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102 A . 100:1$500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$
1 mA $\operatorname{limA}_{5 \mathrm{~mA}}$
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| 35 | 750 mA |
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 tivily. Power raquit, Six sif $5^{5} \mathrm{x} \mathrm{m}^{4}$. instructions. 6.3 volls. 3 mmp cables, plugh and ined P.R.30x complete with $4 / 6$. Selt-powered P.R. $30 x$ E5.19.6. Carr $4 / 8$. £7.19.6. Carf. 4/3.


MINI-CLIPPER-OUR FAMO
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## TOPIC OF THE MONTH

## Farewell PMG!

THE GPO has long been overdue for a complete shake-up. Apart from what Mr. Stonehouse, Postmaster-General, has recently described as the imminent "communications explosion", it has for many a year seemed ludicrous that a single organisation should be responsible for handling a complex of important activities ranging from supplying postage stamps to running telecommunications systems.

In an effort to rationalise matters, a 224 -page Post Office Bill has been published. It contains 138 clauses and 11 schedulesand it repeals or amends about 500 Acts of Parliament! When this Bill becomes law (which will probably be October of this year), the office of master of the Post Office-i.e., Postmaster-General-will cease to exist. The status of the Post Office will be changed from that of a Government Department to that of a nationalised corporation. A Minister of Posts and Telecommunications will be created to take over certain functions of the PMG (such as telecommunications and broadcasting).

Although this move will go some way to meeting some obviously overdue reorganisation, there are several disquieting factors. We would have liked to have seen the creation of a separate authority-on the lines of the Federal Communications Commission in the USA-to handle matters relating to frequency allocation, for the situation will still exist whereby the Post Office is at the same time the allocator and user of frequencies.

Moreover, it will still be empowered to manufacture, install, maintain and repair anything required "for the purpose of its business or of the business of a subsidiary of its".

However, perhaps the most disturbing Clause is that which gives the Minister power to control the use of "electric, magnetic, electro-magnetic, electro-chemical and electro-mechanical energy" for the distribution of sound and vision programmes for the purpose of information, education or entertainment. Also, the existing upper frequency limit of 3-million $\mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ will be abolished, thus bringing into the net optical systems of communication.

When this Bill becomes law, the Post Office will, in effect, have exclusive privileges to telecommunications of every conceivable type. While it is appreciated that the Bill is drafted to bring legislation up to date and to close undesirable loopholes, we are all going to have to think hard about whether or not we are breaking the law. Under the terms of the Bill you may be in danger by making a tape recording (electro-magnetic)!

Even though such powers are not obviously intended to be used in such a sweeping and all-encompassing manner, the threat will still be there and we will have to rely upon the benevolence of the incumbent Minister. We can only hope that during its passage through the House, the more dictatorial aspects of the Bill will be substantially modified.
W. N. STEVENS—Editor

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\text { ON FEBRUARY } 7 \text { th }
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NEW MOTOROLA POWER TRANSISTORS


A voltage rating of $325 \mathrm{~V}-$ the highest of any EIAregistered germanium power transistor--is combined with low cost in a germanium power transistor offered by Motorola Semiconductors Ltd.

It is one of two new epitaxial-base germanium power transistors which combine the advantages of low cost and low saturation voltage typical of germanium transistors with the high voltage capability and fast switching speeds of silicon transistors. These features make the transistors, the 2N5324 and 2N5325, ideal for power switching, inverters, TV deflection, switching regulators, amplifiers, and industrial power supply applications. The high voltage rating makes them excellent for direct line operation without an expensive step-down transtormer.

The transistors have very low collector cut-off currents; only 7 mA maximum at rated $\mathrm{V}_{\text {CEX }}$ (325V for the 2N5325 and 250 V for the 2 N5324), along with maximum $V_{C E}$ (sat) of 0.5 V and $V_{B E}$ (sal) of 0.75 V at 10 A collector current. Minimum gain is 20 at 5A, and power dissipation is 56 watts at a case temperature of $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The safe operating area is guaranteed at both 3 and 10 amperes for critical power designs.

For information on the 2N5324 and 2N5325, write to Motorola Semiconductors Ltd., York House, Empire Way, Wembley, Middlesex.

## MONACO MEMBERS

The International Amateur Radio Union (IARU) now has a new member--the Association des Radio Amateurs de la Principaute de Monaco.

## RSGB's NEW HOME

The Radio Society of Great Britain has settled into new premises at 35 Doughty Street, London WC1. Several years of searching culminated in the acquisition of a five-floor building near Grays Inn Road. which has helped to relieve severe overcrowding experienced for some time at Little Russell Street. The staff moved in on 4 th November, and special open days were held on 14th-15th December so that members could inspect their investment.

ROYAL NAVAL AMATEUR RADIO SOCIETY
At the AGM of the above Society, held recently, the motion was passed that "Associate membership of the RNARS be extended to include members of the Merchant Navy and foreign navies". The first foreign members include GM5AHS and ON50J.

CBS RADIO NETWORK ANNOUNCES AFFILIATION
Paul R. Bartlett, President, Radio New York Worldwide, Inc., and Clark B. George, President, CBS Radio Division, recently announced an affiliation agreement, which will initially send some $85 \%$ of the broadcasts of the CBS Radio Network overseas via shortwave. CBS Radio Network lines to WNYW Radio New York, will start these broadcasts on their way to five high powered transmitters outside of Boston, Massachusetts.

From May, 1942 to 1st October 1948 CBS Radio operated a shortwave service to Latin America that grew to 126 stations at its height. This and parallel facilities were taken over by the United States Government during World War II. After the end of the war, most shortwave broadcasting was consolidated into the Government's non-commercial Voice of America. WNYW Radio, then known as WRUL, however, continued as the sole commercial operation.

An interesting sidelight of the arrangement is the fact that Radio New York Worldwide has its New York studios and offices at 485 Madison Avenue, for many years the home of the Columbia Broadcasting System. The agreement announced today not only returns CBS Radio to shortwave broadcasting after 20 years-it re-establishes the network's ties to an address with which CBS had been synonymous until the move to its new headquarters building at 51 West 52nd Street, New York City.

## PRECISION TURNS—COUNTING DIALS



The Type 11 precision multidials are eleven turn devices with a total count of 1099. The first significant numeral appears in a special viewing window. These are accurately engineered units possessing several advanced features. They are designed for mounting in those locations where the highest precision adjustment is demanded.

Features include: Positive Readout where rapid transfer is made between 97 and 0 eliminates possibility or mis-reading. High maximum rotational speed up to $1,500 \mathrm{r} . \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$. and positive braking with no creep under lock.

These units are very attractively finished in satin chrome, with black plastic knobs and easy to read numerals.

They are designed to fit $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$. diameter shafts, as standard, but will also fit $\frac{1}{8}$ in. and $\frac{3}{16} \mathrm{in}$. shafts using an adaptor. Further details from Guest Electronics Ltd., Nicholas House, Brigstock Road, Thornton Heath, Surrey.

MINI RADAR


This instrument is a miniature battery-operated radar, which can measure velocities of up to $100 \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{h}$. where a-body is travelling in a straight, angled, or curved path, and which in addition can measure high rotational speeds of the order of one million r.p.m. The device, known as the "Allscott Mini-Radar Type MRJ5", provides a means of measurement, the accuracy of which is timited only by the accuracy of the chosen method of indication, without coming into contact with the object being surveyed. It is fully portable with provision for connection to external instruments, such as digital counters, oscilloscopes or computers, in order to provide additional dynamic data.

The heart of the Mini-Radar is a GUNN-effect diode which generaies the microwave frequency of $13.4 \mathrm{Gc} / \mathrm{s}$ at a power output of 5 mW maximum unmodulated c.w. and operates off a simple 12 V nominal d.c. battery. The equipment thus costs a third of the price of conventional apparatus with a considerable saving in space and weight.

Further information from: James Scott (Electronic Engineering) Limited, Carntyne Industrial Estate, Glasgow, E.2. Telephone: 041-SHE 4206/9.

## BBC-WALES AND VHF RADIO RELAY STATION

The BBC's new television and v.h.f. radio relay station at Bettws-y-Coed, Caernarvonshire, was brought into service on 25th November. BBC-Wales television is transmitted on channel 4, with horizontal polarisation. V.H.F. radio services are on the following frequencies: Radio 2 $88 \cdot 2 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; Radio $390 \cdot 4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; Radio $492 \cdot 6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

## NEW PRICE LISTS

The Solar Electronic Company have just published their second set of lists. There are 16 pages in the new copy and they are divided into separate sections: $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}, \mathrm{SWL}$, Kits, Test Gear, Electronic and Audio gear and Semiconductors. All equipment is said to be new and there are many discount items. The set of lists costs 1 s . 6 d . post paid from Solar Electronic Co., Refuge Buildings, St. Thomas Street, Sunderland.

## 1969 RSGB PRESIDENT

J. Graham, G3TR, Past President of the RSGB has been succeeded by J. W. Swinnerton, G2YS. Mr. Swinnerton has been a member of the Society Council for the past ten years.

## NOT QUITE SO MINIATURE

On page 572 of the December 1968 issue of Practical Wireless under the heading Miniaturising $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$, the depth of the P20 was unfortunately given as 21 inches. This should have read $2 \frac{1}{4}$ inches.-some differencel/!

## CELLARDYKE SHQRTWAVE RADIO GROUP

Cellardyke Shortwave Radio Group are conducting a poll in which anyshortwave listener in the world can vote. We ask you to list what in your opinion are the three (3) best OSL cards issued by any shortwave station. The cards which can be considered are those issued from 1st January 1967 and if a station has issued several cards in this time please state which in particular you are voting for.

Will you also please state what in your opinion a OSL card should contain, do you agree with Date Time and Frequency of reception or what do you look for when you receive your card?

This venture requires the greatest possible support and if it is a success, the poll will be held every two years.

The closing date for your vote is Monday, 31st March 1969 and the results will be published as soon after this as possible. Please support us now and send your vote to:
C.S.W.R.G. (Poll), 66 James Street, Cellardyke, Anstruther, Fife, Scotland.

The station coming out on top will be rewarded in some way by. us and if you have any suggestions as to the nature of the reward we wauld be happy to consider them.

## TROPHY FOR PHIL. THOROGOOD

P. A. (Phil.) Thorogood, G4KD, who has been the manager of the RSGB annual exhibition for the past ten years and the Society's London regional representative for many years has been awarded the Founder's Trophy by the Council in recognition for his outstanding services to the Society over the past 20 years.

This trophy was donated by the late René Klein who founded the Society (originally called the London Wireless Club) in July, 1913.

NEW FROM HENRY'S The latest revised 9th Edition of their catalogue is now available from Henry's Radio Ltd., 303 Edgware Road, London W.2. Price is $7 / 6 \mathrm{~d}$. plus $1 / 6 \mathrm{~d}$. post and packing, but the five 2 s . in the f 1 gift vouchers included (total value 10s.) enable you to recover the catalogue's . cost on subsequent orders. This issue contains 320 pages with numerous circuits, data and new features.


## W.CAMERON'S



## atansistor <br> FM TUNER

ASIX-transistor f.m. tuner may seem to be a rather ambitious project to the less experienced constructor, and so it can be. Every effort has been made in designing this tuner, however, to make certain that all components can be purchased easily, and that the layout has been adequately described to ensure success, provided the constructor follows the plans precisely, especially in the front end up to and including the mixer.

The aim has been to develop a high quality unit, with adequate sensitivity, at very moderate cost. Admittedly the less conventional type of tuner with untuned low frequency wide band i.f.s and pulse counting discriminator would probably be cheaper, but it is doubtful whether this type is any easier to set-up satisfactorily even though there are no i.f. circuits to align. It is also doubtful whether that type would operate into a stereo decoder to provide satisfactory reproduction from the BBC's stereo broadcasts.
Alignment of FM receivers normally calls for a wobbulator (sweep generator), or at least an r.f. signal generator, but as relatively few constructors will possess or have access to these, a simple method of alignment is described later, which does not demand use of any alignment aids except a high resistance voltmeter. The i.f. transformers used, incidentally, are such that even with this simple method of alignment, a surprisingly linear i.f. response is possible.

In order to ensure excellent stability, construction is
on a metal chassis. This is of grade $2 x$ tinned plate, which can be obtained from most hardware or builders' merchants. The metal chassis ensures stability because of its screening and the facility of being able to solder earth returns directly to it. The gauge used is quite substantial as the chassis is small, and when bent into the required shape, is remarkably rigid. The front panel is of 18 s.w.g. aluminium. Printed circuits have been ruled out because of the difficulty constructors may have of reproducing boards precisely, and also because printed circuits often create their own trouble in r.f. circuits and can be a source of incurable instability.

Germanium transistors are used for mixer and i.f. stages; these are the well proven Mullard AF1/16. Silicon planar types are used for r.f. amplifier and oscillator stages; both type BF167, chosen, apart from their inherently good thermal stability, because being n-p-n, the collector tuned circuits can be taken directly to chassis, thus obviating the necessity for decoupling circuits and giving a much improved performance.

It is advisable to obtain new rather than surplus transistors to ensure that they are of the correct construction (i.e., TO-7 for AF116 and TO-72 for BF167) and also to have the satisfaction of knowing that they will be within close limits.

A separate oscillator and mixer are used, rather than a self-oscillating mixer, for good reasons. It is generally accepted that more stable operation results from the
 underside


Fig. 1:The complete circuit of the transistor f.m. tuner, with automatic frequency control incorporated. Automatic gain control and an
use of a separate oscillator. It gives rather better freedom from pulling, and certainly helps to prevent the "brute force" passage of the oscillator signal through the i.f.s. Also, because each transistor serves only one function and can be optimised without compromise, the front-end gain will be higher and the noise level less.

With a well designed self-oscillating mixer, its normally inherent defects can be overcome to a large extent by carefully calculating the component values, and arranging the circuits with extra inductance to form bridge arrangements offering nulls to unwanted frequencies, i.e. to the i.f. as far as the oscillator frequency is concerned and to the mixer-oscillator as far as the i.f. is concerned. This can be achieved in mass production where each unit is identical, but is almost impossible for the constructor, working from diagrams and with limited test equipment.

The small saving in cost using a self-oscillating mixer may be worthwhile to a manufacturer, but for the constructor the advantages of the separate oscillator (apart from the transistor, there are few if any extra components) make the small extra cost of no consequence.

## Circuit Description

Aerial coupling and matching is by the broadband coupling transformer T1 (Fig. 1). Because of its bandwidth and the loading of the low impedance emitter input, the value of Cl is not too critical and may be anywhere between 12 pF and 20 pF . An alternative input circuit is shown in Fig. 2. As the impedance into the emitter of TR 1 is in the order of 50 ohms, the aerial can be connected direct without serious mismatch. The 500 pF capacitor is simply to isolate the aerial from d.c. The gain of the stage may be increased by shunting the emitter resistor with a small capacitor, which tends to make the stage regenerative, up to the point where the value of $C$ is increased to such a value as to cause oscillation. An average value for stable operation is 15 pF .
The increase in gain achieved by using this capacitor is unfortunately accompanied by a sharpening of the tuning of L3 (due to this tendency towards regeneration)

and in consequence an undesirable reduction in bandwidth. While this would be acceptable for normal mono reception, it would be detrimental for stereo, where a wide bandwidth is necessary. Referring again to the coupling transformer Tl , as the transistor TR1 is a power driven device, there can be no voltage gain from the circuit L2, C1. It does, however, provide rather more gain than the alternative method mentioned above, by virtue of better aerial matching and the removal of the shunting effect of R1. It also improves front end selectivity while maintaining the necessary bandwidth.
Transistors TR1 and TR2 operate in common base, as also does TR3 as far as signal and oscillator frequencies are concerned. TR1 collector tuned circuit comprises L3, C4a, and C5. Coupling to the mixer is via C6.
The oscillator TR2 uses a very stable Colpitts circuit. Feedback is to the emitter via the capacitive tap, C8-C9. Oscillator injection into the mixer is via C13. The oscillator tuned circuit comprises L4, C4b, and also the variable capacitance diode D1 with C10 and C11.
A.f.c. voltage is applied from the discriminator via R7 and R15. The function of the diode and automatic frequency control will be explained later.
Injection of signal and oscillator frequencies is into the emitter of TR3 (the mixer is actually the emitterbase diode of this transistor), the resultant intermediate frequency being amplified by normal transistor action and taken off by IFT1, L6.

L5 isolates the v.h.f. signals from the emitter resistor

i.f. trap can also be included if desired, details being given in Figs. 9 and 10.


Fig. 2. An alternative untuned input circuit.
and bypass capacitor C15, while C15 ensures good i.f. amplification from TR3 at which frequency L5 is of little consequence. The i.f. amplifier is quite straightforward and does not require comment.

It will be noted that the a.f. output from the discriminator conforms to current practice whereby de-
emphasis is not included, but only i.f. filtering. This is to ensure a wide audio frequency response if and when used with a decoder, sufficient to accommodate the highest "audio" frequency in stereo reception prior to the decoder, i.e. $53 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$. The actual a.f. bandwidth is $55 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ before rather sharp attenuation.
The transistor TR6 provides a small amount of audio gain, but its main function is a buffer, to present a constant impedance to the ratio detector, and to enable the output of the suner to be fed into any impedance.

## Construction

Chassis drilling and bending details are shown in Fig. 3 and the front panel in Fig. 4. When completed, the main component parts should be mounted first, in the order discussed below.
Transistor holders for TR3, 4, 5 and 6 are made from strips of paxolin $1 \frac{5}{8} \mathrm{in} . \times \frac{8}{8} \mathrm{in}$. secured to the underside of the chassis with 6BA screws and nuts. A tiny hole is


Fig. 3: The drilling plan for the chassis, seen from below.


Fig. 4: Layout of the front panel, seen from the rear, with assembly details for the cord dial drive.

Fig. 5: This diagram of the chassis top should clarify the orientation of the transistors and transformers.

drilled through the paxolin centres showing through the holes previously drilled in the chassis, and through which the transistor leads will be inserted later.
The i.f. transformers are mounted so that the coded end (two colour paint spots) is nearest the rear of the chassis. The mounting tags are bent over and soldered to the underside of the chassis, taking care that the connecting pins are centred in their holes, clear of the chassis.
Next can be fitted the feed-through capacitors, which are simply inserted into their respective holes and soldered to the chassis.
The feed-through insulators are supplied unassembled comprising an insulating bush of p.t.f.e. and silverplated pin terminal. The bush is inserted into its chassis hole and then the pin pushed home into the insulator. It is a very tight fit and requires a fair amount of pressure, so the chassis should be supported during this operation to prevent it being distorted. A piece of metal tube or a small box key can be held under the bush, while the pin is pushed home firmly with pliers.
Transistors TR 3 to TR 6 can now be mounted; these are inserted into their holders with the collector lead nearest the rear of the chassis. The transistors should be pushed down to about $\frac{5}{6}$ in. from the chassis so that sufficient lead length is below the chassis for direct connection to their respective points in the circuit.

The shield lead is soldered direct to the chassis. Two 6BA screws of $\frac{5}{32} \mathrm{in}$. or $\frac{3}{18} \mathrm{in}$. length are required for securing the tuning gang; longer screws will touch and shortcircuit the stators. The connections on the gang are extended downwards with $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. lengths of 22 s.w.g. tinned wire, insulated with sleeving, to pass through the chassis. To avoid confusion in the mounting of the BFI67 transistors, this is shown in- Fig. 5. The tagstrips can now be put into position. These are normally supplied in lengths of 28 tags, so the unwanted tags must be cut off. Twenty-six tags are required on tagstrip "a" and 20 tags on strip "b", but first cut off the unwanted mounting lugs. The lugs to be removed are numbers 11,14 and 23 on strip "a" and $1,4,13$ and 19 on strip " $b$ ". The strips are secured to the chassis each with two 4BA screws and nuts, or may be soldered, using the holes already drilled in the chassis as markers. The remaining mounting lugs are soldered to the chassis. Not all the tags will be required on strip "a", but it is more convenient to mount the single long strip rather than several small ones.

Two 6BA screws are used for securing each of the coil formers. If the screws are started and then heated slightly with the soldering iron, they will screw home easily without damage to the formers. It will be found
-continued on page 773

## $\star$ components list

| Resistors: |  | C15,19,22 0 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ ceramic |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R8, 11, 16, 31 | $270 \Omega$ | C16,17, 18, 20, 211 | 1000pF poly or ceramic |
| R20 | $390 \Omega$ | C23, 24 | 330 pF poly or ceramic |
| R1, 17, 21 | $680 \Omega$ | C26,27,28 8 | 8 or $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ electrolytic |
| R4, 12, 23, 24, 25 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | C29 0 | $0 \cdot 02 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| R30 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | Semiconductors: |  |
| R2, 5, 10, 19 | $3 \cdot 3 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |  |
| R14 | $3.9 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | TR1, 2 | BF167 |
| R26, 27, 29 R9 | $6.8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | TR3, 4,5 A | AF116 OC45 |
| R3, 6, 13, 22 | $15 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | D1 BA | BA102 |
| R18 | 22k $\Omega$ | D2,3 A | AA119 |
| R28 | $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | I.F. Transformers: |  |
| All $10 \%, \frac{1}{2}$ watt |  | IFT1, 2 |  |
|  |  | IFT3 | T41/4R2, Weyrad |
| Capacitors: |  | Miscellaneous: |  |
| C1 | 12pF poly or ceramic | $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Tuning cord drive type G } \\ \text { Drum } 1 \frac{1}{4} i n . \text { type BIL } \\ \text { Two } \frac{1}{2} i n . \text { dia. pulleys }\end{array}\right\}$ Jackson Bros. |  |
| C2, 11, 25 | 500 pF poly or ceramic |  |  |
| C3, 7, 14 | 1000 pF feed-through |  |  |
| C 4 a and b | 15 pF swing, 2 gang. | 1 Type A core |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & C 5,6,8,9,10,13 \\ & \text { C12 } \end{aligned}$ | Jackson Bros. C21, $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$. shaft <br> 10 pF polystyrene $\pm 1 \mathrm{pF}$ <br> $0.04 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ ceramic | 3 Feed-through insulators <br> 2 Coil formers | \}Radiospares |



EXPERIMENTS in the recording and reproduction of sound commenced in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. One of the earliest methods to be explored was that of using electromagnetic principles to cause a change in the magnetic field of a ribbon of magnetisable material. By 1900 , a workable system had been produced and patented by Valdemar Poulsen

Poulsen's system was however overtaken commercially by the success of the rival Edison Bell "phonograph" system of sound recording. This method relied upon the translation of electro-mag netic impulses into a physical groove pattern inscribed upon a disc or cylinder (the very earliest records were, of course, made acoustically as well as being played acoustically).

The advantage of the phonograph system was that the sound, once recorded, could be reproduced fairly easily through the familiar method of a gramophone needle, sound box and horn or acoustic chamber: no electronics were necessary. Furthermore, the phonograph master disc could be easily "pressed" and many thousands of copies could readily be produced.
Magnetic recording therefore remained almost forgotten (apart from some minor BBC use) until the second World War. Then it became evident that some rugged, reliable and compact form of recording was highly desirable to replace the bulky and easily-broken shellac twelve inch disc. The Allies turned to the original Poulsen wire recorder design, and many models of recorder were produced which were capable of giving acceptable quality results both with speech and music. On the domestic front, the "Wirek" combined wire recorder and record player proved popular, using a record/playback head developed under the American Armour Research Foundation. When the Allies overran Germany in 1945, it was discovered that the Germans had developed an advanced magnetic recording system using plastic-coated tape rather than wire.

Both wire and tape systems operate on the same principles, and depend upon the magnetisation, at various field strengths, of either the wire or tape medium. In the recording process, the original sound waves are converted into electrical impulses and fed to the recording head: this is a narrow-gapped elec-tro-magnet of fairly small dimensions. The "blank" tape or wire is driven past the recording head gap and a "permanent" induced magnetic field is established which corresponds to the magnetic equivalent of the original electrical version of the sound waves.

In the replay process, the wire or tape is again driven past the electro-magnetic head. On this occasion however, the head works on the dynamo
principle: as the magnetised tape or wire passes the head gap, it induces a magnetic field into the electromagnet. This is converted by the electro-magnet into an electrical charge in the field coils. These coils are connected to a sensitive a.f. amplifier and the signals are then amplified and reproduced as sound waves by the loudspeaker

## SOME EXPERIMENTS

Some interesting experiments can be carried out which illustrate the principles of magnetic recording, using parts from old high resistance (impedance) headphones. The headphone should be dismantled and the semicircular permanent magnet piece removed, this is to be used later for erasing purposes. We are then left with the soft iron polepiece with its electro-magnetic winding (see Fig. 1); there are two of these in a headphone. These polepieces should then be bolted together using the original bolting hole if possible. The aim is to produce a small horseshoe electro-magnet. The windings on each of the limbs of the horseshoe are connected in series.


Fig. 1: The headphone electromagnet.

Fig. 2: The experimental recording/playback head.

Next cut two pieces of ordinary tinplate to about the size of a postage stamp. The top edge of each piece should be curled over slightly as shown in Fig. 2, in order to provide guides for the tape or wire. These two pieces are then secured across the face of the horseshoe (either by tapping and bolting or simply strapping with Sellotape). The aim here is to reduce the gap across the horseshoe to as small a dimension as possible. It is useful to insert a cigarette paper between the two tinplate pieces, as shown in Fig. 2, in order to act as a spacer. This cigarette paper need not be removed but simply trimmed off.

For the purposes of the experiment, a small 3 in . reel of magnetic tape should be used or alternatively a reel of recording wire (the latter needs careful handling, as it is the diameter of very fine fuse wire
and easily snarls up). For the transport system, it is sufficient to allow the material to be drawn off a free-wheeling spool, simply secured over a centre pivot constructed from a small pivot such as a piece of a wooden pencil. The tape or wire should be drawn from the spool across the "head" at a sharp angle, and on to the take-up spool.

The take-up spool is a blank 3 in . tape spool with a piece of felt glued on one side. This take-up reel is put on a gramophone turntable as if it were a gramophone record. Operation of the gramophone deck (preferably at 78 r.p.m.) will drive the tape or wire from the take-off spool, past the head and on to the wind-up spool. The felt pad on the take-up spool will provide enough friction to prevent the spool slipping on the turntable.

To provide a record-


Fig. 3: Tapping off from an output valve. ing signal, an input is fed (via screened leads) from the output valve of a radio receiver or record player. The method of "tapping off" from a valve circuit is shown in Fig. 3, the earpiece output from a transistor set may be also tried. With some transistor sets, the signal will need stepping up to high impedance via a small speaker transformer used in reverse (i.e. the high impedance side is used as the output). When the signal has been recorded, the spools are rewound by simply swopping the spools over. The spools are again reversed in position, and the "recorder" is ready for replay.
The signal recorded on the tape or wire is of low amplitude, and a sensitive amplifier is needed for replay purposes, a suitable prototype is shown in Fig. 4. Other similar circuits may be constructed or adapted for experimental purposes. The main point is that the first stage must provide fairly high amplification, as the signal is comparable in strength to that of a microphone. However, the normal "4 transistor" amplifier shown here is sufficient for experimental purposes. The recording is reconnected for replay purposes to the input of the replay amplifier, and the "transport system" again operated. The original sound will now be reproduced through the amplifier.


[^1]
## RECORDING BIAS

A considerable amount of distortion will be noticed in this first attempt at recording. This is largely due to the fact that the recording tape or wire is not equally sensitive to the magnetic field at all amplitudes and frequencies of the applied signal. The wire or tape, in fact, possesses a characteristic in the same way as a valve has a characteristic. Just as, by the use of suitable bias, a valve can be made to operate on the linear portion of its characteristic, so, by suitable biasing, a tape or wire can be made to operate in a more linear fashion.

A simple form of direct current bias is shown in Fig. 5, the bias voltage from a 9 volt battery is fed via $20-30 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor to the recording head. Some variation of bias can be achieved for optimum results by the inclusion of a potentiometer in the circuit, as shown. The bias voltage is applied across the recording head, in parallel with


Fig. 5: The bias circuit. the signal to be recorded. Bias is only applied during recording, it is not used during playback.

## ERASING SYSTEMS

The great advantage of magnetic recording is that unwanted material is capable of being instantly erased, and the tape or wire can be re-used indefinitely. The simplest method of erasure is by using a permanent magnet. If the magnet originally extracted from the headphone is brought up to the tape or wire during replay. it will be noticed that


Fig. 6: The arrangement for switched D.C. erasure.
the signals disappear and are replaced by a slight "mush" sound. If desired, a further earphone electromagnet can be employed for erase purposes as shown in Fig. 6. The advantage of the electromagnet d.c. erase is that it can be simply switched off during replay, whereas a permanent magnet must be removed physically.

It will now be assumed that magnetic tape will be used in general, and although this has several advantages over the original wire systems, it does bring its own problems. The most important of these is concerned with the method to be employed to get the tape to traverse past the recording or playback head.

## A SIMPLE TAPE RECORDER

The simplest method of tape transport is merely a development of the electric motor or turntable drive used in the experiments. Figure 7 shows how this is developed to provide a system commonly
employed in the cheapest form of tape recorders and also in some "dictaphone" systems.
In this-diagram the tape is stored on a 3 in . spool shown on the left hand side of the diagram, the tape used being standard $\frac{t}{2}$ in. plastic backed. In operation the tape is drawn off this spool past the tape head and on to the take-up spool shown on


Fig. 7: The tape transport and erase systems.
the right of the diagram. The motor drive is fixed in a horizontal position on a central pivot, and has a double-ended drive. For recording or playing back the motor is swivelled so that the right hand driveend engages with the small rubber turntable on which the right hand spool of tape rests. To rewind, the motor is swivelled so that the left hand drive-end engages with the left hand rubber turntable or spool holder. The "gearing" effect of the small-diameter
amplifier" to a modified form of the transistor amplifier mentioned above. It will be necessary to purchase a small record/play head, these are obtainable very cheaply on the surplus market. To ensure good contact between the tape and the head, a small sprung pressure pad, as shown in Fig. 7, is often used. This is not essential, however, and in fact on the best makes of recorder is not used.

## ALTERATIONS TO AMPLIFIER

The necessary alterations to the basic transistor amplifier are shown in Fig. 8 and the operation of the circuit is as follows; when recording a signal on to the tape, this is fed from a mike, radio or gram to the transistor input microphone socket (M1). The signal is amplified through $\mathrm{Tr} 1, \mathrm{Tr} 2$ and two OC81 transistors (Tr3 and Tr4), working in pushpull. Any audible output signal could feed back into the microphone and cause howling, so the output is switched to an $8 \Omega$ resistor (R11) and the loudspeaker is out of circuit by means of Slc. The portion of the amplified signal which is required to feed into the recording head is tapped off from the primary of the output transformer (T1) via R12 and C6, and is fed into the head via switch SIb (record/play switch). The necessary bias is applied to the signal by tapping off from the negative line via R13.

At the same time, if it is desired to erase a previous recording from the tape, the permanent magnet is brought up to a parallel position with the record head on its left hand side; see Fig. 7 which shows the erase magnet in position.

For replay purposes, the erase magnet is moved


Fig. 8: A practical transistor tape recorder amplifier.
shaft operating against the relatively large diameter of the spool holders results in a reasonable power drive function combined with an acceptable operating speed for the tape.

If desired, two motors may be employed for this purpose, any of the small model-driving motors are suitable. The swivelling arrangement can then be dispensed with. The power supply for this section of the tape recorder is usually 3-6 volts derived from the HP11 high power ( $1 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}$ ) type of battery.

To complete this simple type of tape recorder it is only necessary to connect the leads marked "to
back out of position, and by operation of the record/ replay switch, the tape head is switched into the input section of Tr1. The signal is amplified via Tr 2 which feeds into the push-pull output/stage, leading to the loudspeaker.
Simple additional refinements consist in the addition of a remote stop/start switch, and the control of the speed of the tape by the use of a rheostat in the electric motor line. (These devices were described by the author in P.W., April and May, 1967.)

## TO BE CONTINUED

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AN ALMIGHTY snub has
just been given to your favourite contributor. Thick as Henry's skin has become after years of being blamed by radio customers for every bleep of instability or burp of interference.


The grizzled warrior may not feel like it. the stab of insult has this time cut even his pachydermatous hide to the quick.

A couple of months ago, I applied for upgrading to a certain learned radio Institute of which I have been an Associate for a number of years. And was refused!

Refused, I may add, with very few regrets. If ever you want a cure for big-'eadedness, try approaching the Hon. Sec. of your Society, Association or Institute for the accolade of a qualification that he thinks you do not deserve. That autocratic body, the Committee, take one look at your application, and shrug away our pretensions with all the aplomb of a securely entrenched party of gods on some Olympian hilltop.

You are given to understand that the only route upwards is the hard path they once trod. Take the examinations, they say, or submit a thesis for our approval. Fair enough. I am all for proving your worth; I go along with the aim to make qualifications mean a little more than the vellum they illuminate. But there were two points that applied in my par-
ticular case, and which I had been at pains to outline in my covering letter to His HonSecship.

First, a full-time day and a secondary occupation of bashing out literary epics precluded any time being found to study. Second. these epics included several books on the subject, and regular submissions to technical journals that would more than suffice as theses. If originality is the touchstone, one of the books was, and after a couple of years still is, the only manual of its kind in the library.

I can only believe that Mr. Hon. Sec. omitted to convey the substance of my letter. If my own experience of committees is relevant, he probably made formal acknowledgement in a sufficiently denigratory tone for the members to say: "We leave it to you," and hurry off to their overdue lunch.

Before you take up those everwilling pens to argue, think of all the other working chaps in similar circumstances. The younger man, entering the radio industry, may get time off, with pay, to attend a technical college. He gives up a couple of evenings as well, and must keep up with his homework. With his eye firmly on the polestar of promotion, and the probability of few family commitments, he spends a year or two studying hard and reaps the reward of his labours with a servicing certificate, a Guild pass, or some diploma.

Beside him at the bench is the grizzled warrior who studied as he went along, years ago, and has added practically to his knowledge since. He certainly could not sit an examination without some pretty crammed revision. He may not feel like going back to school. His alternative, the correspondence course, usually depends on masses of preliminary "kid-level" questions, which he is not allowed to skip before proceeding to the hard stuff.

I can still visualise those pens poised. Perhaps to tell me that, like the "Radio Ham" exam, the end is worth taking a little trouble for. But we are talking here of courses that, whether you like it or not, are designed to take you years to get to the grade you require, when your own belief is that a few months hard revision should suffice.

More to the point. what should Henry, and other established radio engineers (sorry-mechanics, as one Society insists we remain) do to attain some qualification in the trade which has been their bread donor since leaving school? To carry the matter still further, why bother to add any qualification to the record of experience that most employers will regard with greater respect


## His certificate a short-cut.

than an alphabet of diplomas? Except for the man who finds his certificate a short-cut to the all-important job interview, is such attainment worthwhile?

Henry has a vested interest, let's admit it. For certain technical contributions to learned journals, the odd diploma or two can carry some weight. Lecturing on behalf of the local education authority or the university demands a minimum status. Ironically, Henry's other qualifications are higher than those of the Institute that refused his application for upgrading. Which is one reason that he applied!

AT the start of a new year I suppose we all look back through our log books to the year just finished and hope we can do a lot better in the future. I suppose 1969 will be the year of new relay bases with BonaireNoord relays of $R$. Nederland to commence full schedule in March with two 300W short wave transmitters to beam to New Zealand, Australia and Pacific area, West, Central and East North America, Caribbean area, West, Central and South Africa, and Europe. Plus the start of transmissions to Africa in French. From the Pacific area comes news of about ten 250 kW transmitters to commence relays of Voice of America from Tinang, Philippines. Also, R. Australia after many delays should start operating from Darwin, Northern Territory with the three 250 kW transmitters.
So many people are beginning to think like me, before long all the low power DX we have been so used to hearing in the past will be swamped off the air by these high power transmitters. If you listen into the $19 \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{b}$. at about 1600 GMT there are eighteen Voice of America transmitters totalling output of about $3,975,000$ watts of power beaming to various parts of the world, the bulk of this to Europe. Then there is R. Liberty 500 kW transmitters, R. Free Europe 250 kW transmitters plus many Russians. But the Russians do the most damage to DX-ing with masses of jamming over $R$. Liberty, R. Free Europe, Voice of America, BBC and R. Peking. But I think the classic example of Russian deliberate interference is from 1500 each day. $R$. Kiev severely interferes with $R$. Nederland with only 10 kW , Kiev is 100 kW , both beaming to Europe. Many DX-ers have protested about this, both stations are unlistenable in their target areas, and still Kiev goes on ruining listening enjoyment from $R$. Nederland, who were on this channel years before Kiev was on the air. You can see this Russian interference in other ways, for during summertime ${ }^{\prime}$. Kabul was using $15,265 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ to Europe, Moscow was using $15,265 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ to the Balkans-result: either station is unlistenable in W. Europe or the Balkans.
So the sooner the Americans and Russians reduce power the better it will be for DX-ing, otherwise by the year 1980 all you will hear on the short wave broadcast bands will be R. Moscow and Voice of America. The hobby of DX-ing as we know it will be nearly dead, thanks to the greed of big stations who force their ideas on to others using the short wave bands and DX-ers to extend their influence. I would welcome your views on this, and any good points could be brought up in this column in the coming months. Now here are three of this month's propagation forecasts.

West Africa: $1000-1400$ 25, 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 $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-240015,11,9,7,6,5$ and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $2400-020011,9,7,6,5$ and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0200-040011,9,7$, $6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $0400-06009,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ $0600-080011,9,7$, and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0800-100021,17,15$ 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 $11 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1200-140021,17$, $15,11,9$ and $7 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1400-160017,15,11,9,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1600-180011,9,7,6,5,4$ and $3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $1800-20009,7,6,5$ and $4 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2000-22007$ and $6 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$; $2200-24007 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; $2400-0600$ circuit closed; $0600-$ 080017 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

West Coast of South America (North of Chile): 1200$180025 \mathrm{and} 21 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 1800-200017$ and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2000-$ $220015 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; 2200-2400 11 and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 2400-0400$ 11 and $9 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s} ; 0400-10009 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ only; 1000-1200 17 and $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$.

Now here are this month's DX-tips.

## AUSTRALASIA

Australia: Recent changes to R. Australia transmission schedule are as follows, $1800-2200$ to Mid and South Pacific now on 11,840 ( 10 kW ), 11,810 ( 100 kW ) and $9,540(100 \mathrm{~kW})$. A new transmission to the MidPacific is from $2000-0830$ on $15,180(10 \mathrm{~kW})$; to the Mid-Pacific also from $2200-0030$ on 11,840 ( 10 kW ). All the above are in English. The Vietnamese transmission now runs from 1230-1330 on 11,790. The evening English service to East Asia now runs from 0900-1000 on 15,140 , and $11,810,1000-1100$ on 15,$140 ; 1100-1200$ on $15,140,11,810$ and 9,$580 ; 1200-1215$ on 15,140 and 11,810; 1215-1400 on 15,140. The evening English transmission to the Mid-Pacific is now on 7,190 from 0830-1215. An afternoon service to the South Pacific is heard from 0200-0800 on 15,240. During test matches of the West Indies $v$. Australia series, the commentaries are beamed to the British Isles from 0045-0545 on 15,405 and 0600 -close on 11,710. The morning transmission to North America is now heard from 1215-1315 on 11,710 and 9,580, and the French service to Africa is now heard on 17,820 and 15,320 from 0500-0600.

## EUROPE

Norway: R. Norway, Oslo, has sent out to many regular reporters a very nice colour picture calendar of Norway for 1969. The current schedule of R. Norway, Oslo, is now as follows. 0700-0830 on $25,900,25,730$, $21,730,21,655$ and 11,$735 ; 1100-1230$ on $25,900,25,730$, $21,655,11,850$ and 7,$210 ; 1300-143025,900,25,730$, $21,730,21,655$ and 9,$645 ; 1500-163025,900,25,730$, $21,730,21,655$ and 17,$825 ; 1700-183025,900,25,730$, $21,730,21,655$ and 15,$175 ; 1900-203025,730,21,730$, $15,175,11,850$ and 11,$735 ; 2100-2230$ on $11,860,11,850$ and 11,735 ; 2300-0030 on $11,850,11,735$ and 9,645 ; $0100-0230$ on $9,645,9,610$ and 9,$550 ; 0300-0430$ on $9,645,9,610$ and 9,550. On Sunday and Monday mornings the last 30 minutes is in English, otherwise all the rest is in Norwegian.
Deadline this month is the 10th January, so good listening and 73 's.


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| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 volt |
| $30 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 volt |
| $80 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6.4 volt |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 volt |
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| At 1/- each |  |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, | 250 volt |
| $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}^{\prime}$ | 10 volt |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 volt |
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2in., no swivel, screw hole in base, 6/6. 10-sec crew hole in base, 18/6 ( $1 /-$ all slzes)
BWITCHEs: Stapdard toggle, metal, 250 v 2 A . One hole fxing: SPST 2/8, SPDT $2 / 9$ DPST 8/-, DPDT 3/8. side types. Sub-min. DPDT $1 / 6$ each. 8mall DPDT 3 way, centr off" 1/9. Reed magnetic on/oft $1 / 9$ (7d, each, all types). Rotary switches etc. in list VIBRATORS: Famous makes only. 12 volt 4 pin non-synch 2/6. 12 volt 7 pin synch 10/-. 6 volt 5 pin synch $10 /-$ ( $1 /-$ each, all types).
MAIN8 NEON TESTERR: F1y leads 2/- (7d.). Pocket screwdriver type 8/6 (Bd). PLUG8: std fack, plaatic body 2/- Screened 2/9. Sockets $1 / 6$ (all 7d.). VALVE HOLDERS: B7G or yds. Bolid Core $9 / 8$. up to 4, 1/- over 4). CONNECTING WIRE: 5 colis asatd. cols. each per 5 coils). PICK-UP WIRE: Twin Super thin Flex, Screened, Bheathed, $1 / 8$ yd. (6d. up 06 yds., over 6 yds. post free). TWIN MIKE CABLE: $1 / 8 \mathrm{yd}$. (up to 6 yds. 8d., over poe ree). SINGLE MIKE CABLE: 7d, yd. (up to 6 yds. 8 d ., over post free). Both flexible creened and sheathed
VOLUME CONTROLS: Famous British makes only-small modern types. Virtualiy ull alves from 5 K to 2 Meg Without switch $1 / 9$. With double pole switch $3 /-$ ( 9 d either for quantities)
RECORD DtCES: Lateat popular types of famous British makes available from time to time st lowest prices. Your enquiries Invited, but no lists available.
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TIEN metres comes back from the dead, pirates reported in Practical Wireless and LG5LG proved beyond doubt to be a highly desirable goodie. It's all been happening this last month. If you've got a beam aerial then you should have heard everything. If, like old JDG, you've only got a "bit of wire", then you've no doubt had to content yourself with mundane things like VK, ZL, CX and the like. It's getting so bad on the s.s.b. segments that it is almost fatal to take the cans off for fear of missing something special.

Early mornings, before 0900 seems to be the best time for wet string antenna types to listen for Oceania. Most of the VK/ZL activity appears about this time.
Although ten has been its now established patchy little self it has had its moods and some very good openings have peeped through.
Africa is very prominent in the ten metre hit parade plus quite a fair showing from S. America. Europeans were heard most of the time with many stoking up ageing 807s. Why do they have to key the mains with those rigs? No prizes for guessing the prefixes involved, but food parcels might include a $32 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ electrolytic.
Top prize must go to twenty for consistency. Early mornings brought VKs and there were still stations from that part of the globe to be heard as late as 1800. On fifteen metres the evenings have been pretty good most of the month. This band is proving to be a proper little hive of s.s.b. activity.
Forty metres has been, well, forty metres. Good selectivity in the receiver is virtually a must for this band. Although my rx lacks really good selectivity, stations in Europe were heard working JA, AP, FG7s and the like so the gravy is definitely there.
Topband has been going well. Nothing fantastic heard at the home QTH but while mobile one evening a QSO was heard involving G3XXF and G3QUK, the latter being located in Bristol. Location at the time was the A6 between St Albans and Harpenden.

## CALLSIGNS

Having looked at conditions, let's look at the Jolly Roger brigade. A hasty screed from James Lee (Warwickshire) informs that my report of G3SWZ operating $1 \frac{1}{2}$ watts and working over 30 countries is, in fact, a report on a pirate. He reckons that the pirate calls himself John, near Peterborough. One point from this. If you want a really useful project, then how about a small transistor rx for topband, complete with ferrite rod plus socket for an external aerial. You can virtually d.f. the pirate types and it offers a useful portable plus a standby rx.

Regarding my observations of the callsign LG5LG. G3VRU sends official word (he has a QSL) that the station is at Morokulien and is located, as a separate state, between Sweden and Norway. Per Gunderson always found the time to help handicapped hams. The station is, in a way, a memorial to this man whose callsign was LA5LG. In order to keep up the good work and raise funds, the station QSL confirming a QSO "costs" 3 IRCs and is sent via the bureau (4 IRCs direct). If you
have heard of the "Ham spirit", then these few inadequate words above give some small insight to just what it's all about.

## LOGS

W. Smart (Hexham) 9R 59DE plus de luxe Joystick and joy match went s.s.b'ing on ten forEP2KB, KV4AB, KV4AD, SVØWM, SVØWN, SMØBBR, VE3BAC, W2OYT, W3WIM/P2, W9LMX, 9K2CB.
J. de Camillis (West Hampstead) queries callsigns starting AJ3. He heard what appeared to be an r.f. bazaar on forty involving these stations sorting out the sale of radio gear and cameras. A listen on ten with an RA- 1 plus 35 ft . of wire raisedCR6JT, CTIUX, HGØHV, ISIMKD, KIOMC, LU8DEG, PY5ATU, VEIEI, WA4PTN, WA6QQW, W2LUN, W3TNQ, ZE1CB, 9G1DM, 9H1BE, 9J2RA.
S. Mummery (Bromley) went ear dangling on all three h.f. bands. Resultant r.f. earache fromCR6AN, CR7IC, CR7LK, F $\varnothing C H / P / F C$ (Corsica), HM1BB, ITIPSG, JA5PK, MP4MBJ, OA5AY, OMIAPJ, PXIBW, PYICHA, PY2PA, PZIDF, VK2ABZ/P, VK3AQJ, VK3AYT, VK3XT, VK4HR, VK5MF, VK9BN, VOIAQ, VP9FX, YV5BOA, ZLIAH, ZLIHA, ZL3FT, ZL4BO, ZC4HS, 3A2CP, $6 \mathrm{~W} 8 \mathrm{DY}, 7 \mathrm{P} 8 \mathrm{AR}$, 9 K 2 BB , all on 20 s.s.b.
On 15 s.s.b.-CR6HAW, CR7IA, EA6AR (Balearic Is.), ET3USA, IT1XFI, JA1AEA, JA6DRQ, VK2FA, VU2SA, YA1FG, YV1WX, $5 A 3 J R, \quad 5 Z 4 K O$, 6 Y5RA, 9 HIR , 9Q5DG. These were all received on a B34 with 66 ft . end fed, as were the following on ten-CR6AY, EI8AT, ISIGF, JAILZR, JAIRFU, JAIWPX, KL7AAD, PYICAD, PY2PA, VK2XT, VK6MS, nineteen Ws, XW8BS, ZS6AB, 9M2NF. You're all too late, I've already made him an offer for the B34.
G. Richards (Carisbrooke) is the proud owner of a GC-IU and confesses to hooking up a 120 ft . long wire to it. Rewards for these labours on tenFM7WE, FM7WN, HK3WO, IICMD, ITIFVK, PY1AGP, W5KDI, W5VTM, W6JRA, W7RSP, ZE1AV, ZE2JA, 9HIBG-and these were all on a.m. Just shows what you can do with two sidebands.

The s.s.b. $\log$ for the same band reads-CE3PY, CE3RC, CE8AA, CR6GA, CT2AS, EP2BQ, HClHV, HI8LC, K60KW, K6SVR, K7ANG, KL7BCS, KV4AD, LU6DRB, TJIAU, VE3EYN, VE5US, W2FHO/P/W7, W6CN, WB6FRD, W7ESK, WØBVV, ZS1GB, ZS5FF, 4A1OE, 5N2AAF, 7Q7RM, 8P6CA, 9GIFF, 9HIM, 9J2VX, 9X5AA, 9 Y 4 MM .

Glynn reckons best times for ten metre openings are mornings and late afternoons while evenings are favoured for forty. On the latter band he loggedCT, DJ $\emptyset$, DL3, EA3, EA7, EP, GM, HB9, I1, IT1, OE, UA, 4X4 and 4Z4.
J. Baker (Liverpool) hopes to get his RAE soon (gd lk OM), meanwhile he keeps his PCR3 perking on fifteen metres with sigs from-CN8HD, CN8MJ, EA6BG, EA6BE, JA7MA, OD5CS, OD5FI, SVØWB, SV1BU, 9H1AV, 9H1BG.

# repairing radio sets 

## PART 2 (Third Series)

This is the second of a three part series dealing with the repair of radio sets for which the reader has no circuit or details to work from. Last month Gordon King dealt with the theoretical side, this month we deal with the practical aspect of repairing such sets.

THE honour of closing this series has been left to me, and on reading through the final contribution by my esteemed colleague, Gordon J. King, my first thoughts were that there is very little left for me to say. He has dealt very fully with the problem of identifying the valved and transistorised receiver, making preliminary tests, then going on to deeper circuit-proving measurements without the aid of a diagram or any other information. This would appear to leave me with the paltry task of illustrating various components and set layouts, saying: "This is a valve, this is a transistor; behold! a transformer, resistors, capacitors plain and pretty ....", but I shall not insult you by reverting thus to square one. In this final article we shall take a look at a few of those things we were forced to skate over lightly during the previous parts, with particular reference to repairs that have to be carried out minus the aid of a service manual.

## SWITCHING SYSTEMS

Everybody loves a mystery, but while the amateur, pottering about for fun, can afford to take his time in his investigations, the professional engineer has to charge for his time and must-often reluctantlyturn work a way as a consequence. Hence, no doubt, his feeling that he resembles the conventional copper of the "who-dun-it", plodding through his career while the amateur cuts straight through the servicing problems with panache. Hence also, these tales we hear too frequently of the man round the corner who did a simple job when the radio dealer refused (or failed) to do the repair. The refusal may have been because the "simple job" would have proved uneconomic.

Having got that off my chest, I should explain that it precludes an unconventional piece of advicewhen tackling the unknown receiver, ignore the step-by-step approach and jump straight to the vital points. These are (a) power supply, (b) audio output, (c) post-frequency-changer signal amplifiers, (d) aerial circuits, in that order.

Of the power supply section, most likely weak link will be the on/off switch. Even if the fault lies deeper, attention to the switch is the first and easiest proving test. It is easily identifiable, generally accessible, and, whether mains or battery receivers are being considered, performs the same function-to interrupt the supply. Elementary, you say? But at


Test points around the power supp/y section are generally easy of access.
this point we can make the first tests of a dead set. (Obviously, if the receiver shows signs of life, we jump straight to the next test.)

Where a single-pole switch is used, i.e. with only two connections, it is reasonable to assume that the other line of the supply goes either to the primary winding of the mairis transformer, in the case of a.c. operated equipment, or to chassis in the case of a.c./d.c. or battery-operated equipment. Tests can be made "cold", using an ohmmeter or some form of continuity tester-provided we take care to ensure that the supply of the tester does not exceed the anticipated supply voltage of the equipment. With the switch "on" a continuity reading should be immediate for mains-operated equipment, the lowresistance winding of the mains transformer primary being almost a short-circuit.
A.C./d.c. sets will give a reading of anything from a couple of hundred to several thousand ohms, but there will still be a continuity. Battery-operated equipment, especially transistor radios, may not be so simple to check in this way as the resistance across the supply will be as high as the designer could make it, and unless the meter voltage is somewhere near the working voltage of the battery decoupling electrolytic, we shall not even get our preliminary "kick" of the meter needle to tell us all is well.


Transformer windings can be traced by their d.c. resistance. It is wise to make specimen tests on transformers fram the spares box to familiarise oneself with these winding resistances.

## POWER-ON TESTS

It is always best to make any tests under operating conditions. If we have already determined that the set is a mains-type, and have identified the mains transformer by its size and shape, we can apply our a.c. voltmeter or test lamp to the supply line where it enters the set, or to another convenient spot such as fuseholder, voltage selector, etc. It will be necessary to check by visual inspection which leads the switch is in. , Usually, colour-coding is helpful. Having applied one probe to the neutral, put the other on the incoming connection to the switch. A reading will prove the mains wire, at least! With the set switched "on" and the probe now transferred to the other terminal, a similar reading will prove the switch to be in order-operating it once or twice will confirm that it is making and breaking.

Next, we can make a rapid proving test of the primary winding by putting the meter on each switch term:nal with the switch "off". If we get a reading, there must be continuity, and we can dig a little deeper. No reading, and we can confine our investigations to the input circuit. Keep the "live" probe on


Fig. ": By tapping along the circuit from a fixed point, in the sequence $A-H$, open-circuits are quickly revealed.
the incoming terminal and tap the other along the "neutral" line, point by point until the reading is lost. Figure 1 shows the procedure, postulating a receiver with the usual safety and adjusting bits and pieces.

A little thought now will show us that this could as easily have been done with a simple neon tester, by first checking the mains polarity, then connecting our set to the mains so that the "live" pole was fedas it should always be-to the switch. If there is an open-circuit in the primary circuit, simple tapping along with a neon from H towards A very quickly reveals it at the point where the indication vanishes.


Fig. 2: The ubiquitous neon tester is useful for rapid continuity tests of AC/DC receivers, with the power applied in the correct polarity.

This is a quicker method of fuse testing, or heater chain testing of a.c./d.c. sets, than laboriously disconnecting various circuit points and making continuity tests-though there may be need to do this later. An example of this is the snap tester of the television engineer, faced with a "dead" set, who taps his neon on the c.r.t. heater and knows, if he gets a flash with the mains correctly connected that (a) the mains dropper and heater chain are intact, and (b) that the return half of the input switch, or the wiring, are open-circuited; a common fault. Even more common, as Gordon King has pointed out, is an open-circuit mains dropper series resistor and, here again, the neon tester can do all that is needed in the way of testing. We simply tap along the line from point to point as shown in Fig. 2 until we lose the neon's flash. It should hardly be necessary to stress that the foregoing assumes that there is a break in the circuit: no break, and one would naturally expect the voltages to decrease from live toward neutral.

We have already touched upon double-pole switches, and note in passing that the failure of one pole is an extremely common fault, certainly worth a "first test". Again, the neon will show this up immediately by application on the switch terminals themselves. With the mains connected correctly (red to live, black to neutral with standard colour-coded cable), a flash from one terminal only indicates the live pole open, and from three terminals, the neutral pole open. Such a test takes less time than typing this sentence.

## BATTERY-OPERATED EQUIPMENT

One vital factor discriminates between mains and battery switches-and this, quite simply, is the supply voltage. Elementary again? Yes, but we must remember that when a switch handles a fairly large


## A/so:

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current at a high voltage, some small contact resistance will be overcome by the power in the circuit. There may even be a little loss across the switchsometimes the on/off switch of a mains radio or television receiver can get quite hot because of this loss, to the point of smelling, yet the set still goes on working. Battery-operated, low-voltage equipment requires near-perfect switch contacts. If your ohmmeter gives any reading at all across a switch that is ostensibly "closed" immediate attention is needed.

This observation is prompted by memories of the large number of battery receivers and tape recorders the author has had to service which have suffered from chemical action as a result of batteries having been left in the set too long. The corrosion may have been cleaned off and all may appear to be well but it needs only a very fine film on the blades or leaves of a switch which is often exposed (there being no danger, as with mains equipment). However, if the switch is of this "open" type, it becomes that much easier to clean.

We have already dealt with the cleaning of switches, but there may be one or two practical points worth underlining. Ordinary switch-cleaner fluid has a certain "scouring" property, but relies for its efficiency on the wiping action of the switch contacts and is thus more effective with rotary or sliding switches. Very often, in small transistor radio sets, the switch consists of a plastic cam that presses one blade into contact with another. There are two points to watch here. First, as the blades "age" with use, the moving one will tend to sag at the root end and the temptation is to bend it. Take care, for the action of the cam may not then be enough to ensure a good, firm contact. Bend the fixed contact up towards the moving one a little, instead.

Secondly, the contact area is important, and quite often this is increased by the blades having been formed into spoons at their end. Any bending due to age or an effort to recover good contact, may reduce this area. Not so important on low-consumption equipment, it becomes very important with such things as car radios, where a higher current passes through the contacts.

## VULNERABLE SWITCHES

Because of this low-current feature, quite simple switches will be found on transistor radios. On more than one model, the supply on/off is part of the wavechange switch printed slider, and the prime fault here is that the slider support runner eases with age, or heavy thumbing, and the spring contacts of the switch flatten. Repairing these is a matter of great patience and the use of a good pair of tweezers. An even more popular type is the small "block" slider, and a somewhat similar trouble can occur. Pressure will cause the bent clamps that retain the contact-blades support to "give" slightly, and intermittent contact results. A little careful pressure with a screwdriver blade may do the trick, but it is sometimes necessary to remove the switch and apply parallel pressure to top and bottom by clamping in a vice-lightly! When this kind of repair is carried out on a double-throw switch, it is helpful to wedge it in the central position. The slider blades bridge both contact fixed sets and there is no tendency to distortion as the two sets overlap more closely.

Leaving the supply section, we can remain with


Many radio components depend on spring pressure for electrical contact. This dismantled preset resistor shows the vulnerability of spring contacts, depending ultimately on the grip of a toothed clip.
switches for a moment because our next move, to the audio section, embraces one particular switch that causes more trouble than it is worth. This is the isolating switch often fitted on the earphone socket of a transistor radio or tape recorder. The use of phono or tip-and-sleeve jacks is widespread, and each has its drawbacks. There are two types of phono switch contact sockets, one using a wire which is simply pushed away by the inserted pin, and the other an angled blade end, similarly pushed away. With the earphone inserted, all is well. Remove it, and the set is dead. The trouble is quite obviously a faulty loudspeaker switch contact on the phono or jack socket. Unfortunately, when we come to test a dead set, we have usually left the earphone in the car, or the cat's basket, and we must then tackle the switch by temporarily short-circuiting the contacts. Please take care-if you short the wrong pair, the output transistors will object by going on strike!

## OUTPUT SECTION

Having arrived at point (b), we can take a quick look at some tests on a completely unfamiliar mains receiver. We are assuming that the power supply is in order. The h.t. can be tested at any one of several points, depending on the layout of the set, but one point where there will always be the full high tension voltage, and which comes next in our list of test places, is the output transformer. On many receivers, it is used as part of the smoothing circuit, and h.t. drain will cause open-circuiting. If this happens, with tetrode or, more especially, pentode output stage, the valve will glow red-hot. This sympton should always direct one to the output transformer. Remember that a high resistance joint at the leadout wires of the winding may cause intermittent arcing, especially if the loudspeaker has been disconnected. A transformer thus damaged is not safe to use again.

On audio amplifiers, or any higher-powered equipment, great care must be exercised not only to avoid an open-circuited output but also to maintain correct loading. So a 15 -ohm speaker, though it may be of better specification rating than the existing 3 -ohm one, will not be correctly driven, and may not only effect no improvement but may result in positive damage

TO BE CONTINUED

# WIDE RANGE Binuip GSilluan 




Fig. 2: Showing the flow of grid current.
tuned circuit. Valves tried, including EF80, ECC81, ECC82 and surprisingly ECC85, were found to drift quite considerably. The acorn triode type 955 was the most successful, and has the merits of small size, low heater current $(0.15 \mathrm{~A}$ at 6.3 V ) and low cost. Its maximum ratings are 200 V anode voltage and 10 mA anode current.


Fig. 3.

## Circuit description

The author's full circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 5. This is considerably more complicated than the basic circuit of Fig. I to increase the versatility of the instrument. The circuit is divided into two sections: (a) the Colpitt's oscillator and (b) the stabilised power supply and modulator.

## The Oscillator

VCl is the calibrated tuning control whose value must be chosen according to the reader's needs. The author used 180 pF each section and found that 11 coils were needed for a coverage from $170 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ to $150 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. If a higher value is used the oscillator would not work so well at v.h.f. If a smaller value is used more than 11 coils will be needed, and is not recommended unless the full frequency range is not required. The value of VC1 can be decreased by removing a number of moving vanes from each section; be careful not to bend the remaining vanes.

VC2 is a fine frequency control which is useful when tuning exactly to a frequency, it should have one static and one moving vane. The capacitors C2 and C3 are chosen so that they decouple r.f. but not a.f. The meter can be a surplus type as its calibration is unimportant and the f.s.d. need not be exactly $500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$.

There are 5 positions selected by the switch SWI (one position remaining unused):

1. 170 V are supplied to the oscillator by the stabilised power supply enabling v.h.f. coils to oscillate.
2. This is identical to position 1 except that the neon modulator is in operation.
3. 65 V are supplied to the oscillator due to R4. The power of the oscillator is necessarily reduced because the grid current on the lower ranges exceeds $500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ with the switch in position 1. This position is normally used with all non-v.h.f. coils.
4. This is the same as position 3 except that the neon modulator is switched on.
5. The supply is disconnected allowing the oscillator section to be used as a field strength meter.

The output socket enables a.f. modulations to be heard by connecting to an amplifier-the transistor one of Fig. 6 is suitable. With SWI in position 1 or 3 , beats with a transmitter can be heard whilst if the switch is in position 5 , the oscillator section acts as a receiver (as in a crystal set). The insertion of a jack plug disconnects the meter.

fig. 4: The basic circuit used.

## The Stabilised Power Supply and Modulator

The double-triode V2 performs both these functions. The stabiliser works as follows: The cathode of V2b is held at 65 V by N1 and R9, which prevents neon starvation. If the output voltage suddenly decreases, this drop is passed on to the grid of V2b by the neons N2 and N3. The anode voltage of V2b is thereby increased, and by the cathode follower action of V2b so is the cathode voltage of V2a, partially counteracting the original change.

A stabiliser normally smoothes out a.c. ripples as well as d.c., but due to the filter (consisting of R6 and C5), a.c. voltages are not fed back. An a.f. signal injected at the grid of V2b is amplified and passed on at low impedance to the oscillator section. The internal modulator consists of N4, C9, and R13 forming a sawtooth generator. If C 9 is increased the generator pitch decreases.
The neon is switched by SWIb, which shorts to earth its supply. R12 prevents sparking in the switch when C8 discharges. The oscillator pitch changes slightly with


Fig. 6: A simple transistor amplifier suitable for use with the G.D.O.

## components list

## Resistors:

| R1 | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R9 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R2 | $6.8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R10 | $270 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R3 | $68 \mathrm{k} \Omega 1$ Watt | R11 | $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $15 \mathrm{k} \Omega 1$ Watt | R12 | $2.2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R5 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R13 | $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R6 | $330 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R14 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R7 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R15 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega 1$ Watt |
| R8 | $470 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R16 | $180 \Omega$ |

## Capacitors:

C1 100 pF ceramic 500 V
C2 2200pF ceramic 500V
C3 1000pF ceramic 500 V
C4 $\quad 100 \mathrm{pF}$ ceramic 500 V
C5 $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 250 \mathrm{~V}$
C6 $\quad 32 \mu \mathrm{~F} 64 \mathrm{~V}$ electrolytic
C7 $\quad 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 250 \mathrm{~V}$
C8 $\quad 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 250 \mathrm{~V}$
C9 2000pF 250 V
C10 $32 \mu \mathrm{~F} 350 \mathrm{~V}$ electrolytic
C11 $32 \mu \mathrm{~F} 350 \mathrm{~V}$ electrolytic
C12 4700pF500V
VC1 $180+180 \mathrm{pF}$ (see text)
VC2 5pF max. (see text)
TC1 $3-30 \mathrm{pF}$ beehive
TC2 $3-30 \mathrm{pF}$ beehive

## Transformer:

T1 Mains output 200 or 250 V 20 mA and $6.3 \mathrm{~V} \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~A}$

## Rectifier:

D1 Silicon rectifier 800 p.i.v. 500 mA ( BY 100 )

## Valves and Neons:

V1 Acorn type 955
V2 PCC84 (see text)
N1-4 Radiospares type neons

## Sockets:

S1 All-dry battery socket (see text)
J1 $2 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. jack
J2 2.5 mm . jack

## Switches:

SW1 2p. 6 w . wavechange
SW2 Mains toggle s.p.

## Meter:

M1 $0-500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ (see text)

## Miscellaneous:

Aluminium for case; B9A valveholder; Veroboard; knobs; perforated zinc; Perspex; plywood; handle: wire etc.

Fig. 5: The complete circuit of the Grid Dip Oscillator. The coils are plugged into S1.
stabiliser output variations, thus providing an audible indication of the stabilisation efficiency. R8 and C8 filter out any negative feedback of the modulation signal.

The input socket can be used for modulating the oscillator with an external signal. This must not exceed 4 V r.m.s. or severe distortion results. It is best used when SWI is in position 1 or 3.

The stabiliser valve used by the author is a PCC84 whose performance is quite satisfactory with 6.3 V heater although it is normally rated at 7 V . An ECC84 would be better but valves such as ECC81 and ECC82 were found unsuitable because the voltage dropped across them at 8 mA anode current prevented adequate stabilisation.


The transistor amplifier can be easily built into a small plastic box.
The mains transformer must be capable of supplying 6.3 V at $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~A}$ and 200 or 250 V at 20 mA . 250 V is preferred for the h.t. but the author found 200 V quite satisfactory. The transformer must be small to fit into the case. A silicon rectifier with a p.i.v. of 800 V is used for h.t. rectification because of its small size and efficiency. The double capacitor (C10 and CI1) should have a working voltage of 350 V because surges reach at least 300 V when switching on. The maximum diameter of this component in the plan is one inch. C12 prevents r.f. currents being transmitted along the mains, and should have an a.c. rating of at least 250 V .

## Constructional details

The two pieces of $18 \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{w} . \mathrm{g}$. aluminium $9 \times 6 \frac{1}{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{in}$. are drilled and bent as in Fig. 7. The meter cut-out and VCl mounting holes must suit the components to hand. Ventilation is important for a G.D.O. and thus a




Fig. 7: Details of the aluminium case.
matrix of $\frac{3}{32} \mathrm{in}$. holes is drilled in the sides as well as fitting perforated zinc to the underneath. A handle is fitted to one side as shown and serves for easy manipulation.

Three eighths inch plywood is used for the ends to fasten the aluminium and must be shaped to produce a good fit. One end is drilled for the mains transformer and the mains lead-in cable, and the other end takes the coil socket (S1). "All-dry" battery plugs are ideal but any plug and socket system with 3 connections will suffice.

The construction of the pointer for VC1 is shown in Fig. 8. For the dial a circle 4 in . in diameter is cut out of thick white card and stuck on to the aluminium as shown in Fig. 7. If the mounting screws of VCl are large, either a double thickness of card is used or the Perspex pointer cut away.


Line scratched on under side and inked

## Fig. 8: The Perspex pointer.

The Veroboard for the modulator and stabilised power supply is shown in Fig. 9a, this avoids much wiring up in confined spaces. First the Veroboard should be cut to the required shape, the hole for the valve drilled and then the copper strips broken as in Fig. 9b. The components can now be wired-many have to be on end. The double capacitor ( C 10 and C11) should preferably be wire-ended but a can or prong type can be accommodated by drilling holes for its terminals and soldering each to a strip. The silicon rectifier's leads should be held with pliers during soldering.


Fig. 9: The modulator and stabilised power supply are constructed on Veroboard; (a) shows the positioning of the components and (b) the underside wiring and copper strip interruptions

The oscillator section cannot be wired on Veroboard as all signal leads must be short for v.h.f. oscillation. The acorn is supported by its wiring and situated close to the ventilation holes. In Fig. 10 the switch and acorn are rotated through $90^{\circ}$ for clarity. A word of advice when soldering the acorn-remove the soldering iron as quickly as possible for otherwise the short leads will conduct heat to the glass and break it.


Fig. 10: The wiring of the Oscillator section.
When the separate sections are wired the connections are completed between the sections and $\mathrm{T} 1, \mathrm{~J}, \mathrm{~J} 2$ etc. At this stage all wiring should be carefully checked against the full circuit diagram of Fig. 5.
The instrument is now ready for switching on and carrying out the following tests:

1. Turn SWI to position 5 and connect a voltmeter across C10. Switch on and the voltmeter should immediately rise to about 280 V for a 200 V winding and 350 V for a 250 V winding. If the voltmeter reads very different switch off at once and check the power supply wiring.
2. With SW1 still in position 5 measure the cathode voltage of V2a, this should be about 165 V . If this is not observed a fault in the stabiliser is suspected.
3. Move the voltmeter to the anode of the acornthe reading obtained should be approx.:

Positions 1 and 2: 75V;
Positions 3 and 4: 30V;
Position 5:0V.
4. Measure the cathode voltage of V2a as the switch is moved through its positions-the variations in meter reading provide an indication of the stabilising action.

The instrument probably works and it is now necessary to wind the coils.

## Winding the coils

The author's method of coil construction is shown in Fig. 11. A trial coil of about 25 turns (not centretapped) is wound using 28 s.w.g. enamelled copper wire which should tune the G.D.O. in the $5-20 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ region. The coil is inserted into S 1 and with SWI in position 3 the meter should read about two-thirds of f.s.d. The multiplication factor ( $=$ maximum frequency + minimum frequency) of this range must be found. The number of coils and the calibration accuracy depend on this factor, and the author found 2.5 reasonable. There are two methods of finding its value, (a) using a communications receiver with a short aerial;

SWI should be in position 4 ; (b) using an r.f. generator very loosely coupled to the coil.
SW1 should be in position 3 and the transistor amplifier of Fig. 6 used to listen to the beats. The frequency of the extremities can be found and TC1 and TC2 adjusted until the factor is $2 \cdot 5$. Beware of tuning to harmonics of the G.D.O.
For winding the other coils the easiest method is to use an r.f. generator (or another G.D.O.) and listen to the beats. Trial and error methods are used to adjust the number of turns on each coil-enabling the use of various wire gauges and formers.
For winding coils of lower frequency, the r.f. generator is left tuned to the lowest frequency of the range above. The number of turns on the new coil is then increased until the new range just overlaps the old. The same procedure is continued until the lowest required frequency is reached. The oscillator amplitude decreases as about $1 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ is reached, indicating that centre-tapped coils are needed for lower frequencies. For ranges less than about $600 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ use coil formers fitted with ferrite cores and to minimise the selfcapacitance of the coils below about $400 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ use d.c.c. wire.


Fig. 11: The Author's method of coil construction.
When winding coils of higher frequency the r.f. generator is left tuned to the highest frequency of the range below and turns removed from the new coil until the new range just overlaps the old. Thicker enamelled wire should be used for v.h.f. coils and the last range is a short-circuit at the pins of the plug. When the meter reading is less than a third of f.s.d. over the complete spread of $\mathrm{VC1}, \mathrm{SW1}$ is turned to position 1 . On the last range oscillation will probably not be sustained at the low frequency end of VCI.
A very similar method (but more tedious) utilises a communications receiver for the coils up to about $30 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ and a v.h.f. receiver for the higher ranges. In this case the output from the G.D.O. should be modulated (SWI in position 4 for the low ranges and position 2 for the highest ranges). Most communications receivers tune from about $1 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ to $30 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, and so below $1 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ harmonics must be tuned. A method of finding the fundamental accurately is to find out roughly the difference between two successive harmonics, and then divide the frequency of one by a whole number giving a result near the rough difference.
Above $30 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ a v.h.f. receiver must be used-the frequencies that a v.h.f. set can pick up (as harmonics if necessary) are: $27 \cdot 3-36 \cdot 7,44-55.88-110 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$. Unfor
tunately these bands do not comprise a continuous scale, but are sufficient for winding the coils as an exact amount of overlap is not important. The coils are now wound with adhesive tape to keep the windings in position.


Interior view of the completed G.D.O
Six evenly spaced circles are inked on the 4 in . diameter piece of thick card and each semicircle is used to calibrate a range. The outer circles allow for more accurate calibration and the reader should decide the layout of the dial. If an r.f. signal generator is available, the calibration is straightforward as harmonics do not have to be used (SWI should be in position 1 or 3 ). Mark in pencil along edges " $C$ " of the pointer frequencies not closer than $\frac{1}{4}-\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. apart on the required semicircle and subdivide these when the scale is completed in indian ink.

In the absence of a signal generator, a communications receiver may be used to calibrate up to the limit of the receiver (SWl should be in position 4). Above this a few bands may be calibrated by means of a v.h.f. set (SW1 in position 2). Luckily, due to the very small
self-capacitance of the coils above about $15 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$, these scales are proportional, thus to complete the scales the remaining calibration marks can be made by calculation.

Having finished the scales in ink, the dial is covered with adhesive transparent plastic to protect it.

## Uses

Measuring Inductance: The coil ( L ) is placed in parallel with a known capacitor (C) and the resonant frequency ( $f_{1}$ ) found with the G.D.O. If the coil has only a few turns, the formula $f_{1}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{ } L C}$ can be used. If the coil's self-capacitance is large the resonant frequency ( $f_{2}$ ) is found without C connected. The two equations obtained are:

$$
f_{1}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{ }\left(C+C_{x}\right)} \quad \text { and } f_{2}=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{L C} x}
$$

where $C_{x}$ is the self-capacitance of the coils. Eliminating first $C_{x}$ and then $L$ gives:

$$
\mathrm{L}=\frac{\frac{1}{\mathrm{f}_{1}{ }^{2}}-\frac{1}{\mathrm{f}_{2}{ }^{2}}}{4 \pi^{2}}
$$

$$
\text { and } C_{x}=\frac{C}{\frac{\mathrm{f}_{2}{ }^{2}}{\mathrm{f}_{1}{ }^{2}}-1}
$$

Measuring low capacitance: The G.D.O. is adjusted to the resonant frequency of a coil in parallel with a variable condenser (vanes closed). The unknown capacitor is connected also in parallel with the coil, and the variable condenser is turned until the circuit again resonates with the G.D.O. The scale of the condenser can be calibrated directly in pF .

Alignment of receivers: This can be effected by the same method as used with rif. generators-remember to couple the G.D.O. loosely to the receiver especially when the front end is being tested.

## F.M. TUNER

-continued from page 753
easier to wind the coils after mounting the formers rather than before.

The aerial coupling transformer T1 is made on a Radiospares type A dust iron core. Primary and secondary are wound together (bifilar wound) to sit tightly in
the threaded groove. It is mounted by passing a piece of stout wire through the hexagonal centre hole.

The windings of Tl can be cemented with polystyrene or balsa cement immediately after winding, as also can L5. L3 and L4 should not be cemented until the final tuning has been completed.

Coil details are shown in Fig. 6.

Wiring and alignment instructions next month.
Fig. 6: Coil details.

$5+5$ turns, 32s.w.g. enamelled, bifilar wound in groove of RS type A core.
$3 \frac{1}{4}$ turns, 22s.w.g. tinned copper, spaced approx. diameter of wire
$2 \frac{3}{4}$ turns, 22 s.w.g. tinned copper, spaced approx. diam. of wire.

8 turns, 26s.w.g. enamelled, close wound $\frac{1}{8}$ in. diameter. self-supporting.

## Avoid 'em Mate!

Congratulations on your interesting "Audio Supplement" part one of which was published in the October 1968 Practical Wireless.

In the article you, quite correctly, caution readers on the use of loudness controls. I would like to go one step further if ! 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. -lain Smith (Warwick shire).

## Station 20Y

When I came across these photographs, long since thought lost during moving recently, it occurred to me that some of your readers might be interested to see a 1922 amateur "Ham" station, 20Y, which opera-
ted on 1,000 metres, and wavelengths up to 180 metres at that time and 440 metres instead of 1,000 metres shortly afterwards.
Station " 20 Y " was my own and was authorised by the GPO. It was also designed and built entirely by me, though some of the components were obtained from a store in Lisle Street. I had a small workshop including a $3 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. lathe, in which many of the components were fabricated


The front panel of the transmitter-receiver Internal view showing the $3 \frac{1}{2}$ " coil formers


The top photo shows the trans-mitter-receiver panel with the receiver on the left, using V 24 valves and an $R$ valve for reception.
The internal view shows the inductances, all wound with Litz wire on $3 \frac{1}{2}$ in. ebonite formers. The spindle of the variometer is visible between the top windings, all home made.

1 forget the dimensions, but I think they were about $22 \times 18 \times 8 \mathrm{in}$. and the panel was $\frac{8}{8} \mathrm{in}$. matt ebonite.
The aerial was a twin inverted $L$ spaced 5 ft ., 35 ft . high and 60 ft . top. Radius of operation was about 130 miles with an aerial current of approx. 0.5 mp .
1 shall be glad to answer questions and supplement the above data if desired. The station became 2JL India in 1924-8.
You may be interested to learn that I am now 77 and since I have retired I have kept my hand in with transistor sets and equipment.E. J. Hobbs ( 72 Eastbrook Road, London, S.E.3).

## Note from a SWL

I agree with J. Bennett of Nuneaton as I also enjoy listening to the Amateurs and by listening one can learn a few things from them. In reference to the Beginners' Licence I think it is a good idea. I think that some of the Class "A" could do with starting all over again, some of them do tend to use their rigs as telephones and sometimes keep the air cluttered up with lots of nonsense. I listen to the Amateurs on all bands and at present have been picking up the Americans on the $27 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ band and have enjoyed every minute of it. I have also picked up an American Police Radio Station on $27.3 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{s}$ "A" at 1700 hrs. GMT every night for a week. I get some real DX at times on the 15 and 10 metres. I own a CR-100/5 with a Codar PR 30 preselector. I use a 75 ft . "L" type aerial, also a 66 ft . indoor, diamond shape and sometimes I use a TV aerial. I have 56 countries and 21 zones and have over 500 QSLs altogether. I listen to everything there is on the air and think it is a grand hobby.-A. Gavin (Cheshire).

## Solid State

In answer to Mr. Tomlinson's enquiry about "Solid State", I would like to explain what this actually does mean.
It is a term first evolved by Pye and an American concern for the Achoic Box $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$ system, since then it has been applied to more equipment than it should have been.

When electrons flow in conventional equipment usually there is nothing to impede this flow, as in a valve there is a vacuum, or in the case of a transformer they travel between the poles in almost free air, so of course some of them are lost on the way, but in semiconductors the electrons travel through solid matter as in transistors, diodes etc., and an absence of valves or transformers, tuning gangs etc., can identify a piece of equipment as solid state. In other words the electrons pass through solid material throughout the circuit with no "gaps" for them to jump across, hence solid state. However since some equipments have mains transformers they cannot be truthfully referred to as Solid State.-Michael Davison (Sunderland).

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
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| 384 | 5／9 | $30 \mathrm{Cl} \quad 8 / 9$ | EAF42 $8 / 8$ | EY51 7／－ | PL84 6／3 | ［F41 | $9 / 9$ |
| 3 V 4 | 5／9 | $30 \mathrm{Cl} 513 /-$ | Eb91 2／3 | EY8 ${ }^{3} 613$ | P15300 12／－ | ＇F80 | 7－ |
| 3U44： | 4／6 | $30 \mathrm{C} 17 \quad 12 / 6$ | EBC33 7／8 | EZ40 7／6 | PLā04 12／6 | C F85 | $8 / 9$ |
| 5Y36T | 5／8 | 30C18 91－ | EBC41 8／3 | EZ41 7／8 | PL508 15／－ | ［＇F89 | 6／8 |
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| （AM） | $3 / 6$ | 301.1 6／－ | ECC82 4／9 | KTf1 8／8 | PY32 10／－ | ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{M} 84$ | $7 / 6$ |
| 6.4 Q5 | $4 / 8$ | $30 \mathrm{L15} 14 /$－ | ECC83 7／－ | KT66 18j－ | PY33 101－ | CY41 | ${ }^{7} 10$ |
| ${ }_{6}{ }^{\text {ATti }}$ | 4／－ | $30 \mathrm{L17} 13 /-$ | ECC84 5／8 | ME140015／－ | PY80 $5 / 3$ | CY85 | $5 / 8$ |
| 6aUt | $4 / 9$ | $30 \mathrm{P} 412 \%$ | ECC85 5／－ | N78 14／9 | PY81 5／3 | VP4B | 10／8 |
| 6BAF | 4／6 | $30 \mathrm{Pl} 1211 / 9$ | EC080412／6 | PABC80 $7 /-$ | PY8． $51-$ | VP13： | 21／－ |
| ${ }^{63}$ | $4 / 3$ | $30 \mathrm{P}^{19} 19$ 12－ | ECF80 7／－ | PC86 9／6 | PY83 $5 / 9$ | 277 | $3 / 6$ |
| 6 BJ 6 | 71 | 30 Pl 1 12／6 | ECF89 6／8 | PC88 9／6 | 1＇Y88 6／3 | Transis |  |
| ¢BW6 | 13／－ | 30P1．13 14／6 | ECH35 6／－ | PC96 8／6 | PYR00 6／9 | AC107 | 3／6 |
|  | $2 / 9$ | 30 PL 1415 j － | ECH42 10／6 | PC97 $8 / 6$ | PY801 $6 / 9$ | AC127 | $2 /-$ |
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| 6 F 14 | 91－ | 35 W 4 4／6 | ECH84 6／9 | PCU84 6／－ | $\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{R} 20 & 12 / 6\end{array}$ | AF102 | 18j－ |
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## POST

THIS

## Silent Mal-functions

Judging from correspondence in Practical Wireless October and December issues there must be a fair number of individuals busily making transistor projects that, when finished, are capable of a prolonged and unbroken magnificent silence, switched on or not. The operators obviously are not!

This is quite some achievement nevertheless, but not appreciated by Messrs. Trowbridge and Smith, who though deeply involved in solid state, frustration and/or "p type" invective for allcomers, appear to now have withdrawn from the semiconductor scene.

Both of these gentlemen have knowledge of construction of valve gear so one cannot attribute their non-success to faulty soldering or the trap of using much utilised components, one of which has finally given up the ghost! The root cause must be something much deeper. Perhaps they were frightened at sometime, maybe in a dream, by some monstrous IGFET or a creepy crawly MOST.

The switchover from valves to transistors does involve acquiring a new approach-a different "feel". The miniature components and low power used require more "finesse", more precise handling. In fact our critics may say, a "Lilliputian mentality". To be more serious, a factor to be contended with is that the transistors generally available in the home constructors market vary somewhat in performance under the same conditions. The experimenter must be prepared to substitute several of the same type for comparative results, and to vary the value of associated resistors for best performance-sometimes for any performance at all!

This could be Mr. D. Smith's problem with his "Reflex Front End Unit" where the reported motor-boating may possibly be cured by a higher value of resistor between the base coupling winding and the negative supply line. Alternatively, any deviation from the precise layout, coil windings or type of chokes would more than likely cause oscillation of this type. An approximate hook-up will not do for this type of circuit. The other possibility is an unsuitable impedance at the amplifier input. A
suitable transistor amplifier would present as input a 5 to $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ pot as volume control, e.g. the Pyramid Series Amplifier in September '68 Practical Wireless. Mr. Hamafords 3in. diam. coil and OA81 would in most localities bring in exactly what the BBC lays on for the bulk of the populated areas, i.e. "at least two powerful local programmes". But something a little more sophisticated is required to unravel one from the other! He at least has the satisfaction of knowing that his apparatus probably worked well, within its inherent limitations.

Personally, as a past disciple of the Fleming school of thought indulging in the "gaseous state". I one day took a long cool look at the surrounding scene and decided that thermionics are out and the solid state of semiconductors are with it. Out went the bottles and in came the nutty slack. I have never regretted the day.

Courage friends, perseverance can bring great reward-on the whole it's cheaper too!-V. S. Evans (Wigan, Lancs.).

## Thumping good cure

I read with interest the causes and cures for the "audio thump". It would seem that several readers

have found that the cause is the output d.c. blocking capacitor charging through the loudspeaker.

I feel, however, that there may be another cause in some cases. I have an amplifier based on an RCA design, which uses a centre-tapped supply, thus eliminating the need for the output capacitor (see diagram). With this circuit the "thump" could not be caused in the manner
described by several readers.
My own explanation (and I am not sure about this) is as follows: This amplifier is such that it will operate (and surprisingly well) on a much reduced supply voltage. There is hardly any noticeable reduction in output when operated at one-sixth the nominal supply voltage. When turned on the supply very quickly reaches the $\frac{1}{6}$ Vo mark and the amplifier becomes capable of operating, and "sees" the rapidly increasing supply voltage as a signal, which is amplified as the "thump". The fact that these directcoupled amplifiers have excellent low-frequency response probably makes the matter worse.

How to cure this is another problem. I have managed to reduce but not eliminate the "thump" by inserting low value resistors ( $10 \Omega$ ) in the power supply. This is not very satisfactory for this particular amplifier as it is a rather high power one, requiring 2 amps at 80 V for full output so that there is a large voltage drop across the resistors.

It could be, then, that in Mr. Pinder's amplifier the problem is, in fact, caused by the smoothing capacitors.-A. G. Wood (Benoni, South Africa).

## Current Conventions

I feel I must enlighten H . C. Loxley (November) on the conventions of current flow and the fact of electron travel. Current is "conventionally" considered to flow from a positive to a negative terminal although electrons are "known" to travel from negative to positive. If this convention is held I fail to see any ambiguity in the labelling of the polarity of any components in a given circuit.

In his example Mr. Loxley has delved into the centre of the circuit and thrashed his way out giving rise to his confusion. In the example given; the h.t. line must be labelled positive, then the lower end of the Load Resistor will be labelled negative by virtue of the volt drop across it. If this convention is applied throughout the circuit I fail to see any confusion.

In conclusion I would like to remind Mr. Loxley that his "old positive to negative current flow" will still persist for some time to come.-W. J. Murphy (N. Ireland).


input impedance $\Omega$ Hfe $\times$ Re
Fig. 1: A conventional emitter-follower and (a) a compound version with a higher input impedance.


The use of this network reduces the shunting effect of the base-bias resistors

Fig. 2. A modification to Fig. 1a which reduces the shunting of the bias resistors


Fig. 3: The final circuit of the probe, using an f.e.t. in the first stage.

1HIS probe was designed to be simple, light, have a linear input/output transfer characteristic, and at the same time present a very high input impedance. Its value can be realised when one considers that a 3 ft . length of coaxial cable has a capacitance of about 60 pF ; if this is used as an input lead to an a.c. millivolt meter of high input impedance, a shunting effect will be imposed and the apparent input impedance lowered. This will be more noticeable at high frequency.

At $20 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$, a 3 ft . length of coaxial lead has a reactance of

$$
\frac{1}{2 \pi \mathrm{FC}}=\frac{1 \cdot 10^{12}}{2 \pi \cdot 20 \cdot 10^{5} .60} \bumpeq 132 \mathrm{k} \Omega
$$

so at this frequency, the apparent input impedance is only $132 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ even though the test meter may have an input impedance in the order of $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$. A probe with a high input impedance and low output impedance would therefore be highly desirable.

Bipolar transistors offer very high gain, good high frequency characteristics, but have the inherent disadvantage (in this case) that they are current operated, and therefore low impedance devices. There are ways of improving the situation, however, which will be described.

A circuit such as shown in Fig. I would have an input impedance of approximately $h_{\mathrm{fe}} R_{\mathrm{e}}$, provided that there are no other shunting effects to be considered. Thus, $R_{e}$ and $H_{\mathrm{fe}}$ should be as large as possible. If $R_{\mathrm{e}}$ is to be very large, a high line voltage will be needed, and this presents transistor breakdown problems. The use of compound emitter follower techniques, as in Fig. 1a, allows smaller $R_{\mathrm{e}}$ values to be used, since the emitter current of the first transistor is the base current of the second. This gives the input impedance as $h_{\mathrm{fe}_{1}} h_{\mathrm{f} \mathrm{e}_{2}} R_{\mathrm{e}}$.

These types of circuit require that the gain of transistor 1 be maintained down to very low values of collector current, hence special devices are frequently quoted.

Shunting effects of base-bias resistors may be reduced by the use of networks such as in Fig. 2, but the upper limit on the input impedance is about IM $\Omega$ by this meàns.

Another familiar technique is the use of bootstrapping, which employs a capacitor to induce a phase-shift, and provide negative feedback to obtain a high input impedance. Bootstrapping lowers the apparent input capacitance of the circuit, but owing to the small but important presence of the storage or

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| 7 d. |, 800,8,200,10,$000 \mathrm{p}, 1,5 \mathrm{~d} .15000,2,22,00 \mathrm{pF}, 6 \mathrm{p}, 9 \mathrm{~d}$.

$7 \mathrm{~d} .6,800,8,200,10,000 \mathrm{pF}, 8 \mathrm{~d} .15,000,22,000 \mathrm{pF}, 9 \mathrm{~d}$.
$1 \%, 100 \mathrm{~V}$ (encapsulated), $100,120,150,180,220,270,330,390,470,500$, $560,680,820 \mathrm{pF}, 1 /-, 1,000,1,200,1,500,1,800,2,200,2,700,3,300,3,900 \mathrm{pF}$ $1 / 3.4 .700,5,000,5,600,6,800,8,200,10,000,12,000,15,000 \mathrm{pF}$. $1 / 6$ $18,000,22,000,27,000,33.000,39,000 \mathrm{pF}, 1 / 9.0 .047,5.000,0.056 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 /$ $0.068,0.082,0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 / 3.0 \cdot 12 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 / 9.0 \cdot 15,0 \cdot 18 \mu \mathrm{~F} .3 /-0 \cdot 22 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 4 /-0 \cdot 27$ $0 \cdot 33 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 5 /-.0 \cdot 39 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 5 / 9.0 \cdot 47.0 \cdot 5 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 6 / 3$.
JACK PLUGS (Screened): Heavily chromed: |in Standard: 2/9 each Side-entry: $3 / 3$ each.
Standard (Unscreened): $2 / 3$ each
JACK SOCKETS ( f in Plug): With chrome insert. $2 / 9$ each. Available with: Break/Break, Make/Break, Break/Make, Make/Make contacts. with: Break Break, Make/Break, Break/Make, Make/Make contacts.
POTENTIOMETERS (Carbon): Long life, low noise, 1 W at $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ POTENTIOMETERS (Carbon): Long life, low noise, $\ddagger W$ at $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
$\pm 20 \% \leqq \ddagger \mathrm{M}, \pm 0 \%<\ddagger \mathrm{M}$. Body dia.. bin. Spindle, $\operatorname{lin} \times 1 \mathrm{in} .2 / 3$ $\pm 20 \%$ each. Linear: $100,250.500$ ohms, etc.. per decade to 10 M . Logarithmic: 5 k . $10 \mathrm{k}, 25 \mathrm{k}$, etc., per decade to 5 M .
SKELETON PRE-SET POTENTIOMETERS (Carbon): Linear: 100, 250.500 ohms, etc., per decade to 5 M .

Miniature: 0.3 W at $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. $\pm 20 \% \leqq \ddagger \mathrm{M}, \pm 30 \%>\ddagger \mathrm{M}$. Horizontal $0.7 \mathrm{in} \times 0.4 \mathrm{in}$ P.C.M.) or Vertical ( $0.4 \mathrm{in} \times 0.2 \mathrm{in}$ P.C.M.) mounting. $1 /-$ each.
Submin. 0.1 W at $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. $\pm 20 \% \leqq 1 \mathrm{M} . \pm 30 \%>1 \mathrm{M}$. Horizontal 0.4 in $0 \cdot 2 \mathrm{in}$ P.C.M.) or Vertical ( $0.2 \mathrm{in} \times 0$ lin P.C.M.) mounting. 10 d each RESISTORS (Carbon film), very low noise. Range: $5 \%, 4.7 \Omega$ to $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (E24 Series): $10 \% .10 \Omega$ to 10 MS 2 (E12 Series).
 $99,14 \mathrm{~d}), 100$ off per value $13 / 9$. $1 \mathrm{~W}(10 \%$ ), 2 d (over $99,11 \mathrm{~d})$, 100 off per value $13 / 9$. IW ( $5 \%$ ), $2 \downarrow \mathrm{~d}$ (over $99,2 \mathrm{~d}$ ) 100 off per value $15 / 6$.
SEMICONDUCTORS: OA 5, OA $81,1 / 9$, OC44, OC45, OC71, OC81. OC81D, OC82D, 2/, OC70. OC72, 2/3. AC107, OC75, OC170. OC171 2/6. AF115, AFI16. AF117, ACY19, ACY21, 3/3. OC $140.4 / 3$. OC200. $5 /-$. OC1 39, 5/3. OC $25,7 /-$ OC35, 8/-. OC23, OC $28,8 / 3$.
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$0 \cdot 1 \sin$ Matrix: 3 in $\times 2$ in. $3 / 3$. $5 \frac{1}{2}$ in $\times 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}, 3 / 11$. 3 ifin $\times 3 \frac{14}{} \mathrm{in}, 3 / \mathrm{T}$ 5 in $\times 3$ in. $5 / 6$.
$0 \cdot 1$ Matrix: 3 îin $\times 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}, 4 /-.5 \mathrm{in} \times 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in} .4 / 6.3$ in $\times 3$ in, $4 / 6.5 \mathrm{in} \times 3$ in 5/3.
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transit time of the circuit, this is not to be attempted at high frequency, as the phase of the feedback signal will lag on that of the input signal, and the bootstrap effect will no longer operate.

There is a much more attractive solution, however, of using an f.e.t. in the first stage. This device exhibits a very high input impedance at low frequencies and closely resembles, in fact, the characteristics of a valve. A commonly available type is the 2 N 3819 , which is also reasonably cheap to buy.

As will be seen from the circuit, Fig. 3, the gate of the f.e.t. is biased from the source resistor chain, in order to obtain a degree of a.c. feedback. This has the effect of raising the input capacitance, while still maintaining the thermal stability of the circuit.

The f.e.t is directly coupled into a high-gain transistor, type 2N2926 (green). The gain spread here is 250-500, and devices of lower gain than this are not recommended. Bootstrapping is applied from Tr 2 emitter to Tr 1 source. This lowers the total gain, but since the probe is not intended for use above $200 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$, there is no problem.

Output is taken from Tr 2 emitter to ensure a low output impedance. Lo es in the output cal zare thus minimised.
two-core screened cable is used to connect the un:.. to the main equipment, for an earth, power supply and signal line are required.

Decoupling is achieved in the main unit, where the supply voltage originates. Signal decoupling is also in the main unit. Care should be taken that the resistance terminating the cable is not too low, so the attenuator system shown should be adopted.

The resistors R4 and R2 should be chosen so that the drain current of the f.e.t. is around $700 \mu \mathrm{~A}$. The values quoted are for the particular 2 N 3819 used, but R 2 may vary anywhere between $1.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. The factor which determines that value of R2 is $I_{\mathrm{dss}}$, which is easily measured by the circuit Fig. 4. The value of $I_{\mathrm{dss}}$ for the device used was about 2.8 mA .

The way to find out the values required is to switch on and try various values in for R2, until $700 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ drain current though the 2 N 3819 is attained.

The total current used is about 3.8 mA , and is almost independent of voltage applied, though the circuit may start to limit signals of large amplitude if less than 15 V is used. The circuit works best on about 30 V , and will then accept up to about 2 V of signal without undue non-linearity or distortion. It is important that the input capacitor Cl is a low leakage type of fairly


Fig. 4: The method of measuring /dss of an f.e.t.


The probe, case and printed circuit board with socket attached (above). The lower pair of diagrams show the construction of the board and probe tip.

high voltage working. Of course, the size limits the maximum value which can be used.

## CONSTRUCTION

In view of the size, some ingenuity has to be exercised in the construction of this probe, and it is realised that some of the components described here may not be available to constructors. However, a few indications will be given.

The tube in which this was made originally held $\frac{1}{8}$ in. drills made by the International Tool Company (INTAL), and was obtained from a local hardware shop. This tube is just the right diameter to fit a five-pin DIN plug in the open end. A hole is drilled in the other end, and the barrel of an old jack plug screwed in and held with a nut from a volume control, filed down to a circular shape from its original hexagonal form. A piece of brass rod is fitted into the hole in the barrel, and cut to length, then cemented with Araldite. (A clamp is used to hold the rod while the cement sets.)

The end of the rod inside the casing of the probe is chamfered to facilitate location into the clip on the circuit board. This clip is a piece of bent phosphorbronze from a battery, held in place with a 10BA nut and bolt.

The circuit board is made conventionally, using


PART 2

IAST month we described the basic principles of semiconductor device operation, including how junction diodes and transistors work. This month we shall cover some of the less well-known but nevertheless important semiconductor devices now in use.

## LIGHT-EMITTING DIODES

If electrons crossing from an $n$ region over the junction of a diode into a $p$ region spend a long time in a heavily doped p region before reaching the metal contact to the semiconductor, the chances are that these electrons will encounter some holes. Now a hole is a gap into which an electron can fit providing that it loses some energy, and these electron-hole recombinations therefore lead to energy being emitted. If the semiconductor is transparent, this energy can be detected as infra-red radiation, and in some semiconductors the recombination energy is so high that the energy is visible as light. Suitable transparency and recombination energies are found in gallium arsenide (infra-red) and in gallium phosphide (visible light) and such diodes are now readily available.

## TUNNEL DIODES

The tunnel diode works on a principle not mentioned up to now. If a large number of electrons are gathered round a junction which is reverse biased, some appear on the other side even though the bias would appear to make this impossible. This process is called tunnelling and is explicable in terms of quantum mechanical theory. In a normal diode, conduction does not take place in the reverse direction and only takes place in the forward
direction when the forward voltage is about 0.3 V . In the tunnel diode both the p and n portions are very heavily doped so that with reverse bias some electrons from the $p$ region tunnel through to the n region, causing the diode to conduct. With forward bias applied electrons tunnel from $n$ to $p$ and the tunnel current reaches a maximum at about 0.15 V . Above this the tunnel current decreases and normal electron-hole flow takes over so that the junction ceases to act as a barrier; no barrier, no tunnelling. With suitable construction the tunnel current and the normal current can be separated so that there is a dip in the current between the two, as in the characteristic shown in Fig. 14. For a portion of


Fig. 14: Tunnel diode current-voltage characteristic.
this characteristic the current is decreasing as the voltage is increasing. This behaviour is the opposite to that of a resistor; it is called negative resistance and is used in all oscillator circuits. Tunnel diodes have been used as oscillators and as switches but have never achieved the great range of uses that was hoped for at one time.

## VARACTOR DIODES

Varactor diodes are diodes with a large junction area. In a reverse-biased junction we have the situation of a conductive $n$ region, a conductive $p$ region and a nonconducting region between. Any arrangement of two conductors with an insulator between is a capacitor, so the reverse-biased junction diode has an appreciable capacitance. As the reverse bias is increased the electrons and holes retreat farther from the junction. This is equivalent to separating the plates of a capacitor, so decreasing its capacitance. Varactors are used for voltage controlled tuning, for a.f.c., and for parametric amplification in which the capacitance of a tuned circuit is varied by a local oscillator signal to cause frequency changing and very great amplification.

## FIELD EFFECT TRANSISTORS

Field effect transistors make use of majority carriers only. Junction transistors depend for their action on carriers passing through the base or region in which they are in a minority. For example in an n-p-n transistor the carriers in the base region are electrons which are in a minority and liable to be trapped by holes. In a f.e.t. electron current carriers move through n-type material (or holes in p-type)

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ACH83
\end{tabular} $\begin{array}{ll}\text { ARTP1 } & 6 /- \\ \text { ATP4 } & 2 / 8 \\ \text { AZ31 } & 8 / 8\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{lr}\text { AZ31 } & 9 /- \\ \text { BD78 } & 40 /-\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { BD78 } & 40 /- \\ \text { BL63 } & 10 /-\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { B2134 } & 10 /- \\ \text { BT35 } & 55 j-\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { BT35 } & 55 j- \\ \text { BT45 } & 150 /-\end{array}$ BT83 35j－ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { CV102 } & 3 / \\ \text { CV103 } & 4 /-\end{array}$ CV315（mat－ ched pair） CV315（Sin－ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Cle）} & 50 /- \\ \text { CY31 } \\ & 7 / 6\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Cx31 } & 7 / 6 \\ \text { D41 } & 6 /- \\ \text { D7t } & 3 /-\end{array}$ DA100 DAF96 DD41 DET20

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DL94 $\begin{array}{ll}\text { DL96 } & 7 / 3 \\ \text { DLs10 } & 12 /-\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { DY86 } & 6 /- \\ \text { DY87 } & 6 / 6\end{array}$ E80F E88CC
E90CC E92CC $5 /$ E1800C 7／ E182CC $14 /-$
E1148 $\quad 2 / 6$ E2134

EA50 EA7B EABC80 $6 /-$ EAC91 3／－ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { EB91 } & 2 /- \\ \text { EBC33 } & 8 /-\end{array}$ | EBC41 | $9 / 8$ |
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| ERC81 | $5 / 9$ | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { EBC81 } & 5 / 9 \\ \text { EBF80 } & 6 / 9 \\ \text { ERF88 } & 8 / 8\end{array}$国 EC90

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 $\qquad$ $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ll}\text { 5Y3GT } & 5 / 6 \\ \text { 5Y3WGB } \\ \text { 5Y3WGTB } \\ & 15 /- \\ 5 Z 4 G & 9 /- \\ 6 A B 6 & 4 / 3 \\ 6 A C 7 & 3 /- \\ 6 A G 5 & 2 / 6 \\ 6 A G 7 & 6 /- \\ 6 A H 6 & 10 j- \\ 6 A J 7 & 2 /- \\ 6 A K 5 & 5 /- \\ \text { 6AK7 } & 6 /- \\ 6 A K 8 & 5 / 8 \\ \text { 6ALS } & 3 /- \\ \text { 6AL5W } & 7 /-\end{array}\right.$

| 6AM5 | $2 / 6$ |
| :--- | ---: |
| 6AM6 | $3 /-$ |
| 6AN5 | $20 /-$ |
| 6AX5 | $5 / 6$ |
| 6AX5 | $9 /-$ |
| 6AB6 | $6 /-$ |
| 6AS7G | $14 /-$ |
| 6AT6 | $4 / 6$ |
| 6AU6 | $5 / 9$ |
| 6AX4 | $8 /-$ |
| 6B4G | $15 /-$ |
| 6B7 | $5 / 8$ |
| 6B8G | $2 / 8$ |
| 6BA6 | $4 / 6$ |
| 6BA7 | $12 / 6$ |
| 6BE6 | $5 / 3$ |
| 6BJ6 | $8 / 6$ |


| - | OC35 | $10 /-$ | OC204 | $17 / 6$ | AF116 | $6 / 6$ | CRS $1 / 3010 /$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| OC36 | $12 / 6$ | OC200 | $17 / 6$ | AF124 | $7 / 6$ | CRS1／35 |  |

384

6F12\begin{tabular}{l|ll|l}
$4 /-$ \& $12 A V 6$ \& $5 / 6$ \& 78 <br>
$5 /-$ \& $12 A V 7$ \& $6 / B$ \& 80

$\begin{array}{cc}\text { 12AV6 } & 5 / 8 \\ \text { l2AV7 } & 6 / 6 \\ \text { 12AU7 } & 4 / 3 \\ \text { 12AT7WA } \\ & 5 / 6\end{array}$

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| $12 \mathrm{F1}$ | $17 /-$ | 357 A |
| 12 H 6 | $3 /-$ | 388 A |
| 12 J 7 GT | $8 / 6$ | 368 A |

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715 B
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$\begin{array}{ll}\text { SCR51 } & 12 / 6 \\ \text { BX645 } & 15 /-\end{array}$| 7 | 68 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 7 | 68 |
| $2 / 8$ | 68 |
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|  | 68 |

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1 mA$21^{\prime \prime}$
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2 round plug－in
5 mA2 round panel sealed$10-0-10 \mathrm{~mA}$$2^{\prime \prime}$ round clip fix panel or prol．
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10－0－10
2$2 \frac{1^{\prime \prime}}{2}$ round panel$50 \mathrm{~mA} \quad 2 \frac{3^{\prime \prime}}{4}$ square pane75 mA$21^{\prime \prime}$ plug－in100 mA$21^{\prime \prime}$ plug－in100 mA11＂round panel100 mA$2 \frac{1}{n}^{\prime \prime}$ round panel$\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { BB } \\ & 6 \mathrm{~B} \\ & 6\end{aligned}\right.$$29 / 41 f 1$ ．AERIALS each consisting of ten 3 ft ．$\frac{7}{6}$aerial with adaptor to fit the 7 in ．rod，insulated base，aerial with adaptor to fit the 7 in ．rod，insulated base，
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and so many of the difficulties of transistor operation are avoided. We have already seen that the reverse biasing of a junction causes the current carriers to back away from the junction. Imagine current passing (Fig. 15) through a thread or channel of n-type material surrounded by p-type material. If the p-type connection (the gate) is now reverse biased, electrons and holes will move away from the junction so that the area of n-type material still able to carry current is much less. The conductivity of the n-type material is thus being altered by the bias on the p-n junction and small changes in bias can cause large changes in conductivity if the $n$ channel is narrow. This type of f.e.t. is called a junction f.e.t.


Fig. 15: Principle of the junction-gate field effect transistor.
Another type of field effect transistor which has become more prominent recently is the m.o.s.f.e.t. In this type the $n$ channel is a thin film. Over this is deposited a film of insulator and over this in turn is laid a film of metal. Since there is no junction there can be no current flow from metal to the n film, but the voltage on the metal can affect conditions in the film to a great extent, causing the normal conduction of the $n$ film to be greatly reduced because of electrons becoming bound by the charge on the metal. This is described as a depletion-type m.o.s.f.e.t., a device in which conduction takes place normally at zero bias on the metal gate but in which conduction is reduced as the bias on the gate is increased positively. More common now


Fig. 16: Principle of the enhancement-mode insulated-gate field effect transistor (m.o.s.f.e.t.).
is the enhancement m.o.s.f.e.t. (Fig. 16) in which highly conductive $n$ regions are made close to each other in a block of $p$ material and an insulating film is deposited on top covering the gap, with a metal gate layer on top of that. With no bias on the gate this arrangement is almost nonconducting, but a positive bias on the gate attracts electrons in the p region to form a channel between the n regions thereby causing conductivity. Compared to the more usual types of transistors m.o.s.f.e.t.s have extremely high input resistance, their collector current is very much less dependent on the collector voltage and the feedback from collector to gate is negligible so that one m.o.s.f.e.t. can be coupled to another without interference between them.

## THYRISTORS

Thyristors are made with four layers forming three separate junctions (Fig. 17). When the p junction at one end is forward biased with respect to the n junction at the other, electrons and holes move away from the central junction so that there is no con-


Fig. 17: The thyristor is a four-layer device with three pn junctions.
ductivity. If a bias in the forward direction is now applied at the gate connection to one of the intermediate regions the central junction is made conducting so that current passes steadily. Once conducting, the junction cannot be made non-conducting again except by removing the forward bias across the device and starting again.

## UNIJUNCTION TRANSISTORS

A unijunction transistor consists of a piece of lightly doped $n$-type silicon to which two connections are made, one at each end: the silicon behaves as a resistor. Between these connections a junction to heavily doped p-type silicon is formed. The p-type region is known as the emitter and the two connections to the n-type region as base 1 and base 2. When current is passed between the base 1 and base 2 connections there will be a voltage between the two and the voltage at the emitter junction will depend on its position between the base contacts, just as the voltage of the tap of a potentiometer depends on its position. The emitter is usually connected so that this voltage at the emitter reverse biases the junction. When a voltage is applied to the emitter no current flows across the emitter junction, while it is reverse biased, but as the voltage
is raised the emitter eventually becomes forward biased and conducts. When this happens a large number of holes are transferred into the $n$ region between the emitter and the conducting base so that the resistance between junction and base is very low and a large current can pass. This current is limited only by external resistance and will flow until the voltage between emitter and conducting base (usually base 1 connection) reaches a value called the turn-off voltage, between 1 . and 2 V . Figure 18 shows an oscillator circuit using this


Fig. 18: Simple unijunction oscillator circuit.
principle. Capacitor C charges via R until conduction starts between the emitter and base 1 , then discharges until the voltage across R2 equals the voltage across $C$ less the turn-off voltage, then starts to charge again.

## FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

There is every indication that we are at the same stage in our understanding of solid state physics as we were with atomic physics forty years ago; there must be very much more to come.

Already there are signs that the idea of mobile electrons moving among vibrating nuclei is not sufficient to explain superconductivity, and that much remains to be discovered by studying this loss of resistance at low temperatures. Already a new device, the Josephson Junction, which is a sandwich of insulator between superconducting metals, looks like having a vast range of applications; so vast that a complete article would be required to describe them. Several recently announced semiconductor devices combine the effects of- electrical fields, light and sound waves in a crystal. For example the SALS (Solid-state Acoustic Light Scanner), invented in the Bell Laboratories where Shockley first announced the discovery of the transistor, uses a sound wave to generate light from a set of junctions which are reverse biased. This device can also be used the other way round, and the sound wave can be used as a scanner which produces pulses of voltage at each junction in turn according to the light falling on each junction.

## EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

Such new devices can be explained in terms of solid state theory, though in some cases they may lead to the theory being revised, but are totally incomprehensible to anyone knowing only ordinary school physics. It is for this reason that the elements of solid state physics should be taught now rather than waiting until the subject has moved on so far that catching up becomes almost impossible.

## THE AMATEUR BANDS

-continued from page 763
Mike Crawshaw (Ormskirk) informs that 8P6AZ operates as net controller in a West Indies Caribbean DX net. This is active on Tuesday evenings around 14,192 . Try from midnight on if you're keen. Mike has managed to swap his PCR3 and HAM-1 for a SR600 triple conversion s'het and a Sommerkamp FR-100-B. (Like I suddenly went green, man.). He feeds this lot with a 130 ft . wire at 25 ft . Heard whilst nonchalantly poodling round twenty-CP1AP, CTITZ, KC4USM, LA2PH/MM, OA2BH, OM2AG, PJØMM, PJ2CU, PY2NM, PY4AJD, PZ1AP, TI2BF, TU2BA, YV4UA, VO1AQ, VE1AGH, VE3BSJ, VE6ADY, VE7BQF, ZFIEP, 4A2YP, 6Y5DB, 8P6AH, 8P6AZ, 8P6CV.
J. Moxham (Glastonbury), Drake 2A, $5 R \mathrm{R}$ at 20 ft . plus ten metre GP. Ten-CR6LF, CR7JC, CX2CN, FM7WA, PAØMDG/P, PY3AHG, SVØWM, ZD8JL, ZS5OB, ZS6BAG. On twenty metres John raised-EA8ET, HM5BF, JA4OK, JA6AD, JA8NU, KL7MF, OA6OH, TI2IFR, VK2OQ, VK3AUK, VK4FID, VK6AQR, VR2EK, VS9FB, W6JY, ZEIATK, ZL4JI, ZL4BX, ZL6OJ, 9GIDG.

Please remember that the deadline for logs is such that they must reach me before the 20th of the month and, please slaves, in alphabetical order-Ta!

## A HIGH IMPEDANCE PROBE

—continued from page 778
shellac resist agent and ferric chloride etchant. A 6BA brass nut can be seen on one face, soldered to one of the earthy resistor leads. This is to hold the board inside the tube while the probe is in use, and also to provide an earth tag.

In conclusion, a method of measuring the input impedance of the circuit must be mentioned (see Fig. 5).


Fig. 5: Measuring the input impedance of the probe.
If a series $R$ is placed between a low impedance voltage source and the probe input, the output from the probe to the metering system will be reduced. The attenuation so produced is such that a 3 dB drop is observed when the value of $R$ is the same as that of the internal impedance.
This test is best performed at approximately $1 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ or lower, as capacitive and inductive effects will then be minimised.
It can thus be seen that this device could be a useful addition to the experimenter's test equipment.


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STATIONS in the. Maritime Provinces of Canada -Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick are the most likely North Americans to be logged by the newcomer to the m.w. band. During the winter months broadcasters in this area are often audible from midnight (GMT) onwards and many Europeans have closed down for the night by this hour leaving clear patches for the DXer. After Paris 2 (1070) has gone off, CBA in Sackville N.B. may be heard on the same frequency though it may not peak up till 0100. This station is owned by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and operates under the call "CBA Maritime". CHER (950) in Sydney N.S. is an easy one after midnight when Radio Intercominemal (953) is off. CBN (640) St. John's Nfid., another CBC station, is often strong at 0300 when QRM from 638 has subsided.

Other stations to look for are CJON (930) St. John's, CKCM (620) Grand Fialls and CJOX (710) Grand Banks. all in Newfoundland; CBH (860). CJCH (920). CHNS 1960) in Halifax N.S: CKBW (1000) Bridgewater N.S:: CBD (110) Saint John N.B.; CKEC (1320) New Glasgow N.S.: CKBC (1360) Bathurst N.B.

Anyone trying m.w. DXing for the first time should not be discouraged if North America is not logged at the first attempt. Fadeouts do occur on this path but they seldom last longer than a few days. When conditions are favourable the stations listed above should be audible up to 0300 when QRM from Eastern Europe starts to become troublesome.

Latin Americans are to be heard most nights after 0100 at this time of year. The following were extracted from the writer`s $\log$ for the period up to 0230: SRS (725) Surinam; CX16 (850) Radio Carle. Montevideo: PRA3 (860) Radio Mundial, Rio de Janeiro; LR3 (950) Radio Belgrano, Buenos Aires; XEOY (1000) Mexico City; YVRS (1020) Radio Marguarita, Venezuela-a new station: CX28 (1090) R. Imparcial, Montevideo; PRE3 (1180) R. Globo, Rio.

Senegal (764) is easy from 2230 till midnight every evening except Saturday when Sottons is late closing down. Conackry, Guinea, (1403) is also regular except on Saturdays. Radio Atlantico. Tenerife (620) closes down at 0100 along with a new Portuguese station on the same channel, with $R$. Allantico the stronger of the two. Tangiers (1233) has been heard at 0005. Further east Batra, Egypt (620) 0300 and Riadh, Saudi Arabia (647) 0110 have been strong.

Pyrgos Radio, a privately owned Greek station is back on the air again on $1434 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ and can be heard with local music and English announcements after the close down of $R$. Luxemburg (1439). Before it ceased broadcasting in 1966, Pyrgos had a weekly request programme for DXers. At the moment it closes down at 0300 with announcements in Greek, French and English. This station QSLs, the address is Pyrgos Radio, Ilias, Western Peloponnese, Greece. Athens 2 (1385) is on the air all night with news in French at 0130 and in English at 0200.

CHARLES MOLLOY

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# P.W. GUIDE TO Cox Pox <br> <br> PART 3 <br> <br> PART 3 <br> M.K.TITMAN, B.Sc.(Eng) 

INDUCTORS and transformers are used as energy storage and transfer devices in electronic circuits. They use magnetic fields as the storage medium, as capacitors utilise electric fields. In both inductors and transformers the primary function is to convert electrical energy into magnetic energy. The magnetic energy storage capability of an inductor is determined by its inductance, the unit for which is the Henry (H). Inductors are available having inductances of a few microhenrys ( $\mu \mathrm{H}$ or $10^{-6} \mathrm{H}$ ) to a few hundred henrys. The circuit symbol for an inductor (L) and transformer ( T ) is shown in Fig. 1.


Fig. 1: Circuit symbols. (a) Inductor. (b) Iransformer
Although transformers and inductors utilise conversion of electric to magnetic energy as their principle of operation, they are used for different circuit functions. The inductor has a single winding and purely stores energy, whilst the transformer has two windings. using magnetic flux to link the two windings and convert energy from one winding into electrical energy at the second winding. The inductor, therefore, is a two terminal device, and a transformer a four terminal device.


Fig. 2 (left): Magnetic field around a current carrying conductor.
Fig. 3 (right): If the conductor is wound as a coil the magnetic fields combine as shown.

Now all conductors which carry current are surrounded by magnetic fields as shown in Fig. 2. Thus all wires have the property of inductance, but in a single wire this inductance is very small $(\mu \mu \mathrm{H})$ and is therefore insignificant in most applications. If, however, the conductor is wound in a coil as shown in Fig. 3 the
magnetic fields combine together to give an increased inductance. If again the coil is surrounded by a magnetic material, then the magnetic flux immediately surrounding the coil is greatly increased, resulting in a corresponding increase in inductance. This property of magnetic material to attract the magnetic flux through the material rather than the surrounding air is called its relative permeability ( $\mu \mathrm{r}$ ). Steel has a relative permeability of 700 . Thus to increase the inductance, inductors and transformers are wound as coils and often surrounded by magnetic material to further increase the inductance.

We have seen that to increase the inductance the conductor is wound as a coil, but herein lies the difficulty of coil design, for this increases the conductor length and thereby the resistive losses. The coil size is determined by the size of wire and number of turns. Coil design therefore is always a compromise between size and performance.

Similarly the introduction of magnetic materials introduces losses. These fall into three categories known as leakage losses, eddy current losses, and hysteresis losses. Leakage losses are caused by flux leakage away from the coil. Eddy current and hysteresis losses are due to losses of energy when the magnetic field is varied by alternating currents. The eddy current loss is due to eddy currents being set up in the magnetic material, and hysteresis losses are due to incomplete magnetic changes in the material.

By careful design the leakage losses are minimised by ensuring an efficient magnetic circuit for the magnetic flux; eddy current losses are reduced by laminating the magnetic material in a large number of thin sheets insulated from each other to deprive the eddy currents of a conducting path; hysteresis losses are minimised be selecting magnetic materials with low hysteresis losses.

The construction of a high inductance coil is shown in Fig. 4. The coil is wound on a bobbin, and the iron laminations interleaved around the bobbin. A clamp


Fig. 4: Basic coil construction.

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It is now necessary to examine the exact function and action of inductors and transformers in circuits, for the multitude of varied constructions are all dependent on the circuit requirements.

An inductor is used to store and release magnetic energy but will only be effective when the current through it is changing, for when the current increases the impedance and voltage drop across the coil increase to oppose the increase in current. Hence the current through an inductance cannot change instantaneously. If the current decreases then the magnetic energy decreases and provides energy into the coil which opposes the reduction in current. A coil therefore has a high a.c. impedance whilst its d.c. resistance is low. Inductors are in consequence used as a.c. impedances in r.f. loads, smoothing circuits and tuned circuits. The reactive impedance of an inductor is given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{L}}=2 \pi f \mathrm{~L} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{L}$ is the reactive component of impedance in ohms. $f$ the frequency in $\mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ and L the inductance in Henrys, and $\pi$ is approximately $3 \cdot 14$.

The impedance $(Z)$ of a coil is given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{Z}=\imath \overline{\mathrm{R}^{2}+\mathrm{XL}^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $R$ is its d.c. resistance in ohms.
The reactance and therefore impedance increase directly with frequency. In consequence smaller inductances are required to have the same impedance effect at high frequencies. The inductance required to give h.t. smoothing at mains frequency is often $1-50 \mathrm{H}$ and the resulting coil is often $2 \times 3 \times 3 \mathrm{in}$. whilst at r.f. smoothing is achieved by a $100 \mu \mathrm{H}$ coil $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. long and tin. in diameter.

Transformers are also useful only in a.c. circuits since their purpose is to link two electrically isolated windings together by magnetic flux. A change of flux in the circuit is initiated by the input or primary winding voltage changing. The flux links with the output or secondary winding, and because it is changing induces a voltage across the secondary winding. The flux generated by the primary voltage change is given by equation 3 and the induced voltage by equation 4:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Phi=\frac{1}{N_{1}} \int v d t  \tag{3}\\
& v^{-}=-N_{2} \times \frac{d \Phi}{d t} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Phi$ is the magnetic flux, $N_{1}$ the number of primary turns, $\int$ vdt the sum of voltage change with time, $V^{-}$the induced voltage in secondary winding, $N_{2}$ the number of secondary turns and $\frac{d \Phi}{d t}$ the rate of change of flux.


Fig. 5: Transformer action.

Now as \$ is dependent on the number of turns of the coil it can be shown that for the transformer shown in Fig. 5

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{V_{1}}{V_{2}}=\frac{N_{1}}{N_{2}}=\frac{I_{2}}{l_{1}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V$ is the a.c. voltage across the winding, $N$ the number of turns, I the a.c. current in the winding. ${ }_{1}=$ primary circuit and ${ }_{2}=$ secondary circuit.

It can be seen that by winding more turns on the secondary coil an increased output voltage results, though the current reduces so that the power output cannot exceed the input power. In fact due to losses the output power is between 4 and $10 \%$ less than the input power.

The limiting factors for a given size transformer are voltage breakdown of insulation between turns on one winding and also between windings. This limits the maximum voltage output which can be achieved. Power dissipation limits both the maximum current and maximum power. Saturation of the magnetic core is also a limiting factor and this occurs when the flux increases to saturation point. At saturation the relative permeability drops rapidly to unity which results in a reduction in inductance. The impedance therefore reduces which results in an effective short-circuit across the primary. The fall in permeability with increased input voltage at saturation is utilised in the design of constant voltage transformers.

For these reasons the power is directly related to the volume of a transformer and for mains transformers the power rating can be judged by experience directly from its physical size. At this point it is worth noting that occasionally one sees efficiency circuits which purport to increase the output voltage for the same output current, thereby doubling the transformer rating. This is usually achieved by a voltage doubling circuit and dire results on the transformer may result. Examination of equation 5 shows the impracticality of these circuits in terms of transformer dissipation. It is only as a result of extremely conservative power ratings in transformer design that these circuits appear to work. Generally speaking the design will cope for between 125 and $200 \%$ of the rated power.

Let us now examine the construction, design limitations, and usages of the various types of inductor and transformer that are commonly available to the circuit designer.

## Iron Cored Coils

This type of coil utilises iron or other magnetic material with high relative permeability. As the permeability is high a high inductance coil results which makes this construction particularly useful at very low frequencies.

The construction was shown in Fig. 4, and this is the general form of construction for low frequency transformers and inductors. The coils are wound of enamel coated copper wire of a gauge dependent on the current which the winding will have to carry. Wire size normally varies from $40 \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{w} . \mathrm{g}$. for low current windings to 16 s.w.g. for windings of several amperes. Generally the coils are wound on the plastic bobbin by coil winding machines but may be hand-wound. The finer wire gauges, which would usually have a large number of turns from several hundred to a few thousand, are difficult to hand wind and do not lend themselves to modification. The thicker gauges consist of fewer turns and can be easily rewound to give modified characteristics.

Table 1: Comparison of Mains Transformers

| Type | Power Rating ( $W$ ) | Size | Volume $\left(i n^{2} .\right)$ | Weight <br> (lb.) | Cost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Low voltage Multi-lurn | 1 | $1.12 \times 1.06 \times 0.81 \mathrm{in}$. | 1 | $0 \cdot 15$ | 15s. to $£ 2$ |
| Low voltage Multi-turn | 23 | $2.62 \times 2.37 \times 1.93 \mathrm{in}$. | 11.5 | 2 | 5s. to $£ 4$ |
| Low voltage Multi-turn | 90 | $4.25 \times 4.75 \times 3.62 \mathrm{in}$. | 73 | 7 | £4 to £ 10 |
| Auto transformers | 150 | $3.75 \times 3.12 \times 3.75 \mathrm{in}$. | 44 | 43 | £2 to $£ 5$ |
| Variable auto transformers | 250 | 3 in . dia. $\times 2.5 \mathrm{in}$. |  |  | £4 to £20 |

After the coil is wound the laminations are interleaved around the bobbin. Many shapes and thicknesses of laminations are used and the shape shown in Fig. 6 is typical. The E and I are alternated to give a minimum air gap in the magnetic circuit. The lamination thickness depends largely on the frequency for which the coil is required. At frequencies of $50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ a thickness of $\frac{1}{32} \mathrm{in}$. is not unusual, whilst at $20 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ or higher the thickness is reduced to $2-20$ thou (thousandths of an inch). The laminations are usually made of an alloy of which iron is often the predominant constituent. Many types of magnetic alloy are manufactured to give different magnetic characteristics and the type chosen for coil cores has a high saturation point and low hysteresis loss.

Quality coils are usually impregnated with lacquer or resin and enclosed in a metal casing. Transformers often have electrostatic shields between the primary and secondary winding and these are connected to the earth terminal on the terminal strip. Another form of transformer construction is the C-core type which is used in high quality transformers. The principles are the same in the construction techniques but the core construction is superior.

By far the greatest application of iron core transformers is as mains transformers and inductors. As the frequency range is low and designed for $45 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ to $65 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ the laminations are usually thick and of the order of $\frac{1}{32} \mathrm{in}$. Inductors are commonly available from In H in high current circuits to 100 H in high voltage circuits. The transformer primary winding is usually wound for $230 \mathrm{~V} 50 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ operation, but tap adjustments are often provided. The number of turns on the primary winding is normally several hundred. The secondary windings vary considerably but for transistor power supply


Fig. 7: Multi-turn transformer with rectifiers.
circuits have relatively few turns and can usually be rewound to give special requirements. The circuit of a typical mains transformer is shown in Fig. 7, the electrostatic screen (dotted) and magnetic core being indicated by the normal circuit symbol.

Mains transformers are usually ordered directly by input and output voltages and current only. Usually
one or more output windings are available, and each is specified as to its voltage, current and power rating. Most manufacturers provide a prototype service which will provide any transformer required: however the price is necessarily high, between $£ 12$ and $£ 30$ for a 25 VA type. Commonly, therefore, standard transformers are used by designers, and these are often multi-winding types which allow a variety of voltages to be built up.

Auto transformers are a modification of two winding transformers in that they operate by tapping directly across the primary winding. As a result, the power rating for a given size is considerably higher, but as the output is electrically connected to the input a number of serious limitations result. They are, therefore, mainly used for boosting or lowering mains supplies. The variable mains transformer is a continuously variable form of auto transformer.

The circuit symbol for an auto transformer is shown in Fig. 8. A comparison of size and rating for various mains transformers is given in Table 1 and from this it can clearly be seen that power is directly related to volume.

(a)

(b)

Fig. 8: Auto transformers. (a) Fixed tapped. (b) Variable.
Audio frequency transformers such as driver, output, speaker and isolating types are usually iron cored. As the frequency range over which they are required to work is $20 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ to $20 \mathrm{kc} / \mathrm{s}$ the laminations are considerably thinner and are between 1 and 20 thou thick. The transformers capable of the full frequency range are fairly large, have thin laminations and thousands of turns to give high inductance.

As the power transfer in audio circuits is usually fairly low and rarely exceeds 10 W audio transformers are small. The construction is similar to the mains transformer shown in Fig. 4. The cost of these transformers varies from 5s. to $£ 3$ depending on type and quality. Driver transformers are usually specified in terms of turns ratio with a centre tapped or two secondary windings. Typical size is $0.75 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 \mathrm{in}$. with printed circuit mounting connections instead of terminals and screw fixing. Power rating is usually $1-100 \mathrm{~mW}$. Output and speaker transformers are larger than driver transformers and a typical $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ transformer with printed circuit fixing is $1 \frac{1}{4} \times 1 \times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ in. They are commonly specified in terms of turns ratio to match either $3 \Omega$ or $15 \Omega$ speakers, and power rating.

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