / 8$ ；Stich $* 39 * 26 / 6$（ $1 / 6$ each type）．Cream plintle hand type 7／6，or with struct stand


 fieal on thexlbe swan neck th seritch－fitted lawe $42 / 8(2 / t)$ ．PIEZO $50 \mathrm{~K} \Omega$ black／chrome 2in．Nia．x 11 for atand tue mils．Standard inside threal $33 / 6$（1／G）．All mikes supplie

 30／－pair．powt ete．pull：$R \times 3,15 \Omega 13 / 8(1 / 6)$ ；HEADPEONES High Res． $2000 \Omega$ eia


AERLALS－Car，teleseopic，vandal prooi：lockn retractell， 2 keyn and all fittings，22／6（2／6） For F．M and rll wets，telexcople 5 siction 3 inn，-22 in ．with switel， $5 /-$（L／．）． 7 sectio


SWITCHES：Standaril toggie，metal，250．2A．One hale bixing：APBT 2／3．SPDT 2／9 DPST 3／a．DI＇DT 3／3．Slkle types．Suhtmin．DPDT $1 / 6$ each．Small DPDT， 3 way，centre

 EDGE VOL．CONTROL： 30 К $1 /-$（hit．）．
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BFY25
BSY26
BSY27
BSY28
BSY29
OC41
OC44
OC44
OC71
OC72
OC73
OC81
OC81D
OC83
OC139
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AAY42
OA95
OA95
$0 A 70$
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OA70
OA79
OAS1
OA81
$0 A 73$
IN914

| $3 / 6$ | $2 N 711$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $3 / 6$ | $2 N 1302-3$ |
| $3 / 6$ | NN1304－5 | $\begin{array}{ll}3 / 6 & 2 N 1304-5 \\ 3 / 6 & 2 N 1306-7\end{array}$ $2 \mathrm{~N} 1306-7$

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| $8 \mathrm{CC4}$ | 2／9 | 30PL14 15／－ | ECH35 | 61－ | PC97 | $8 / 6$ | R19 | 6／6 | ${ }^{\text {ACL }} 127$ | 2 |
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## State-of-the-Art

CEMICONDUCTORS personify the modern image of Dradio and electronics, even for the home constructor, yet on looking back over the years some quite surprising facts emerge. We can, in fact, go back to Munk Af Rosenshold who in 1835 discovered that certain solid substances possessed rectifying properties. As is so often the case, he was in advance of his times and the idea lay dormant until rediscovered by F. Braun in 1874.

A year before this, a checker working on underwater telegraph cables noticed that the resistance of a certain material varied according to the light falling on it. The material was selenium and three years later it was discovered that this material possessed the property of rectification.

These facts lay virtually untapped until the turn of the century when, strangely enough, thermionic valves and what we now call semiconductors vied with each other for popularity. For many years, however, it was the semiconductor which reigned supreme and it is interesting to note that in 1906 Pickard invented a silicon detector for use in wireless equipment, a device which was in fact a point-contact rectifier. Three years later Eccles devised a crystal diode oscillator. Later, in 1924, Lossev achieved oscillations with semiconductor diodes.

During the late 1920's and the 1930's the thermionic valve ousted semiconductors but during World War II crystal detectors were widely used in radar equipment. Then in 1941 came another landmark-the invention of the junction diode-and the way lay open for a remarkable comeback of semiconductors.

In December 1947, Bardeen and Brattain produced in the Bell Telephone Laboratories a crude prototype of a crystal triode and this device, named the transistor, was the one which can be said to have administered the coup de grace to the future of thermionic valves. From this starting point sprang the junction transistors and other modern semiconductor devices, leading to the integrated circuits now beginning to become a vital factor in the progress of radio an electronics.

The age of the solid state can, therefore, be said to have really begin 21 years ago, and in saluting the many pioneers who have made this possible we celebrate the occasion with a special feature starting on page 664.

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FEBRUARY ISSUE WILL BE PUBLISHED ON JANUARY 10th

[^2]
# news and comment 

## TRUVOX INTEGRATED CIRCUIT STEREO TUNER



The first British f.m. stereo tuner using integrated circuits and field-effect transistors has been introduced by Truvox Ltd. (of Hythe, Southampton).

Designed from the outset specifically for stereo reception (mono reception is of course automatic when stereo is not being received), the new model is designated the Truvox Series 200 IC Stereo Tuner. It joins the recently introduced Truvox Series 200 range; hi-fi amplifier, tuner, loudspeakers, mono and stereo tape recorders.

Sensitivity is $2.0 / \mu \mathrm{V}$ for 30 dB quieting IHFM, $1.5 / \mu \mathrm{V}$ for -3 dB limiting, $5.0 / \mu \mathrm{V}$ for $200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ bandwidth. Frequency response is: $20 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ to $15 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}$ before de-emphasis and steep notch filters. Price is $£ 59$ 10s. Od.

## ISWC ANNIVERSARY 1929-1968

Surely something to celebrate. The existence of the ISWC for 40 years. The ISWC image was created on 4th October, 1929, by a little band of short wave enthusiasts in the USA, among them Arthur J. Green, Jacob Kieimans, Joseph B. Session, Charles Schroder and George F. Brooks. To form a medium for the exchange of short wave station information and a contact among those who were interested. Short wave radio was a new thing. There were only a few experimental stations on the air. No one had ever thought to publish news on short wave stations. It was essential for the listeners who were interested to have some information on the stations that were to be heard if they were to have an equal chance of hearing them, for there was no other guide. No other short wave clubs. No World Radio Handbooks. No Sweden Calling DX-ers or the like. No DX Parliament or European DX Council. ISWC were publishing International Short Wave Radio and membership was spreading across the world, bringing with it a greater exchange of information and the fostering of international friendship through short wave radio and the ISWC. ISWC is a non-commercial organisation end for those who work for it, it is a labour of love.

## RODING BOYS' SOCIETY: HOLLOWAY BRANCH

The active boys ${ }^{\circ}$ Radio/Science Club based in Walthamstow, and known as the R.B.S. has a group going in the Holloway area now. Any keen young people in this area who would like to join in helping to build up the club room and facilities, are very welcome to contact us. Please write or call: David Huntly, 262 Hornsey Road, N. 7.

Any boys in the other area (Waltham Forest) are, of course, very welcome to visit the Club there. Any enquiries concerning the Society can be sent to: Ken Smith, G3JIX (Leader), 82 Granville Road, Walthamstow, E. 17.

## RADIO 2 COVERAGE IN SCOTLAND

On 1st October the BBC opened two additional transmitters, at Dundee and Redmoss (Aberdeen) transmitting Radio 2 on 202 metres ( $1484 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ). The cities of Dundee and Aberdeen, and their environs, are served by the new transmissions.

On the same date the wavelength of the existing Radio 3 transmitter at Dundee will change from 194 metres ( $1546 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ) to 188 metres ( $1594 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ).

The new transmitters at Dundee and Redmoss will join the existing stations at Edinburgh and Glasgow on 202 metres in augmenting the medium-wave coverage of Radio 2 in Scotland. The Edinburgh and Glasgow transmitters were recently increased in power to provide further improvements in the service. These four stations offer good reception of Radio 2 to many listeners who have difficulty in receiving the long-wave transmissions on 1500 metres ( $200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ) from Droitwich.

## NEW RADIO 1 TRANSMITTER

On 3rd November the BBC opened a new Radio 1 transmitter to serve the Bournemouth area, on 202 metres $(1484 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s})$. This transmitter extends the coverage of Radio 1 to Bournemouth and Poole and their environs bringing the number of Radio 1 transmitters to seventeen.

## PUT ON A CHARGE!



A low-priced battery charging system called "Pencel" is announced by DCB Instrument \& Lighting Company of Austin House, Croft Road, Crowborough, Sussex.

Recent field tests have demonstrated that the MN 1500, the popular battery in the transistor radio and photographic fie/ds, can be recharged between ten and thirty times (depending upon operation conditions) by the "Pencel" Battery Charger.

As a replacement set of alkaline manganese 1500 type cells costs 11 s . and has a limited life in a transistor radio, it is apparent that the initial outlay of 79s. 6d. which includes four alkaline manganese 1500 type cells, is soon recovered. For further details contact DCB Instrument and Lighting Company, Austin House, Croft Road, Crow. borough, Sussex.

# news And comment... 

## HOME ELECTRICIANS KIT



The new Bib Home Electricians Kit comprises of the new Model 5 self-opening wire stripper and cutter, a reel of insulating tape, 5 and 15 amp fuse wire, Ersin Multicore match melting tape solder (no soldering iron required), two Bib flex shorteners, for shortening leads and cables without cutting, and plug size screwdriver to suit all types of domestic plugs. Price is $14 \mathrm{~s} .6 d$.

## GET IT TAPED LADSI

Philips Electrical have invited Britain's half-amillion Scouts to take part in a $£ 1,000$ tape recording contest.

Trips to Holland, tape recorders and accessories and special tours of recording studios are among the prizes offered. Cub Scouts ( $8-10$ years), Scouts (11-15 years), Venture Scouts (16-20 years), adult leaders and regular supporters are all catered for in the various sections of the contest.

Typical recording assignments asked for by the organisers are: a tape-recorded report of an expedition, a dramatic or musical item including pop and folk music, a series of sound effects, a message for Scouts overseas and interviews with local personalities.

Entries have to be between three and five minutes' duration and recorded at $1 \frac{7}{8}$ or $3 \frac{3}{4}$ inches per second. Closing date is 1 st March, 1969. Entry forms are available from all major Philips agents and Gilwell Park International Adult Leader Training Centre, Chingford, London, E.4.

## CONCRETE-TRANSISTOR??

A "concrete-transistor" developed at the USSR Institute for Industrial Concrete Structure and Goods Prefabrication is employed at leading Soviet enterprises for reinforcedconcrete element prefabrication. It is designed for controlling the strength and homogeneity of steel-concrete elements and structures and can be used for the defectoscopy of wood, ceramics and other building materials.

The instrument measures the rate of the diffusion of longitudinal ultrasonic waves in the material under investigation; quality can also be appraised by the magnitude of these waves. Errors in determining the strength of concrete lie within a narrow range, as compared with the results of compression tests by mechanical methods.

The measuring principle employed in the circuit does not require the use of an electron-beam oscillograph which is essential for measuring the time of supersonic diffusion. The system of discrete time count makes lower demands on the operator and precludes objective errors.

## MW-DXers PLEASE NOTE

If you are interested in medium wave DX, please note that the fifteenth series of Medium Wave News is now being published. Issued to subscribers monthly from November to April, plus an extra one in June, this newsletter is packed with comprehensive and up-to-date news of medium wave DX happenings. It includes as regular features, the monthly DX log, World of Radio and Verification Section, together with such articles as Antenna Forum, Reception Analysis and other information features. This publication is essential for the keen MW-DX fan. Details from K. Brownless, 7 The Avenue, Clifton, York, YO3 6AS. Please enclose a s.a.e. Please note that we are starting our MW Column on page 710.

GERMAN STEREO


Two new mains operated stereo record players are announced by Bruns of Hamburg, Germany. They are model SH 41 St with a manual 4 -speed deck and model WH 50 St with 4 -speed autochange deck (see photograph). Double wide frequency response transistorised amplifiers feed separate $6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. speakers through individual gain and tone controls. Output is $2 \times 2$ watts. The speakers are neatly housed in the twin cabinet lids. Dimensions: $17 \frac{1}{4} \times 10 \times$ $5 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. Finish is dark walnut. Recommended retail prices: SH 41 St 30gns. (inc. P.T.); WH 50 St 40 gns. (inc. P.T.)

## OTLEY RADIO SOCIETY

Meetings are held every Tuesday evening at our own premises in Otley. The Society has its own call sign -G3XNO-which is on 160 metres every Tuesday evening. Four members recently passed the Radio Amateurs' Examination and are now learning morse while another nine members are running an RAE course for next year's examination.

On 10th September we held an open evening welcoming wives and friends of members, forty people in all being present. Members had been making radio and electronic equipment for several months to enter the Construction Competition which was judged by three visitors during the evening. The winner of the senior section was K. Pickard with an Electronic Time Switch with Binary readout, and in the junior section P. Fox with a Transistor Stereo Amplifier.

Further details about the Society are available from the Publicity Officer, M. T. George-Powell, G3NNO, 82 Forest Avenue, Starbeck. Harrogate.


PART 1

IT is now almost exactly twenty-one years since William Shockley, working at the Bell Telephone Laboratories, announced that he had constructed the first working transistor. In the intervening years that primitive point-contact laboratory curiosity has grown into a precision device produced in millions, and has bred a host of newer devices, including f.e.t.s, thyristors, tunnel diodes and diode lasers all of which were undreamt of only twenty-one years ago.

That discovery did more than produce a new device, a new technology and a new industry: it brought to the attention of everyone the remarkable advances in a branch of physics which had up till then been the province of a few researchers-the physics of the solid state. Those of us who had been familiar with the ideas of vacuum physics and their application in thermionic valves suddenly had to accustom ourselves to talking of holes, lattice defects, impurity conductivity, traps, tunnelling and all the rest of the language which solid state electronics developed. Since then it has been as much as electronics engineers could do to keep up with the circuit behaviour of new devices without having to cope with their theory of operation.

The time has come, however, when it is more and more difficult to understand the newer devices without at least a smattering of such understanding. The physics which we learned at school is of little use to us in this connection: even at " $A$ " level it deals with very little which was not known in 1850. We must now learn the physics which has developed in this century, containing ideas which seem so strange as to be almost unbelievable but whose proof is all around us.

Electronics may be said to have started with the discovery that atoms, the basic units from which all substances are made, can be split into nuclei, which
are heavy and positively charged, and electrons, which are light and negatively charged. Before the end of the nineteenth century it had been shown that electrons were the same as the "cathode rays" which had been observed in gas discharge tubes, and their important properties, attraction to a positive plate and repulsion by a negative one, deflection by a magnet, heating a substance struck by them and fluorescence in certain minerals, were all well known.
At that time the atom was thought to consist of a core, the nucleus, with the electrons clinging to it tightly, but the work of Rutherford and others (including Geiger, of Geiger-Müller counter fame) showed that the structure behaved much more like a very small positive core, the nucleus, surrounded by electrons at a distance very large compared with the diameter of the nucleus (about 100,000 times). The nucleus was positively charged and the number of negatively charged electrons was just enough to balance the positive charge on the nucleus.
The problem which next arose was why the atom did not collapse due to the attraction of the positive nucleus and the negative electrons. The most obvious answer was that the electrons were spinning round the nucleus at such a speed that the centrifugal force exactly balanced the electrical forces, but this still did not explain why the electrons should not gradually spiral into the nucleus, just as a weight tied to a string and revolving round a pole gradually loses energy and moves in "ever decreasing circles" in the manner of the legendary oozlem bird.

This puzzle was solved by a series of guesses. Anyone can guess, but it takes a genius to guess correctly in matters of this sort, and the guessers in this case were called Planck, Bohr and Sommerfield. In 1900 Planck had put forward his Quantum Theory which implied that everything was atomic, and that there were atoms of light, electrical and mechanical energy, and all radiated waves. These "atoms" of light and radiation he called "quanta". One quantum, he thought, was the least amount of energy change which could take place. At first sight this did not seem reasonable; it was like saying to an electrical engineer "You may have supplies of $200 \mathrm{~V}, 220 \mathrm{~V}, 240 \mathrm{~V}$ etc., but never $210 \mathrm{~V}, 230 \mathrm{~V}$ etc." Nowadays we are accustomed to the idea of quantities varying in steps; we have tapped transformers, wire wound potentiometers, preferred value resistors, and although these are large steps the idea is there. The quantum is a very small amount of energy ( $6.6 \times 10^{-27} \mathrm{erg} / \mathrm{sec}$.) and our senses could hardly distinguish such small steps of energy from a smooth change. When we are dealing with atoms, however, the difference is important, and we must use the quantum theory. The quantum theory was extremely successful: it explained exactly the relation between the energy of radiation and the temperature of the radiating object, and was used by Einstein

to explain photoemission-the idea being that one quantum could eject only one electron from a substance.

When Bohr and Sommerfield applied quantum theory to the atom (Fig. 1) they used the principle that the energy of an electron could only be one of a series of energies or energy states which were each a quantum of energy apart. This idea, dating from 1915, is one of the most important principles in physics. In its later form of Quantum Mechanics it has explained and led to the construction of such devices as masers, lasers and transistors in the field of electronics alone.

One more point remains before we can move on to the problems of solid state physics. Experiments in 1927 showed that beams of electrons could behave exactly like beams of short-wave light, and that there was a direct connection between the energy of the electron beam and its apparent wavelength. Mathematicians later showed that the same equations which were used to describe light and other forms of radiation could also be used to describe electrons, and this approach, founded by de Broglie and Schrodinger, has been immensely useful in work on the theory of solids.

## PROBLEMS OF SOLIDS

To any physicist of the last century the structure of solids seemed to be one of the most difficult of all problems and one least likely to be solved. It was generally agreed that the difference between solids, liquids and gases was one of the spacing between the atoms, the atoms in liquids being rather farther apart than in solids, and the atoms in gases much farther (ten times) apart. This was sufficient to explain such matters as boiling and freezing and latent heat but many others could not be explained.

Among the inexplicable problems was electrical conductivity. If we compare the electrical conductivity of different solids, the most striking fact is the huge range of values. The conductivity of the best conductor at room temperature (silver) is about $10^{30}$ (a short way of writing the figure 1 followed by 30 zeroes) times the conductivity of the poorest (p.t.f.e.), yet both these substances are solids, made of atoms which are constructed of nuclei and electrons. If, as we believe, electrons are the means of carrying electric current in solids-and they certainly are in gases (at low pressure)-why is there this difference, which is the greatest span of difference in all measurable quantities?

Solids also differ greatly in their ability to conduct heat. Schoolboys used to be taught that a good electrical insulator was a good heat insulator, but experiments on the conduction of heat at low temperatures showed that sapphire crystals were better conductors of heat than any metals, though they were electrical insulators.

These questions were difficult enough, but there were many other curiosities to explain. Why should certain metals and alloys be strongly magnetic though the remainder of solids were only very weakly magnetic? What was so special about the arrangement of atoms which decided whether a substance was a metal or a non-metal? Why did some crystals (such as quartz) vibrate in an alternating electric field? These and scores of other questions had to be explained by any theory of the solid state.

## BAND THEORY OF SOLIDS

The simplest possible case of atomic structure is the structure of hydrogen gas, whose atom consists of a nucleus with one electron. Simple here is a comparative term; neither the physics nor the mathematics of the problem is simple, but the basic ideas can be simply described. The electron belonging to one nucleus can have various possible values of energy but no intermediate values (Fig. 2). At room temperature most of the electrons are in the


Fig. 2: Energy diagram for one electron in an atom. Note how the levels become crowded together until separate levels become indistinguishable when the electron is free (atom ionised).
lowest state of energy, but by very great heating or by the effect of light or electric current electrons can be made to have higher energies. Note particularly that they must change instantly from one energy value to another without ever having any intermediate value, and the amount of energy used to cause this change must be exactly the difference in energy between the two states. When electrons return to the normal low state, this energy is given out; in most cases this appears as light of a definite wavelength.
When we examine more complex atoms we find the same type of structure-a nucleus surrounded by electrons-but it turns out that there is a special restriction on the way electrons can be arranged. If we take a given energy level, which for convenience is described by a set of "quantum numbers" which act as map references, we find that only two electrons can occupy a level, and even these two are not identical in energy because they spin around their own axis in opposite directions. We may imagine the system as a ladder with the nucleus at the foot and two electrons on each rung (though the laws about the spacings of the rungs are rather more complex) so that electrons can climb up the ladder when a suitable amount of energy is put into the atom, and fall to the lowest unoccupied rungs when left alone, releasing energy in this process.


Fig. 3: Energy diagram for a nucleus with eight electrons (oxygen). Note that level 2 is split into three sub-levels each containing the maximum two electrons allowed.

This picture of the structure of a substance (Fig. 3) works well for gases, where the atoms are so far apart that each nucleus affects only its own electrons. In a solid, however, the atoms are so close that there is a considerable amount of interaction between one nucleus and the electrons belonging to the neighbouring nuclei, and this interaction holds the clue to the differences in the behaviour of solids. To deal accurately with the interactions of just two atoms is a problem in mathematical analysis of the greatest difficulty; to describe accurately the behaviour of millions of atoms is impossible, but a combination of experiment and theory has enabled us to arrive at ideas of solid structure which have fulfilled the most important test-that they work. The theory is called the Band Theory of Solids.

If we take two atoms at a considerable distance, each with its electrons arranged in their appropriate energy levels, and then force the atoms together, the energy levels do not remain unchanged. Instead the attraction of each nucleus for the other's electrons causes the levels to be displaced in such a way that a range of energies is possible for the electrons which formerly occupied the various levels in the two atoms (Fig. 4). When this happens, we refer to each range of energies as a band.

When a large number of atoms is arranged in a regular way in a crystal of a solid the bands of energy are fairly wide and contain a large number of electrons. If the energy levels of each atom which has contributed to the band are completely occupied by electrons then the band also will be completely occupied.
However, if the energy levels are not filled either because the atom naturally had these levels unfilled or because the electrons have moved to a higher level because of energy changes, then the band formed by the atoms coming together will also not be filled. In general if a band is formed from a given number of atoms then it will be full if it


Fig. 4: How the energy levels broaden into energy bands as atoms approach.
is occupied by exactly twice that number of electrons.
There is a vitally important difference between a filled band and an unfilled band. When a band is filled, there is no possibility of electrons moving from one nucleus to another. A full band is like a road completely jammed with cars; unless some gap occurs, no movement is possible except some shunting. In a band which is not filled, however, there is no restriction on electron movement. There is no change needed in energy for an electron to move from one nucleus to another, providing that there is not another electron of the same energy there, and in an unfilled band there need not be. When this occurs, then the solid is a conductor of electricity. A metal could, in fact, be defined as a substance containing unfilled energy bands. Conversely a substance with its energy bands completely filled is an insulator. If we heat such a substance sufficiently we can give the electrons sufficient energy to move to a new band which is unfilled, so causing the insulator to conduct, a fact which is known and used.

## ENERGY GAPS, OVERLAPS, HOLES

The theory that the energy levels of single atoms merge with each other to form bands does not ignore the differences in energy between different levels in the same atom. When atoms come together, the energy bands may still be separated from each other-our ladder rungs may have become sloping platforms-but there may still be a jump from the top end of one platform to the bottom end of another. In some substances, however, the bands may overlap, allowing electrons which had been at the lowest level in one atom to reach a higher level of another with no jump. There may on the other hand be large gaps between the bands, and no electron can ever have an amount of energy corresponding to an amount in a gap, just as no one can stand on a rung which is missing! If the gap between bands is large a large amount of energy (heat, light etc.) must be put into the substance to move electrons from one band to another; if the gap is small, very little energy is needed.
This then is the difference between insulators and semiconductors. Both have filled energy bands, but higher energy bands exist which are empty. In an insulator the gap between the top filled band and the empty band is large; in a semiconductor this gap is small and even at room temperature a few electrons can make the crossing to the unfilled band to cause some degree of conductivity.

This is not the whole story, however, as it turns out that electrons in the unfilled band do not form the only contributor to conductivity. Since the electrons have come from a filled band they have caused vacancies in this formerly filled band allowing some movement in that band; i.e. gaps have appeared in our traffic jam. Since it is easier to think of one gap moving in a band rather than millions of electrons shuffling around, we talk of this gap or hole as if it were an object with mass and a positive charge, and in fact it behaves as if it were just this (Fig. 5).
The contributions of holes to conductivity were discovered by measurement of the Hall effect, which was predicted in the last century. If current is


Fig. 5: How a hole is formed in semiconductor material.
passed through a slab of material to which a magnetic field is applied at right angles to the direction of current, the electrons moving in the material are deflected in exactly the same way as the electrons in a cathode-ray tube are deflected by a deflection coil (Fig. 6). This deflection causes one side of the slab to be more negative than the opposite side. because of the deflection of electrons to that side. The voltage difference is extremely small so that accurate measurements of Hall effect were not possible until comparatively recently, but it is detectable and the predicted negative voltage can be found in several metals. In other metals, however, the voltage is positive, indicating that the charge carriers are either positive or moving in the opposite direction.

It is sometimes argued that holes are not real particles having mass and charge and that it is misleading to write as if they were. Such fictions are often desirable, however. Electrons in semiconductors often respond to voltages as if they had less mass (even negative mass, if such a thing can be imagined) or charge than normal free electrons and it is easier to keep the usual equations of movement and use the effective mass or charge of the electron as if it were real. In the same way, the hole is a convenient way of treating a problem and for practical purposes it is no less of an experimental reality than is the electron.

## SEMICONDUCTORS

In a pure specimen of semiconductor crystal there is a vacant energy band which is only slightly separated from a full band. The gap between these


Fig. 6: The Hall effect. A magnetic field (above) causes the path of current in a material to be deflected just as electrons in a c.r.t. (right) are deflected, causing a difference in voltage between opposite sides of the material.

bands varies from one material to another (and is less in germanium than in silicon) but is small enough to allow some electrons to be kicked into the vacant band even at room temperature. Increasing the temperature of the crystals causes very many more electrons to cross over so increasing the conductivity rapidly as temperature rises. It is for this reason that all semiconductor devices are sensitive to temperature changes (as would be valves if they had to work in an atmosphere which was at the same temperature as their cathodes), germanium being more sensitive than silicon because of its smaller energy gap.

Heating a semiconductor increases the number of electrons contributing to conduction and also increases the number of holes since each electron leaves a hole in the otherwise full band. This type of conductivity in pure or "intrinsic" semiconductor crystals is called electron-hole pair production and is not caused by heat only. Electron-hole pairs can also be produced by light (photoconductors) or by radioactive bombardment (radiation detectors). It should be noted incidentally that electrons and holes do not contribute equally to conductivity; the electrons move faster than the holes and so carry a greater share of the current.

What transformed the study of semiconductors into a technology which has changed the whole of electronics is the effect of impurities on the semiconductor crystal. Each germanium or silicon atom in a crystal of germanium or silicon has four electrons in its highest energy level. If we introduce as an impurity among a set of germanium or silicon atoms a material which has five electrons in its


Fig. 7 (left): N-type material has more free electrons than nuclei; a surplus of negative carriers.
Fig. 8 (right): P-type material has fewer free electrons than nuclei-the "holes" will act as carriers (positive).
highest energy level, this causes an excess of electrons in the crystal and so makes for a great increase in conductivity by electrons. The amount of impurity required is very small; one atom of impurity in every hundred million of semiconductor causes the conductivity to increase by a hundred thousand times. In this case we say that the conductivity is $n$-type, because the main or majority carriers of the current are negative electrons (Fig. 7).
In the same way the addition of atoms which have only three electrons in the highest energy levels causes gaps-holes-to appear in the semiconductor crystal structure and so increases the conductivity, though by a lesser amount since the majority carriers are now holes. Such material is called p-type (Fig. 8) because the majority; carriers are the holes which behave as if they were positively charged particles.
The action of adding the impurities is called doping, and the amount of doping which has been carried out can be measured most accurately by measuring the electrical resistance of the doped material in comparison with an undoped sample.

## THE DIODE

We are now in a position to understand how a semiconductor diode works. Imagine a single crystal in which one half has been doped to p-type material and the other half to n-type material. This constitutes what is called a p-n junction and may be made by a variety of methods; in fact the main developments in transistors during the last fifteen years have been better methods of creating such junctions. The normal state of such a junction when no bias is applied is shown in Fig. 9, with an excess


Fig. 9: An unbiased p-n junction. The + and symbols denote holes and electrons only: nuclei are not shown since they do not transfer but are fixed in the crystal.
of electrons on the n side and an excess of holes on the $p$ side. When a negative bias is applied on the p side and a positive bias on the n side (Fig. 10) the positive holes are attracted towards the negative bias and the negative electrons to the positive bias and the result is that there are practically no carriers left near the junction. This lack of carriers means that there cannot be any movement of carriers across the junction and hence the diode does not conduct; it is said to be reverse biased.


Fig. 10: When a diode is reverse biased as shown here it does not conduct.

As the reverse bias is increased a voltage is reached at which holes from the n region and electrons from the p region can be attracted across the junction and the movements of these carriers causes collisions allowing other pairs of electrons and holes to move. This is the breakdown of reverse-biased junctions called the avalanche effect; a similar zener effect occurs at a sharply defined voltage which is utilised as a stabilised voltage in the zener diode.


Forward bias causes carriers to cross junction-diode conducts

Fig. 11: When a diode is forward biased as shown here current carriers flow across the junction.

When the diode is forward biased (Fig. 11) so that the $p$ side is positive and the $n$ side negative both types of carriers move over the junction carrying their charge with them and so producing conductivity. It is important to note that both the p -type and n -type regions must be formed in a single piece of crystal; it is impossible to form an effective diode by putting separate pieces of $n$ and $p$ type material in contact since the atoms can never be made to approach the close spacing which they have in a crystal, and without this spacing the energy bands of the material are quite different.

## THE JUNCTION TRANSISTOR

The first transistors made were not junction transistors, nor are all diodes junction diodes. A point contact made with wire of a suitable composition on to a semiconductor crystal can produce a rectifying contact when a large current is passed in what later becomes the forward direction. It is thought that the action is that of transforming some of the metal from the wire into the semiconductor, so producing a doped region around the point contact. Although point-contact diodes behave in essentially the same way as junction diodes, the long-obsolete point-contact transistor differed from the junction transistor in one very important respect; it had current gains of more than unity when operated in the common-base connection, and was extremely unstable in the common-emitter connection. For these reasons and because the commercial production and development of junction transistors was more promising, the point-contact transistor is today a museum piece-a good reminder of the rate of scientific progress.

A junction transistor has three separate and


Fig. 12: A junction transistor consists of two p-n junctions back-to-back as shown. When biased as shown here current flows through the transistor.
distinct regions in its crystal. Two regions of similar doping form the bread of a "sandwich" whose meat is a region of opposite doping. The sandwiched region is very lightly doped, compared to the other two regions, and is also very thin, with widths measured in millionths of an inch.

In Fig. 12 the principle of the n-p-n transistor is shown. One $n$ region is designated the emitter and the other the collector, while the middle p region is the base. The emitter and collector could be interchanged for low current work, but commercial transistors are usually built so that the n region designated as collector is better able to dissipate the power of operation.
-continued on page 701

## 1968 INTERNATIONAL Radio Engineering and Communications Exhibition <br> 

THE organisers, sponsors and exhibitors were all pleased at the support given to the 1968 RSGB exhibition at the Horticultural New Hall, London, which ran from 2nd to 5 th October. Although attendance figures were some 400 down on last year, more than 8,000 enthusiasts passed through the turnstiles, many of them from overseas. As usual, the exhibition provided a good opportunity to meet fellow enthusiasts and judging by the many groups of amateurs gathered around the stands or chatting over a coffee or glass of beer it still retains the atmosphere of an annual reunion. There was also a series of lectures this year, which were fairly well attended

The exhibition was formally opened on 2nd October at noon by W. J. Sharpe, CBE, the Director of Communications, Diplomatic Wireless Service, Foreign Office, standing in for the PostmasterGeneral who was unable to attend due to pressure of business. Mr. Sharpe commented on the very important role that Amateurs can still play in the field of radio communications. We were all more than a little disappointed that the expected announcement on the proposed new Beginners' Licence did not materialise and could get no satisfaction from the GPO.
Exhibitors occupied 38 stands, ranging from component and equipment manufacturers, publishers. associations and Services. The RSGB had the largestever display and featured the latest edition of the Radio Communication Handbook, a fine new publication which will shortly be reviewed in these pages.

The three Practicals-Wireless, Electronics and Television-shared a large stand, displaying equipment and providing an opportunity for readers to meet members of the staff. On the P.W. section were previews of various constructional projects scheduled for publication in the near future. These


Here can be seen some of the constructional projects that will be featured in Practical Wireless in the near future.
included a new f.m. tuner (to be published in February), a progressive superhet receiver (March), a calibration oscillator (April), a comprehensive audio mixer and a transistor tester. Look out for these on our future-announcement notices.

The theme of the Practical Television display was "colour television" and this was backed up by an operational GEC 2029A colour receiver, which gave excellent results under often adverse viewing conditions. It was running from an 18 -element J-Beam aerial mounted on the roof of the exhibition hall and it was a matter of some surprise that the signals being radiated from the forest of aerials on the roof from the various amateur stations operating throughout the exhibition caused virtually no interference.

Another regular feature of the exhibition was the presentation of awards for various pieces of home


Part of the Practical Television display showing the GEC 2029A colour television receiver.
constructed equipment in different categories. Those awarded this year were:

The Exhibition Organisers Award (G4KD Plaque), awarded for the best piece of equipment on display went to B. C. Seedle, G3UIT/G6ACJ/T for his four metre a.m./c.w. transmitter and $28 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ s.s.b. transverter.

The Horace Freeman Trophy, awarded for the most original piece of equipment went to $S$. Weber, G8ACC for his solid state $432 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ transmitter.

Merit prizes were awarded as follows:
For the best transistorised equipment; C. Sharpe, G2HIF ( $144 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ solid state linear amplifier).

For the hest valved equipment; G. R. Jessop, G6JP (The 2-50 transmitter).
For the best ancillary equipment; C. F. Dorey, BRSI 6468 (Filter response curve, display unit).
Special Merit Prize for the "Amateur-Amateur"; R. C. Arnold, BRS29738 (All band communications receiver).
We very much enjoyed the show, not only as exhibitors but as an opportunity to meet old friends and make new ones. Thank you, RSGB, and we look forward to another successful exhibition next year.

# miniture ic. c . nearinina 10 amplitier L. Mc Namara B. Sc. 

THE use of integrated circuits in amateur equipment is becoming more popular especially since their prices have come more into line with their discrete counterparts. The amateur can now decide to use them on their own merits. Their small physical size, durability and ruggedness make them ideal in applications where they are liable to get rough handling. The present article describes the construction of a miniature hearing aid amplifier which compares in performance and cost with commercial units more than double its size.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The prototype amplifier was built around a Westinghouse type WC183 integrated circuit. The circuit as shown in Fig. 1 consists of an eight transistor balanced amplifier whose operation can best be understood by considering it as two independent four transistor amplifiers fabricated on a single silicon chip. The input signal is fed to Tr which acts as a common-emitter amplifier stage whose output is directly coupled to Tr 2 which also operates in the common-emitter mode. Biasing for Trl is provided by the d.c. feedback loop from the collector of $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ which in turn also provides a certain amount of degeneration or negative feedback since


the output of Tr 3 is opposite in phase to the input signal applied to Trl. The emitter of Tr3 will usually be decoupled to earth in a practical amplifier circuit. Direct coupling is also provided between Tr 3 and the output transistor $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ which in the present design operates in conjunction with $\operatorname{Tr} 8$ as a class AB output stage. Tr5, $\operatorname{Tr} 6$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 7$ operate in a similar fashion and since the whole unit is direct coupled throughout there are no frequency limiting components and the unit can operate well above the audio range of frequencies.
Figure 3 shows the circuit diagram of the complete amplifier. The input from the microphone is fed to pins 3 and 7 of the i.c. via two isolating capacitors Cl and C 2 . As the input impedance of Tr 1 and Tr 5 is fairly low the use of a magnetic microphone with an impedance in the range of $10-50 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ is recommended for really satisfactory operation. If a crystal microphone is to be used an external emitter-follower stage would be needed to provide proper matching.

## OUTPUT TRANSFORMER

The primary winding of transformer TI forms the load for the output pair Tr 4 and Tr 8 , each terminal being bypassed by an $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor. These help to stabilise the circuit by preventing spurious high frequency oscillations. Choice of output transformer is not critical and any surplus transformer with a primary coil resistance between $100-$ $500 \Omega$ will suffice. Its output impedance should match the type of earphone used to ensure maximum efficiency and a crystal earphone was found to work quite satisfactorily with a high output impedance transformer. The transformer specified
Fig. 1 (left): Complete circuit of the Westinghouse WC183 integrated circuit.

Fig. 2 (right): Physical dimensions and outline of the i.c.top view of the unit. Lead 1 is identified by the spot of paint adjacent to it.


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Fig. 3: Circuit diagram of the miniature hearing aid amplifier incorporating the WC183 i.c.
is a driver transformer used in reverse, i.e. with its primary winding feeding the earphones and its centre-tapped secondary being the load for $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ and Tr8.

## CONSTRUCTION

The layout for the printed circuit board is shown in Fig. 4. The design should be carefully painted on a piece of copper laminate board $1 \times \frac{3}{4}$ in. and then dry etched in the usual manner in a solution of ferric chloride.
As the WC183 i.c. in the flat pack version measures a mere $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{8}$ in. great care should be taken in bending its leads to enable them to fit through the mounting holes, and of course these holes must be reasonably accurately drilled to prevent straining the leads.
Some constructors may wish to dispense with the volume control and operate the unit by inserting a fixed value resistor with a modified jack socket acting as an on-off switch. The value of this resistor will depend on the sensitivity of the microphone but its optimum value can easily be found by connecting a $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ variable resistor between pins 2 and 8 and finding the value which just prevents positive feedback. In the prototype the volume control was soldered directly to the copper board through the terminals of the on-off switch.

The unit is quite versatile in its operation and will give very satisfactory results from power supplies between 4.5 and 9 V . On a 6 V supply it drew 5 mA and so small batteries will give a reasonably long operating life. The manufacturers claim for the unit an efficiency in excess of $55 \%$ with an overall gain of 90 dB .

## components list

```
Capacitors:
    C1 }\quad10\mu\textrm{F}6\textrm{V}\mathrm{ miniature electrolytic
    C2 }\quad10\mu\textrm{F}6\textrm{V}\mathrm{ miniature electrolytic
    C3 }\quad10\mu\textrm{F}6\textrm{V}\mathrm{ miniature electrolytic
    C4 }\quad10\mu\textrm{F}6\textrm{V}\mathrm{ miniature electrolytic
    C5 0.01\mu\textrm{F}\mathrm{ miniature}
    C6 0.01\mu\textrm{F}\mathrm{ miniature}
Others:
    VR1 5k \Omega miniature pot with switch
    T1 Type LT44 transformer (Henry's Radio)
        or any suitable alternative with 100-500\Omega
        primary winding
    WC183 Westinghouse linear integrated circuit
```



Fig. 4: The printed circuit pattern of the copper laminate board used in the prototype. Actual board size $1 \times \frac{3}{4}$ in.

The amplifier could also be used as a miniature audio preamplifier and if the two channels are considered as completely separate amplifiers and suitable load resistors are inserted between pins 1 and 9 and the positive supply it could provide a very neat stereo preamplifier.

## PRACTICAL TELEVISION

## $\star$ INSTRUMENT C.R.T.s

The requirements of an oscilloscope tube differ widely from those of the well-known receiver picture tube. This article provides a detailed account of instrument c.r.t.s including such sophisticated types as multi-gun and multitrace tubes. Design improvements in recent years are described, giving at the same time an insight into the associated equipment. How bandwidths of $1,500 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ and over are achieved is explained.

## $\star$ TV RECEIVER TESTING

Basic fault diagnosis techniques in the timebase generator stages and also how to check the operation of the field output stage.

## CONVERTING 405-ONLY

 SETS to 625-LINE OPERATION Remarkably good conversions of 405 -only receivers for 625 -line operation are possible using readily available surplus u.h.f. tuners and i.f. panels. This article, the first of two, provides detailed guidance on the problems involved and the best approach to adopt.
## COLOUR SERVICING

Continuing our series on this important subject, in the current issue the topic of what servicing equipment is necessary for colour work is dealt with.

## R.F. AMPLIFIERS

The characteristics that determine the performance of an r.f. amplifier are set out and the various common TV r.f. amplifier circuits described.

## ALL IN THE JANUARY ISSUE ON SALE DECEMBER 20th

## The Beginner's Licence

I read the letter by Mr. Curtiss with a great deal of interest. May I be permitted to add a few comments to redress the balance?
There are a great many people who aspire to holding an Amateur Radio Licence and who would be prepared to study hard to achieve this. At the same time, the conditions under which they live and work may make this aim virtually impossible. For example, people whose work entails shifts or a great deal of travelling precludes their attendance at night classes or even severely curtails the working of a Postal Study Course.

Are we all to be singled out as lazy and illiterate as Mr. Curtiss (whose opinion I respect) would have us believe?

An "easy" licence would do nothing but harm to the Amateur Radio Movement. On the other hand a "Beginner's" licence could do a great deal of good by raising the standard of the RAE and therefore of the Movement as a whole.

Such a licence could be based quite simply on the following terms and conditions:

1. A written examination comprising: (a) The compulsory Section One of the RAE as it exists at present.
(b) Part Two based entirely on (i) Frequency control and measurement. (ii) Interference, types of interference, the causes and the suppression thereof. (iii) Operating Procedure. (Which by the way, may help relieve Mr. Meacham from long dissertations on warts etc!!)
2. The GPO Morse Test.
3. (a) The Licensee to be restricted to a very small part of one of the Amateur Bands. (b) Very low Power Emission (not more than say 2 watts). (c) c.w. telegraphy only. (d) The allocation of a Beginner's Prefix.
4. Closer supervision by the GPO to be paid for by
5. A $£ 3$ Licence Fee.

The conditions of such a licence would, by their very nature, urge the willing and genuine Amateur to climb from what could be regarded as a sort of Limbo to the Elysian Fields that the Full Licence permits, while the lazy, the incompetent and the less enthusiastic would fall by
the wayside or get sent off the air or just go QRT, rather than scrape up the licence fee for another year.

I could weep tears of caustic soda for poor Mr. Curtiss who, after such a fantastic achievement, does not append either his call sign or the number of his Amateur Radio Certificate! - "Aspiring GW3" (Llanberis).

## Keep the morse test

I must disagree with Mr. Wright's suggestion that the morse test be abolished (November issue). If this came about the result would be hundreds of Amateurs using 'phone only and, as 'phone takes up broader bandwidth, a MORE overcrowded band. Does Mr. Wright want to kill Amateur morse? If he does the result will be chaos with people using c.w. at two words a minute.
I see no reason why the "B" licence should not be extended to cover all bands. Those with the "A" licence would still have the advantage of c.w. operation which is the best form of emission when conditions are bad or bands over-crowded.-R. A. Dixon (Glasgow W.4).

## Anti-Ioudness

Congratulations on your interesting "Audio Supplement" in the October 1968 issue. Quite correctly you caution readers on the use of loudness controls. I would like to go one step further if I may and ask enthusiasts to avoid them altogether.

Some manufacturers include them on cheaper amplifiers as a sales gimmick but other manufacturers of high quality equipment include a loudness control out of a sincere belief in a misconceived theory. This theory states that because the sensitivity of the ear falls in the lower frequency range, some compensation should be provided which boosts the low frequencies when the volume is reduced.
The misconception is this. If one were at a live concert and moved from a front seat to a back seat in the concert hall the sound intensity would appear to fall with a more noticeable loss in the lower frequencies. Therefore to produce a natural sound a system should give the impression of being at a greater
distance from the source when the volume is turned down, without frequency compensation!

With a loudness control one gets the impression of low register instruments being near while the rest of the orchestra is in the distance, which is hardly natural! And the murky obscure sound which results from the use of a loudness control can hardly be called hi-fi. To give a natural sound, which is what is required, the system must give a natural tonal balance.

Why then use tone controls at all you might argue? Fair comment, but I would say that tone controls should really be set flat. Any adjustment to compensate for a system deficiency should not cause a deviation from a flat response. Once set for a particular condition they should remain at that setting regardless of the sound level used.Iain Smith (Rugby).

## Thank you Scotland

Thank you for printing my request for information on converting TVs to oscilloscopes in your "CQ" column in the November 1968 issue. Would you please extend my thanks to an anonymous Scottish reader whosent mesomeinformation on how he did it. If he has any further hints or anyone else has any advice I would be glad to hear from them.-G. Johnson (3 Bixley Road, Ipswich, Suffolk).

## I agree

May I fully endorse the views of Jonathan Wates (November issue) regarding the Beginner's Licence.
I too am a keen s.w.l. who is also tied up with "O" level studies, making it very difficult for me to allot enough time to study for the RAE.
I feel that it would be a great help for Jonathan and I, and a great many others, to be given the opportunity to transmit on the Amateur bands, as this would be a very good grounding for when we get our full licence.
So, you licensed experts, spare a thought for the volume of our school work before you heartily condemn the Beginner's Licence and all s.w.1.s-C. Williams, A5376 (Brierly Hill, Staffs.).

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Modifying V.H.F. portables

My attention has been drawn to the article "Modifying V.H.F. Portables" in your October issue.

British Standard 905 quotes limits for osciilator radiation from such receivers and manufacturers make considerable efforts to keep radiation down to acceptable levels. Modifications such as those described are liable to increase the levels of radiation. Any spurious oscillations and the extension of the tuning range would increase the number of services liable to suffer interference.

This is a practical matter: some of your readers will no doubt be aware that we have been investigating complaints of serious interference in the v.h.f. range caused by excessive radiation from certain receivers. Measurements have shown that this sort of interference can occur at surprisingly large distances and that a variety of radio services may be affected, including those concerned with safety of life.
I should also point out that in this country unlicensed use of radio receivers is an offence. Broadcast receiving licences are valid only for reception of transmissions from authorised broadcasting stations and licensed amateur stations, and we do not issue licences to overhear private services such as those your writer describes (not entirely correctly) as "Commercial".

I should be grateful if you would make these facts known to your readers in the next issue.- $T$. Dawson, Director of Public Relations, GPO (London, E.C.I).

## The Author Replies:

I can quite understand how excessive oscillator radiation from a set modified as shown in my article could possibly occur, due
to the increased coupling between the oscillator and aerial tuned circuits. If, however, the homemade capacitors are replaced by conventional components of similar values, it does seem unlikely that the limits quoted in British Standard 905 would be exceeded.

The question of extending the tuning range, to cover say 75 to $90 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, causing interference does seem rather strange to me. With the modified set the oscillator will now cover a range of 86 to $101 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ approximately. If we examine the oscillator frequencies used in a standard television receiver covering Band I we find that they cover a range of 89 to $111 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ and to my mind would be of greater amplitude than those emitted from a transistor portable utilising a simple rod aerial at ground level.

As Mr. Dawson states my broadcast receiving licence allows me to tune into authorised Broadcasting stations and licensed Amateur stations. Does this then mean that it is illegal to tune into the aircraft, satellite, USA "CB" and Short Wave commercial bands? If this is so it seems strange that receivers are openly on sale covering one or more of these frequency segments.

In the past, articles have appeared, from time to time in the popular radio publications making direct reference to such reception, and I can personally recall articles in the national press stating that a particular person or persons have monitored a pilot's last words before an aircrash, and of groups of school-children tracking Russian satellites.
I believe that further clarification concerning illegal reception of stations is badly needed and may have been overshadowed in recent years by the excellent publicity given to the illegal use of imported transceivers. L. Case (Widnes, Lancashire).

## Top band echo

1 was very interested to read, amongst your readers' letters in the November issue of P.W., about the use of "one man bands" and "echoes" on Amateur frequencies.

Being a little tired of the "old man-Rig here is-Antenna here is-best 73 s and BCNU " routine, I fixed an extra replay head to my tape recorder and produced a very pleasing 3-time delay and variable intensity echo.
I had been on the air for only 25 minutes, the station worked saying that the echo was like "a breath of fresh air", when I was visited by a Wireless Telegraphy Officer from the GPO, who advised me that I was almost certainly violating the licence conditions and I should return to normal "plain" speech rather than use echo, which he said was unpleasant to listen to.

It appears that, as the echo is not "plain" language and as amateurs are not supposed to play recordings of their own voices on the air (though some do this for CQ's), the echo is not permitted.

It seems rather sad that, when amateur radio is supposed to encourage experiment and ingenuity, such audio experiments as echo and, presumably, tremolo, and phase, should not be allowed.John R. Green, B.Sc., G3WVR (Brentwood, Essex).

## Anyone help?

In the September 1903 edition of Practical Wireless, there is a constructional article on a simple stroboscope.
The circuit is built round a NSP1 or NSP2 which I cannot obtain. I would be very grateful if any readers could inform me where I might get one from, and the price. $-\mathbf{N}$. Lord ( 53 Keepers Drive, Norden, Rochdale, Lancs.).

# A SIMPLE <br> ctpacitance brioce 

T|HE instrument to be described is very simple in design and construction but is nevertheless a very useful addition to the workshop especially when one is confronted with variable capacitors whose values are not known.

## The Circuit

The circuit is based on the Wheatstone Bridge Circuit and in fact compares the a.c. resistance of the unknown capacitor with that of a capacitor whose value is known. Since the a.c. resistance of a capacitor is proportional to its capacitance then by comparing the a.c. resistances we are effectively


Fig. 1: The basic principle of the unit which is based on the Wheatstone Bridge. The a.c. resistance of the unknown capacitor $C_{x}$ is compared with that of a capacitor $C$ of known a.c. resistance. The bridge is completed by the resistance wire ACB. The value of $C x$ is found from the formula

$$
C x=C \frac{A C}{C B}
$$

comparing the capacitances. The theoretical circuit is as follows (Fig. 1).

The capacitor $C$ represents the known capacitance and Cx represents the unknown one. The pointer is moved along the resistance wire until a null point is reached. At this point the a.c. resistance and therefore the capacitance of $C$ and $C x$ are in
the ratio:

$$
\frac{C}{C x}=\frac{C B}{A C}
$$

For a standard capacitance $C$ the ratio $\frac{C B}{A C}$ will change with the value of $C x$ i.e. the null point will move along the resistance wire. Hence the instrument may be calibrated against a standard capacitance using different known values of Cx.

The instrument, then, consists of two separate parts, the a.c. source and the bridge circuit. Let us first consider the a.c. source. This simply consists of a free running multivibrator about which little need be said. The transistors used were OC72 and the circuit was built on Veroboard.

In this circuit the resistance wire of the theoretical circuit is replaced by a $100 \Omega$ linear pot. The detector is replaced by a set of headphones and the standard capacitance is replaced by the switched arrangement which allows the standard capacitance to be varied from 10 pF to $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ in five switched ranges. The range may be extended to about $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ if desired without altering the circuit. The multivibrator is connected across the potentiometer and capacitances in parallel as shown and the unknown capacitance is connected across the terminals T 1 and T2.


## Construction

The instrument was mounted in a small wooden case with a paxolin front panel. The potentiometer, range switch, terminals T 1 and T 2 , jack socket for headphones and on/off switch were mounted on the front panel. The capacitances C3 to C7 were wired directly to the range switch. The circuit board for the multivibrator and battery were then mounted inside the case. A cursor and scale were then prepared as follows. The scale consisted of a semicircular piece of stiff white paper with five semicircles shown on it marked $A$ to $E$. This was pasted on to the front panel in the appropriate position. The cursor consisted of a piece of clean plastic with a line drawn along it with a sharp tool. Small holes


Fig. 2: In the practical circuit used in this equipment the free-running multivibrator circuit Tr1. Tr2 provides the a.c. source for the bridge whilst a pair of headphones (preferably high impedance) is used as the detector.



Fig. 3: Veroboard layous and wiring details of the multivibrator circuit


Fig. 4: Layout of the components mounted on the front panel and wiring of S2. For convenience a two-wafer switch is used in position S2.

## components list

## A-MULTIVIBRATOR CIRCUIT

Resistors:

| R1 $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R3 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R2 $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R4 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| all $10 \%$ | $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ | miniature. |

Capacitors:
C1 $\quad 0.25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$
C2 $\quad 0.25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$

Transistors:
TR1 OC72
TR2 OC72

## Miscellaneous:

Single pole on/off switch, Veroboard, PP9 battery.

## B-BRIDGE CIRCUIT

Potentiometer:
VR1 $100 \Omega$ linear $w /$ w potentiometer

## Capacitors:

| C3 | 10 pF | C6 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C4 | 100 pF | C7 $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| C5 | $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | all close tolerance |

## Miscellaneous:

T1 and T2 post terminals; jack socket for head phones; S2 single-pole 5 -way switch (two-wafer type used by author for convenience); headphones; cabinet.


Fig. 5: Front panel drilling details.
were drilled along it to coincide with the semicircles on the scale. The cursor was then glued to an instrument knob and fixed on the spindle of the potentiometer.

If a metal front panel is used it will be necessary to insulate the components mounted on the front panel.

## Calibration

The instrument was then calibrated as follows. The range switch was set to its lowest position10 pF and the instrument switched on. A known small capacitance (about 20 pF ) was placed across the terminals Tl and T 2 . The knob of the potentiometer was then moved until a null point was heard in the headphones. The point was marked on the scale by inserting a sharp-pointed pencil in the small hole in the cursor. This process is then repeated using different known values of capacitors until all five ranges have been calibrated. It may seem that quite a number of capacitors are needed for the calibration but this can be avoided. If a capacitance substitution box is available this will prove invaluable. Failing this, placing capacitors in parallel and in series will greatly reduce the number of capacitors required for calibration purposes.

## CORRIGENDA NOVEMBER ISSUE

UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTOR CIRCUITS
The connections to the base of the 2 N 2646 unijunction transistor used in the circuits in this article were not shown. These are as shown in Fig. 1 below.
In Fig. 2 in the article a positive-going instead of a negative-going pulse output was shown at the base 2 connection of the unijunction transistor.


## TRANSISTORISED SIGNAL GENERATOR

VC1 referred to in the text and components list is shown on the diagrams as C8. R6 referred to in Fig. 6 is VR1.


T1HIS tuner covers approximately $20-580$ metres in three switch-selected bands $5-15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} \quad(60-20$ metres); $1 \cdot 67-5 \cdot 3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ( $180-57$ metres): $515-$ $1,545 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ ( $580-194$ metres)

The $515-154 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ range is the usual "medium wave" band, while the other bands include the more useful short wave frequencies 80 . 160 metres, shipping transmissions, etc.
The tuner is designed to operate in conjunction with the "Pyramid" amplifier, but could be used with almost any other amplifier.

## Mixer Circuit

This is shown in Fig. 1. L1, L2 and L3 are the aerial coils, and selected by means of a three-way switch. One switch pole transfers the aerial to the required coil, another pole switches the tuning capacitor VCl , while the third pole selects the coupling winding for the OC170 mixer base.

To avoid the need for several pre-set trimmers, a panel trimmer VC3 allows peaking up the aeria! circuit on each band throughout the tuning range. This allows maximum efficiency with any aerial, and simplifies trimming.

L4, L5 and L6 are the oscillator coils, tuned by VC2. The emitter, collector and VC2 circuits are switched to the required coil by a second wafer of the switch (also three-pole three-way). TCI is the oscillator circuit trimmer.

Each oscillator coil has its own padder. Cp1, Cp2 and CP3. Each of these capacitors is of different value, and is connected to a different coil pin, as shown.

The mixer section is assembled on an aluminium chassis, and the i.f. amplifier strip is wired on a paxolin panel and fitted to the chassis at a later stage.

## I.F. Strip

Figure 2 shows the circuit using two AF117 transistors with double-tuned intermediate frequency transformers, i.f.t. 1 and i.f.t.2. I.f.t. 3 is single-tuned, and incorporates the detector diode and by-pass capacitor. Using these transistors, and five tuned circuits, high gain and selectivity are achieved.

Automatic volume control bias is applied to the first AF117, through R9, in the usual way. When the tuner is plugged into the "Pyramid" amplifier, the $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ audio gain control is present in circuit from pin 5 of i.f.t. 3 to the chassis. If the tuner is employed with a different amplifier, and the amplifier input circuit is not as used in the "Pyramid" equipment, a fixed resistor of similar value (around $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ ) must be wired from i.f.t. 3 pin 5 to chassis.

## Mixer Wiring

Layout of components under the chassis appears in Fig. 3. Six $\frac{1}{4}$ in. holes are drilled for the coils LI to L6
The ganged capacitor must have an efficient reduction drive. This may be a ball drive, be integral in the capacitor, behind the panel, or of any other usual type; the ball drive is the least expensive. The capacitor is also given as 365 pF each section, but may be 315 pF each section, or of similar value. This merely alters the tuning range slightly but this is of no importance as there is some overlap at the band ends.
The ganged capacitor is bolted to the chassis. Leads from front and rear sections pass down through holes to the nearest switch tags, Fig. 3. TC1 is soldered in parallel with VC2, above the chassis.
Wiring is most easily undertaken by placing the coils so that the pins all come in the same relative positions, Fig. 3. Each coil is then wired to the

switch, following Fig. 4. Leads should be short and direct, especially to the short-wave coils,
If this wiring is done systematically, and with care, no error should arise. If preferred, the chances of making a mistake can be reduced by placing only L3 and L6 in, and wiring these first. With the switch in the appropriate position, medium-wave reception should then be obtained. L2 and L5 can then be added and tested. Finally, L1 and L4 may be connected.


## I.F. Amplifier Construction

This section is wired completely on a piece of $\frac{1}{16}$ in. thick paxolin, $4 \times 2 \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$. Small holes are drilled so that the resistor leads and other parts may be fitted as in Fig. 3.

The paxolin panel is turned over and wired as in Fig. 5. One can tag of each i.f.t. is earthed to the positive line, which is in turn soldered to a tag. When the strip is completed, it is held in the chassis by two bolts, each with extra nuts to allow clearance for wiring. The i.f. strip positive line is thus common to the metal chassis, Fig. 3.


Fig. 3 (above): Under chassis wiring. Note that leads should be short and direct

Fig. 4 (below): Wiring to the wave change switch.

front wafer
Sleeving should be put on the transistor wires to avoid short-circuits. It is helpful to use different colours for identification, e.g. red for collectors, green for emitters, yellow for bases, with shield wires left bare. It is then much easier to check connections when the transistors are in position. Their leads should be quite short, and must be soldered rapidly in the usual way to avoid overheating.

## External Connections

These are shown in Fig. 3. For the "Pyramid" amplifier, the negative supply is drawn from a socket on the panel. The negative lead, Figs. 3 and 5, shows a plug to insert in this socket. If the tuner is used with other equipment a supply of about 6 V is required.

Audio signals go from pin 5 of i.f.t. 3 to the amplifier input (volume control). The outer braiding of the screened or coaxial lead forms the positive or "earth" return between tuner and amplifier. This is provided automatically when plugging into the "Pyramid" amplifier.

If an earth is available, this can be connected to the chassis via a socket or terminal. The aerial goes to a socket or terminal insulated from the chassis, Fig. 3.

## Aligning the I.F.T.s

If a signal generator is available, set it to provide a modulated output on about $470 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. Connect the output to pin 5 of i.f.t.2, and adjust the core of i.t.f. 3 for best results. Then transfer the generator lead to pin 5 of i.f.t.1, and adjust both cores of i.f.t.2. Finally, inject at the mixer base and adjust i.f.t. 1 cores.

The input level should be kept down to avoid overloading. Output can be shown by a meter in one battery lead to the amplifier, but when trimming for maximum current, reduce audio gain so
that this is not unnecessarily heavy (say not usually over 30 mA ).

If the i.f.t.s are prealigned, and are not badly off frequency, a signal will be obtained at once through the whole amplifier, by injecting at the mixer base, and aligning all cores. However, if some cores are much out of position. this may res-
rear water

ult in no signals being obtained and the procedure previously described should then be taken.
If no generator is available, it is necessary to tune into a transmission, and adjust the cores for best results, each core should tune quite sharply. A properly shaped and fully insulated trimming tool is necessary. Cores should be touched up finally, with a weak signal, when the strip is fixed in the chassis.


Fig. 5: I.F. board wiring (underside).

## Mixer Alignment

Screw TCI about half-way down. With the switch in the medium wave position, adjust the core of L6 for suitable band coverage. At the high-frequency end of the band (VC1/2 nearly open) VC3 should peak for best sensitivity around one-third to one-half closed. Tune towards the LF end of the band, and adjust the core of L3 for best results, and to make necessary the least re-adjustment of VC3.

The $1.67 .5 \cdot 3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ range should be dealt with next by adjusting the cores of L2 and L5. Finally, switch to the highest frequency range, and adjust the cores of L1 and L4.

The actual coverage of each band depends on the settings of the oscillator coil cores, L4, L5 and L6, but if VC3 can be peaked up for maximum results, and is not fully open or fully closed, satisfactory efficiency will be obtained. A signal generator is most convenient for aligning the mixer coils, and obtaining suitable frequency coverage for each band.

With the highest frequencies it is possible to tune L1 to the wrong side of the oscillator coil frequency, this is usual with a superhet. Where L1 can be peaked to two frequencies, each giving maximum performance, the correct setting is the lower frequency of the two, so that the oscillator is working
at a higher frequency than that of the aerial circuit.
It may be noted that the coil manufacturer specifies $3,000 \mathrm{pF}$ for $P 1$, and $1,100 \mathrm{pF}$ for $P 2$. Should these values be available, they furnish the same results in this circuit as the $2,700 \mathrm{pF}$ and $1,000 \mathrm{pF}$ capacitors listed.
Should it be found during alignment that VC3 always needs to be nearly open, at the h.f. ends of all bands, then screw down TCl a little.

If the aerial is at all long, results are improved by placing a small capacitor between aerial lead and receiver, a 50 pF pre-set should usually be suitable.

## components list

| Mixer Section : |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R1 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C2 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| R2 | $2.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | Cp1 | 2,700pF |
| R3 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | Cp2 | 1,000pF |
| C1 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | Cp3 | 350pF |
| VC1/VC2 2-gang 365pF or similar. |  |  |  |
| VC3 50pF variable. TC1 30pF beehive pre-set. Denco Coils: "Blue" "Red" |  |  |  |
| L1 Range 4T L4 Range 4T |  |  |  |
|  |  | L2 ., 3T | L5 ." 3T |
|  |  | L3 .. 2T | L6 ., 6T |
| Chas pole case | sis $8 \times 5 \frac{1}{2} \times$ three-way $10 \times 6 \times$ | $2 i n$. OC170. Twoeach wafer. Drive, in. (Electroniques) | afer switch, threenobs, etc. "Dinki- |
| IF Strip: |  |  |  |
| R4 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C3 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| R5 | $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C4 | $10 \mu \mathrm{~F} 6 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| R6 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C5 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| R7 | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C6 | $0.04 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
|  | $4 \cdot 7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C7 | $0.04 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
|  | $8 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C8 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| R10 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |  |  |
| XT50/2, i.f.t. 3 XT50/3. Two AF117s. Screened lead, etc. |  |  |  |

## Ca! Ca! Ca! Ca! CQ! CO!

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# repairing radio sets 

## PART 1 (Third Series)

The first series ran from April-September 1967 and dealt with repairing sets with valve circuits. The second series, running from April-September 1968, dealt with transistor sets. We now present a short third series covering the repair of sets with unknown circuits.

0WING to requests by readers of this series for a final, two-part article dealing with the nontheoretical and practical approaches of servicing valve and transistor sets of unknown circuit, it has been decided to extend the series by two articles adopting the same pattern as the previous ones. That is, one by my pen on the circuit and fault-diagnosing side and the other by my colleague H.W. Hellyer on practical matters.

## DETERMINING THE CATEGORY

Starting first with the valve models, these can be divided into four primary categories: (i) the a.c.-only model, (ii) the a.c./d.c. model, (iii) the battery (alldry) model and (iv) the mains/battery model. Thus, the first thing to do when an unknown species comes into our hands is to put it into one of the above classifications.

The true a.c.-only set is easy to identify because it possesses a rather hefty mains transformer, often carrying on its top metal cover some means of adjusting the mains input voltage requirement. This, of course, must always be adjusted to correspond as closely as possible to the household mains voltage on which the set is to be operated. As this still tends to vary about the 240 -volt "standard" from district to district the correct tapping must be selected at the place where the servicing is to be undertaken.
This type of set is generally the least "lethal" from the servicing point of view because the mains supply is fully isolated from the circuits and metal chassis by a primary winding on the mains transformer. Secondary windings deliver power for the h.t. rectifier (usually a valve in older models and a metal or semiconductor unit in more recent ones) and for the heaters of the valves. This sort of set, therefore, can be worked on quite safely without taking undue precautions against electric shock, though it is desirable to connect a good earth to the earth terminal or socket, so that a mains supply short to chassis will blow a fuse rather than encouraging the flow of current through the body of the repairer touching the metal chassis while being "earthed".

## SAFETY PRECAUTIONS

At this juncture it must be stressed that there is a variety of a.c.-only set which employs a mains tranformer arranged rather in the form of an autotransformer for the h.t. supply-having isolated

windings only for the heaters of the valves. Here the primary winding, which is connected via the on/off switch to the mains supply, is tapped to give the necessary voltage for the h.t. rectifier, and one side is connected to h.t. negative and/or the metal chassis of the set. In other words, one side of the mains supply is connected to chassis, and if this happens to be the "live" side the repairer is likely to receive a nasty shock on touching it while being in circuit with earth.

The a.c./d.c. set is completely devoid of a mains transformer, for such a device can only work on a.c. If d.c. is connected across the primary of a mains transformer, there would be no transformer action and the supply current would be limited only by the resistance of the winding. The transformer would almost certainly blow up! The mains current is reduced to a value suitable for the heaters of the valves-series-connected heaters being used here instead of the parallel-connected heaters of a.c.only models-by a large, wire-bound resistance unit, called a "mains dropper". The "anode" of the h.t. rectifier is connected to the mains supply either direct or more usually through a low value, wire-wound resistor, called the "surge limiter" (as it limits the initial switch-on current through the h.t. circuits), and is often a part of the mains dropper. This sort of set, of course, can be lethal to work on when it is connected to the mains supply so that the "live" side is in termination with h.t. negative or chassis.
The battery-only set is perfectly safe to work on since the h.t. supply rarely exceeds 90 volts. Such sets of the last two decades have employed small low-consumption valves with $1 \cdot 4$-volt filaments, and they run either with their filaments connected in series or in parallel, and a 1.t. battery corresponding to the mode of connection is then employed.

The battery/mains model is basically the same as the battery-only set but with additions for working the valves-h.t. and l.t.-from the mains supply. The usual plan is for the filaments of the valves to be switched to series-connection on mains and then to be connected across the h.t. supply via a series resistor. The h.t. supply is derived either via a small mains transformer or, more usually, from a mains dropper, with a valve or metal rectifier. As the latest all-dry valves require only 25 mA of filament current, the load the series-chain presents to the h.t. supply can easily be catered for, bearing in mind that the total h.t. current is little more than 20 mA , anyway.

In the mains mode, therefore, this sort of set
can also have a chassis which is "live" with respect to earth; but possibly the biggest servicing problem lies in protecting the very delicate 25 mA filaments of the valves while servicing, for one false move with a meter test prod can often result in a substantial rise in filament current especially with the set switched to mains-either straining the valves so they no longer work with the correct current or burning out their filaments altogether.

## POINTS OF DETAIL

Mains sets-both a.c.-only and a.c./d.c.-mostly have long and medium wavebands, while many also incorporate one or several short wave bands. This sort of detail is revealed by the tuning scale. Sets within the last two decades have also tended to cater for the v.h.f. f.m. transmissions in Band II as well as for the ordinary a.m. transmissions in the long, medium and short wavebands. A.m./f.m. sets are basically the same as their a.m.-only counterparts, but carrying a v.h.f. tuner, a f.m. detector of some kind (usually a ratio detector-a pair of diodes in series) and i.f. stages which can be switched between $470 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ for a.m. and $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ for $\mathrm{f} . \mathrm{m}$.

The switching in this variety of set is somewhat complex because several parts of the set as a whole have to be switched simultaneously. A long, slider type of switch-with switching sections along its length-is often arranged along the length of the chassis, thereby allowing local switching of the v.h.f. tuner, the a.m. frequency changer to an additional i.f. stage on f.m., the a.m. local oscillator, the i.f. transformers and the a.m. and f.m. detectors.

The majority of the battery-only and battery/ mains models cater only for the long and medium wavebands, with a few carrying a short waveband in addition There were very. very few models of this kind with facilities for f.m. as well as a.m.


Fig. 1: Block diagram of typical valve a.m. receiver.

Typical mains sets. as well as most of the battery and battery/mains models. have four main "receiving" valves plus either a valve or metal rectifier, as shown by the block diagram in Fig. 1. If there is a "magic-eye" tuning indicator, this represents an


Fig. 2: Typical lavout for an a.m./f.m. valve receiver. Note the placing of the a.m. and f.m. tuning components, the i.f. sections, the mains and output transformers and the smoothing choke.
extra valve, but which if missing or faulty will not usually cause the set to cease working. There is also an extra valve in those models which cater for f.m. as well as a.m., this being in the v.h.f. tuner.

## COMPONENT IDENTIFICATION

A typical example layout of an a.m./f.m. a.c.only model is given in Fig. 2. V1 is a double-triode in the v.h.f. tuner (ECC85), one section working as the v.h.f. amplifier and the other as the self-oscillating frequency changer. V2 is the a.m. frequencychanger (ECH81), a triode-heptode, with the heptode as mixer and the triode as local oscillator. On f.m. the triode is muted and the heptoce is arranged to work as an extra $10.7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ i.f. stage. V3 is the i.f. amplifier (EF89) working in conjunction with a.m. and f.m. i.f. transformers, as already mentioned. V4 is the a.m. and f.m. detector, one diode for the former and two for the latter (the norm in this sort of set-up), combined with the a.f. triode amplifier, the valve thus being a triple-diode-triode (EABC80). V5 is the output valve (EL84), invariably a pentode. V6 is the tuning indicator (EM34)-not directly concerned with the operation of the set. And, finally, V7 is the h.t. rectifier (EZ80).
Points to note are (i) the location of the twogang tuning (a.m.) capacitor in relation to the fre-quency-changer valve, (ii) the siting of the v.h.f. tuner and the way that its mechanical tuning is often ganged to the two-gang a.m. capacitor, (iii) the position of the i.f. transformers between the frequency-changer and i.f. valves and between the i.f. and detector valves, (iv) the mains transformer (T2) as far as possible removed from the front-end of the set, (v) the position of the output (or speaker) transformer (T1, but below the chassis) adjacent to the output valves, (vi) the smoothing choke ( CH 2 ) close to the h.t. rectifier, (vii) the tuning indicator arranged to show at the front of the set and (viii) the relative positions of the controls. The tuning and wavechange controls are always towards the front-end, while the volume is as close as possible to the a.f. amplifier. Not all models feature both
bass and treble controls, but most have one "tone control" which, at least. provides a variable degree of treble cut!
A.c./d.c. sets follow closely in layout, but using a mains dropper instead of transformer, while battery-only models are that much less complicated to service-the vulnerability of the filaments apart --due to the lack of power supply components. The top-view of a typical a.c./d.c. model is depicted in Fig. 3, where V1, V2, V3, V4 and V5 respectively are the frequency-changer, i.f. amplifier, detector/ a.f., output and rectifier valves. The mains dropper is R10, shown also in inset. The overall mains dropping resistance appears between tags 1 and 4 , while the two taps along the resistance, given at 2 and 3 , produce a volts drop suitable for lighting a small dial bulb: tag 3 also connects to the anode of the h.t. rectifier, thereby making the top two resistance sections the surge limiter.


Fig. 3: Layout of a typical a.c./d.c. radio.
A battery-only portable top-of-chassis layout is given in Fig. 4, with V1, V2, V3 and V4 representing the frequency-changer, i.f. amplifier, detector/ a.f. and output valves-respectively DK96, DF96, DAF96 and DL96. Notice again the location of the wavechange switch close to the front-end (frequencychanger), with the volume control at the far end, close to the a.f. stage. OPI is the speaker transformer in this diagram, with the primary and secondary windings represented by L9 and LIO.


Fig. 4: Common layout of a value battery portable radio.
As with battery/mains versions and some a.c.only and a.c./d.c. table models, the battery portable now always uses a ferrite rod aerial (for a.m. and medium-frequency signals) in place of the former frame aerial. The ferrite rod acrial in Fig. 2 is shown above the a.m. tuning-gang, carrying windings $\mathrm{L9}$, L10, LII and L12. This works, of course, on a.m. only (not f.m.). The aerial in Fig. 4 runs the whole length of the chassis-the longer, the greater the signal pick-up-and carries m.w. winding L1, which is connected in series with winding L2 for I.w. reception. The wavechange switch performs the connection changes. while also changing over the local oscillator coil or adding parallel capacitance to a single coil for l.w, working, depending on the actual design.

## ALL-DRY PORTABLE CIRCUIT

The circuit of a battery-only set, corresponding to the chassis layout in Fig. 4, is given in Fig. 5. This set has all the filaments in parallel, thereby requiring 1.5 volts I.t. Notice that the output valve, V4, has a tapped filament. and that the tap is connected to l.t. negative, while the two outer connections are joined. This puts the two half-sections in parallel. In series-connected filament circuits, the two half-sections, of course, remain in series to give the correct filament current balance.


Fig. 5: Typical circuit of a two waveband battery portable; note the arrangement of filament wiring.

A characteristic fault in this scheme is lack of oscillation brought about by (a) low 1.t. battery and (b) low emission or strained V1 or both. Another defect is low sensitivity often caused by increase in value of R9 or R10. Distortion is invariably caused by a leaky C24 or a low emission V4, while severe microphony usually means either that V3 is in need of replacement or that the 1.t. battery is nearing the end of its useful life.

An even older battery/mains model (Decca), using a frame aerial, is shown circuit-wise in Fig. 6. On mains the small metal rectifier feeds d.c. to the anodes and screen grids of the valves, while also feeding a small filament current to the seriesconnected chain via Rx. Sets of this kind suffer badly during the winter months with muted local oscillators due to mains power cuts, for even a small reduction in mains voltage is often sufficient to drop the filament current sufficiently to prevent the local oscillator from working.


Fig. 6. Circuit of an older type battery/mains model.

The following hints and tips will also be useful to keep in mind when handling an unknown valve model for the first time. When the set is a.c.-only make sure that all the heaters are lit. If one (or more) is out the valve will almost certainly be in need of replacement. Look out for overheating of a valve when first switching on. If the h.t. rectifier glows red hot and the set is dead a h.t. shortelectrolytic capacitor failure-will almost certainly be responsible, though, sometimes, a short in the rectifier itself causes this symptom.
If the components are suffering no apparent discomfort after the set has been powered for several minutes, check the temperature of the valve envelopes with a finger; a barely warm h.t. rectifier could indicate open-circuit of that valve, even though the heater is lit, while a cool output valve could mean lack of screen grid or anode voltage. The latter trouble, invariably caused by open-circuit of the speaker transformer primary, results in the screen grid of the output valve glowing red hot. This is a good point to check on a dead set.
With a.c./d.c. sets, one opencircuit valve heater will remove power from all the other heaters, so no valves will be alight. Check each valve in turn with an ohmmeter or, with the set switched on, check with an a.c. voltmeter from the heater connected to the mains dropper relative to chassis along the heater chain back to chassis. A.c. volts will be indicated at the start of the chain and fall to zero at the far side of the valve whose heater is open-circuit. Of course, the same symptom will result with an open-circuit mains dropper, on/ off switch, fuse, thermistor (if used) and so forth, but the use of an

The trouble is aggravated by a worn VI and metal rectifier or by attempting to run the set with the mains tapping adjusted to a value above the input mains voltage. Sadly, if the tapping voltage is reduced, the filaments will be likely to suffer permanent damage on upward surges of mains voltage. Fortunately, sets like this have long since been superseded by the economic transistor model. Even so, there are still many thousands in use, repaired yearly by the amateur, so no excuses are offered for their brief inclusion in this text!

## SERVICING HINTS AND TIPS

To summarise on valve models: one, check in which category it falls; two, make absolutely sure that it is safe to handle, especially when of the a.c./d.c. kind-make sure that the chassis is in connection with the neutral side of the mains and check with a neon tester, which will glow when the chassis -or anything else pertaining to the set-is "live"; and avoid becoming "earthed"-wear rubber-soled shoes; three, locate the primary components and valves so that the circuits around them can also be identified, and then proceed with the servicing exercise along the line expounded in the previous articles.
a.c. voltmeter will soon bring this sort of trouble to light.

## UNKNOWN TRANSISTOR SET

So much, then, for valve models, now let us glance at the unknown transistor set. The typical transistor set follows similar lines to the basic valve set. There is one transistor working as a self-oscillating fre-quency-changer, one or more operating as the i.f. amplifier, a semiconductor diode for detection followed by an audio section comprising either a single driver transistor transformer-coupled to a pushpull pair or two pre-push-pull transistors without transformer coupling. There are numerous variations of these two themes, especially in the a.f. stages, whose details just cannot be given within the compass of a single article. However, up to the a.f. sections or detector most sets have a great deal in common. Earlier models, employing OC45 transistors, generally have two.i.f. stages, while more recent designs, using the AF117 transistors, can secure virtually the same overall gain with just one i.f. transistor. The majority of models have six transistors and two semiconductor diodes in total, the second diode working in a signal overload protection circuit,
coming into action with the a.g.c. and damping down the signal at the output of the frequencychanger.

General layout is not at all "standardised" as it is with valve sets. This is because printed-circuit boards are invariably adopted, as distinct from the wired-circuits of valve designs. The trend now is towards the employment of circuit board "modules" or sub-sections, and these are sited in the cabinet more to suit the mechanics of the situation rather than the electronics. Fortunately, great liberties can be taken over well-designed circuit boards, so the earlier problems of instability and the like now rarely occur.

The predominant feature of all transistor sets is the ferrite rod aerial, which takes pride of place. The coils on this constitute the aerial tuned circuits, and one section of the two-gang tuning capacitor resonates these over the l.w. and m.w. bands. The frequency-changer transistor will always be found close to the aerial side of the tuning gang. In sets with two i.f. stages there are three i.f. trans-formers-much smaller than those of valve setsand two transformers when only one i.f. stage is employed. The local oscillator coil or transformer is connected between the collector and emitter of the frequency-changer transistor, and one isolated winding on the assembly serves to swing the oscillator frequency in conjunction with the oscillator section of the tuning gang. The oscillator coil then usually taps into the primary of the first i.f. transformer, thereby coupling the i.f. signal to the base of the first i.f. transistor. Earlier models feature some kind of neutralisation in the i.f. stages to prevent them from oscillating, but this is no longer necessary with the latest, high-gain, low-capacitance transistors.

The detector diode is sometimes hidden within the screening can of the final i.f. transformer, and the d.c. voltage that this yields after rectification of the signal constitutes the a.g.c. bias. This is fed back to the base of the i.f. transistor as an increasing (with increasing signal strength) positive voltage when the controlled transistor is a $\mathrm{p}-\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{p}$ type. The a.g.c. bias pulls down the emitter current, thereby reducing the gain of the stage. This, called "forward
a.g.c.", requires a negative voltage when the controlled transistor is an n-p-n type. Some transistors, however, are designed for so-called "reverse a.g.c.", where the bias causes an increase in emitter/ collector current and, sometimes, an increasing volts drop across a resistor, suitably decoupled, and connected in series with the collector circuit. The


Fig. 7: Showing the circuit (a) and the layout (b) of a six transistor super radio.

stage gain in this case is reduced by the effectively falling collector voltage.

Audio from the detector is developed across the volume control-which is only about $5 k$, compared with the 500 k of valved circuits-and the slider, ganged to the spindle, taps off the required level of signal to the audio amplifier.

One transistor set design is shown in Fig. 7, the circuit at (a) and the board layout at (b). This adopts a three-transistor audio section, with TR4 driver transistor coupled to the push-pull pair (TR5 and TR6) through transformer T1. the output transistors are biased towards class B working-with a vestige of quiescent current to minimise crossover distortion-by the preset potentiometer R20. The diode across it serves to stabilise the selected working point. In this circuit the speaker, too, is tran-former-coupled to the collectors of the output transistors by T2. Negative feedback is applied to the base of the driver transistor TR4 from the secondary of T2.

## TIPS FOR TRANSISTOR SERVICING

The theme of this particular article implies that we have no circuit of the defective set and that we have not come across the model before. What, then, do we do when we are presented with a "dead" set of this kind? The best plan first of all is to get some idea where the various stages are located on the printed-circuit board or modules.

We can easily locate the major components and then identify the transistors on terms of stages from these. We can trace the wiring from the ferrite rod aerial to the frequency-changer transistor and next locate the oscillator coil and its trimmers relative to the collector circuit of the frequency-changer transistor. It will not be very difficult then to trace through to the i.f. stage or stages, thence to the detector diode. remembering that it may be hidden in a can, and on to the volume control. After that we come to the audio stages and, as already mentioned, this could take a variety of forms, but they all end up with the speaker, either transformercoupled as in Fig. 7(a) or coupled capacitively through a fairly large value electrolytic.

Keep in mind that complete failure following the dropping of a transistor set-and this is not particularly uncommon!-will almost certainly be caused by a fracture of the printed-circuit board somewhere, but with the knowledge that we have now acquired this should not take long to locate. Distortion creeps on as the battery gradually falls in power; but excessive distortion at normal battery voltage with abnormally high total, quiescent current should immediately lead to a check of the output stage biasing preset-such as R20 in Fig. 7(a). Conversely, too little quiescent current will emphasise crossover distortion, which would also point to maladjustment of the biasing preset. A fair value for the output transistors of an ordinary transistor portable is 5 mA quiescent at normal room tempera-ture-about $18^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

Well, then, that takes care of the circuit and general theory side of the unknown set.

Next month Mr. H. W. Hellyer will be dealing with the practical aspects of the unknown.

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## F.M. TUNER

Full details are given of an f.m. tuner covering the B.B.C. stations between 87 and $108 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, including the new local ones. Designed for easy construction and simple alignment, this tuner is ideal for the less advanced constructor.

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## R.F. GRAHAM

TTHE output of this converter is inductively coupled to the aerial circuit of any ordinary transistor receiver having only medium wave or medium and long wave coverage, giving short wave reception over a band of approximately $5-15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ( $60-20$ metres). Though it has primarily been used with the "Experimenters' 6" it will operate perfectly with similar receivers.

Figure 1 shows the circuit; the $\mathrm{OC170}$ frequency changer provides an output in the order of $1.6-$ $1.4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, the broadcast receiver being permanently tuned to the output frequency near the high end of the medium wave band. The overall circuit becomes that of a double superhet. First conversion is by the OCI70 to the receiver frequency: second conversion is by the receiver frequency changer, generally to about $470 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. The detector, audio and output stages of the receiver operate in the usual way, with reproduction from the receiver speaker, or headphones if there is provision for these.

Freedom from second channel interference is greater than with the popular all-wave receivers using a $470 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ i.f. Sensitivity, selectivity and results generally are very good.

Construction of the single OC170 stage is simple and straightforward, but a few points should be noted.


Fig. 1: Circuit of the converter.
$\mathrm{VCl} / \mathrm{VC} 2$ is a ganged capacitor for tuning, and though a double 300 pF or similar component is recommended, larger values give the same results except for some extending of coverage towards the low frequency end of the band. VC3 allows aerial circuit trimming, so the actual converter output frequency (and the frequency to which the receiver is set) is not critical. L1 is the aerial coil and L2 the oscillator coil, C6 being the padder. For $1.6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ with the listed coils, a 960 pF padder is specified, but in the present circuit either 960 pF or $1,000 \mathrm{pF}$ may be fitted.

It was found that the inexpensive surplus type of OC170 varied somewhat, and C2 and R3 are optional, these items being required to avoid excess oscillation. One OC170 tried also operated best with a 470 ohm resistor at X . It is also worth trying $3 \mathrm{~V}, 4.5 \mathrm{~V}$ and 6 V as a supply voltage, though 4.5 V was generally best.

It is probably best to wire the converter without C 2 and R3, and no changes need be made if excess oscillation does not spoil reception.

## CHASSIS AND CONSTRUCTION

Figure 2 shows layout of components and wiring, only the battery, ganged capacitor and coils being on top of the chassis; the capacitor is bolted directly to the chassis.

An efficient reduction drive is necessary; the capacitor fitted had such a drive incorporated. A separate drive, behind the panel or fitting the capacitor spindle on the front of the panel, would be equally satisfactory.

In Fig. 2, C2 and R3 are omitted, for the reason explained. TCl is soldered to a tag bolted to the chassis. Insulated leads pass through holes to VCl and VC 2 .

L3 is 25 turns of thin insulated wire (about 32 s.w.g.) wound on a $\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter former, afterwards removed. Turns were bound with thin tape. Two pieces of thin flex, about 6 to 8 in . long, are soldered to the coil ends, joints being covered with sleeving.


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[^3]

Fig. 2: Under chassis wiring.
The flex is twisted together, to pass through a hole and connect as in Fig. 2.

## COUPLING

This is from L3 to the transistor receiver ferrite rod aerial winding, achieved by slipping L3 onto the ferrite rod. Coupling was sufficient with L3 on the end of the rod opposite to that bearing the medium wave winding.

Some receivers have a coupling winding, for external aerial. This generally has roughly ten turns, and can be used as L3. It is then possible to arrange that the converter can be plugged into the receiver aerial socket. A long flexible or screened lead should not be used between converter and receiver.

With a miniature and enclosed receiver, coupling can be obtained by situating L3 near the end of the ferrite rod, adjacent to the m.w. winding, but outside the case. It is also possible to put a ferrite rod or core in L3, and situate this near the receiver aerial rod.

The "Experimenters 6" receiver has variable aerial trimming, so no loss of sensitivity results from misalignment. But with other receivers coupling needs to be fairly loose, or alignment of aerial and oscillator circuits will be upset.

## NOTES ON USE

The receiver is tuned to a point near the high frequency (low wavelength) end of the m.w. band where no station is heard. This will generally be around 1.6 to $1.4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ ( $188-210$ metres).

All tuning is then done on the converter. VC3 should be adjusted to peak for best volume throughout the band. Incorrect adjustment of TCl or L 1 and L2 cores will not normally cause lack of efficiency provided VC3 peaks up for best volume and is not fully open or fully closed.

For correct alignment and band coverage, adjust L 1 and L 2 cores near the 1.f. end of the band, and TCl near the h.f. end, until little adjustment of VC3 is needed.

If a medium wave transmission is received when the converter is switched off, output from the converter will beat with this signal when the converter
is in use, causing whistles on all signals. This is avoided by tuning the receiver carefully to avoid any signal when the converter is off.

The high i.f. gives reasonable freedom from second channel whistles, but some always become apparent on high frequency short wave ranges. Generally, they are not particularly troublesome.

Should any form of continuous oscillation be experienced, keep the converter aerial lead away from the broadcast receiver. If this continues it is worth trying an earth on the converter. Also place the receiver to avoid unnecessary coupling between its coils etc. and the converter. With a receiver close to the converter chassis and coils, it was found helpful to use the coil cans and lids as screens for the coils. With the same receiver clear of the coils, screening the latter was unnecessary.

As mentioned previously some receiver circuits require a resistor at X, see Fig. 1. If soldered directly to tag 8 of the coil holder, this can greatly help reduce whistles from excess oscillation.


Top view of completed converter.

## $\star$ components list

Resistors:

| R1 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R3 | $1.2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R2 | $2.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R4 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |

All $10 \% \frac{1}{2}$ watt miniature
Capacitors:

| C1 | 100 pF | C4 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C2 | $0.04 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C5 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| C3 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C 6 | 1000 pF |

VC1/VC2 Twin gang air-spaced variable 300pF or similar
VC3 50pF small air-spaced variable
TC1 30 pF beehive trimmer
Coils:
L1 Denco Blue Range 4
L2 Denco White Range 4
L3 See text

## Miscellaneous:

Reduction drive, two B9A valveholders, OC170 transistor, chassis (about $7 \times 5 \times 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$.), on/off toggle switch, knobs, tagstrip etc.

# practically wireless commentary by ILINI 

TEARING up some back copies of Electronics Weekly for the local chip-shop, Henry came across an article previously overlooked.

It seemed a pity to wrap a cod fillet and six-pennorth in anything as tantalising as "The art of specification'. The use of the word 'art' again proved the value of serendipity, and Charles Gunner of GEC-AEI certainly made this scribe think twice about what he had always taken to be a science.

As a Member of the Institute of Measurement and Control, Mr. G. may be excused for saying. provocatively: 'Electronic engineers are perfectly familiar with specifications, but the individual engineer probably has never stopped to consider either why specifications are necessary or what they really expect a specification to tell them.

Overlooking his own lack of control over the tensing of that statement, we must ask what the top lad of Inspection requires a specification to tell him. And we find that even a simple resistor amasses a dossier as involved as a holly roth plot. When Joe calls: 'Chuck us over a forty-seven-K, mate; you can make him feel it would be easier to go and fetch it himself by simply querying all of the fourteen different limiting tolerances one by one. No


[^4]wonder the Stanmore Laboratories report that test time for a 'simple item’ like a resistor costs more than the bill for making it!
Now, please-before you descend on Henry for belittling the need for specifications, let's see what else Mr. Gunner had to say about the gentle art. Specifications are necessary, he says, for quality control, reliability assessment and economy of effort. All concerned with production should try to convince laboratory and design staff that specs are not just a tool for the convenience of production staff. They are as much a part of production as a set of drawings ... a good laboratory engineer will consider the specification to be as much an end product of his work as the unit or component which he has designed.

Those are my italics, not Mr. Gunner's. They make one realise if one discounts the slight whiff of sour grapes, that the airy world of upper-echelon electronics is as much beset by inter-departmental war as the factory floor. As one who did his stint in the inspection department of a couple of radio factories, as well as the cosier regulated world of the Services, Henry can speak with some feeling on the bending of specifications to suit the Production Manager's bonus chart.

A small hint of this is gleaned from a later example quoted in the article which is currently giving us a subject to chew over. Component engineers, while admitting that a sales sheet for their product states it 'complies with an American MIL specification', go on to tell you that in that particular case', whole sections of this very comprehensive specification have 'been conceded'

Lovely term-conceded. Can you not see it on the brochure of a 'High Fidelity System'? The equipment conforms with British Standard XYZ:1969:47Q, sections 3 a to 45 conceded. Mr.


The slight whiff of sour grapes
Gunner would probably wave a deprecatory hand toward such unimportant gear as our domestic music-boxes. but the consumer industry needs someone as dedicated as he, especially in the field of so-called high fidelity.
Let us conclude with one beautiful example, from M. Horowitz book: 'Measuring Hi-Fi Amplifiers'. By means of juggling the output power ratings, he tells us. it can almost be proved that no low-power amplifiers exist! Take a modest 12 -watt stereo amplifier. Two 12 watts r.m.s. can be said, tongue-in-cheek, to equal a total of 36 watts IHFM 'Music Power:. Now the specifications of music power assume no power supply voltage change with signal change and define test conditions. Sinewave power at a predetermined distortion level is measured. But peak IHFM power is twice the sinewave power, so the copy-writer can fairly legitimately double his figures, to get a 72 -watt 'Peak-IHFM Amplifier'
What about the distortion level? Well. if we come back along the roll-off curve, and carefully forget to state that the frequency response figure was measured at a different power level. you can get away with calling this modest amplifier an 80 -watt job. Look carefully at those 'specifications' before buying!

# P.W. GUIDE TO Cox Po 

CYAPACITORS are essential components in electronic circuits. They function as tuning, smoothing, timing and d.c. blocking components. The basic unit of capacitance is the farad, though microfarads ( $\mu \mathrm{F}$ or m.f.d.) and picofarads ( pF ) are in practice used: they are farads divided by $10^{+6}$ and $10^{+12}$ respectively. Nanofarads and kilopicofarads are also in use: $\operatorname{lnF}=1 \mathrm{kpF}=1,000 \mathrm{pF}=0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$.

## Values and Tolerances

Capacitors are frequently marked numerically with their capacitance value, usually together with the voltage rating and polarity if any. However microminiaturisation has resulted in an increase in the use of colour coding. Due to the diversity of shapes and sizes of capacitors colour coding is not standardised and the manufacturer's data should be consulted. As a general rule the value is given as for the resistor coding but with the capacitance in picofarads. Tolerance and voltage ratings are given special colours by the manufacturer.

(a) Fixed

(b) Electrolytic

(c) Variable

Fig. 1: Capacitor circuit symbols


Fig. 2: Basic capacitor construction.


Fig. 3 (right): Capacitor equivalent circuit:
the inductance of the leads and resistance of the dielectric affect the performance of a capacitor in practice

Capacitors are available in the capacitance range 0.5 pF to $500,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ and with tolerance ratings of better than $\pm \frac{1}{2} \%$ to $+100 \%-20 \%$. Tolerance generally increases with the larger values of capacitance. Cost increases for miniature styles, high capacitance values, and very high voltage working.

Commonly low value capacitors are available in the values given in Table I. This cannot be regarded as a definite standard as in the case of resistors, and for the higher values of capacitance above approximately $1,000 \mathrm{pF}$ many non-standard values appear. Most
manufacturers follow the values of Table 2 for the higher values of capacitance.

Notable exceptions are values such as 200 pF and 500 pF which appear in the various ranges up to $0.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. For electrolytic capacitors above $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ many nonstandard values appear. As electrolytics are mainly used for smoothing or coupling and their tolerance is often $+50 \%-10 \%$ these variations are insignificant as the absolute value is rarely important.

## Ideal Capacitor Characteristics

Ideally a capacitor is constructed as shown in Fig. 2, with two conducting plates separated by a perfect insulator or dielectric. As the plates are isolated they effectively block the passage of direct currents and the resistance of the dielectric determines the usefulness of the capacitor for this purpose. Capacitors do however transmit alternating currents. This is because of the large area of the plates which require a large increase of charge to give a change of voltage across them. Thus the voltage across a capacitor cannot change instantly,

Table 1: Generally Available Capacitors $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{pF} — 1000 \mathrm{pF}$

| Common <br> Values | Other <br> Values | Common <br> Values | Other <br> Values |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10 | - | 39 | - |
| 15 | - | 47 | 50 |
| 18 | 20 | 56 | - |
| 22 | 25 | 68 | 75 |
| 27 | 30 | 82 | - |
| 33 | - | 100 | - |

Table 2: Generally Available Capacitors-High Values (values in microfarads $-\mu \mathrm{F}$ )

| Noll- <br> Electrolytic |  | Elecriolytic |  | Electrolytic |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Common Values | Other <br> Values | Common Values | Other <br> Values | Common Values | Other <br> Values |
| 0.001 | 0.0015 | 1 | 1.5 | 500 | - |
| $0 \cdot 0022$ | 0.002 | 2 | 4 | 1000 | 1250 |
| 0.0033 | - | 5 | 6 | 2000 | 1500 |
| $0 \cdot 0047$ | 0.005 | 10 | 8 | 2500 | - |
| 0.0068 | - | 15 | 16 | 5000 | - |
| $0 \cdot 01$ | - | 25 | 32 | 10,000 | 12,500 |
| Up | Up | 50 | 60 | 25,000 | 20,000 |
| to | to | 100 | - | 50.000 | -- |
| 10 | 5 | 150 | 200 | 100,000 | - |
|  |  | 250 | - | 500,000 | - |



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VOLUME CONTROLS 80 ohm Coax $8^{D}$ yd. Long apindile. Midget Sive SE, ohmp to 2 Meg. LOG or
 ERDGE CONNECTORS 16 wAY $\operatorname{B/-;} 24$ WAY $7 / 6$,
8.R.B.P. Board 0-15 MATRIX $2 \downarrow$ in. wide 8 d . per in. 3in. Fide 9d. per lin.; 5 in. wide $1 /-$ per lin. (up to 17 in .)
S.R.B.P. undrllled $1 / 1 \mathrm{gin}$. Board, $10 \times 8 \mathrm{in}$. 3/

BLANK ALUMINIUM OHABSIS. 18 B,W.g. 2 ing. sides
 ALUMINIUKPAWELS 18 ETE $12 \times 12$ in $8 / 8 ; 14 \times 8$ in $5 / 8$ $12 \times 8 \mathrm{in} .4 / 6 ; 10 \times 7 \mathrm{in} .8 / 8 ; 8 \times 6$ in. $2 / 6 ; 6 \times 4 \mathrm{ln} .1 / 6$.

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$2 / 350 \mathrm{~V}$
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$8 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$
$8 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$
$18 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$
$18 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$
$32 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$
$35 / 25 \mathrm{~V}$

| $25 / 25 \mathrm{~V}$ | $\cdots 3 / 9$ | $8+8 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $50 / 18 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ |  |  |


| $50 / 50 \mathrm{~V}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| SUB.MIN | $2 /$ | $16+16 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | $4 / 3$ | $60+100 / 350 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| 2 | $11 / 6$ |  |  |  | SUB.MIN. ELECTROLYTICS. $1,2,4,5,8,16,25,30,50,100$,

$250 \mathrm{mF} 1 \mathrm{sV} 2 /-; 500,1000 \mathrm{mF} 12 \mathrm{~V} 3 / 8 ; 2000 \mathrm{mF} 25 \mathrm{~V} / \mathrm{m}$ CERAMIC. 500 V 1 pF to 0.01 mF, . d . Dises $1 /-$. PAPER $350 \mathrm{~V}-0.19 \mathrm{~d} ; 0.52 / 6 ; 1 \mathrm{mF} 3 / ; 2 \mathrm{mF} 150 \mathrm{~V} 3 /-\mathrm{m}$
$500 \mathrm{~V}-0.001$ to $0.059 \mathrm{~d} ; 0.11 /-; 0.251 / 8 ; 0.53 /-\mathrm{l}$ $500 \mathrm{~V}-0.001$ to $0.059 \mathrm{~d} ; 0.11 /-; 0-251 / 8 ; 0.53 /$
$1.000 V-0.001,0.0022,0.0047,0.01,0.02,1 / 8 ; 0.047,0.1,2 / 6$.
SILVER MICA. Cloge tolerance $1 \% \cdot 5-500 \mathrm{pF} 1 /-580-2.2200 \mathrm{FF}$ SILV ER MiCA. Close tolerance $1 \% .5-500 \mathrm{pF} 1 /-; 560-2,2200 \mathrm{pF}$ TWIN GANG. "0-0" $208 \mathrm{pF}+176 \mathrm{pF}, 10 / 6 ; 365 \mathrm{pF}$,
TUIN GANG. "0-0" $208 \mathrm{pF}+176 \mathrm{pF}, 10 / 8 ; 365 \mathrm{pF}$, minis-
ture $10 /-; 500 \mathrm{pF}$ standard with trimmers, $0 / 6 ; 500 \mathrm{pF}$ ture
midget less trimmers, $7 / 6 ; 500 \mathrm{pF}$ slow motion, standard $9 /=$; small 3-kang 500 pF 18/9. Single "0" $365 \mathrm{pF} 7 / 8$. Twin $10 /-$ SHORT WAVE. Single $10 \mathrm{pF}, 25 \mathrm{pF}, 50 \mathrm{pF}, 75 \mathrm{pF}, 100 \mathrm{pF}$, $160 \mathrm{pF}, 5 / 8$ each. Can be ganged. Couplerz 9 d . esoh.
TONING. Solid dieleotric. $100 \mathrm{pF}, 300 \mathrm{pF}, 500 \mathrm{pF}, 4 / 6$ en TRIMMERS. Compression 0eramio 30, $50,70 \mathrm{pF}$. $100 \mathrm{pF}, 150 \mathrm{pF}, 1 / 3 ; 250 \mathrm{pF}, 1 / 6 ; 600 \mathrm{pF}, 750 \mathrm{pF}, 1 / \mathrm{E} ; 1000 \mathrm{pF} .2 / 6$. 250V RECTIFIERS. Selenium $\ddagger$ wave $100 \mathrm{~mA} 5 /$-; BY100 10/CONTACT COOLED \& WAVE 60mA 7/6; 85mA 9/6. Full Wave Bridge $75 \mathrm{~mA} 10 /-150 \mathrm{~mA}$, $10 / 6 ;$ TV reots. $10 /-1$ -
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| WIRE-WOUND $3-$ WATT | WIRE-WOUND 3-WATT

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HEATER TRANS. $8.3 v .1 \frac{1}{2}, 8 / 6 ; 6.3 v .4 a, \ldots$
Ditto tapped seo. $1,47,2,8,4,6,6.3 v .1$ amp.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { GENERAL PURPOSELOW VOLTAGE, Outpati } \\
& 4,5,8,8,9,10,12,15,18, ~ 24, \text { gad } 30 y, ~ 8 t ~ 28 .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 4,5,6,8,9,10,12,15,18,24 \text {, and } 30 \mathrm{v} \text {. } 8 \mathrm{t} 2 \mathrm{~s} \\
& 1 \mathrm{mmp}, 6,8,10,12,16,18,20,24,80,36,40 \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 8 \text { amp., } 0-12 v, ~ a n d ~ 0-18 v ., ~ \\
& \text { ATTO TRANSFORMFRS }
\end{aligned}
$$

AOTO TRANSFORMERS O-115-830v. Inpmi/Ousput. A0w. 18/6;150w. 80/-; $500 \mathrm{w} .88 / 6 ; 1000 \mathrm{w} .175 / \mathrm{z}$.
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2 p. \&-way, or \& p. 6-way, or 3 p. 4-way 4/6 8ioh. 1 p. 12 -way, or 4 p. 2-way, or 4 p. 3-way, $4 / 8$ eaoh.
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 ECH42 10 ARTP1 $8 /-$ \begin{tabular}{ll|l}
ARTP1 \& $6 /-$ \& E <br>
ATP4 \& $2 / 3$ \& E

 

ATP4 \& $2 / 3$ <br>
AZ31 \& $9 /-$ <br>
BD78 \& $40 /-$ <br>
\&
\end{tabular} $\begin{array}{ll}\text { BD78 } & 40 /- \\ \text { BL63 } & 10 j- \\ \text { B2134 } & 18 /-\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { B1663 } & 10 /- \\ \text { B2134 } & 16 /- \\ \text { BT35 } & 55 /- \\ \text { BT45 } & 150 /- \\ \text { BT83 } & 35 /- \\ \text { CV10 } & 3 /\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { CV102 } & 3 /- \\ \text { CV103 } & 4 /-\end{array}$ CV315 (nat ched pair)

$120 /-$ CV31
gle)
CY31


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 | $6 /-$ |
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| $14 /-$ |
| $3 /-$ | 3E29

3Q4
3Q5GT
384
3V4
4D1
$5 A 173 G$

501$50 /-$
$8 /-$
$6 /-$
$5 / 9$
$6 / 6$
$4 /-$
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$4 \mathrm{M} 15 /-$
$5 \mathrm{M} 40 j-$
$\mathrm{M} 35 /-$
9/-
VGA
$27 / 6$
$7 /-$

$4 / 8 \mid 6 \mathrm{AK} 8$
 $\begin{array}{ll}\text { AAK8 } & 5 / 8 \\ \text { AL5 } & 3 / \\ \text { AAL5W } & 7 /- \\ \text { 6AM5 } & 6 \\ \text { 6AM6 } & \\ \text { 6AN5 } & - \\ \text { 6AX5 } & \\ \text { 6AX5W } \\ \text { 6AS6 } \\ \text { 6AS7G } \\ \text { 6AT6 } \\ \text { 6AU6 } \\ \text { 6AX4 } \\ \text { 6B4G } \\ \text { 6B7 } \\ \text { 6B8G } \\ \text { 6BAB }\end{array}$ 6F12
${ }^{-78}$

Table 3: Comparison of Capacitor Types

| Type | Value | Tolerance | Voltage | Temperature | Insulation Resistance | Cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PAPER TubularE.H.T. | $\begin{gathered} 1000_{\mathrm{pF}}-10_{\mu} \mathrm{F} \\ 100 \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{p}}-100 \mu \mathrm{~F} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \pm 10 \% \text { to } \pm 25 \% \\ \pm 20 \% \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 200 \mathrm{~V}-800 \mathrm{~V} \\ 200 \mathrm{~V}-2500 \mathrm{~V} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -55^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+100^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \\ & -55^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+100^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2000 \mathrm{M} \Omega / \mu \mathrm{F} \\ \text { or }>2,000 \mathrm{M} \Omega \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 8 \mathrm{~d}-4 /- \text { up to } 30 /- \\ 11 /-\mathrm{f} 710 \mathrm{~s} . \end{gathered}$ |
| PLASTIC | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \mathrm{pF}-1 \mu \mathrm{~F} \\ & 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}-10 \mu \mathrm{~F} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \pm 0 \cdot 1 \% \text { to } \pm 20 \% \\ \pm 20 \% \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 30 \mathrm{~V}-500 \mathrm{~V} \\ 30 \mathrm{~V}-63 \mathrm{~V} \end{gathered}$ | $-40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+125^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | From $1,000 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ <br> to $1,000,000 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8 \mathrm{~d} .-5 / 3 \text { up to } 15 /- \\ & 2 /-7 / 3 \text { up to } 35 /- \end{aligned}$ |
| CERAMIC | $\begin{gathered} 0.5 \mathrm{pF}-220_{\mathrm{pF}} \\ 200_{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{~F}-10.000 \mathrm{pF} \\ 0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}-0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \pm 0.25 \mathrm{pF}, \pm 5 \% \\ & \pm 10 \% \\ & +40 \%-20 \% \\ & +50 \%-25 \% \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 500 \mathrm{~V}-12 \mathrm{kV} \\ 500 \mathrm{~V}-750 \mathrm{~V} \\ 6 \mathrm{~V}-30 \mathrm{~V} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -55^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \\ & -40^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \end{aligned}$ | $>7,000 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8 \mathrm{~d} .-2 /- \\ & 7 \mathrm{~d} .-2 / 6 \\ & 10 \mathrm{~d} .-4 / 6 \end{aligned}$ |
| SILVER MICA | 1pF-10,000pF | $\pm 1 \%$ | 350 V | $-40^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | $25,000 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | 7d. - 177- |
| ALUMINIUM <br> ELECTROLYTIC | $\begin{gathered} 0.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}-300 \mu \mathrm{~F} \\ 0.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}-10,000 \mu \mathrm{~F} \\ 10.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}-500,000 \mu \mathrm{~F} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -20 \% \text { to }+100 \% \\ & \text { and } \\ & -20 \% \text { to }+50 \% \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 250 \mathrm{~V}-500 \mathrm{~V} \\ 3 \mathrm{~V}-150 \mathrm{~V} \\ 3 \mathrm{~V}-70 \mathrm{~V} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -25^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \\ & -25^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+70^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.15 \mathrm{CV}^{*} \\ & \text { or not less } \\ & \text { than } 100 \mu \mathrm{~A} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 1 / 6-17 \% \\ 1 / 3-42 / \\ 40 /-200 \% \end{gathered}$ |
| TANTALUM  <br> ELECTROL.YTIC Metal <br> Case <br> Resin <br> Coated <br>   | $\begin{aligned} & 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}-330 \mu \mathrm{~F} \\ & 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}-50 \mu \mathrm{~F} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \pm 20 \% \\ & +50 \% \\ & -20 \% \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \mathrm{~V}-75 \mathrm{~V} \\ & 3 \mathrm{~V}-40 \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -55^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to } 125^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \\ & -40^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \text { to }+85^{\circ} \mathrm{C} \end{aligned}$ | $0.02 \mathrm{~mA} / \mathrm{CV}^{*}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 / 6-42 /- \\ & 3 /-5 /- \end{aligned}$ |
| VARIABLE | 2pF-500pF | - | 100V upwards | $-50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | 1,000M $\Omega$ upwards | 1/-upwards |

- Permissible leakage current where $\mathrm{C}=$ capacitance in $\mu \mathrm{F}$ and $\mathrm{V}=$ working voltage.
and at high frequencies it acts as a short-circuit.
The ideal capacitor should therefore have a perfect insulator as the dielectric, and the plates and leads should be perfect conductors with no resistance or inductance. In practice parasitic elements are present as shown in the equivalent circuit of Fig. 3. They consist of a series inductance (Ls) formed by the lead inductance and the wound construction, and a parallel leakage resistance ( RL ) which is due to the resistance of the dielectric and any discontinuities and impurities in it. The inductance limits the upper frequency at which the capacitor may be used and the leakage resistance limits the impedance of the circuits in which it may be used.


## Design Limitations

Other design limitations are maximum voltage rating, tolerance, operating temperature range, reliability, noise generation, temperature coefficient, maximum ripple current capability, humidity rating, size and cost.

Table 3 gives the more important parameters for the various types of capacitor available. This should be used as a rough guide only, since the range of types of capacitor in each section can be very wide.

The capacitance value of a capacitor is determined by the area of the plates and the thickness of the dielectric. Capacitance is increased by increasing plate area or decreasing the dielectric thickness. Each form of construction and dielectric has particular properties and these will now be considered in greater detail.

## Paper

Foil and paper capacitors were one of the earliest forms of capacitor. They are formed by winding two strips of foil with a layer of thin paper between as an insulator, as shown in Fig. 4. The foils are made to extend at either end so that foil 1 overlaps the paper dielectric and forms one end connection while foil 2 overlaps at the other end to form the other connection.

This construction used to be insulated by wax and paper, but now either resin or plastic moulding is utilised. Oil-filled and metal encased capacitors are used for e.h.t. working. Metallised paper capacitors are also available, and these generally give smaller dimensions.


Fig. 4: Construction of a wound foil and paper capacitor, a widely used general purpose type.

Paper and foil capacitors are used as general purpose capacitors and have high working voltages, low leakage, and low cost. Oil-filled capacitors are used for e.h.t. voltage applications. They tend, however, to be bulkier for the same capacitance and voltage rating than modern plastic capacitors.

## Plastic Film

Plastic film and metallised capacitors are the natural development of paper capacitors, and they have the same basic construction. Many types of plastic film are used as the dielectric, and each type has properties such as stability or smaller size which constitutes an improvement on the foil and paper styles. Metallising of both paper and plastic film has also considerably reduced the size.

Most plastic capacitors employ metallised film which
is a process whereby the film is coated with a thin film of metal by vacuum deposition. Two such rolls of film are wound together to form the capacitor as shown in Fig. 5. The end-overlapping technique is used to provide end connections and a metal is sprayed on to these overlapping ends to provide a solid base for joining the wire connections by soldering or other methods. Encapsulation is usually with plastic, though some of the flat types use lacquer.


Fig. 5: Metallised film capacitor construction.
Metallised paper capacitors are used for general purpose applications and are smaller than foil and paper types. Polyester capacitors are also used as general purpose capacitors and are low cost, small size, medium voltage ( 400 V ) capacitors. They have a wide operating temperature range, close tolerance, and excellent stability. Polystyrene dielectric capacitors, although generally larger than polyester types, are excellent replacements for silver mica capacitors. They are extremely stable, have a negative temperature coefficient, high reliability, extremely high insulation resistance (greater than $10^{8} \mathrm{M} \Omega$ ), close tolerance ( $\pm \frac{1}{2} \%$ ) and have excellent high frequency characteristics $(1,000 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s})$. Polycarbonate capacitors have similar performance to the polyester capacitors but are appreciably smaller in size, though their cost is higher. They are useful for miniature circuits and are used in space satellites and rocket equipment. Tefion capacitors are high quality capacitors with high insulation resistance and wide temperature range with a low temperature coefficient. They can be supplied to $\pm 0.1 \%$ tolerance and matched for temperature coefficients of 5 p.p.m. $/{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

Plastic capacitors therefore are of many sorts and are suitable for most applications provided the correct dielectric material is chosen. Polyester capacitors are now utilised as the general purpose low leakage capacitor for medium and low voltage applications over the capacitance range $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$.

## Ceramic

Ceramic capacitors are found in both tubular and disc form. Figure 6 illustrates the construction of a low value tubular capacitor. The capacitance is formed by silvering a ceramic cylinder or disc, the ceramic forming the dielectric. Wire connections are made to each separate coating and the whole construction is insulated with synthetic resin. They are therefore rugged in construction.

The main advantages of this type are extremely smail size, low cost, and high frequency of operation. They have a high insulation resistance and can be used up to e.h.t. voltages. The main disadvantage is a very poor temperature coefficient ( 800 p.p.m. $/{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) which renders them unsuitable for critical applications. They should


Fig. 6: Tubular ceramic capacitor construction.
not be used for tuning or timing circuits. However they are extremely useful as coupling, decoupling and bypass capacitors, and also as feed-through capacitors up to $5,000 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Low voltage microminiature plaquette types the size of a match-head are now available.

## Silvered Mica

Silvered mica capacitors are manufactured as shown in Fig. 7 by utilising plates of mica with fired-on silver electrodes. The sheets of coated mica are bonded together and the wire connections soldered at each end of the plates. The whole structure is then dipped in resin to give a robust finish.


Fig. 7: Construction of a silvered mica capacitor.


Fig. 8: Construction of an aluminium electrolytic capacitor.

These capacitors are produced in the range $1-10,000$ pF , usually with $\pm 1 \%$ tolerance They exhibit great stability, reliability and have a high insulation resistance. Hence they are very suitable for critical applications such as timing and oscillatory circuits.

## Electrolytic

Two basic forms of electrolytic capacitor are in common use: the aluminium electrolytic and the tantalum electrolytic.

The aluminium electrolytic is the general purpose electrolytic capacitor and is produced over the range $0.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $500,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. They are constructed as shown in Fig. 8 by rolling two strips of aluminium foil with paper dipped in electrolyte as the dielectric. The construction is sealed in a metal case to which one electrode (usually negative) is connected. The case is insulated if required by a plastic sheath. As the electrolyte is a corrosive paste sealing is important to prevent leakage.

These capacitors operate by electrolytic action and are analogous to batteries. They have definite polarities to d.c. voltages and oppose a.c. voltage changes by

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$3 / 16^{\prime \prime}$. For $240,220,110$ or 24 volts. $35 /$ -


ES 25 watts. Fitted with $1 / 8^{*}$ bit.
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chemical reaction in a similar fashion to a battery. Generally they are of large physical size, and have a definite lifetime which is determined by the drying up of the electrolyte. By this action very high values of capacitance are achieved. The voltage ratings must be strictly observed, as must the polarities. Since their insulation resistance is low large leakage currents can flow. The explosion of an under-rated electrolytic capacitor is dangerous and very messy. It is worth mentioning that reliability of these capacitors is increased by operating them near to their rated voltage.

Generally these are only used in non-critical applications such as smoothing and decoupling. Tolerances are very large, usually $+50 \%-20 \%$.

Tantalum capacitors, although they employ electrolytic action, use a solid electrolyte. They are considerably smaller than aluminium electrolytics, though more expensive, and are extremely useful for low voltage miniature circuits. Until recently they were only available in a metal-cased form but are now available in a resin encapsulation which has resulted in a considerable price reduction.

## Variable Types

Both air spacing and mica dielectric types are available. The capacitance variation is obtained by varying the proximity of the movable vanes to the fixed vanes as shown in Fig. 9. The larger types, which have capacit-


Fig. 9: Typical larger type of air-spaced variable capacitor for oscillator and tuned circuit tuning.
ance variations of $5-500 \mathrm{pF}$, are used for oscillator and tuned circuit tuning purposes and are available in dual and triple ganged configurations. The smaller flat, beehive, or cylindrical types are used as trimming capacitors and after initial tuning are locked in position. These generally have a capacitance range of $2-60 \mathrm{pF}$.

## Summary

Metallised paper and polyester capacitors are suitable as general purpose capacitors, with polycarbonate as a miniaturised alternative. Ceramic capacitors are useful for coupling and decoupling at medium and high frequencies, and electrolytic capacitors for these functions at low frequencies. Silvered mica and polystyrene capacitors are ideal for critical applications.

## The Future

Trends will be towards the development of cheap, close tolerance, high stability capacitors, probably through the use of modern plastic films. The present types of capacitors will continue to shrink in size and improve in quality. Miniaturisation in the electrolytic sphere will be a continuing trend.

## THE SOLID STATE

Consider the device of Fig. 12 biased as shown. The positive bias on the base relative to the emitter means that current is flowing between the emitter and base. Since the emitter has a considerable surplus of conduction electrons (being heavily doped) and the base has only a slight surplus of holes (being lightly doped) most of this current is carried by electrons.

The other junction, between the base and collector, is reverse biased. Electrons on the n side and holes on the p side are pulled back from the junction and no current would be expected to flow. The base region, however, is very thin, and the electrons which are moving rapidly from the emitter to the base come under the influence of the much higher positive bias at the collector than at the base. Thus most of the electrons from the emitter keep moving straight on, cross the base-collector junction and end up in the top n region to be collected at the positive bias connection of the collector. If the base region is thin enough, a very large proportion of the electrons moving from emitter to base will end up at the collector. For example, we might have an emitter current of $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~A}(=1 \mathrm{~mA})$ with $10 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ flowing through the base contact and the remaining $990 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ appearing at the collector. This gives us a ratio of collector current to base current of $990 / 10=99$ and this is the quoted figure of current amplification given the symbol $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{f}_{6}}$. This figure is not absolutely constant: it usually reaches a maximum at some value of collector current (Fig. 13)-


Fig: 13: Typical graph of current gain against emitter (or collector) current for small transistors (common emitter circuit).
usually 1 mA in small transistors-so that perfectly linear amplification is not possible though good linearity is possible if the graph of $h_{\text {le }}$ against collector current is flat-topped and the operating conditions are within this region.

The maximum values of $h_{\text {fe }}$ which can be obtained depend on how thin the base region can be made, and in this respect very great improvements in performance have been achieved by modern techniques. Probably the most important advance has been the discovery that a crystal of semiconductor exposed to the vapour of the same material will grow in the same crystalline form, but at a slow controllable rate, so that very thin layers can be grown which are still part of the original crystal. This technique is called epitaxy, and the word epitaxial occurs in nearly every description of recent transistor construction.

TO BE CONTINUED

三 STEREO HANDBOOK

## By G．W．Schanz．Published by Ilifie Books Lid．

 135 pages．Size $8 \frac{1}{2} \times 5 \frac{3}{2} \mathrm{in}$ ．Price 168.THERE have been so many books on stereo that one more may seem something of a luxury． By producing it as a stiff paper－back and keep－ ing the cost reasonable，Iliffe have made this Philips original a luxury we can all afford．The considerations we must apply are thus：does it say all it should，and，does it add anything new？

On both counts we can recommend this book．With－ out getting too technical，yet without talking down to the interested reader with babytalk explanations of fundamentals that too often introduce such volumes， the principles of stereophony from the 1,550 experi－ ments of Adraan Willaert with two choirs to the present－day multiplex broadcasts，are intelligently discussed．In particular，the treatment of stereo broadcasting，various methods of decoding and test－ ing decoders will be of interest to PW readers．

The early part of the book quotes some interesting data on room acoustics（we particularly liked the illustration describing reverberation and the frequency dependency of absorption of various materials）．Tape and disc recording processes are outlined and practical stereo connections to DIN standard are shown in detail．It is in such matters that the average man，perhaps convinced by a demonstration that stereo is an undoubted advan－ tage，finds the stumbling block．Numerous practical facts on microphones，tape recording and pickups will be found scattered through these early pages．As may be expected，examples of constituent parts of the stereo chain are drawn from Philips products；but this is no deterrent．The overall impression is of a book written with a true desire to impart know－ ledge，and an undoubted ability to do so．－$B R G$ ．

## 三 POINTS ON PICK－UPS

By P．Wilson．Published by A．C．Farnell． 140 pages．

VERY often，the best work on a particular subject is a manufacturer＇s brochure，or，in some exceptional case，the service manual． Here we have a reference work by a distributor who must originally have commissioned the paperback －some ten years ago－to foster the sales of the goods he handled．Now，though we could not go so far as to say the sales of the book have outstripped the sales of the goods，they must certainly form a pleasing entry in the ledger．

There have been five previous editions of Points on Pick－ups，and this，the sixth，has been brought fairly well up to date．It is impossible to keep abreast with innovations in this field，so ripe for development as new materials and newer tech－ niques come along，but the majority of the well－ known and popular pickups，cartridges and stylii are illustrated．

The method is to list the cartridges alphabetically as to maker，with a photograph and basic details．

On a facing page the stylus appropriate to that cart－ ridge is drawn，with details such as colour code and tip size．Head shells for some cartridges are included， and one section is devoted to pickup arms where these are complete with a particular cartridge． Accessories also receive attention，again with photo－ graphic illustration wherever possible．
The introduction to this edition debates the case against compromise while describing the main requirements for compatible（mono－stereo）cartridges， and a two－page note on stylii includes a number of tips on their use（if you will pardon a pun almost as provocative as the title of the book！）

This is such a regular part of the bookshelf of a radio and hi－fi dealer that one tends to forget its additional usefulness to the ordinary chap，who merely wants to identify his stylus before he can order a replacement，or who may，perhaps，be wondering what changes of cartridge he can make． There are omissions：a section on cartridge con－ nections，and a few notes on matching may save un－ witting expense for the unwary．But at the price，who can carp？Well worth anyone＇s half－guinea．－HWH．
\＃FUNDAMENTALS OF DIGITAL MAGNETIC TAPE UNITS
By Univac．Published by Foulsham－Sams Technical Books Lid．三 96 pages．Size $8 \frac{1}{2} \times 5 \frac{1}{2} i n$ ．Price 218 ．

WHO is this bloke Univac，you may ask？This book，whose title is almost as long as the authorship credit，has that classic formulae of having been written by a committee．Well，almost．It was prepared by the Field Engineering Depart－ ment，Univac Data Processing Division，of the Sperry Rand Corporation，and，as ever，has the introductory chapter for we poor foreigners who cannot understand American，contributed by our old friend，W．Oliver．

Let it be stated at the＇outset，that digital magnetic tape units are a different proposition from our humble domestic tape recorders，although the fundamental principles remain．Which is not to say that the book is of no interest to the tape recording enthusiast．It may serve as a fruitful source of ideas especially if circuits are studied with care and a trifle of inspiration．This reviewer can see some possibilities in an amplitude detector and a two－ polarity RZ＂write＂circuit for future experiment．

The early chapters deal with magnetic theory， tapes and heads，and the middle section goes into some well－illustrated detail of mechanisms．Again， this is unlikely to be of direct use to the amateur， and it is to be hoped that the professional will have a deeper knowledge than this book endeavours to test．

Nevertheless，the method of writing，with terminal questions to each chapter and an absence of ponderous overstatement，makes the book an interesting addition to the enthusiast＇s library－if he feels that his marginal interest will justify the layout of a guinea．$-A W B$ ．

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## THE BROADCAST BANDS

## by CHRISTOPHER DANPURE

IANY of you may be DX-ing over the Christmas and New Year periods and may be wondering what stations put out good seasonal programmes. Well $R$. Japan usually puts out some interesting programmes round about Christmas and New Year in Japan. On Christmas Day I usually disten to R. Sweden, R. Nederland, R. Australia, R. Japan, Voice of Germany, Cologne, Swiss Shortwave Service, R. South Africa, R. Portugal and R. Canada.

Here now are the circuit predictions for December.
West Africa: $1000-140025,21,17$ and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 1400$160025,21,17,15$ and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1600-180021,17,15,11$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-200021,17,15,11,9,7,6$ and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2000-2200 17, 15, 11, 9, 7, 6, 5 and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2200-2400 15. 11, 9, 7, 6, 5 and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2400-0200 15, 11, 9, 7, 6, 5 and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0200-0600 \mathrm{H}, 9,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $0600-080015,11,9,7$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0800-100025,21,17$, 15 and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

South Africa: 0800-1400 25, 21 and $17 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1400-$ $160025,21,17$ and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1600-180021,17,15,11$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-200021,17,15,11,9,7$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2000-2200 17, 15, 11, 9, 7, 6 and 5Mc/s; 2200-2400 15, 11, 9, 7, 6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2400-0200$ 11, 9, 7, 6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $0200-040011,9,7$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0400-060011$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 0600-0800 17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

East Africa: 0800-1200 25, 21, 17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1200-140025,21,17,15$ and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1400-160025,21$, 17, 15, 11, 9 and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, 1600-1800 21, 17, 15, 11, 9, 7, 6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 1800-2000 17, 15, 11, 9, 7,6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2000-2200 15, 11, 9, 7, 6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 2200-0200 11, 9, 7,6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0200-040011,9,7$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0400-0600$ 11 and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0600-080017,15$ and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

South Asia: $0800-100025,21,17,15$ and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1000-120025,21,17,15,11$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1200-1400$ $25,21,17,15,11,9$ and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1400-1600 \mathrm{17}, 15,11,9$, $7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1600-180011,9,7,6,5,4$ and 3 $\mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-02009,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0200-04009,7$, 6 and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0400-06009$ and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0600-080021$, 17, 15 and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

South East Asia: 0800-1000 25, 21, 17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1000-120025,21,17,15$ and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1200-140025,21$. 17, 15, 11 and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}: 1400-160021,17,15,11,9,7,6,5$, 4 and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1600-180011,9,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 1800-2000 9, 7, 6, 5 and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2000-22009,7,6$ and $5 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2200-24009$ and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2400-02009 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; $0200-0600$ circuit closed; $0600-080021,17$ and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.
North East Asia: 0800-1000 17, 15 and $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1000-120011$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1200-18009 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; $1800-$ 2400 try 9 and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2400-06009 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; $0600-0800$ 11 and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

Australia via Asia: 0800-1000 21 and $17 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ : 1000120021,17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1200-1400$ 21. 17. 15. 11 and
$9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1400-160021,17,15,11,9,7,6,5$ and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 1600-1800 II, 9, 7, 6, 5 and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; 1800-2000 9 and 7 $\mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2000-22009 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only: 2200-0600 circuit closed; $0600-080017 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only.
West Coast South America (North of Chile): 1200-1800 25 and $21 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-200021$ and $17 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2000-2200$ 17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2200-0600$, up until $240015,11,9,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, after 2400 drop $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0600-080011,9$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0800-100015,11$ and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1000-120021,17$ and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Now here are this month's DX-tips:

## AUSTRALASIA

Australia: During the winter season listen out for the new $R$. Australia transmitter station at Darwin. At the time of going to press no schedule details are available.

## ASIA

Japan: R. Japan, Tokyo up until March 2 will transmit the morning service to Europe on 17,825 and 15,135 from 0700-0830. The evening service to Europe from 1930-2100 will be heard on 11,965 and 9,700.

## EUROPE

Fed. Rep. Germany: $R$. Deutsche Welle is now on the following schedule for its English transmissions which are beamed to Africa, S. Asia, Far East and Pacific and North America, from transmitters at Juilich. 0600-0630 $17,845, \quad 15,275, \quad 11,785 ; \quad 0845-0940 \quad 21,650, \quad 17,845$, $15,275,11,785$; $1045-105511,965,11,905,9,605$; 1045$110021,560,17,875,15,275 ; 1550-162017,875,15,275$; 1900-1910 15,405, $11,795,9,605 ; 2110-2200 \quad 15,275$, $9,765,7,290 ; 2145-220511,925,9,735 ; 0130-02509,735$, $9,640,6,025 ; 0300-034011,945,9,6409,545$ and from 0445-0545 9,650, 9,545 and 6,145.

Sweden: R. Sweden, Stockholm, is now operating the following schedule up until March 2. 0830-0900 11,880, 9,$625 ; 0900-09309,625 ; 0930-103021,690,9,625$; 103011009,$625 ; 1100-121011,705,9,625$; $1230-133021,690$, 9,$760 ; 1400-1530 \quad 21,675,15,240 ; 1600-1700 \quad 17,770$, 15,$310 ; 1730-1800 \quad 15,240,6,065 ; 1800-1830 \quad 15,240 ;$ 1830-1930 15,240 11,865; 1945-2015 6,065; 2015-2115 $9,625,6,065 ; 2130-223011,705,6,065 ; 2245-234511,810$, 11,705; 2400-0230 11,705, 5,990; 0300-0430 11,705; 0445-0615 21,675 and 0630-0715 6,065.

Switzerland: Swiss Shortwave Service, Berne, now has English programmes until March 2 at the following times. 0700-0800 on 11,775 and 9,590 daily, week days only also on 9,535 and 6,$165 ; 0845-094515,135,11,775$; $1000-1100 \quad 21,520,17,855,15,305 ; 1130-1230 \quad 11,865$, 9,$665 ; 1315-1415 \quad 21,520,17,845,15,305 ; 1500-1600$ $17,830,15,305 ; 1815-191515,305,11,775 ; 1930-2030$ $9,665,6,015 ; 0130-023011,715,9,535,6,120 ; 0445-0545$ $9,720,6,120$. So until next month a merry Christmas and good DX-ing in 1969.

THERE'S no doubt about it, the flavour of the month is 10 metres. Every other letter told me to stop moaning and start listening, and they sent a huge pile of DX scalps from $28 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ just to prove the point. Even little lads with BC receivers plugged into the television aerial have been hearing things so we can't say it's beginner's luck.
Talking about kicking a man when he's down. No sooner do I finish with the 10 metre logs than all the L.F. sleuths give me a right verbal bashing with choice callsigns logged on 40 and 80 . Some very good openings have been in evidence all the way up the bands and it could be a FB Winter for aerial danglers everywhere.
Under the heading of News and Views comes a report that this week's callsign is OM, which could be a bit confusing. These tabs are worn by OK stations to commemorate the "formation" of Czechoslovakia.

Congratulations to two s.w.l's who have been reincarnated with an R.A.E. pass. Robert Dinning is one, and Francis McVerry has got the call GM3XUV and is loose on 40 metres with a rockbound homebrew running 10 watts. He has already worked most of Europe with the rig.
Listen on $3804 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ for W1FZJ/KP4 who listens for callers on $3800 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$, but if you're transmitting remember that the frequency tolerance for bandedge working on 80 metres is $0.26 \%$.

## FORTY AND DOWN

William Mantovani (Doncaster), heard 80 metres sigs from-ET3USA, VOIFX, VE $\varnothing$ MD and W1FZJ/ KP4. He says that he heard this last station last January but that the W is now four S-points up by comparison. Wish someone would say that about my signals. On 40, the log reads-PY7AUT, WB2WYZ1 $\mathrm{P} / 4 \mathrm{X} 4,8 \mathrm{P} 6 \mathrm{BH}, 9 \mathrm{~N} 4 \mathrm{KR}$, 9M2DQ. Gear in use, HAM-1 and an a.t.u. plus a 260 ft . long wire.
A. Houghton has reached the ripe old age of twelve (congratulations Sir) and has a Bush AC71 domestic receiver. He reports that 160 is very busy and managed to grab an EI callsign too. On 40, his best is VQ3VAA. The antenna is a 110 ft . double L . (Wonder what the double L that is?)
R. King (not at the key contacts I hope) is a 40 metre fan judging from the log. Located in Yorkshire with an HA500 and a 66 ft . end fed he claimsCM2DC, CT1LJ, EA3QW, EA4JV, F6AFP, GC5ALO, GD3JIU, HC4WM, HPINBR, ISIEP, IT1AVA, K1MBH, K2MRG/MM, KP4BRY/MM, LXISL, OZ7NQ, PAØDX/M, PYIDAH, PY2ENX, PY6ABB, PY7LC, VK3OZ, VP1CP, WA1GNE, W2EQM, W4MPE, W80O/M/4, ZSIJA, 4X4IX, 5N2ABG, 9M2DQ.
S. Krol (Lancs.), P.W. transistor superhet modified as per "April 1967", $\frac{1}{4}$ wave end fed advises-listen $3775 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ just after midnight for AP2MR, for ZL's (ZL2BCG) at 0600 every morning, W1FZJ/KP4 and WøVXO/KV4 around $3804 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ about 0430 onwards most mornings. Don't forget ON4UN's DX net on 80 on Friday and Monday nights.

## TWENTY AND FIFTEEN

Jim strikes again, Jim Baker that is. He relates the hair-raising tale of LG5LG. Apparently this call was located at Morokuilen (I couldn't even find it in my atlas). This is a field on the LA/SM border and amateurs of any nationality are permitted to operate on that piece of "free territory". "Cor, now I've 'eard it orl', says he, packing the transistor rig and looking up the boat trains.
D. Redmond (Holyhead), ground plane plus an RA-1 had some FB s.s.b. sigs on 20 from-CE3NI, CE6EF, CE6EW, CP6GO, TI2DVH, PJ2AW, PY $\varnothing$ ARM, PY3HT, PY7AKL, VK3NO, VP1RD, YV3DA, YV5LOR. On 15-PY2EFF, VK2FA, VK2FU, VK2JM, VK5DE, 9V1OW
P. Lovell (Kent), 4 -valve s'het with a home-brew b.f.o. 30 ft . vertical plans to take the R.A.E. in December. He heard IIBPW in QSO with guess who-JX3DH. (No comment.)

Robert Dinning (Ayrshire), HA350 plus PR30 plus RQ10 plus a pair of hi-fi headphones (I don't hear much but the quality of what I don't hear is marvellous!), went s.s.bing on 20 for-AP2KJ, CR7HY, HB $\varnothing A G, H P 4 B I O$, JX4EJ (never said a word), KA9NF, KC4USV, KG6IH, KR6SO, KX6DQ, LG5LG (funny Dud, funny), PYØARM, MP4BGU, OX5AP, TAIAV, VK3EU, VK5FU, VP8HZ, VQ8CS, VS5OJ, VS6DR, WA4WMA/AM (region 2), WB4IRT/AM, (region 1), YUøJ, ZL1APZ, ZS9Q, 3A2CP, 9J2MJ, 9K2AM, 9M2XX, 9VINV, 9X5AA. On 15 the best were CR6BA, CX2CN, DU1RZ, HK5AZA, HR1JMS, HS3MK, KG6AJQ, KR6RB, KV4FQ, MP4TCF, TG9RN, TU2AY, VK2AVT, VK9LR, VQ9OH, VR1L, VS6DR, VU2DKZ, XW8AX, YBøAB, YN1PS, ZD8CC, ZS3T, 3A2CX, 3V8AA, 9K2BV, 9N1MM.

## TEN

Who heard VU2GGB, UF6HO, 6Y5NY, 8R1S, CX8DM, CO2BY, 4A1WS, KG4DH, $9 J 2 R V$, HI8XJP, ZE8JY, 9 V 1 PB and VP8JT all on 10 metre phone? Confession of the above from A4862 (Essex). He also has an SB300 and a 4 element beam at 60 feet. Crikey, you could almost see them as well from up there!
P. Baker (Wales), HE 30, 150 ft . long wire lassoed these on phone-CN8MI, CR4BC, CR6GU, CR7LI, ET3REL, HR3AC, MP4BGU, PY1AGP, SV $\varnothing$ WO, VE1YO, VQ9DH, W6DRB, W6FMR, YVIDA, ZC4GM, 5Z4AA, 8P6CA, 9G1UQ, 9J2VX, 9K2BJ, 9Q5IA, 9Y4BF.

## RESOLUTIONS

How about checking the gear? The aerial and earth system needs an annual going over. Just think, a dodgy aerial or a bad connection could cost you a lot of 1969 DX. The station receiver too, when was it last lined up? The real experts check their receivers once a year at least.
If you have trouble finding the countries of origin of all those callsigns, then a ninepenny postal order to the R.S.G.B. will bring a countries list which will solve all your problems.
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The Fourth Edition of the famous RSGB Amateur Radio Handbook

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This is the LARGEST EDITION yet produced, running to 832 pages, containing dozens of designs for receivers, transmitters, test equipment, V.H.F. gear, aerials and filters. Early chapters cover the theory of radio and design of equipment. The book is well illustrated, and there is even a special fold-out sheet for two particularly large circuits of a receiver and a transceiver. It is a British publication, and therefore all the components specified can be obtained in this country.


Leyton \& Walthamstow AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY

IMAGINE being interested in radio, yet living in a district where there was no radio club. No ensemble of happy smiling understanding faces who were enthusiastic about the hobby.

Of course, if you live in London E.10, or thereabouts, then you don't have a thing to worry about 'cos you've got the Leyton and Walthamstow Amateur Radio Club practically on your doorstep, and they are always very pleased to welcome a new face too.

The present membership has crept above twenty -why not drop in on the club and make it above thirty? Meetings are held at 7.30 p.m. on Tuesdays and at least ten members hold current callsigns so there will be no lack of activity from the practical aspect. The club also boasts its own callsignG3WHY, which is aired at every opportunity. The club station is frequently on the air on 160 metres and 2 metres although plans are being hatched to extend activity to the h.f. DX bands in the very near future.

Help is always to hand for those needing any assistance whether practical or theoretical. Regular classes are held for those wanting to learn Morse and advice is on tap for anyone with problems regarding the R.A.E.

At least two members have braved the u.h.f. region and have taken the precaution of arming themselves with a / $T$ licence. Several demonstrations both $/ \mathrm{T}$ and / A have been given in local clubs and at various events.

The club has a keenness for contests and although no pots have been won this doesn't deter them from having a go and having a good time in the process. Not only does the club enter both h.f. and v.h.f. field days but also runs its own mini-field-days during the long Leyton summers. Although not professing to be on a par with the national events, these are a great success and perhaps more important, everyone who attends seems to have a great deal of fun.

The club has a variety of interests and thus the meetings vary in content. Junk sales, lectures, natter-nights, etc. all form part of the club menu.

The Hon. Sec. assures that the members are a ". . fairly normal bunch of blokes with all the usual vices". Almost worth while going along just to see isn't it?

Place for the weekly meetings is the Leyton Senior Evening Institute, Essex Road, London, E. 10 . If you'd like to check first. then why not give "Charlie" a buzz? You can find him at 114 Farmillo Road, Leyton, London, E.17, and the phone book says you can reach him on LEY 4673.


Above: Some of the gang caught hovering near a few of the entries for the annual construction contest which took plece last June.
Right: Will it work and what's that bit doing? Two critical pairs of eyes examine one of the entries in the constructors contest. Below: CO two-COtwo. here G3WHY. The club station in action on 144Mc/s from the Senior Evening Institute on a typical Tuesday evening.


WITH the season well established and a fall predicted for the sunspot count, DXers will be looking forward to a good winter on the medium waves. Conditions to North America were very good during the summer-KMOX (1120) St. Louis was logged several times during August. In the autumn however, this path became rather unstable, conditions varying rapidly from day to day. No reports yet of the west coast of the United States though the writer did log a weak station on 1000 on 22nd October at 0624 hours GMT which was heard, during a peak, to mention the Seattle Police Force (KOMO?). Recent loggings from North America include CBN (640), CBH (860), WCBS (880), CJCH (920), CJON (930), WINZ (940), CHNS (960), ZFB1 (960), WINS (1010), KDKA (1020), WBZ (1030), CBA (1070), WBAL (1090), WNEW (1130), and Radio St. Pierre (1375). The latter is in the French islands of St. Pierre et Miquelon located near Newfoundland. This is a "medium wave only" country as St. Pierre is the sole broadcasting station.

Further south, XEOY (1000) in Mexico City has been heard a number of times with the call "Es Radio Mil". A new one in the Caribbean is WBMJ (1190), San Juan, Puerto Rico, with programming in English. It was fair at 0130 GMT on 25th October. CMBQ (1060) in Havana, Cuba, is the only other station heard recently from this area. Radio Americas (1165) has now gone off the air for good.

Brazil has been coming in well at about 0200 hours GMT with PRA3 (860), PRE8 (880), PRF4 (940), PRG2 (1040), PRE3 (1180), all in Rio de Janeiro. From Argentina, LR3 (950) Radio Belgrano, LR1 (1070) Radio el Mundo and LS10 (1030) Radio Libertad, all in Buenos Aires, together with LU6 (1150) Radio Atlantica La Plata, have been logged. From the northern part of the Continent

PJB2 (800) Bonaire, Netherlands West Indies, with programming in English, is an easy station for the newcomer to the band. ZFY (760), the Voice of Guyana has been heard at midnight GMT with a weakish signal. From nearby Surinam, SRS (725) in Paramaribo, broadcasting rather attractive local music, occasionally has announcements in English, and can often be heard. A loop aerial is a great help here in reducing splash from the all-night German station on 728. The letters SRS incidentally, although used as a callsign, are actually the initials of the organisation running the station. An interesting logging from the west coast of South America is OAX4U (1010) Lima Peru. This station is now 50 kW and it has been heard frequently in England and the United States since midsummer, sometimes with a strong and steady signal. The call is Radio America, followed by a trumpet fanfare.

A number of African stations are audible in the late evening. Dakar (764) in Senegal is usually strong, with programming in French, also Conakry (1403) in Guinea, again in French. There are two regulars from the Canary Islands, R.N.E. (620) in Las Palmas and CES4 (1097) in Tenerife. The latter is invariably mixed with EFE14 Madrid but it is worth the effort to get material for a report to this station as it issues a rather pretty, coloured, embossed QSL card. CSB91 (1529) in Funchal, Madeira, closes down at midnight GMT with a rather weak signal. The language used is Portuguese.

From the Near East, Baghdad (760) is often strong at 0300 hours GMT when signing on. The two BBC relay stations in Cyprus on 638 and 719 are also audible, in English, at this time, the latter being much the weaker of the two. Finally, Kuwait (1345) has been heard at 0335 with a good signal.

## CHARLES MOLLOY

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## 39/6

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