

Electron Tubes: A Constant Challenge

When the history of our time is analyzed in future centuries, I feel certain that communications will be singled out as the key factor in making possible the "one world" concept—the basis for man's best hopes for the future. RCA's business is communications, and the people of our Lancaster plant have been a strong link in the development of modern systems through which men exchange ideas and convey information.

Lancaster contributed to the success of the rapidly growing television industry by establishing the first automatic high-volume production facilities for black-and-white picture tubes immediately following World War II.

This was a major milestone in industrial progress. Later, during 1954 to 1961, Lancaster built the first automatic high-volume production facilities to produce shadow-mask color picture tubes. The worldwide industry was



H. R. Seelen
Division Vice President and
General Manager
Television Picture Tube Div.
Electronic Components



skeptical about the practicality of the shadow-mask precision tolerances and complexity. Lancaster effort proved to be so successful that the entire industry has adopted the design and followed RCA's pioneering leadership. Color television was one of the major growth industries of the 1960's. To the engineer goes the credit for the indispensable design of the tube and the tube processing equipment.

And yet all that has gone before is only a forerunner of communications systems still waiting to be developed. Some systems will incorporate computers; some will, perhaps, have solid-state display panels; but without doubt, whatever their nature, the engineers at Lancaster can be expected to play a key development role.

The Lancaster operation is an ultra-modern industrial and engineering complex producing a wide variety of electron tubes for a myriad of exciting and important applications in many fields of modern technology; for example, new medical diagnostic techniques; night vision employing light from the stars as the only source of illumination; power amplification for linear accelerators used to probe the secrets of the atom; surveillance satellite cameras used to better identify the natural resources of the world, just to name a few.

The advent of solid-state devices and technologies which was reputed to sound the death knell of tubes has, in fact, accelerated the growth of the industrial tube business. Combining the older tube technologies with new solid-state knowledge has advanced the fields in which electronics participate and we at Lancaster look forward to many new advances in the tube art.

At Lancaster, the engineer can pursue his professional career in an amazing number of fields ranging from mechanical design to new optical techniques. The Lancaster Plant is unique in the range of professional skills demanded by the products designed and manufactured here. No where is the engineering challenge so varied or the opportunity for professional recognition so great. The engineer is limited only by his own ambition and aspirations.



C. H. Lane
Division Vice President and
General Manager
Industrial Tube Division
Electronic Components



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Our Cover

The three tubes superimposed above the engineering scene on our cover are but a small sample of the myriad tube types designed and produced by the RCA Lancaster facility. Yet, these three tubes—a color TV tube, an L-band module, and an image orthicon—set the theme for this issue by representing the three principal areas of engineering competence at Lancaster: color, power, and conversion tubes. The engineers working at the image isocon test set are E. M. Musselman (seated) and O. Choi, both of RCA Lancaster. Photo credit: Tom Cook, RCA Laboratories.

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• To disseminate to RCA engineers technical information of professional value • To publish in an appropriate manner important technical developments at RCA, and the role of the engineer • To serve as a medium of interchange of technical information between various groups at RCA • To create a community of engineering interest within the company by stressing the interrelated nature of all technical contributions • To help publicize engineering achieve-

ments in a manner that will promote the interests and reputation of RCA in the engineering field • To provide a convenient means by which the RCA engineer may review his professional work before associates and engineering management • To announce outstanding and unusual achievements of RCA engineers in a manner most likely to enhance their prestige and professional status.

Contents

Papers	
Editorial input—tubes: conversion, power, and color	2
Innovations and engineers	Dr. M. P. Bachynski 3
Identification of inventorship	A. Russinoff 6
Milestones in color-picture-tube development	H. R. Seelen 8
Development of cathodoluminescent phosphors	A. L. Smith 11
Gases and getters in color picture tubes	Dr. J. C. Turnbull, Dr. J. J. Moscony, A. Month, J. R. Hale 16
Colorimetry and contrast performance of color picture tubes	G. M. Ehemann, W. G. Rudy 20
A sterilizable and ruggedized vidicon	Dr. S. A. Ochs, F. D. Marschka 24
Vidicon photoconductors	J. F. Heagy 28
The image isocon—an improved image orthicon	E. M. Musselman, R. L. VanAsselt 30
Ceramic-metal tetrodes for distributed amplifier service	C. E. Doner, W. R. Weyant 35
Klystron for the Stanford two-mile linear accelerator	A. C. Grimm, F. G. Hammersand 38
Environmental engineering laboratory	J. M. Forman, J. B. Grosh 42
Design of a 915-MHz power triode for microwave cooking	W. P. Bennett, D. R. Carter, I. E. Martin, F. W. Peterson, J. D. Stabley, D. R. Trout 44
RCA Lancaster—25 years of engineering excellence	49
The heat pipe, an unusual thermal device	R. A. Freggens, R. C. Turner 50
Ruggedization of camera tubes for space applications	J. G. Ziedonis 54
The Coaxitron	J. A. Eshleman, B. B. Adams 58
Noble-gas-ion lasers	R. J. Buzzard, J. A. Powell, J. T. Mark, H. E. Medsger 62
Design of cermolox tubes for single-sideband	A. Bazarian 66
Photo-dielectric tape camera systems	J. A. D'Arcy 70
The roll-up solar array	G. Kopelman 74
An earth resources satellite	Dr. H. M. Gurk, B. P. Miller 78
Notes	
Data Transfer Circuit	W. A. Helbig, W. J. Davis 83
Looking into ME's bag of tricks: investment castings for airborne equipment	W. Blackman 83
Thermal greases for heat-conduction across sheet-metal interfaces	E. D. Vellieux 84
Departments	
Pen and Podium	86
Patents Granted	91
Dates & Deadlines	92
News & Highlights	93

Tubes: conversion, power, and color

An overview of the dramatic news-making technology of the past few years gives the impression that the vacuum tube—the miracle of the electronic age—has been completely supplanted by solid-state devices. We hope this issue quickly changes that misconception. With new and sophisticated applications based on increased operating demands, longer life requirements, and more hazardous environments, vacuum tube technology is as thoroughly challenging today as in the decade following Lee DeForest's Audion.

In Lancaster's creative environment, engineers are continually challenged to advance the state-of-the-art in their profession. Behind the know-how of these engineers, who are responsible for designing and producing RCA's power, conversion, and color tubes, is an ever-present enthusiasm that infects everyone (including editors). These engineers present, in this issue, a sample of the ingenuity and spirit that has kept RCA in its position of unquestioned skill and leadership in vacuum tube technology.

The combined technical competence displayed in this issue may surprise some of the readers acquainted with esoteric systems and glamorous technologies. Rather than being a small part of an entire complex, many of Lancaster's engineers produce vacuum tube devices from conception to market—often crossing disciplines to achieve the best product for the marketplace.

In pulling this issue together, we found that there is no such thing as

a "quick tour" of the Lancaster Engineering facility. Each laboratory, each office, and each desk drawer contains interesting vacuum tubes and tube components. As a result, the visitor is treated to an instructive and comprehensive explanation of the development of each product; the pages that follow clearly demonstrate this spirit.

The first paper provided by the Television Picture Tube Division gives some of the background on the development of the color picture tube—one of the most significant technical achievements of this century. This is followed directly by three papers describing some of the present technology surrounding this highly successful product. The Industrial Tube Division's contributions come next with three papers from the conversion tube area where pickup tubes are being designed to approximate, and in some cases surpass, the response of the human eye. The next group of papers are from the power tube engineering where megawatts of power, ultra-high frequencies, distributed amplification, and hostile environments are everyday terminology.

This interesting and informative issue could not have been a success without the help of the *RCA Engineer* Editorial Representatives at Lancaster—Ed Madenford, Ike Kauffman, and Jules Forman. Working in a pattern typical of Lancaster engineers, their early planning, helpful suggestions, and diligent follow-up were catalysts in bringing such exciting technology to these pages.

Future Issues

The next issue of the *RCA Engineer* provides a general review of computers. Some of the topics to be covered are:

Computers: a technical review and forecast

Computers: a business review and forecast

Computer-aided design of IC platters

Flat cables for the Spectra 70

Site planning and air-conditioning design for computers

Digital control of Videocomp

Computers in space engineering

Diagnosis at the microprogramming level

Discussion of the following themes are planned for future issues:

Product and system assurance, reliability, value engineering

Microwave devices and systems

Interdisciplinary aspects of modern engineering

Lasers

RCA engineering on the West Coast

Computerized Educational Systems

Innovations and engineers

Dr. M. P. Bachynski

Science and technology are changing the world at an accelerated pace. The result is that knowledge and innovation have become a major natural resource of a technologically advanced country and the science-based industries have become the most rapidly growing secondary industries. The engineer has played and will continue to play an important role in this technological revolution. His importance will be increasingly determined by his talents and abilities for innovation. As technology continues to accelerate, profound changes in the engineering profession will result.

THE WORD ENGINEER originates from the Latin *ingenium* meaning ingenious or cleverness, clever at contriving or cleverly contrived. Thus an engineer is by definition one who is clever at contriving; likewise, to engineer a device or system is to cleverly contrive it. Innovation, on the other hand, is defined as bringing in novelties, making changes, making new, etc. Thus we can consider that innovation is the product or result of ingenuity and hence the natural task of an engineer is to bring about innovation.

Innovation and engineers can therefore be considered as a synonym for "the engineer being himself" or "the engineer doing what comes naturally." This paper examines the relationship between engineers and innovation with particular emphasis on the effect of our continually changing world.

Need for innovation

The changing technological world

In the last two decades giant strides have been made in science and technology. Thus today we find ourselves in the midst of a "technological" explosion. A few examples will serve to illustrate the scope of the advances which are taking place.

We need only to recall that it was in 1905 that the Wright Brothers first successfully got an aircraft off the ground for a few moments and yet hardly more than fifty years later jet aircraft were crossing the Atlantic Ocean in less than six hours carrying of the order of one hundred passengers per trip. Who would have predicted then that in

1958, just 53 years after the Wright Brothers' adventure, the first earth satellite, Sputnik I, would be orbiting the earth or that in a few years following Sputnik I space probes would be landing on Venus and flying past Mars or that man himself would be walking in space?

Similarly, it was only in 1901 that Marconi transmitted the first radio signal across the Atlantic from Newfoundland to Cornwall, England. Just over 60 years later, we have transmission of television programs across the Atlantic by satellites (1962) and television pictures of the moon from equipment landed directly on the lunar surface (1965).

There are countless similar examples. These rapid changes have been brought about by *innovation* in science and technology. This innovation has had a two-fold effect: First, it has created entirely new fields of technology where none existed before (e.g. rocketry, nuclear power, solid-state physics, plastics, microwaves, lasers). Second, it has immensely increased productivity, thereby enabling better and cheaper goods to be produced by the introduction of automation, new materials, and new processes and techniques.

Knowledge, innovation, and science-based industries

As a result of the technological "explosion," knowledge and innovation have replaced natural resources as the primary force resulting in economic growth and development. This has been recognized by the Economic Council of Canada who state:¹

"It has already been indicated that in the years ahead much of Canada's growth must come in the secondary industries. Over the past several decades the fastest growing secondary industries in all the main industrial

The Engineer and the Corporation

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graduated in 1952 from the University of Saskatchewan with the BEng in Engineering Physics. He was awarded the Professional Engineers of Saskatchewan prize for the highest scholastic standing amongst the graduating class. In the following year he obtained the MSc in physics at the University of Saskatchewan in the field of radar investigations of the aurora. He then joined the Eaton Electronics Research Laboratory, McGill University, where he was awarded the PhD in 1955 with a thesis on aberrations in microwave lenses. Dr. Bachynski remained at the Eaton Laboratory carrying out research on the imaging properties of nonuniformly illuminated microwave lenses. In October 1955, he joined the newly created Research Laboratories of RCA Victor Company, Ltd., became Director of the Microwave and Plasma Physics Laboratories in 1958 and Director of Research in 1965. Since this time he has conducted research on electromagnetic wave propagation, microwave and plasma physics. Dr. Bachynski is a Fellow of the Royal Society of Canada, a Fellow of the American Physical Society, a Fellow of the Canadian Aeronautics and Space Institute and an Associate Fellow of the American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics. He is president (1968-1969) of the Canadian Association of Physicists, Chairman of the Canadian National Committee of the International Scientific Radio Union (URSI), Chairman of the National Research Council of Canada Associate Committee on Plasma Physics and a member of the associate committee on Space Research. He has served as a member of the AIAA Technical Committee on Plasma Dynamics (1964-67), the Defence Research Board of Canada Advisory Committee on Plasma Physics (1961-67) and the Advisory Committee on Engineering Physics of Queen's University (1965-69), is listed in American Men of Science and has been associated with McGill University teaching classes in antennas, electromagnetic theory and plasma physics. In 1963, he was awarded the David Sarnoff Award for Outstanding Individual Achievement in Engineering.



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countries have been the science-based industries. Also, the products of these science-based industries have been the fastest growing element in world trade."

The impact of new industries on regional economic growth is given in an example by Berkner² who states that in 1950 a total of about 100 PhD's were employed in the Dallas-Fort Worth metropolitan area. Ten years later this had grown to 1200 with an annual increase of 200/year while the metropolitan area grew to nearly 2 million inhabitants. The new industry in the area is almost wholly science-based requiring about 1 science-trained PhD to provide employment opportunity for another 115 people.

New markets

The new technologies have created new markets in which engineers are involved. These can be considered as of three types: First, there is the *direct new technology market* in which new areas of endeavor have been opened up. Thus, for example, the space era has created a new market. In 1966, NASA alone spent of the order of 5 billion dollars, 81% of which went into industry.³ Second, one can consider the *spin-off products* resulting from discoveries made in achieving specific objectives but which have significant commercial connotations. Thus computers developed for a military or

space project can be used for business purposes, metals developed for supersonic aircraft can create marked changes in the machine industry or developments in nuclear physics can affect the food industry by the discovery of improved techniques for food preservation. Third, the rapid changes in technology have created the need for doing things in a different manner, and as a result, have created a *market for capability*. The industry, instead of hardware, sells knowledge—the capability in a given area. This is placed at the disposal of the user who suggests where to apply it.

These new markets bring with them the inherent danger of very short term obsolescence in a number of forms. Not only must an industry be cognizant of developments in their own fields but sometimes face extinction from others. Thus communications and transportation may be interchangeable and in fact are competitors although the industries themselves are very different. By the same token, materials developed for one field may revolutionize another (e.g. material developed for withstanding high temperatures for aerospace applications may be used for household wares). Thus, to be competitive, the products must be continuously different and better, the capabilities must be contemporary and hence in tune with the rapid changes in science and technology.

Engineering innovation The research-development-production cycle

Knowledge has no economic value unless it is applied. Thus the optimum translation of the results of research and technology into national benefits in the form of economic growth, impact on employment, standard of living, etc. implies the capability to generate scientific and technological knowledge, innovations, and applications—plus the means to permit a rapid translation of the research into development and in turn the development into manufacturing.

The cycle for the conception of a physical phenomenon and its eventual development into a practical application is approximately as shown in Fig. 1.

It is important to note that "feedback" loops go both ways from each of these stages, that certain stages may be bypassed in specific cases and that the original ideas may be sparked at any point along the cycle. Equally important is the close involvement of basic research, applied research and development, the dividing lines of which are difficult to define. This implies the necessity of intimate communications between the various stages. This is particularly true with the present pace of technological innovation.

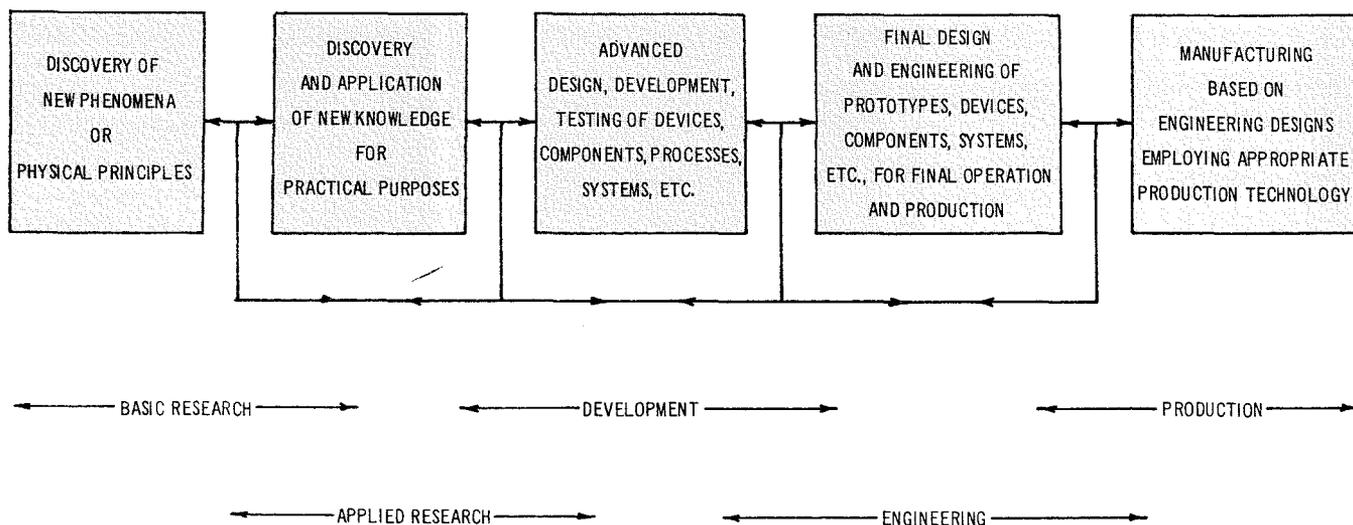


Fig. 1—Conception and development cycle.

Pace of technology

The pace of technology has been continually increasing while the time lag between discovery and application has, on the one hand, often become progressively shortened. This is best illustrated by an example taken from Howick.⁴

Item	Discovery date	Application date	Time span (yrs)
Electric motor	1821	1886	65
Vacuum tube	1882	1915	33
X-ray tube	1895	1913	18
Nuclear reactor	1932	1942	10
Radar	1935	1940	5
Transistor	1948	1951	3
Solar battery	1953	1955	2

Currently, many applications are apparent and stimulate directed applied research and development. The pace of innovation and technology is not likely to slacken in future in these situations.

On the other hand, many significant discoveries come tangentially to the main pursuit of the research and development. The applications become apparent only after the discovery or invention is made or in many cases the knowledge may lie dormant to be put to use only at a later time when brought to the attention of an interested party or subsequently re-discovered. Thus there may be many "answers" but often the people with the problems are unaware of their existence. With the increasing amount of scientific and technological knowledge being continually generated the transfer of information pertinent to a given field presents a considerable problem.

The role of the engineer

The technological explosion has a profoundly different effect depending upon the preparedness of a given organization. Thus the unprepared organization must dissipate its resources solving the problems the new technology has created for it. Meanwhile the one which is prepared can concentrate on an exploitation of the technological changes. Preparedness is primarily having a sound technological base provided by science and research in many disciplines and the ability to use this base to innovate new products and new services which serve the continually changing human and industrial needs. Long term growth must

therefore concentrate on technological change and the factors which can make it flourish. The engineer is a key element of the research-development-production cycle of technological change. Much of the responsibility for invention and *innovation* rests with the engineer. One of his major functions is to use the information that science has provided to implement the results of research and development into benefits for the society. He is concerned with developing the products and processes which are useable. He will in many instances have to work closely with the scientist and the technologist and be aware of the abilities, problems, and limitations of both. To remain effective, the engineer has to be increasingly aware of what research is being conducted. (In 1963, 173 million dollars was spent on solid-state and materials research alone in the United States. The consequence of discoveries in this field could have a profound influence on a multitude of industries.) He also has to become increasingly aware of developments in fields other than his own since a given industry can no longer depend solely on innovations developed within their own field. Discoveries in a completely different industry can revolutionize a given field.

A second major function of the engineer is to provide reliable information on the technological trends in order that appropriate decisions be made within a given organization. Because knowledge exists does not necessarily mean that it is available to an organization. The engineer will be increasingly called upon to provide the quality and relevance of new information to his organization to insure its competitiveness in the technological society.

As the engineer has a profound influence in changing technology so have the rapid changes in technology in changing the engineer. The classical engineer of a given discipline is rapidly losing his identity with a given field of engineering. Thus for example the microwave engineer, born of the post-war exploitation of radar techniques, was traditionally schooled in electromagnetics and skilled in circuits and microwave "plumbing." Today he not only must retain these talents but must in addition be skilled in solid-state physics and solid-state technology. The

soldering iron is rapidly being replaced by the array of materials processing equipment: diffusion furnaces, photoresist processing, etching processes, etc. Thus the engineer must be trained with a broader background of fundamentals; this means more science of an interdisciplinary nature in his basic training. He cannot, however, stop at his basic training. He will continually have to upgrade his knowledge to keep pace with the advances in technology. (It is estimated that without further self-training, an engineer is obsolete 5 years after graduation.) This will mean in many cases a trend to higher education (PhD) for the engineer.

Summary and conclusion

Rapid strides in science and technology are continually changing the world by opening new fields of technology and increasing productivity. The result is that in technologically advanced nations knowledge and innovation have become a prime natural resource with the science-based industries as the most rapidly growing secondary industry. This has created new commercial demands based directly on the new technology, based on off-shoots or "spin-offs" of the new technology and has, in addition, created a demand for knowledge and capability as a saleable commodity.

The engineer is a key element of this technological revolution. He is called upon to invent, to work as a member of the scientist-engineer-manufacturer team resulting in useable products and processes, and to provide his organization with the relevant information on the trend of technological change thereby enabling it to take suitable action in order to remain competitive. To effectively achieve this, the engineer must continually adapt to the trends of technological change. He must be aware of the knowledge provided by research and of the developments in fields other than his own.

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Identification of inventorship

A. Russinoff

Deciding whether an invention is sole or joint and determining the true inventor often requires more than a straightforward application of legal definitions. This paper discusses some of the problems encountered in identifying an inventor and presents several examples of how inventorship was determined in actual judicial decisions.

THIS COUNTRY, unlike many others, requires that patent applications be filed, and that the resulting patents be issued, in the names of the true inventors. In early times, this was usually a simple matter because inventions were made by individuals working in relative seclusion. But, just as garrets have become nearly *passé*, architecturally, so have the secretive inventor types who once occupied them.

The requirement of identifying inventorship can, and does, produce a variety of legal problems which, in some cases, have complicated the rights of inventors and their assignees and, in others, have destroyed those rights.

The question can arise in several ways. First, there is what may be termed the "intramural" situation, in which the decision must be made as to whose name(s) should be placed on a patent application for an invention made in a research or engineering group. There is also the "intercompany" setting, in which contributions to an invention are made by employees of different companies or organizations, who are obligated to assign their inventions to their respective employers. And then there is the situation in which one person claims that a rival had derived an invention from his work, which raises the question of "originality".

Invention is a two-step process. The first step is the mental operation of conceiving the idea, and the second is the physical step of reducing the concept to practice. This latter may be an "actual" reduction to practice, which means constructing and demonstrating the usefulness of the invention, in physical form, or it may be "constructive", by which is meant the filing in the United States Patent Office of a patent application which provides a sufficient description to enable an ordinary worker to practice the invention.

The intramural problem

In a corporate research laboratory, particularly in these times of *systems* studies and project *teams*, the frequent question is whether a given invention

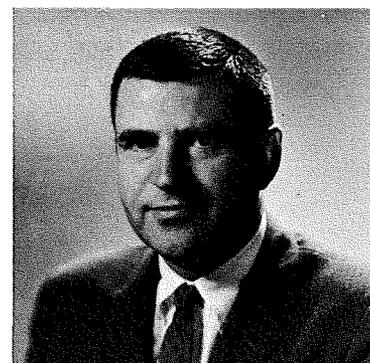
is *sole*, i.e., the product of an individual, or *joint* (made by two or more persons who worked together on the project from which the invention arose). [Note: It is true that the law recognizes the possibility for human error in this regard and, to that end, the patent statute contains a remedial provision for correcting errors of "non-joinder" or "misjoinder" of inventors. But this is not without qualification and, in fact, presupposes that a diligent effort was made in the first instance to name the actual inventor(s) or, at least, to correct the error once discovered.]

The simplest case is that of the engineer who conceives an idea for, say, a new device to perform a particular function, and then, without any assistance, builds the device and successfully uses it for its intended purpose. He has *made* (completed) the invention himself and is clearly its *sole* inventor.

Let us now assume that this same engineer, just as in the first example, has conceived the device in detail but, because he is occupied with other matters (or, perhaps, unwilling to engage in physical work), requests his less busy colleague to build and test it. The colleague does so, simply by following the instructions given to him, and without the need for any creative thought on his own part. In this case, again, the engineer was the sole inventor of the new device, and his colleague is not a joint inventor, notwithstanding the fact that the latter did all of the physical work of completing the invention.

The rule to be deduced from these two cases is that one who conceives an invention in sufficient detail to enable a person of ordinary skill in the art to practice it, without the need for further inventive creativity, is to be credited as the sole inventor, whether or not he himself did the work of reducing it to practice.

In order for the foregoing conclusion to be reached, however, the original *conceiver* must have had a complete conception. And whether or not he did



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attended the University of Richmond and the University of Virginia, receiving the BS in physics from the former in 1945. In 1948, he received the Bachelor of Laws from the University of Richmond. He was associated with the patent law firm of Bacon & Thomas, Washington, D.C., from 1948 until 1952, when he joined RCA's patent staff in Princeton. He is registered to practice before the U.S. Patent Office, is a member of the bars of Virginia and the District of Columbia, and is admitted to practice before the Court of Customs and Patent Appeals, the Second and Third Circuit Courts of Appeal, and as a patent attorney in the United States District Court for the District of New Jersey. Mr. Russinoff is a member of Phi Beta Kappa, Sigma Pi Sigma, and the American and Philadelphia Patent Law Associations.

is not always easy to decide. At one extreme is the situation in which he did everything necessary to the invention except, for example, laying out the wires of a circuit and soldering these together. There, he was clearly in possession of a complete conception and was its sole inventor. The other extreme is also easy to illustrate, for the project manager who suggests to his staff that, "It would be great, if you could make a . . .," is not an inventor at all.

In between these is where many of the problems occur. One real-life example is provided in a case decided some years ago by the Patent Office. The evidence showed that the director of research of a company thought of the possibility of making a calculator by modifying the Wynne-Williams ring counter, using another modification of such a circuit to generate counting pulses, and putting these circuits together in such a way that numbers set up on a keyboard would be converted into pulses for application to the counter in an additive sense. He also envisioned that the standing total would be displayed by some form of indicator. He sketched these ideas in his notebook and, thereafter, assigned the job of developing the idea to an employee, who spent several months devising experimental arrangements, including solutions to problems left unanswered by the original sketches, which he from time to time discussed with the research director. At the end

of that period, a satisfactorily operating system had been built.

The question presented by these facts was whether the director of research should be credited as the sole inventor. The Patent Office board ruled that he was not the sole inventor—saying that they were not satisfied from the testimony that he was “possessed of a mental picture of any specific solution of these problems prior to the work” of his assistant, and that

“What he had was no more than an intuition, founded upon his appreciation of the versatility of electronic tube circuits in ‘industrial’ applications, that the principles that had come into his mind and were symbolized in [his sketches] could be made the working basis of a practicable computing device. While this is a recognizable first step in making the invention, sometimes referred to as the ‘directing conception’ it does not meet the requirements placed by the law upon the conception.”

This decision serves to illustrate the general proposition regarding *joint* inventorship as stated by the patent textwriter, Robinson:

“It is not necessary that the same idea should occur simultaneously to each. On the contrary, it is immaterial who first conceives any particular theory or plan of the invention or in what order the development of its subordinate ideas proceeds. Where two or more inventors have agreed that a result, if it could be achieved, would be desirable, neither as yet having attempted to provide a means, and from this point go forward by mutual consultations and suggestions to devise one, the means devised becomes a joint invention.”

The intercompany situation

Systems developments often demand cooperation between companies in the same field, who may, in fact, be outright competitors. And, as can well be imagined, unpleasant situations can result when two such organizations are brought together.

An example of this occurred when a steel company brought together representatives of two companies for the purpose of designing billet furnaces for its new plant. The first company called in were specialists in gas burners and the second, specialists in oil burners. There was some evidence that the gas burner people were “not especially pleased at the introduction of” the oil burner specialists, but the two groups proceeded, at least at first, in an atmosphere of complete agreeableness to work together.

After some initial efforts directed at providing gas burners with standby oil burners, the steel company representa-

tives met with the principals of the two burner groups and, out of the ensuing discussion, there came the idea of combining, in some way, the two types of burners, with conversion from one fuel to another merely by valving operations. There followed then a series of meetings between the two sets of burner specialists, during which one of the parties sketched arrangements in which an oil atomizer designed by the oil burner people might be applied to a combustion air intake chamber affixed to the rear of a gas burner design belonging to the other company.

From that point, after much experimentation and many suggestions, a satisfactory gas-oil burner was made, which was quite acceptable to the steel company. The legal controversy arose when the oil burner specialists and the gas burner specialists each filed a patent application claiming the new burner as their own invention.

The Patent Office reviewed the evidence, which was replete with accusations, denials, and acrimony, and concluded that neither party was entitled to the patent, because the two sets of applicants, each of whom had “made suggestions and criticisms at the inventive level”, were, in its opinion, actually joint inventors.

The net effect of this decision was that neither party obtained any patent rights to what seemed to be a valuable invention. And, implicit in the Patent Office’s decision was the fact that the result might have been different had more reliable records been kept of the respective contributions. At the very least, had the companies been operating under an agreement providing for the disposition of such questions, a friendlier, and more profitable arrangement could have resulted.

The derivation case

Derivation takes place when a person, whether properly or improperly, learns of an invention conceived by another and then misappropriates it, claiming it as his own invention.

Just as in the relatively simple intramural situation, it is not necessary for the party claiming that another person derived an invention from him be able to show that he had disclosed it in complete, full-blown detail. It is enough if he disclosed the concept in sufficient detail that the other party could complete the invention without using more than the normal skill.

In a case decided by the Court of Customs and Patent Appeals, the invention in issue related to an automatic pneumatic carrier system. The claimed invention, which was the subject of the litigation, resided in two structural elements of the carrier, namely, an axially extending guide-way and radially polarized magnetic slugs which could be shifted axially with respect to each other along the guide-way.

The evidence showed that two engineers, employed by different companies, worked together in developing the carrier. The carrier with which they experimented originally was unsuccessful. It had steel rings around the body of the carrier which, at the suggestion of one of the engineers, were replaced by a segment of a steel ring which could be slideably adjusted along a track recessed in the body of the carrier. That arrangement was also unsuccessful and it was then that the other engineer suggested the use of radially polarized magnets. When these magnets were incorporated, the carrier was satisfactory.

Each of the engineers, through his own company, filed a patent application claiming the carrier structure as his own invention. The Patent Office and, on appeal, the Court ruled that it was the second engineer, who had suggested the use of the magnets, who was, in fact, the inventor, for “once the idea of using magnets was advanced against the prior disclosure of the moveable segment all that remained to be done was to work out the mechanical details of mounting the magnets.” In other words, the decision was that the invention was conceived by the party who had made the *vitalizing suggestion*, rather than by the other, who had merely suggested the background of the invention.

Concluding remarks

We have thus seen that definitions of sole and joint inventorship are, like many legal definitions, easier to state than to apply to a given set of facts. It is for this reason that, when a person believing himself to be the inventor discloses an invention to his patent counsel, the latter should be told any facts which might conceivably bring in someone else as a co-inventor, particularly if the invention involved collaboration with others. It is when the facts are fresh in the minds of the people involved that the greatest probability exists for a correct decision.

Milestones in color-picture-tube development

H. R. Seelen

Frequently a company, however heterogeneous its output, becomes identified in the mind of the public with a single, best-known product. The RCA Lancaster plant's life-span has encompassed many developments of high interest to scientists, engineers, the military services, and ordinary laymen. But of all the Lancaster products, the public is most aware of television picture tubes, and, in particular, color tubes. The 19 years during which Lancaster engineers have been engaged in developing and producing color tubes has been an eventful period.



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received the BS in Physics from Providence College, and in June, 1968, Mr. Seelen received an Honorary Doctor of Business Administration degree from it. Mr. Seelen was appointed Division Vice President and General Manager, Television Picture Tube Division, of Electronic Components on August 20, 1965. Previously, he had been General Manager of the division since July 20, 1965. Mr. Seelen joined RCA in 1930 as a tube design engineer at the Harrison, New Jersey, plant. Subsequently he became Manager of the Tube Development Shop. In 1942, he organized and set up the Engineering organization and laboratories at the new Lancaster plant. In 1943, with the transfer of all non-receiving tube engineering to Lancaster, he assumed charge of Engineering Services. Seven years later, he was appointed Manager of all Laboratory Engineering at Lancaster. In 1954, Mr. Seelen became Manager of the Color Kinescope Operations Department and later returned to Harrison as Manager, Kinescope Operations. In 1963, he was appointed Manager, Television Picture Tube Operations Department of the RCA Television Picture Tube Division, until his promotion to General Manager of the division. He is a Fellow of the IEEE and a Registered Professional Engineer in the State of New Jersey. He is a member of the Association for the Advancement of Arts and Sciences, as well as Sigma Pi Sigma, honorary engineering fraternity. In 1955, he received the RCA Victor Award of Merit, the company's highest tribute.

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FROM THE BEGINNING, effort has been applied principally to the shadow-mask type, which appeared most suitable for development of the several forms of color tubes investigated by the RCA Laboratories. We are often asked, today, why RCA has adhered steadfastly over the years to this tube. The answer has good technical and commercial foundations: no other type has shown so desirable a combination of good performance characteristics and mass-production suitability, brought about by a long series of engineering developments. Admittedly, the three-beam shadow-mask system is less efficient than other systems as regards light output, and it has convergence complexities. But its advantages are dominant: high contrast and resolution, capabilities for uniform color fields and high color saturation (which is built into the tube), fine dot-screen structure, and moderate circuit requirements, considering both complexity and stability.

Pioneering work in color tv had been done by RCA prior to World War II, but the major advances in the commercial program occurred after 1945. An important milestone was passed in 1949 when field tests began and the first demonstrations of the RCA compatible system were held for the Federal Communications Commission. For this early work, the receivers used a separate picture tube for producing each of the three primary colors, and the three pictures were combined optically.

The next big step, then, was to provide a single, directly viewed tri-color tube. Of prime importance at this time was the fabrication of a group of such tubes

to aid continued development of the RCA color tv system as a whole, and to permit additional demonstrations of the system at various stages beginning in the Spring of 1950. Ultimately, the system developed by RCA served as the "backbone" of the National Television Systems Committee recommendations, which were finally adopted by the F.C.C. late in 1953. RCA thus became the major contributor to formulation of the present national standards for color tv transmission.

Early color tubes

In addition to furnishing tubes for the RCA color program, it was, of course, an important part of Lancaster's assignment to develop the color-tube design, with a view to eventual mass production. The approach followed during this early period beginning in 1949 was to explore the potentials of the flat-screen, flat-mask system. Because accurate positioning of mask apertures with respect to the phosphor-screen dots (*register*) is extremely important, great emphasis was placed on mounting arrangements for the thin, rather flexible, metal mask. In this connection it was felt that tensioning the mask in a frame would provide greatest accuracy and stability of aperture position. As a correlative advantage, a flat screen opened up various possibilities for high-speed phosphor application: initially, silk-screening; later, letter-press or offset methods. These approaches to fabrication of mask assembly and screen required that all mask-aperture arrays be similar, and all phosphor-dot arrays be alike, within the narrow tolerances permitted by the shadow-mask system's geometry. In other words, there was a need for

“interchangeability”; any mask should “fit” any screen. Another advantage of using the flat mask-screen assembly was the feasibility of adjusting relative positions of these parts for best register, as a final step before insertion into the bulbs. Many acceptable tubes of the flat mask-screen type were made. The 15GP22 was put in production in 1953, and a larger 19-inch tube of the same type was developed.

Curved screen tubes

Meanwhile, various curved-screen, curved-mask proposals had been considered. It was fully realized that a phosphor screen on the face of the bulb would be desirable because of better appearance, a larger picture in the same size bulb, and several other factors; but it was also realized that interchangeability might be difficult to attain if curved masks and screens were used. Furthermore, an interchangeable system seemed more suitable for mass production; non-interchangeability would require that each mask be mated to a particular screen, through all of the many processing steps. In addition, a problem would arise if the curved mask did not remain sufficiently stable through the heat treatments to which a vacuum tube must be subjected during fabrication.

In the fall of 1953, another tube manufacturer announced and demonstrated a tube of the curved-mask, curved-screen type. Although this tube evidenced register problems, it gave some indication that a curved mask might be reasonably stable through tube processing. RCA decided to investigate this type more thoroughly.

Earlier work had been done in the RCA Laboratories on a photographic method for depositing phosphor dots, a method well suited for screen application to a curved surface. With this background, the Lancaster program for design and construction of curved-screen color tubes was initiated late in 1953.

Among the first of these tubes were both round and rectangular samples. The round tubes used 19-inch-diameter bulbs that had a final closure of welded metal flanges presealed to the face-panel and the funnel. For the all-glass rectangular tubes, standard 21-inch, 90-

degree bulbs were cut near the panel seal, and, after screen deposition and mask mounting, were resealed with a low-temperature glass frit.

These first tests were so encouraging that, within the next few months, an intensive developmental effort was being placed on curved-mask tubes. A 21-inch size was selected because of the popularity of this size in black-and-white picture tubes; a round shape was chosen for reasons of stability of bulb and mask assembly, and a metal envelope was used for flexibility in design. From this development evolved the 21AXP22, which went into production in the fall of 1954. This tube incorporated many changes in addition to the curvature of mask and screen. It not only provided a larger screen (260 square inches instead of 88-1/2-square-inch size of the 15GP22) but did so at a slightly decreased overall length by widening the deflection angle from 45 to 70 degrees.

Photographic application of the three phosphors to the curved face plate involved development of processing techniques for production use, as well as design and development of a special equipment called a “lighthouse”. The purpose of this equipment is to provide exposure of the photosensitive phosphor layers in arrays of “dots” properly located so that they are bombarded by the respective electron beams when the tube is completed and in operation. An innovation, called a “radial correction lens”, was made in the lighthouse to provide a correction by optical simulation of the electron paths. This compensation is needed because of the manner in which the deflection field acts on an electron beam, effectively changing its “source” position with increasing deflection angle.

The photographic method of phosphor deposition required development of a mask-frame assembly which could be removed from its normal position within the front end of the tube or “top-cap” and accurately replaced several times. Stability of the curved mask itself was ensured by mounting on a rigid frame; repeated, precise positioning of the mask-frame assembly in the top-cap was attained by special leaf-springs attached to the frame which engaged studs on the cap wall.

In addition, a new triple-beam gun structure, which had originally been developed for the flat-screen tubes, was introduced in the 21AXP22. This gun included magnetic pole pieces for convergence control of individual beams. In this assembly, the three guns were tilted slightly toward the axis to provide static convergence at the screen center; dynamic fields, in synchronism with the scanning frequencies, could then be applied to the pole pieces to provide the change in convergence angle needed as the beams were deflected. This development permitted accurate convergence to be obtained even at the much wider deflection angle.

The glass tube

During and following this period, both round and rectangular glass bulbs were investigated to determine whether glass was potentially desirable for either technical or commercial reasons, and to assess the problems connected with a rectangular shape. Some of the early glass bulbs using metal flanges have already been mentioned. A major improvement relating to glass bulbs occurred with the introduction of a special frit glass developed by Corning Glass Works which devitrifies, during sealing of the “top-cap” to the funnel, at a temperature low enough not to harm the phosphor or internal parts.

This development was followed by the introduction, in 1957, of the first color tube in an all-glass bulb, designated type 21CYP22. For screening this tube, a “degroupping correction lens” was introduced. This lens has an asymmetric contour superimposed on the radial correction contour to compensate for beam degroupping incidental to dynamic convergence. This latter innovation permitted enlargement of the mask apertures at the center, and increased transmission by about 40%. It also permitted a graduated tapering of the aperture walls which effectively increased transmission about 20%.

As mask material, cold rolled steel was substituted for the expensive copper-nickel alloy previously used. The aperture walls were tapered in such a way that only “knife edges” could be struck by the beams. This modification reduced electron scattering and consequently improved contrast.

The glass bulb proved advantageous in several ways. Its insulating properties simplified tube mounting problems for the receiver designer. Its mechanical stability and uniformity of face contour provided very significant improvement in register. Moreover, an improved referencing system for the lighthouse and for the frit-sealing operation also contributed to consistently good results. The mask-mounting method originally developed for the 21AXP22 was well adapted to provide the accuracy needed for this system. All of these features which provided stability and accuracy contributed significantly to improved uniformity of both color fields and white, and to greater ease of setup in the receiver. These improvements were the keys to initial commercial success in the fabrication of shadow-mask tubes.

In late 1960, another major improvement was introduced in the tube type 21FBP22. New green and red (sulfide) phosphors, having higher efficiencies and shorter persistence, supplanted those formerly used. The advantages included an important enhancement in picture brightness (about 50%), freedom from "smear" in rapid-action scenes, and better balance between the currents required from the three guns to produce white. Thus, the all-sulfide phosphor screen permitted driving to higher white-light output without serious red halo. The improvement in current balance also simplified receiver setup, particularly the adjustment of video drive for black-and-white picture reproduction. In addition, a protective window of 61% transmission filter glass was laminated to the tube face with a clear resin to improve contrast and color saturation.

Today's tubes

The last few years have seen the development of the first RCA 90-degree rectangular tube, the 25AP22, and the proliferation of its brothers and smaller cousins. The rectangular bulb shape, and particularly the higher deflection angle, have introduced additional problems requiring a higher degree of engineering sophistication for satisfactory solutions. Use of the rectangular bulb has required solution to problems of bulb stability and alignment, as well as development of completely

new approaches to design and mounting of the mask assembly. Frame weight, replaceability, and thermal stability were among the factors which had to be reconsidered. A simple, inexpensive, lightweight assembly permitting good beam-to-screen register control has been developed for the entire tube family. The control of register and contrast has established a standard which has been or is now being emulated by our competitors.

Important advances have also been made in the art and science of lighthouse lens design, aided by use of a computer. We have been able to deposit phosphor dots to a higher degree of precision than heretofore thought possible. The increase in radial misregister brought about by the increase in deflection angle and the greater non-uniformity caused by factors of panel deformation and panel obliquity have required greater control. Also, higher beam degrouping factors brought about by the increase in deflection angle and the greater nonuniformity of these factors as a result of yoke characteristics also required higher degrees of control. Optimum designs of mask and lens contours have been developed for such control. We have indeed come a long way from the initial simple radial lens on a path of progress which has been vital to the success of wide-angle tubes.

Another innovation was the introduction of smaller neck size to permit use of smaller-diameter yokes. This change increased the efficiency of scanning needed for the larger deflection angle, and also reduced beam separation, thus minimizing misconvergence. Development of the small gun to fit the small neck required further improvements in beam formation and focus to maintain the quality performance of the larger gun used in the round tubes. Low-wattage heaters were developed to reduce thermal problems in the stem area. As a result, movement of parts because of thermal expansion has been reduced and convergence drift has been minimized. Einzel-lens guns have also been developed in the small size which permit fixed focus and thus simplify circuitry in portable receivers.

The development of high-efficiency red-emitting phosphors has been extremely important. The red sulfide phosphor was succeeded by yttrium vanadate in 1964

and by yttrium oxysulfide 2 years later. The yttrium-oxysulfide red-phosphor efficiency has made the "Unity Current Ratio" mode of operation a reality in the color picture tube. No longer must brightness be limited by red-gun "blooming". Now all guns may be uniformly driven to their resolution capability to provide maximum gun-screen efficiency and thus a brighter picture. Because of this permitted increase in current to the screen, the mask-frame thermal-compensating system called "Perma-Chrome" has become a necessity. Brightness has been gained without sacrificing resolution, purity, or white uniformity.

The success of these tube developments has literally echoed around the world. Our licensees in Japan and Western Europe have been tooling up to make similar tubes, and RCA itself has started up new tube plants in Scranton, Pa., Midland, Ontario, and Skelmersdale, England; in addition, our RCA plant in Puerto Rico is supplying gun assemblies.

Color picture devices in the future

We continue optimistic about the potential of the shadow-mask tube for further development, and we expect to exploit ideas not yet fully explored. People frequently ask, "Is the shadow-mask tube likely to be supplanted by some new device in the near future?" Any new device would have to show at least as good performance, and it would probably require novelty (such as a large, thin panel to be hung on the wall), but far more important than any physical qualities would be the potential for cost reduction. A replacement for the shadow-mask tube which would meet such criteria is not presently within our field of view; we feel, therefore, that advanced versions of the shadow-mask tube will be serving us for a number of years to come.

Gen. David Sarnoff's words at the first tri-color tube demonstration on March 29, 1950, still ring true:

"Measured in comparison with every major development in radio and television over the past 50 years, this color tube will take its place in the annals of television as a revolutionary and epoch-making invention. When historians at the close of the 20th century evaluate the most important scientific developments, I will predict that this tube will be among the great inventions of the second half of this century."

Development of cathodoluminescent phosphors

Dr. A. L. Smith

Phosphors are solid materials that have the ability to convert one or more forms of energy into visible or near-visible radiation; luminescence is the generic term for the phenomenon of this conversion. There are a number of excellent books and review articles covering the theoretical aspects of luminescence and the various phosphor systems that have been studied.¹⁻¹⁰ Some of these treat cathodoluminescence in detail,^{1,2,3,10} and one is written with practical commercial development problems as its main theme.⁹ None of them, however, deals specifically with the problems associated with the commercial development of cathodoluminescent materials, the subject of this article.

PHOSPHORS have been commercially important for a much longer period of time than other electronically active solids.¹¹ However, despite the long history associated with them and the very extensive literature on the subject of luminescence, their theoretical basis is not nearly as well understood as that of the more recently developed semiconductors, such as transistors. Things have not changed much since an introductory paper presented in 1954 stated that the manufacture of phosphors is largely an experimental science, if not a craft.¹² Research, development, and technology of phosphors is today still a combination of art, intuition, and fundamental knowledge.

RCA's present interest in luminescence is centered primarily on cathodoluminescent phosphors, i.e., those materials that have the ability to transform the energy of an electron beam into visible or ultraviolet radiation, because this energy transformation is the basis of RCA's extensive cathode-ray-tube business. Color-television tubes provide by far the greatest dollar volume in the tube market; for this reason, phosphor research and development done by the Materials Group at Lancaster is slanted heavily toward support of this item.

A large number of compounds are known to be luminescent, but the specific requirement that they be economically useful in a cathode-ray device immediately imposes a series of

design parameters which narrows the field of investigation to a surprisingly few chemical systems. These stringent design requirements also make the invention of a new commercial phosphor extremely difficult, for not only must the proposed material have exceptional luminescent properties, but it must also possess the combination of chemical and physical properties which will make it suitable as a screen material for cathode-ray tubes. Although characteristics of a phosphor can be varied within moderate limits, there is usually an interaction between the variables so that as one is improved, another is degraded. The result is that any phosphor represents a compromise in which the variable considered most important in a given application is optimized.

Design requirements

The design requirements of commercial cathodoluminescent phosphors can be divided into two broad categories; those dealing with luminescent characteristics and those dealing with physical-chemical properties. The first considers phosphors simply as energy converters and sets their operational requirements in a particular device. The second category views phosphors as tube components which must remain stable during the manufacturing process.

Luminescent characteristics

A phosphor must convert the energy of an electron beam into emitted radiation efficiently. This requirement



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received the BS in chemistry from Fordham University in 1941 and the MS and PhD from the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn in 1943 and 1946 respectively. He joined the Chemical and Physical Laboratory at the RCA Lancaster plant in 1945. The major part of his career has been in the capacity of Engineering Leader of the Phosphor Development Group. He is the author of a number of papers on phosphors and has been granted fourteen patents related to phosphors and color tube screens. Memberships include the American Chemical Society, Phi Lambda Upsilon, Sigma Xi and the Electrochemical Society. He has held various positions in the ECS, being Chairman of the Electronics Division in 1953 and a presidential candidate in 1955.

may seem obvious, but there are many phosphors that are efficiently excited by ultraviolet radiation but not by an electron beam and therefore are useless in cathode-ray tubes. On the other hand, there are literally thousands of chemical combinations that luminesce under electron bombardment but have an efficiency of conversion of electron-beam energy into light that is too low to make them commercially useful. The most efficient and practical cathodoluminescent phosphors have been estimated to convert, at best, only 20% of beam power into radiant energy¹³. Sometimes the tube designer is willing to accept less than optimum conversion efficiency if some other characteristic, such as a unique decay property, is his major concern. Under any circumstance, however, conversion efficiency always has a high priority among the requirements. Unfortunately, there is little theoretical knowledge to guide the optimization of this parameter because the mechanism by which beam energy is dissipated in a crystal and transformed by a luminescent center into visible emission is but superficially understood. The closing of this knowledge gap is, today, the greatest challenge in the field of phosphor development. An advance in information in this area could revolutionize cathodoluminescence.

Another luminescent characteristic required of a phosphor is that it emit in some predetermined portion of the spectrum. Cathode-ray tubes are used in a wide variety of applications, and the phosphors used in them must emit in an area of the spectrum suitable to a specific application.

Although most tubes manufactured are used in the black-and-white or color television entertainment area, there are

a number of industrial applications in which screens are coupled to a particular photographic film type or photosensitive surface. In these uses, the output of the phosphor is tailored to match, as closely as possible, the response characteristics of the system. Because the phosphors developed by RCA are used principally for color television, the major interest is in rather narrow regions of the spectrum comprising the three primaries used in color TV: red, blue, and green. Colorimetry of the phosphors is of paramount importance because the gamut of hues obtainable in a color picture is defined by the coordinates of the three primaries¹⁴⁻¹⁶.

In addition to efficient energy conversion and emission, the persistence (the phosphorescence or decay rate) of a phosphor must be of the proper magnitude. The requirements in this category vary widely. In tubes designed for industrial or military applications, the range may be from 10^{-8} second (or less) to several seconds duration, depending on end use. A medium-short persistence is desirable for entertainment tube types because the decay must be fast enough to insure that there is no smearing of the image in rapid action, yet slow enough so that flicker does not become objectionable. In multiple-phosphor screens, such as those used in color television tubes, the persistence of the three phosphors must be reasonably matched or color trailing (image blur) becomes noticeable.

It is desirable that the light output of each phosphor in a multi-color screen vary linearly with power, and each with the same slope, so that high and low brightness areas of a picture will be properly shaded. Because the total output of the screen is dependent on beam power (the product of beam voltage and beam current) it is important that the voltage and current characteristic of each of the phosphors be stable. As the voltage of the tube is usually fixed, the variation in output characteristics of the phosphor with variable current becomes the major concern. In some systems, such as sulfides, the light output of the phosphor does not always increase with current in the linear manner desired, but begins to drop off at some intermediate operating current. This phenomenon

is known as current saturation, or "droop-on-drive".

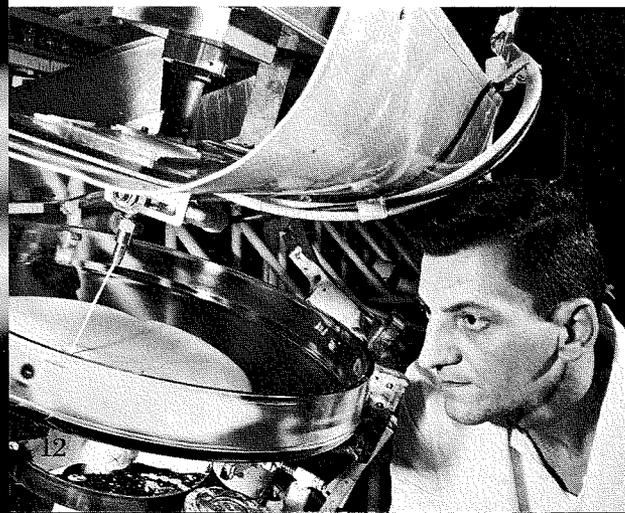
Another equally undesirable characteristic is known as color shift, a change of hue of emission with increased current. The higher the current, the more pronounced is the color shift. Color shift manifests itself in the appearance of a new, spurious emission band (usually at lower wavelengths) superimposed on the desired emission band. The phenomenon frequently occurs simultaneously with current saturation of the main band. Both main-band saturation and color shift are detrimental to color picture tube quality because they noticeably distort the hue in the highlights of the picture.

Physical-chemical characteristics

Commercially, phosphors are applied to a tube faceplate to form a screen by a variety of application techniques. Settling, slurring, and dusting are the methods commonly employed. The method used dictates the average particle size and distribution of the phosphors to be used. Ideally, the phosphor chemist should develop preparation processes that are flexible enough to produce the variety of particle sizes required for the different application techniques. This condition is frequently difficult to achieve, however, because the high temperatures required to develop optimum luminescent characteristics simultaneously causes crystal growth. The phosphor developmental engineer must therefore make suitable compromises to obtain the brightest material that can be applied in a reasonable manner.

A phosphor must also be chemically compatible with the application media. Most application methods involve aqueous systems which are pH sensitive. The phosphor must, therefore, be stable in water to the extent that it does not decompose to form basic or acidic constituents. Such constituents would alter the properties of the slurry formulation and its application characteristics. Of course, the phosphor should be inert so that its intrinsic luminescent properties are preserved. If the phosphor is not inert, it will suffer severe loss of efficiency during tube processing.

The surface properties of a phosphor must fit the screening techniques so



Phosphor slurry being dispensed.

that the phosphor can be well dispersed in the medium, yet bond well to the glass substrate. A variety of "coatings," which might be thought of as a "cement", is designed to facilitate bonding in the particular application technique used. Colloidal silica, silicates, and phosphates are the most frequently used chemical coatings, presumably because they form surfaces which bond well to glass, the most common substrate to which phosphors are applied. The laws governing surface properties are at present not completely understood.

Because phosphors are used in a vacuum, they must not decompose or evaporate during processing or under electron bombardment. Organic luminescent materials cannot be used because of their instability under these conditions. Their decomposition products could then poison the electron-emitting cathode or raise the gas pressures that would destroy the usefulness of the tube. Even when a material has a vapor pressure low enough to withstand a vacuum, the energy of the electron beam itself can cause crystal changes that destroy the luminescence of the materials. Halide phosphors, particularly the fluorides, have notoriously poor tube life because the chemical reducing power of the beam causes permanent crystal damage and ultimately destroys screen efficiency.

A phosphor must be able to maintain its important physical properties during tube processing; i.e., it must demonstrate chemical, thermal, and vacuum stability. During outgassing, a tube is subjected to temperatures of about 400 to 450°C. At these temperatures, the organic binders used in screen deposition are decomposed and yield a combination of gaseous reaction products, including CO, CO₂, and H₂O. Although the phosphor may be unaffected by these individual gases at room temperature and atmospheric pressure, the combination of gases and elevated temperature could prove disastrous.

Phosphor cost

One of the more important commercial considerations not yet mentioned is phosphor cost. It must be possible to manufacture a phosphor in a reproducible manner at a reasonable cost;

a rather high unit cost can be tolerated provided some outstanding characteristic can be obtained. The red phosphor now used in RCA's color tubes is a case in point. It costs substantially more per tube than any previous phosphor but its outstanding efficiency makes the added cost worthwhile in tube and set performance.

Group organization and responsibilities

The RCA engineering group devoted to the achievement of the phosphor characteristics described above, the Materials Group, is located in Lancaster, Pa. Its activities range from Applied Research through Development and into Pilot Plant production. When necessary, factory assistance is given and close liaison exists between Laboratory and Factory Engineering personnel.

Laboratory engineering

Laboratory Engineering has the ability to follow an idea from its basic conception through factory production and, in addition, makes its staff available to Marketing and Sales as field engineers. Laboratory Engineering then is involved in the whole gamut of the business enterprise. The general philosophy of the Laboratory Engineering group is to concentrate on phosphor technology and to leave testing and analyses to other groups more knowledgeable in those areas. Laboratory Engineering does, however, draw heavily on these supporting specialists and the well-instrumented laboratories available to them.

Analytical group

The Analytical Group performs a wide variety of services. Of particular note are the spectrographic and X-ray diffraction work which is relied upon heavily in purity and compositional studies of phosphors. Particle size analysis is another function of considerable importance. Because some work involves the interaction of many variables, the aid of a statistician is enlisted occasionally in setting and interpreting statistically designed experiments.

Colorimetry group

The Colorimetry Group is essential to the phosphor development operation, for it is they who make the necessary



Microscopic screen inspection.

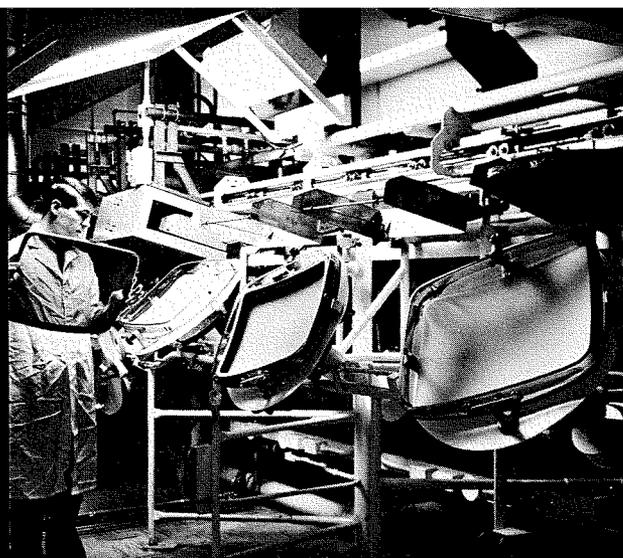
efficiency, persistence, and color-coordinate measurements.

Applied research

The worker in the phosphor field is often accused of alchemy because he sometimes uses rather unorthodox methods to achieve rather unusual results. His background should be in either inorganic or physical chemistry and, ideally, should include a very broad spectrum of experience; a surprising number of disciplines are necessary in the successful development of a commercial phosphor. (A sense of humor has also been known to help.)

The role of Applied Research in phosphor development is twofold. First, its efforts are directed toward the achievement of a basic understanding of those processes which are used in synthesizing the blue and green-emitting sulfide phosphors. Second, it carries on a search for new phosphor systems and new ways of using older systems. The approach to each type of research is quite different.

Efforts in the first area might be called purely scientific in that the approach, at least, can be well organized according to basic principles. Because the blue and green-emitters are sulfides precipitated from aqueous solutions, such fundamental properties as the kinetics of the precipitation and the role of the precipitating conditions on the final characteristics of the phos-



Inserting the shadow mask after phosphor application.

phor are being studied. The influence of the flux and flux systems, including phase diagram studies, and diffusion as it affects particle growth, are also under investigation. Much of the work in this first area is conducted along classical lines where chemical theory is well developed and mathematical models exist. All theory and models must of course be interpreted with a view toward fulfilling present needs. Note that the researcher must be conversant with a wide variety of chemical knowledge, for he deals with solution chemistry as well as with high-temperature and solid-state chemistry. His life is orderly though complex. He seeks new knowledge, but more or less within the framework of existing procedure.

The second area of research, that of new systems, is quite different. Here, intuition and art are as important as fundamental knowledge. There is no guiding theory and much of the work is empirical. The chemist's work in this area is frustrating in large part because thousands of samples may be prepared before one of even moderate promise is found. Many of the chemical systems have been worked and reworked, not only within RCA, but in a large number of laboratories throughout the world. Statistically, the chances of finding a completely new phosphor are exceedingly low. The researcher must not only consider a compound as such, but he must be concerned about the way that compound is synthesized, for often success or failure is due to some unique preparatory scheme which imparts just the right amount of crystalline irregularity necessary for an efficient phosphor. Consideration must also be given to the "antique" compounds,

known to be luminescent, but never tested under modern cathode-ray conditions.

Development

The job of the chemist who develops phosphors is reasonably straightforward; he develops new phosphors and their manufacturing processes to a fine degree. His interaction with other groups is much more varied than the research man and includes an occasional assignment as a technical field representative with Sales and Marketing. (RCA enjoys a very substantial share of the market for zinc and zinc-cadmium sulfide phosphors used in cathode-ray tubes throughout the industry.) His knowledge must be very broad in the field of inorganic physical chemistry because he tackles problems as diverse as ultra-purification of materials, high-temperature syntheses, control of crystal growth, and surface properties of materials. It is generally he who must attempt to satisfy all the criteria listed in the earlier part of this article, or at least determine the optimum compromise.

Pilot plant

The Pilot Plant has proven to be an invaluable aid in the phosphor development operation in that it performs a variety of functions including scale-up of developmental procedures, rough cost analyses, manufacture of phosphors used in small quantities in either lab or factory, and investigations leading to new or improved processes. The equipment used in the Pilot Plant more closely approximates factory size than does the lab equipment, therefore, such items as firing time and

temperature are developed best in this plant. The engineering in the Pilot Plant is then true chemical engineering as distinguished from the pure chemistry of the other groups. Pilot Plant personnel must have a knowledge of production-type equipment and its capabilities, a talent for process simplification, and a healthy respect for costs. It is up to them to render a phosphor process practical from the viewpoint of production. Frequently, the Pilot Plant has been the initial production unit for a new material and has sold its product to the tube factory. In the early stages of phosphor development, reasonable cost estimates can be made, scrap potentials discovered and corrected, and process reproducibility assessed. Interaction with other groups is, of course, greatest with the development engineers and factory personnel, but some liaison with Applied Research is also necessary. Vendor relationships through Purchasing are also important, not only in equipment areas, but in materials as well. Prior to acquisition of the Pilot Plant, the Phosphor Factory itself had to do its own scale-up and process development. This procedure was undesirable and led to much delay because tests had to be squeezed into existing production schedules.

Technical progress

Table I is a modified, up-dated version of previously published data^{11,16}. The listings within each color are chronological in time of commercial color-television usage and show how the improvement in phosphors has contributed to the advances in color tube performance.

Table I—Commercially used phosphors

Types of emitters	Phosphor notation	Powder colorimetric data ¹		
		x	y	Y (Lumens/W)
Blue				
Calcium Magnesium Silicate: Titanium	CaO: MgO: 2SiO ₂ : Ti	0.169	0.134	8.7
Zinc Sulfide: Silver: Chloride ²	ZnS: Ag: Cl	0.146	0.052	7.5
Zinc Sulfide: Silver: Chloride ²	ZnS: Ag: Cl	0.150	0.059	9.1
Green				
Zinc Silicate: Manganese	2ZnO: SiO ₂ : Mn	0.218	0.712	31.1
Zinc Cadmium Sulfide: Silver: Chloride ³	(ZnCd)S: Ag: Cl	0.242	0.529	56.0
Zinc Cadmium Sulfide: Silver: Chloride ³	(ZnCd)S: Ag: Cl	0.303	0.587	70.3
Red				
Cadmium Borate: Manganese	2CdO: B ₂ O ₃ : Mn	0.630	0.370	10.7
Zinc Phosphate: Manganese	β 3ZnO: P ₂ O ₅ : Mn	0.674	0.326	7.0
Zinc Selenide: Copper	ZnSe: Cu	0.652	0.347	17.0
Zinc Cadmium Selenide: Copper: Chloride	(ZnCd)Se: Cu: Cl	0.662	0.338	11.0
Zinc Cadmium Sulfide: Silver: Chloride ³	(ZnCd)S: Ag: Cl	0.663	0.337	12.6
Yttrium Vanadate: Europium	YVO ₄ : Eu	0.675	0.325	9.5
Yttrium Oxysulfide: Europium	Y ₂ O ₂ S: Eu	0.660	0.340	13.8

1. This notation defines color in accordance with that established by the Commission Internationale de l'Eclairage (C.I.E.).
2. The differences between these two phosphors are in silver content, flux composition, and firing temperature.
3. These phosphors differ primarily in their cadmium content.

Early phosphors

The listing under the color red illustrates how RCA's research and development activity operates in seeking to optimize all design specifications. The first phosphor on the list—cadmium borate: manganese—satisfied all requirements except one of the most important: quality of emission. The emission of the borate phosphor was much too orange. For that reason it was replaced by zinc orthophosphate: manganese whose color was ideal. The lower lumens/watt value of the phosphate results from its redder color and a somewhat lower intrinsic conversion efficiency, a severe handicap that led to much research to find a replacement. The phosphate was commercially acceptable, however, and was used as RCA's standard red in those early years when color was trying to get off the ground.

Zinc selenide: copper

The next phosphor to receive considerable attention was zinc selenide: copper. This phosphor is almost a classic example of one whose initial promise was very high but which was subsequently found to lack many of the required characteristics. Zinc selenide: copper has an outstanding lumens/watt value, although its hue is a bit too orange.

Zinc cadmium selenide: copper

An improved red emission is obtained by addition of cadmium selenide to form solid solutions of zinc cadmium selenide. When this is done, however, the lumens/watt value of the compound is significantly decreased; the percentage decrease is greater than should be expected on the basis of color change alone. It has been concluded, therefore, that the solid solution has an intrinsic lower conversion efficiency than zinc selenide alone. Although disappointing in some characteristics, the zinc cadmium selenide has a final lumens/watt value that is still much higher than the phosphate it was designed to replace. A major disadvantage of zinc-cadmium selenide is its process instability; in water, at room temperature, a slow decomposition occurs. At the elevated temperatures of tube and screen bakes, the water vapor evolved during decomposition of the organic binder attacks the phosphor at such an accelerated rate that an effi-

ciency loss of approximately fifty per cent occurs. Although a coating capable of slowing decomposition was developed, the close controls required in both manufacture and screen processing forced RCA to drop zinc-cadmium selenide as a commercial product.

Silver-activated zinc-cadmium sulfide

A silver-activated zinc cadmium sulfide of high cadmium content eventually replaced the zinc orthophosphate: manganese, primarily because of its higher conversion efficiency, but also because its persistence matched that of the other two sulfides more exactly. All of the brightness gain indicated in Table I was not realized because the sulfide suffered mild degradation during tube processing and showed a slight color shift on drive, a drawback not present in the phosphate. The plus features of the sulfide were considered to far outweigh its disadvantages, and for many years it was the standard red component in RCA color tubes.

Europium-activated yttrium vanadate

The europium-activated yttrium vanadate replaced the sulfide for reasons not readily apparent from Table I. Again, it was adopted on the basis of a series of compromises, the sum total of which made it superior to the sulfide. One prime disadvantage was its cost, some ten times that of the sulfide. Advantages included no color shift with high current and no current saturation; persistence was in line with the green and blue sulfides. The lumens/watt values shown in Table I appear to put the vanadate at a disadvantage in relation to the sulfide. After processing into tubes, however, the vanadate shows a very slight improvement over the sulfide, because the sulfide efficiency is degraded during processing while the vanadate is not. This is a good example of why the acceptance of a phosphor must be based on its performance in the tube and not on a simple powder test.

Europium-activated yttrium oxysulfide

Shortly after the yttrium vanadate: europium went into production, RCA's research efforts led to the discovery of europium-activated yttrium oxysulfide, a phosphor with a much higher efficiency than the vanadate. The oxysulfide is as stable as the vanadate in

all respects, has processing stability, shows no color shift on drive, and no current saturation.

A new process compatible with factory equipment had to be invented for the production of the oxysulfide (here the staff of the David Sarnoff Laboratories helped considerably). Firing conditions capable of yielding proper color and particle size had to be developed, rigid control procedures established, and impurity levels discovered. The Pilot Plant went into production of the material to establish production routine, and actually made many hundreds of pounds of product without a single reject lot, to determine reliability, costs, and other commercial considerations.

Future improvements

From RCA's viewpoint, a phosphor is not a commercial success until it has performed satisfactorily in a marketable cathode-ray tube. To perform satisfactorily a phosphor must fulfill two categories of design parameters, one dealing with intrinsic luminescent properties, the other with application characteristics. Future improvements exclusive to RCA will become increasingly difficult because intense competition has increased not only the number of investigators throughout the world, but the sophistication of the approach to the discovery of new phosphors.

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Gases and getters in color picture tubes

Dr. J. C. Turnbull | Dr. J. J. Moscony | A. Month and J. R. Hale

Picture tubes, like other oxide-cathode electron-tube devices, require a high vacuum for prolonged operating life. Unfortunately, the inside tube surfaces become gas sources and destroy the desired vacuum. This problem results from high-energy electron beams striking the tube screen and the shadow mask, in the case of color picture tubes, and liberating various gases from these surfaces. At the same time, high-energy, back-scattered primary electrons strike and liberate gas from the surface of the conductive funnel coating. The use of a barium getter in picture tubes forms a film on the interior tube surfaces, which reacts chemically with stray gases to form stable, solid, barium compounds and thus maintain the desired vacuum. This paper describes the use of getters and their function in color picture tubes.



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THE GETTERS used in black-and-white picture tubes evolved from the early loop getters which were mounted and flashed onto the neck area of the tube above the electron gun. These getters were stable in air and used a barium-aluminum alloy which contained approximately 50% of each metal.

The alloy was in the form of a wire clad with nickel or stainless steel; the wire was ground down on one side to expose the alloy for easy flashing. The getter wire was welded to a metal loop (see Fig. 1) to facilitate heating by a high-frequency source. This heating causes the barium metal to be flashed from the alloy by evaporation. The ring getter shown in Fig. 1 is an improved version which allows a larger quantity of barium to be flashed with a minimum expenditure of RF energy. This getter has a stainless-steel channel to which the barium-aluminum alloy material is pressed.

Ring getters can be exothermic or endothermic. The exothermic ring getter is made by mixing nickel powder with the barium-aluminum alloy powder. When heating of the getter starts, the nickel and aluminum form an alloy and release heat to help to bring the getter quickly to the flash temperature. The endothermic getter does not include the nickel-powder addition.

Getters in shadow-mask picture tubes

Getters used for shadow-mask color picture tubes evolved along the same lines as the black-and-white tube versions. The first color picture tubes (type 21AP22, 70° deflection, large neck tubes) were produced with six loop getters mounted above the gun in a circle. These getters had a total maximum yield of 90 mg of barium and were flashed radially outward with a high-frequency coil onto a limited area of the neck. Later, a number of different types of getters were used in this tube as part of a transition that led to a ring getter 36 mm in diameter, located above the gun mount and flashed upward and away from it. This getter provided a large area of flash on the

2-inch (diameter) neck of the tube. Barium fill was 150 mg and actual yield was maintained above 100 mg. By observation of the disappearance of metallic barium, it was estimated that 50 mg of barium were typically consumed during the first few thousand hours of tube operation. The good performance of this single getter system has been demonstrated by the excellent life of the 70° deflection color picture tubes.

Two-getter systems

A greatly increased flash area was achieved by using a getter system mounted in the funnel and directed to flash across the bulb onto the funnel and mask areas. Two 130 mg endothermic getters were used in this system. As shown in Fig. 2, one was mounted in the tube neck, and the other in tube funnel. The system had adequate getter-capacity on the oxygen capacity test (described later), however, experience showed it to be more difficult to control the flash of two getters and that the flashing produced higher methane pressure^{1,2} than with a single getter. Although the methane disappeared during tube scanning, it caused short-term emission instability after cathode aging.

Large exothermic funnel getters

RCA's getter-vendors were asked to develop, to RCA specifications, a single, large getter for the 90° deflection tubes. An exothermic getter was preferred because it is easier to flash than a large endothermic getter. (Large endothermic getters can present the problem of liquid aluminum spilling from the channel during flash. This problem is not present with endothermic getters because a solid nickel-aluminum matrix is formed during flash.) A goal of a minimum of 135 mg of barium-flash yield was set to achieve the same performance as the two-getter system. Experience with factory flash capabilities indicated that the getter fill would have to be in the range of 175 to 185 mg, about twice the amount as in the largest exothermic getter of 25-mm size.

Based on RCA's specifications, one vendor developed an exothermic getter

with 185 mg of fill. The antenna mounting system needed no changes to position this getter in the funnel. This getter flashed better than the 127-mg endothermic getter that it replaced. The starting time (time from the application of RF to initiation of the flash) was 7 ± 1 s with a total RF application time of 30 seconds, and the average yields in production exceeded 150 mg. This getter is now being used in the smaller color picture tubes.

Another vendor produced a large getter having 240 mg of barium fill. This getter, also shown in Fig. 3, has a number of features which departed from the conventional ring-type getters. First, it used a greater exposed area, relative to the weight of fill, than other getters. This was achieved by forming a solid ring of getter material and pressing the ring into a separate external retainer ring. This external ring also aided the RF heating of the getter material. Second, a reflector was incorporated which became hot during flash and re-radiated the barium that normally deposited on the glass surface as back flash. Third, a ceramic substrate was substituted in place of metallic supports in the glass funnel around the getter support to minimize localized over-heating and cracking. This substrate eliminated glass problems and reduced the distance that the getter extended above the surface of the glass, resulting in more efficient coupling to the RF unit. Fourth, the getter used gas doping with nitrogen. This allowed the getter to release nitrogen just before flashing and, thereby, to momentarily increase the pressure and confine the flash area.

The performance of the 240-mg getter has been favorable. With gas doping, it was found that RF generators with frequencies above 450 kHz caused ionization of the gas released during flash and that getter yield was below normal. However, when the frequency was reduced to 300 kHz, ionization was not visible. This getter is used in the larger color picture tubes, and has provided an average yield of 210 mg.

Control criteria for getters and getter flash

Getters delivered to RCA are checked for barium fill, barium yield under controlled flash conditions, and gas content. During the inspection for barium fill, the getter material is

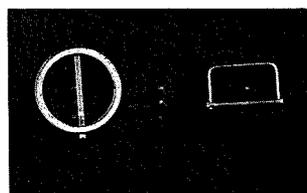


Fig. 1—Endothermic getters: loop getter (left), ring getter (right).

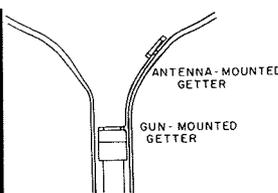


Fig. 2—Two-getter system used on the 90° deflection color picture tube.

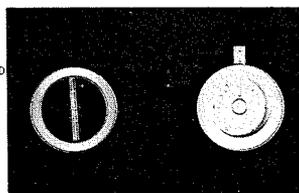


Fig. 3—Exothermic getters: 185-mg getter (left), 240-mg getter (right).

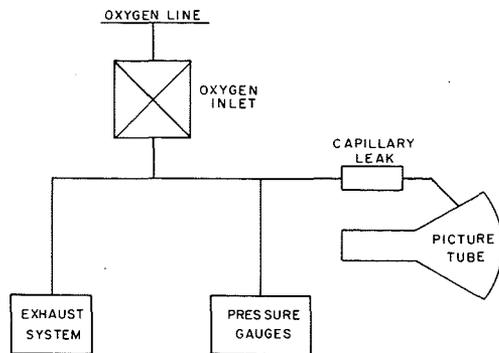


Fig. 4—Oxygen capacity test system.

broken out of its channel and inspected for barium content by chemical analysis. Barium yield is determined by the weight-loss method in which longer than average flashing is used so that most of the barium is removed from the channel. Gas content is determined by an ASTM test,³ in which the pressure peak during flash is recorded in a system of known volume.

In production, barium yield must be controlled and conveniently evaluated. The weight-loss method is not wholly suitable because the initial weight of the getter, in an arbitrarily selected production tube, cannot be accurately determined. However, because the manufacturer maintains control over the amount of barium fill in each new getter, the approximate yield can be determined. This method of checking yield is used for endothermic getters. For exothermic getters a less time consuming approach is used, namely, X-rays are used to perform a residual barium analysis. This is achieved as follows: when a primary X-ray beam impinges on the face of a getter and its ring, the excited elements in the fill (barium, aluminum, and nickel) emit secondary or fluorescence X-radiation of discrete wavelengths. Quantitative analysis by X-ray fluorescence-emission spectroscopy is possible because the intensity of the wavelengths emitted is proportional to the concentration of that element in the sample. In this analysis, the barium $K\alpha$ emis-

Table I. Efficiencies of Various Getter Types

Getter Tube	Barium fill (mg)	Getter Efficiency (l- μ /mg Ba)	Average Oxygen Capacity (l- μ)
70° Tube			
Endothermic Neck Getter	150	20	2400
90° Tube			
Endothermic Neck Getter*	127	10	4500
Endothermic Funnel Getter*	127	40	
Exothermic Funnel Getter	185	40	6200
Exothermic Funnel Getter (nitrogen gas doped)	240	35	7350

*Used in combination.

sion line is used to determine the amount of remaining barium in a flashed getter. Each determination is the average of two readings, with the getter rotated 90° between readings. This X-ray technique gives the amount of barium to within ± 3 milligrams and has been very useful in determining the best flashing techniques and in the discovery of faulty or poor flashing stations.

Evaluation of getter performance

Getter performance is best evaluated in an operating picture tube. The detrimental effect of oxygen on the oxide cathode and the high degree of activity of barium for oxygen led to a test method in which oxygen is introduced into a finished tube. (Oxygen is known to be present in picture tubes during scanning as is carbon dioxide^{4,5}; the effects of these gases can sometimes be seen by oxidation of grid surfaces in tubes which are operated with insufficient getter yield.) When oxygen is admitted, cathode current is constant as long as the barium film is active and absorbs oxygen. When the film is depleted, the oxygen pressure rises and cathode current slumps.

For the purpose of this test method, a procedure was developed to break into the tube and admit oxygen gas. In this procedure, see Fig. 4, the funnel of a tube is partially drilled with a hollow, diamond-impregnated tool. Glass tubing from a vacuum station is sealed to the funnel with epoxy resin and the hole is broken through by impact with a magnetically controlled rod. Oxygen is let into the funnel from the manifold through a fixed leak. The latter is a section of capillary tube 1 mm in diameter and 1/4 inch long having a conductance (at room temperature) of 0.017 liters of oxygen per second. A second leak from an oxygen line keeps oxygen pressure in the manifold constant, usually at 4 microns—a convenient value to be checked with McLeod gauge. The rate of gas admission into the tube is normally 250 liter-

microns per hour. The quantity of oxygen that causes the cathode current to decrease to 80% of its initial value is taken as the oxygen absorption capacity (in liter-microns) of the getter. Fig. 5 shows a plot of cathode current as a function of oxygen quantity let into a new RCA-21FBP22 (70°-deflection) color picture tube. The current for all cathodes (red, blue, green) is constant up to 2000 liter-microns where it starts to slump. The 80% end point is about 2070 liter-microns for all three cathodes. A slower than normal rate of oxygen admission, 34 liter-microns per hour for 60 hours, was used to provide sharper end-points on the curves. The amount of barium flashed into the tube was 109 mg; therefore, the efficiency of the getter in the neck position of the tube was 19 liter-microns per mg of barium.

Oxygen capacity and getter efficiency

In a single getter system, oxygen capacity is a linear function of barium yield. The getter efficiency (liter-microns of capacity per mg of barium yield) depends on getter location and design and is sensitive to the distribution of the flash.

For a two-getter system, consisting of a neck getter plus a funnel getter attached to an antenna spring, oxygen capacity can be expressed by the following linear relation:

$$Q = a N + b F$$

where Q is getter capacity (liter-microns), N and F barium quantities (in mg), and a and b are constants. The chemical equivalent of oxygen reacting with barium to form barium oxide, BaO, is 67.7 liter-microns per mg of barium. This value is the maximum expected for the constants, a and b, for a getter film which reacts completely with oxygen to form BaO (assuming this happens before the cathode emission is affected). With this relationship, a least-squares fit of the data taken on many new 25-inch (90° deflection) color picture tubes gave actual values of a equal to 10

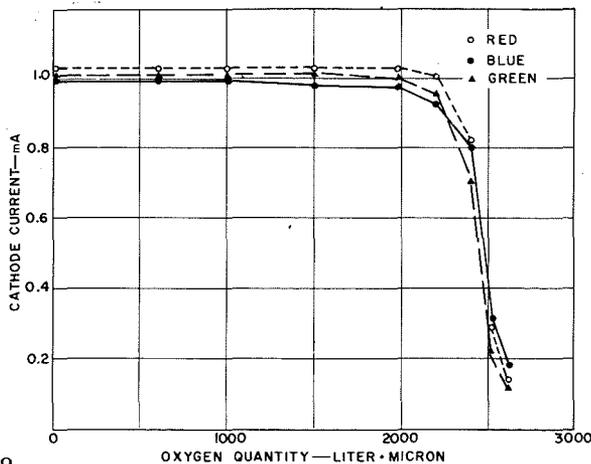


Fig. 5—Oxygen capacity test on a 70° tube.

and b equal to 40 liter-microns per mg of barium. Results show that the funnel getter with its large area of flash approaches the theoretical value, while the neck getter with its restricted area is less than $\frac{1}{4}$ as efficient as the funnel getter.

Getter efficiencies for the various types of getters used in color picture tubes are listed in Table I. These values are a function of flash area. The 70° neck getter has a large area of flash and greater efficiency than the 90° neck getter. The 90° endothermic and exothermic funnel getters have the same flash areas. The 90° exothermic gas-doped getter, also located in the funnel, has a more restricted area of flash and somewhat lower efficiency in terms of this test than the other 90° getters.

Getter depletion during tube operation

The oxygen capacity test can also be used for evaluation of getter depletion in tubes that have been operated. By use of this procedure, getter depletion is taken as the difference between the getter capacity of a used tube and that calculated for a new tube. Through the use of this test method, it has been found that oxygen absorption capacity of the 2-getter system in 25-inch tubes was depleted at the average rate of 3 liter-microns per hour during the first 300 hours of normal operation, and at the average rate of 1.5 liter-microns per hour during the first 1000 hours.

Gas sources within the picture tube can be evaluated by similar measurements on picture tubes which are modified by omission of tube components. In one test, the mask, phosphor screen, and graphite-silicate funnel coating were omitted from a tube, and an operating tube made by aluminizing the funnel and face of the bulb, and by providing small-area patches to allow set up of the picture tube in a receiver. This tube showed no appreciable depletion of the neck flashed getter during hundreds of hours of tube operation, thus demonstrating that the omitted components were the important sources of gas.

Gas measurement in picture tubes

Mass spectrometer analysis of partial pressures of gas in tubes during their operating life can define conditions that limit cathode performance. A mass spectrometer developed for use in color picture tubes has the ionization source incorporated into the

electron-gun mount structure, making the partial pressure measurement refer to the same gaseous ambient to which the cathode is exposed. The analyser sector is attached directly to the neck of the tube; therefore, gas measurement can be made during scanning operation since one of the three guns in the mount is operable.

The picture tube mass spectrometer is used in a normally processed, sealed-off color tube which can then be operated and tested for gas pressures throughout a life test. These tests have shown the following: Prior to getter flash, the residual pressure in the tube is approximately 5×10^{-5} Torr, and consists mainly of nitrogen, carbon monoxide, and hydrogen. Several minutes after getter flash a significant drop in pressure occurs; the predominant gases are then methane, hydrogen and argon at a total pressure of 5×10^{-7} Torr. Upon subsequent processing, e.g., cathode aging, the total pressure continues to fall.

Results from initial scanning of the picture tube show an increase in nitrogen and carbon dioxide pressure; with a well flashed getter, however, the combined pressure of these gases does not exceed 5×10^{-9} Torr. With continued operation, the pressure in the tube is further reduced until after several hundred hours the total and partial pressures do not appear to change appreciably. At this point, the total pressure, caused chiefly by nitrogen and carbon monoxide, is 5×10^{-10} Torr. Thus, the total pressure in the tube decreased by a factor of about 10^6 Torr from immediately following exhaust (before getter flash) until after several hundred hours of operation.

The picture-tube mass spectrometer can also define getter performance. In this procedure gas is admitted into the funnel at a constant rate, simulating the gas sources from bulb surfaces. The steady-state change in pressure of the gettered gas is determined with the mass spectrometer.

Gettering action is described by the ratio between the gas inlet rate and the pressure change at the cathode. This ratio has the same units as pumping speed (liters per second), but it is not equal to the pumping speed of the getter for the gas under test, unless this quantity is very small. The ratio measures directly the ability of the getter

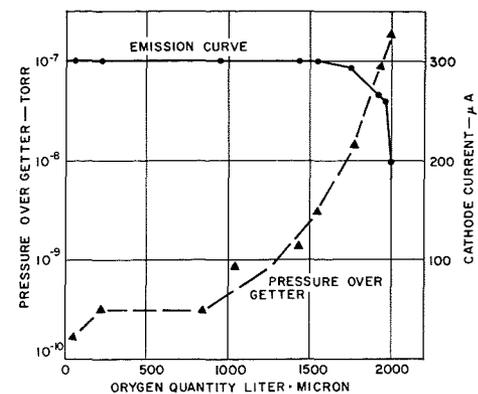


Fig. 6—Oxygen pressure over getter and cathode current as a function of quantity of oxygen absorbed.

to protect the cathode from the test gas and, therefore, its ability to protect the cathode during normal tube operation.

When the mass spectrometer is used to measure change in oxygen pressure as a function of a constant oxygen-inlet rate, and the resulting data is compared to the drop in cathode emission, the results are similar to those shown in Fig. 6. The color picture tube used for this test was a newly processed RCA-19EYP22 tube in which 50 mg of barium fill had been evaporated. From Fig. 6, it can be seen that the cathode emission current decreases to 80% of the initial value at a pressure of about 2×10^{-7} Torr. At this point the oxygen capacity is 2000 liter-microns. Many similar tests carried out on new 19EYP22 tubes and tubes which have been operated for thousands of hours indicate that the 80% emission level occurs when the pressure rises to the range 5×10^{-8} to 5×10^{-7} Torr.

Concluding remarks

Large barium getters have been developed to satisfy gas absorption requirements in color picture tubes. Tests evolved to assess gettering ability in production tubes can show whether a getter system is adequate throughout life operation of the tube, and can thus be used to define the getter system.

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Colorimetry and contrast performance of color picture tubes

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Although manufacturers use many technical terms to describe the quality of color television pictures, the ultimate appraisal is made on a purely subjective basis by the viewer. Therefore, it is more important to produce a picture that is "pleasing" to most viewers than to strive for an exact reproduction of an original scene which the home audience does not see. A viewer's subjective appraisal of a color picture depends upon the sensations he experiences as a result of various light stimuli. These sensations are produced by many properties of the light which can be measured and described in absolute values (e.g., total intensity, spectral energy distribution, hue, purity, brightness, contrast, and resolution). This paper discusses audience responses to chromatic stimuli of various hues, and relates the physical properties of these stimuli to the concept of picture "viewability."

VISIBLE LIGHT occupies the wavelength region between 4000 and 7000 angstroms. The spectral energy distribution of a light source is a detailed description of its color composition, i. e., the relative intensity of its light components distributed along this wavelength region. Each of the three phosphors used in color television is a primary emitter of light in a separate region of the visible spectrum, i.e., the three phosphors produce red, blue, and green light.

Color mixing

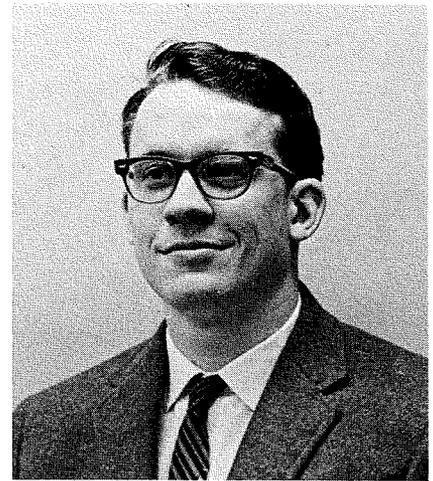
The triad of red, blue, and green phosphors is important in color television because the proper mixture of these primary emitters produces white light. Addition of any primary color to the white mixture produces the hue of that color; subtraction induces the complement of the primary color. The primary triad, therefore, can generate a countless number of colors (the totality of which is called its *color gamut*), as well as white. (Although this discussion treats the primary triad as pure, spectral, or "rainbow" colors, it also applies to the phosphors used in commercial color television, which have less sharply peaked spectral distributions.)

The standard color mixing diagram shown in Fig. 1, which was adopted by the International Commission on Illumination in 1931, illustrates the pairs

of complementary colors generated by the primary triad. Because the proper mixture of complementary colors produces white, the straight line connecting each pair passes through the white, or neutral, point. The location of this point on the connecting line is an indication of the effectiveness of each primary color in neutralizing its complementary color. For example, blue light neutralizes its complement, yellow light, very effectively; red and green are less effective in neutralizing their respective complements, cyan (blue-green) and purple. (This property is described as relative luminance of each color, or as the luminance ratio between the complementary pairs.)

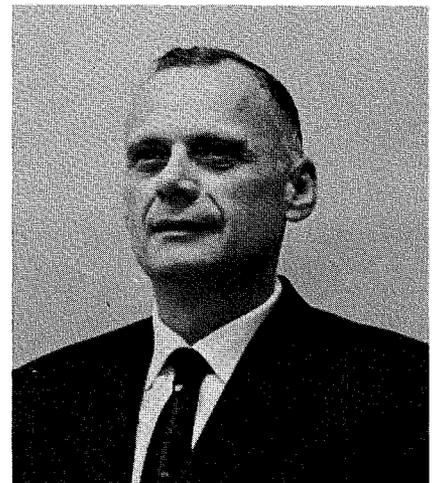
The neutralizing power of a primary color over its complement also affects a viewer's response to a field of that color placed in a luminous neutral (white) background. A neutral background of higher luminance (brightness) than the color area induces an apparent grayness into the chromatic field. The color at which the threshold of grayness is reached and "fluorescence" (the appearance of fluorescence) begins to decrease is called a zero-gray color.¹

Zero-gray colors for a given hue are described by their luminance and purity. The purity of a zero-gray color is the ratio of the luminance of the pure or chromatic hue-determining component to the total luminance of the color mixture (chromatic plus white additive) which complements



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it in a two-component mix and desaturates it. Both can be varied independently of the luminous background.

An experimental technique was used to determine zero-gray color curves for blue, yellow, green, red, and cyan hues produced by a P22 television phosphor screen when the grid voltages of the three electron guns were adjusted to generate the proper primary excitations for the standard television white. For a desired hue of red, blue, or green, the grid voltage exciting the corresponding phosphor primary is increased either slightly or noticeably to produce low and medium purities, respectively. Full purity occurs when the hue-producing primary alone is excited.

For example, yellow and cyan hues are produced when their respective phosphor primary complements (blue and red) receive less excitation than that required to produce white. When the blue or red phosphor is unexcited, full purity results in the yellow and cyan hues, respectively.

Bright light having the color of a 3500°K black-body radiator was used to illuminate a reflecting baffle placed between the observer and the television screen; the light passes through the viewing aperture in the baffle without striking the screen, as shown in Fig. 2. The observer views the screen through the baffle illuminated by a luminous background, adjusts screen luminance until the zero-grayness threshold is reached, and records two measurements: the total luminance of the phosphor screen and the luminance of the hue-producing primary (in the case of yellow hues, the blue-phosphor luminance is recorded). The first measurement is the zero-gray color luminance, the second measurement allows calculation of color purity. Fig. 3 shows the results of such measurements for blue and yellow hues.

Blue colors, which easily neutralize their yellow complements, remain fluorescent until a high threshold value of background luminance is reached, while yellows lose fluorence and appear to contain gray at a much lower threshold. Television-gamut greens and reds behave as the yellow colors, while cyans exhibit intermediate behavior.

The uniqueness of the zero-gray colors for blue hues lies in the behavior of required blue chromatic luminance as a function of color purity in the presence of a bright background. The blue chromatic luminance curve in Fig. 3 is flat at all color purities above a low threshold value; therefore, reduction of the white component does not require an increase in chromatic illumination, and the zero-gray threshold is maintained all the way to full purity as the white component is gradually reduced to zero.

Although a decrease in the white component of luminance in a yellow hue produces a purer yellow on the color mixing diagram of Fig. 1, for fixed background luminance near threshold, the induction of grayness offsets this physical gain in purity. As a result, additional chromatic yellow illumination would be required to produce the same total luminance of the original color to a viewer. At zero-gray threshold, therefore, total luminance of yellow hues remains constant for purities ranging from zero (completely white) to unity (pure yellow). Whether the "pure yellow" is spectral or within the television gamut of a broadband green is unimportant in matters concerning fluorence of yellow hues. So far as fluorence is concerned, phosphor efficiency rather than purity of emitted color is essential in the green and red primaries.

Picture viewability

Viewability is best studied independently of a television picture so that the viewer can control some of the physical properties. When a television picture is simulated with projected color transparencies, the viewer can manipulate independently the color, the luminance (brightness), the resolution, and the ambient illumination to "create" the most desirable picture.

For each picture, the effects of the various factors influencing the viewer's judgment can be evaluated from a pattern produced by substitution of a RETMA resolution-chart transparency for the color transparency. The image provides a gray scale, broad black and white areas for high contrast, and resolution wedges. The gray scale, which has low contrast in both highlight

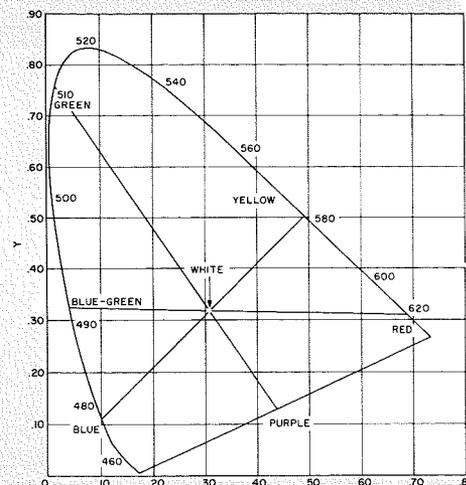


Fig. 1—Standard ICI diagram showing spectral colors and their complements (the color of neutral equals that of a 7000°K black-body radiator).

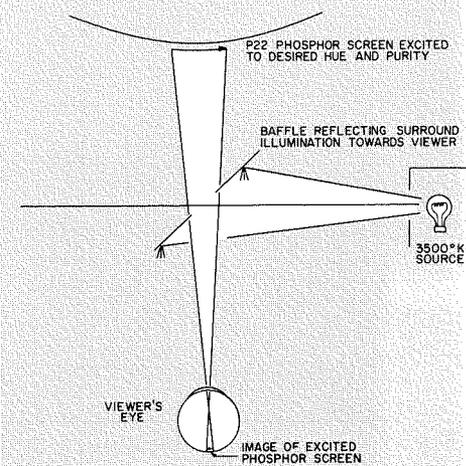


Fig. 2—Experimental determination of zero-gray colors.

and shadow areas, proves particularly useful.

One important factor is the picture brightness required for comfortable viewing at various ambient illumination levels. For example, the luminance required when pictures are viewed with 2.5 foot-lamberts reflected ambient illumination, comparable to that encountered in a moderately lighted room, is approximately 17 foot-lamberts. For prolonged viewing, the picture is judged uncomfortably bright at 40 foot-lamberts and too dim at 5 foot-lamberts. Fig. 4 shows the relation between the picture luminance for typical low and high brightness areas and reflected ambient illumination for satisfactory viewing.

Although the contrast and the resolution of a color picture are decreased by increases in ambient illumination, viewability can be conserved by increased picture luminance. As an example, a picture was set up with a reflected ambient illumination of 0.5 foot-lambert. The white luminance of

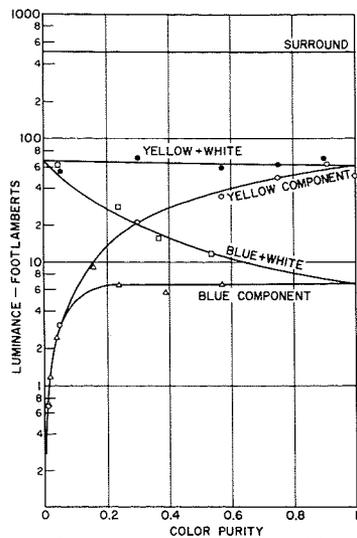


Fig. 3—The required luminance of blue and yellow hues and their respective chromatic components at zero-grayness threshold in a 500 fL surrounding.

the RETMA slide measured 25 foot-lamberts and the highlight contrast ratio was 50. When the ambient illumination was increased to 1 foot-lambert, the contrast ratio was reduced to 26. The viewer then changed the picture brightness to "recover" the excellent picture. However, instead of increasing the highlight brightness to 50 foot-lamberts to produce the original contrast ratio of 50, the viewer settled for a highlight luminance of about 40 foot-lamberts, and a contrast ratio of only 40, as shown in Fig. 5.

The conservation of viewability was studied by Luckiesh and Moss² using the black-and-white Snellen eye chart at various room light levels; their results are shown in Fig. 6. The percent contrast has been recalculated in terms of contrast ratio, which is the luminance ratio of the highlights to adjacent areas on the eye chart. These curves should remain valid for comparison to color television, in which a self-luminous phosphor screen and a protective gray glass are placed in an ambient setting.

The experimental highlight data for constant viewability shown in Fig. 5 correspond to the 110% normal-vision curve of Luckiesh and Moss in Fig. 6. However, the slope of the latter curve indicates that a decrease in highlight contrast ratio should not affect the viewability, while the slope of the experimental data indicates picture degradation with decreased contrast ratios. This discrepancy was resolved when the experimental shadow-area behavior (i.e., contrast ratio and luminance) was plotted in Fig. 5 for the same ambient conditions as those

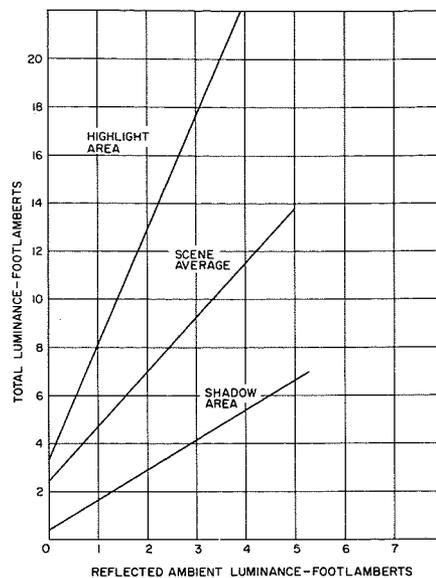


Fig. 4—Picture luminance for typical low and high brightness areas as a function of reflected ambient illumination.

placed on the highlights of the picture. This experimental curve nearly coincides with the 50% normal-vision curve of Luckiesh and Moss. This result indicates that the viewability conserved by the viewer is primarily in the picture shadow areas.

There is also agreement between the Luckiesh and Moss normal-vision data and the experimental data on induced grayness in a chromatic field. The Luckiesh and Moss curves for 50, 80, 100, and 120% normal vision are not associated with independently adjusted background luminance. In their work, the background is identical to the highlights. However, when zero-gray curves for blue and yellow hues in a background luminance of 500 foot-lamberts are replotted from Fig. 3 onto the Luckiesh and Moss plot, they show significant correspondence. (Color purity in Fig. 3 is converted to contrast ratio in Fig. 5. The contrast ratio for color mixtures of chromatic light and white light composing the hues of Fig. 3 is the ratio of the total luminance of the hue to that of the white component.)

For dim colored areas such as blue on a projected picture, the zero-gray curve for blue shifts to the left in Fig. 5 (and produces smaller threshold luminance for the same contrast ratio) as a result of the much lower background luminance values (0.5 and 1 foot-lambert) used in the experiment. The experimental curve of constant viewability in the blue background then agrees fairly well with the shifted zero-gray curve for blue color areas. These experimental results of constant viewability may

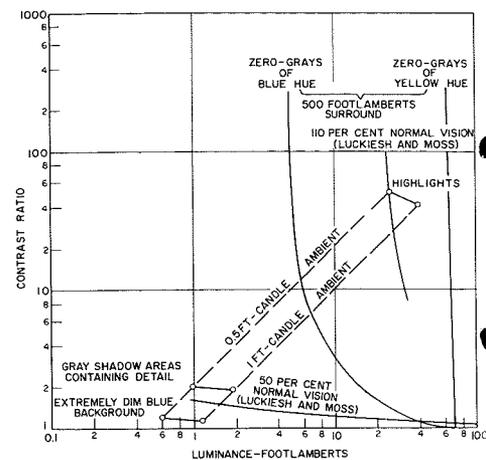


Fig. 5—Behavior of various areas in a scene judged equally viewable under different ambient conditions.

be altered if the dim background area is yellow, red, or green in hue because of the radical difference between the zero-gray curves for blues and for greens, yellows, and reds in the low-contrast-ratio region, where the fluorence of the latter hues is less sensitive to contrast ratio. Vertical lines in Fig. 5 would then represent constant viewability as determined by the zero-gray condition of the green, yellow, or red hue. It is also possible, however, that detail in the shadows must be conserved for any hue, or even for true grays; this condition would lead to horizontal lines of constant contrast ratio at the highlight regions as well as in the shadow regions for constant viewability of a picture.

Detail resolution and picture fluorence are not necessarily incompatible, therefore, since both are enhanced by gain in picture luminance. For a scene with dim, unstructured chromatic background mixed with ambient illumination, however, a compromise may be necessary between increased background fluorence and a slight loss in detail resolution in other shadow areas of the scene as the ambient luminance is increased. If picture fluorence were much more critical than detail resolution, constant viewability of pictures with green, yellow, and red shadows would require constant luminance, and the viewability curves would be vertical or nearly so in the highlight-area behavior of Fig. 5. Pictures containing detail in green, yellow, and red shadow areas would not suffer in this respect. Because the increase in picture luminance recovers both fluorence and

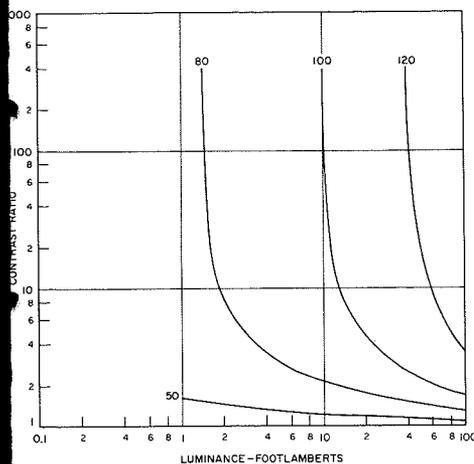


Fig. 6—Constant viewability curves of Luckiesh and Moss.

shadow-area detail (except for dazzling background luminances), and because both are desirable in a given area of a scene, the viewability is limited by shadow detail provided no dimmer unstructured chromatic background exists.

Fig. 7 shows the effects of reflected ambient illumination on shadow detail contrast for a specific case of two adjacent picture elements in a shadow area with luminances L_1 and L_2 , where L_1 is twice the value of L_2 . (At zero ambient, the contrast would equal 2.) The average scene luminance is defined as the sum of the average luminance of the two picture shadow areas and the reflected ambient.

As an example of the use of Fig. 7, the following conditions are assumed:

- Average scene luminance 7 foot-lamberts (i.e., $L_1 = 4$ foot-lamberts);
- Reflected ambient luminance 4 foot-lamberts;
- Screen reflectivity 1.0;
- Glass reflectivity 0.04;
- Faceplate transmission 0.5.

When no faceplate is used, the contrast is 1.33. With the faceplate, the reflected ambient luminance is reduced by 75% (doubly attenuated) and the area luminances L_1 and L_2 by 50% (singly attenuated). The result is a 64% decrease in average scene luminance but a 12% increase in contrast. (Although this latter figure seems insignificant, the eye is capable of discerning a 2% shift at this brightness level.) In a television receiver, the loss of brightness can be compensated by an increase of video drive. If the video

drive is quadrupled to produce the original average scene luminance of 7 foot-lamberts, the contrast increases by 35% to 1.8.

Table I shows the effect of the faceplate transmission on contrast for the above example, without video-drive compensation. Decreasing faceplate transmission decreases luminance, but increases contrast.

In color television, the white light that mixes with and desaturates a color is related to the background luminance by a factor that involves the television faceplate transmission. Zero-gray colors of the various hues are produced in the picture shadow areas, and the purity of these threshold colors is controlled by the faceplate transmission.

In the case of zero-gray colors of yellow, red, and green hues, varying faceplate transmissions also cause zero-gray areas of the scene to be redistributed, even when the product of the picture signal luminance (video drive) and glass transmission remains fixed. If glass transmission is decreased to enhance the contrast ratio, the blue threshold colors return to the original distribution in the picture after video-drive adjustment. In the case of the other hues, video drive must be further increased until the total picture luminance is the same as that for the original high glass transmission.

For constant ambient luminance and video drive, highlight-area behavior is directly related to shadow-area behavior as the glass transmission varies. For different faceplate transmissions, contrast and luminance in the highlights have been compared with the experimentally determined conditions for constant viewability. If a particular scene has dim achromatic detail upon a still dimmer and unstructured blue background, Fig. 8 shows that 40% transmission is a reasonable value for practical use. Values lower than 40%, including the 24% value for optimum contrast, reduce picture viewability primarily because of decreased luminance. Transmission higher than 40% produces a substantial increase in the reflected ambient illumination and a consequent loss in detail contrast. The contrast loss can be recovered by an increase in the picture brightness with video drive; however, resolution will

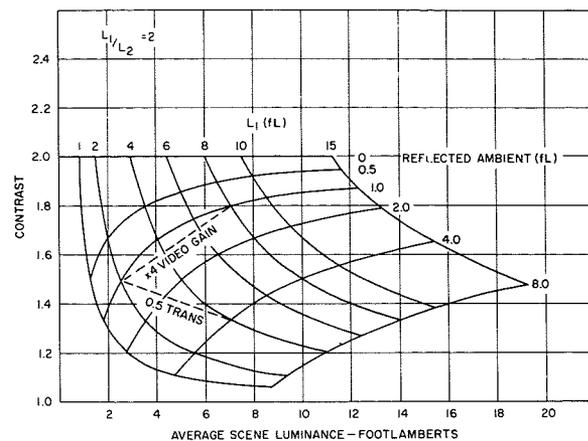


Fig. 7—Effect of reflected ambient illumination on shadow-area detail contrast for two picture elements with luminances L_1 and L_2 .

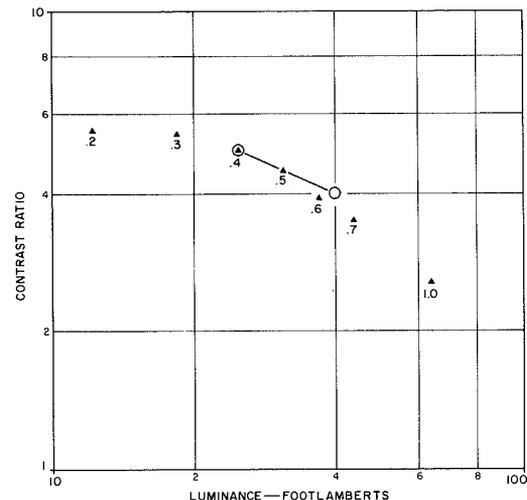


Fig. 8—Effect of glass transmission choice for fixed operating conditions as compared to experimental segment of constant picture viewability drawn for highlight region.

decrease as a result of beam blooming and beam power requirements will increase.

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Table I—Contrast and average scene luminance change as a function of faceplate transmission for a scene of low brightness and low contrast ($L_1/L_2 = 2$)

Faceplate Transmission	Re- flected ambient Lumi- nance (fL)	L_1 (fL)	Ave. scene lumi- nance (fL)	Contrast
1.0	4.0	4.0	7.0	1.33
0.8	2.56	3.06	4.85	1.37
0.7	1.96	2.68	3.97	1.40
0.6	1.48	2.30	3.20	1.44
0.5	1.08	1.92	2.52	1.47
0.4	0.75	1.53	1.90	1.50
0.3	0.49	1.15	1.35	1.54
0.24	0.32	0.92	1.00	1.60

A sterilizable and ruggedized vidicon

Dr. S. A. Ochs | F. D. Marschka

To qualify for a berth on a spacecraft destined to land on one of our sister planets, a device has to be capable of withstanding pre-flight sterilization as well as the rigors of launch and touchdown. The camera tube described in this paper is intended for such an application. It is a one-inch ceramic vidicon with a slow-scan photoconductor and employs electrostatic focusing and magnetic deflection. The tube is designed to produce a high-quality picture after undergoing rigorous test procedures. The sterilization requirements presented a potential problem in tube development because of the possible adverse affect of high temperatures on the photoconductor and the material used for potting the tube within the magnetic shield. The remaining tests concerned the whole vidicon.



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received the BSME in 1943 from Columbia University. In 1949 he received the AM and in 1953 the PhD in physics from Columbia. Dr. Ochs was an instructor in physics from 1947 to 1951, during the course of his graduate studies. Also, while pursuing his doctorate, he was the recipient of an Atomic Energy Commission pre-doctoral fellowship (1951-52). His thesis research involved the use of the atomic and molecular beams technique for the study of the hyperfine structures of rubidium and potassium isotopes and of sodium chloride. Dr. Ochs became associated with RCA in 1952, working first on television camera tubes. This included work on a tri-color vidicon, on structure-type vidicon targets, and developmental work on new image orthicon targets. He later worked on electrostatic signal storage, on tunneling current in insulators, and on injection-luminescent lasers. Presently, he is engaged in the development of a ruggedized, sterilizable vidicon. Dr. Ochs is the holder of five patents, is represented in the *Reinhold Encyclopedia of Electronics* with an article on image orthicons, and has received two RCA Achievement Awards (1954 and 1957). He is a member of the American Physical Society, Sigma Xi, and a Senior Member of IEEE.



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received the BS in physics and mathematics from Juniata College in 1948, and continued with graduate work at the University of Maryland. He has also pursued graduate studies at Franklin and Marshall College. Joining RCA in 1949, he has been concerned with production engineering and product design engineering of television camera tubes, oscilloscopes, and storage tubes. An Engineering Leader since 1958, he has made significant contributions in advanced development work on the aforementioned families of tubes. He was instrumental in the development work associated with the vidicons used in the TIROS weather satellite. Mr. Marschka is a member of Sigma Pi Sigma.

A ONE-INCH VIDICON capable of withstanding sterilization treatments and severe environmental testing has been developed for space applications. The ceramic vidicon, which represents a significant advance in rugged camera-tube design, uses electrostatic focusing and magnetic deflection provided by photo-etched deflection coils to produce an image comparable to that of commercial one-inch vidicons using the same photoconductor. The sterilization tests, con-

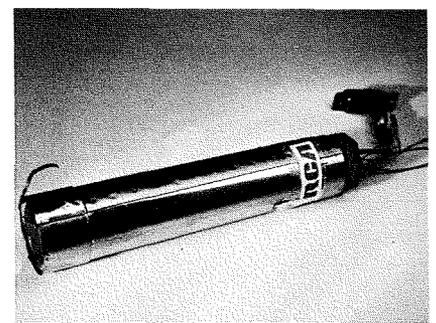


Fig. 1—Experimental ceramic vidicon.

sisting of ethylene-oxide exposure and a prolonged 135°C dry-nitrogen bake, caused some increase in dark current and a small gain in sensitivity of the slow-scan photoconductor. The tube operates satisfactorily after undergoing high-amplitude vibration tests, and several half-sine shock pulses of 3000-g amplitude.

The tube, shown in Fig. 1, consists of a ceramic body with a quartz faceplate and copper pinch-off; the faceplate is attached to the tube with an indium seal. The filament is potted within the cathode sleeve of the ruggedized electron gun. The wall electrodes consist of metal coatings on the inside wall of the tube envelope, while the mesh decelerating screen is mounted on a support that is brazed to the tube body. Metal pins, brazed into the tube wall, provide electrical connections to the various electrodes. The complete tube is potted within a magnetic shield. The ruggedized ceramic vidicon produces as good a picture as the more conventional one-inch non-ceramic tubes.

Tube construction

The tube design was guided by the following considerations:

- 1) All components had to be capable of withstanding the required environmental tests.
- 2) The cathode surface and photoconductor could not be exposed to brazing temperatures.
- 3) No magnetic material could be used in the middle and front sections of the tube because of the possibility that such materials might impair picture quality.
- 4) Weight and power requirements were to be minimized.

Fig. 2 is a cross-sectional sketch of the final tube design. To avoid the weakest features of the standard vacuum tube, the construction method chosen for the ruggedized vidicon consists of a brazed metal-and-ceramic structure. The glass envelope of the ordinary vacuum tube was eliminated, as well as the internal glass beads, thin-walled electrodes, wire leads, and bulb spacers. The main section of the tube

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body consists of an alumina-ceramic cylinder with internal shoulders for supporting the mesh and the electron gun. A Kovar section brazed to the rear of this cylinder carries the copper exhaust tubulation.

The gun used in the tube is similar in geometry to the low-heater-power type used in several commercial vidicons except that its components are brazed together instead of being supported by glass beads. As indicated in Fig. 3, the control and accelerating grids are brazed to a ceramic spacer which insures accurate and stable positioning of the accelerating-grid cup relative to the control-grid cup. The control-grid cup is brazed to a ceramic support ring; the ring is brazed to the tube envelope.

The cathode heater in the gun consists of a double helix of rhenium-tungsten wire just under 0.001 in in diameter; the wire is coated with aluminum oxide. The cathode structure is mounted on the control-grid cup conventionally. The ends of the heater consist of two straight leads which protrude from the long, thin cathode sleeve that contains the filament. The straight leads are welded to two 0.030-in Kovar rods whose ends are brazed to the tube wall. The helical section of the filament is potted within the cathode sleeve by means of loose alumina powder capped with a high-temperature cement.

The filament potting causes relatively good thermal coupling between heater and cathode sleeve. This coupling results in a slightly greater heat loss than found in commercial tubes, but permits the filament to operate at a temperature somewhat lower than normal. The increase in heater power is less than 5%.

The electrostatic unipotential lens consists of three cylindrical sections formed by nickel-plated molybdenum coatings on the inside tube wall. The lens was designed with a magnification near unity with minimum spherical aberration. Typical operating voltages are about 400 V for the outside electrodes and 65 V for the central electrode.

The decelerating screen consists of an electroplated 1000-line/in nickel mesh. It is stretched over a flat nichrome ring under high tension (close to the yield

point); the tension keeps the ring flat without the need of the usual firing operation. As a result, the mesh has a relatively high internal damping coefficient that makes it highly resistant to damage from severe shock pulses and that minimizes microphonics. The resonant frequency of the mesh ranges from 2300 to 4500 Hz, with most samples resonating near 3600 Hz; the typical decay time is 0.2 s. The nichrome ring that supports the mesh is screwed to a molybdenum support ring. The support ring is brazed to the ceramic tube envelope.

The quartz faceplate supports the rhodium signal electrode and slow-scan photoconductor and is attached to the front surface of the ceramic tube body by a thin layer of indium metal. The indium seal is strong and reliable provided that the ceramic end surface of the tube is polished flat and free of scratches. The electrical connection to the target is made by a nichrome ribbon welded to a stainless-steel ring that encircles the indium seal.

All other electrical contacts are made through the ceramic envelope by molybdenum or Kovar pins brazed to the tube wall. These pins are connected to metalized strips on the outside surface of the envelope. Copper wires are soldered to the strips near the rear of the tube. The external connections can be seen in Fig. 4 which shows a tube, without deflection yoke, before being potted in the magnetic shield.

The vidicon is evacuated through the copper tubulation at the rear end. After completion of the standard vacuum-bake, cathode-activation, and getter-flash procedures, the copper tube is pinched off to form a vacuum-tight seal.

The scanning beam is deflected by the action of a lightweight yoke which fits snugly over the tube; the yoke design was borrowed from the unit used in the RCA Dev. No. C23080 vidicon. The spiral coils that produce the magnetic deflection fields consist of photo-etched copper patterns deposited on a thin dielectric sheet; each coil contains forty turns. Fig. 5 is a close-up of two coils; the copper pattern shown is about 0.002 in thick and is deposited on 0.005-in fiberglass. Two deflection yokes are shown in Fig. 6; one has not yet been rolled into the required cylindrical shape, while the other is

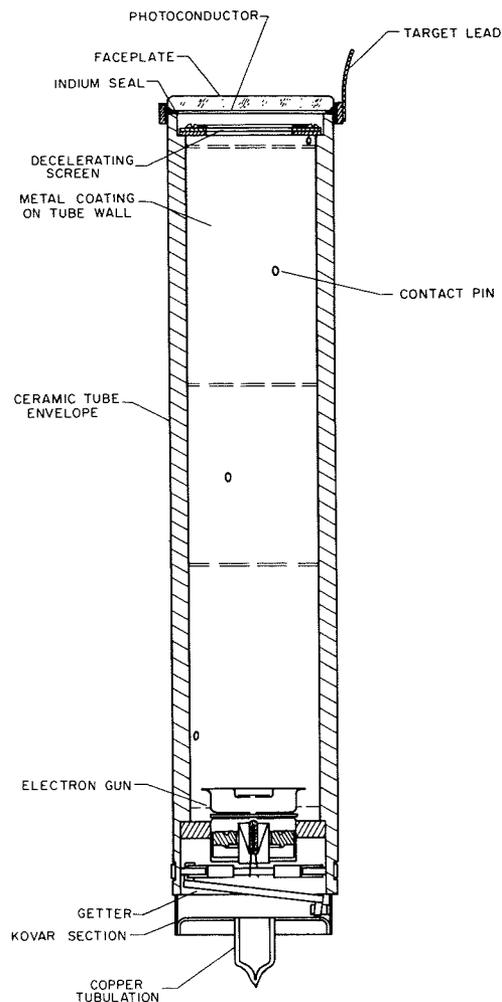


Fig. 2—Cross section of the new ceramic vidicon.

ready to be slipped onto a tube. A yoke consumes about 2 W but could be re-designed to require less than 1 W.

The vidicon, with deflection yoke in place, is potted in a polyurethane compound within a magnetic shield of 0.025-in Moly Permalloy. The mass of the total unit is 200 grams. About half of this mass is contributed by the ceramic tube; the other half is contributed by the potting, magnetic shield, and external wire leads.

Environmental testing

The environmental tests outlined in Table I were performed by RCA environmental engineering activity in Lancaster. Fig. 7 shows the two high-acceleration shock machines designed for this project. The eight-pound magnesium drop table of the larger machine slides on Teflon bearings and is capable of providing impact shocks of 3700-g at a drop height of 60 inches. The 0.45-ms pulse profile for the larger machine is obtained by using fiberglass material as the impact spring.

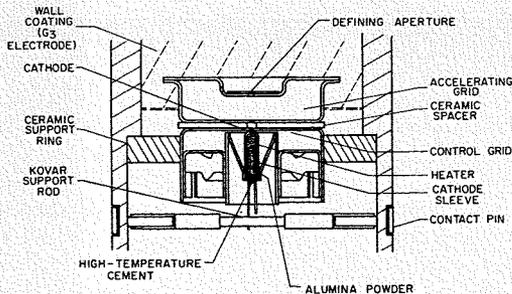


Fig. 3—Cross section of the gun.

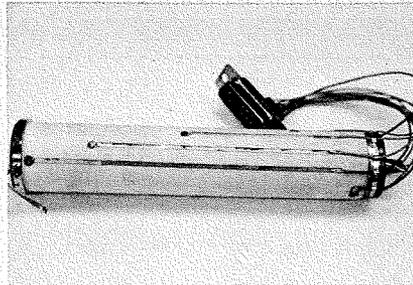


Fig. 4—Ceramic vidicon before potting.

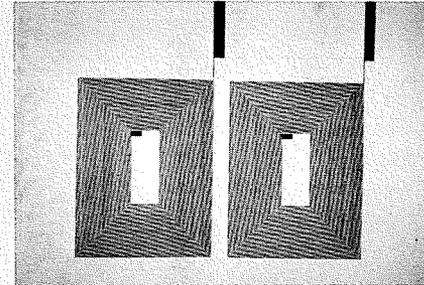


Fig. 5—Close-up of two photo-etched deflection coils.

The smaller machine was built to provide a 3000-g pulse with a risetime of 0.10 ms; it uses a steel block as the impact spring.

Separate tests were made on all portions of the tube considered to be potentially prone to failure; the separate tests were followed by several made on assembled vidicons.

Static loads were applied to the faceplate of the tube to establish the strength of the quartz disk and of the indium seal. An axial force applied to the faceplate so as to push it away from the tube caused failure equally often from separation of the indium seal and from cracking of the faceplate. Failure occurred with an average applied force of 181 lbs. A lateral force of 60 lbs caused faceplate slippage. Because the weight of the quartz faceplate is 0.0075 lb., a pulse of 3000-g causes a peak inertial force of 3000×0.0075 or 22.5 lbs. This force is well within the limits acceptable to the faceplate and indium seal and both therefore are judged to be sufficiently rugged for the intended application.

Photoconductor

The slow-scan ASOS (antimony sulfide-oxysulfide) photoconductor, developed by RCA for earlier space applications, was chosen for this tube because preliminary tests had shown it to be relatively resistant to high temperatures. The photosurface is deposited on the faceplate; a substrate of vitreous quartz of very high surface quality. To avoid coherent noise caused by imperfections on or in the photoconductor, the faceplate is subjected to a very thorough cleaning process. The signal electrode and the photoconductor are evaporated in an oil-free system evacuated by absorption and ion pumps. All depositions are made in a single pump-down—i.e., without breaking vacuum between the evaporation of different materials. The continuous vacuum assures a sensitive and spot-free photosurface. As expected, the prolonged exposure

to the elevated temperatures required during the sterilization treatments described in Table I causes an increase in dark current. However, the increase is not excessive and is accompanied by an improvement in signal current. In general, the dark current grows by 50 to 100% while the sensitivity rises between 15 and 25%. Fig. 8 shows typical tube performance both before and after complete sterilization. Dark current and signal current are plotted for a faceplate illumination of one footcandle; the temperature of the front end of the tube was held at 25°C during the measurements.

Sterilization causes a decrease of less than 10% in resolution and an almost imperceptible shift in the spectral response toward longer wavelengths. No systematic changes are observed in the slope of the transfer characteristic, gray-scale rendition, or lag characteristics of the photosurfaces. These results indicate that the ASOS slow-scan photoconductor can withstand the sterilization procedure without significant impairment of performance.

The tightly stretched nickel decelerating screen was tested under axial shock in a test arrangement designed to simulate the mounting used in the vidicon. A considerable number of samples was exposed to shocks of 3000-g's for 0.45 ms; no permanent damage or wrinkling occurred.

A major part of the design effort was spent on the brazed gun structure to assure satisfaction of the two principal gun requirements: precise alignment and strength. The final gun design shown in Fig. 3 provides the necessary accuracy and has been shown to be capable of withstanding shock pulses of 3000-g's.

Several potted heaters were mounted in special test units and exposed to the complete set of 3000-g shock pulses described in Table I; all of the samples survived. An accelerated life test run on the samples following the shock

test showed the life expectancy of the heaters to be at least 2000 hours. In spite of these results, the two complete tubes which were given shock tests of 3000-g's at the end of the program developed open heater connections before all sixty shocks had been applied. In both cases, failure resulted from a break in one of the straight heater sections at or near the Kovar support rods. In the complete tubes, the heaters were connected to Kovar rods of greater length and flexibility than those used in the test units. An unexpectedly large deflection of these rods is likely to have overstressed the straight sections of the heaters and caused them to break.

Static or shock tests were made on several other components of the tube including the brazed-in feedthrough pins, ceramic-to-Kovar joint, deflection yoke, and magnetic shield. These were all found to have a considerable immunity to damage when exposed to 3000-g shock pulses.

The three complete tubes which were exposed to environmental testing were capable of good performance prior to the shock tests. One tube was passed through the entire ethylene-oxide decontamination and heat sterilization procedures, as well as the static acceleration, sinusoidal vibration, and wideband noise tests, without deterioration in tube performance. However, the filament opened after one 7500-g shock test. The other two tubes were exposed to shock tests in which the amplitudes were held to slightly above 3000-g. One tube was in good condition after the first set of five shocks, but devel-

Table I—Environmental tests performed on the vidicon

<i>Ethylene-oxide decontamination:</i> six 28-hr cycles at 50°C.
<i>Dry-heat sterilization:</i> six 92-hr cycles at 135°C.
<i>Static acceleration:</i> six tests at ± 190 g for 20 min along three orthogonal axes.
<i>Sinusoidal vibration:</i> tests of each type along three orthogonal axes with vibration swept at $\frac{1}{2}$ octave/minute, up and down in frequency.
± 0.5 in displacement, 5 to 16 Hz.
5 g RMS, 17 to 50 Hz.
15 g RMS, 50 to 100 Hz.
35 g RMS, 100 to 2000 Hz.
<i>Wideband noise:</i> three tests at 25 g RMS, 9 min duration, 15 to 2000 Hz along each axis.
<i>Shock:</i> sixty tests with designated shocks applied 5 times in each of 6 directions.
± 3000 g half-sine pulse, 225 μ s risetime.
± 3000 g half-sine pulse, 100 μ s risetime.

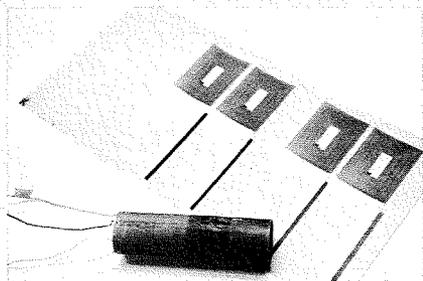


Fig. 6—Two photo-etched deflection yokes.

oped an open heater connection during the second set. The second tube went through twenty-five shocks with no damage but lost heater continuity during the following five shocks. The failure of each of the three tubes was caused by breaks in the straight section of the heater wire.

Tube performance

The performance characteristics of the ceramic vidicon are described in Figs. 9, 10 and 11. In slow-scan operation, a typical cycle consists of three steps: exposure, readout, and erase. In exposure, the lens shutter is opened for a specified time. The photosurface then carries a charge pattern corresponding to the scene whose image appears on the tube. In readout, the electron beam scans the photosurface and generates the video signal in accordance with the charge stored on the photosurface. During the erase step, the electron beam scans the photosurface a second time and removes most of the remaining stored charge. The erase scan is desirable because the beam ordinarily removes only part of the stored charge in any single scan. In a typical experiment, the beam erased slightly less than half of the remaining stored charge with each scan. Therefore, after the readout and erase scans, about two-thirds of the originally stored charge had been removed. More com-

Fig. 7—Tube performance before and after sterilization (standard frame rate).

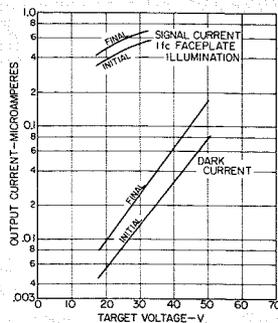
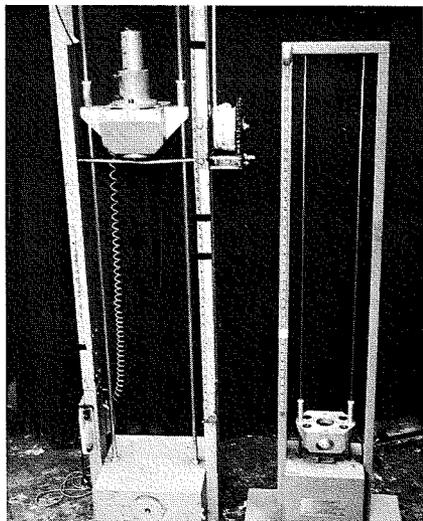


Fig. 8—High-acceleration shock machines.

plete erasure can be obtained by scanning the photosurface several times, possibly at a fast rate, during the time allotted to the erase step.

The transfer characteristic shown in Fig. 9 describes the sensitivity of the tube in terms of the signal current generated for various faceplate exposures. The tube was operated in a two-second cycle with one second used for the readout. A reciprocal relationship was found to exist between shutter time and illumination (at least within the shutter-time range of 1/100 to 1 second). Therefore, for a given exposure value (the product of illumination and shutter time) the signal remains the same if, for example, the illumination is doubled and the shutter time is halved. The transfer characteristic, in logarithmic form, is essentially a straight line with a slope γ of 0.71. This transfer characteristic is typical of vidicons and permits operation over a relatively wide range of exposure times.

The resolution capability of the tube is shown in Fig. 10. The uncompensated horizontal peak-to-peak response at the center of the raster is shown for a square-wave test pattern with the tube operated at the standard television rate of 30 frames/second. The performance is essentially the same as that of an RCA-8134 vidicon, a commercial one-inch tube with electrostatic focusing and magnetic deflection.

Fig. 11 shows the spectral response of the ruggedized tube in the visible-light range; power input at all wavelengths is the same. As indicated in the figure, the photoconductor has a maximum sensitivity at some wavelength between 500 and 600 nanometers.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge contributions to this work by J. Ziedonis in environmental engineering, L. Rhoads in ceramic engineering, and D. Neuer in tube construction.

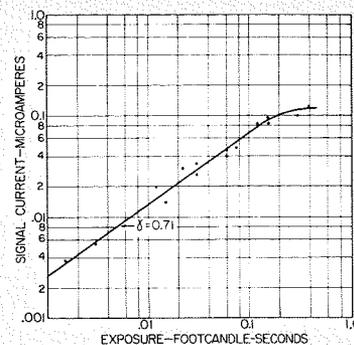


Fig. 9—Transfer characteristic.

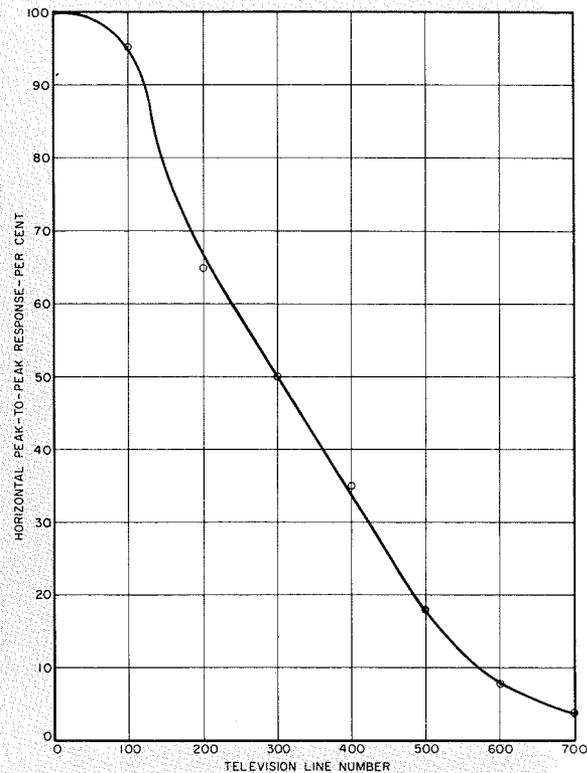


Fig. 10—Resolution capability.

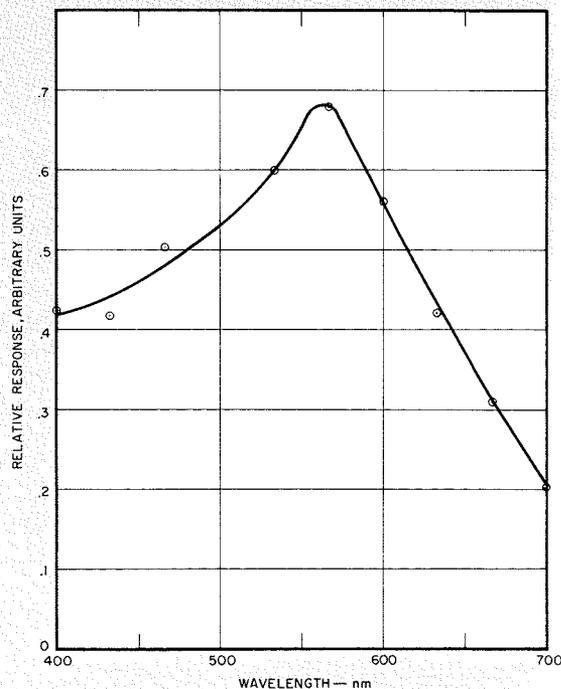


Fig. 11—Spectral response.

Vidicon photoconductors

J. F. Heagy

Of the many compounds and elements that exhibit photoconductive properties,¹ three have emerged as most suitable for use in vidicons: antimony trisulfide (Sb_2S_3), lead oxide (PbO), and antimony oxysulfide. The first two are used in commercial applications; the third is used in special applications only. This paper briefly describes the development, applications, and properties of these photoconductors.

IN A VIDICON CAMERA TUBE, the target consists of a layer of semiconductor material called a photoconductor. The electrical resistance of this photoconductor varies when light, X-rays, or electrons are incident upon it. When the camera-lens shutter is opened for a specified time, a charge pattern is formed on the photoconductive layer that corresponds to the image being viewed by the camera. The photoconductor is then scanned by an electron beam to transform this pattern into a video signal.

To perform adequately, a photoconductor must exhibit adequate sensitivity, fast response, adequate spectral response, low or uniform dark current, and chemical stability in a vacuum. In addition, the discharge time of the photoconductor, or the time required for it to return to cathode potential, must be long compared with the time between two successive scans. For commercial TV applications, the discharge time, or RC time constant, must be greater than 1/60 second.

Antimony-trisulfide

The first commercial vidicon, the RCA-6198, was introduced in March, 1952.² Antimony trisulfide was used as the photoconductor because it had been discovered that evaporation of Sb_2S_3 at a rather high pressure (10 to 1000 microns) in an inert gas, such as argon, produced response to blue light superior to that which could be achieved with any photoconductive material previously used and also reduced lag and dark current.^{3,4} (Lag refers to persistence, the delay in change of photoconductivity with changes in light intensity measured in percent of initial value of video signal current after illumination is removed from the photoconductor; dark current refers to the current that flows

when there is no radiation incident on the photoconductor.) The antimony-trisulfide photolayers were evaporated in the tube envelope, and exhibited relatively high, nonuniform values of dark current. This was corrected by special shading controls in the camera.

Photoconductor performance was improved by use of an indium seal that permitted vacuum sealing of the faceplate to the glass envelope, or bulb, of the tube. This technique allowed the photoconductive layer to be prepared before the faceplate and photoconductor were sealed within the vidicon. Many faceplates would then be coated in one process, with the result that photoconductive layers were more uniform than those obtained by evaporation within the tube envelope. In this process, as many as twenty targets were prepared at one time by passage of the faceplates over an evaporation boat in a long, cylindrical bell jar. Two passes were made, one in a high gas pressure to obtain a porous layer and one in a hard vacuum to obtain a hard layer. The resulting vidicons were more sensitive than previous vidicons because the uniform dark current exhibited permitted the target voltage to be increased. The RCA-7038 vidicon which resulted from this process became the standard tube for use in film-chain broadcast equipment. The next improvement in antimony-trisulfide photoconductors was the development of a solid-porous-solid layer arrangement that increased the sensitivity of the vidicon by a factor of two with no significant increase in lag. As a result, vidicons could be used in applications in which insufficient lighting conditions had previously prohibited their use. However, the response was still too slow for studio telecasting.



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received the BS in Physics (*cum laude*) from Franklin and Marshall College in 1957. In 1963, he received the MS in Physics from that institution. In 1959, after two years of teaching, Mr. Heagy was employed by RCA as a type engineer in Vidicon Tube Manufacturing. Since 1963 he has been engaged in photoconductor development work in the Camera Tube Design Group. In this assignment, he developed the high sensitivity photoconductor now used on practically all RCA commercial vidicons and customized vidicons. He developed the photoconductor for vidicons used to monitor radar displays, and was instrumental in the development and improvement of the photoconductor and reticle configuration used in Ranger 8 and 9. Both of these developments resulted in the granting of U.S. patents. In 1964, he received an RCA Engineering Achievement Award in recognition of his contributions to the advancement of the vidicon state-of-the-art. Mr. Heagy is a member of Phi Beta Kappa.

Lead-oxide

The lead-oxide photoconductor was introduced in 1964.⁵ Fig. 1 shows a photograph of the RCA-C23803 lead-oxide vidicon—the Vistacon. Lead-oxide vidicons exhibit extremely low dark current and fast response, and thus are suitable for use in studio color cameras. Because these vidicons have a very low noise level as compared to that of image orthicons under normal studio lighting conditions, and are also simpler to operate, the lead-oxide-vidicon color camera has gained wide acceptance in broadcasting.

Because lead-oxide layers undergo extreme chemical change in a normal room environment, great care must be taken of the layer after it is evaporated. Standard vidicon manufacturing procedures in which the photoconductor is deposited on a faceplate in one physical location and the faceplate is assembled to the gun mount in another location are not practical because of the possibility of exposure

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Fig. 1—RCA-CA23803
lead-oxide vidicon,
or vistacon.

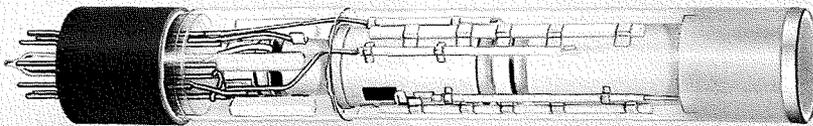


Fig. 2—Decay curve of video signal after illumination is removed from antimony trisulfide photoconductor in RCA-8134 vidicon (lag is 28%).

many respects electrically. However, the basic difference between the two photoconductors is the barrier-layer construction used in the lead oxide type, which produces a low dark current and a high electric field in the photoconductor. The major advantages of lead oxide targets, therefore, are the extremely low dark current and fast response. Because the dark current of antimony trisulfide targets is very temperature-dependent,⁶ operation of cameras using antimony trisulfide vidicons may be quite unstable if the ambient temperature varies as much as 5 to 10°C. The dark current of a lead oxide vidicon is relatively unaffected by the same temperature change; even when the dark current is doubled or tripled, it is still in the nanoampere range and is a very small part of the total signal.

The low lag of the lead-oxide photoconductor makes it suitable for tubes used in studio and outdoor broadcasts where earlier vidicons exhibited too much lag and smearing of scenes.⁷ Lead-oxide vidicons are therefore replacing the image orthicons which were used almost exclusively for live color cameras before 1964.

Some disadvantages of the lead-oxide photoconductors are lack of sensitivity to dark reds (6500 to 7000 angstroms) and unity gamma (where gamma is the slope of the light transfer curve shown in Fig. 4). The lack of sensitivity to dark reds has not proven to be a major problem in actual use. However, because of the high gamma value, bright areas of a scene make it difficult for the scanning electron beam to reduce the signal on the photoconductor to cathode potential. As a result, moving highlights of a scene may smear if the electron-beam strength is insufficient to discharge the signal.

The dependence of vidicon sensitivity on target voltage is much greater when antimony trisulfide is used for the photoconductor than when lead oxide is used. The sensitivity of a lead-oxide vidicon almost reaches a plateau at 50 volts for a fixed illumination; in addition, its dark current is relatively unaffected by target voltage. In an antimony-trisulfide vidicon, the sensitivity is proportional to the square of the target voltage, and the dark current is proportional to the cube of the target voltage.

Fig. 3—Decay of video signal after illumination is removed from lead-oxide photoconductor in RCA-C23083 vistacon (lag is 6%).

of the photoconductive layer to air between operations. The photoconductive layer is also susceptible to gases driven off tube parts and glass when they are heated during tube processing. Consequently, most of the gun and tube processing must be completed before the lead-oxide photoconductor is transferred to the gun mount.

Because of the chemical delicacy of a lead-oxide photoconductor, it is desirable that the layer be scanned at various stages of tube processing to evaluate its photoconductive properties. Routine vidicon processing steps in which glass or gun parts are heated may have a severe chemical effect on the lead-oxide layer and significantly alter its photoconductive properties. Lead-oxide photoconductors also tend to undergo significant changes during the first 100 hours of scanning; in general, the photoconductive properties improve. As part of the quality-control procedure, tubes are operated for 100 hours and then "shelf-aged" for a period of approximately four weeks. If a tube performs satisfactorily after this period, it is classified as a useful tube and will have a probable scanning life of several thousand hours.

Lead-oxide vs. antimony-trisulfide

Table I compares the electrical properties of antimony-trisulfide and lead-oxide photoconductors. Measurements for antimony trisulfide were made on an RCA-8134 vidicon, and those for lead oxide on an RCA-C23083. Figs. 2 and 3 show the decay curve of a 100-nA-peak video signal after removal of illumination from the 8134 and the C23803. Fig. 4 shows the transfer characteristics of both tubes.

It is evident from Table I that the two photoconductor types differ in

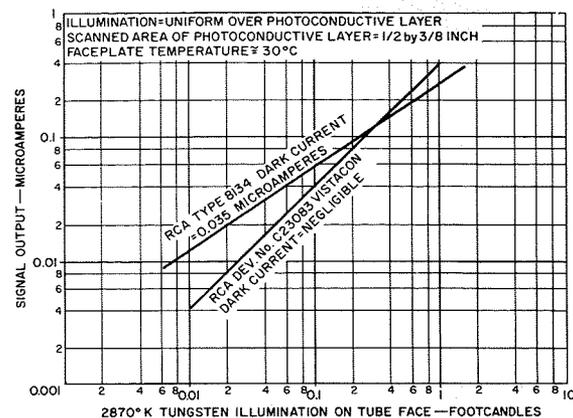


Fig. 4—Transfer characteristics of a lead oxide and an antimony trisulfide photoconductor.

Antimony-oxysulfide

Photoconductors other than antimony trisulfide and lead oxide are used in tubes intended for unique applications in which different scan rates and lag are required. For example, the RCA-C74113 and 4500 vidicons are made with an antimony-oxysulfide photoconductor. This photoconductor can provide a sensitivity of 500 $\mu\text{A}/\text{lumen}$, but also has a lag of 60 to 90% after removal of illumination, and is therefore totally unacceptable for broadcast use. However, it is quite adequate for slow-scan TV applications such as the TIROS and RANGER spacecraft.

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Table I—Comparison of lead-oxide and antimony-trisulfide photoconductors

Photoconductor Property	Antimony Trisulfide	Lead Oxide
Operating target voltage (V)	30	50
Dark current (nA)	35	0.3
Sensitivity ($\mu\text{A}/\text{lumen}$)	200	300
Lag (% of initial value of 100 nA signal 1/20 s. after illumination is removed)	28	6
Amplitude response to a 400 line square-wave TV test pattern at center of picture	25	20
Average gamma (slope of transfer characteristic) for a signal output current between 20 and 200 nA	0.65	0.95

The image isocon — an improved image orthicon

E. M. Musselman | R. L. VanAsselt

This paper discusses the basic operation of the image isocon, with emphasis on the electron optics of the reading section which distinguishes the operation of the isocon from the orthicon. The improvement achieved by low-dark-current operation of the isocon is demonstrated by comparison of the image-isocon and image-orthicon performance. In addition, image isocons designed variously for use in studio, X-ray, and low-light level applications are briefly described.

THE IMAGE-ORTHICON CAMERA TUBE has been used in broadcast television for more than twenty years. It has good sensitivity and resolution, and can televise scenes containing very bright objects because of the well-known knee in its transfer characteristic. The image orthicon is also surprisingly rugged, very stable in operation and not damaged by inadvertent overlighting. The new electronically conducting glass targets now incorporated in these tubes provide long life and freedom from raster burn.

The image orthicon, however, operates with a high dark-current level that leads to some undesirable characteristics in the resulting picture quality. Variations in this dark current produce background non-uniformity. In addition, the dark current adds noise, particularly to the signal from low-light areas of a scene, and this noise limits the dynamic range. Finally, beam setting is critical because excess beam adds directly to the dark current and produces excess noise.

A recently developed variation of the image orthicon, the image isocon, provides performance that far surpasses that of the image orthicon. In particular, the signal-to-noise ratio, dynamic range, and background uniformity are improved, while the desirable characteristics of the image orthicon are retained.

Image-isocon history

The image isocon was invented by P.K. Weimer¹ in 1947. Because the electron-optical requirements for isocon operation were more sophisticated than for image-orthicon operation and problems with tube set-up were encountered,

commercial development of the isocon was not continued. In 1958, however, requirements for special applications revived work on the image isocon. During 1960-61 a group at the RCA Laboratories in Princeton, N.J. completed important fundamental work² on isocon operation which provided the groundwork for engineering development of the tube. The work has continued,³ and tubes have been designed for use in a number of unusual television applications—for example, astronomical image recording on a remotely operated telescope⁴.

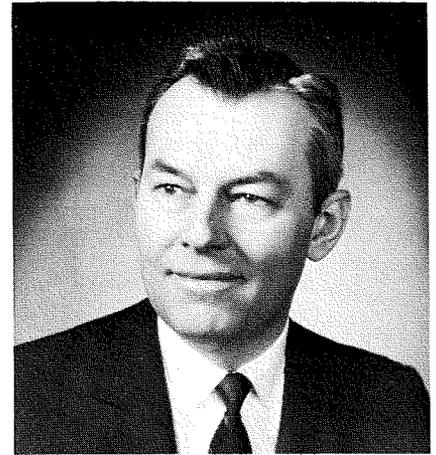
Recent development of the image isocon had three basic objectives as follows:

- 1) Higher signal-to-noise ratio, particularly in the dark areas of the picture, than that produced by an image orthicon of equal size and target-mesh spacing;
- 2) Retention of the superior resolution, sensitivity, and low-lag characteristic of the image orthicon;
- 3) Simplified tube set-up and operating procedures, similar to those for the image orthicon, so that the image isocon can be readily utilized by persons familiar with image-orthicon cameras.

Because the magnetic components are an integral part of the electron optics of the tube, the Camera-Tube Development Group at Lancaster cooperated closely with the Camera Advanced Development Group of the Commercial Electronic Systems Division at Camden to develop the combination of tube plus focus and deflection components.

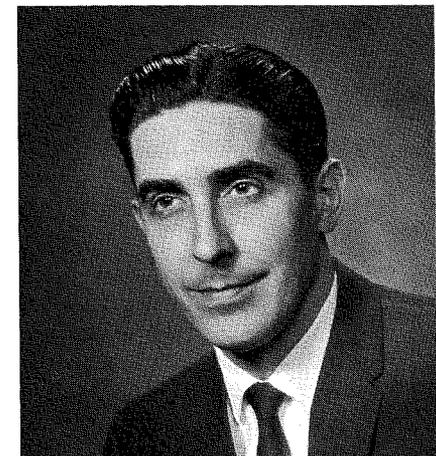
Image-isocon operation

Fig. 1 shows a cross section of a typical RCA image-isocon system. The outer coil structure and the faceplate coil provide a uniform axial magnetic field over the entire length of the tube. Motion of electrons in the tube is



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received the BSEE from the University of Pennsylvania in 1948. He joined RCA Lancaster in 1948 as a manufacturing engineer. He was promoted to Manager, Camera Tube Factory Engineering in 1956. In 1959, he was made Manager, Development Types and Facilities for the Pickup Tube Factory. Mr. Musselman was assigned to Storage Tube Product Development in 1960. In this capacity he was responsible for the design of scan converters, including transmission type, participated in the development of the 7-in display storage tube and designed a compact 5-in display storage tube. He is co-holder of a US Patent for "Insulated Mesh Assembly for Vidicons", and also holds a patent on an improved target support structure for pickup tubes. Most recently he served as project engineer on the development of a ruggedized 3-in image isocon. Mr. Musselman is a member of Eta Kappa Nu, Tau Beta Pi, Sigma Tau and IEEE.

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most easily discussed in terms of three regions: the image section, the target/scanning-beam section, and the separation section.

Image section

Operation of the image section is identical to that of an image orthicon. When an optical image is formed on the photocathode, photoelectrons from each point of the image are accelerated toward the target and focussed by the axial magnetic field. These photoelectrons arrive with sufficient energy to produce secondary electrons and charge the target positively. The secondary electrons are collected by a fine-metal mesh close to the target on the side facing the photocathode. The target is a thin glass membrane with critical physical properties. It must be sufficiently thin and resistive so that the charge pattern produced by the photoelectrons is not degraded significantly during a frame time by lateral leakage.

The charge pattern on the target is detected by the scanning beam, which deposits enough electrons on the target to neutralize the charge acquired during each frame. The time constant for the conduction of this charge through the target should not be much longer than a frame time; this requirement sets an upper limit to target resistivity. The mechanism for extracting the signal from the scanning beam is discussed later.

Target/scanning-beam section

The image isocon differs essentially from the image orthicon in the target/scanning-beam section and the separation section. To understand this difference, it is necessary to describe what happens in both an image orthicon and an image isocon when the primary beam strikes the target. As shown in Fig. 2, when the electrons in the primary beam approach the target, three events occur:

- 1) Some electrons enter the target and neutralize positive charges in the stored picture.
- 2) Some electrons strike the target and are scattered.
- 3) The remaining electrons do not quite reach the target and are specularly reflected.

The current distribution at the target satisfies the node equation:

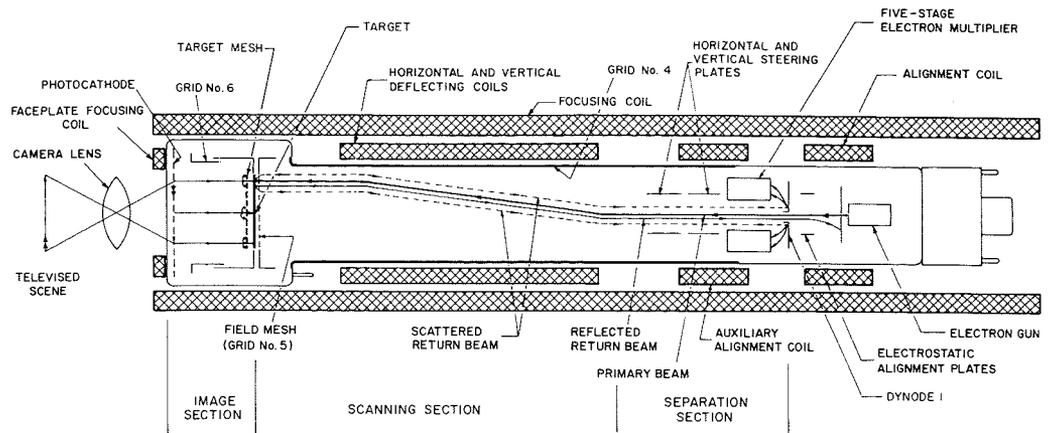


Fig. 1—Schematic diagram of image isocon and associated magnetic components.

$$I_p = i_c + i_s + i_r \quad (1)$$

where I_p is the primary current from gun to target, i_c is the current conducted into the target, i_s is the scattered electron current, and i_r is the reflected electron current.

In both the image orthicon and image isocon, the scattered electrons and reflected electrons constitute the return beam. In the image orthicon the video signal is obtained by directing the entire return beam into the multiplier. The output current can be represented as the sum of the reflected and scattered electron currents times the gain of the multiplier, as follows:

$$i_{anode} = M(i_r + i_s) \quad (2)$$

In the isocon, the return beam is split and only scattered electrons are permitted to enter the multiplier. (The direct relationship between scattered-electron current and conduction-electron current is utilized and the scattered electrons are used to form the video signal.) As will be shown later, the separation of scattered electrons and conduction electrons results in a portion of the scattered electron current being lost. For the same image-section construction and multiplier gain, however, the isocon signal current is slightly greater than the signal current from an image orthicon.

Fig. 3a compares the signals from the image isocon and the image orthicon when the primary beam is adjusted to just neutralize the charged target. A few gray-scale chips are shown together with the electron currents generated at the target as the beam scans a line through this pattern. As discussed previously, the orthicon signal is composed of both scattered electrons and reflected electrons.

Rearranging Eq. 1 and substituting in Eq. 2 yields the following equation for output current of the orthicon:

$$i_{anode} = M(I_p - i_c) \quad (3)$$

Because the primary beam current I_p is constant, the signal current is a function only of the conduction electron current.

The polarity is negative and the signal is riding on top of a large dark current, which adds noise. The isocon signal, on the other hand, is derived from the scattered electron current. No dark current is present (if perfect separation is assumed) and the noise is related only to the amount of signal current.

Fig. 3b shows the advantage of the isocon when excess primary beam current is used. Although the orthicon signal remains the same, the dark current and noise increase. The isocon signal and noise, however, remain unchanged because the excess reflected electron current is separated from the scattered electrons before they enter the multiplier.

Separation section

Separation of the scattered-electron beam from the reflected-electron beam is achieved simply by placement of a hole in the first dynode of the electron multiplier, as shown schematically in Fig. 1, and with greater detail in Fig. 4. As shown, the beam of reflected electrons is always contained within the envelope of the scattered-electron beam. The electron optics of the reading section is designed so that, when the composite beam strikes the first dynode, the reflected electron beam passes through the hole and is discarded, while a large fraction of the scattered-electron beam strikes the first dynode and generates secondary

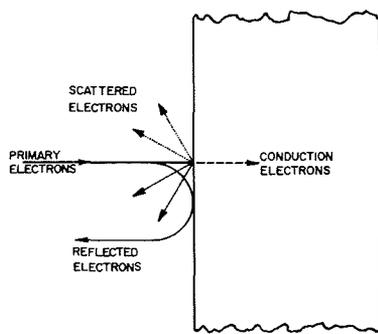


Fig. 2—Current distribution at target.

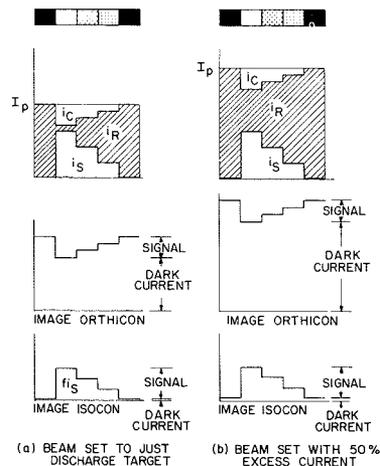


Fig. 3—Target current as a function of light level and beam setting.

electrons which are directed into the second stage of the electron multiplier.

Although the concept is quite simple, the return beam must have certain critical characteristics for proper separation to occur:

- 1) The diameter of the scattered-electron beam (at an antinode) must be large as compared with that of the reflected-electron beam.
- 2) The return beam must not contain any residual scan.

To fulfill the first requirement, it is necessary to add some transverse energy to the primary beam. Fig. 5 shows the cross section of the return beam at an antinode for various light levels within a scene. In Fig. 5a, the primary beam is aligned with the magnetic focus field and the target is perpendicular to the field. At low illumination levels, as shown by the extreme left-hand representation, the maximum transverse energy of the scattered electrons is small and the diameter of the scattered electron beam is essentially equal to that of the reflected-electron beam. As a result, a condition called "black clipping" occurs in which both the scattered electrons and reflected electrons pass through the hole in the separation electrode.

This condition is corrected by adding a small amount of transverse energy to the primary beam just after it leaves

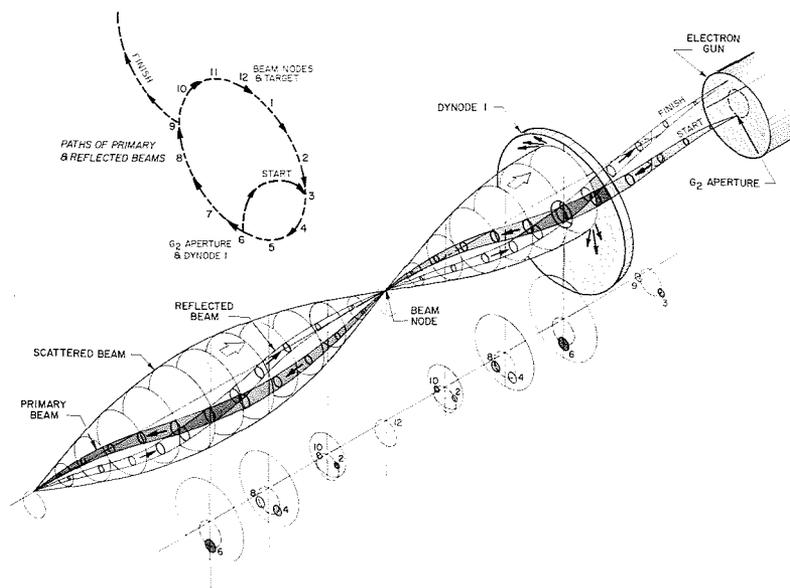


Fig. 4—Idealized trajectories of image-isocon beams.

the gun. The primary beam then spirals toward the target, and the reflected-electron beam spirals away from the target. The scattered-electron beam, however, leaves the target aligned with the axial magnetic field. The primary and reflected beams still cross at the antinode, but the spot is displaced from the center of the scattered beam. Fig. 5b shows the cross-section of the return beam for the same light levels when transverse energy of 0.5 eV has been applied to the primary beam. The low-transverse-energy scattered electrons which represent the low-illumination signals are spread out over a large diameter at the antinode, while the diameter of the reflected beam is unchanged. Scattered electrons can therefore be captured from all light levels, and a linear gray scale is obtained.

It would appear that if greater transverse energy were given to the primary beam, greater ease of separation would result. However, excess transverse energy increases the axial velocity distribution of the beam electrons as well as the radial velocity distribution, and the beam becomes less effective in discharging the target, causing lag.

The second requirement for proper separation of scattered electrons from reflected electrons is that the reflected beam must always return to the same point in the separation plane regardless of what part of the target is being scanned. In image-orthicon cameras, a small amount of residual scan² is present at the first dynode of the multiplier and information about the surface of this dynode is present in the video

signal. For an isocon to work properly, this residual scan must be very small, approximately 0.01 cm or less. A practical solution was obtained by design of a deflection yoke that, in combination with the new RCA image-isocon electrode configuration, provides uniform landing of the beam across the target and essentially zero residual return-beam scan. This yoke is an important part of the system of tube plus deflection and focus components needed to generate good isocon pictures.

Tube Alignment and Adjustment

Proper operation of the image isocon requires that the electron beam be accurately directed to the target and back through the separation aperture. The primary beam is started on a helical path and directed through the separation aperture by the combined effect of the alignment plates and alignment coils (shown in Fig. 1). The alignment-plate differential voltage is preset to a value specified for the tube, and the alignment-coil currents are adjusted to center the primary beam in the aperture. These adjustments of the primary beam correspond to the center of the range for which video signal is obtained and cause the primary beam to spiral out from the center of the separation aperture toward the target. The reflected beam spirals back, as shown in Fig. 4, and criss-crosses the primary beam through the same area at an antinode in an ideal system. Thus, the reflected beam should continue back toward the multiplier and exit through the center of the separation aperture. The image isocon has

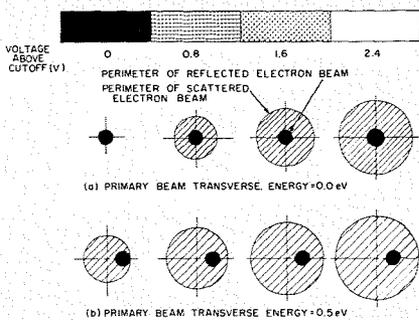


Fig. 5—Return-beam cross section at an antinode as a function of target voltage and transverse energy of primary beam.

steering plates, also shown in Fig. 1, to direct the reflected beam exactly through the center of the separation aperture. The use of these steering plates assures good separation while permitting reasonable tolerances in tube construction and positioning of the tube in the yokes.

The adjustment of the steering plates is made in two steps:

- 1) The correct polarity of signal is obtained by a coarse adjustment of the steering-plate differential voltages. (If the reflected beam strikes the first dynode a negative picture will be obtained.)

- 2) The target voltage is reduced close to cutoff, and any bright edges are eliminated by fine adjustment of the steering-plate voltages.

The bright edges result when reflected electrons are deflected at the target by sharp black-white transitions and acquire additional transverse energy.⁵ At an antinode, these electrons are located just outside the perimeter of the reflected beam and can become a part of the signal. The separation aperture of the image isocon is large enough to allow these deflected electrons to pass through and be discarded with the reflected beam provided the reflected beam is accurately centered. The electrons striking the first dynode are then only scattered electrons and an isocon signal free of exaggerated edges is generated.

Image-isocon performance

Low dark noise is an outstanding feature of the new image isocon. Fig. 6 compares the signal-to-noise performance of an image isocon with that of an equivalent image orthicon as a function of the light available in a scene. Because the noise in the image-orthicon signal is nearly constant for all light levels (the beam setting is not changed during scanning of a given scene), the signal-to-noise ratio is approximately a linear function of the

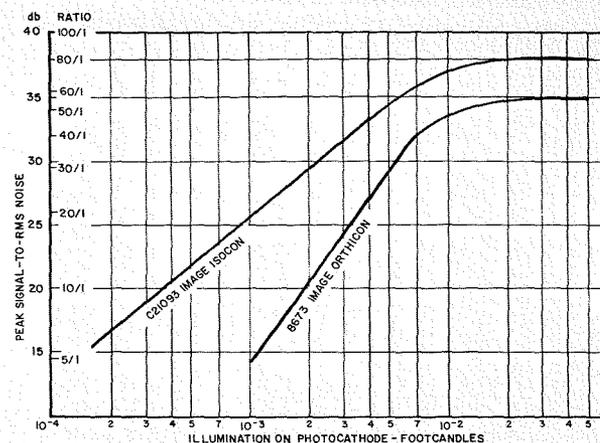
light level. In the isocon signal, however, the noise decreases with signal level and the signal-to-noise ratio varies approximately as the one-half power of the light level. The curves show that the dynamic range of the isocon is at least ten times greater than that of the image orthicon. This wide dynamic range of the image isocon also allows the camera to move from scene to scene without attention to the beam-current setting used.

The resolution and the amplitude response of the new image isocon compares very favorably with the best image orthicons operating in well designed yokes. This excellent performance results from the electron optical design in which the magnetic components and the tube structure are properly matched. Image isocons typically provide response of 80% at 400 tv lines without aperture correction. Corner response shows less than 20% dropoff and no dynamic correction is required. Limiting resolution is 1200 tv lines at an illumination of 0.02 foot candle on the faceplate. Picture geometry is excellent.

Slightly lower amplitude response results from use of fiber-optic faceplates and/or lower-capacitance target mesh assemblies. Fig. 7 compares amplitude response for image isocon and image orthicon.

High-resolution, slow-scan versions of the new image isocon have been made by increasing the glass-target resistivity (up to a factor of 10^5 above the range used for 30-frame/second television). Lateral leakage is minimized and long storage times are achieved without special cooling equipment. Applications requiring long integration time and good resolving power, such as astronomical observation, find the new isocon a useful tool.

Fig. 6—Signal-to-noise ratio as a function of light level within scene.



Signal uniformity produced by the new image isocons is exceptional. The scan optic developed to reduce residual scan in the return beam also provides uniform landing of the beam with less than 0.1-volt variation across the target. The absence of scanning at the separation aperture guarantees uniform separation.

Background uniformity is excellent and dynode problems are eliminated. The positive-polarity, low-dark-current read-out makes variations in gain across the first dynode surface less critical. Also, the first dynode of the isocon is located at an antinode at which the current density is a minimum and the surface is not in focus. Finally, the absence of scanning at the first dynode means that no video information can be developed. Dynode problems have not been observed with the new image isocons.

Incomplete target discharge in one sweep of the scanning beam results in a residual signal characteristic called lag. The RCA Dev. No. C21093, an image isocon with a high-capacitance target-to-collector-mesh assembly, displays residual signals less than 10% of peak amplitude during the third scanning field when operating at a light level with highlights at the knee. The low-capacitance target of a newer type, the RCA Dev. No. C21095, offers further improvement in dynamic response. This performance is achieved when the tube is properly set up, i.e. with minimum transverse energy required for good gray scale given to the primary beam. This low-lag performance results in excellent motion-capturing capability similar to that obtained with the image orthicon.

Application

The image isocon is a versatile camera tube. The specific requirements for a particular application can be met dur-

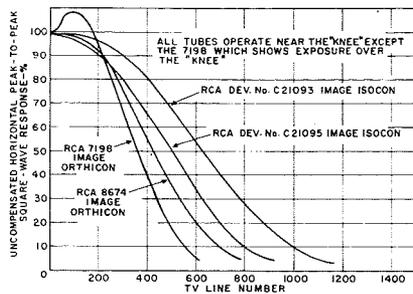


Fig. 7—Amplitude response as a function of TV line number.

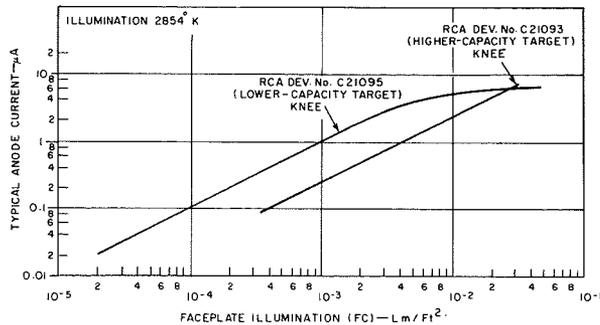


Fig. 8—Signal current as a function of light on photocathode.

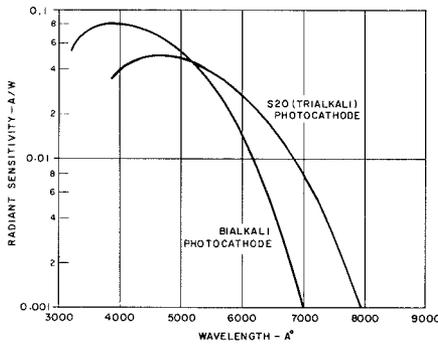


Fig. 9—Photocathode spectral response

ing manufacturing by adjustment or change of one or more of the following factors: target resistivity, target-to-collector-mesh capacitance, photocathode formulation, or face-plate materials.

In a typical television-broadcast application, for example, where there is ample and controlled studio lighting, the target of the camera tube is read-out repetitively every 1/30 second. This rate sets an appropriate value of target resistivity at 10^{11} ohm-cm. A maximum target-to-collector-mesh capacitance, therefore, produces the desirable pronounced knee characteristic, as well as a very high signal current under the ample lighting conditions. This high signal current, in turn, requires minimum amplification in its subsequent processing. (It should be noted that

the process frequently employs "black stretch"—a gain nonlinearity designed to correct for an unsuitable gamma characteristic in the display device at the output end of the system. The low dark current and low noise of the image isocon make it uniquely suited to this form of signal processing.)

Signal output of the new image isocon is directly proportional to light received at the photocathode (unity gamma factor). The gray scale is therefore linear and provides excellent contrast between steps of varying illumination at all levels below saturation, as indicated in Fig. 8.

A spectral response emphasizing the visible portion of the spectrum can be obtained with this system by employing a conventional optical-glass faceplate in conjunction with a photocathode such as the potassium-cesium antimonide (bi-alkali) or the sodium-potassium-cesium antimonide (multi-alkali) types. Response of these photosurfaces is shown in Fig 9. The tube can also be made to respond to radiation in the ultra-violet region of the spectrum by use of suitable face-plate materials, such as quartz or lithium fluoride, and a UV sensitive photocathode.

For extremely-low-available-light situations, such as military surveillance, a multi-alkali photocathode is preferred in the camera tube because of its broad spectral range, which extends into the infra-red region. The tube uses a reduced target-to-collector-mesh capacitance to minimize smearing and therefore increase the dynamic resolution of images reproduced from fast-moving dimly lit scenes. If additional light amplifiers or spectrum converters are then required, a fibre-optic faceplate can be used to provide the optical coupling. The electron-conduction glass target, proven in image orthicons, has been utilized to provide long life, resistance to scanning burn, and resistance to highlight damage. Scan zoom can be employed without damage to the target. Three-to-one ratios are readily achieved by appropriate reduction of the scanning power.

An interesting application of the image isocon is its use in medical X-ray equipment. The intrinsically high sensitivity and resolution of the isocon permits continuous detailed observation of the

living subject with a minimum of radiation dosage. The requirements for the tube are similar to those for the low-available-light application: a real-time target performance and good response to low-contrast dynamic-scene material.

Conclusions

The new RCA image isocon with its associated components produces pictures that are a distinct improvement over those obtained with image orthicons. Performance features of the isocon include the following:

- 1) Improved signal-to-noise ratio, particularly in the dark areas of a scene, which greatly increases dynamic range and allows gamma correction without degradation;
- 2) Excellent resolution both in limiting value (1200 tv lines) and in amplitude response;
- 3) Picture background free of dynode defects and shading;
- 4) Fast and easy setup procedure comparable to that for image orthicon operation but without the critical beam-setting problem associated with image orthicons;
- 5) Linear transfer characteristic and low lag attained simultaneously by use of optimum electron-beam transverse energy;
- 6) Very good picture geometry and uniform resolution.

The image isocon has inherited many good features from a long image-orthicon tube-development program. The burn-resisting and long-life electron-conducting glass targets developed for image orthicons are equally effective in the image isocon. The good mechanical and electron-optical features of the image mount developed for type 8673 image orthicons have also been applied to the image isocon. Mechanical development is continuing on the isocon and should provide sturdy structures capable of withstanding the severe shock and vibration of rocket launching.

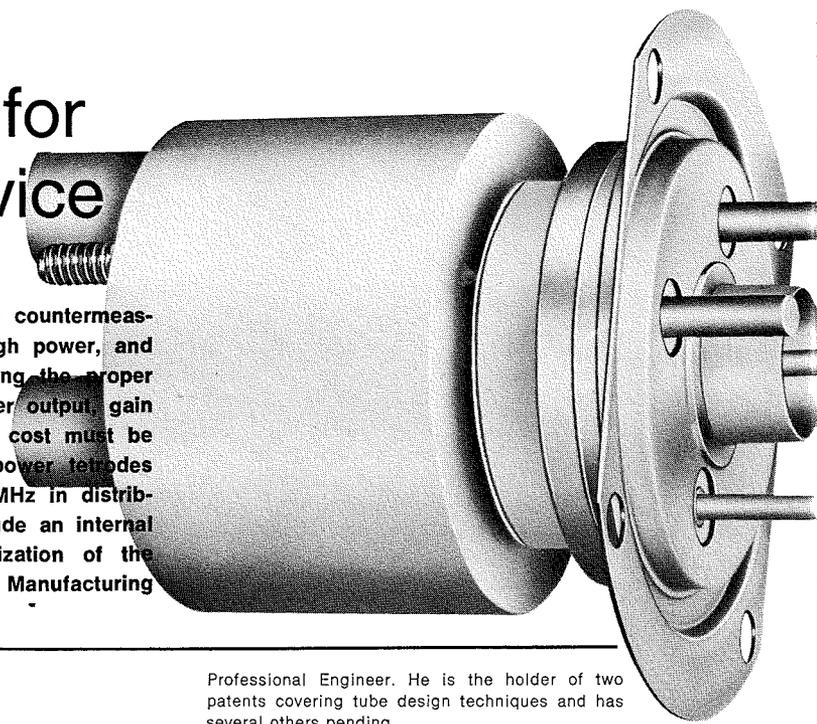
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Ceramic-metal tetrodes for distributed-amplifier service

C. E. Doner | W. R. Weyant

Distributed amplifiers have become an important part of electronic countermeasures systems because they provide extremely broad bandwidth, high power, and high gain at frequencies up to approximately 400 MHz. In selecting the proper amplifier device for these systems, such factors as bandwidth, power output, gain efficiency, environmental requirements, reliability, size, weight, and cost must be considered. This paper describes two RCA ceramic-metal beam power tetrodes designed specifically for high-power, broadband operation to 400 MHz in distributed-amplifier services. Special design features of these tubes include an internal screen-grid bypass capacitor, low-inductance grid leads, ruggedization of the internal structure, and use of a monolithic heater-cathode assembly. Manufacturing techniques, process controls, and testing criteria are also discussed.



DISTRIBUTED AMPLIFICATION is a method of combining the outputs of many amplifier tubes by substitution of input and output capacitances of these tubes as shunt elements in two artificial transmission lines (Fig. 1). This technique permits a large number of tubes to be operated in parallel over a very large bandwidth which is independent of the number of tubes in the amplifier.

Power tubes for use in high-power, high-frequency distributed amplifiers must have high transconductance, high current capability, low lead inductances, low input and output capacitances, low grid conductance, and a high degree of grid-to-plate isolation. These characteristics determine maximum operating frequency, bandwidth, efficiency, power output, power gain, and stability. Because these parameters are not all compatible, a tube designed for high-power distributed-amplifier service is optimized for the particular application.

Forced-air cooled tetrode

The RCA 4624 forced-air cooled tetrode has been designed to meet the requirements of the distributed amplifier. This tetrode provides the highest practical power output with bandwidths as high as 200 MHz, and has an upper frequency capability of approximately 400 MHz. Many of the tube parameters which affect distributed-amplifier performance have been optimized in this tube.

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received the BSEE from Pennsylvania State University and joined RCA Lancaster in 1955 as a power tube application engineer. From 1959 to 1962, Mr. Doner worked as a design engineer responsible for development of several power tubes including a UHF ceramic-metal tetrode for high-power distributed-amplifier service. In 1962, Mr. Doner was appointed Engineering Leader in charge of a design group responsible for design and development of numerous power tubes including a 5000-watt tetrode for UHF television service. In 1963, he was appointed Engineering Leader in charge of Regular Power Tube Application Engineering. In 1966, Mr. Doner was appointed to his present position, responsible for the design and development of RF power generating devices including strip-line and cavity amplifiers and oscillators for CW, AM, FM, SSB and pulse applications from HF through UHF. Mr. Doner is a Registered

Professional Engineer. He is the holder of two patents covering tube design techniques and has several others pending.

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received the BSEE in 1955 from Indiana Institute of Technology. He joined RCA in 1955 as an engineer on the specialized training program, following which he spent nine years with the industrial design group in the receiving tube engineering activity of the Electron Tube Division in Harrison, N.J., working on the design and development of new electron tubes for specialized industrial and military application. He was also the responsible design engineer for industrial and military current products. In 1964, Mr. Weyant was transferred to regular power tube group, Lancaster Plant, where he is presently serving in a similar capacity. Mr. Weyant has contributed to the quality improvement of industrial tubes and holds related patents.



Seated at left is W. R. Weyant; C. E. Doner is on the right.

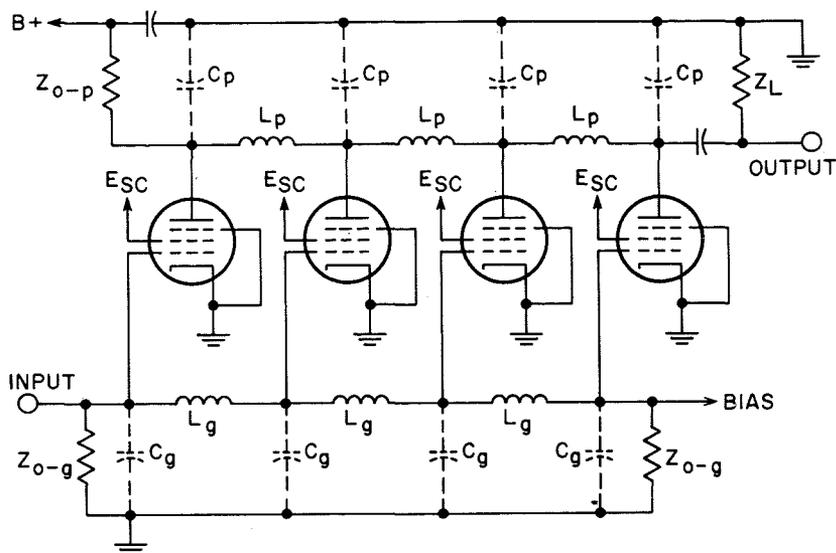


Fig. 1—Simplified low-pass circuit for a distributed amplifier.

Grid-cathode assembly

Design of the 4624 began with the cathode and the control grid because the input capacitance, being much higher than the output of power tubes, determines the frequency capability of the tube. For a bandpass distributed amplifier, the bandwidth, $f_2 - f_1$, is determined by the following relationship:

$$f_2 - f_1 = 1/\pi(L_p C_p)^{1/2} = 1/\pi(L_g C_g)^{1/2}$$

where f_2 and f_1 are the upper and lower cutoff frequencies, respectively; L_p and C_p are the series inductance and shunt capacitance of the plate; and L_g and C_g are the series inductance and shunt capacitance of the control grid. C_p and C_g represent the tube output and input capacitance, respectively.

A minimum practical value of L_g was estimated to be approximately 25 nanohenries. With f_2 at 400 MHz and f_1 at 200 MHz, the maximum permissible value of C_g is approximately 40 pF. After analysis of various cathode and control-grid configurations, it was determined that a cylindrical cathode design having a minimum area of 3 cm², with a grid-to-cathode spacing of 0.008 in. would provide high current capability (steady-state plate current of 350 mA in class-A service) and high transconductance (25,000 μ mhos at 300 mA) and also meet the L_g and C_g requirements.

Fig. 2 shows a cross section of the 4624 tube (with the radiator removed). The cathode surface is the matrix unipotential type consisting of a layer of

sintered nickel powder cathoretically filled with emissive carbonates. This cathode produces high current densities, has a long reserve life, and resists damage from arcing. The diameter of the cylindrical heat dam attached to the bottom of the active area of the cathode is smaller than the active area to produce a minimum grid-to-cathode capacitance. A flat circular disc serving as an RF ground plane and as a part of the vacuum envelope is attached to the bottom of this heat dam. This design provides an extremely low cathode-lead inductance, which increases the upper frequency capability and reduces input conductance.

The RF ground plane, or cathode flange, is constructed with four holes for direct mounting to the amplifier chassis. An RF gasket provides a good RF contact between the flange and the

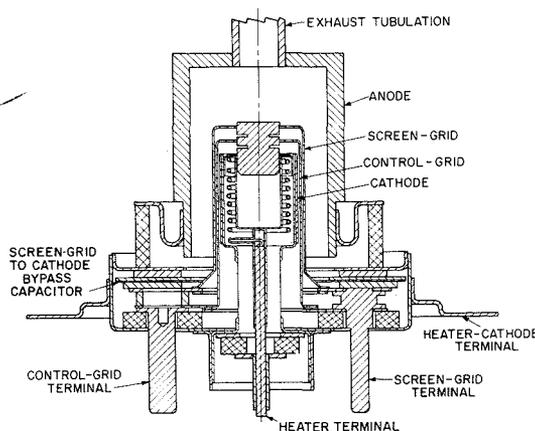


Fig. 2—Cross section of the 4624 tube with radiator removed.

chassis. The shape of the flange permits close spacing between tubes which reduces series circuit inductance to as low a value as practical.

The grid is cylindrical in the active area and is supported by three small ceramic insulating washers in the cathode ground plane. Fig. 3 shows the two diametrically opposed grid leads which are used for input-circuit connections in a low-pass circuit configuration. In this connection, the low grid-lead inductance is utilized as a circuit element appearing as part of the series line inductance. This type of grid lead also provides lower seal capacitance than an all-concentric terminal arrangement such as that normally used in UHF power-tube design. The third grid lead provides a connection for a shunt inductor for operation in a bandpass distributed-amplifier circuit. In this operation the inductance of the lead is again a useful part of the circuit.

The heater is of monolithic construction and consists of an insulated tungsten helix connected to a molybdenum heater rod at one end and to the heater cup at the other. The heater element is held firmly in place by sintered nickel powder filling the void between the heater cup and the cathode. This arrangement provides an extremely rugged heater.

Screen-grid bypassing

The screen grid is bypassed to the cathode inside the tube envelope to minimize screen grid lead inductance. The screen grid consists of a cylinder in the active area attached to a flat washer-like support. This washer forms one electrode or plate of a radial

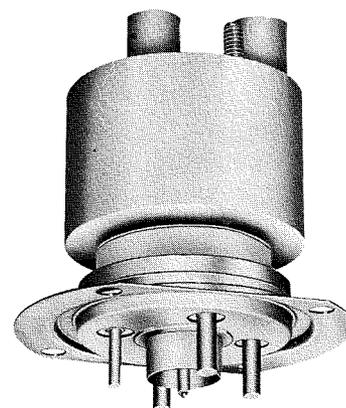


Fig. 3—Two diametrically opposed grid leads for input-circuit connections in a low-pass circuit.

bypass capacitor in which a 0.003-inch-thick mica washer serves as the dielectric. Another metal washer forms the other electrode and attaches to the cathode ground plane. A wire-mesh gasket, compressed during tube assembly, holds the capacitor parts in a direct contact. This bypass design produces an extremely low value of screen grid lead inductance which reduces undesirable feedback effects to a minimum.

A single screen-grid lead is brought through an insulator in the cathode flange for application of DC screen-grid voltage. For low-frequency operation, where the 600-pF internal capacitor does not provide sufficient bypassing, additional capacitance may be added externally to this lead. At frequencies when this becomes necessary, the inductive reactance of this lead is negligible.

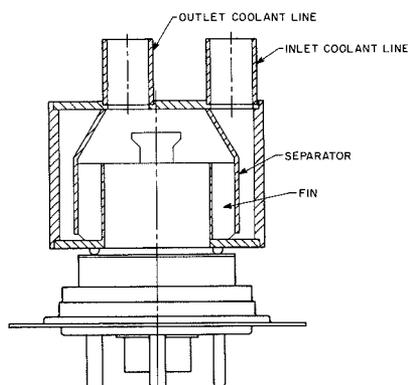


Fig. 4—Single-pass low-pressure cooler for the RCA 4636.

The control-grid-to-screen-grid spacing and the pitch of the grids were chosen to provide a screen-grid-to-control-grid amplification factor of 12. This relatively high value permits class-AB₁ operation (zero grid current) at full plate-current ratings with a DC screen-grid voltage of only 400 volts. Zero-grid-current operation is essential to prevent extremely high attenuation of the drive signal as it passes down the input line; low-screen-grid operating voltage is important for increased amplifier efficiency.

Both the control grid and the screen grid consist of drawn cups of a heat-tempered copper alloy. These electrodes are furnace brazed to the base pins and the respective grid flanges using a high-temperature silver-alloy solder; high-alumina spacers are used as insulators. A ceramic pin with anti-leakage grooves is also brazed at the

top of the assembly to assure ruggedization and alignment of the control grid with respect to the screen grid and the cathode. The grid wires are formed by electrical-discharge machining and are further refined by electro-polishing which provides a ruggedized structure of precise alignment.

Plate design

Factors affecting plate design include the plate-curve "knee" characteristics, DC plate voltage, and plate cooling and output capacitance. The final design has an output capacitance of approximately 6.5 pF. This relatively low value enhances the high output-power capability because output power is inversely proportional to output capacitance.

The five-piece plate assembly consists of the pinchoff tubulation, a heavy OFHC copper cup for uniform heat distribution, a Kovar stress-isolating ring, a high-alumina (low-RF-loss) ceramic insulator, and a copper-clad Kovar flange that serves as a connection to the ground plane. This assembly is fabricated by means of a furnace braze at 800°C.

In the final assembly of the tube, the ground plane and the screen-grid bypass capacitor are formed when the OFHC copper backup washers, the gold-evaporated mica dielectric, and the gold-plated wire-mesh gasket (which provides the proper compressive force and contact area) are placed on the screen-grid flange. The plate assembly is then heliarc-welded to the cathode flange.

The tube is evacuated to approximately 10^{-6} Torr, and its plate temperature is raised to 450°C. The cathode is then activated, and current is drawn to the various tube elements to provide high temperature for proper outgassing. After this step is completed, the tube is "tipped off" (sealed by a metal closure of the tubulation) and "aged" for stabilized operation. The tube is then dynamically tested at input frequencies of 30 and 600 MHz; shock-tested at 30g, 11 milliseconds; vibration-tested at 10g, 500 Hz; and life-tested at 600 MHz.

Higher-power tube

The 4624 is designed for forced-air cooling and has a plate power-dissipating capability of 400 watts. With recent requirements for 1000-watt dissipation, however, air cooling becomes impractical because the high air volume needed requires high blower power. As a result, an intense-liquid-cooled version of the 4624 was designed to increase power output while maintaining frequency characteristics and compact size. Fig. 4 shows the single-pass, low-pressure cooler used for this tube, the RCA 4636. This cooler operates with Coolanol-35, a silicate-ester base dielectric fluid, at temperature from -50 to 135°C. The coolant enters through the $\frac{3}{8}$ inch lines and passes through a restriction (for increased surface velocity at the higher-thermal-density areas) in the finned area. At an inlet temperature of 105°C and a dissipation of 750 watts, the required flow of Coolanol-35 is 0.75 gal/min at a pressure drop of 0.3 lb/in² (gage).

The 4636 is tested for a zero-bias current of 1.4 A to assure satisfactory performance at a plate current of 600 mA in class-A₁ distributed-amplifier operation. Typical operation of the 4636 in an 11-tube bandpass distributed amplifier covering a frequency range of 107 to 187 MHz is shown in Table I. The values shown are for the output tube at an operating frequency of 141 MHz and a plate-line impedance of 250 ohms.

Table I represents only one of many possible modes of distributed-amplifier operation. Although a broad discussion of theoretical and practical techniques of distributed amplification is beyond the scope of this paper, numerous excellent papers have been written on the subject.¹⁻³

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Table I—Performance of RCA-4636 in 11-tube bandpass distributed amplifier

DC plate voltage	1800 V
DC screen-grid (grid-No. 2) voltage	400 V
DC control-grid (grid-No. 1) voltage	-60 V
Steady-state plate current	475 mA
Steady-state screen-grid current	10 mA
Steady-state control-grid current	0 mA
Peak RF drive voltage	55 V
Tube power output	365 W
Useful power output (from 11-tube distributed amplifier)	2000 W

Klystron for the Stanford two-mile linear accelerator

A. C. Grimm | F. G. Hammersand

The completion of the two-mile linear accelerator at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center in the fall of 1967 provided physicists with the largest and most costly research tool yet built in the U.S. The accelerator center (Fig. 1) constructed at a cost of \$114 millions, provides the physicist with a 20 GeV electron beam and research facilities to probe the interior of atomic nuclei in his quest to understand the fundamental nature of matter. This paper describes the development of this linear accelerator with particular emphasis on RCA's role in developing the high-power klystron for this application.

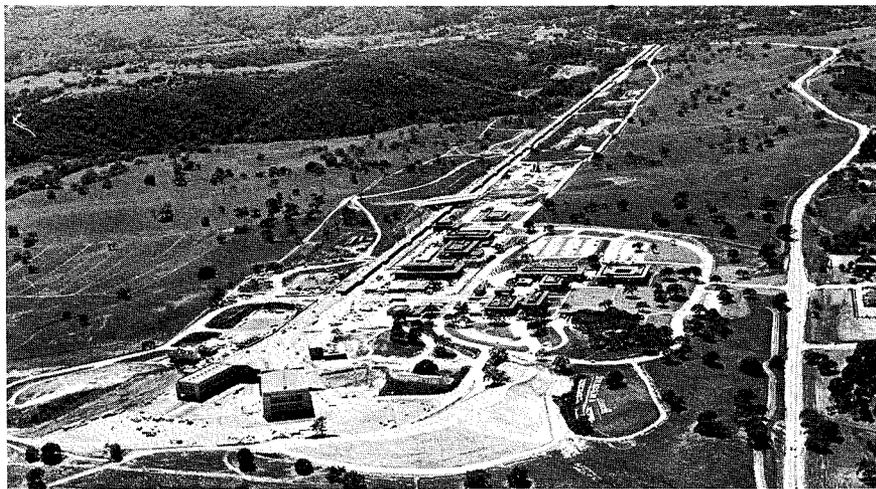


Fig. 1—The Stanford Linear Accelerator Center. Electrons begin their acceleration at the upper right and end their flight in one of the target areas of the "switch yard" in the lower left.

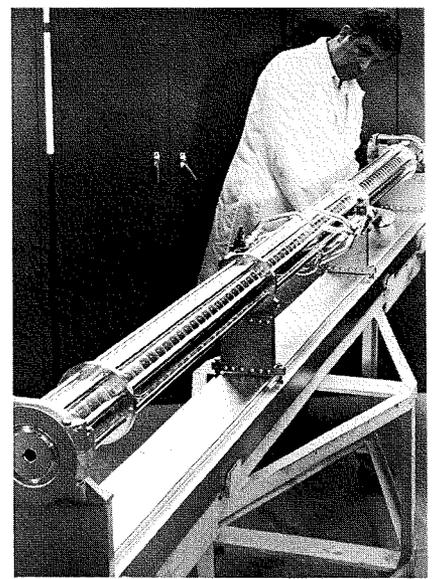
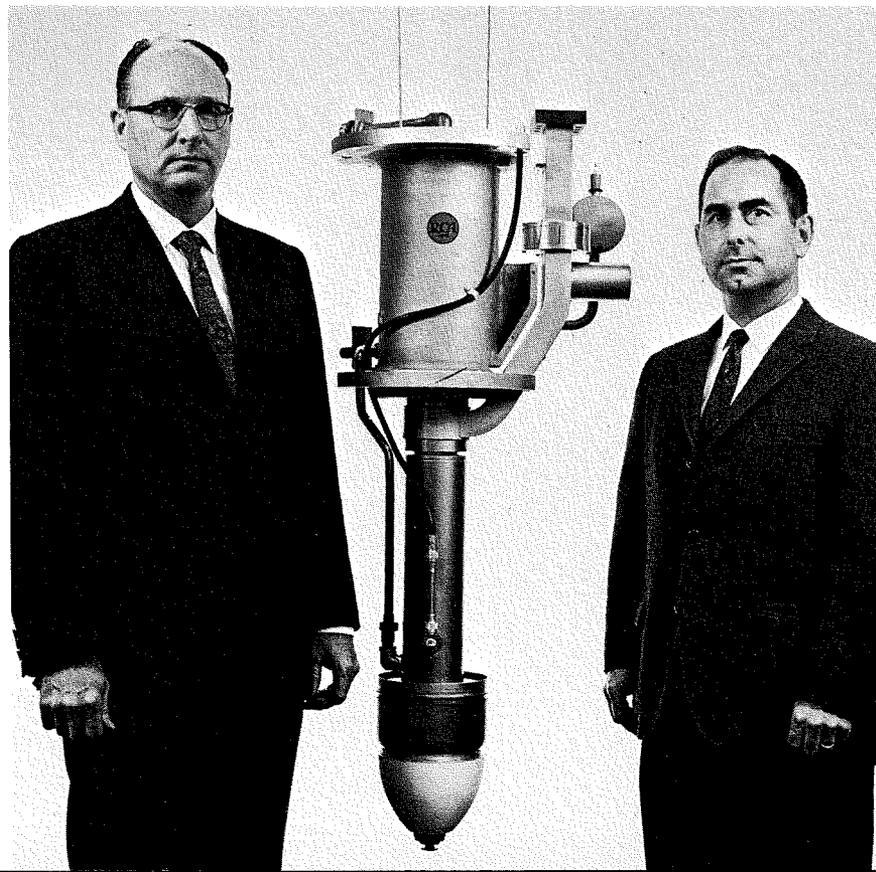


Fig. 2—A 10-ft section of accelerator waveguide.

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received the BSEE from the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn in 1940. Upon joining the RCA Tube Division in 1940, Mr. Grimm was assigned to the development of receiving and small power tubes. In this assignment from 1940 to 1951, he advanced to engineering leader. From 1951 to 1953, Mr. Grimm directed the advanced development effort on the RCA color kinescope. He was promoted to Product Manager for the Color Kinescope Product Group in 1954. In 1955, he was named Manager of Advanced Development in the Power Tube Group. In this capacity he was responsible, among other programs, for the development of the RCA 8568 klystron used to power the Stanford two-mile linear accelerator. From 1960 until he was appointed to his present position in 1967, he was manager of engineering and operations manager for RCA super power tubes. He has been issued six patents on electron tubes and associated devices, and he has published several papers on the developmental aspects of vacuum tubes. He is a member of Tau Beta Pi and Eta Kappa Nu, and is a senior member of the Institute of Radio Engineers. He is a registered professional engineer in the State of Pennsylvania.

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received the BSEE and MSEE degrees from the University of Washington in 1949 and 1956 respectively. Since joining RCA, Lancaster in 1951, he has been responsible for the design, development, and application of many gridded, gas, klystron, and magnetron tubes. This experience includes the design of electron guns for round and sheet electron beams, RF interaction circuits for gridded, klystrons, and magnetron tubes and tube and gun structures for the production and conservation of gas plasmas. Mr. Hammersand became a member of the A1230D klystron development team in December, 1960. In April, 1966 he assumed group leader responsibility for the development of super power klystrons, magnetrons, and low frequency gridded tubes. In February, 1967 he became manager of Super Power Devices Design Engineering. Mr. Hammersand is a registered Professional Engineer in the state of Pennsylvania; a member of the IEEE, Tau Beta Pi, and Zeta Mu Tau; and an associate member of Sigma XI.

The two authors, A. C. Grimm (left) and F. G. Hammersand, are standing to either side of the RCA 8568 klystron.

THE CONCEPT for the two-mile linear accelerator originated with a group of faculty members at Stanford University twelve years ago. Formal proposals were made to the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) on September 15, 1961. After four years of political and scientific debate, Congress authorized the creation of a national laboratory for the accelerator to be called the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center (SLAC).

Construction of the Center began in July, 1962. In May, 1966, the electron beam was first activated. By January 1967, a beam energy of 20.16 billion electron-volts (20.16 GeV) and design beam currents of 30 mA peak were achieved. Beam currents of 45 mA peak have been reported recently.

Operation of accelerator

In the SLAC system, a beam of electrons is accelerated through a two-mile-long waveguide comprised of more than 22,000 cavities brazed together in 960 ten-foot-long sections (Fig. 2). After being fully accelerated, the electron beam can be switched to any of three experimental stations by large electromagnets. Thus, one or more experiments can be conducted simultaneously by programmed beam switching.

The 20-GeV energy level is obtained by acceleration of the electron beam by 5000-megawatt (MW) bursts of 2856-MHz power supplied by 240 klystron tubes spaced at 40-ft. intervals along the accelerator. Each klystron provides a 21-MW burst of power for 2.5 μ s. The burst from each klystron is accurately phased so that the RF energy from the tube arrives at the accelerator in the proper time sequence to accelerate the electrons as they progress down the waveguide. In the future, additional klystrons can be added to the machine to obtain an even higher-energy beam. Provisions have been made in the initial design of the accelerator for a total of 960 klystron tubes.

The klystrons, modulators, and power supplies are housed in a building called the klystron gallery. This building is located approximately 25 ft above a concrete tunnel containing the accel-

erator waveguide. Earth fill separates the concrete tunnel from the klystron gallery and acts as a radiation shield to protect workers in the gallery from gamma radiation produced in the accelerator waveguide by stray electrons. A portion of the gallery with an RCA 8568 klystron in position is shown in Fig. 3.

The RF energy from each klystron tube is fed to the accelerator waveguide sections through precision WR284 OFHC copper waveguide. The pressure level inside the entire waveguide system is maintained at approximately 1×10^{-7} Torr. For minimum cost and maintenance, no vacuum windows other than those in the klystron tubes are used in the waveguide system. Waveguide vacuum valves are used instead to close off individual sections of the accelerator waveguide RF feed system when klystron tubes must be changed.

Klystron requirements

Prior to Congressional authorization for the construction of the Center, the AEC had authorized limited funds for studies of the critical components for the system. The most important of these components is the klystron tube used to power the accelerator.

The physicist's need for a highly stable electron beam of low energy spread placed rigid requirements for stability on the klystron tubes. Using AEC study funds, engineers, and physicists at Stanford University designed and built several prototype klystrons and developed tube performance specifications more stringent than those required for military radar applications to assure satisfactory performance of the accelerator. Tube cost, efficiency, and reliability were also prime considerations because of the large number of tubes used to power the machine.

In mid-1960, industry was requested by SLAC to complete the design of the prototype tube so that it could be reproduced and rebuilt at modest costs, and to develop a permanent-magnet focusing system for the tube. Both RCA and Sperry-Rand Corporation were successful bidders. Each was awarded contracts to deliver six developmental tubes and to develop a permanent-magnet focusing system.

The tube, as originally conceived by Stanford, was a five-cavity, 24-MW,

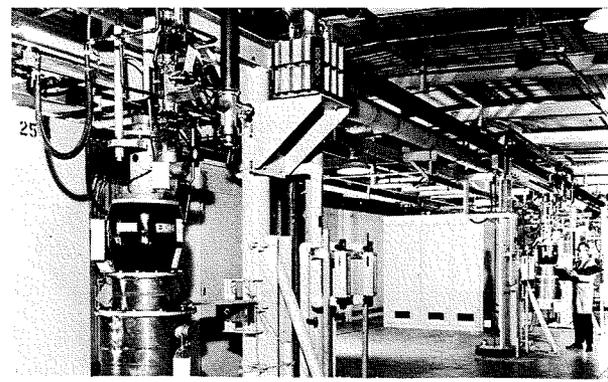


Fig. 3—A section of the Stanford Linear Accelerator klystron gallery using RCA-8568 klystrons.

2856-MHz pulse amplifier using a 2-microperv, 250-kV, 250-A electron beam. Double-waveguide output was specified at the time because there was some doubt that a single output window could reliably handle the full output power.

The basic electrical characteristics as listed in the original tube specification were as follows:

Operation	A	B
Frequency (MHz)	2856	2856
Peak power output (MW)	12	24
Average power output (kW)	10.8	21.6
RF pulse length (μ s)	2.5	2.5
Beam voltage (kV)	195	248
Beam current (A)	172	247
Duty cycle	0.009	0.009
Gain (dB)	47	50
Efficiency (%)	35	38

Permanent-magnet focusing of the klystron electron beam was specified to reduce operating costs and to achieve a higher degree of reliability than possible with electromagnet focusing. The use of permanent magnets eliminated the need for 240 DC power supplies to energize electromagnets. The savings obtained included not only the cost of the DC supplies, but also the cost of electrical power consumption in excess of 250 kW that the electromagnets would otherwise consume and the cost of an increased heat-exchanger capacity of more than 250 kW needed to cool the electromagnets. Finally, the use of permanent magnets eliminated troublesome water-coolant connections that would otherwise be needed to connect electromagnets to

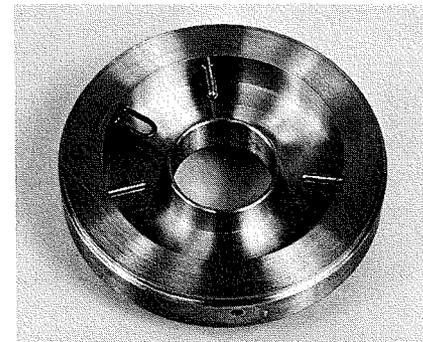


Fig. 4—A half section of the RCA 8568 klystron fourth cavity showing cavity loops and mode suppressors used to stabilize the tube.

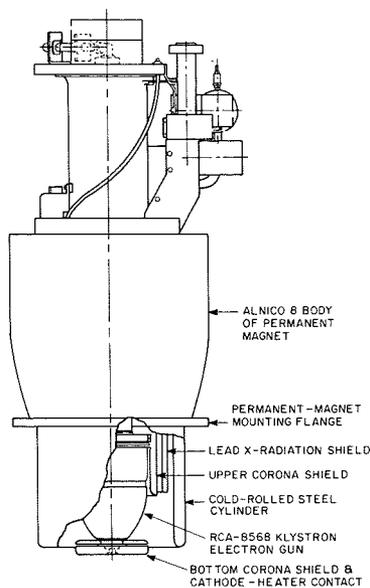


Fig. 5—Outline drawing of the RCA 8568 installed in a barrel type permanent focusing magnet. A cut-away view is shown of the electron gun region.

the coolant system. This arrangement reduced maintenance problems and improved the system reliability.

For additional reliability and ease of maintenance, it was specified that the klystron tube have only two coolant connections, operate in a stable manner at any beam-voltage level between 150 and 250 kV when operated at a fixed focusing field, and be interchangeable between focusing magnets, and that the output waveguide flanges align automatically with the mating flanges on the machine within a few thousandths of an inch. It was specified further that the X-radiation shielding for each tube occupy the minimum of space and that the shielding reduce the X-radiation level to a value of 5 milliroentgens at 24-in. from the tube axis to permit maintenance personnel to work safely in the klystron gallery when the klystrons were operating at maximum output.

Because the replacement of klystron tubes is a significant part of the operating cost of the machine, a design goal of 2000 hrs (minimum) was established for tube life. It was further specified that the tube be constructed in a manner that would permit it to be rebuilt at a fraction of the original cost.

Klystron development

During 1961 and early 1962, RCA redesigned the SLAC prototype tube to meet both the mechanical and electrical performance specifications. Six samples, designated RCA Dev. No. A1230D, were produced. These samples met the objective electrical performance specifications when they



Fig. 6—The RCA-8568 klystron installed in a barrel-type permanent magnet.

were electromagnetically focused. The tubes also met all the required mechanical specifications and had constructional features that made it feasible to rebuild them at low cost.

By the time the contract expired, satisfactory operation to 16 MW had been achieved by use of a prototype permanent-magnet focusing system. Although this performance was somewhat short of the goal of 24 MW, it was a record achievement and demonstrated that, with further refinement, permanent-magnet focusing was indeed feasible.

Encouraged by the results obtained by RCA, SLAC issued specifications in the request for production tubes to power the system requiring a power output of 21 MW with permanent magnet focusing. Sufficient evidence had been obtained at SLAC on resonant ring tests to suggest that a single RF window, coated with an extremely thin layer of titanium compounds, could handle the full peak and average power from a tube. Therefore, for minimum costs of both the accelerator and the klystron tubes, production tubes were specified to have only one RF window. This change reduced the number of vacuum valves and output flanges in the accelerator waveguide feed system by a factor of two and saved construction costs.

Experience gained as a result of the RCA work on the A1230D, together with similar work done at SLAC and Sperry-Rand, indicated that it would not be possible to construct a permanent magnet of reasonable size and cost to provide the requisite magnetic field to focus a tube like the A1230D. It was evident that a practical magnet

could be built only if the RF interaction length of the tube was shortened. This change would reduce the length of the magnetic path and bring the volume of magnetic material required to produce the needed field within practical bounds. Consequently, SLAC built a satisfactory tube approximately 3-in. shorter than the prototype.

On the basis of this information, the industry bid on production quantities of both tubes and permanent magnets in late 1962; again, RCA and Sperry-Rand were the successful bidders.

Production klystron—RCA 8568

The RCA 8568 klystron was designed to conform to the revised SLAC specifications. For this design, the A1230D was modified to use one output waveguide and window, and the RF interaction length was decreased by 3-in. to make permanent-magnet focusing practical.

Although the above modifications seem modest, they changed the stability characteristics of the tube drastically. Strong spurious oscillations in the frequency band between 5700 and 6300 MHz and 5-to-15-MHz ripples on the RF output pulse were chief among a host of instabilities observed in the modified A1230D. It took nearly eight months of careful analysis and patient cold-test work for final stabilization of the shortened design. During the course of this work, it was determined that the instabilities resulted from the following causes: RF feedback through the drift tubes; reflected electrons drifting counter to the normal electron beam; and electron-beam instabilities caused by transverse fields in the focusing magnets.

Solution of these instabilities included judicious perturbation of the various cavities, attenuation of the spurious resonances, improvement of the electron-gun optics, and development of permanent magnet with an extremely low transverse magnetic-field component. Fig. 4 shows one half of the fourth cavity, and illustrates the system of cavity loops and mode suppressors devised to stabilize the tubes. Similar mode suppressors are used in the other four cavities.

The barrel-type permanent focusing magnet for the RCA 8568, shown mounted on a tube in Figs. 5 and 6,

weighs approximately 1300 lbs. About 900 lbs of Alnico 8 are used to produce the field. A cold-rolled steel cylinder is located beneath the bottom pole plate of the magnet barrel to shape the axial magnetic focusing field in the region of the electron gun and to eliminate the bottom pole piece around the klystron tube.

The axial magnetic-field shape for the permanent magnet was originally derived from an electromagnet which had been used initially in evaluation of each tube. Thus, the early models of the permanent magnets featured a ring of bar magnets inside the cold-rolled steel cylinder to provide field shaping which more closely simulated the electromagnetic field. After several magnets were built, it was found that these bar magnets introduced non-symmetrical radial magnetic fields which degraded the klystron performance. When the bar magnets were removed, the klystron tubes performed better than they had in the electromagnet.

With early permanent magnets, non-symmetrical radial magnetic fields caused by transverse fields were a major cause of poor klystron operation. Even with an axial magnetic-field distribution approaching the electromagnet field, it was impossible to achieve comparable performance with a permanent magnet until the magnitude of the transverse magnetic fields was limited to less than 1% of the main axial field. Successful reduction of the transverse fields by RCA and the magnet supplier, Crucible Steel, made it possible for RCA to deliver the first full-performance klystron to the Stanford Accelerator Center by January, 1964, approximately a year before competition. The uniformity of both the tubes and the magnets has made it practical to interchange tubes and magnets at the accelerator site. No adjustment is needed on the magnets to obtain full performance from any tube operated in any magnet.

Output windows

A unique output waveguide window was developed for the A1230D klystron¹ and was used without basic changes on the RCA 8568 klystron. This window is unique in that the ceramic-to-metal vacuum joint is achieved solely by means of pressure. A compression band made of high-

speed steel provides the pressure to compress an annealed, 0.010-inch-thick, OFHC copper sleeve against the smoothly ground edge of the ceramic window. This construction is economical and eliminates RF current losses that would otherwise occur in a brazed metallized joint.

The RF output windows in the RCA-8568 are subject to a phenomenon called single-surface multipactor. This phenomenon is manifested by localized window heating caused by bombardment of the ceramic by high-energy electrons that become trapped in the RF field near the window surface. The phenomenon is self-sustaining when the secondary-electron emission characteristics of the window surfaces exceed unity. If allowed to persist at the higher RF operating levels, multipactor causes the tube to fail as a result of window fracture, caused by overheating, or small vacuum leaks, caused by electron drilling.

Because both sides of the output window operate in vacuum environments, they are subject to the multipactor phenomenon. The problem has been eliminated by vapor-deposition of an RF transparent coating of titanium compounds on each window surface to reduce the secondary-emission characteristics of the window surfaces. Improved techniques are now being investigated as possible methods of improving the coating stability.

Conclusions

This paper has discussed a few outstanding design accomplishments of the RCA-8568 klystron. Other accomplishments in this work include the design of a novel electron-gun construction for easy repair, a coolant system to meet the Stanford specifications for two coolant connections, X-radiation shielding to limit the X-radiation levels to 3 milliroentgens/hour, and a unique suspension design for mating the tube output flange to the accelerator.

More than 152 RCA-8568 klystrons have been operated on the Stanford machine since its completion in 1966. Although not all of the tubes have been operated at the maximum RF power level of 21 MW, statistical life-test studies at Stanford indicate little difference between life of the tubes at

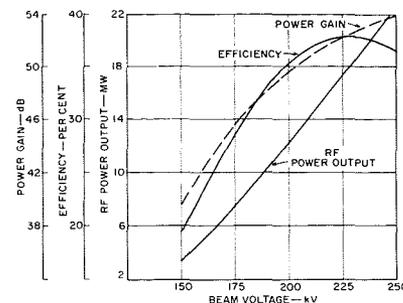


Fig. 6—The RCA-8568 klystron installed in a characteristics.

operating levels between 200 and 250 kV. On the basis of the current data, which is still incomplete because of insufficient tube failures, the projected life expectancy of the RCA-8568 is in excess of 11,000 hrs. Many tubes have operated for more than 10,000 hrs.

The RF power output, efficiency, and gain of a typical 8568 klystron with permanent-magnet focusing are shown in Fig. 7. Because of the fixed magnetic focusing conditions imposed by the permanent focusing magnet, the output-cavity design had to be compromised to meet the dual power-output specification; as a result, the operating efficiency of the tube typically peaks at 225 kilovolts.

Higher power-output levels than those shown in Fig. 7 have been realized with the RCA-8568 under experimental conditions. With normal pulse lengths, RF power outputs in excess of 25 and 30 MW have been obtained at RCA with beam voltages of 250 and 275 kV, respectively. The highest power output achieved experimentally with an RCA-8568 klystron was 105 MW at a beam voltage of 425 kV and a pulse width of 200 ns at MIT. The longest pulse operation was also achieved at MIT when a tube was operated at a peak power output of 10 MW for 50 μ s.

The RCA tube has received excellent customer acceptance. In the U.S., the RCA-8568 is used at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center, the Brookhaven National Laboratory, the Cambridge Electron Accelerator, the Cornell University Linear Accelerator, and the Argonne National Laboratory. In Europe, the RCA-8568 is currently used at IKO in the Netherlands and at the University of Ghent in Belgium. A variant of the tube for operation at 2998 MHz is being built for the ORSAY accelerator in France.

Reference

1. Teno, E., Hoffman, F. J., and Grimm, A. C., "Dielectric-To-Metal Compression-Band Seals", *RCA Engineer* Vol. 2, No. 5, Feb.-Mar., 1966, (pp. 76-78).

Environmental engineering laboratory

J. M. Forman | J. B. Grosh

RCA in Lancaster is a major supplier of power tubes, display storage tubes, vidicons, image orthicons, image converters, photomultipliers, and thermionic energy converters for industrial, military, and space applications. This paper discusses the facilities, responsibilities, and principles behind the RCA Lancaster Environmental Engineering Laboratory that supports these products. Customer-oriented environmental tube applications are also described.

CURRENT SPACE AND MILITARY SYSTEMS must operate reliably in widely varied environments. A single failure of a vital component may result in a costly loss of an airplane or a space vehicle. At the start of the jet age and the space era a large number of component failures were attributed to the hostile environment. As a result, a new technology—environmental engineering—was established. One objective of this technology is to subject system components to tests simulating the environmental conditions of their proposed mission; another objective is to analyze component failures and design various environmental protection methods and devices.

At present, many companies have major investments in testing facilities and technical personnel specifically directed towards the field of environmental engineering. Universities such as University of Pennsylvania, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the University of Michigan are offering environmental courses as part of their undergraduate and graduate curricula. In addition, a significant number of courses in shock, vibration, and acoustics are being offered by these same schools in engineering summer conferences. The Institute of Environmental Sciences, a technical society which has been in existence only ten years, currently has a membership of over 2,500.

Evolution of the laboratory

The military, keenly aware of the accelerating dependence of their operations on electronics, and after having determined that electrical relays and

vacuum tubes in vibration and mechanical shock environments accounted for the vast majority of electronic system failures, began to take corrective action. As a result, military contracts, starting in 1955, required that various product design groups at RCA Lancaster devote considerable effort towards the ruggedization of electron tubes. Most of these contracts stipulated that the tubes operate satisfactorily while being subjected to a variety of environmental conditions. No single contract would support the cost of all the environmental equipment needed to perform the required design and qualification testing. Neither could the design activities send tubes, related electronic equipment, and personnel back and forth from the plant to outside environmental testing facilities without prohibitive delays and costs. The need for the environmental facilities was evident.

From 1955 to 1958, RCA Lancaster acquired a number of environmental equipments. More and more product lines gradually became involved in the use of these facilities. The custodians of these equipments, receiving an increasing number of requests from the design activities, spent more time providing aid in calibration, maintenance, design of suitable holding fixtures, selection of peripheral instrumentation, and guidance in mechanical tube design for the dynamic environments of shock and vibration.

It soon became evident that environmental problems were common to all electron tube types. As a result, the automatic transfer and integration of valuable design concepts from one product line to another were delegated to a single engineering group. Tech-

nical education and knowledge of this growing field were considered essential for better understanding and guidance to the various product lines. These factors played a major role in the evolution of a centralized environmental facility supported by an environmental engineering staff.

Current facilities

The procurement of a wide variety of specialized laboratory equipments for simulation of stringent environmental field conditions led to the formation of a testing laboratory aimed at the evaluation of electron tubes. Auxiliary operational equipments of flexible design were engineered and built to accommodate numerous product-line types under rated or above-rated electrical test conditions. Analytical electronic instrumentation was also acquired or designed for monitoring tube performance under environmental conditions. Instruments such as spectrum analyzers, accelerometers, charge amplifiers, and level recorders were found useful, not only for environmental tube analysis but also for acoustic noise measurements and for dynamic analysis of the motion of machinery.

Natural, induced, and combined environments can be simulated by these facilities for a variety of tube test programs:

- 1) Design assurance testing and evaluation of partial assemblies or finished tubes;
- 2) Up-grading of existing products;
- 3) Pre-production qualification;
- 4) Reliability assessment and qualification;
- 5) Production sample testing; and
- 6) Qualification assurance testing.

These environmental test facilities produce simulated environments such as vibration, shock, constant acceleration, temperature, humidity, and altitude. Combined environments of temperature-humidity, temperature-altitude, and temperature-vibration are also available. All of these environmental equipments and related instrumentation in the Lancaster Environmental Engineering Laboratory are completely RCA owned.

Current responsibilities

The environmental engineer provides consultation and technical guidance on tube design programs concerning environmental requirements. In this ca-

capacity, he offers engineering services on customer proposal preparation, including the development of environmental test programs to meet planned ruggedization goals for a particular electron tube, according to customer specifications. To accomplish this task, he must have a familiarity with electron-tube principles and environmental applications and a broad knowledge of environmental specifications and facilities with associated instrumentation. He frequently assists design, application, advanced development, and marketing personnel in the assessment and interpretation of customers' environmental demands. He is also responsible for the design, drafting, fabrication, and mechanical performance of the environmental fixtures required for tube analysis.

For developmental programs, the environmental engineer supported by trained technicians performs all environmental tests. It is likewise his responsibility to evaluate the environmental test results. From these analyses, he can furnish engineering guidance to the tube designer in overcoming tube, deflection-yoke, magnetic-shield or other component ruggedization deficiencies. A further responsibility of the engineer is the keeping of environmental facilities at a minimum by guiding the product lines toward standardization of test requirements. Periodic calibration and regular maintenance of the equipments and instrumentation is sustained by these engineers and technicians to assure the accuracy of their tests. The field of environmental engineering covers many scientific disciplines: thermodynamics, electronics, statics, dynamics, mathematical analysis, and the environmental applications of materials engineering. Finally, this engineer is equally responsible for assessing the state of the art of environmental knowledge in the areas covering new equipment, new testing methods and procedures, and the theory behind the test methods and procedures.

Ruggedized tubes

Ideally, the development of ruggedized tubes would involve concurrent achievement of optimum environmental and electrical design objectives. Unfortunately, these objectives conflict; therefore a compromise is usually made between the initial and final de-

sign. This development is followed by a detailed quantitative definition of electrical and environmental limitations of the tube. The customers are not impressed by the term ruggedness unless it is backed by documented test conditions and definitive tube ratings.

Of the 450 tube types presently produced at RCA Lancaster about 100 electron tube types have been evaluated by the environmental laboratory in the last decade. A tabulation of some of the various kinds of field conditions associated with these products is given in Table I.

Table I—Ruggedized Conditions and Applications

Ruggedized Field Conditions

Aircraft shock during landing
 Constant acceleration during missile take-off
 Lunar landing (short duration high impact shock)
 Shipboard shock impact from gun firing platforms
 Low-pressure-temperature conditions of high altitude aircraft
 Rocket engine random vibration forces
 Turbulent airflow around supersonic aircraft
 Ramjet screech
 Helicopter mechanically induced excitations due to rotary components
 Shock impacts of camera tube housing by high speed focal plane shutter
 High impact shocks of naval ships that occur during a near miss of a torpedo which then explodes and sets the understructure of the ship into resonance.
 Corona or breakdown created by low pressure environment during operational conditions.
 Temperatures and humidities from the arctic to the jungle
 Shock encountered in traversing rough terrain
 Shipping and handling environments
 Container drop tests
 Railroad car or truck transportation

Ruggedized Tube Applications

Army, Navy and Air Force airborne equipment
 Army half-track mobile equipment
 Tactical ballistic missiles
 Oil well logging
 Sounding rockets
 Satellites
 Weather
 Broadcast
 Reconnaissance
 Star-tracking for stellar navigation control of aircraft and missiles
 Radar pulse compression
 Airborne reconnaissance
 Fire-control radar
 Electronic countermeasures
 Night vision
 Airborne range finding
 Television eye for:
 Taxiing and landing of the supersonic transport
 Viewing exhaust of the Saturn rocket
 Observation of the earth and its resources
 Observation of the launch of missiles
 Weather radar for commercial aircraft
 Underwater television for research and salvage operations

Future prospects

In the coming decade, ruggedized and reliable electron devices will promote the use of electronics in many commercial fields. With the increasing use of electronic products in such non-electronic industries as chemical, food

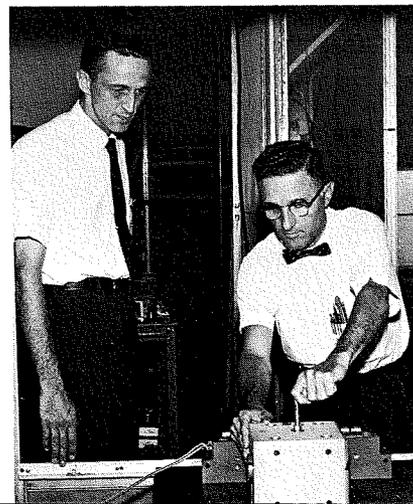
processing, automobile, steel, crime detection, and educational institutions, environmental engineering will play a more vital part in the electronic industry.

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received the ME from Stevens Institute of Technology in 1940, was a teaching fellow at Stevens from 1940 to 1941, and did graduate work there from 1940 to 1942. He joined the Equipment Development Electrical Design Group at RCA Harrison in 1941; and transferred to RCA Lancaster in 1942, to the Special Equipment Engineering Group of the Life Test and Data Laboratory. Since 1942, he has designed numerous electromechanical electronic test sets, life test equipments, and has worked on the special application of electronic circuitry for small and large power, cathode ray, color, photo and image, and display storage electron tubes. He was promoted to Leader of Special Equipment Engineering in 1951. Since 1956 to 1962, his activity expanded to include Special Equipment and Environmental Engineering, having the additional responsibility for environmental engineering evaluation and testing of all new and improved tube ruggedization. From 1962 until his recent appointment, Mr. Forman was Manager, Environmental, Special Equipment & Specifications Engineering in the Electrical Measurements and Environmental Engineering Laboratory. Mr. Forman is a senior member of the IEEE, a member of the Institute of Environmental Sciences, a member of NSPE, and holds a Professional Electrical Engineering license in the state of Pennsylvania. Mr. Forman is also a Past President of Lincoln Chapter, PSPE, encompassing Lancaster, York, and Adam Counties.

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received the BS in Physics from Franklin & Marshall College in June 1953. He then joined RCA as a Junior Engineer in Specification Engineering. After two years in the service where he gained experience pertaining to missile telemetry and guidance systems, he returned to RCA in January 1956 and was assigned to the design of special electronic circuits and equipments in the Special Equipment Engineering Laboratory. Since 1957 he has been active in environmental engineering related to electron tubes. He had been Acting Engineering Leader of the Environmental Engineering Laboratory since October 1962, and was named Leader in October 1968. He is a member of Sigma Pi Sigma, Institute of Environmental Sciences, American Institute of Physics, and Society for the Advancement of Management.



In the photo, Jules Forman (right) and John Grosh apply the finishing touches to an environmental test fixture.

Design of a 915-MHz power triode for microwave cooking

W. P. Bennett | D. R. Carter | I. E. Martin
F. W. Peterson | J. D. Stabley | D. R. Trout

The microwave power system described in this paper uses a 915-MHz power triode as the power source to provide an economical unit that has general utility. This system provides a power output of approximately 900 W, and delivers more than 90% of full power to varying food loads. A large variety of foods have been prepared in the range. A 17-pound refrigerated turkey has been roasted in 70 minutes. A complete dinner for four, including chicken, baked potatoes, and a frozen vegetable, can be served in 25 minutes. Bacon is prepared to crisp condition in 2 minutes, and hot rolls and pastry require only seconds to heat. These results demonstrate that a completely different, less time-consuming method of preparing food is at hand.

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received the BSEE from Michigan State University in 1944 and has taken graduate courses in Physics and Chemistry at Franklin and Marshall College. Since joining RCA-Lancaster 23 years ago, Mr. Bennett has been engaged in the development of power tubes and associated circuitry. He joined RCA in 1944 as a Product Development Engineer, Industrial Tube Division at Lancaster. In 1956 he was promoted to Manager, Super-Power Tube Development and in 1958 was named Manager, Super-Power Tube Design and Application Engineering. He was appointed Manager, Regular Power Tube Engineering in 1962 and assumed his present post in 1963. Mr. Bennett was instrumental in the design and development of a family of small-power, ultra-high-frequency triode tubes, RCA Types 5588, 6161, and their derivatives. Mr. Bennett also directed an engineering group in the design and development of a family of ultra-high-frequency, high-power tetrodes capable of continuous output of 25 kilowatts and peak power output of 1 megawatt. Mr. Bennett is a member of Tau Beta Pi and a senior member of the IEEE. He holds four patents and has several applications pending. He is the author of numerous technical papers.

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received the BSEE from Drexel Institute of Technology in 1960 and the MS in Physics from Franklin and Marshall College in 1968. Upon joining RCA in 1956 as a co-op student, Mr. Carter had assignments in super power triode design, super power tetrode design, and regular power tube ap-

plication engineering. For the past seven years, he has worked on special power tube problems and radio frequency circuit design, utilizing computer techniques. In 1960 he was promoted to the position of Product Development Engineer. In this capacity he was assigned to work on the input circuit design of a new developmental coaxitron Type A-2696 which he successfully completed. He has since worked on other super power triode coaxitrons and tetrodes. In 1964 he was transferred to the Power Tube Advanced Development Activity and was assigned to the food electronics program, where he has been responsible for waveguide oven enclosure design and power triode oscillator circuitry. Mr. Carter is a member of IEEE, Eta Kappa Nu, and Sigma Pi Sigma.

I. E. Martin

Advanced Development, Power Devices
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received the BSEE from Tulane University in 1950 and the MS in Physics from Franklin and Marshall College in 1968. Mr. Martin has been responsible for the early stress analysis and design of ceramic-to-metal compression-type seals and performed considerable experimentation in connection with the development of these seals. He has studied heat-transfer processes in power tubes, both analytically and experimentally. This work with both liquids and air, has led to significant improvements in the cooling of power tubes with liquids under extreme environmental conditions. Mr. Martin has participated in the design and development of numerous super-power tubes, particularly in connection with tube-processing, tube-circuiting, and tube-testing. He has designed a number of circuits including a multi-megawatt cavity for UHF pulse applications. More recently Mr. Martin has been concerned with the generation of high power through the use of transistors. He has also been concerned with modes of instability in transistors

under mismatched load conditions as well as the application of computers to the design of transistor amplifiers.

F. W. Peterson

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received the BSEE from the University of Arizona in 1949 and has done graduate work toward the MS in Physics at Franklin and Marshall College. Mr. Peterson joined RCA—Lancaster as a Specialized Engineering Trainee in 1949. Following completion of his training program he was assigned to the Power Tube Development group. From 1950 to 1954 he was responsible for the UHF circuitry used in evaluating the RCA-6161, 6181 and 6448 power tubes. In 1954 he was assigned to the Power Tube Design group as a Design Engineer where he was directly concerned with the design of the RCA-6816, 6884 and 7213. In 1956 he was appointed Leader, Medium Power Design group. In 1962 he was appointed Leader, Advanced Development, for Regular Power Tube Engineering. From 1963 to 1967 he was responsible for the RF generator development for cooking. Since 1967 he has led a task force team involved in cost reduction of the RF cooking generator. Mr. Peterson is a member of Tau Beta Pi, Phi Kappa Phi, Pi Mu Epsilon and Sigma Pi Sigma. He holds one patent in the electronics field and has submitted several additional disclosures. He presented a paper on the New Design Approach for Compact Kilowatt UHF Tetrode at the 1958 IRE Wescon Convention.

J. D. Stabley

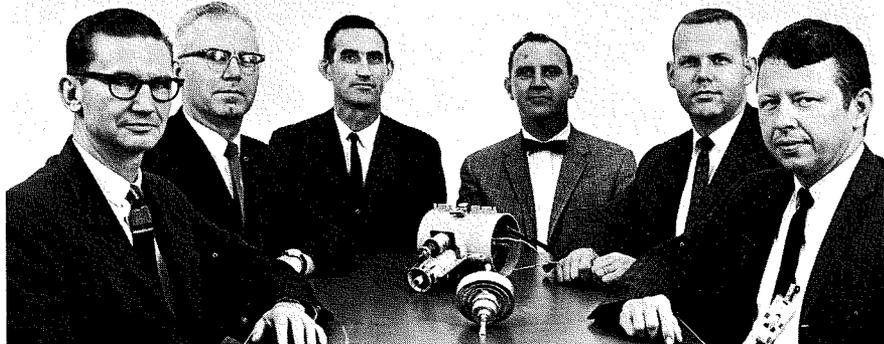
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graduated from DeVry Institute of Technology in 1950. Upon joining RCA in 1951 Mr. Stabley was assigned to the Super Power activity under Lloyd Garner. His assignments include work on the RCA 5831 used in the Navy's Jim Greek transmitter. He also worked on the development of the A-2332, a shielding grid Triode, used by the A.E.C. in linear accelerator applications at Berkeley and the Lawrence Radiation Labs. In the late fifties Mr. Stabley participated in the design and application of several high power Radar and Switch tubes that had applications in the BMEWS, Nike Zeus and Tradex Radars. In the early sixties he was part of a team working under Navy contract to design, fabricate, and test the A-2696, a high power broadband coaxitron for shipboard operation. Since 1964 he has been engaged in the food electronics program where his responsibilities are in the area of enclosures, total system concepts, and customer contacts.

D. R. Trout

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Industrial Tube Division
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joined the RCA Electron Tube Division in 1954 as an Undergraduate cooperative student. He acquired thirty months experience during this period as an electrical equipment designer. Upon graduation from Drexel Institute of Technology in 1958 with the BSEE he was assigned to the Super Power Tube Equipment Development group and was instrumental in the development and operation of several high-power high-frequency test facilities. He is currently doing graduate work at Franklin and Marshall College for his MS in Physics. Mr. Trout is a member of Sigma Pi Sigma.



The authors seated (left to right) are F. W. Peterson, I. E. Martin, W. P. Bennett, D. R. Carter, J. D. Stabley, and D. R. Trout.

THE USE of microwave power to heat food has many benefits as compared with conventional methods. Its advantages include much faster heating time, less food shrinkage, better moisture retention, and several significant convenience factors. Because microwaves primarily heat the food, not the container which holds it, dishes may become warm but not hot enough to burn or to accumulate "baked" foods on the surface. As a result, food items may often be prepared, stored, heated, and served in the same dish, and the smaller number of dishes will be easier to clean. In addition, dishes and containers made of paper and plastic may be used to great advantage.

In spite of these advantages, the number of microwave ranges presently sold for use in the home is an almost insignificant percentage of the total range market. To increase this percentage, suppliers of microwave sources must give greater consideration to two requirements:

- 1) The economics of the microwave power unit must be compatible with the values of microwave heating as judged by the consumer.
- 2) The general utility and ease of use of the range unit without burdensome *do's* and *don'ts* must be consistent with the user price for the unit.

Operating frequency

The best frequency for heating food is one which is high enough for the wave energy to be converted to heat energy by molecular motion in passing through the food, yet low enough to penetrate thoroughly into large items such as roasts or fowls. The infrared waves used in conventional ovens have very short wavelengths; they do not penetrate the food but are converted to heat energy in a very thin layer at the surface. As a result, the inner portions of the food can be heated only by a slow process of thermal conduction. Extremely long wavelengths, on the other hand, pass through food with essentially no heating effect. Either too short or too long a wavelength results in inefficient heating.

Two frequency bands assigned by the FCC are presently being used for microwave heating: 2450 MHz and

915 MHz. The longer-wavelength, lower-frequency band seems to strike a good balance for universal cooking. The superior penetration of the long-wave energy and its general usefulness in cooking and heating both large and small items are desirable features. In addition, because a 915-MHz power-generating device can be designed for operation at low voltages, the range power supply can be a simple, lightweight, inexpensive, transformerless unit that uses low-voltage solid-state devices. For these reasons, 915 MHz was selected as the frequency band for the design described.

Microwave generator

The heart of a microwave heating system is the device employed as the microwave generator. A power triode was selected because of its potential low cost, small size, and light weight, and because of the proven production technology already established for this type of device. The 915-MHz triode power generator has the additional advantage of being able to tolerate both unusual loads (including metallic utensils) and the "no-load", or empty, oven condition. Fig. 1 shows a photograph of the power triode; Fig. 2 illustrates its construction.

The general design objectives for the microwave power triode were as follows: microwave power output of 1 kilowatt at 915 MHz, low-voltage (600-volt) operation, high efficiency, low cost, fast warmup, forced-air cooling, service life of 15 years, light weight, and small size. In addition, the tube would have to deliver essentially full power to a wide range of load impedances representing the nearly infinite variety of food loads anticipated.

A triode oscillator design was selected to meet these objectives. Unique input and feedback circuits were incorporated into the design so that the phase of the grid-cathode drive voltage could be properly fixed and the magnitude could be adjusted to optimize the efficiency of the oscillator.

The tube design features a massive copper grid block, wound with copper-alloy grid wires, to maximize heat transfer to external parts that can be maintained at low operating temperatures by forced-air cooling. The grid wires are mechanically peened into the

grid lands to assure good electrical and thermal contact. This feature greatly enhances the grid-dissipation limit to the extent that the tube can withstand operation even in the completely unloaded condition. The cathode area of 10 cm² is divided into 36 equal sections to keep the span of the 0.0015-in. grid wire very short.

Fig. 3 shows the component parts of the grid-block, cathode-block assembly. The gear-like grid block is manufactured economically by the use of cold-extrusion forming techniques which repeatedly produce parts to the close tolerances required. The one-piece extruded grid block contains 36 lands on which the grid wire is wound and 36 slots which serve as the bearing surface for one end of the cathode strands. An identical set of 36 slots for cathode seating are formed on the smaller cathode block. The grid and cathode blocks are guided on a common axis by a ceramic rod through the center of each block.

The total matrix-oxide cathode area of 10 cm² supplies a steady-state current of 0.5 A/cm², as required for low-voltage (600 V) operation. This matrix-oxide cathode has been used extensively for years in many RCA power tubes. In the 915-MHz triode, directly heated strands are used to minimize cost and also to achieve fast warmup. The strands are directly connected to the grid block and cathode block in the tube. Direct connection is made possible by inductive "moats" in the grid block. This design greatly simplifies tube construction because only two insulating members are required in the vacuum envelope (the minimum required even for a diode), and the need for a DC bias supply is eliminated. The only electrical services directly required are a filament heating supply and the plate voltage supply. These features contribute substantially to the low-cost objective of the system.

The anode for the triode is also a cold-extruded copper cylinder which is formed with a thin-walled strain-isolation section on either end. The radiator consists of three concentric rings of corrugated copper strip brazed to the anode cylinder. In addition to providing the thermal heat path to the air stream, the fins of the radiator form part of the microwave circuit in the generator. Fig. 4 shows the mount as-

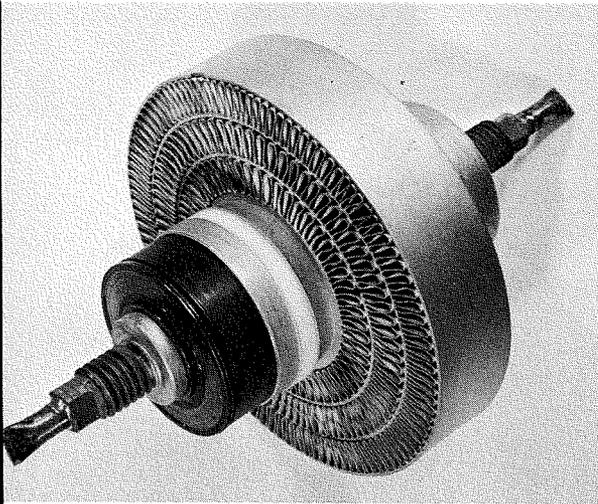


Fig. 1—Completed triode as an enclosed unit.

assembly ready for insertion into the anode-radiator assembly.

Processing of the tube during exhaust is conventional except that grid bombardment cannot be accomplished by application of positive grid bias because the cathodes are internally connected to the grid. Therefore, the grid is bombarded under microwave operating conditions. Consequently, a getter ion pump is connected to the tube until after a short period of microwave oscillator operation in a cavity similar to the one used for final generator assembly.

The microwave cavity for the oscillator consists of a coaxial cavity on either end of the tube with the anode radiator in the middle. The center conductor of the coaxial cavities is formed

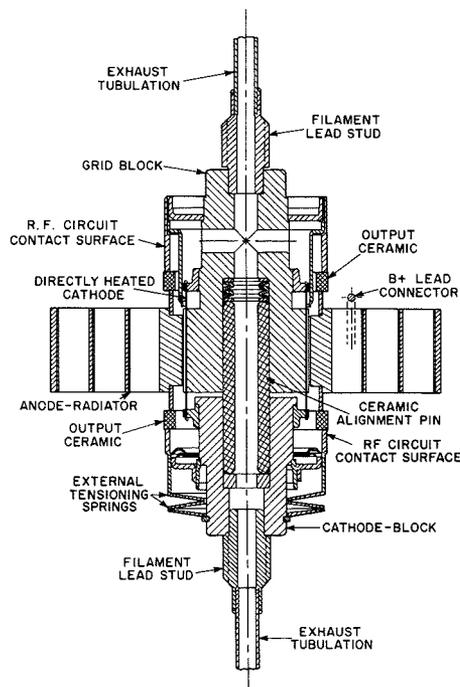


Fig. 2—Cross-section of the power triode.

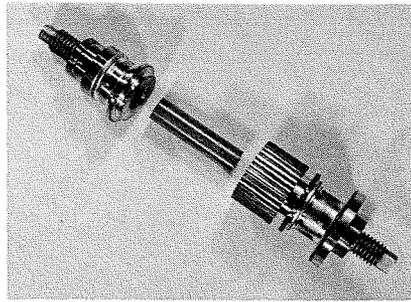


Fig. 3—Component parts of the grid-block, cathode-block assembly.

by the tube itself; the outer conductor is a 5-in.-diameter, 7-in.-long cylinder made of two identical, die-cast, aluminum half-shells that provide rugged, lightweight construction. Attached to each end of the tube are end-cup blockers (metal cylinders covered with an insulating sheet) which mate to the terminals of the tube, provide a microwave short for the end of the coaxial line, and form a DC voltage block on their outer diameter. The bottoms of the end-cup blockers consist of 36 radial fins which permit the free passage of cooling air through the entire coaxial cavity.

Air is directed into the cavity from the grid-block end, flows through the anode radiator, and exists past the cathode-block end. This direction of air flow provides cold air on the grid block which compensates for grid dissipation and prevents temperature unbalance between the grid block and the cathode block.

Adjustment of the electrical line length, established by the position of the end-cup blocker on the grid-block end of the tube, determines the operating frequency of the oscillator. Similarly, positioning of the end-cup blocker on the cathode-block end of the tube establishes the magnitude of the feedback voltage and thereby determines the operating level of plate current.

Microwave energy is capacitively coupled out of the cavity by means of a 1 $\frac{3}{8}$ -in.-diameter, 50-ohm transmission line that enters the cavity perpendicular to the axis of the tube in the region of the radiator. Fig. 5 shows the triode, with end-cup blockers and filament leads attached, positioned in the lower "half-shell". Fig. 6 shows a complete generator assembly, with the upper "half-shell" securely bolted to the lower "half-shell". This outer shell,

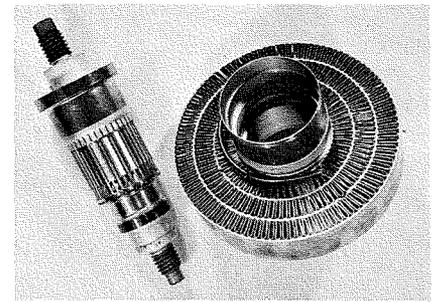


Fig. 4—Mount assembly ready for insertion into the anode-radiator assembly.

which contains the output transmission line, forms a complete shield that prevents the leakage of microwave energy. Because it is electrically isolated from all of the tube electrodes, it can be connected to the system ground. The generator weighs approximately 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., and occupies a small volume consisting of a 5-in.-diameter cylinder 7 in. long, and a 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. length of 1 $\frac{3}{8}$ -in.-diameter coaxial transmission line.

Triode microwave circuit

The microwave circuit for the tube can be described electrically as a quasi-Colpitts circuit. For optimum performance of the generator, the microwave circuit must control the magnitude and phase of the feedback signal and the system frequency. In the lumped-circuit model shown in Fig. 7, the values of C_1 , L_1 , and the load Resistor R_L are controlled by the circuit external to the vacuum envelope. The grid-cathode circuit, built entirely within the vacuum envelope, is shown schematically as C_2 , L_2 , and R_g . The capacitor C_2 represents the active portion of the grid-cathode electrode capacitance. The inductor L_2 represents a short length of transmission line terminated in a short circuit where the cathode is directly connected to the grid. The resistor R_g represents input losses caused by grid absorption and energy losses resulting from acceleration of the beam electrons into the grid-to-plate region.

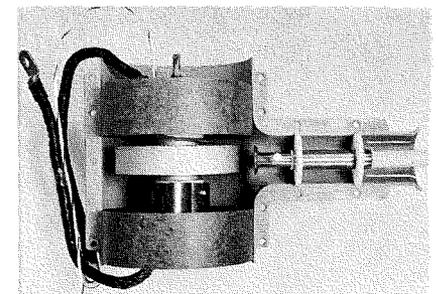


Fig. 5—The triode with the end-cup blockers and filament leads attached.

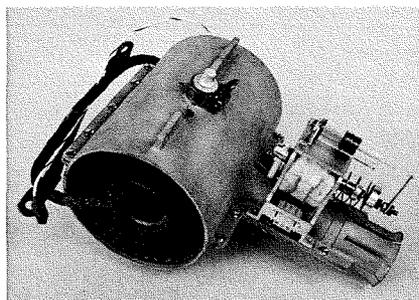


Fig. 6—A completed generator assembly.

In a microwave triode oscillator, electron transit time affects the boundary conditions that the circuit must satisfy. For optimum power generation, the fundamental plate current I_p of the tube must be in phase with the fundamental grid-to-plate voltage V_{gp} of the tube. The power generated P_g is given by

$$P_g = |V_{gp}| |I_p| \cos x$$

[The choice of V_{gp} instead of V_{pg} compensates for the normal 180° phase reversal at the output; therefore, the negative sign in the expression drops out.]

where x is the angle between V_{gp} and I_p (RMS values are used). At 915 MHz, the plate current I_p lags the grid-to-cathode voltage in time because of the electron transit time in the grid-to-cathode region. Therefore, the grid-cathode circuit is tuned precisely the right amount below the desired operating frequency so that the grid-to-cathode voltage leads the grid-to-plate voltage by a phase angle equal to the grid-to-cathode transit angle. This design compensates for the inherent transit-time lag, and thus accomplishes the desired objective of having I_p in phase with V_{gp} . Tuning of the grid-cathode circuit to 825 MHz optimizes the power generated at 915 MHz, as shown by the phase diagram in Fig. 8.

A test procedure was established to verify the transit-time correction. The passive resonant frequency of the entire circuit is the same as the oscillating frequency only if the transit-time compensation is correct. The amount of any correction necessary can be obtained from the difference between these two frequencies and the loaded Q of the circuit.

The dimensions of the circuit were calculated on a computer to avoid lengthy computations. Good correlation exists

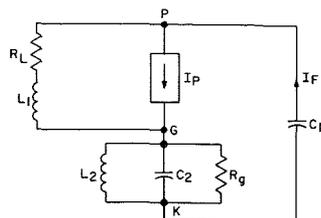


Fig. 7—Lumped-circuit model of the microwave circuit.

between the computer-predicted data and actual experimental data.

Automatic power regulator

Adjustment of a coupling capacitor in series with the output transmission line permits the power output of the triode oscillator to be held at an optimum value even though the load impedance varies widely. Such control is feasible because maintenance of either constant steady-state plate current or constant RF voltage in the oscillator cavity produces optimum power output in the load. As the load is varied, therefore, the proper capacitor setting for optimum power can be determined by a control circuit such as that shown in Fig. 9, which senses a change in either of these parameters and adjusts the coupling capacitor to minimize this change.

The effectiveness of this control is illustrated by the performance diagram shown in Fig. 10. This diagram, which is essentially a Rieke diagram for a power-regulated oscillator, shows a set of power and frequency coordinates superimposed on an impedance plane (Smith Chart). It can be seen that 90% of full power can be produced with standing-wave ratios as high as 10 to 1; higher standing-wave ratios are seldom encountered, even in an empty oven.

Another feature of this control is that regulation can be applied to several discrete power levels. In most cases, two power levels are adequate and a switching arrangement is used to select the desired level. A lower regulated power level is achieved by a change of the reference level of the sensing signal to select a lower current- or voltage-level reference.

Oven enclosures

One problem in the design of microwave ranges is the excitation of the proper voltage patterns in the oven. Any microwave oven enclosure is basically a waveguide resonator; therefore, the microwave energy fed into



Fig. 8—Oscillator phase diagram.

the oven forms standing-wave patterns which are determined by the boundary conditions: the oven dimensions, and the size, shape, and characteristics of the food load to be heated. Because of these standing-wave patterns, the effective heating voltage varies and some portions of the food are heated more rapidly than others. To avoid this non-uniform heating, it is common practice to move or change the voltage standing-wave pattern with relation to the food, and thus to equalize the heating effect throughout the item being heated.

There are always a number of different standing-wave patterns which are likely to occur, depending on the exact frequency of the power source and the perturbation of the electric field in the oven by the food load and other oven parts. These patterns (or modes, as they are often called) can be excited as a result of moving the food, pulling the frequency, or rotating a metallic stirrer inside the oven. The greater the number of modes or different field patterns in the oven, the greater is the diversity of heating patterns and the better the likelihood that the average heating effect throughout the food will be more uniform. A greater number of modes also reduces the range of impedances presented to the power source by different food loads.

Because the number of standing-wave patterns is relatively low in the 915-MHz band, a method was developed for moving the food in relation to the field patterns to provide uniform heating. In this method, proposed by Prucha,¹ the food load is slowly rotated in the oven on a turntable or "lazy susan". Either a dielectric material is used for the turntable, or the food is supported on an insulating platform 2 to 3 in. above a metal turntable.

The voltage vectors of the field pattern excited in the oven enclosure should be predominantly in the horizontal direction. This excitation pattern is particularly beneficial in coupling power into thin food loads such as bacon. A simple and effective way of exciting such field patterns at 915 MHz

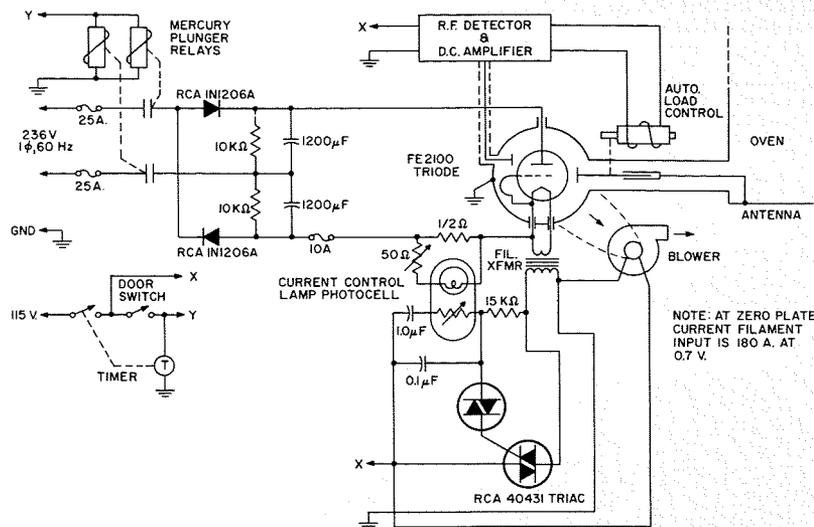


Fig. 9—System circuit diagram.

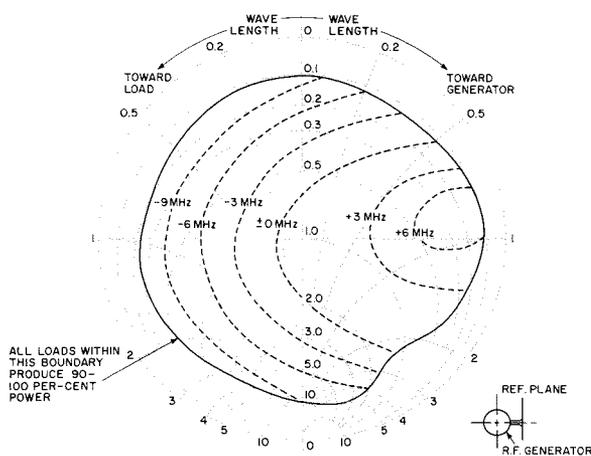


Fig. 10—Performance diagram for the power-regulated oscillator.

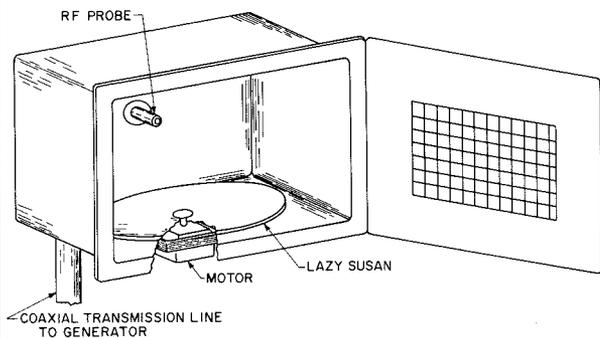


Fig. 11—Sketch of the microwave range.

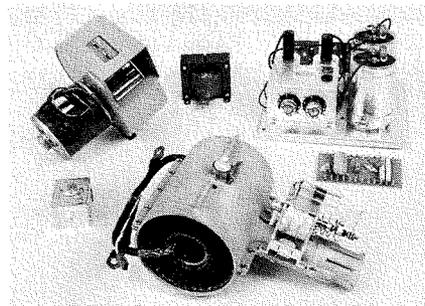


Fig. 12—Typical set of system components, including power supply parts, filament transformer, blower, and triode power generator.

is to feed the power to the back of the oven by means of a coaxial transmission line, and to excite the oven by means of an antenna probe which is simply an extension of the coaxial-line center conductor, as shown in Fig. 11.

Power supply and auxiliary equipment

The advantages of 915-MHz microwave energy and the potential economy of the small, lightweight power oscillator can be realized only if the remaining components of the system are also light in weight, reliable, and low in cost. If conventional 236-volt household voltage is utilized in a standard doubler circuit, approximately 600 volts of DC are made available to the tube anode. Such a circuit permits a substantial reduction in weight and cost through the elimination of a power transformer.

The power supply and auxiliary circuits shown in Fig. 9 have been life-tested under on-off cycled conditions without component failures for periods in excess of 3000 hrs. This life-test period corresponds to an estimated elapsed time of 30 years in a typical kitchen installation where usage is about 100 hrs/year.

An alternate power supply was designed in which thyristors served the dual functions of switching and rectifying, and thus replaced the mercury plunger relays and the diodes. With this solid-state system, a firing circuit was used to provide a "soft" start for the system by charging the capacitors over many cycles of line voltage rather than during one cycle (as with relays). This alternate design may be the best

system for the future when the economics of the solid-state components become more favorable.

The tube and cavity require an air flow of 100 ft³/min and have a pressure drop of 0.35 in. of water at this flow.

Fig. 9 also shows a rather unique circuit which maintains the filament heating input at the optimum operating value for long life. This circuit regulates the filament power as a function of the anode current by means of an adjustable resistor in series with a lamp. Higher-than-normal heater power is provided to decrease starting time, and then, as cathode current is drawn, the heater power is automatically reduced to the minimum level required to maintain microwave power output. (This circuit is somewhat sophisticated and, for reasons of economy, may be replaced by a simple relay circuit which drops the filament power back to a predetermined value once the tube has started to operate.)

System performance

Fig. 12 shows a typical set of components for the microwave heating system, including power-supply parts, filament transformer, blower, and triode power generator. Typical system and tube operating conditions for operation from a conventional 118/236-volt, 60-Hz, 3-wire power line are as follows:

AC line current	17 to 19 A
Power factor	0.7
Heater current:	
for starting	180 A at 0.7 V
for operation	150 A at 0.6 V
DC tube anode voltage	625 V
DC anode current	3.8 A
Operating frequency	915 MHz
Starting time (approx.)	20 s
Generator air-flow requirements at standard conditions (at 0.35-inch water pressure)	100 ft ³ /min.
Power output to matched load	950 W
Power delivered to water load in typical oven enclosure	750 W

Total system weight for the generator, blower, filament transformer, and power-supply components is about 30 lbs.

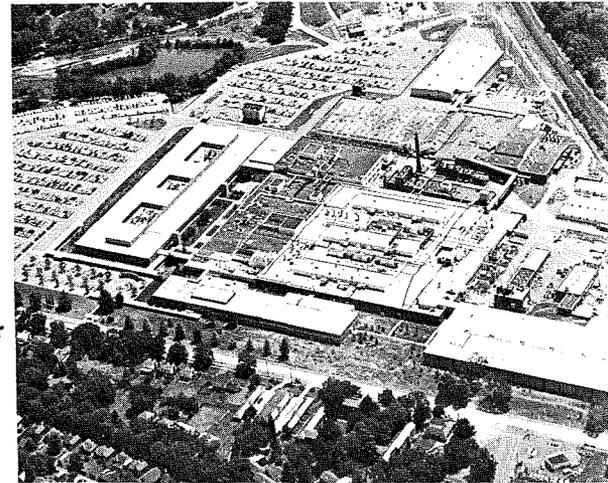
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RCA Lancaster—25 years of engineering excellence

At RCA's Lancaster plant—at the heart of Pennsylvania Dutch country— they certainly "know what good is." Lancaster engineers turn with just pride to their 25-year record of firsts in power, conversion, and color-tube engineering. Some of these firsts are given in the chronology below.

The Lancaster plant (shown at right) has grown from a 350,000-square-foot manufacturing facility in 1942 to a 1,400,000-square-foot complex employing over 5200 in applied research, design, development, and testing, as well as production. Their products vary from TV color picture tubes and RF cooking tubes used in home appliances, to giant high-power klystrons and magnetrons for government and industry, and to sensitive image orthicons, vidicons, and isocons for the entertainment industry and the space program.



Cathode-ray and picture tubes

1943	Cathode-ray tube engineering department transferred from Harrison to Lancaster. At that time, it included all engineering on cathode-ray tubes such as radar, oscilloscope, flying spot, and projection types, as well as all pick-up tubes, such as iconoscopes, orthicons, and image tubes.
1949	Tri-color picture tube engineering began in Lancaster.
1950	RCA demonstrated first tri-color tube and a compatible all-electronic color television system to the FCC. Pick-up tubes set up as a separate department.
1951	First of several RCA symposia for presenting detailed technical and engineering information on its color tube to competing tube and set manufacturers.
1953	15GP22 flat-screen color picture tube put into production. Development of NTSC color system completed; adopted by the FCC.
1953 to 1954	Transfer of black-and-white picture tube design to the Marion, Ind. facility.
1954	21AXP22 metal color picture tube announced and demonstrated; the first tube to use lighthouse lens correction.
1955	Color tube applications set up as a department separate from color tube design.
1957	21CY22 introduced—the first color tube in all-glass bulb; it used "degroupping" lighthouse lens and graded apertures in steel masks.
1960	RCA introduced all-sulfide phosphors in color tubes, producing 50% increase in brightness (21FBP22).
1961	21FJP22 introduced—with bonded safety-glass.
1964	25AP22A introduced—first RCA 90° rectangular color picture tube.
1965	Introduction of Vanadate red.
1965 to present	Improvements in red-emitting phosphors (Vanadates and Oxysulfides); introduction of Einzel-lens gun.
1966	Development and introduction of "Perma-Chrome" tempera-tube compensation system.
1966	Einzel lens introduced in the 15-in portable color set.
1967	Development and introduction of Oxysulfide red—first "unity current ratio" color tube.

Super power devices

1937	Super power tube research and development activity was started by L. P. Garner and Dr. P. T. Smith under Dr. V. K. Zworykin.
1943	Advanced Development Group established in Lancaster under L. P. Garner.
1947	The first commercial 1MW CW beam power triode, the RCA-5831, was marketed; the U.S. Navy bought the first tubes for their Jim Creek transmitter in Washington State.
1950 to 1955	Development of the RCA-6949, 500kW CW shielded grid beam triode for high-power communications, radar, and particle accelerator applications.
1953	The RCA-6448, the first UHF-TV high power beam tetrode tube, was announced.
1955 to 1958	Development of the RCA-6952, the first high power pulsed UHF radar beam power tetrode utilizing matrix oxide cathodes based on the electronic structures conceived for the RCA-6448.
1958 to 1961	The RCA Developmental Type A2346, the doubled-ended UHF triode now commercially available as the RCA-2054 and 7835, was developed for the Air Force. This structure provides the highest average power available in the world from gridded tubes suitable for UHF operation.
1961 to 1964	Development of the first coaxitron, integral-circuit high-power triode, under Air Force contract. Three Developmental Type A15038 Coaxitrons capable of 5MW peak power from 400 to 450 MHz were delivered.
1961 to 1964	The RCA-8568 30MW pulsed klystron for particle accelerator applications.
1964 to 1968	The development of heat pipes—devices for the efficient transfer of heat.
1966	Development of RCA-8684 25kW CW magnetron for industrial heating applications.
1966	Development of 100mW and 1W CW Argon lasers; a number of units have been produced and sold.
1968	Development of a 1kW CW klystron for operation between 4500 to 5000 MHz.

Regular power tubes

1952	Development of the 6146 tube family for VHF mobile communications. The 6166 tubes were developed for VHF-TV transmitters. The 6181 tubes were developed for UHF-TV transmitters.
1956	The 6816 tubes were the first of the cermalox family that were developed.
1960	First conduction-cooled cermalox tubes developed.
1961	Ceramic-metal 8072 developed for UHF mobile communications.

Conversion tubes

1962	Photocell facility moved to Mountaintop, Penna.
1965	Convex Expansion Program which included a Laminar Flow Clean Room (largest and cleanest in the world).
1966	Introduced long-life target image orthicon, increasing tube life four-fold. Great surge in image tube business because of night vision devices, increasing four-fold since 1955.
1967	TV guided missile business created an expanded vidicon tube market. Bi-Alkali photocathode was introduced to image orthicon and photomultiplier product lines. It vastly increased the general performance of these related types.

The heat pipe, an unusual thermal device

R. A. Freggens | R. C. Turner

The transportation of unwanted heat to a suitable heat "sink" has proven to be a difficult design problem. Now, a unique device known as a "heat pipe" can transport large quantities of thermal energy to remote heat sinks with a temperature difference of only a few degrees. As an example of this unique ability, 11,000 watts of thermal energy have been transported through a one-inch diameter heat pipe over 27 inches long, with a temperature loss so small that it was difficult to measure. By comparison, a copper bar nine feet in diameter and weighing about 40 tons would be required to produce the same result. This paper describes the operation and design of heat pipes, and summarizes RCA's role in the development of these unusual thermal devices.

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joined DEP's Missile and Surface Radar Division in 1958. He received the BSME from the Pennsylvania State University in 1961, and was reassigned to DEP's Astro-Electronics Division as a member of the Thermal Design Group. In this position he was involved in the thermal design and environmental testing of many of the spacecraft developed by AED, including Ranger, TIROS, Relay and Nimbus. In 1965, Mr. Turner was transferred to EC where he became a member of the Thermionic Converter Engineering Group of the Direct Energy Conversion Department. Since then, he has been responsible for the design and development of novel, fossil-fuel-fired, thermionic power systems for the Army, and a 500 watt, thermionic, radioisotope fueled space power system for the Air Force. He is currently responsible for the development of a 100-heat-pipe Ranklin Space Power System Radiator for the Air Force. Mr. Turner has authored or co-authored several technical papers and has a patent pending for a highly accurate thermocouple device. He was awarded a certificate of commendation by NASA/JPL for, "significant contributions to the success of the RANGER 7 mission which secured the first high resolution photographs of the surface of the Moon," and received one of the 1967 Science awards from the Inventions and Contributions Board of NASA for "significant value to the advancement of the NASA Space Program."

R. A. Freggens

Heat Transfer Devices Engineering
Electronic Components
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received the BS in Chemistry from Upsala College in 1951, and joined the Westinghouse Electron Tube Division as an engineer assigned to power tube development, responsible for the development of power tubes for audio, RF and high-voltage switch tube applications. His contributions included the design and improvement in electronic geometries and processing of high-power gridded tubes, with particular emphasis on the interaction between elements within the devices. Mr. Freggens joined RCA in 1966. Since then he has been responsible for the development of high temperature thermionic energy converters, employing heat pipes to transfer the primary thermal-energy from a nuclear heat source to a thermionic converter. He has been involved in special studies of molybdenum-lithium heat pipes for thermionic systems, under current in-house contracts. He has developed special low-temperature heat pipes employing aluminum and copper as the envelope material. He has also investigated the characteristics of these units to obtain compatible combinations of envelopes and working fluids for achieving reliable long-life operation. In addition, he has developed radial heat pipes for use in specialized applications. Mr. Freggens is a member of the IEEE, has been awarded one patent and has three patent applications pending.



In the photo, Mr. Freggens (seated) and Mr. Turner are examining various heat-pipes.

THE HEAT PIPE is basically a sealed two-phase system in which a fluid is continuously evaporating and condensing. The containment vessel shown in Fig. 1, is evacuated of all unwanted gases and sealed. A wick structure lines the inside wall from the evaporator end to the condenser end. Heat supplied to the evaporator causes vaporization of the fluid stored in the wick. The heat is then transported to the condenser end in the form of vapor flow, where it is recovered by condensation of vapor back into the wick. The cycle is completed when the condensate is returned to the evaporator by capillary action through the wick structure.

The purpose of the working fluid within the heat pipe is to absorb the heat energy injected into the evaporator section. This is accomplished by vaporization of the working fluid, a process that requires a large amount of heat energy, i.e., the latent heat of vaporization. (There is no increase in fluid temperature associated with this heat energy.) The vapor is transported to the condenser section by a slight pressure difference created between the ends of the pipe. When the vapor arrives at the condenser section, it encounters a slightly lower temperature than that of the evaporator. Consequently, the vapor condenses, releasing the thermal energy that had been stored as heat of vaporization.

For all practical engineering purposes, the heat pipe can be considered essentially isothermal along its length.

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Table I. RCA heat pipe developments

Fluids		
Methanol	Ethylene glycol	Inorganic salts
Acetone	Mercury	Indium
Water	Cesium	Lithium
Dowtherm	Potassium	Bismuth
Napthalene	Sodium	Lead
Vessels and wicks		
Glass	Stainless steel	Hastelloy X
Copper	Aluminum	Alumina
Nickel	Molybdenum (TZM)	
Geometries		
Cylindrical	Radial	"Y"
Double diameter	Serpentine	Double ended
Re-entrant	Star★	Flexible
Life continuing and undegraded		
Lithium-TZM	10,400 hours	
Sodium-Hastelloy X	17,000 hours	
Potassium-Nickel	15,000 hours	
Mercury-Stainless steel	10,000 hours	
Water-Copper	5,000 hours	
Water-Stainless steel	4,000 hours	

This nearly isothermal property is maintained even at high heat transfer rates and is responsible for the high effective thermal conductance.

RCA developments

Since RCA began research on heat pipes in 1963, nearly 800 heat pipes of various sizes, temperatures, fluids, materials and power-handling capabilities have been built within the corporation. Table I lists some of the many working fluids and materials used for the containment vessels and wick structures. Although the name "heat pipe" conveys an image of a right-circular cylinder, they are not limited to this configuration. Heat pipes can be made square, rectangular, oval, spherical, serpentine, re-entrant, or in any configuration in which a two-phase, vapor-liquid system can exist. The various heat pipes developed at RCA Lancaster have included many of these shapes and configurations. Fig. 2 shows a "serpentine" configuration that was used as a heat pipe for cooling an array of integrated circuits. This pipe is made from 1/4-inch copper tubing with water as the working fluid. It is capable of transferring 100 watts in spite of several 180-degree bends, and demonstrates the inherent flexibility in heat-pipe configuration.

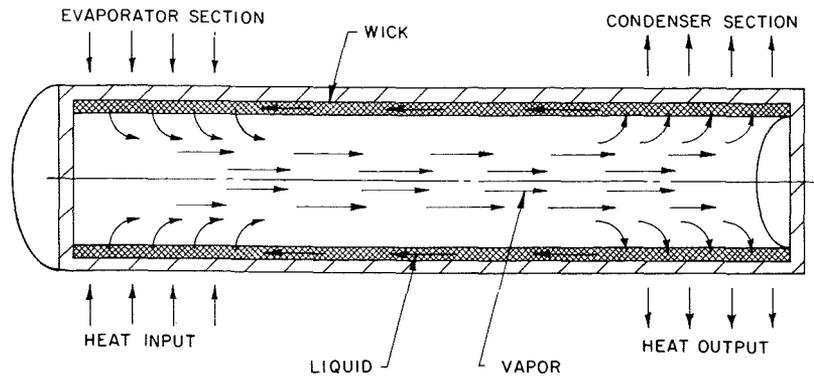


Fig. 1—Cutaway drawing of a typical cylindrical heat pipe.

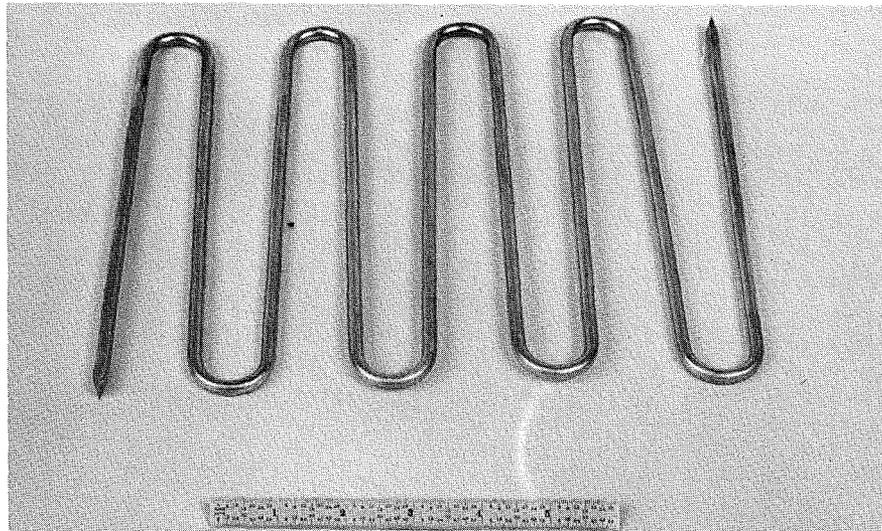


Fig. 2—"Serpentine" heat-pipe.

Heat pipes have also been fabricated to transfer large quantities of heat while withstanding high voltage potentials applied between the evaporator and condenser ends. One such pipe is shown in Fig. 3. The containment vessel is made of glass, the wick is fiberglass, and the working fluid is a fluoridated hydrocarbon. The two tubes extending from the pipe are employed to measure the thermal conductance by means of water-calorimetry. Although the thermal conductance is large, the heat pipe is electrically non-conductive.

Because of the high thermal efficiency of the heat pipe, substantial savings can be realized with respect to electrical power as well as in weight, volume and area. As an example, the radial heat pipe shown in Fig. 4 was built to cool the collector of a klystron for a troposcatter communications system. Using a conventional fin-type heat sink, the fan required nearly 1000 watts of electricity. When the heat sink was replaced by the heat pipe radiator, adequate cooling was provided by a 100-watt fan.

In spacecraft applications, reduced

weight and volume is an obvious design objective. The heat-pipe panel shown in Fig. 5 was used to provide a high heat-rejection rate from a Rankine Space-Power System. The radiator subsystem incorporates 100 stainless-steel heat pipes (horizontal tubes) in which the working fluid is metallic sodium. The heat pipes are designed to remove heat from the condenser section of a potassium-filled "loop". In operation, potassium vapor leaving the last turbine stage of the power system enters the heat-pipe radiator at 1420°F and exits at approximately the same temperature as a liquid. The heat pipes radiate 50,000 watts of thermal energy, or the amount required to condense 216 pounds per hour of potassium from the vapor state to the liquid state. The entire heat-pipe subsystem measures only 23 inches by 43 inches and weighs only 17 pounds, about 1/3 the weight of a comparable conduction-type fin and tube radiator. It was developed for the Air Force Aero-Propulsion Laboratory at Wright Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio.

Heat pipes have also been developed for cooling solid-state devices such as

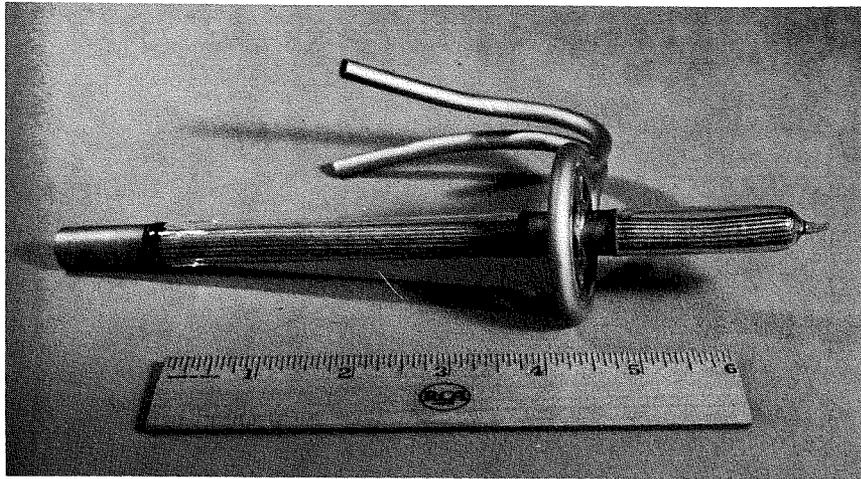


Fig. 3—Electrically insulated heat pipe.



Fig. 4—Radial heat pipe.

silicon-controlled rectifiers. The heat pipe shown in Fig. 6, for example, is capable of dissipating 1000 watts from the collectors of two 1N4044 silicon diodes, while maintaining a 100°C case temperature, with only 90 cfm of cooling air supplied by a fan. A comparable conductive-type heat sink would have required about ten times the sink volume in order to achieve the same power-dissipation capabilities.

It is also possible through a unique mode of heat-pipe operation to maintain constant temperature of a heat pipe in spite of large variations in transferred power. In this operational mode the heat pipe varies its access to the ultimate heat sink so as to maintain the constant temperature. The physical principles involved are the same as those by which an air pressure of one atmosphere establishes the boiling point of water as 100°C, i.e., if an overpressure of inert gas is used within the heat pipe it will establish an oper-

ating pressure and, because of the vapor pressure-temperature relationship, will establish a fixed operating temperature. The temperature of operation can be pre-set at the time of processing or modified as desired if a reservoir with variable volume is used.

Heat pipes designed to provide a constant temperature have wide application. As an example, they can be used to regulate the operating temperature of a semiconductor in the presence of a varying power demand or of a furnace with varying thermal loads.

Design factors

The heat pipe has been described in right circular form in most of the literature. However, as noted previously, there is no theoretical geometric limitation. In general, because heat is added to and removed from the heat pipe through the container wall by thermal conduction, the wall should be made as thin as possible. But, it

Symbol	Definition
B	Dimensionless constant related to the detailed geometry of the capillary structure
R	Universal gas constant
T_o	Heat pipe temperature—°K
M	Molecular weight of working fluid—g
L	Heat of vaporization—cal/g
$P(T_o)$	Vapor pressure of the working fluid at the operating temperature
Q_e	Heat transferred axially along pipe—cal/s
e	Fraction of wick volume occupied by liquid
l	Length of heat pipe—cm
r_w	Outside radius of wick—cm
g	Acceleration of gravity cm/s ²
r_e	Radius of curvature of meniscus at evaporation—cm
r_c	Radius of curvature of meniscus at condenser—cm
r_v	Radius of vapor space—cm
r_p	Radius of wick pore—cm
σ	Surface tension of working fluid at temperature T_o —dynes/cm
ϕ	Wetting angle between working fluid and capillary structure—degrees
α	Angle of the heat pipe to the horizontal—degrees
ρ^v	Density of the vapor phase of the working fluid at the temperature of operation g/cm ³
ρ^l	Density of liquid phase of the working fluid at the temperature of operation—g/cm ³
η^v	Vapor viscosity at operating temperature g/cm-s
η^l	Liquid viscosity at operating temperature g/cm-s
m_v	Mass flow rate = $Q_e/L = g/s$
β	Fluid wetting angle at evaporation—degrees
δ	Fluid wetting angle at condenser—

must be thick enough to support the difference between internal and ambient pressure. Long-term compatibility tests of the container wall with the working fluid help determine the exact thickness required.

The wick structure is composed of fine capillaries. The difference in the diameter of the capillary in the evaporator and condenser sections, coupled with the fluid surface tension, provides the driving force for fluid return. However, to achieve this force, the working fluid must "wet" the wick and walls of the heat pipe. Fig. 7 shows the effect of a small-diameter tube placed in a fluid bath. An attractive force between the liquid and the wall of the capillary tube combines with the surface tension of the liquid to move the liquid surface toward the unfilled portion of the tube. The cosine of the wetting angle, ϕ , (the angle of contact between the fluid and surface) must be less than $\pi/2$. In the wick structure the driving force

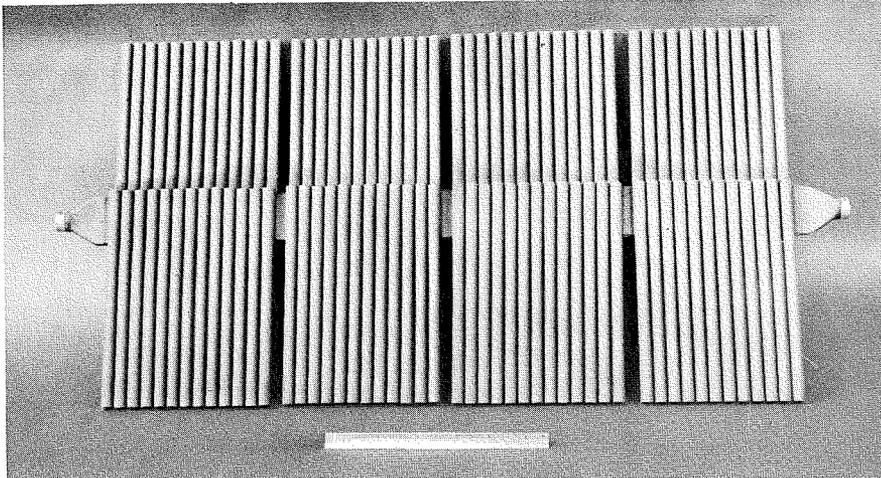


Fig. 5—Heat pipe panel used in spacecraft applications.



Fig. 6—Heat pipe which dissipates 1000 watts from the collectors of two type 1N4044 silicon diodes.

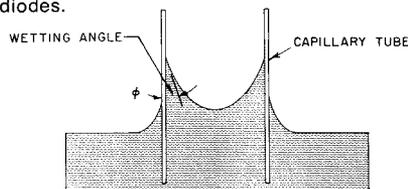


Fig. 7—Enlarged view of capillary tube placed in liquid bath to show the effect of capillary action.

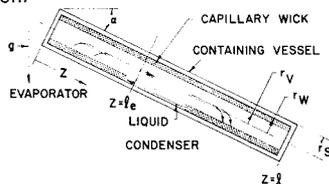


Fig. 8—Cylindrical heat-pipe structure.

is determined by this same wetting angle and the diameter of the capillary.

In the heat pipe, the capillary action in the wick sets up a difference of pressure between the evaporator and condenser ends that causes movement of the fluid through the wick. The pressure gradient can be determined from the expression

$$\Delta P_c = 2\sigma \left(\frac{\cos \beta}{r_e} - \frac{\cos \delta}{r_c} \right) \quad (1)$$

where the terms are as defined in Table II.

The fundamental requirement for operation of the heat pipe is that the system driving force (the capillary pumping pressure) equal or exceed the pressure

losses in the system. This relation may be expressed mathematically as

$$\Delta P_c \geq \Delta P_v + \Delta P_i + \Delta P_g \quad (2)$$

where ΔP_v is the pressure difference of the vapor at both ends of the pipe, ΔP_i is the pressure loss as a result of viscous drag of the liquid in the capillary tube, and ΔP_g is the head pressure in the liquid caused by the force of gravity.

The first two pressure losses, ΔP_v and ΔP_i , represent two regions of the heat pipe: the vapor core and the fluid annulus, respectively. The flow of vapor in the central core of the heat pipe, as depicted in Fig. 8, is identical to fluid flow through a porous wall by injection or under suction.^{2,3} This analogy assumes an incompressible liquid, laminar flow, and uniform injection or suction. Several vapor-flow expressions can be obtained based on the magnitude of the radial Reynolds number, R_r , as follows:

$$R_r = \frac{\rho_v r_w V_r}{\eta_v} \quad (3)$$

where V_r is the radial-flow velocity at the channel wall.

Based in the two ranges of the radial Reynold's number, the vapor-flow pressure loss can be expressed as

$$\Delta P_v = \frac{4\eta_v Q_v l}{\pi \rho_v r_w^4 L}, \text{ for } R_r \ll 1, \text{ and} \quad (4)$$

$$-\left(1 - \frac{4}{\pi^2}\right) Q_v^2, \text{ for } R_r \gg 1.$$

$$\Delta P_v = \frac{8\rho_v r_w^4 L^2}{8\rho_v r_w^4 L^2}$$

The pressure loss (ΔP_i) associated with fluid flow through the wick from the condenser section to the evaporator section is based on the momentum

equation for steady incompressible flow. For long heat pipes in which $r_w L$ is much greater than the outside diameter of the wick squared (r_w^2), is given by

$$\Delta P_i = \frac{B\eta_l Q_v l}{2\pi (r_w^2 - r_c^2) \rho_l e r_w^2 L} \quad (5)$$

The gravitational term, ΔP_g , is negative when the evaporation is below the condenser, positive when the evaporation is above the condenser, and zero when the pipe is operated in a horizontal position. The equation for head pressure caused by gravity is given by

$$\Delta P_g = \rho_l g l \sin \alpha \quad (6)$$

where α is the angle of the heat pipe with respect to the horizontal position.

For small differences in pressure occurring in the vapor-phase region (between the evaporator and condenser sections), the resulting temperature difference, in degrees Kelvin ($^{\circ}\text{K}$) can be calculated by use of the Clausius-Clapeyron equation:

$$\Delta T_v = \frac{RT_v^2 \Delta P_v}{MLP(T_v)} \quad (7)$$

There is one other factor which must be considered in the design of a heat pipe: The operating pressure of the working fluid. Heat pipes can operate when the vapor pressure of a work fluid is in the range of 0.01 atmosphere to several atmospheres. This pressure range sets the operating temperature range for each work fluid.

Concluding remarks

The *heat pipe* has demonstrated its unique abilities to transport and dissipate thermal energy in a variety of sizes, and configurations, and over a wide range of operating temperatures. Currently, heat pipes are being used to cool semiconductors, electron tubes, and space power systems. The proven long life of the sealed heat pipe makes it attractive for unattended or inaccessible locations.

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Ruggedization of camera tubes for space applications

J. G. Ziedonis

Television camera systems have played a major part in the exploration of our closer planets. The heart of these camera systems is the image-forming, light-sensitive device—the vidicon or the image orthicon. Such tubes must endure the most severe environment that electron tubes can be expected to meet: mechanical vibration and shock during the missile firing and lift-off. As a result, new design concepts have been developed for protection of vidicon tubes.

IN SPACE MISSIONS that use cameras with vidicons, high-resolution video pictures can be maintained only if the spacing among internal electrodes of vidicon remains the same as before the launch. Vidicons, therefore, are not only treated as light-sensitive electrical devices, but also as mechanical systems. All mechanical systems have resonances, and electron tubes are no exception. When an electron tube is subjected to mechanical vibration, some of its internal electrode resonances are excited. At these resonances, tube components may develop large relative displacements which may deteriorate tube performance or produce complete failure. The ruggedization of electron tubes, therefore, involves their redesign.

Mechanically, the electrode assembly represents a complex system with many degrees of freedom. During the design and ruggedization, two major design concepts must be considered: the internal electrode design and the effect of external equipment on the tube.

Internal electrode design

In the design of internal electrodes of a tube, the following properties are important:

- 1) The electrically conductive materials used for electrodes should be antimagnetic because, when magnetic materials become magnetized, they distort the electron beam path. This requirement has only a few exceptions; e.g., the stem leads need not be antimagnetic.
- 2) All materials used inside the tube must withstand the 350 to 400°C tube-processing temperatures; annealing temperature of the materials must be well above the maximum tube-processing temperature to preserve the initially preselected stiffness.
- 3) The metals used must be weldable because the electrodes are usually spot-

welded, and good welds are crucial for a reliable, strong assembly.

4) The bulbspacers for electrode support must be designed to allow the electrodes to be inserted in the glass envelope without scraping the glass walls. Once inserted, these bulb spacers must rigidly support the electrodes. If the glass walls are scraped with bulbspacers, particles develop in the tubes which eventually get on the target or faceplate and interfere with tube operation.

5) The materials used should have very low vapor pressure. The internal electrodes operate in a relatively high vacuum, 10^{-6} to 10^{-7} Torr. Any degassing occurring after the tubes have been sealed may permanently damage the cathode and other electrodes.

6) The electrodes must be electrically insulated from each other.

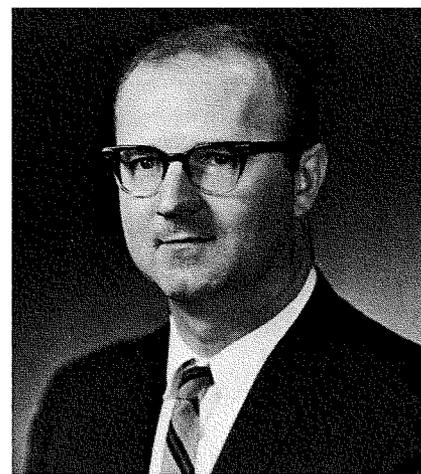
7) The electrode assembly should be sufficiently rigid to withstand the required vibration and shock environments.

Effect of external equipment

Resonances of the camera and associated external equipment have considerable effect on tube performance. Any kind of resonance in the system that couples through the tube mounting severely excites the internal tube-electrode resonances. In many applications at low frequencies, especially below 500 Hz, the camera systems have caused poor tube performance. Rattling due to loose screws, loosely supported magnetic shields, and lens shutters, adversely affects tube performance.

Ruggedization techniques

The internal electrode resonances are the major sources of tube performance deterioration. The thin, long, metal cylinders used in electron tubes have resonances below 2000 Hz. These resonances have low amplitudes of motion, but they are, nevertheless, responsible for mesh microphonics. The bulb-spacer and the gun-mount resonances are additional sources of tube prob-



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received the BS in Mathematics and Physics from Muhlenberg College in Allentown, Pa. in 1959. Following graduation, he joined the environmental engineering department at the Electron Tube Division. He worked on electron tubes for space applications where he contributed to the design and development of vidicons and image orthicon tubes. He developed tube ruggedization techniques that were used on a wide range of conversion tubes including the all-ceramic vidicon and the 2- and 3-inch image orthicons. On a special project for Jet Propulsion Laboratories, Mr. Ziedonis analyzed the impact phenomena on the Ranger satellite cameras during their impact on the moon. This was accomplished by reviewing and analyzing the last 800 microseconds of the telemetry data, and performing experiments that simulated the last received video signals. Recently, Mr. Ziedonis transferred to RCA, Medical Electronics, Advanced Development Group, where he is responsible for the development and design of ultrasonic transducers for medical applications. He is a member of Sigma Pi Sigma, American Association of Physics Teachers, and American Institute of Ultrasonics in Medicine.

*The RCA Medical Electronics activity has recently been sold to Hoffmann-LaRoche.

lems. These resonances are responsible for most severe mesh microphonics, loss of resolution, smeared pictures in slow-speed scanning systems, and the shorter life of the tubes.

Mesh microphonics occur when the thin mesh vibrates at its fundamental resonant frequency with respect to a fixed target or photoconductor. The video signal is modulated at the mesh resonant frequency. Although the mesh resonance in vidicon tubes is well above 2000 Hz, other electrode resonances excite the mesh. In 3-in. and 4½-in. image-orthicon tubes, the mesh resonances are below 2000 Hz; these tubes should not be vibrated at the mesh resonant frequencies of 1700 Hz and 900 Hz.

The most severe environment for electron tubes is mechanical vibration. In most cases, the highest required vibration frequency is 2000 Hz. For satisfactory operation of tubes, bulb-spacer resonances should be well above the

highest vibration frequency; proper bulbspacer stiffness and location must also be determined.

Fig. 1 shows a typical, non-ruggedized, one-inch, hybrid vidicon tube. The analysis of electrode structure of this tube for dynamic environments is performed with a mechanical system representing the tube structure as shown in Fig. 2. Although the model in Fig. 2 is simplified, on the basis of theoretical analysis and experiments performed on actual tubes the following assumptions can be made:

- 1) Some of the interelectrode supports (such as the G_1 - G_2 and G_4 - G_5) are rigid within the 20-to-2000-Hz frequency range.
- 2) Normally, the tubes are rigidly mounted in the camera. If the tubes are potted in semi-flexible potting compound, they usually resonate below 2000 Hz; therefore, this resonance must be included in calculations.

When non-ruggedized vidicon tubes were subjected to mechanical vibration and shock, several major resonances were responsible for complete deterioration of the video signals:

- 1) *Electron-gun-mount resonances:* These resonances were present because of the soft bulbspacers that were initially used to support the electrode assembly. At these resonances, the electron beam was moved out of its electro-optical paths and loss of resolution occurred. These resonances were overcome when the heavy glass beads were replaced by brazed ceramic discs and the gun-mount was made considerably lighter.
- 2) *Electrode-support bulbspacer resonances:* Usually, the bulbspacers were overloaded with heavy electrodes which decreased the resonant frequency of the system. When the support bulbspacer resonance was excited, it, in turn, excited the mesh resonance. This resonance produced a distorted beam path and video-signal modulation. As a result, stiffer bulbspacers were designed and, the weight of the electrode assembly was reduced. These changes as shown in Fig. 3 reduced a number of resonances and, in some cases, eliminated them completely.

3) *Target-mesh resonances:* These resonances modulate the video-signal output. As a result, a new mesh processing technique was developed to reduce the mesh microphonics in the tubes. This process introduced considerably higher internal damping in the mesh, and almost doubled its resonant frequency to 4800 Hz. This design change enabled the mesh to withstand the most severe environmental requirements such as 3000-g-peak, 0.5-ms sine-pulse shock. Vibration frequencies at which the non-ruggedized tube performance was

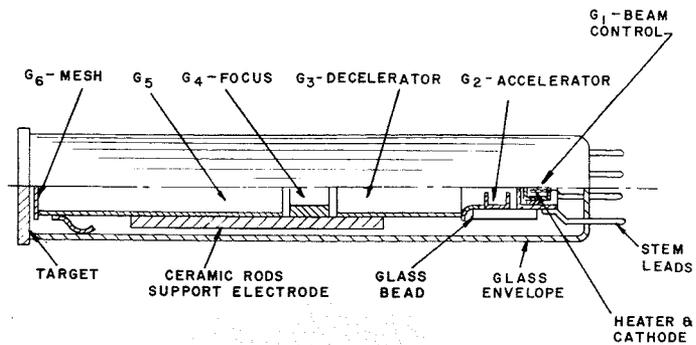


Fig. 1—Non-ruggedized one-inch hybrid vidicon.

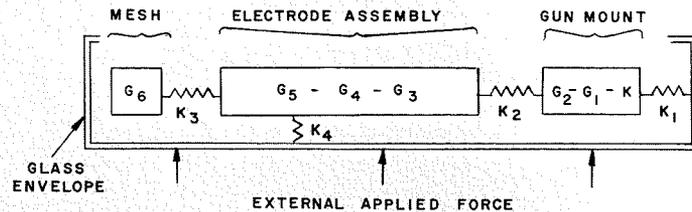


Fig. 2—Simplified equivalent diagram of one-inch hybrid vidicon.

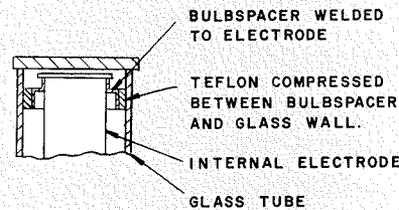


Fig. 3—Cylindrical bulbspacer for one-inch vidicon.

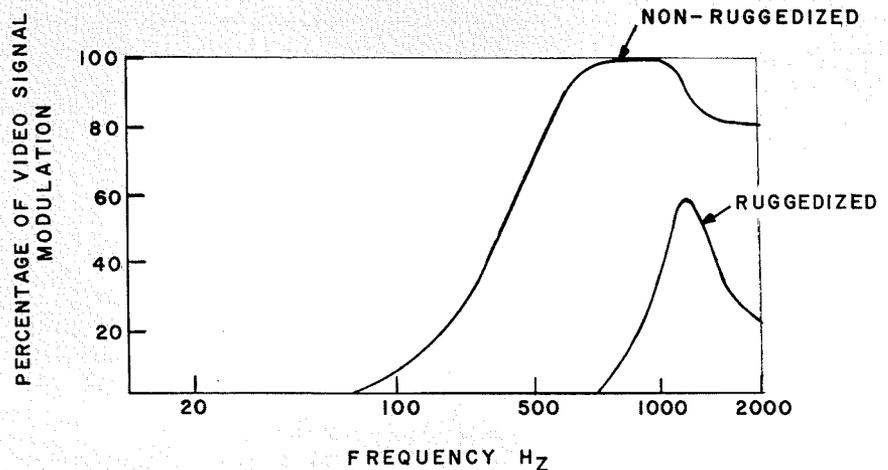


Fig. 4—Video-signal modulation during sinewave vibration test of non-ruggedized and ruggedized hybrid vidicons, 5g peak.

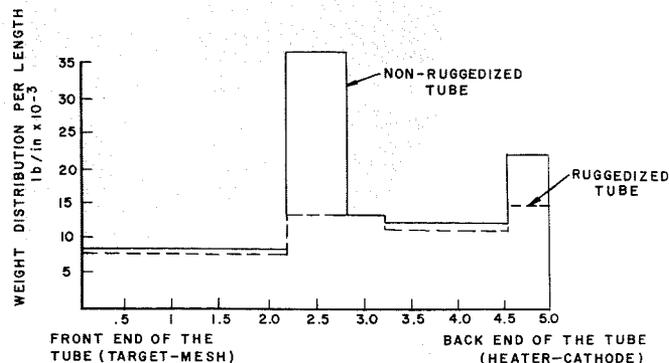


Fig. 5—Weight distribution curve for non-ruggedized and ruggedized one-inch vidicons.

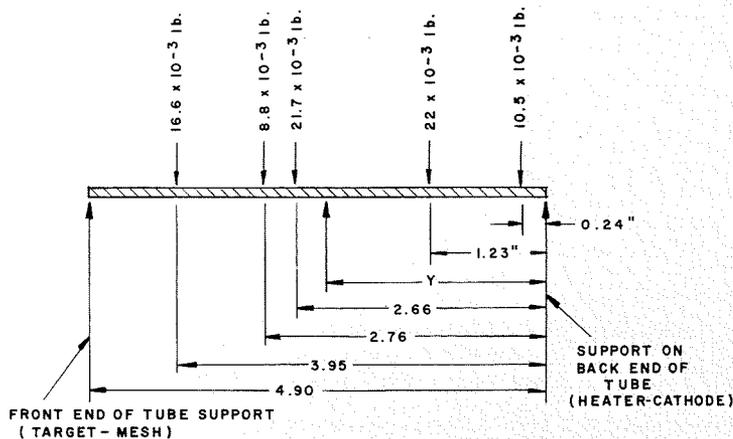


Fig. 6—Equivalent diagram of the electrode assembly.

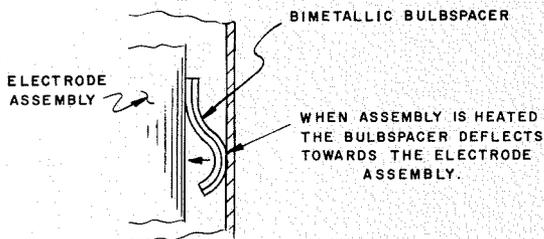


Fig. 7—Sectional drawing of vidicon tube with bimetallic bulbspacer.

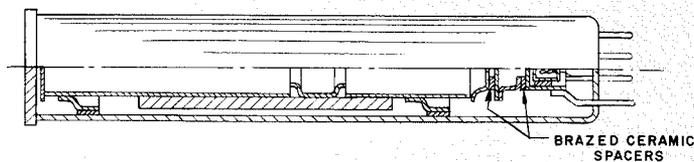


Fig. 8—RCA ruggedized hybrid one-inch vidicon, 8567.

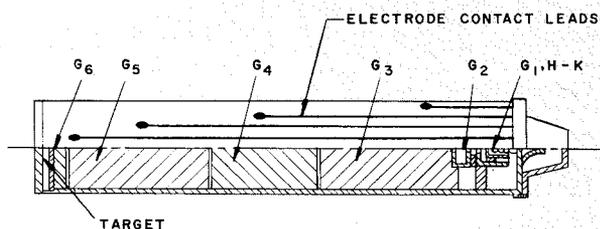


Fig. 9—All-ceramic one-inch vidicon.

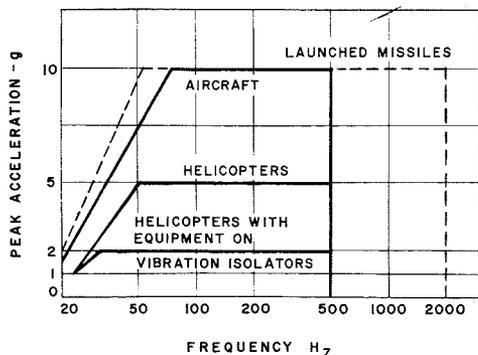


Fig. 10—Sinusoidal vibration test levels per MIL-STD-810.

considerably distorted are shown in Fig. 4.

The electrode weight distribution curve is shown in Fig. 5. This curve is used to determine the required stiffness of the bulbspacers and to assure that the electrode supports resonate well above the required vibration frequency range. This diagram was obtained by carefully weighing each electrode, by measuring its length, and then comparing the weight-to-length ratio to the tube length. For the non-ruggedized tube, the data indicate a non-uniform electrode mass distribution.

With the assumption that the damping within the metal bulbspacers is negligible, the required bulbspacer stiffness K_T may be obtained as follows:

$$K_T = \omega^2 M \quad (1)$$

If the desired electrode assembly resonance is 3000 Hz, the required bulbspacer stiffness is 73.1×10^{-3} lb./in. This magnitude suggests a very stiff bulbspacer assembly. The total stiffness, of each of the selected bulbspacers is

$$K_T = K_1 + K_2 + K_3 + \dots \quad (2)$$

According to Fig. 5, another set of bulbspacers is needed. The location of the new set of bulbspacers is calculated with the use of Fig. 6 as a reference and the following static equilibrium equations:

$$\sum F = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\sum M_0 = 0 \quad (4)$$

From these equations, the location of the third set of bulbspacers was calculated to be 1.92 inches from the back end of the assembly.

Symbols

F	static force	lb
K_T	total electrode support spring stiffness	lb/in
M	mass (W/g)	lb-sec ² /in
M_0	moment for static conditions	lb/in
ω	angular frequency ($2\pi f$)	rad/sec
f	vibration frequency	Hz

Several new design concepts were developed to overcome the existing manufacturing and assembling difficulties concerning bulbspacers. For example, the stiffness of a bulbspacer is generally controlled by its material configuration, thickness, and length. With stiff bulbspacers, the electrode-assembly insertion problem in the glass

cylinder could be simplified with the use of bimetallic materials for the bulb-spacers. The bimetallic material is used in such a way that when the gun-mount is preheated prior to its insertion in the glass envelope, the bulbspacers deflect towards the electrodes and insertion becomes easy, as shown in Fig. 7. As a result, the glass walls are not scraped and no particles are generated. During the stem-sealing process, the glass softens near the gun-mount and the plain, stiff bulbspacers push the glass out and deform the glass walls; however, stiff bimetallic bulbspacers do not cause deformation.

Another type of bulbspacer that was developed and is widely used in vidicon tubes for military and space projects is the cylindrical bulbspacer that compresses thin sheets of tetrafluoroethylene (Teflon—a trade name of Du Pont de Nemours, Inc.) between the glass and the bulbspacer, as shown in Fig. 3. Teflon prevents the metal from scraping the glass during the electrode assembly insertion in the glass cylinder. The complete electrode and bulbspacer assembly withstands the tube-processing temperatures.

A combination of all the above design features considerably improved the performance of the hybrid vidicon tube (Fig. 4).

This type of design improvement was incorporated in other vidicon tube types, such as the all-magnetic, all-electrostatic, reverse-hybrid. As an example, Fig. 8 shows a ruggedized one-inch hybrid vidicon.

Image-orthicon tubes are facing similar environmental requirements, but the solutions to the design improvements are more difficult. All components are proportionally larger and heavier, and the tube processing is more severe. The choice of available materials that could be used in these tubes is reduced because of the higher vacuum and the sodium, potassium, cesium, and antimony elements used for making photocathodes. These tubes are also more sensitive to particles which, from previous observations, have torn both glass and magnesium oxide targets.

With the glass-envelope type of tubes, it is impossible to have all the internal tube components rigidly mounted. Therefore, a new design technique was developed in which electrodes are

evaporated on the inside walls of the ceramic tube envelope. The ceramic cylinder itself resonates at 5000 Hz. This design technique eliminates the need for metal cylinders and bulb-spacers. Fig. 9 shows the all-ceramic one-inch hybrid vidicon built for the Jet Propulsion Labs, Pasadena, Cal.¹

Requirements and capabilities

With the growth of military and space exploration programs, the environmental requirements for the components have been increasing. Figs. 10 and 11 show vibration specifications for components such as vidicons and image orthicons, as required by the military contracts. These environmental requirements may not seem too severe, but, unfortunately, several major resonances exist in the systems using these electron tubes. These resonances subject the tubes to vibrations levels which exceed the design specifications and, thus, cause failures. With complete evaluation of the system, these failures can be prevented. Figs. 12 and 13 summarize the capabilities of one-inch vidicon tubes that have been ruggedized in the last four years. The image-orthicon tubes, being more complicated, have not reached as high environmental capabilities as some of the vidicon tubes. Figs. 14 and 15 show the presently available image-orthicon tubes that have reasonable environmental capabilities.

Conclusions

During the ruggedization of camera tubes, not all the electrode resonances have been eliminated. However, the major and most damaging electrode structures have been eliminated, as shown in Fig. 8. With the ruggedization of camera tubes, the number of particles in the tubes was considerably reduced, the weak electrode structure was removed, the operational tube performance during severe environments was considerably improved, and higher reliability was achieved.

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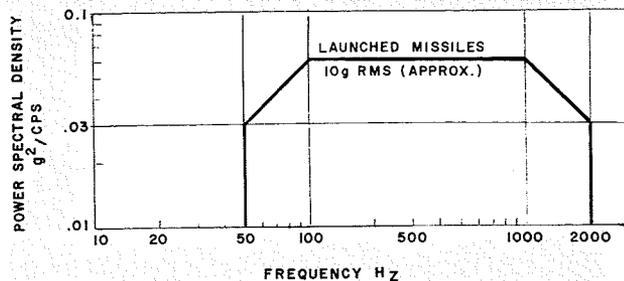


Fig. 11—Random vibration test levels per MIL-STD-810.

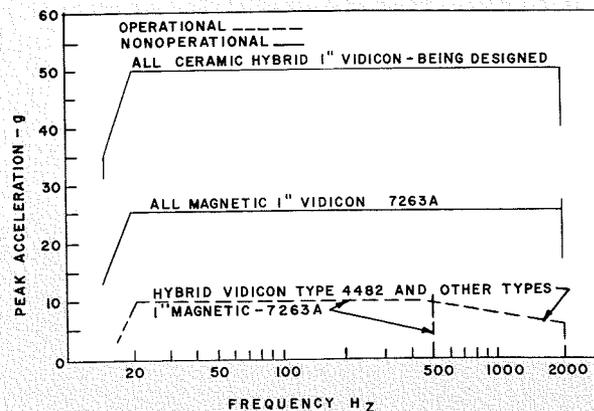


Fig. 12—RCA vidicon tube capabilities—sinewave vibration.

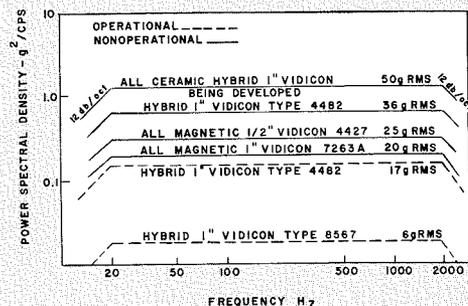


Fig. 13—RCA vidicon capabilities during random vibration tests.

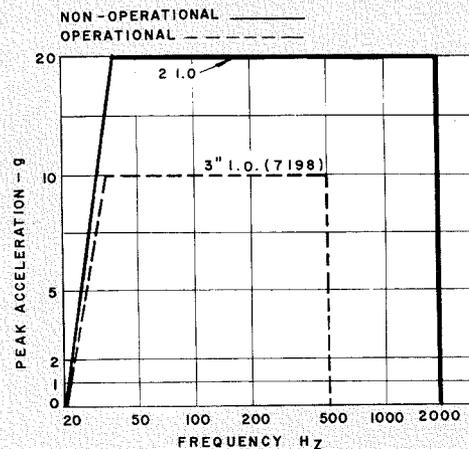


Fig. 14—RCA image orthicon capabilities during sinewave vibration.

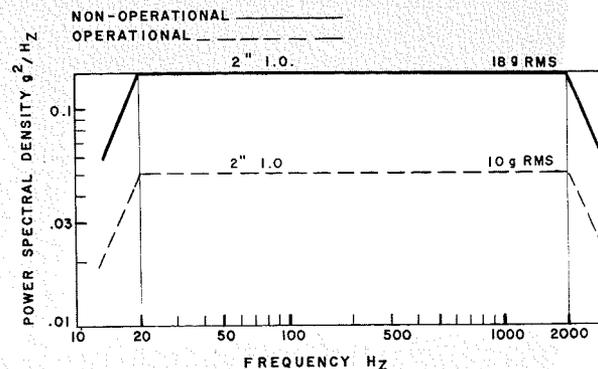


Fig. 15—RCA image orthicon capabilities during random vibration test.

The coaxitron

J. A. Eshleman | B. B. Adams

The Coaxitron integrates the complete RF input and output circuits and the electron-interaction circuits within a common vacuum envelope. This design eliminates the need of ceramic-window exposure to extremely high RF voltages and ceramic-to-metal seal to extremely large RF currents. It eliminates external spring-contact fingers, blockers, and tuning. By integration of RF circuit elements into the tube envelope, the high-RF-voltage portions of the resonant circuits are insulated by a vacuum dielectric which has a high dielectric strength and excellent self-healing characteristics. Stored energy in the resonant circuits and in the lead inductances is reduced, and the dielectric dissipation and the propensity to arc over are minimized. Because of these advantages, the Coaxitron RF circuit components can be designed for maximum amplifier performance. Instantaneous bandwidths in excess of 10% at the megawatt RF power output levels are readily feasible. These integral packaged amplifier tubes resulted from an extensive developmental effort in the Super Power Devices Group at Lancaster. This paper describes the design features of the RCA Dev. No. A15193B Coaxitron.

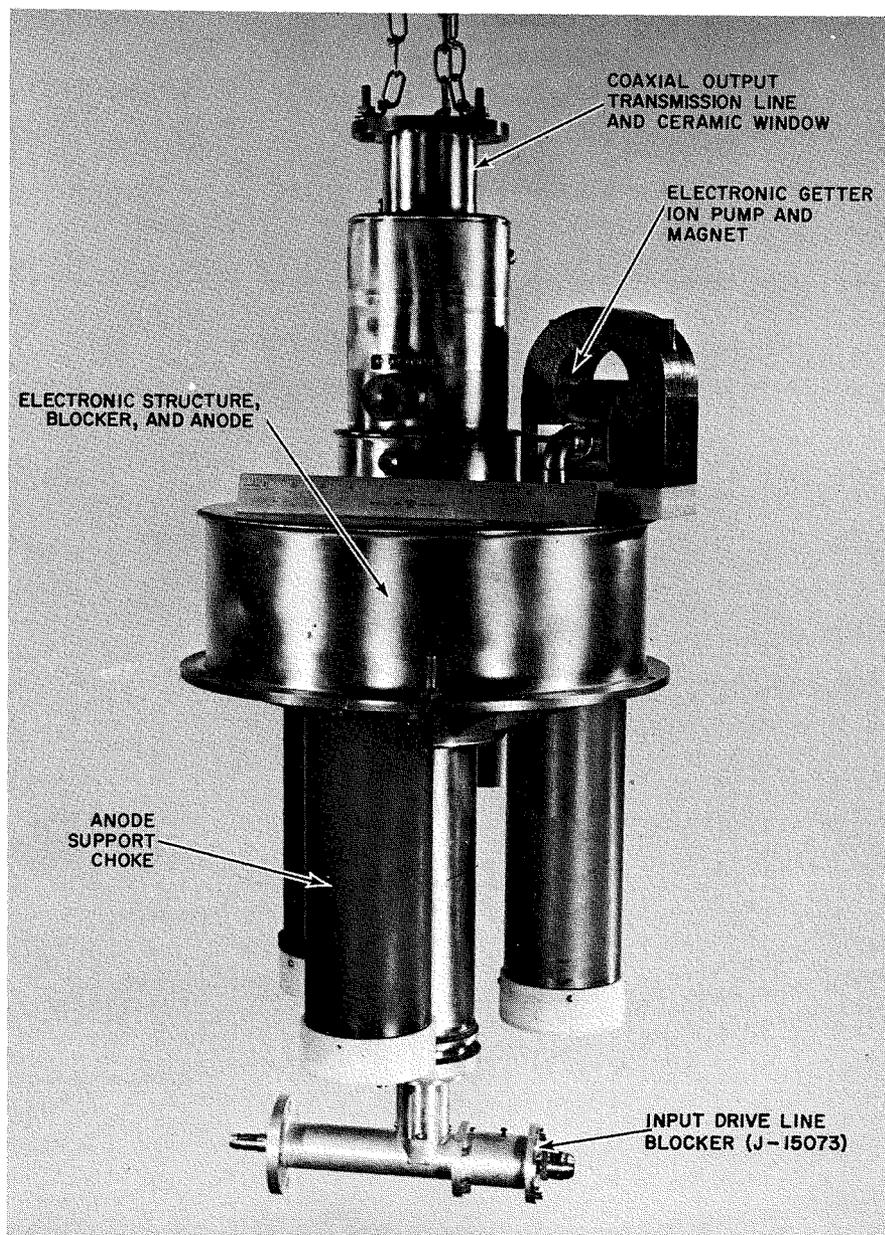


Fig. 1—RCA Dev. No. A15193B Coaxitron.

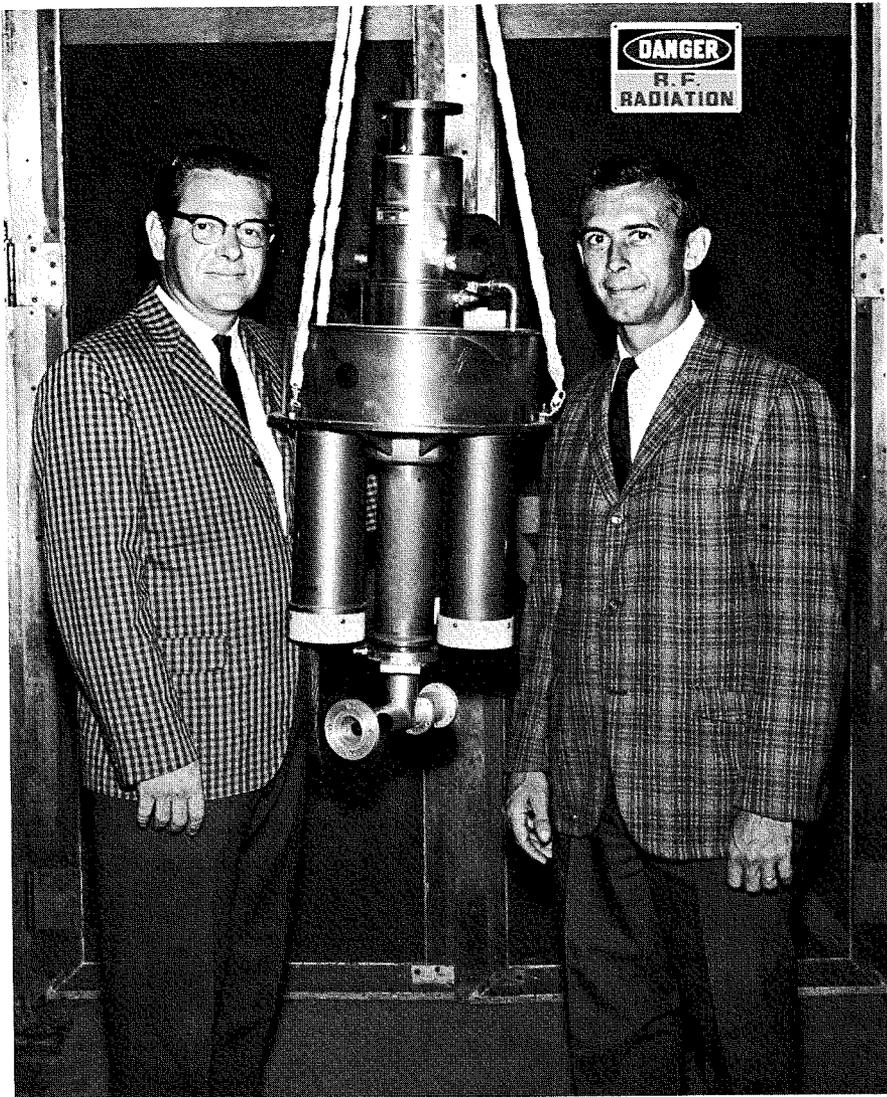
THE COAXITRON CONCEPT, as developed in the RCA Dev. No. A15193 (Fig. 1), meets the requirements of chirp signals and state-of-the-art, multi-channel, megawatt-level, radar systems. The design requirements are listed in Table I and a simplified longitudinal cross-section is shown in Fig. 2. For ease of discussion, it can be considered as consisting of three basic areas: the triode electron-interaction structure, the output circuit, and the input circuit.

Triode electron-interaction

Fig. 3 shows the electron-interaction structure of the Coaxitron. It is comprised of a cylindrical array of 48, essentially independent, grounded-grid unit triodes. Each unit triode has a directly-heated, matrix-oxide filament, a double-wound grid, and a high-dissipation anode. A total active cathode area of 150 square centimeters was provided so that the required emission could be obtained with only modest grid-filament RF voltages.

The active filament emitting surface is spaced approximately 0.015 in. from the inner layer of grid wires. For maintenance of this spacing under hot and cold filament conditions, each filament is suspended at one end with a unique pantograph system. These systems take up the expansion of the filament when it is heated to its operating temperature and thus maintain the grid-filament spacing.

The filament cross section is reduced near the support ends. This section is



Authors B. B. Adams (left) and J. A. Eshleman stand alongside a Coaxitron being readied for shipment.

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received the AB in Physics from Franklin & Marshall College in 1961 and is presently pursuing the MS in Physics at the same school. Mr. Eshleman joined the Super Power Tube Design and Development group at RCA, Lancaster in 1957. From 1958 to 1961 he was responsible for the testing of developmental super power tubes and for test equipment maintenance on BMEWS, BTL, and TRADEX. From July 1961 to 1963, as a Product Development Engineer, he established a computer program for the output circuit and RF bypass capacitor design for RCA Dev. No. A-2696A. He also was responsible for the cold probe adjustments on the output circuits and for the evaluation tests. From 1963 to 1966, he was responsible for computer design calculations on the output circuits of RCA developmental coaxitrons. He also made cold probe measurements and computer calculations on coaxitron input circuits. From 1966 to 1967, he was the Project Engineer for the RCA Dev. No. A-15191B coaxitron and was responsible for the design calculations and configuration. Mr. Eshleman is presently working on a computer program to calculate electron trajectories in beam type tubes. He is also designing directional couplers

and step transitions for the ORSAY Klystron Application and is doing cavity design work for the RCA Dev. No. A 1401 Klystron. Mr. Eshleman is a member of the Sigma Pi Sigma.

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received the BSME from Pennsylvania State University and is currently pursuing a course of graduate studies leading to the MS in Engineering. Mr. Adams joined the RCA Electron Tube Division at Lancaster in 1957 as a design and development engineer. He has been instrumental in the mechanical design of RF circuitry, cold probe test gear and special devices utilized in the development of a variety of super power tubes and circuits. He has also provided consultation and engineering support for various Government research and development projects. As Project Engineer, Mr. Adams was responsible for the mechanical design of the RCA Dev. No. A-2696 and A-15193 coaxitrons. He has also been responsible for the design of a variety of high power cavities. He is a licensed professional engineer in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, a member of Tau Beta Pi, Pi Tau Sigma and the ASME.

Fig. 4—Broadband output circuit.

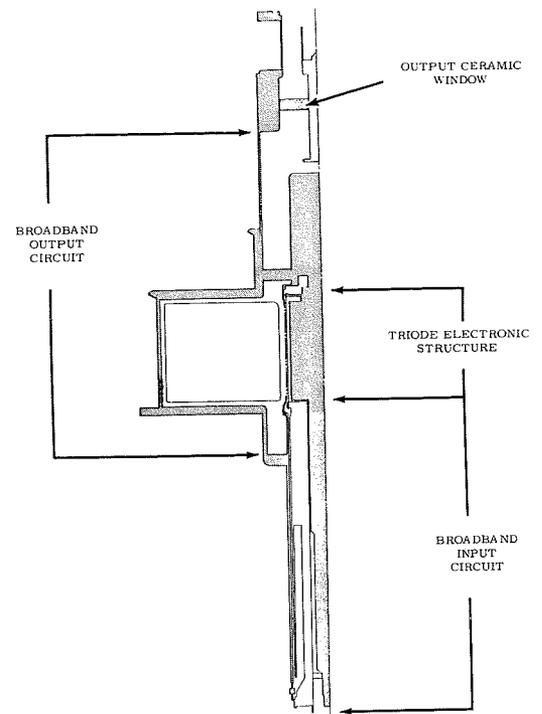


Fig. 2—Simplified longitudinal cross-section of the Coaxitron.

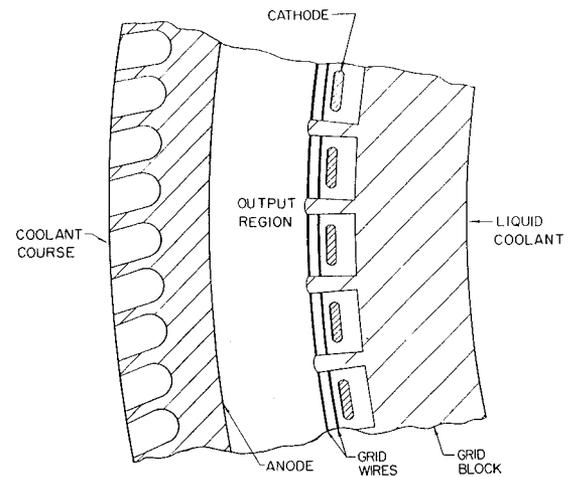
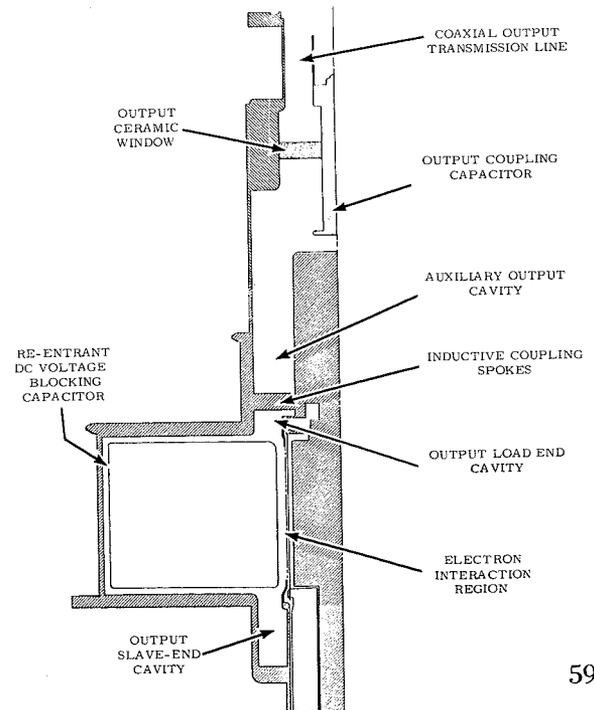


Fig. 3—Triode electronic structure.



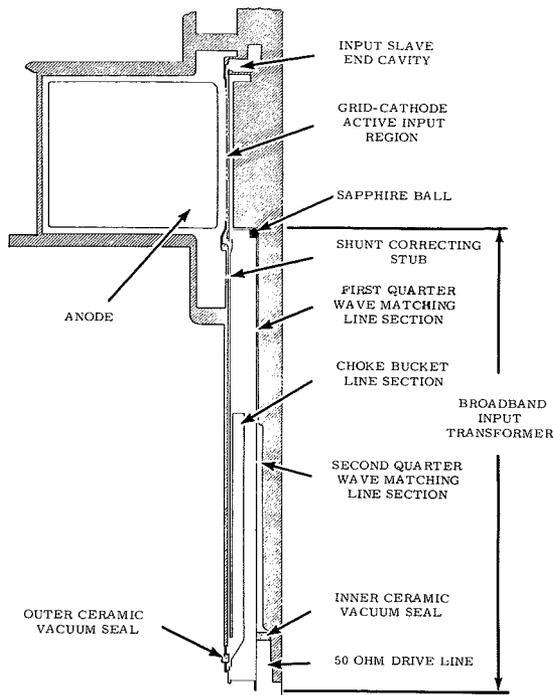


Fig. 5—Broadband input circuit.

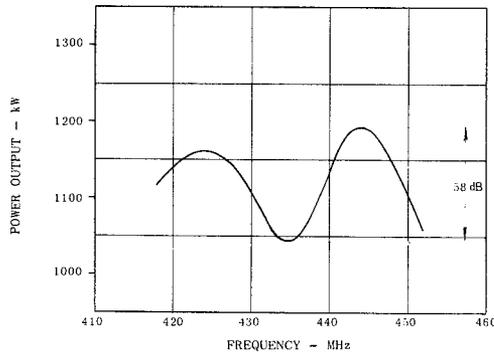


Fig. 6—Power output versus frequency.

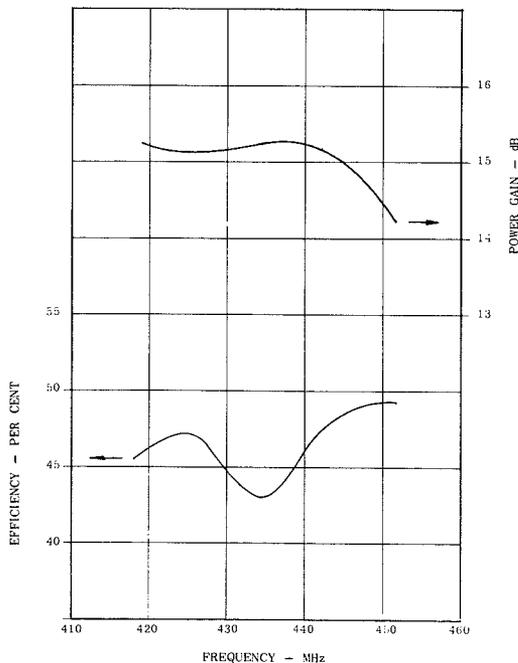


Fig. 7—Efficiency and power gain versus frequency.

called the "filament lead correction"; its purpose is to minimize heat loss to the filament supports and to provide a constant temperature in the active emitting region. The filament temperature in the Coaxitron is maintained within $\pm 7.5^\circ\text{C}$ over the active 4-in. length.

A double-wound grid of 0.0033-in.-diameter tungsten wire is used in each triode unit for electrostatic isolation of the filament and anode and for class-B tube operation with zero grid bias. This design eliminates the need for neutralization and the need for DC isolation between the grid and cathode.

The tungsten grid wires for each triode unit are supported on OFHC copper lands which extend radially outward from a central cylinder called the "grid cylinder." The grid wires are fastened to these lands by a special notching and peening technique which permits the outer grid wire to be hidden from direct cathode emission by the inner grid wire. Because the grid spans are short and the copper lands form an excellent heat sink for heat generated by grid interception, the design exhibits excellent mechanical stability.

The output of the unit triodes is partially formed by a doughnut-shaped anode. The anode is supported only on one end by three metallic support columns spaced 120 degrees apart. Two of the support columns conduct anode liquid coolant. The flow of coolant through these courses feeds the fluted heat exchanger on the back of the bombarded anode surface. The DC voltage for the anode can be applied by any one of the three support columns.

Because the support columns are metallic, they form coaxial lines which may leak RF energy through the tube envelope. Such leakage is undesirable because it represents wasted energy, presents a potentially dangerous RF environment to operating personnel and increases the potential of RF interference to nearby equipment. Therefore, the RF leakage from each support column is attenuated to acceptable and safe levels by special RF chokes external to the tube envelope (Fig. 1).

Output circuit

The output circuit for the RCA Dev. No. A15193B was designed to deliver

an RF power output in excess of 1 megawatt (MW) with a ripple of less than 1 dB over a bandwidth of 34 MHz centered on approximately 435 MHz. Because of the many variants associated with the design, the first prototype design was developed with the use of computer techniques. In this manner, the effect of slight changes in any of the variables was studied very economically. As a result of this approach, a design closely approximating the final tube was derived in a relatively short time.

Fig. 4 shows the basic output circuit used in the Coaxitron. This design has two resonant circuits which are over-coupled through the "inductive coupling spokes." The first resonant circuit comprises the "output slave-end cavity," the "electron-interaction region," the "output load-end cavity," and the "re-entrant DC voltage-blocking capacitor." The second cavity comprises the "auxiliary output cavity" and the area below the large diameter step just below the "output ceramic window." Output coupling to the over-coupled circuits is made through the "output coupling capacitor" into a 50-ohm, 3 $\frac{1}{8}$ -in.-diameter coaxial transmission line. The output ceramic window, like the input seal, is located outside the resonant circuitry; therefore, it is subjected only to the relatively low RF voltage on the output transmission line. This arrangement minimizes arcing and dielectric losses in the window area.

The "re-entrant DC voltage blocking capacitor" is used only as a means of DC isolation of the anode from the tube envelope. With this isolation, a DC anode voltage of 20 kV can be applied without arc-over. Ideally, the RF impedance between the tube envelope and anode is negligible at the output slave-end and load-end cavity. Therefore, the circuit is readily recognized when an RF short is envisioned between the anode and tube envelope at these points.

Input circuit

The input circuit of the RCA Dev. No. A15193B transforms the impedance of the 50-ohm, 1 $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. coaxial input transmission line down to the impedance of 0.5 ohm at the driven end of the electron-interaction structure. Despite impedance transformation require-

ments of approximately 100:1 and various complicating factors such as the DC isolation of one end of the filament structure, an input circuit design was derived for the initial RCA Dev. No. A15193B tubes which gave an input vswr of less than 2.5:1 over the 34-MHz band. Computer techniques were again utilized to develop the input circuit design for the first prototype.

Fig. 5 is a simplified drawing of the Coaxitron input circuit. Two quarter-wave coaxial sections are utilized for transformation of the 50-ohm input impedance to the approximate 0.5-ohm impedance at the electron-interaction region. Because of the extremely close spacings required in the first quarter-wave matching line section, small sapphire balls, used as dielectric spacers, maintain the coaxial spacing and alignment.

Since the A15193B was designed for zero-bias class-B operation, it was feasible to connect one end of the filament DC-wise to the grid structure via the "input slave-end cavity." The "input slave-end cavity" was used in this arrangement to provide grid-cathode RF isolation and to insure that an RF voltage antinode would occur approximately in the center of the active input electron interaction region.

Because one end of the filament was connected DC-wise to the grid structure, it was necessary to both DC and RF isolate the opposite end. This function is accomplished with the quarter-wave "choke bucket line section" and the "inner ceramic vacuum seal." The "choke bucket line section" not only inhibits RF leakage at the "outer ceramic vacuum seal" but through a 1:1 transformation via half-wave coaxial section, termed the "shunt correcting stub," it provides a high grid-cathode impedance at the base of the "grid-cathode active input region." The "inner ceramic vacuum seal" serves a dual role as a coaxial input window and as a DC insulator for the "hot" filament terminal.

Mechanical design

Although an oil dielectric had been used in anode chokes of prior Coaxitron tubes, oil could not be used on the A15193B because of its temperature expansion characteristics and its tendency to develop leaks at the choke

seal. After a series of experimental tests, vacuum-potted Dow Corning Sylgard was selected as a substitute because it featured a high dielectric strength, eliminated trapped air, was semi-flexible, and provided excellent metal bonding characteristics. The chokes so fabricated exhibited excellent reliability.

The massive doughnut-shaped anode with its associated support structure was required to withstand 18, 15-g, 11-ms shock pulses without arc-over, loss of vacuum integrity, or permanent distortion. A support arrangement of three stainless steel pipes, connected as parallel cantilever beams, was selected for the anode after analyses indicated that the structure would withstand the specified environment. The results of these analyses indicated that a maximum anode displacement of 0.016-in. would occur during the shock pulse and that this displacement would not cause arc-over nor a permanent offset in the anode structure. For assurance of vacuum integrity, the support pipes were connected to their respective high-voltage DC ceramic insulators through short OFHC copper strain-isolation rings which provided a resilient, but strong connection.

The weight of an 18-pound ion pump magnet connected externally to the tube presented severe mounting and support problems. Any large relative displacement of the magnet with respect to the associated ion pump during the shock pulse could destroy the ion pump, the pump tubing, and the Coaxitron vacuum integrity. Various magnet support designs were investigated and many proved bulky and impractical. A simple solution was ultimately obtained by use of a magnet bolted directly to the Coaxitron housing through a Delrin plastic pad. This system reduced the relative motion of the pump and magnet to negligible values and thus protected the tube from being damaged by the magnet.

Test results

The performance of RCA Dev. No. A15193B met or exceeded all the design requirements listed in Table I. Typical operating conditions are listed in Table II. Fig. 6 shows the variation of power output across the frequency band with constant plate voltage; the uniformity of response is approxi-

mately 0.58 dB. Fig. 6 also displays the typical band-pass characteristics of the A15193B.

Fig. 7 shows the efficiency and power gain as a function of frequency. The fall-off of power gain near the upper edge of the operating band is caused by a greater increase in the vswr of the input circuit at the upper band edge than at the lower band edge.

Table I—Design requirements for RCA Dev. No. A15193B.

<i>Electrical</i>	
Frequency	418 to 452 MHz
Pulse width	13 μ s
Bandwidth	34 MHz
Uniformity of response	1 dB (max)
Power output	1,000 kW (min)
Efficiency	40% (min)
Power gain	13 dB
Input vswr	2.5:1 (max)
Plate voltage	20 kV
<i>Mechanical</i>	
Weight	175 lb. (max)
Length	39 in. (max)
Diameter	17 in. (max)
<i>Environmental</i>	
Temperature	-54 to +15°C
Altitude	15,000 ft.
Shock	15 g at 11 ms (half sine wave)
<i>Vibration</i>	
Frequency	5 to 500 Hz
Amplitude	0.100 in. from 5 to 65 Hz
Acceleration	2 g from 65 to 500 Hz

Table II—Typical operating conditions of RCA Dev. No. 15193B.

Pulse plate voltage	16 kV
Pulse plate current	157 A
Pulse drive power	45 kW
Pulse Power Output	1,070 kW
Efficiency	42.5%
Power gain	13.8 dB
Filament current	800 A (steady state)
Filament voltage	1.38 V (steady state)

Summary

The RCA Dev. No. A15193B Coaxitron was successfully designed, fabricated, and evaluated for wide-band, high-power operation. This Coaxitron is designed for grounded-grid zero-bias class-B operation and provides a typical power output of 1 MW, a power gain of 13.8 dB, and a conversion efficiency of 42.5%, with a 1-dB instantaneous bandwidth of 34 MHz centered on approximately 435 MHz.

The elimination of moving circuit components and the placement of ceramic windows in low-voltage fields combine with the use of welded and brazed joints to reduce the tube-circuit weight, improve tube capability for withstanding relatively severe environmental conditions, substantially reduce maintenance problems, and increase tube reliability.

Noble-gas-ion lasers

R. J. Buzzard | J. A. Powell | J. T. Mark | H. E. Medsger

RCA has been manufacturing noble-gas-ion lasers as a commercial product since early in 1967 when a 100-mW argon-ion laser was first designed by K. G. Hernqvist.¹ Since then, the line of commercially available ion lasers has expanded to seven types ranging in rated output power from 10mW to 10W and utilizing such inert gases as argon, krypton, and neon. The product line includes both pulsed and continuous-wave types and covers the visible, ultra-violet and infrared portions of the spectrum. This paper describes the major design features and performance of noble-gas-ion lasers.

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received the BS in Ceramic Engineering from N.Y.S. College of Ceramics, Alfred University. He joined RCA Lancaster in 1955 as a Product Development Engineer in the Small Power Tube Design section where he worked on the development of small ceramic vacuum tubes. In 1957, he was assigned to a special project team developing bakeable ceramics, sapphire, and glass-to-metal seals for use in a large, ultra-high vacuum chamber designed specifically for the military. From 1961 to 1965, Mr. Powell was assigned to the Vacuum Engineering Group and engaged in the design and development of ceramic-to-metal and glass-to-metal feedthroughs including a complete product line of bakeable sapphire and fused-silica windows for ultra-high vacuum applications. Since 1967, Mr. Powell has been responsible for laser-tube design at Lancaster. Before joining RCA, Mr. Powell was with the General Electric Company and with the Star Porcelain Company for two years each and the Frenchtown Porcelain Company for five years as a Research and Development Engineer working in the field of ceramics engineering. Mr. Powell has been granted one patent in the field of ceramics and has authored several papers on the subject. He is a member of the American Ceramic Society and the American Society of Metals.

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joined RCA in 1958 as an associate design and development engineer with twenty-two years of diversified product design and manufacturing engineering experience. He had been associated with the Glenn L. Martin Co., as manufacturing engineer; IBM as assistant project engineer on computer mechanisms; General Electric TV Division as a manufacturing engineering leader; and P. G. Spaulding and Associates as executive engineer. Since joining RCA he has been engaged in the design development and fabrication of Super Power Tube evaluation equipment, manufacturing

equipment, and product design. He was responsible for the design of several large space chambers. He was also responsible for the mechanical design of a 5-MW peak, 300-kW average power cavity for the RCA 2054 family of Super Power Tube and complex air and high-purity water systems. As engineering leader of the Super Power Tube Vacuum Group, he was responsible for the mechanical design and development and the initial production of the LD2100, 100-mW argon gas laser and the LD2101 1-W argon gas laser. Prior to his present position, he was Manager of Production Engineering, Super Power Tube ITD. Mr. Medsger has completed mechanical engineering courses at Syracuse University and Penn State University and industrial design at Maryland Institute and Johns Hopkins University. He is a member of ASTM and is past chairman of the Lancaster Chapter #89 ASTM.

J. T. Mark, Mgr.

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received the BS in Radio Engineering from Valparaiso Technical Institute in 1950 and joined RCA Lancaster the same year. Since 1950, he has done graduate work in physics and has had extensive experience in the design, fabrication, and testing of ultra-high vacuum equipment and systems, megawatt electro-mechanical devices, megawatt vacuum tubes and gas lasers. Mr. Mark was assigned initially to the design and development of black and white and color kinescope tubes. Upon transfer to the Super-Power Tube Engineering Department, he became responsible for the design and fabrication of one of the first multimewatt test equipments at the Lancaster plant. He also designed and developed new electron guns for super-power microwave tubes. Assigned as Project Engineer on the Matterhorn Project in 1958, Mr. Mark was responsible for the overall direction and control of the design and development of the ultra-high (10^{-10} Torr) vacuum system for the C-Stellarator research facility. Later, he directed the design of several large vacuum systems. Promoted to Engineering Leader in 1961, Mr. Mark was responsible for the conception, design, and development of sophisticated components and systems

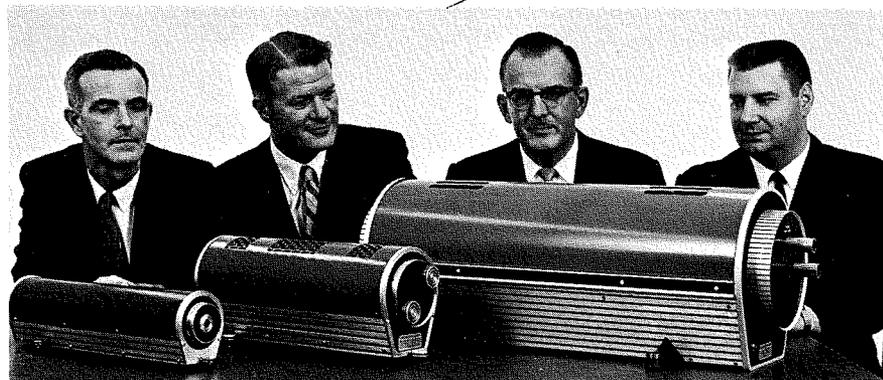
for use in ultra-high vacuum applications and laser applications. He has been granted eight patents and has two additional patents pending in electron tube design, lasers, and vacuum technology. He has presented and published numerous papers. He is a member of the AVS committee on standards, IEEE, IVOST, ASLE, IES, and the ASTM Committee E-21 for standards in the aerospace industry.

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received the AB in physics from Franklin and Marshall College in 1962. He joined RCA in 1953 in the Large Power and Gas Tube Laboratory. Upon completing his undergraduate work, Mr. Buzzard was reassigned as an engineer in the Thermionic Converter Engineering Group where he participated in the successful development of RCA's initial nuclear-fueled converter. In a continuation of this effort, he developed the basic computer programs required to solve the thermal and electrical design problems for high power converters and their associated components. Since 1963, he has extended this computer approach to a comprehensive equation which analyzes the design for all the various parameters. Mr. Buzzard was engaged in RCA's original investigations in power conditioning associated with thermionic converters. He participated in the development of tunnel diode inverters and their evaluation in circuits employing thermionic converters. Mr. Buzzard was promoted to Engineering Leader in 1965. During 1965 and 1966, he provided the technical direction for the NASA Isotope-Thermionic Development Program. Currently, Mr. Buzzard is directing the development of a number of special power devices; these include heat pipes, alkali metal vapor arc lamps, and high-power gas lasers. Mr. Buzzard has co-authored several technical papers on Thermionic Conversion Devices.



In the photo (left to right) Powell, Mark, Medsger, and Buzzard are seated behind some of the Lancaster-produced lasers.

THE BASIC COMPONENTS of a DC-excited gas laser are the discharge tube, a stable optical resonator, and the DC power supply. Fig. 1 shows a cross-sectional diagram of a typical gas laser. The discharge tube contains a cathode, an anode, and a long plasma-confining bore structure. The plasma bore is the region in which the coherent light is generated. The bore can be formed from either a uniform insulator tubing, or a series of short tubing sections uniformly spaced and insulated from one another. The discharge tube is filled with the noble gas at the proper pres-

sure (typical in the order of 0.1 torr). Energy is supplied to the plasma by a discharge current between the cathode and anode. The optical resonator consists of two mirrors, one totally reflective and the other partially reflective, placed at opposite ends of the discharge tube. When this optical cavity is properly adjusted with respect to the discharge tube, "lasing" takes place as the emitted light energy is coupled out through the partially reflective mirror. A magnetic field is usually provided around the discharge tube to improve the power output.

Design considerations

The five major components that affect the performance of noble gas ion lasers are: the bore structure, the optical cavity, the envelope, the electrode structure, and the power supply.

Graphite bore structure

RCA continuous-wave ion lasers utilize a segmented graphic bore structure², of the type shown in Fig. 2. This bore structure was chosen because it exhibits a minimum of sputtering and bore erosion. Fig. 3 is a photograph of an individual bore disc which is composed of high-purity, isostatically pressed graphite. The material was chosen after extensive testing and comparison with other possible bore materials. The outer diameter of the graphite discs is determined by the input power level of the laser. The center bore hole in each disc is between 1 and 4 mm in diameter. The exact bore diameter is determined by optical considerations. The length of the bore determines the total gain of the laser and the total light output.

Optical cavity

The optical cavity consists of two dielectric-coated mirrors³ mounted in a stabilized tuning mechanism. The orientation, reflectivity, and geometry of the mirror all affect the performance of the laser. The mirrors are, in most cases, curved and arranged as shown in Fig. 4. The condition for resonant stability of a laser is $0 < g_1 g_2 < 1$ for $g_1 = (1 - d/R_1)$ and $g_2 = (1 - d/R_2)$ where d the distance between the mirrors, and R_1 and R_2 are the radii of the respective mirrors.

Many laser applications require the output beam of the laser to have a

Gaussian distribution of intensity across the beam diameter. A Gaussian distribution requires that the laser operate in the fundamental transverse mode (TEM_{00}). Mode selection is accomplished by the proper choice of mirror radii and the bore diameter or aperture in the optical resonator. Figs. 5 and 6 show the diffraction losses for the two lowest-order (TEM_{00} , TEM_{01}) modes of a stable resonator using a pair of identical mirrors.³ The correct combination of mirrors and bore diameter at these low-order modes will result in substantial losses in light output when the laser is operated at higher-order modes; i.e., the higher-order modes are attenuated and do not appear in the laser output.

Discharge-tube envelope

The discharge-tube envelope is made of fused silica (quartz), which has many desirable properties for this application. The material is capable of containing the graphite bore segments at temperatures as high as 1000°C. In addition, the infrared-transmission properties of fused silica allow the heat from the graphite segments to be radiated to an external heat acceptor with a minimum of absorption. The continuous-wave lasers generally have quartz windows fused permanently to the tube structure to provide a completely vacuum-tight, bakeable structure. The windows are placed at Brewster's angle with respect to the incident light beam to minimize losses caused by reflections at the window surfaces.

Electrodes

The cathode material is also very important because it must have good electrically emissive properties, withstand high ion bombardment, and be resistant to gas impurities that may be evolved from other tube components during discharge operation. In the high-power-laser discharge tubes, a barium-impregnated tungsten-matrix cathode is used. Emission life in excess of 10,000 hrs can generally be expected from this type of cathode when used in the laser environment.

Because the anode material has little effect on laser performance, it is generally made of the same material as the bore segments and made simply an extension of the graphite structure.

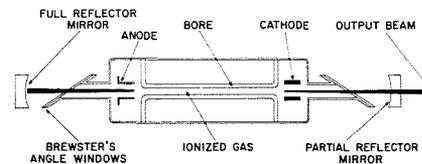


Fig. 1—Typical gas laser.

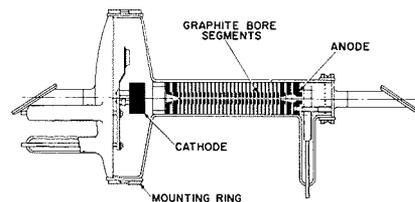


Fig. 2—The RCA-LD2110 10-mW Argon laser tube.

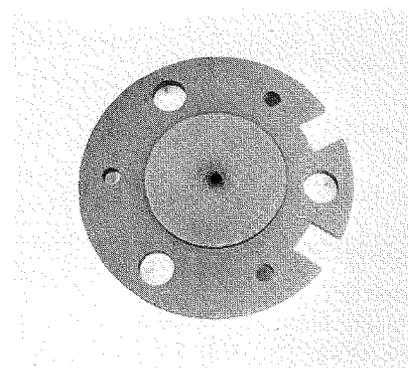


Fig. 3—Graphite bore segment.

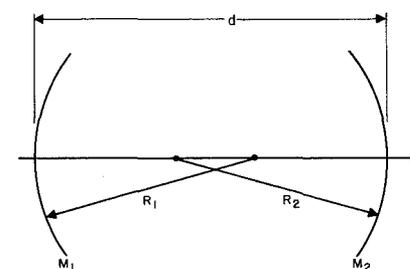


Fig. 4—Spherical mirror resonator.

Ballast tank

During the operation of the discharge tube, small amounts of gas are gradually lost as a result of sputter pumping. The phenomenon is referred to as "gas clean-up" and results when atoms sputtered from the bore confinement structure "bury" gas atoms on cooler surfaces. Although the sputtering and the resulting gas clean-up are minimal in a well-processed graphite-bore discharge tube, provisions must be made for extra gas storage. Consequently, a gas ballast tank is provided in one of the configurations shown in

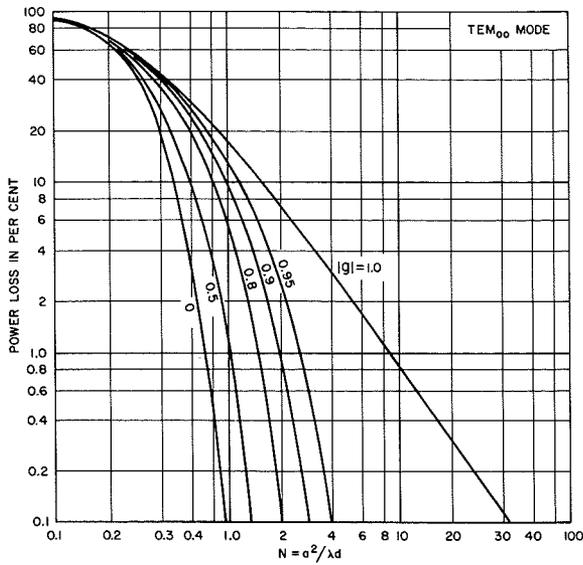


Fig. 5—Power loss per transit of the fundamental (TEM_{00}) mode for circular mirrors.

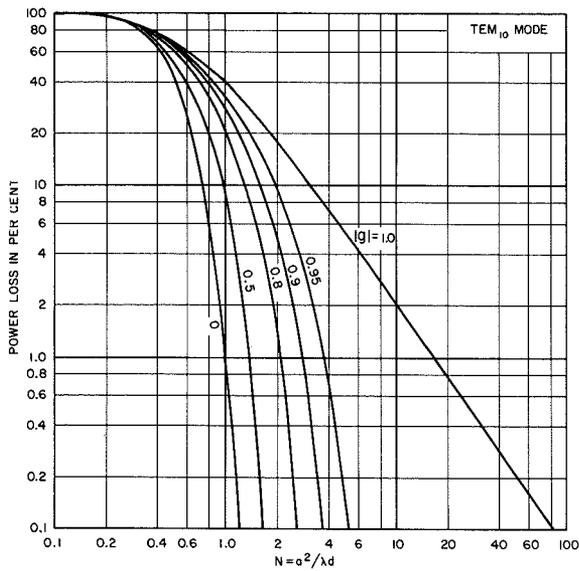


Fig. 6—Power loss per transit of the TEM_{10} mode for circular mirrors.

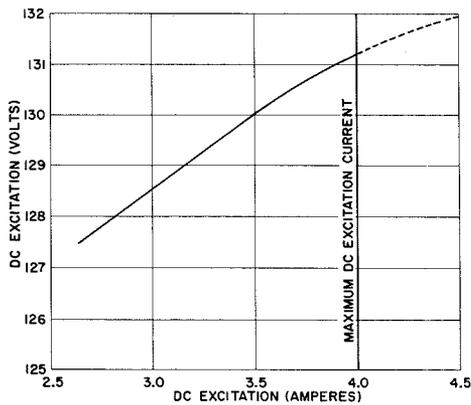


Fig. 8—Typical excitation characteristics.

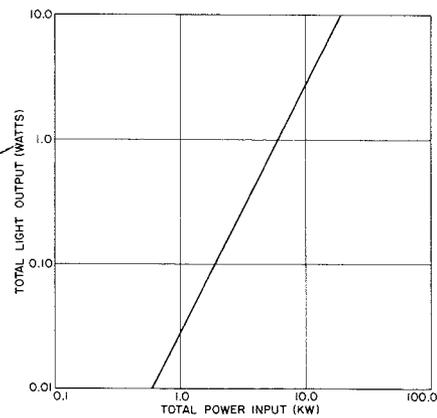


Fig. 9—Light output versus power input for Argon-ion lasers.

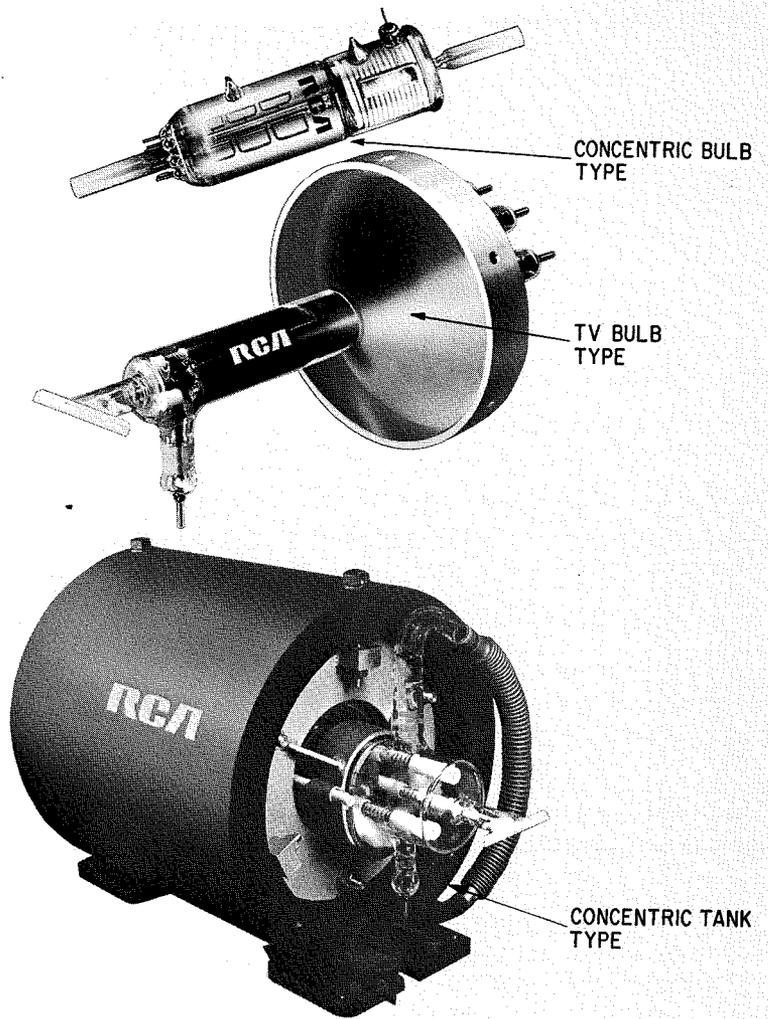


Fig. 7—Ballast tank configuration.

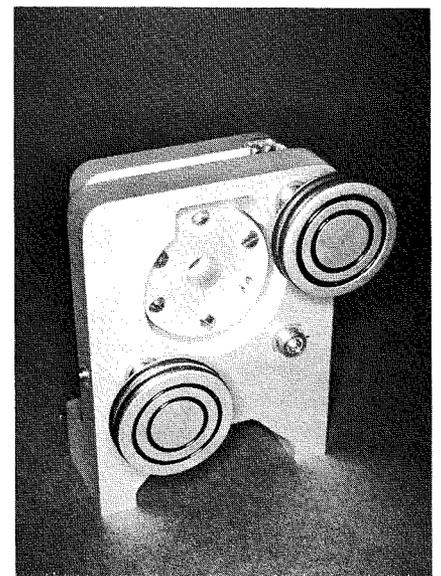


Fig. 10—Mirror mount.



Fig. 11—Some of the Argon-ion lasers produced at Lancaster (the size relationships are not accurate).

Fig. 7. The type of ballast tank employed depends upon the magnitude of the discharge current and the intended duration of operation. Most tubes with gas reservoirs have an operating life of up to 10,000 hrs.

Power supply

The noble-gas ion lasers typically operate at current levels between 3 and 30 A and with tube voltage drops of 100 to 300 volts. Fig. 8 shows the voltage-current relationship for a typical optimized laser. Because the stability and noise on the laser beam varies greatly with slight fluctuations in the discharge current, the power supplies must be designed to have current regulation to within 0.1%.

At the higher power and discharge current levels, a significant improvement in power output and efficiency

Table I—Performance characteristics of RCA lasers

Type No.	Gas	Typical power	Major wavelenghts (angstroms)
LD2108	Argon	10 mW	4880 blue-green 5145 green
LD2111	Neon	50 mW	3224 Ultra-violet
LD2100	Argon	200 mW	4765 blue 4880 blue-green 5145 green
LD2127	Krypton	400 mW	3507 Ultra-violet 4762 blue 5208 green 5682 yellow 6471 red
LD2101	Argon	2 W	4765 blue 4880 blue-green 5145 green
LD2122	Argon	10 W	4880 blue-green 5145 green
LD2125	Argon	50 mW (pulsed)	4880 blue-green 5145 green

can be achieved through the use of an axial magnetic field, which helps to confine the plasma within the bore structure and also reduces sputtering and bore erosion. The field is supplied either by an array of periodic permanent magnets or by an electrically powered solenoid. The requirements for the field range from a few hundred gauss for argon lasers of moderate power operating in the visible portion of the spectrum to more than 1000 gauss for ultra-violet output from krypton or neon.

Heat dissipation

Most of the electrical energy supplied to the laser discharge tube is transformed into heat which must be removed from the system. Fig. 9 shows a plot of the output power as a function of total input power for several largon-ion lasers. The difference in power in the form of heat is distributed along the bore structure, causing incandescence of the graphite segments. This heat is removed by radiation through the quartz envelope of the discharge tube to a heat acceptor. Two forms of heat acceptors are currently in use. When the input power to the laser is less than 2000 watts an air-cooled heat acceptor is used. When greater input power levels are required, a water-cooling jacket is used.

Mechanical stability

Because precise alignment is important for proper operation of the laser, the entire laser structure, including the discharge tube and the mirrors forming the resonant cavity must be held rigidly in place. This stability requires the use of rugged cast aluminum mounting structures. The mirror mounts must be particularly stable and yet be capable of precise adjustment to tune the cavity. A typical mirror mounts is shown in Fig. 10.

Commercially available lasers

RCA is currently manufacturing noble gas ion laser types. Table I lists the important performance characteristics of each type. Photographs of some units are shown in Fig. 11.

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Design of Cermolox tubes for single-sideband

A. Bazarian

Since the conception and design of Cermolox tubes by the design engineering group led by M. B. Shrader at Lancaster in 1956, a large family of tubes has been developed. These tubes cover the frequency spectrum from audio through UHF, and have useful power outputs ranging from a few tens of watts to greater than 15,000 watts. In general, the Cermolox design has provided the flexibility needed for design modifications for many and diverse requirements. This paper investigates some basic problems in the linear tube development and discusses the methods used in the design of these tubes.



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received the BA in Physics from New York University and the MS in Physics from the University of Pennsylvania in 1951. He has completed 30 credits of post-graduate studies majoring in gaseous electronics. His early experience was in mass-spectrometer tubes and infrared devices at the Franklin Institute Laboratories. From 1952 to 1957 he was at Chatham Electronics working on basic studies in gaseous discharge and development of gas discharge tubes. In 1957, he joined the Red Bank Division of the Bendix Corporation as a design engineer. In 1960, he was promoted to Senior Engineer in charge of gas and receiving tube development engineering. His experience at Bendix included development of gas-discharge microwave noise standards, spark gaps, gas lasers, high-energy xenon flash tubes, and special-purpose receiving tubes. He has received six technical patents in counting tubes, storage tubes, microwave noise standards, and high-energy transfer spark gaps. In 1965, he joined the RCA power tube design group in Lancaster as a product development engineer. He is responsible for power tube development programs. Mr. Bazarian is a member of IEEE and Sigma Pi Sigma.

CERMOLOX TUBES have performed in a wide variety of applications from communications to radar and counter-measures equipment. In addition, they have been used in applications which required stringent mechanical stability such as vehicular, aircraft, and shipboard equipment. The demands upon the available RF spectrum, particularly by the military, have necessitated greater use of single-sideband (SSB) transmission. The high order of frequency stability (stressed by I. P. Magasiny in Ref. 1) and the reduced spectrum requirements of SSB permit the assignment of a large number of channels to the same radio spectrum. Cermolox construction in a ribbon beam formation, without side-rod and lateral wire obstructions by the control grid and screen grid, provides the essential features for the linear tubes with the lowest intermodulation distortion (IMD). Present work is concentrated on tubes having 500 W (8791) and 1200 W (8792) of useful power at HF and UHF bands.

The single-sideband amplifier must not generate distortion levels above a specified maximum. With nonlinear distortion in the final amplifier, 3rd, 5th, 7th and possibly higher orders of intermodulation distortion (IMD) products will fall within or near the desired sideband. Spectrum crowding requires IMD products to be reduced to -45dB for 3rd, and -50dB for 5th corresponding to 0.5 and 0.3 percent, respectively, of a fundamental tone of a two-tone test.²

Theoretical transfer curves

A completely linear tetrode may be characterized as having constant plate-

current curves which are parallel and equidistant for equal increments of grid bias. An operating line, as shown in Fig. 1a, would be established on these curves by the specification of E_c , E_{c1} , I_p , P_o , and R_p . The resulting transfer characteristic would be the straight line as shown in Fig. 1b. Furthermore, for a high power-output efficiency, the "knee voltage" would be a small fraction of the screen voltage. It will be shown that if this tube is operated with the bias at cutoff (Class B), the resulting IMD will be negligible. Class A operation will also provide negligible distortion. Class AB operation, contrary to normal expectation, does result in considerable levels of IMD.

Other idealized transfer curves have been studied. These curves include quadratic, 3/2 power, and combinations of curves consisting of a linear upper part and various curvatures of the lower part. Results from these curves provide some insight as to how an actual tube should be designed and how it should be operated to yield the minimum distortion level.

Computer analysis of the transfer characteristic

When a signal with varying amplitude such as that generated by a two-tone test in the RF spectrum is amplified by a nonlinear tube, many new frequencies are generated. The frequency and amplitude of the IMD components which lie within the fundamental bandpass region of the tuned circuits may be determined mathematically with representation of the transfer curve by a finite series of Tchebycheff polynomials, expanded about a zero signal operating point:

$$I_b = C_0 + C_1 T_1 + C_2 T_2(e) + \dots + C_n T_n(e) \quad (1)$$

where I_b is the peak plate current and $T_n(e)$ is an n^{th} order Tchebycheff polynomial.

If a two-tone signal such as:

$$E = A(\cos \alpha + \cos \beta) \quad (2)$$

is applied to the grid, it may be shown with evaluation of Tchebycheff polynomials that the resulting plate current I_b is given by

Nomenclature

E_{bb}	DC plate supply voltage
E_b	DC plate voltage
E_{c1}	control-grid bias voltage
E_c	control-grid bias voltage referred to cut-off
I_p	peak fundamental component of the plate swing
P_o	output power
R_p	effective plate load resistance
E_{c2}	DC screen-grid voltage
E_g	peak control-grid drive signal
E_{c0}	cut-off voltage
I_{b0}	zero signal plate current
I_b	average plate current
E_p	peak AC component of plate swing

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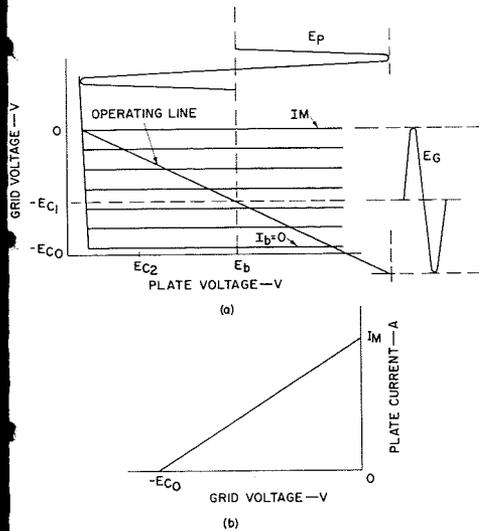


Fig. 1—Characteristics of an ideal linear tetrode: a) plate current curves; b) dynamic transfer curve obtained from the operating line for class AB.

$$I_b = I_0 + I_1(\cos \alpha + \cos \beta) + \dots + I_2(\cos 2\alpha + \cos 2\beta) + \dots + I_{12}[\cos(2\alpha - \beta) + \cos(2\beta - \alpha)] + \dots + I_{23}[\cos(3\alpha - 2\beta) + \cos(3\beta - 2\alpha)] + \dots + I_{34}[\cos(4\alpha - 3\beta) + \cos(4\beta - 3\alpha)] + \dots + \dots \quad (3)$$

where the coefficients I_0, I_1, I_{12}, \dots are polynomials with coefficients C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots of Eq. 1. The various orders of distortion products are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 3rd \text{ order: } dB &= 20 \log (I_1/I_{12}) \\ 5th \text{ order: } dB &= 20 \log (I_1/I_{23}) \\ 7th \text{ order: } dB &= 20 \log (I_1/I_{34}) \\ nth \text{ order: } dB &= 20 \log (I_1/I_{jk}) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where n is an odd integer and jk is a two digit integer with $j = (n - 1)/2$ and $k = (n + 1)/2$. This analytical method⁸ provides the basis for a distortion analysis of theoretical as well as actual transfer curves. In addition, with the study of the distortion of various transfer curves, a technique is obtained for predicting the design of actual tube transfer curves and for locating the grid bias on the curve for minimum distortion. This method is programmed to allow a rapid determination of IMD. For a given set of input data, coefficients of the Tchebysheff expansion are computed (the C 's of Eq. 1), and then various coefficients of intermodulation frequencies of Eq. 3 are evaluated. IMD products are calculated from Eq. 4 by using these coefficients.

In general, when actual tubes are analyzed, measurements of I_b are made at points along the operating line at equal intervals of E_c and E_b . These readings are supplied as input data to the com-

puter and a least-square fit method is used to calculate a polynomial approximation of the transfer curve from the coordinates. The polynomial is then used to obtain the expansion points for the Tchebysheff analysis. Tubes have been analyzed in this manner and it was found that, generally, distortion will increase with drive signal and will decrease as grid bias moves toward Class A.

The 3rd and 5th IMD for a typical tube are shown in Fig. 2. The bias is -36.5 volts and the signal amplitude ranges from 18.3 volts to 36.5 volts peak. The tube output power is also computed and is plotted for the corresponding amplitudes of drive signal.

Analysis of ideal transfer curves

Linear, quadratic, and three-halves power idealized transfer curves have been computed as shown in Fig. 3. In addition, a family of idealized transfer curves consisting of an upper linear portion and a lower curved portion which ranges in curvature from a 3.0 power (cubic) to 1.2 power have been studied. These curves range from remote cutoff to rather sharp cutoff tubes, as shown in Fig. 4.

The results of the linear transfer curve of Fig. 3 are shown in Fig. 5. The very low distortion at -31.3 volts and -62.6 volts bias is representative of Class-A and Class-B operation, respectively. At bias levels of -40.7 volts and -50.1 volts (Class AB₁), the distortion amplitude increases rapidly as the signal amplitude exceeds the cutoff voltage. The computer was programmed to scan the bias from cutoff to one-half the bias voltage and, for each bias voltage, to scan the grid-drive signal from the full bias amplitude to one-half amplitude.

The quadratic transfer curve of Fig. 3 was analyzed and the results are shown in Fig. 6. The slope of the quadratic was continuous at the point of intersection with the grid bias axis. It is noted that at Class-B operation, the distortion is high for all levels of grid signal. As the operation moves toward Class A, the distortion decreases and is less for low amplitude signals.

The third and fifth-order distortion products for the 3/2-power curve of Fig. 3 are shown in Fig. 7. It was found that for the higher ratios ($E_g/E_o > 4$

to 5) the data points of E_g/E_o for various E_o did overlay each other very closely. For lower values of E_g/E_o , however, the location of the cusps shifted for a scan of E_o at various bias levels. The minimum distortion level and the number of cusps, however, always remained the same.

For the 3/2-power curve, Class-A operation (E_g/E_o approximately equal to 1) would yield low distortion. Otherwise the cusps for the 3rd and 5th orders do not provide any other convenient low distortion operating point. In addition, 5th-order distortion for this curve, as for all others, is generally lower than the 3rd except in the regions of the cusps where a reversal does occur.

The distortion curves for the 1.2, 1.6, and 3.0-power curves of Fig. 4 are shown in Figs. 8, 9, and 10. Although these transfer curves consist of a curved and linear portion, the resulting distortion curves are similar to the 3/2 distortion results. The 3.0-power curve does not exhibit any cusps for $E_g/E_o \leq 10$. For this curve, the most linear operation would occur for Class A where E_g/E_o is less than 0.6.

For low-distortion operation, the results of the 2.0-power linear curve of Fig. 11 are promising. For a particular bias in Fig. 11, the cusps for the 3rd and 5th do occur at the same ratio for E_g/E_o . It may be inferred from curve symmetry that the cusps for 7th, 9th and higher orders will likewise occur at the same value for E_g/E_o . This curve is discussed by Pappenfuss⁴, and, as pointed out in this reference, if the bias point is chosen to be at or near the projected intercept of the linear segment on the

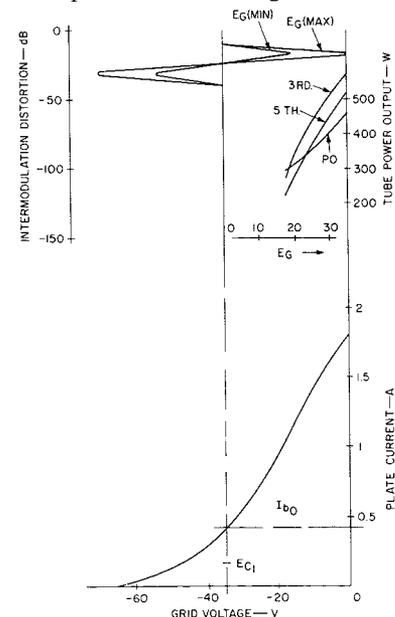


Fig. 2—Typical tube transfer curve analyzed by the Cleary 12-point system.

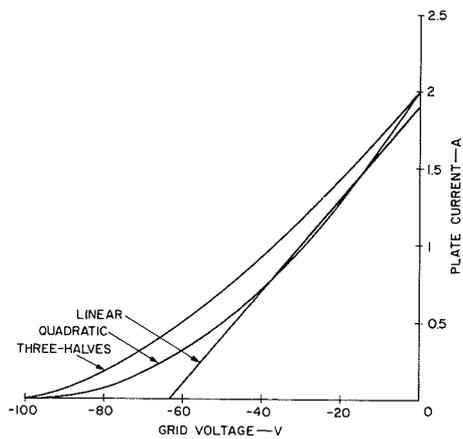


Fig. 3—Linear, quadratic, and three-halves power theoretical transfer curves.

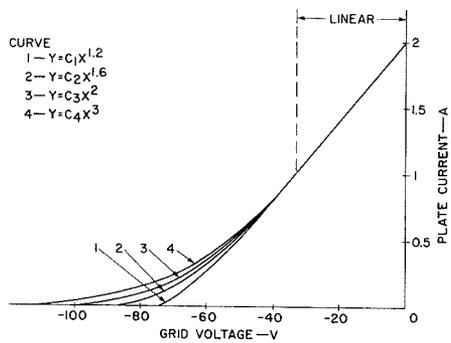


Fig. 4—Theoretical transfer curves consisting of upper linear portion and various lower curved portions, including curvatures of 1.2, 1.6, 2.0, and 3.0 powers.

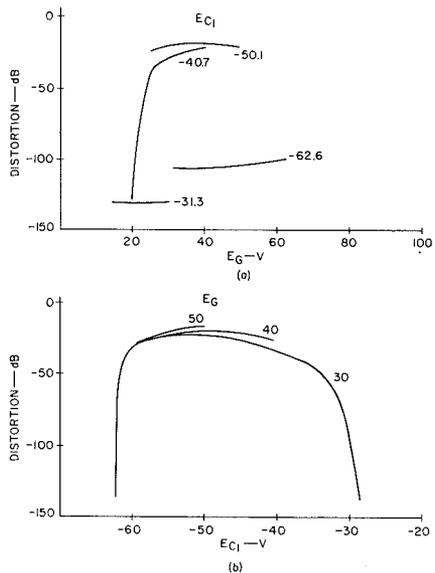


Fig. 5—Third-order distortion for the linear transfer curve of Fig. 3: a) distortion as a function of grid drive; b) distortion as a function of grid bias.

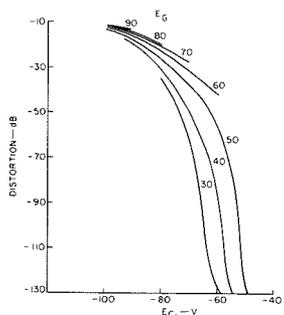


Fig. 6—Third-order distortion for the quadratic transfer curve of Fig. 3.

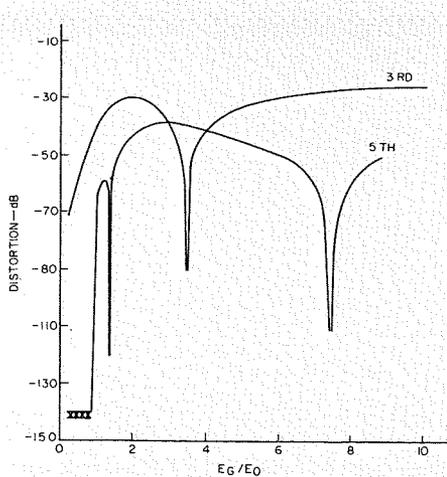


Fig. 7—Third- and fifth-order distortion products for the three-halves power curve of Fig. 3.

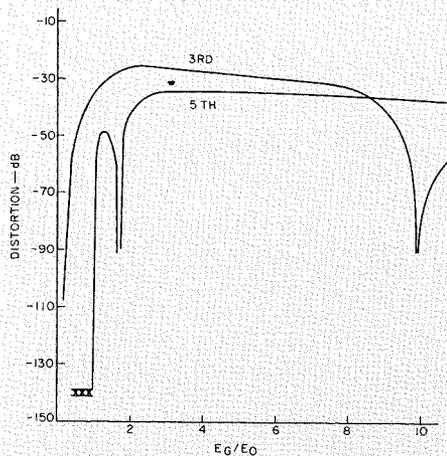


Fig. 8—Third- and fifth-order distortion products for the 1.2 power curve of Fig. 4.

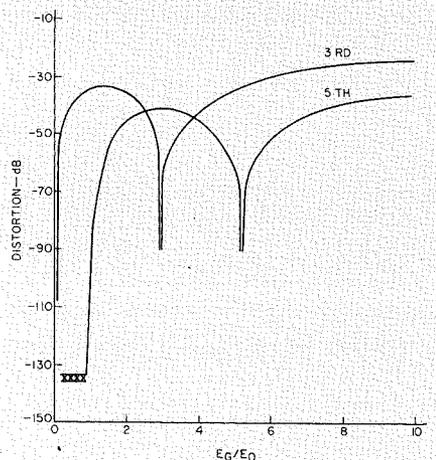


Fig. 9—Third- and fifth-order distortion products for the 1.6 power curve of Fig. 4.

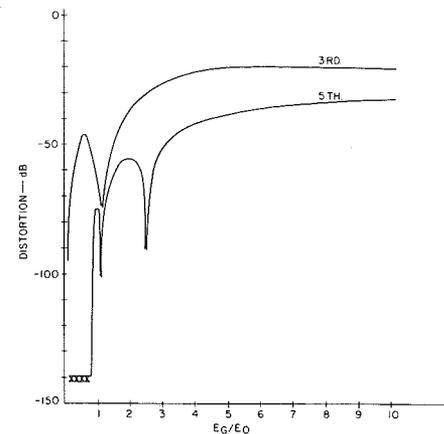
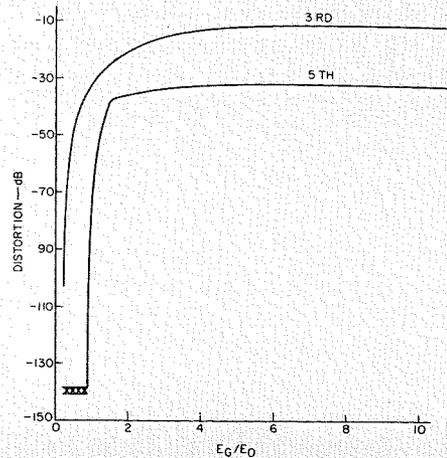


Fig. 11—Third- and fifth-order distortion products for the 2.0 power curve of Fig. 4.

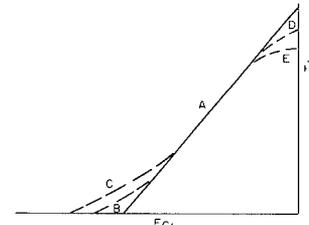


Fig. 12—Causes of curvature of the transfer curve: a) ideal case; b) velocity distribution of emitted electrons; c) non-uniform electric field at the cathode; d) space charge; e) current division between anode and screen grid.

grid-bias axis, then the resulting IMD products will be very low. In terms of an ideal tube, the most desirable transfer curve would consist of a linear segment with a sharp slope for high g_m and with a zero bias current of sufficient magnitude to provide the required output power. The lower quadratic portion would comprise only a fraction of the total curve length, thereby insuring a low idling current and high tube output efficiency.

Correlation

Separate computer programs have been written such that upon specification of the E_b , E_{c1} , E_g , P_o , and R_p , for a particular tube, the E_c and E_b values for the dynamic operating curve for the Tchebycheff expansion points are printed out. The transfer curve corresponding to these points is obtained by measurement, and the curve is analyzed for distortion. For a 12-point analysis, the random errors in measurement of the current may cause a large variation in the computed value of distortion products. If the transfer curve is well defined by a large number of readings and by utilization of the least-square-fit technique, the correlation between measured and computed results is considerably improved. The reading error for both I_b and E_{c1} have been reduced by use of electronically regulated power supplies. With the use of Tektronix Type -Z amplifier

Fig. 10—Third- and fifth-order distortion products for the 3.0 power curve of Fig. 4.

for recording E_c and with a 1% precision current transformer for I_b , agreement between measured and computed values for both 3rd and 5th IMD has been found to be within 2 to 3 dB.

Tube design

The design of a tube having low distortion products is based on understanding of the causes of nonlinearity of the transfer characteristics. Whenever curvatures of the transfer characteristic occur, the input power is distorted in the output circuit. The characteristic features^{6,8} of actual tubes which preclude the construction of an idealized tube are as follows:

- 1) Electrons are emitted from the cathode with velocity and angular distributions which lead to a distortion curvature of the transfer curve as shown in Fig. 12, curve b.
- 2) The field at the cathode is generally not uniform. Because of the direct alignment of control-grid and screen-grid wires, the effective emitting area at the cathode changes as the electric field is varied with the grid signal. The resulting distortion curvature is shown in curve c.
- 3) Space-charge formation at relatively high plate currents reduces the effective electric field at the cathode and may cause distortion as shown in curve d.
- 4) A change in the ratio of screen-grid to anode current with a change in anode current produces distortion curvature similar to curve e. The change in this ratio may be due to the following causes:

- a) When the anode potential swings below the screen-grid voltage, many of the electrons deflected by the control-grid wires cannot reach the anode and therefore return to the screen grid.
- b) Tubes with aligned control-grid and screen-grid wires may show a variation in the number of electrons intercepted by the screen grid as a result of changes in focusing with changes in plate current.⁷
- c) The effect of secondary emission at the screen grid is appreciable and may contribute currents greater than the intercepted portion of the primary beam.

An experimental procedure devised to study the parameters interfering with the tube design has provided some progress toward the desired tube linearity. This procedure includes systematic investigation of the anode design, focusing cathodes, and design of the control-grid structure. The experimentation technique utilizes an analysis of variance of several parameters at more than one level of each parameter. In this way, the effect of each para-

meter upon the static characteristics, as well as the IMD products, is tested. In addition, the effect of any interactions is detected. Follow-up single-parameter tests are used after the effectiveness of a specific parameter has been detected.

Improvements in the anode design have included reduction of secondary emission by surface preparation such as glassblasting and special surface-configurations to entrap secondary electrons for improved "knee" characteristics. Interactions of the anode configuration with optimized screen-grid-to-anode spacing have been studied to establish a minimum level for the "knee" potential.

Focusing cathodes⁸ have been studied primarily for reduction of screen-grid current. Contoured emitting surfaces are designed to confine the origin of the beam to a more limited area. With the elimination of emitting surfaces directly behind the control-grid wires, the number of stray electrons is reduced, the effective field at the cathode is more homogenous, and the effect of secondary electrons from the screen grid is greatly reduced.

The control-grid structure of the tube has been improved to attain the most linear segment of the transfer curve coincident, with a curved portion which yields the lowest IMD level.

Experimental data

Type 8791 has been designed to meet specific linearity requirements. Typical test data for two different plate voltages with corresponding optimized screen-grid voltages are shown in Table I. For comparison, the effects of feedback with a 10-ohm cathode resistor are also included.

Fig. 13 shows the distortion as a function of peak envelope power output of the 8791 in a two-tone, 30-MHz, linear amplifier with no feedback and with a 10-ohm resistor inserted in the cathode circuit. To summarize the tube performance: the third-order intermodulation distortion decreases as the zero-signal plate current increases; the effect of the 10-ohm cathode resistor is to reduce both 3rd and 5th-order distortion by approximately five to seven dB; and the 5th-order distortion curves are generally 5 to 10 dB less than the 3rd, and distortion decreases with lower output powers.

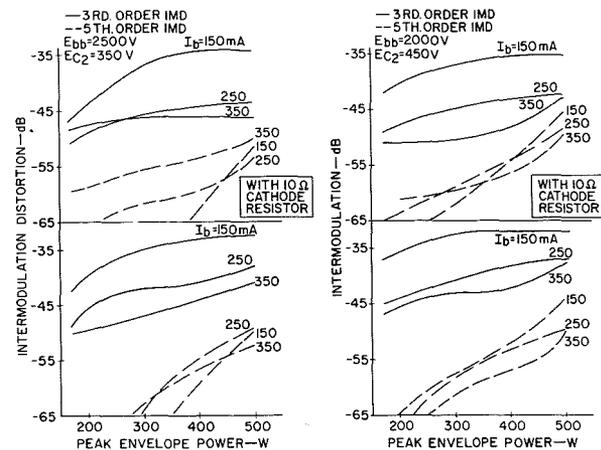


Fig. 13—Intermodulation distortion as a function of power output for RCA 8791 Cermolox tube.

Acknowledgments

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Table I—Two-tone modulation test for a linear RF power amplifier, class AB₁ for SSB suppressed carrier service

	No feedback	With 10-ohm cathode res.
dc plate voltage (v)	2000 2500	2000 2500
dc grid-No. 2 voltage (V)	450 350	450 350
dc grid-No. 1 voltage (V)	-32 -22	-38 -21
Zero signal plate current (mA)	300 300	300 300
Effective RF load resistance (Ω)	1850 2750	1850 2750
plate current (mA) at peak envelope (two tone)	550 480	555 485
Average plate current (mA—single tone)	430 390	430 395
grid-No. 2 current (mA) at peak of envelope (two tone)	-3.0 -4.0	-3.5 -3.5
Average grid-No. 2 current (mA)	-1.8 -2.5	0.4 -4.0
Average grid-No. 1 current (mA—single tone)	40 50	45 50
Peak envelope driver/power (W—approx)	1 1	1 1
Output-circuit efficiency (%—approx)	90 90	90 90
Distortion product level:		
3rd order (dB)	-38 -40	-43 -44
5th order (dB)	-44 -53	-50 -51
Useful power output (approx):		
Average (W)	250 250	250 250
Peak envelope (W)	500 500	500 500

Photo-dielectric tape camera systems

J. A. D'Arcy

A photo dielectric tape camera is unique in that it combines the features of a television camera and an electrostatic tape recorder in one package. Optical images picked up by this type of camera are directly stored on the photo dielectric tape in the form of a charge pattern. The stored information can be read out at a later time, either immediately or after several months. One type of phototape camera has already been space qualified; another type has been built as a Laboratory Model. Several other types are in conceptual form. This paper describes the phototape cameras and indicates some of their applications.



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received the BEE from Villanova University in 1959 and the MSEE from the University of Pennsylvania in 1964. He joined RCA in 1959 as an Electrical Engineer and was assigned to the Commercial Electronics Systems Division where he remained until 1963. During a major portion of this period, he worked with the Closed-Circuit Television Systems Engineering group on projects such as the television system for the nuclear ship Savannah. Since 1963, when he was transferred to the Astro-Electronics Division, he has been with the Dielectric Tape Camera Group. Part of his responsibility has been the development of the logic, command, and control system for the "tape" camera. He has been involved with the evaluation and testing program in which one version of the dielectric tape camera was space-qualified and assisted in the conceptual development of dielectric tape camera systems for specific missions. He also assisted in revising the television system of the Stratoscope II telescope project for a 1968 flight. Mr. D'Arcy is a professional engineer registered in Pennsylvania and is a member of the IEEE, Tau Beta Pi, Eta Kappa Nu, and the Engineers' Club of Philadelphia.

Two types of photo-dielectric tape cameras have already been built by the Astro-Electronics Division of

RCA as a result of programs sponsored separately by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration and the Air Force. One type, a 35-mm, panoramic camera has been developed and space qualified for the Goddard Space Flight Center of NASA under Contract No. NAS-5-2503. This camera is shown in Fig. 1. Another type, a 70-mm, high-resolution camera, has been built as a laboratory model for the Air Force Avionics Laboratory of Wright-Patterson Air Force Base under Contract No. AF 33(657)-11485. In addition, designs for several other types of dielectric tape cameras are in conceptual form.

Photo-dielectric tape

Photo-dielectric tape (commonly called dielectric tape) is the distinctive part of the dielectric tape camera; it includes both the photosensitive medium and the storage medium. In this sense, it can be considered a reusable type of electronic film. Thus far, the tape has been manufactured in two widths: 33 mm and 70 mm. As shown in Fig. 2, the base of this tape is Cronar, the trade name for a transparent, flexible synthetic polyester (prestressed mylar) about 5 mils thick and having good optical qualities. The edges of the Cronar are folded to protect the central portion of the tape from contact with adjacent layers when the tape is wound on take-up reels. Three materials are evaporated onto the base, one on top of the other. The material next to the base is a transparent, conducting-layer of gold which provides electrical contact with one side of the photoconductor. The gold is thicker at the edges in order to provide a means of external

contact. The thin portion of the gold is coated with a photoconductive material which, in turn is coated with polystyrene — an insulating material. The polystyrene is the dielectric across which the charge pattern is stored. Each of these three materials is deposited to a thickness of about one micron.

Operation

The basic procedure for utilizing dielectric tape involves three operations: prepare, record, and playback. The prepare operation charges the tape to a uniform predetermined potential in order to remove any charge pattern that may exist, and to prepare the tape for exposure. The prepare operation requires saturating light and an electron flood beam. The light effectively short-circuits the photoconductor resistance, R_p , (indicated in the schematic of Fig. 2), while the flood beam charges the surface of the insulator, C_i , to a uniform potential. This operation depends upon the insulator having a secondary-electron emission ratio greater than unity.

The record operation places a focused optical image on the tape in the form of a charge pattern. This operation also requires light and a flood beam. In this case, the light consists of the focused optical image, which modulates the photoconductor resistance, R_p , while the surface of the insulator, C_i , is exposed to the electron flood beam. The optically induced array of varying photoconductor resistance is thereby transformed into an equivalent electrical charge pattern on the insulator.

The playback operation converts the charge pattern into an electrical signal,

which is transmitted to the ground station. A finely focused electron beam is required for this operation. In the case of the panoramic camera, the electron beam is generated using a read gun, similar to that of a 1-inch vidicon. The beam from this gun strikes the insulator with a relatively high velocity, generating secondary electrons. These secondary electrons have velocity components attributable to the charge pattern. A separator structure placed close to the tape separates the electrons according to their velocities and thus provides the output signal.

It should be noted that the 1-inch vidicon type of gun is not the only type used for the playback operation; as an example, the Air Force Laboratory Model uses a 4.5-inch orthicon type of gun with dynodes. Further, operation is not limited to the use of a high-velocity beam; a low-velocity beam can also be used.

Salient features

Some of the salient features of dielectric tape are

- High-density information storage,
- Extreme resistance to radiation,
- Flexible electronic processing,
- Reusability,
- Absence of mechanical contact with insulator,
- Ability to record panoramic pictures, and
- Long-term image storage capability.

It has been estimated (by extrapolation) that dielectric tape is capable of storing information with detail in excess of 100 line pairs per mm at 70-percent response; however, the detail in the output signal is limited by certain factors, principally the response of the lens and the finite size of the playback electron beam.

A comparison of photographic film and dielectric tape has shown that dielectric tape can withstand more radiation than film by several orders of magnitude. Furthermore, radiation damage to film is a cumulative, irreversible effect, whereas dielectric tape is not permanently affected and may be used again without degradation in performance.

Existing camera systems

Space-qualified 35-mm panoramic camera

Thus far, one type of dielectric tape camera (Fig. 1) has been space qualified.² Developed for use in the Nimbus

satellite (operating in a 600-nmi, sun-synchronous, polar orbit), the camera was designed to provide high-quality panoramic pictures of the earth's cloud cover.

In operation, a panoramic scanning mirror and a narrow-angle lens image the desired scene onto the dielectric tape through a narrow rectangular aperture. The tape is exposed as it moves past this aperture (or slit) at a rate equal to the rate of motion of the optical image. The result, as shown in Fig. 3, is a long, narrow-strip picture, or swath. After each picture has been recorded, the mirror returns to its starting position and begins to scan a new scene. This "slit" camera is in contrast to a "frame" camera in which the entire scene is imaged, during a given exposure, on a complete frame.

With a full load of dielectric tape (about 90 feet), this camera can record about 120 picture frames; this would correspond to a total Earth coverage of 1600 by 11,000 nmi during one orbit. The specified ground resolution is 0.2 nmi (from a 600-nmi orbit), which corresponds to a camera resolution of 600 TV lines/inch (50-percent response); the limiting resolution of the camera is estimated to be about 1400 TV lines per inch. The dynamic range of the camera extends from 0.003 to 0.1 footcandle-seconds, which corresponds to ten $\sqrt{2}$ gray-scale steps.

The weight of the panoramic camera is 83 pounds, including the electronics package. It requires about 25 watts of power during the record mode and about 30 watts during the playback mode. A picture recorded by this camera is shown in Fig. 4.

High-resolution camera (laboratory model)

Another type of dielectric tape camera was designed and fabricated in the form of a laboratory model, using both slit and frame format. It was developed on an Air Force sponsored research and development program whose goals were to further the state of the art in dielectric tape technology and to develop components for high-resolution imagery.

The basic components of this camera are

- 70-mm dielectric tape,
- A gun with dynode multipliers similar to that used in 4.5-inch image orthicons,

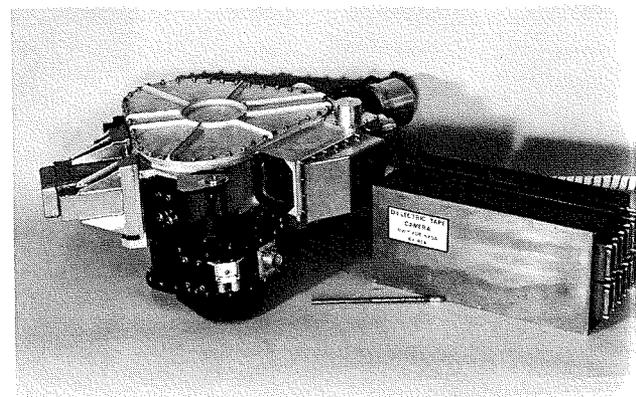


Fig. 1—Dielectric tape camera developed for NASA.

A tape transport, and
A flood gun.

The 70-mm tape, similar to the 35-mm tape used in the space-qualified panoramic camera, has an active width of about 56 mm compared to an active width of 19 mm for the 35-mm tape. The playback gun is similar to those used in 4.5-inch image orthicons with dynode multipliers. But, this combination of gun and dynode multipliers provides a much higher system resolution, because a smaller diameter scanning beam is used. The limiting resolution of a tape camera using a gun similar to that of a 1-inch vidicon is about 30 line pairs per mm, but a limiting resolution of about 90 line pairs per mm has been produced under ideal laboratory conditions using the high-resolution laboratory model. Thus, the laboratory model has produced the equivalent of about 10,000 TV lines across the active width of the tape.

To illustrate the capability of a flight model of this 70-mm camera, consider such a camera (frame format) at an orbital height of 450-nmi with 100 feet of tape and a 182-mm focal length lens; its characteristics would be as follows:

Camera system resolution	90 line pairs per mm
Tape format	56 by 56 mm
Ground coverage per frame	138 by 138 nmi
Ground resolution	83 ft.
Full load coverage	8.95×10^8 square nmi
Playback time per frame	5.8 s
Bandwidth	12 MHz
Weight (approximate)	150 lbs. (excluding lens)
Power (approximate)	300 W (playback mode)
	100 W (record mode)

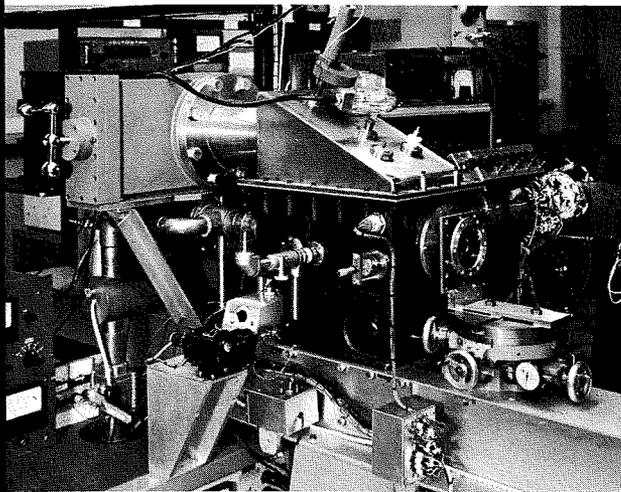


Fig. 2—Dielectric tape camera developed for USAF.

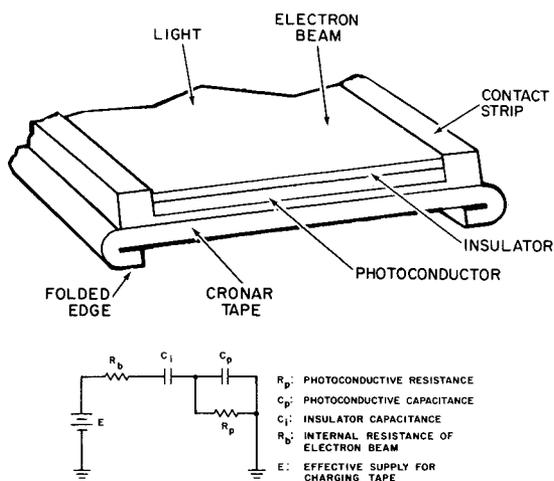


Fig. 3—Cross-section of dielectric tape.

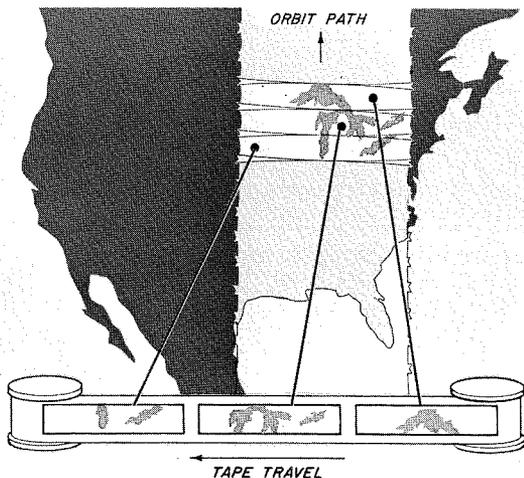


Fig. 4—Panoramic coverage provided by the dielectric tape camera.

Conceptual camera systems

High-resolution frame camera

During the past several years, a considerable development effort has been expended in furthering the state of the art of dielectric tape technology. In addition, a parallel RCA-sponsored program has resulted in a new type of

television camera; this camera uses 2-inch return-beam-vidicon electron optics.

The combination of the outputs of these two efforts has resulted in another type of dielectric tape camera, i.e., the 35-mm, frame-type, dielectric-tape camera. Still in its conceptual form, this camera, which is illustrated in Fig. 5, has the resolution capability of the 70-mm high-resolution camera, but is similar in size to the 35-mm panoramic camera.

The basic components of the 35-mm frame-type camera are

- 35-mm dielectric tape,
- A gun with dynode multipliers similar to that used in the 2-inch return-beam vidicon,
- A tape transport, and
- A flood gun.

The dielectric tape being considered for this camera has a nominal width of 35 mm and an active picture format of 25 by 25 mm. Plans call for sprocket holes along one edge of the tape in addition to the folds, to ensure accurate movement of the tape from the expose station to the playback station. About 100 feet of tape can be stored in the camera.

The playback gun with dynode multipliers designated for the 35-mm frame-type camera is similar to that used in the 2-inch return-beam vidicon. The operation of this gun is similar to that used in the 70-mm camera, and comparable resolution is anticipated. However, since the format of this camera is 25 by 25 mm, the realizable limiting resolution is 4500 TV lines across the width of the tape.

A relatively simple type of tape transport is planned for this camera. The most stringent requirement is accurate indexing; therefore, a precision advance mechanism would be used. It would be required to operate reliably in a vacuum for the orbital life of the camera.

The flood gun of the 35-mm frame-type camera would be used for both the prepare and record functions. The gun is required to generate a flood of electrons that will uniformly cover the 25-by-25-mm format. A flight model of this type of camera would weigh about 70 pounds, including electronics, and would require about 50 watts of power during the playback mode.

This type of camera would be particularly useful in missions requiring high-resolution sensing and storage. Possible applications include an earth resources orbiting satellite and a moon or planetary orbiter. The camera could also be used on deep space missions and would serve best when sufficient transmission bandwidth (or time) was available to permit full use of its very large data storage capacity.

Drum-type camera

Another conceptual dielectric tape camera is the drum-type camera which contains a faceted drum with a chip of dielectric tape attached to each facet.

The dielectric tape is in the form of 16-mm squares securely fastened to the facets. The camera is capable of holding 60 frames on an 8-inch diameter drum machined from aluminum. The drum advance mechanism accurately transports a given tape chip to either the record or the playback station. The active area of the chip is dependent upon the type of playback gun used.

Using a gun from a 1/2-inch vidicon would provide the lightest and smallest type of dielectric tape camera, but the active format size would only be about 6 by 6 mm. However, if a gun from a 1-inch vidicon were used, the active format size would be about 12 by 12 mm. A camera using either gun would be capable of providing a system limiting-resolution of at least 30 line pairs per mm.

The cross-sectional area of the flood-gun beam depends upon the active format size. The smaller the tape format the smaller will be the flood gun. Only one flood gun is planned for the drum camera; this gun will be used for both the prepare and record cycles. Two possibilities have been considered for the prepare cycle: preparation of each tape chip just prior to being exposed, or preparation of all of the chips shortly before the start of the record cycle.

The drum camera is the lightest of the various dielectric tape cameras (about 30 pounds, including the electronics), requires the least power (about 15 watts in the playback mode), and can be more readily sterilized for use in planetary landing missions. However, the format, size, and storage capability

are smaller in this camera than in the other cameras.

As an example of the use of a drum camera, a camera placed in orbit 100 kilometers above the surface of Mars would probably have characteristics as follows:

Lens	16.6 mm
Playback gun	1/2-inch vidicon gun
Format	6 by 6 mm
Tape resolution	30 line pairs/mm
Ground resolution	1000 m
Ground coverage per frame	360 by 360 km
Number of storage frames	60
Bit rate	5000 bits/s
Bits per picture element	6
Readout time per picture	7.9 min
Total readout time	7.9 h

Because of the low readout speed in this example, a pulsed-beam type of readout has been assumed.

There are several areas in which the drum camera could be used effectively, especially for applications in which weight and power are prime considerations and large storage capability is not so important. One example is deep-space planetary missions, particularly if the camera must pass through a radiation field. A planetary lander mission is another possible application.

Conclusion

Many dielectric tape camera configurations are practical; their configuration would depend upon the mission requirements, including the tradeoffs relating to weight, power and size. Several important considerations are:

- Tape resolution,
- Storage capability, and
- Picture format.

The tape resolution requirement determines the width of tape and the type of playback gun to be used. The storage capability is determined, primarily, by the amount of time allotted for retrieving the stored information, the size limitation of the camera, and the type of scene to be photographed and stored. Establishing the picture format involves many considerations; it can be panoramic, frame-type, or the type of picture produced by a slit camera. Because of their high-density and long-term storage, extremely high resistance

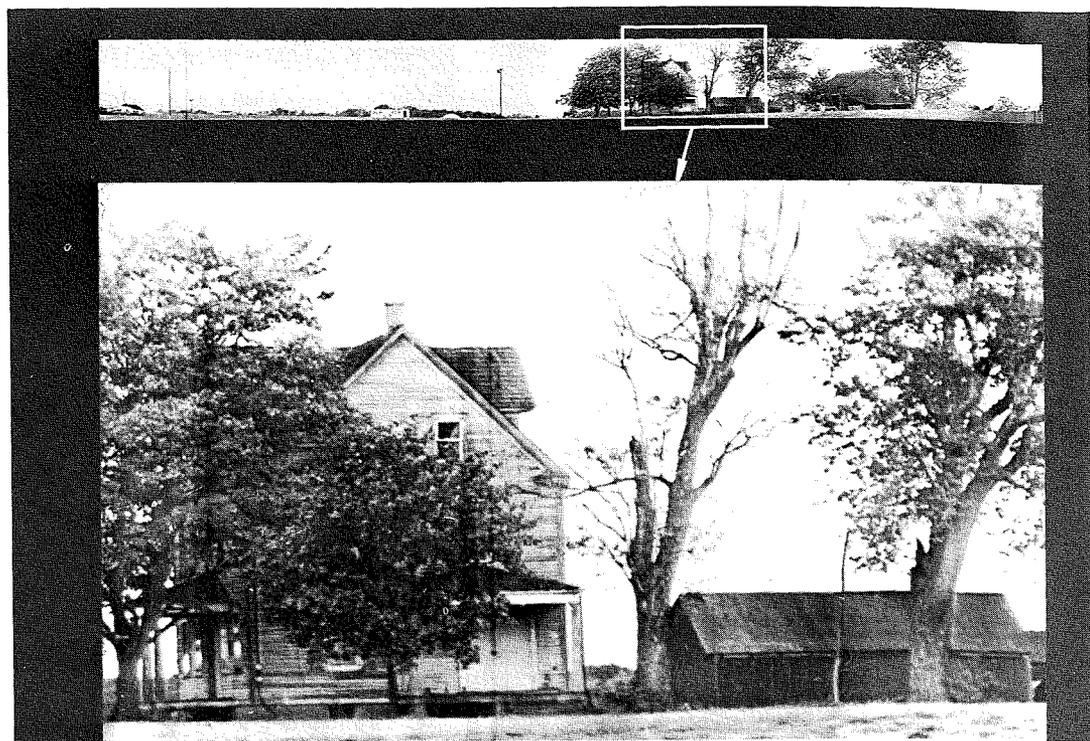


Fig. 5—Panoramic picture produced by NASA dielectric tape camera.

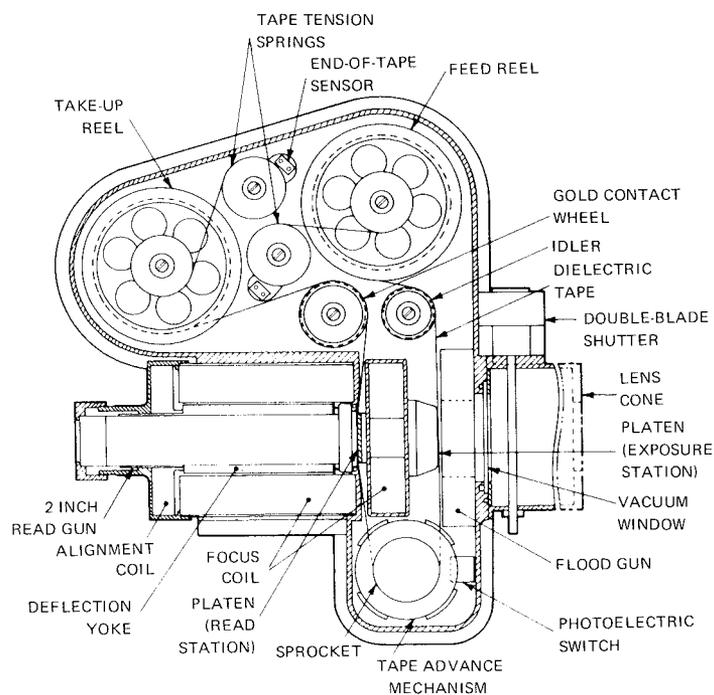


Fig. 6—35-mm high-resolution frame-type dielectric tape camera.

to radiation, flexibility of processing and reusable tape, phototape cameras are ideal for the following applications:

- In meteorological satellites for world-wide, high-resolution cloud and ground coverage.
- In deep-space missions, such as a Mars Orbiter.

Finally, it should be pointed out that cameras are not the only application for dielectric tape; it can also be used in scan converters and data storage devices. In these two cases, the dielec-

tric tape is simplified by eliminating the photoconductor, and a read-in gun is used in place of the lens and flood-gun combination.

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The roll-up solar array

G. Kopelman

The RCA roll-up solar array is especially suitable for meeting the multi-kilowatt power-generation requirements for manned and unmanned space vehicles and is capable of numerous deploy-retract cycles. The greatest advantage of the roll-up array is its simplicity as compared to the present, rigid-panel type of folding solar arrays, that are incapable of meeting large power requirements without a severe weight penalty. This paper describes the RCA development program for a roll-up solar array and provides an insight into the advantages and potential of such an array.

THE POTENTIAL OF the RCA roll-up solar array (and roll-up solar arrays in general) involves a structural-thermal trade-off. From a structural standpoint, one of the greatest advantages of a roll-up array over the folded, rigid-panel type is that the structural requirements can be based on in-orbit loadings instead of on launch-environment loadings. This is because in their rolled-up, or launch, configuration, with each layer well supported and snubbed, they are inherently resistant to acoustic, vibratory and sustained accelerations. The magnitude of the orbital loadings, together with the thermal constraints, thus determine the ultimate minimum weight of one of these lightweight arrays.

The fundamental thermal characteristics of such a solar array could, however, limit the weight reduction made possible by light structural loadings. For example, in earth orbits, the nighttime space environment could reduce the array temperature to a value near -200°C , if the surface properties are chosen to keep the daytime temperatures low, as required for good solar-cell conversion efficiency. In turn, the thermal shock associated with these large day-night temperature variations could cause severe degradation of electrical performance of the array. Therefore, while a high power-to-weight ratio is a primary interest, a trade-off may be desirable to increase the array weight in order to reduce temperature variations, even though it also lowers the power-to-weight ratio.

Program objective

The objective of the RCA program was to design, test, and demonstrate the feasibility of large, lightweight planar

structures particularly applicable to solar-cell power systems. The concept to be developed here deals with the erection of a planar sandwich structure from two rolled constituent halves stored on drums and effecting an interlock between them by means of a hook-and-pile fabric interlock system, as shown in Fig. 1.

Approach

A specific mission for the 1970's was chosen as a design goal to more quickly realize the potential of the RCA roll-up array concept. This mission (MOPS-Manned Orbiting Power System) requires a power supply of approximately 20 kilowatts. The following criteria indicate the conditions to which the array would be exposed:

- Satellite orbiting range—2000 to 19,000 nmi (sun-synchronous)
- Launch shock load—20-g peak, half-sine, 10 ms
- Propulsion engine firing (in orbit)—0.6 g
- Docking activity (in orbit)—0.1 g
- Attitude control thrust (in orbit)—0.01 g

A rigid-panel concept, as designed for the previously mentioned application, resulted in a watts-per-pound output of about 12 and a panel weight of 0.81 pound per square foot. The following assumptions were made in connection with the design of a roll-up panel for the MOPS:

- 1) The launch-shock loading of 20 g could safely be sustained by the structure since the spacer material would protect and snub the solar cells during launch.
- 2) The orbital activity associated with sps (Space Propulsion System) engine firing and docking would pose no problem since the array could be rolled up during such activities.
- 3) The array would remain fully deployed during the attitude-thrust control activity. A structural dynamic design loading of 0.01 g would, there-

fore, be imposed normal to the plane of the deployed array.

- 4) The thermal capability of the array design would be evaluated from an analytical standpoint, as determined with the use of the 0.01-g dynamic loading as in Item 3.

At the start of the study, the program was systemized and a meaningful order of tasks was delineated. The tasks to be accomplished were (1) selection of the composite beam elements and the array configuration, based on the use of hook-and-pile closure material (Velcro) in all array designs; (2) preliminary composite structure designs and tests to provide inputs for the development of a mathematical model; (3) a full-scale test program to validate the mathematical model; (4) a thermal analysis; and (5) the design and fabrication of a full-scale deploy-retract system capable of accommodating a full scale array structure (three by ten feet).

Composite materials and array configuration

The planar structure was envisioned as a sandwich made up of two skins (separated by a spacer material) joined or "locked" together by means of the hook-and-pile fabric.

The three skin materials initially selected for analysis and investigation were aluminum, Mylar, and fiberglass. Each of these, in thickness under ten mils, was considered acceptable for space and offered satisfactory strength-to-weight characteristics. Furthermore, each material was compatible with the adhesives to be used in the construction of the sandwich (such as room-temperature-vulcanizing silicone rubber or contact cement) and could be repeatedly rolled onto a storage drum of reasonable size (eight to ten inches diameter) without yielding or sustaining fractures. From an availability

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standpoint, the material and associated skin thicknesses procured were as follows:

- Aluminum, 3 mils
- Mylar, 2½, 4½, and 8 mils
- Fiberglass, 9 mils

The two materials considered for the core, both of which offered desirable properties, were urethane foam and Vinylcell, a polyvinyl-chloride foam. The strength-to-weight ratio of the Vinylcell was much greater than that of the urethane foam. A problem of storing the rigid Vinylcell on the drum was encountered but solved by incorporating appropriate slits in the material so that it could be wrapped on the drum.

After the two possible materials were selected, it remained to select the configuration and the geometric parameters of the composite array so that the analytical and test phases could be started. Two conclusions were drawn at this point: first, from a thermal standpoint, the Vinylcell core would act as a thermal insulator, possibly resulting in extremely high, undesirable day-time array temperature; second, a continuous beam structure would be undesirable from a weight standpoint. It was decided to use a "waffle" structure, similar in appearance to floor joisting. The resultant configuration is shown in Fig. 2.

The physical dimensions, such as beam thickness, width, and length, were chosen on a practical basis from the standpoints of material availability and ease of fabrication. Since the thickness of the Velcro was fixed at about 0.1 inch, the only variables would be the thickness of the Vinylcell core material and the top and bottom skin thicknesses. It was desirable not to exceed a total beam thickness of one inch and, for test purposes, to utilize a 12-inch beam length and a 1-inch beam width. It was impractical to cut the Vinylcell spacer core to thicknesses under $\frac{3}{16}$ inch to any degree of accuracy. Thus, the maximum beam thickness would be 1 inch and the minimum about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch.

Design analysis and beam structure tests

A preliminary composite-beam analysis was undertaken to determine the governing parameters. Sample beams were then constructed for the purpose

of performing preliminary tests and subsequently comparing the failure data with the values computed by using classical structure computations for composite beams. The analytical approach, based upon composite structures, assumed that the inertia and stiffness of the beams were contributed by the skins only and that failure would occur due to buckling in the bottom skin when the beam (in a cantilever mode) was loaded at the free end. In order to minimize the gravitational effect, the beams were oriented in the test fixture so that the load (P) was applied to the free end parallel to the bench surface, as shown in Fig. 3.

At the outset, the array configuration was envisioned as a continuous-width arrangement with the Velcro "zipper" component located in the lower half of the structure. During the initial test phase, it was noted that this arrange-

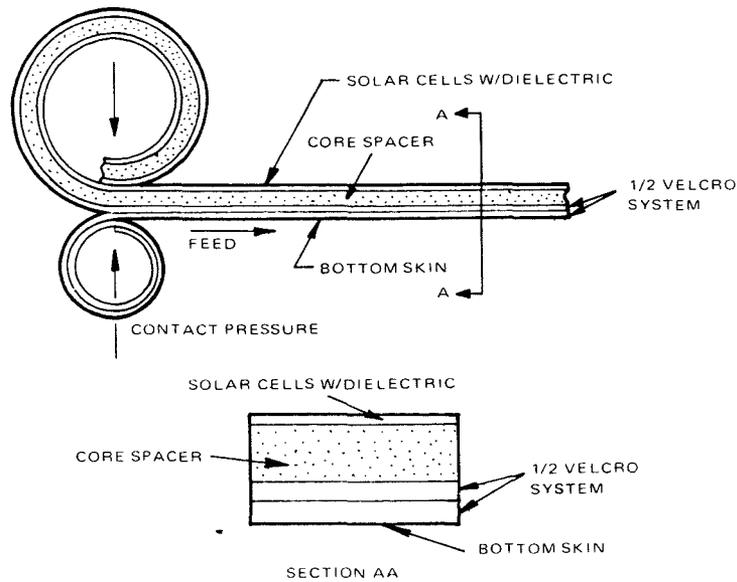


Fig. 1—Original concept for roll-up array.

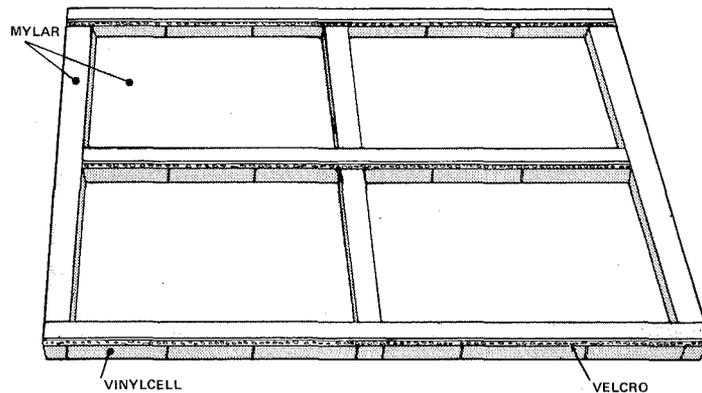


Fig. 2—"Waffle" structure for roll-up panels.

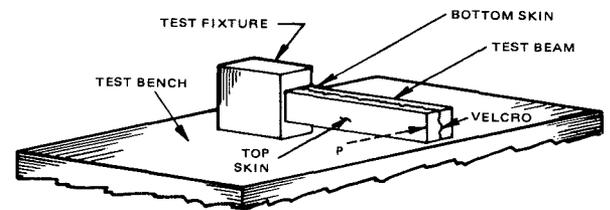


Fig. 3—Beam test setup.

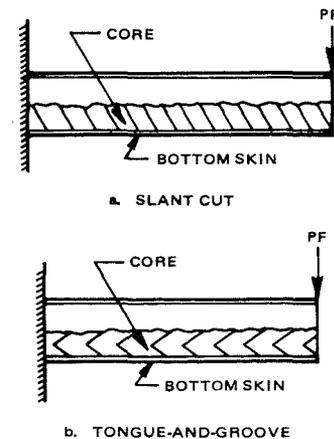


Fig. 4—Beam core configurations.

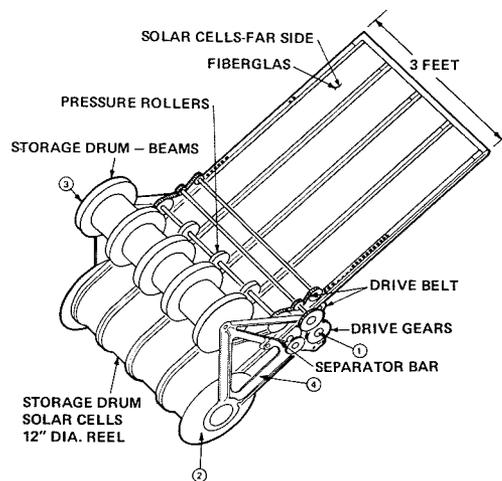


Fig. 5—Deploy-retract mechanism.

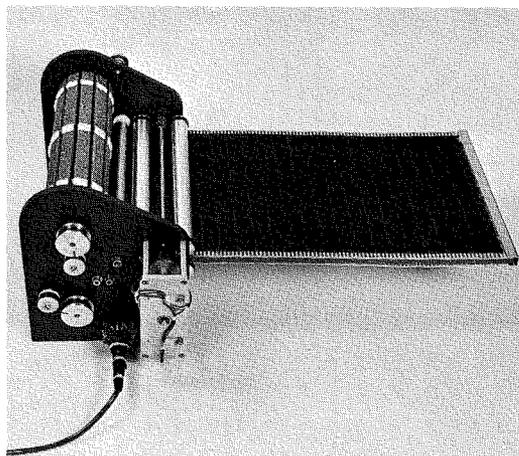


Fig. 6—Small-scale working model of deploy-retract mechanism.

ment was subject to more frequent local failure, since displacement of the Velcro hooks and pile became exaggerated to the extent that beam (bottom-skin) failure occurred well below the predicted capacity. Further, since the dynamic loads on the deployed array structure would be of a reversal type, it was desirable to construct both halves of the beam with equal geometry. Therefore, it was decided to reposition the Velcro component at the neutral beam axis (or geometric center). Also, because the roll-up capability was required, a slant-cut concept was introduced to simulate the proposed beam configuration during the test phase, as shown in the cross section of Fig. 4a.

While the slant-cut concept provided roll-up simulation, it also introduced the problem of low-shear transfer capability in the beam. For example, as the beam was loaded, displacement of the cut core sections would take place,

tending to accelerate compressive buckling of the bottom skin. In order to preclude this undesirable situation and further increase beam capability, a V-shaped, tongue-and-groove (TAG) concept was introduced as shown in Fig. 4b. This resulted in a considerable increase in the capacity of the beams. Tests showed that in every case the moment capacity of TAG beams was double that of the conventional slant-cut-core beams. Specifically, this meant that the deployed length capability of the TAG beams was greater than the slant-cut beams by a factor of $\sqrt{2}$, or a 41-percent increase in length. Thus, for a given array width, the deployed area and power output was increased by a total of 41 percent.

The results of the test program were then investigated to establish a basis for determining a mathematical model. This model—based on actual performance data gave correlation between predicted and actual failure loads to within ten percent for any particular family of beams.

Thermal analysis

The thermal analysis of the "waffle" array structure, based on the stringent requirements for the MOPS project, indicated that the steady-state array temperatures are almost independent of array waffle ratios (i.e., ratio of array width to total beam width). One major problem exists with low-mass solar-array structures (and in particular with the RCA roll-up structure), namely, the low nighttime array temperatures resulting from the low mass of the structure. With consideration to this problem, it was determined that the maximum orbital altitude is approximately 4500 nmi for a minimum allowable temperature of -120°C with a back-side emittance of 0.05. Conversely, a daytime steady-state array temperature of about 109°C is obtained with the same values of altitude and emittance. While the day and night array temperatures are not prohibitive for a 4500-nmi mission, the 19,000-nmi synchronous-orbit requirement cannot be satisfied, because the minimum night-time, steady-state, array temperature would be approximately -200°C . Such an extremely low temperature could deleteriously affect the solar cells with existing cell-interconnection design.

Deploy-retract system

An artist's concept of the deploy-retract system is shown in Fig. 5; the system is composed of the following four main elements:

- 1) *The drive system*, composed of a dc drive motor, power-take-off gearing, cog-belt drive pulleys, idler pulleys, cog belts, pressure rollers, and a separator bar.
- 2) *The solar-cell storage drum*, which houses the upper half of the array structure. The solar cells, a continuous dielectric skin, and the upper half of the support beams are located on this structure.
- 3) *The beam-storage drum*, which houses the bottom half of the structure. This half of the structure composes the bottom half of the support beams.
- 4) *The structure frame*, which provides a base to which all the subassemblies are secured, as well as an interface for attachment to the space-vehicle or carrier.

The operation of the system is simple. The two parts of the planar structure are unrolled from their respective storage drums by means of a cog-belt drive system; detents or slots are formed in the upper and lower parts of the array, into which the cog belts fit. The belts are synchronized and, when the drive motor is activated, cause the two parts of the array to be deployed or retracted in unison at a uniform rate. During the "deploy" phase, the pressure rollers provide the constant pressure necessary to effect interlock between the hooks and pile of the Velcro "zipper" system. Negator springs are incorporated in both storage-drum assemblies to provide constant-torque take-up, thereby aiding windup during the "retract" mode. The separator bar serves to disengage the hook-and-pile zipper interlock during retraction of the array.

Unique to this deploy-retract design is that it can be used with an array structure of varying sectional dimension. Since the efficient use of materials for the array is of great importance from the standpoints of both the weight and the power per unit weight, it would be undesirable to deploy an array of constant section thickness. This is because a greater thickness is required to meet the moment and stress capacity dictated by the wall or joint constraints than at other points in the array. To use this extra thickness where it was not required would impose a prohibitive weight penalty upon the entire array.

Therefore, a "floating" upper cog-belt drive was included in the system to permit displacement of the upper assembly (as the section thickness varies along its length) without causing a slackening of the cog belt. This innovation permits the utilization of an efficient, constant-stress array structure, corresponding to varying load demands.

During the course of the program, a small-scale working model of the deploy-retract device was designed and fabricated. This model is shown in Fig. 6. The purpose of the model was to prove out the drive concept and to determine various design parameters associated with integration of the proposed array structure. The model was automated to deploy and retract an 11 by 20-inch array continuously; as a demonstration device, it has operated for approximately 500 consecutive deploy-retract cycles (about 4½ hours of continuous operation) without a malfunction. For actual application in space, it is anticipated that a reliability level of about 50 cycles would be more than adequate.

Program results

Array structure evaluation

The array structure was quantitatively evaluated with regard to the beam moment capacity versus the section thickness. Results were plotted in the form of parametric curves of array length, area, and gross power versus *g* loading for various "waffle" ratios for the three types of solar cells (silicon, advanced-silicon, and cadmium sulfide). Typical curves are shown in Fig. 7. The curves were based on an array 1-foot wide made from composite fiberglass-Vinylcell-Velcro support beams. The beams had 9-mil fiberglass skins, a section thickness of 7/8-inch, and a width of one inch.

Since, at the outset of the investigation, the MOPS requirements were ambitiously imposed upon the RCA roll-up

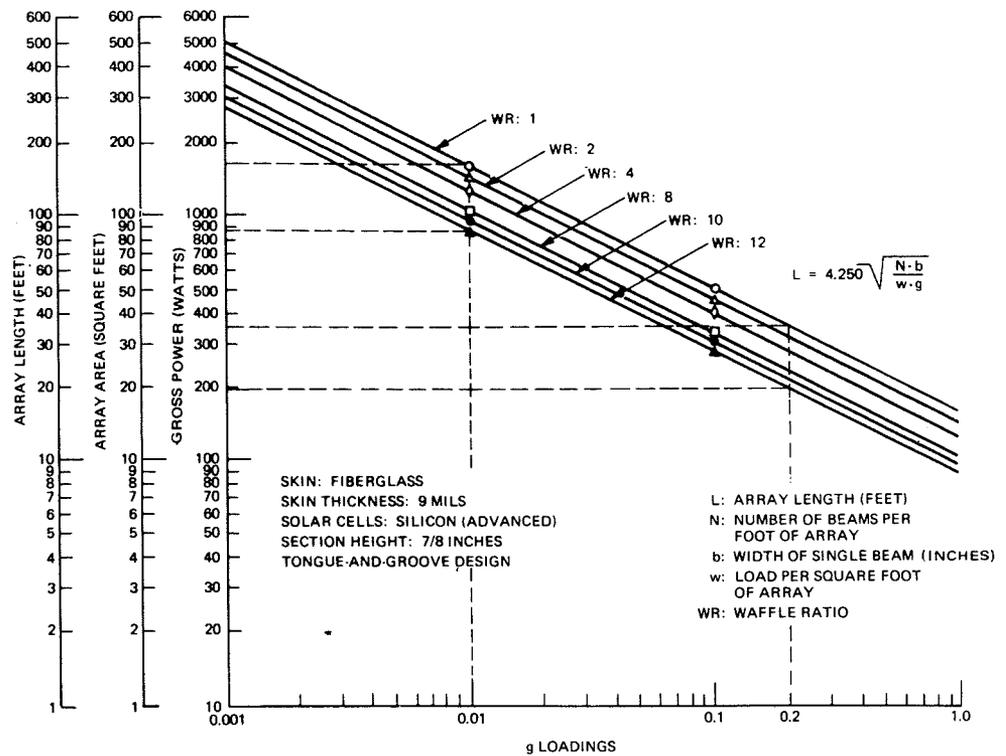


Fig. 7—Array area, gross power, and array length vs "g" loadings per foot width of array.

configuration, a comparison matrix (shown in Table I) is meaningful at this juncture. The matrix deals with the comparison of the parameters of the roll-up array with those of the conventional MOPS rigid honeycomb construction. The data in Table I is based upon a 0.01 *g* loading (MOPS attitude thrust load) and extrapolated values from curves developed during the program, for the equivalent to the MOPS power output of 5 kW for a 17-by 29.5-foot rigid-panel array section. Both arrays were considered to use silicon (advanced) solar cells.

Conclusion

The results of this program have demonstrated the feasibility of large, lightweight, planar structures capable of deployment and retraction in the form of the RCA roll-up solar array. While the RCA program was somewhat limited and ambitious in scope (competition has spent three years on similar programs), considerable progress

has been made. However, if the full potential of the device is to be realized, certain unanswered questions will have to be addressed.

The full system potential could be better realized by the incorporation in the structure of high-strength, monofilament, fiber-glass skins (with, perhaps, boron filaments), which would substantially increase the capability of the deployed area and, in turn, increase the watts-per-pound yield with an appreciable weight savings for a given "g" loading. "Live" solar cells, wiring, busses, etc., should be installed on the array structure to determine their compatibility with the structure and the deploy-retract mechanism.

Furthermore, an investigation of low-temperature solar-cell capability should be undertaken, since technical advancement in such an area would enhance the orbital-range capability of the roll-up solar array without imposing weight penalties.

Finally, a product engineering effort is required to optimize and ultimately space-qualify the system.

Acknowledgements

The author gratefully acknowledges the assistance of Messrs. W. Bernard, S. Cooper, R. D. Wilkes, and R. S. Wondowski and their invaluable contribution to the success of the program.

Table I—Comparison matrix

Structure	Array length (ft)	Array width (ft)	Array area (ft ²)	Unit weight (lb/ft ²)	Power (W)	Power/weight (W/lb)
Roll-up 10:1 waffle ratio; tongue-and-groove core spacer design	100	5	500	0.22	5000	45.0
Rigid-panel array	29.5	17	500	0.81	5000	12.0

An earth resources satellite

Dr. H. M. Gurk | B. P. Miller

The natural resources of the world become an increasingly critical concern to humanity as the world population expands. The importance of efficient use and conservation of these resources cannot be overstressed. The space technology developed over the past decade now makes possible a major step toward improved control of our food, water, and mineral resources. It is through a program such as the Earth Resources Satellite that the major benefits of space technology will be realized.

TWO DISTINCT TYPES of programs have evolved during the first decade of space investigation. The first of these, chronologically, is the Space Science and Technology programs, and the second is the Applications Satellites.

Space Science and Technology programs, beginning with the early Explorer and Vanguard spacecraft and continuing through the present-day lunar and planetary exploratory spacecraft and the manned spacecraft flights, provided the initial motivating force for today's space technology. They have led to many interesting and important scientific discoveries and have contributed to the development of our body of new knowledge.

Applications Satellites have used the fund of knowledge generated by the Space Science and Technology programs as a point of departure and have applied this knowledge to produce immediate and tangible benefits for mankind. They have provided essential information and services that could not be obtained in any other cost-competitive way. Three kinds of Applications Satellites are already providing information on an operational basis. These are the TIROS Meteorological satellites that have progressed through many successful launches to the third generation TIROS M, the Navigation satellites represented by TRANSIT, and many successful Communications satellites. A fourth kind, the Earth Resources Satellite (ERS), is now within the state-of-the-art and is perhaps the most important of these four. This satellite is ready now to make its contribution toward mankind's physical and economic well-being.

Potentials of an earth resources satellite

Mapping

The need for good maps in the development of natural and cultivated resources is an established fact. All developed countries recognize this and subsidize the issuance of maps. Yet, 70% of the small scale maps of the world are inadequate, and 30% are obsolete. The most modern land use map of the United States is 10 years old, and some areas of the United States have not been photographed in 20 years. No adequate hydrological map of this country exists at the present time. The ERS, with its high resolution television imaging system, will provide photo-image maps on a global basis.

As basic tools for natural-resources evaluation and conservation, maps are used for land management; airport, highway, and dam construction; flood control, soil conservation, and reforestation; fuel and mineral exploration; and studies on the quality and quantity of water.

Originally, such maps were made by ground-based surveying techniques; later, aircraft were used. Each technique has particular advantages with respect to specific kinds of maps, but each also has serious limitations. The use of a spacecraft with its greater and cheaper coverage of the earth's surface is a logical extension of present-day mapping techniques.

Fig. 1 shows a comparison of the costs of mapping the land areas of the Western Hemisphere by aircraft photography versus spacecraft photography. Not only is there a significant difference in the data-collection costs, but there are wide differences in the

actual map-making costs. For example, the number of photographs alone is higher for the aircraft by a factor of more than 1000. This adds considerable expense for the printing of the aircraft photos and also creates the related problem of making orthophoto mosaics from the individual aircraft photos. As shown by this example, the cost of mapping would be reduced by a factor of 6.

Land resources

About 756 million acres of public lands are managed by the Departments of Agriculture and Interior for grazing, timber growing, and recreation. Much of this land is a source of oil, gas, and other basic materials. The ERS data can provide better assessment of the vegetation content of the range lands and improve livestock use of these lands. The repetitive coverage of ERS photography can facilitate fire mapping and the identification of soil erosion and losses from burned areas. The detection of defoliation of forest resources by insects can be recognized, and gross patterns of insect and disease damage can be ascertained.

Water resources

The Departments of Agriculture and Interior, and the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, play major roles in the management of water resources for crop irrigation, power production, and recreation. These federal water management projects provide water for consumption, irrigation, and low-cost electricity. These agencies could use

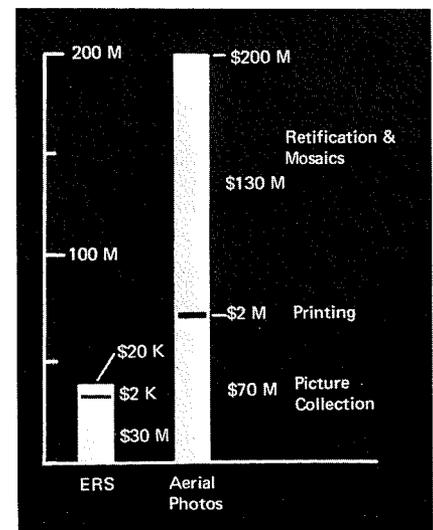


Fig. 1—Comparison of mapping costs for satellite and aerial photography.

ESR pictures to estimate the growth of the depth of snow, and this estimate could be used to improve predictions of water runoff for irrigation and power production. Floods annually cause millions of dollars of damage and the loss of many lives. Just as TIROS satellites are now used to track major storms, more detailed pictures from ERS could allow a rapid appraisal of flood overflow and damage after a major storm. The rapid collection and computerized processing of data from ground employed sensors by the ERS could also improve our national capability to predict the occurrence of floods. Comparison of the ERS photos before and after a natural disaster (such as a flood) would enable more accurate relief and corrective action. By space observation of plant vigor and detection of where soil begins to blow, the incipient presence of land drought damage can be measured. With ERS, the amount of water present at the surface of ponds and lakes can be directly estimated, and photo-image hydrological maps can be produced in a shorter period of time.

U.S. Geological Survey hydrologists have stated that ERS television pictures, combined with a knowledge of soil and drainage conditions, will be useful in detecting changes in surface moisture. Accurate surface moisture estimates help prevent crop damage by avoiding over- or under-irrigation and are thus important in upgrading the yield of the land.

Mineral and fuel resources

Our resources of minerals and fuels are being used much faster than they were accumulated by nature. In the past 30 years, we have used more coal and oil than in all previous history. We will repeat this process in the next 20 years. Concurrent with this unparalleled use of our natural resources, we find that the easily obtained rich deposits of these essential raw materials are rapidly being depleted. The ERS is a new and improved exploration tool for locating natural resources.

The planning for fuel and mineral exploration programs is based upon geologic maps, and ERS will assist in the preparation of up-to-date geologic maps. With the synoptic view provided by the satellite, it will be possible to



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received the BS in Aeronautical Engineering from Pennsylvania State University in 1950, and did post-graduate work in Aeronautical Engineering at the U.S. Air Force Institute of Technology in 1953 and 1954 and at Princeton University from 1957 to 1959. Mr. Miller is a graduate of the Cornell University Executive Development Program. From 1950 to 1953, as a Captain in the USAF, he was assigned to the Aircraft Laboratory, Wright Air Development Division. He then taught Fluid Dynamics and Thermodynamics at the U.S. Naval Academy. In 1956, he was appointed Head of the Thermodynamics group of the Academy's Department of Marine Engineering. He joined the RCA Special Systems and Development Department in Princeton in 1957, and transferred to the Astro-Electronics Division in 1958. There, on Project JANUS, he performed trajectory and orbital analyses and ascertained propulsion-system requirements. From 1959 through 1961, he was Project Engineer on a series of studies examining military applications of space systems. In 1961, Mr. Miller participated in the series of studies that eventually led to the RCA Ranger Project. With the organization of the RCA Ranger Project, he was appointed Group Leader, Mechanical Systems, and in 1963 was made Ranger Project Manager. Mr. Miller received one of the coveted NASA Public Service Awards in October 1964 for work on the six-camera television system used aboard the successful Ranger 7, 8, and 9 spacecraft. In 1966, Mr. Miller was appointed Manager of the RCA Earth Resources Satellite Program. Mr. Miller is an Associate Fellow of the American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics, an Assistant Editor of the *Journal of Spacecraft and Rockets*, and is a Registered Aeronautical Engineer.

trace geological fault lines beyond presently known limits, and identify exploration target areas with greater confidence. Since geologic mapping programs for resource explorations are undertaken by both the federal government and private industry, it is expected that a major benefit to both government and industry exploration programs will accrue from the ERS program.

Surface strip mining has been both a source of mineral resources and, in many areas, a mechanism for the systematic destruction of our environment.



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has been actively engaged in space systems, communication systems and mathematical analyses since 1952. Dr. Gurk received the PhD, MA, and BA in Mathematics from the University of Pennsylvania. During the past two years, Dr. Gurk has directed all technical work on an RCA study on the requirements, feasibility and preliminary design of an Earth Resources Observation Satellite (EROS). In addition, Dr. Gurk is responsible for advanced observation satellite systems analysis for meteorology and other applications. Prior to his current activities, Dr. Gurk was Imagery Systems Program Manager, conducting programs for the development of special imaging and display hardware. Prior to that, he directed the World Weather Watch Study conducted by RCA for the Department of Commerce to determine requirements and system tradeoffs for a global meteorological observation, communications, and processing system. Dr. Gurk has written or presented over twenty-five papers on numerical analysis, game theory, satellite observation and communications systems, advanced meteorological programs, and communications switching systems. Dr. Gurk is a member of the AIAA, the American Mathematical Society, and several other professional societies. For four years, he served as National Treasurer of the Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics.

The ERS can provide information in strip-mining areas about watersheds and surface patterns of land and will, in this manner, help in the reclamation of these areas.

The rental income and leases for oil and mineral production on public lands and the Outer Continental Shelf provide nearly \$800 million per year to the federal government. It has been estimated that the improved techniques for mineral exploration afforded by ERS will provide an annual cost benefit of over \$10 million per year in the area of government and

private mineral exploration for the US and approximately \$125 million per year for improved petroleum exploration.

Food, fish, and wildlife resources

According to the 1959 Yearbook of Agriculture, the U.S. population projection for 1975 ranges from 215 to 240 million, and for the year 2000, about 270 to 380 million. World population is expected to rise from its present level of 3 billion to more than 6 billion by the year 2000. In 1955, the usable land per person in the world was about 1.25 acres. According to the population projections, this usable-land figure will drop to about 0.5 acre by the year 2000.

The National Academy of Sciences has estimated that, in the U.S. alone, agricultural losses due to insects, disease, and fire exceed \$13 billion per year. It is clear that new techniques must be found to improve the yield of presently used arable land and to reduce the destruction of crops by insects, disease, and fire, in order to help food production keep pace with population growth and world needs.

Experiments conducted by the Department of Agriculture have shown that different crops have different visual characteristics when viewed in narrow parts of the visible light spectrum. These differences are caused by variations in the reflective and emissive properties of the plants. Thus, crop type can be differentiated by the comparison of pictures taken in different parts of the visible light spectrum. This same property can be used to determine whether a crop is healthy or stressed by disease or improper irrigation. Studies at the Astro-Electronics Division showed three television cameras should be used in the spacecraft to image three parts of the visible light spectrum simultaneously. Depending on user requirements, these pictures could be viewed as color separations or combined to form a color image.

The high-resolution ERS television cameras, operating in three spectral bands, will provide data that can be used to measure acreage, identify plant species, predict yield, and detect and identify crop stress. With a life in orbit of 1 year, ERS will pass over any location on the surface of the earth at least five

times per season. Considering the statistics of cloud obscuration of the ground, five opportunities per season provide a high probability of two cloud-free pictures per season over crop-bearing areas. The growth and vigor of crops can be estimated with two pictures per growing season. The spacecraft data, combined with data from ground calibration test sites, will enable the rapid detection of incipient crop damage or failure. Availability of this information on a global basis will permit, for the first time, truly accu-

rate estimates of world crop production. With global planning data, crop failures in one hemisphere can be assessed in time to compensate for these failures by plantings in the other hemisphere, thus reducing the possibility of world-wide crop failures. The National Academy of Sciences, in a study for NASA, has estimated that the global benefits from an ERS in the field of agriculture could be as great as \$45 million per year.

The oceans hold great promise for the solution of man's food problems, but

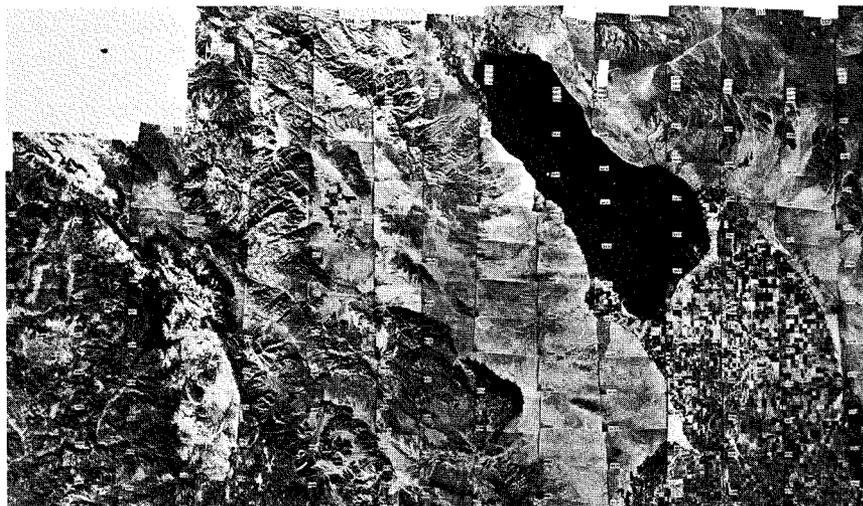
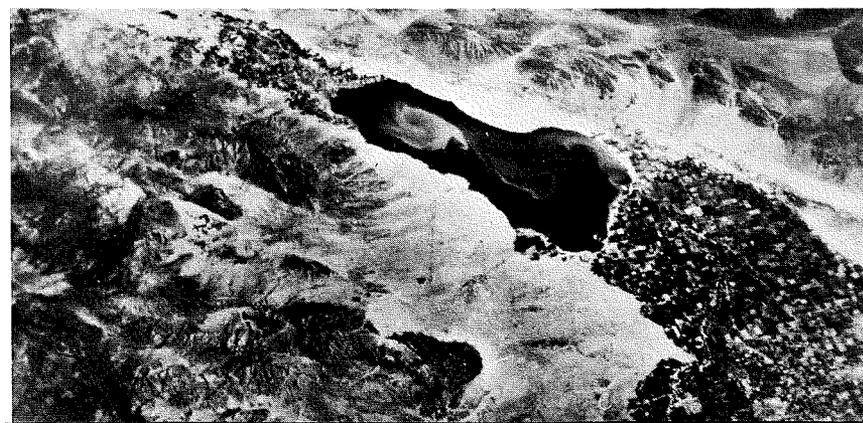


Fig. 2—Aerial mosaic of the Salton Sea.



Fig. 3 (above)—Gemini photo of the Salton Sea.

Fig. 5 (below)—Simulated satellite photo of the Salton Sea.



our water resources are endangered by man. Although no figures have been compiled on the estuarine water and land areas made unfit by pollution nor of the economic losses incurred, it is agreed that these areas and losses are substantial. Pollution of our waters has caused periodic mass fish kills in river and coastal waters.

Repeated observation of these water interfaces by ERS sensors will provide a synoptic view of pollution patterns. When coupled with data taken by more conventional ground observations, ERS pictures will improve the planning of corrective action for the protection of our fish resources.

The costs of air-pollution damage are impossible to estimate because of lack of certain knowledge about its effects on human health. ERS monitoring of contaminants flowing into the air from various sources can provide a control tool which could solve air pollution problems. Just as TIROS is providing clues about the movements of cloud formations and weather fronts, ERS could provide clues about the accumulation and movement of air-pollutant elements.

In the narrowest sense, we are no longer dependent upon game or wildlife for our survival. However, the degrading impact of technology on our environment has made game and wildlife entirely dependent upon man for survival. The ERS affords an opportunity for the application of space technology to the preservation of game and wildlife. Such projects as the survey of potholes or other small bodies of water that are nesting places for ducks can be expanded and performed periodically with the repetitive coverage afforded by an orbiting satellite. Planning for the National Wildlife Refuge System will be improved by the availability of the kind of refuge-area surveillance possible with ERS.

Systems concept

The concept of the use of a satellite to detect, measure, and manage natural resources on and beneath the surface of the earth has developed logically with the advancing state-of-the-art in space technology. This potential for satellites was indicated in

1963 by the use of TIROS II and III low-resolution meteorological pictures to detect and chart the ice breakup in the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River. The first higher-resolution photography of earth from space was achieved with the hand-held cameras used by the astronauts in the Mercury and Gemini programs. The use of television sensors for photo-image mapping of geographical phenomena was demonstrated by the highly successful Ranger, Surveyor, and Lunar Orbiter programs. The information extracted from such photographs, coupled with the rapidly advancing state of the remote-sensing art, points toward the practicality of obtaining operationally useful data in the fields of cartography, geology, land management, hydrology, and agriculture from a satellite.

In 1964, studies were started at the Astro-Electronics Division to identify the operational requirements and applications of an ERS system. The mission requirements associated with possible applications and the various kinds of sensors (visual, infrared, microwave, and others) that might be used to fulfill these requirements were considered. It became apparent that the primary source of data for the majority of missions should be pictures. Also, the real significance of these pictures could only be realized with many repetitive pictures of the same earth area through different seasons. Operational and cost analyses conducted during the study made evident the desirability of using television, rather than standard photographic sensors, for earth imaging with ERS. Television cameras have the capability of imaging repeatedly without the need for periodically replenishing photographic film or the requirement for physically recovering the film from the orbiting spacecraft.

Satellite operation and coverage

A satellite system has many specific advantages for collecting information about the earth's resources; the most obvious is global coverage. A satellite in near-polar orbit can view almost every part of the earth many times a year. Moreover, if the satellite orbit is properly chosen, the inconsistent illumination that is one of the major problems of aircraft photography can

be avoided. When pictures have been taken from an airplane, a considerable amount of time has usually elapsed between the taking of the first and last pictures. Because of this time lapse, the illumination conditions are different, and the differences in shadows and the edge effects make large-area mosaics difficult to interpret. An ERS in sun-synchronous orbit avoids this illumination variation because it has the same sun angle on all orbits. Thus, adjacent pictures taken from ERS can be pieced together to make a larger-area picture with no false-shading differences.

The high altitude ERS makes it possible to use a camera lens that has a small field of view and still cover a large earth-surface area of 100 x 100 miles in a single picture. The narrow-angle lens reduces the geometrical distortions in a picture. Its use in aircraft photography at the much lower altitudes limits the coverage of a single picture to about 1 x 1 mile, thus necessitating the piecing together of many pictures to obtain the large-area scene of a single ERS picture.

A good comparison of satellite and aircraft photos can be seen in Figs. 2 and 3. Fig. 2 is one of the excellent pictures taken by Gemini astronauts of the Imperial Valley region around the Salton Sea in California. The picture is about 60 miles across the bottom and somewhat larger across the top because it was taken at an oblique angle. Note the clarity of many of the small features in the picture. In particular, note the swirl patterns in the sea itself. Fig. 3 covers the same area with a mosaic of photographs taken from an aircraft. This 270-picture mosaic shows only about one-quarter of the single-photo Salton Sea picture

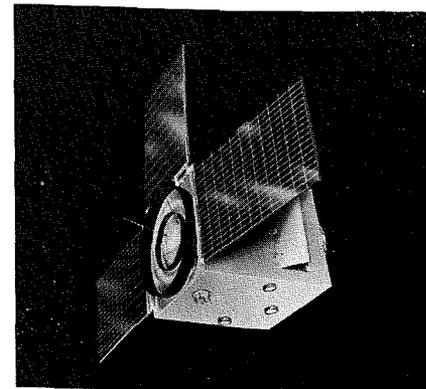


Fig. 4—Earth Resources Satellite configuration.

taken from Gemini. The mosaic is a much poorer, harder-to-interpret picture, and some of the features, particularly the swirl patterns in the sea, are not visible in the mosaic. This Gemini picture gives a good indication of what would be obtained with the ERS.

Satellite design

The most important feature of this initial ERS concept is that it uses existing and state-of-the-art equipments, as illustrated by Fig. 4. The spacecraft is the already-designed TIROS M, the third-generation meteorological satellite that will fly in early 1969. The ERS will use the same basic spacecraft and proven low cost Thor Delta Booster as TIROS M. For the initial ERS, the meteorological sensors of TIROS-M would be replaced by three high-resolution television cameras that take pictures in different spectral bands or colors. The spacecraft has space and power to accommodate additional sensing devices that will provide an inherent growth capability in the initial system.

Sensor subsystems

The initial ERS sensors will gather the kind of data that the geologists and geographers in the U.S. Geological Survey and the agronomists in the Department of Agriculture are used to handling. Three television cameras will take simultaneous pictures of the same scene in a different color of the visible light spectrum. Camera resolution, under good conditions, would permit detection of elements as small as 100 feet in a scene 100 miles by 100 miles. The resolution, or detail, provided by this camera is greater than ten times better than home television. Although certainly not the ultimate, this resolution in three different colors would offer a major benefit to our geologists, geographers, and agronomists. It is made possible by the new and successfully demonstrated RCA 2-inch Return Beam Vidicon Camera.

An important part of the initial ERS mission is the data collection and relay system. This is a communications system that is capable of interrogating various ground-based devices such as a stream flow gauges, snow depth gauges, or heat-measuring devices. An interesting feature of these sensors is their ability to provide

ground based measurements concurrently with the pictures taken from the orbiting ERS. The data from these ground-based sensing devices will be collected on the spacecraft and, like the picture data, will be either transmitted directly to the earth terminals or stored in a spacecraft magnetic tape recorder for later transmission. Data collection and relay devices of this type have already been tested by NASA on experimental satellites.

Ground data handling system

The ERS system includes ground stations to track and control the satellites and receive their data, as well as a data handling system. Existing government tracking and data acquisition stations in the continental U.S. will be able to handle the communications and control for the system. Additional recording equipment will be required in these stations for the high-resolution television pictures. This equipment consists of a standard high-performance video magnetic tape recorder and a new device to reproduce film copies of the high resolution television camera pictures. The latter device, a Laser-Beam Image Reproducer, has been built and demonstrated by RCA.¹

In addition, there must be a system to store, retrieve, distribute, and use the large amount of data collected by ERS. The requirements for such data handling functions are now being considered by the Department of Interior, and a satisfactory initial system patterned after other data centers can be available by the time of the first ERS launch. Even more important, the techniques for reducing the pictures and collected data are already in use in the U.S. Geological Survey, ESSA, and Department of Agriculture. Aerial photos in much greater quantities have been handled for many years by these agencies. There will probably be no more than 200,000 ERS pictures per year. The Departments of Agriculture and Interior each handle over one million aerial photographs per year, and ERS pictures with their consistent illumination and large format will be much easier to handle than are these.

A good idea of what an actual ERS picture will look like can be seen in Fig. 5. This is a copy of the Gemini

Salton Sea picture shown before. However, this picture was copied using the RCA 2-inch Return Beam Vidicon camera and Laser Reproducer. Note that this picture still retains all of the detail of the original Gemini photo, including the swirls and field details. The significant difference between this picture and the ERS pictures is that the Gemini picture was taken at an oblique angle, thus causing a loss of detail in those parts of the scene farthest from the camera.

The ERS television pictures will enable the viewer to see cultivated fields, inhabited areas, and geologically significant phenomena, but will not show small features that could cause concern over the invasion of individual privacy. Like the automatic picture taking television cameras of the TIROS meteorological satellites, the data transmitted from the ERS could be completely open and available to anyone desiring to participate in the program.

System implementation

RCA studies of the ERS have demonstrated that a satellite which can provide operationally useful earth resources data is within today's start-of-the-art in space technology. Our initial ERS design is based on the existing TIROS M meteorological satellite and would use the new 2-inch Return Beam Vidicon television camera for three-color pictures, a data relay system to read out data from ground-based sensors. It will meet the stated user requirements for high-resolution, repetitive, photo-image data. Techniques now used by agencies such as the Department of Interior and the Department of Agriculture can be used for the analysis of this initial ERS photo-image data, and the results will be immediately beneficial. The spacecraft would be launched with the Thor Delta booster.

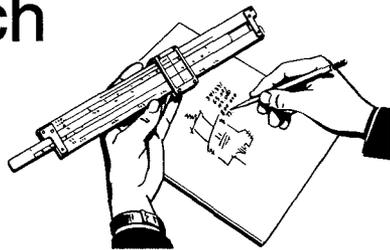
Advanced ERS designs would include a data-collection subsystem and a radar scatterometer. The first would enable the spacecraft to perform as a data relay for up to 200 ground-based sensors, and the second would perform an important oceanographic function: measuring the sea-state over the broad expanses of oceans.

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Engineering and Research Notes

Brief Technical Papers of Current Interest



Data Transfer Circuit

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Helbig

Davis

The circuit described in this paper can be used to transfer digital data between pieces of equipment despite any differences, either positive or negative, in the reference potentials of the equipment. The circuit is particularly applicable for transferring data over extended cable lengths between electronic data processing equipments.

Fig. 1 is a circuit diagram of a data transfer circuit. The data is fed into a power amplifier circuit which drives the primary winding of a transformer, which has a current capability matching that of the amplifier. In some instances, a current limiting resistor is needed in series with the amplifier and the transformer primary windings.

The voltage applied to the primary will be that of the data input. Each time the input voltage changes, a pulse is induced in the secondary. The polarities of the signals fed to the flipflop inputs T_s and T_c are determined by the diodes which shunt the two halves of the centertapped secondary winding of the transformer. Fig. 2 represents the waveform present at the junctions marked I, A, B, C and D, in Fig. 1.

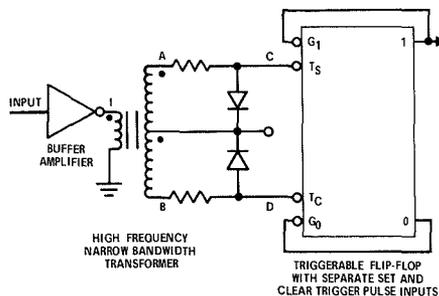


Fig. 1—Data transfer circuit.

Inputs D and C are thereafter fed to the T_s and T_c terminals, respectively, of the flip-flop. The flip-flop will assume a "set" condition anytime a negative pulse occurs on the T_s input, and will assume a "reset" condition whenever a negative pulse occurs on the T_c input. The five waveforms of interest are depicted in Fig. 3.

The DC isolation is accomplished by having the circuit to the right of, and including, the transformer secondary referenced to the received ground and power voltage; and the circuit to the

left of, and including, the transformer primary referenced to the transmitter ground and power voltage.

Because the signals are coupled by the flux linkage in the transformer, the respective ground potentials for the transmitter and receiver equipments are isolated up to the breakdown potential of the transformer. However, since the coupling of the transformer can be somewhat loose, it is possible to physically separate the two windings (e.g., by putting them on opposite sides of a toroidal core) resulting in very high potential difference isolation.

Where integrated circuits are used, thereby necessitating small signal potentials, the diodes used in the secondary network may be inexpensive high-speed units (e.g., the IN270). Silicon diodes are not recommended due to their high contact potential.

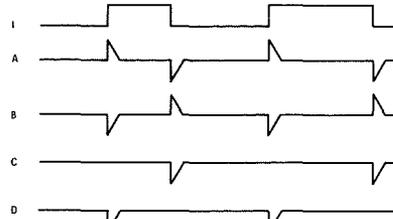


Fig. 2—Waveforms at I, A, B, C, and D of Fig. 1.

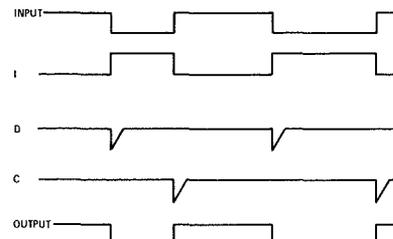


Fig. 3—Circuit timing diagram.

In some instances it may be necessary to place a resistor in circuit with the secondary of the transformer to prevent oscillation. The capacitances between the primary and secondary windings of the transformer must be minimized and balanced for the two secondary windings.

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Looking into an ME's bag of tricks: investment casting for airborne equipment

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The advantages of designing for investment castings* are numerous. Unfortunately for most product designers at RCA, the instability of configuration in the initial phases of the equipment tends to create an aversion to the casting-type enclosure. In addition, there has always been a tendency to associate a high penalty rate to the "locked-in" commitment of castings. This latter factor is true in both the cost and time frame of engineering changes. On the other hand, there is no questioning the fact that the price per unit of castings is far below that of any other fabricating process.

A specific example of this can be seen in the recent development of an airborne UHF receiver/transmitter. A requirement for the R/T was for shielded and "egg-crated" structures to contain the high frequency signals generated within the various circuit areas. In the development stages of the radio, these chassis were provided as brazed assemblies which required three to six weeks of procurement time. During this period, the circuits were verified within machined (milled) units—the cost of which was obviously astronomical and could only be justified on a one-shot basis. As the development phase continued, the brazed units were introduced and with them, the first R/T development

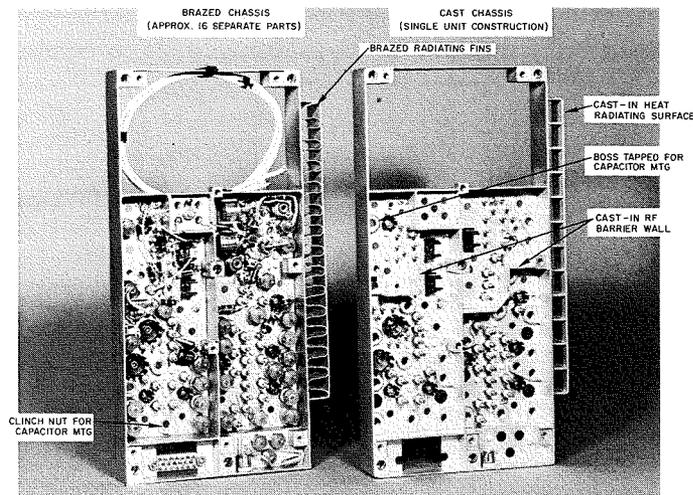


Fig. 1—Brazed chassis (left) and cast chassis (single unit construction).

models built and tested. It is at this point in the program, that the commitment to castings must be made. The decision is based on the cost, delivery potential (to support the build cycle), estimate of the design impact (with regard to environmental conditions, and design flexibility), and *above all*, with the cognizance and wary approval of the electrical designers. This latter condition develops from the belief that the casting approach precludes change and that the design is frozen. This idea is prevalent only because of an unawareness of the flexibility of investment casting techniques. The investment die developed for such castings is usually made up of many smaller sections, each of which can be readily altered to incorporate required changes. Its most outstanding feature is its ability to provide complex sections, including composite assemblies. An illustration of this can be seen in Fig. 1. The internal barrier shields and heat exchanging fins are provided as part of the basic casting. In addition, the internal bosses provide sufficient material to be tapped for chassis mounting feed-through capacitors. In previous designs of brazed aluminum units, the alternatives were the use of loose hardware or the assembly of press-fit nuts.

Investment casting is by no means the ultimate in the mechanical engineer's bag of tricks for chassis fabrication, nor is it intended to be. It is, however, a very useable and economically sound technique, whose application should not be overlooked in the usual haste to fabricate and deliver customer units.

Some of the advantages of investment casting to be remembered are:

- Complexity of shapes capable of being fabricated
- Low cost of unit
- Faithful reproducibility of unit
- Cast-in hole pattern
- Thin wall sections (0.020 in)
- Adaptability to change
- Minimization of tools, jigs and fixtures.

*Investment Casting (the "lost-wax" process) is a method of casting simple or intricate parts under controlled conditions so as to produce relatively accurate castings characterized by a smooth surface. The process involves making a wax pattern in a die and then using this pattern to make a mold out of an investment material. The investment is a mixture of refractory particles and a liquid, which will pour and harden or set at room temperature. When the mold has set, the wax pattern is melted and burned out.

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Thermal greases for heat conduction across sheet-metal interfaces

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A critical problem in electronic equipment for space and high altitude applications is the transfer of heat across bolted or clamped sheet metal surfaces. In some systems, the voids be-

tween the mating sheets of metal or filled with filler material; in others, a filler material is out of the question. This note covers the use of silicone-grease-type filler materials, the physical characteristics of the metallic materials, and their effects on the transfer of heat across mating sheet-metal boundaries.

Basic theory

In the transfer of heat across two bolted surfaces, with or without a filler in the interface, the basic equation that determines the amount of heat transferred has the form:

$$Q = T/R \quad (1)$$

where Q is heat transferred across sheet metal joint interface (W); T is the temperature differential across joint interface ($^{\circ}C$); and R is the thermal resistance of joint interface ($^{\circ}C/W$).

The thermal resistance of a sheet-metal-joint interface will usually have the form:

$$R = 1/hA_1 \quad (2)$$

where h is the joint interface conductance ($W/in^2\text{-}^{\circ}C$) and A_1 is the effective joint interface cross-sectional area across which heat is transferred (in^2).

In Eqs. 1 and 2, the critical parameter for transferring heat across sheet metal interfaces is the joint-interface conductance, h .

This parameter has considerable significance when the joint interface does not contain a filler material and the environment is essentially a vacuum. When a filler material is used, its significance is diminished somewhat because the filler material conducts heat across the joint in a more predictable manner, and the formulae of conduction heat transfer can be used. In this respect, the one-dimensional thermal resistance across an equivalent cross-sectional area may be theoretically predicted by the following:

$$R = t/KA_1 \quad (3)$$

where t is the apparent thickness of filler material between mating surfaces, (in), and K is the thermal conductivity of filler material ($W\text{-}in/in^2\text{-}^{\circ}C$); from Eqs. 2 and 3, the experimentally determined thermal conductance, h , may be related to an apparent filler material thickness (t) in the joint interface:

$$R = 1/hA_1 = t/KA_1 \quad \text{or} \quad h = K/t \quad (4)$$

Eq. (4) may likewise be used to approximate a joint-interface conductance, and subsequently a joint thermal resistance.

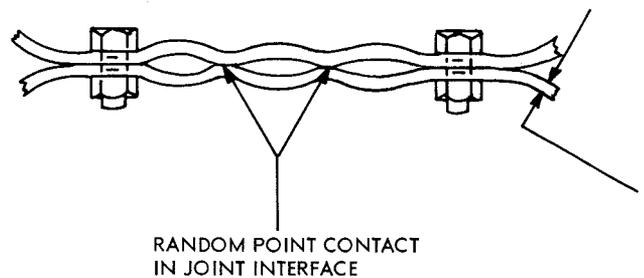


Fig. 1—Typical sheet-metal joint.

Discussion

Much work on metal-joint interface problems¹ seems to emphasize surface finish and surface flatness of mating surfaces, pressure between mating surfaces in the interface, method of manufacturing the mating surfaces (grinding, milling, turning, etc.), average temperature of the interface, environmental pressure of the interface, etc. The majority of this research has been performed using carefully prepared cylindrical specimens (1 to 3 in diameter) having large thicknesses (>1 in.) and uniform pressures applied.²⁻⁷ There has also been considerable work on

Table I—Published heat-transfer data regarding filled sheet-metal joints.

Material	Method of Mfg.	Surface Finishes (μ -in—RMS)	Pressure (lb/in^2)	Conductance (BTU/ft ² -hr-°F)	Estimated film thickness (in $\times 10^{-4}$)	Filler	Ref.
Al. 6061-T4	Milled	12 to 18	40	8500	4.87		
Al. 6061-T4	Turned	46 to 50	40	7600	5.44	DC-340 ^a	
Mag. AZ-31	Milled	100 to 125	40	8700	4.76		
Mag. AZ-31	Milled	100 to 125	40	1800	8.07	D.C. sil. ^a high vacuum grease	
Al. 6061-T4	Milled	12 to 18	80	8900	4.65		15
Al. 6061-T4	Turned	46 to 50	80	8600	4.82	DC-340	
Mag. AZ-31	Milled	100 to 125	80	9600	4.32		
Mag. AZ-31	Milled	100 to 125	80	2100	6.92	D.C. sil. ^a high vacuum grease	
Al. 6151	Ground	60 to 60	40	1700	6.07	Texaco oil	14
Al. 6151	Ground	60 to 60	80	2100	4.92	AED-120	
Brass Anaconda 271			100	3000	4.84		
Brass Anaconda 271			300	4000	3.64	D.C. sil. ^a high vacuum grease	6
Brass Anaconda 271			600	5500	2.64		
Al. 2024-T3	As received	40 to 180	10	1430	5.60		
Al. 2024-T3	As received	40 to 180	20	1540	5.21	G.E. ^b silicone high vacuum grease	15
Al. 2024-T3	As received	40 to 180	30	1585	5.26		

^a by Dow Corning Co., Hemlock, Mich.

^b by General Electric Co., Waterford, N.Y.

aircraft sheet-metal joints utilizing multiple rivets and/or bolts in the joint.⁷⁻¹⁰ As a result of these works, a prevalent notion is that an interface (sheet metal or otherwise) filled with a viscous material (silicone grease or other type) must be specially designed and fabricated based on all of the above factors. This note shows that this is not the case when working with sheet-metal mating surfaces, and that conventional design procedures and manufacturing techniques may be used in most instances.

Consider a typical sheet-metal joint held together with conventional screws, washers, and nuts (Fig. 1). The pressure created under the head of the screw will cause a separation or spreading of the sheet at some radial distance from the head of the screw.¹¹ While the pressure between the sheets under the head of the screw is quite high, the pressure beyond the head becomes quite low and may even be zero if the spacings between the screws are far enough apart. This point of spreading between the sheets is a nebulous factor dependent on several parameters of the two mating surfaces. However, this spreading phenomena does exist, is random in nature, and must be contended with in the transfer of heat across the interface created by the bolting or clamping action. To optimize the heat transfer, the void caused by the spreading phenomena may be filled. Many materials are available and utilized, but the more common ones for electronic applications are the common silicone greases and the specially loaded silicone heat transfer greases.

In the literature, there is a lack of heat transfer data regarding filled sheet-metal joints. Consequently, the only alternative is to attempt to extrapolate those data that have been generated with

the cylindrical specimen test set-ups. A tabulation of results of several papers is listed in Table I. All pertinent data to the tests are listed in addition to an *apparent filler material thickness (t)* in the joint. This apparent joint filler thickness was determined using Eq. 4, and is defined as the average filler material thickness between the mating surfaces. The apparent filler material thicknesses in the joints for the various samples do not vary widely for any given joint pressure. Further, sample surface finish, type of sample material, and type of filler material do not significantly affect apparent joint-filler thickness for the pressures concerned. Thus, the apparent filler material thickness appears to be always less than 0.001 in regardless of surface finish or type of filler and mating surface materials utilized for moderate pressures.

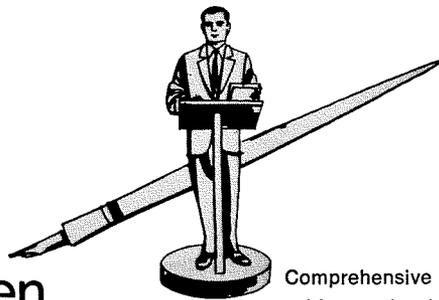
Assuming one encounters the problem of transferring heat across mating sheet-metal surfaces, how does one then go about the task of determining the heat-flow rate across the mating surfaces during the initial design phase of a program? There is the option of building a simulated joint interface and testing it to determine an average conductance, or one may calculate the thermal resistance (Eq. 2) utilizing a conductance based on other experimental data.²⁻¹⁰

Finally, one may assume an apparent filler material thickness (*t*). Since there will be a separation between the clamped metal sheets,¹¹ and since experience has shown the gap between the mating surfaces to vary between 0.002 to 0.004 in for bolts on one-inch spacings,^{16,18} one could assume a uniform gap between mating surfaces and make thermal resistance calculations on this basis.

From experience in applying this method,^{17,18} the conclusion can be made that finely machined surfaces with closely held flatness tolerances are not necessary when sheet metal joint interfaces are filled with a silicone grease. Further, when determining a thermal resistance (Eq. 3) for computational purposes, an apparent filler material thickness (*t*) of 0.003 to 0.005 in will prove quite satisfactory.

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AMPLIFICATION

GaAs AVALANCHE DIODE Amplifiers, Low-Noise Epitaxial—J. Collard, H. Kuno, A. Gobat (EC, Pr) IEEE Electron Devices Mtg., Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

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ANTENNAS

ANTENNA RADIATION PROPERTIES in Presence of Anisotropic Plasmas—M. P. Bachynski, B. W. Gibbs (LTD, Montreal) *Radio Science*, Vol. 13, No. 9; 9/68

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CIRCUIT ANALYSIS

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SWITCHING AND STORAGE CHARACTERISTICS of MIS Memory Transistors—J. T. Wallmark, J. H. Scott, Jr. (Labs., Pr) International Electron Devices Mtg.; Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

CIRCUITS, INTEGRATED

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COMPUTER APPLICATIONS

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COMPUTER SYSTEMS

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PROPERTIES, OPTICAL

ANISOTROPY of the Optical Constants and the Band Structure of Graphite—D. L. Greenaway, G. Harbeke (Labs., Pr) *Symposium on Anisotropy in Layer Structures*, Taormina, Italy; 9/18-20/68

Absorption Spectra of Mixed Photochromic Isomers, Procedure for Determining the, Not Requiring Their Separation—J. Blanc, D. L. Ross (Labs., Pr) *J. of Physical Chemistry*, Vol. 72, No. 8; 8/68

CATHODOLUMINESCENT POWER EFFICIENCY of Some Rare Earth Oxysulfide Phosphor Systems—P. N. Yocom, R. E. Shrader (Labs., Pr) *7th Rare Earth Research Conf.*, San Diego, Calif.; 10/28-30/68

CONDUCTION-BAND STRUCTURE in Anthracene Determined by Photoemission—J. Dresner (Labs., Pr) *Physical Review Letters*, Vol. 21, No. 6; 8/5/68

DYNAMIC SCATTERING: A new Electro-optical Effect in Certain Classes of Nematic Liquid Crystals—G. H. Heilmeyer, L. A. Zanon, L. A. Barton (Labs., Pr) *Proceedings of the IEEE*, Vol. 56, No. 7; 7/68

ELECTRON PARAMAGNETIC RESONANCE STUDIES of Dye-Sensitized Zinc Oxide Layers—S. Larach, J. Turkevich (Labs., Pr) *International Conf. on Electrophotography*, Rochester, N.Y.; 9/5/68

FABRY-PEROT ANALYSIS of the Acoustoelectric Interaction in CdS—R. W. Smith (Labs., Pr) *International Conf. on Light Scattering Spectra of Solids*, N.Y.; 9/3-7/68

LUMINESCENT RARE EARTH OXY-SULFIDES, Some Properties of the—P. N. Yocom, R. E. Shrader (Labs., Pr) *7th Rare Earth Research Conf.*, Coronado, Calif.; 10/28-30/68

OPTICAL RADIATION DETECTION Devices, Materials for—R. E. Simon (EC, Pr) *Symposium on Photosensitive Materials for Electronic Applications*, ESC, Montreal, Canada; 10/6-11/68

OPTICAL ROTARY EFFECT in the Nematic Liquid Phase of p-Azoxyanisole—R. Williams (Labs., Pr) *Physical Review Letters*, Vol. 21, No. 6; 8/5/68

RAMAN SCATTERING in Ferromagnetic CdCr₂Se₄—G. Harbeke, E. F. Steigmeier (Labs., Pr) *International Conf. on Light Scattering Spectra of Solids*, N.Y.; 9/3-7/68

SINGLE CRYSTAL BISMUTH TITANATE, Some Electrical and Optical Properties of—G. W. Taylor (Labs., Pr) *Electrochemical Society Mtg.*, Montreal, Canada; 10/7-9/68

SOLUTION-GROWN GaP DIODES, The Effect of the Donor Concentration on the Optical Efficiency of—H. Kressel, I. Ladany (Labs., Pr) *Solid-State Electronics*, Vol. 11; 1968

STOICHIOMETRIC MAGNESIUM ALUMINATE SPINEL SINGLE CRYSTALS, Optical, Dielectrical and Structural Properties of—C. C. Wang, M. T. Duffy (Labs., Pr) *Symposium on Solid-State Chemistry*, American Chemical Society, 156th National Mtg., Atlantic City, N.J.; 9/9/68

TUNABLE OPTICAL DETECTION of Acoustical Phonons Using a Paramagnetic Impurity as an Intermediary Agent—C. H. Anderson (Labs., Pr) *International Conf. on Light Scattering Spectra of Solids*, New York University; 9/3-6/68

RADAR

EFFICIENT ADAPTIVE RADAR DETECTION in Extended Clutter Target Environments, Signal Processing Concepts for—Dr. H. M. Finn (MSR, Mrstn) *15th Technical Mtg. of the AGARD Avionics Panel*; 9/68

RADIATION DETECTION

OPTICAL RADIATION DETECTION Devices, Materials for—R. E. Simon (EC, Pr) *Symposium on Photosensitive Materials for Electronic Applications*, ESC, Montreal, Canada; 10/6-11/68

RADIATION EFFECTS

IONIZING RADIATION in Silicon-Based Devices, The Effects of—K. H. Zaininger (Labs., Pr) *IMS Electronic Materials Conf.*, Chicago, Illinois; 8/11-14/68

RECORDING

RECORD-GROOVE WEAR—J. G. Woodward (Labs., Pr) *Stereo Review*; 10/68

SHOCK AND VIBRATION DATA, Techniques for Recording—A. S. Baran (AED, Pr) *8th Natl. Ann. Conf. on Environmental Effects on Aircraft & Propulsion Sys.*, Bordentown, N.J.; 10/9/68

STEREO/MONO DISC COMPATIBILITY, A Survey of the problems—M. L. Whitehurst (CES, Indpls) *Audio Engineering Soc., J. Audio Engineering Society*; 8/12/68

RECORDING, IMAGE

EXPOSURE CHARACTERISTICS of Thin Window Cathode Ray Tubes on Electrofax Paper—M. M. Sowiak, D. A. Ross (Labs., Pr) *International Conf. on Electrophotography*, University of Rochester, Rochester, N.Y.; 9/4-6/68

MULTI-ELEMENT SELF-SCANNED MOSAIC SENSORS—P. K. Weimer, W. S. Pike, G. Sadasiv, F. V. Shallcross (Labs., Pr) *IEEE Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

PRECISE EDITING OF TELEVISION TAPE, A New System for—J. R. West (CESD, Cam) T. V. Bolger (CESD, Ch Hill) *IEEE Fall Symposium*, Washington, D.C.; 9/19-21/68

PRECISE EDITING OF TELEVISION TAPE, A New System for—J. R. West (CESD, Cam) T. V. Bolger (CESD, Ch Hill) *International Broadcasting Convention*, London, England; 9/9-13/68

THIN-FILM IMAGE SENSOR with Integrated Addressing Circuits, A 256x256 Element—P. K. Weimer, G. Sadasiv, W. S. Pike, L. Meray-Horvath (Labs., Pr) *1968 Government Microcircuit Applications Conf.*, (GOMAC) Washington, D.C.; 10/1-3/68

RELIABILITY

RELIABILITY TECHNIQUES and Their Role in Program Optimization—B. Tiger (DCSD, Cam) *7th Annual Reliability and Maintainability Conf.*, San Francisco, Calif.; 8/14-17/68

SOLID-STATE DEVICES

COMBINING SOLID STATE SOURCES, New Technique for—M. Breese, D. Staiman, W. T. Patton (MSR, Mrstn) *IEEE J. of Solid Circuits for Publication*, Vol. SC-3, No. 3; 10/68

EFFICIENCY OF Zn and O DOPED GaP DIODES, The Influence of Compensation on the—I. Ladany (Labs., Pr) *Recent Newspaper session of the Montreal Electrochemical Society Meeting*, Montreal, Canada; 10/6-11/68

EVAPORATED THIN-FILM DIODE STRAIN SENSOR—R. M. Moore, C. J. Busanovich, F. Koziellec (Labs., Pr) *AUDIO Engineering Society Convention*, New York City; 10/21/68

GaAs AVALANCHE DIODE Amplifiers, Low-Noise Epitaxial—J. Collard, H. Kuno, A. Gobat (EC, Pr) *IEEE Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

Ge(Li) GAMMA-RAY DETECTORS, On the Origin of Leakage Current in—R. J. McIntyre (LTD, Montreal) *IEEE Trans. Nuclear Science*, Vol. 15, No. 5; 10/68

Ge(Li) DETECTORS as a Function of Clean-up, Resolution and Efficiency of—R. M. Green, P. P. Webb (LTD, Montreal) *APS Spring Meeting*, Washington, D.C.

GERMANIUM PHOTODIODE with Extended Long-Wavelength Response—D. P. Mathur, R. J. McIntyre, P. P. Webb (LTD, Montreal) *IEEE International Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/68

HETEROJUNCTION DIODE STRAIN SENSOR—R. M. Moore, C. J. Busanovich (Labs., Pr) *Solid State Sensors Symp.*, Minneapolis, Minn.; 9/12-13/68

HORIZONTAL-DEFLECTION AND HIGH-VOLTAGE SUPPLY for Color Television Receivers, Semiconductor—L. C. Ruth (EC, Hr) *Fernseh-Technische Gesellschaft Annual Symposium*, Saarbrücken, Germany; 10/8/68

LAMINATED OVERLAY TRANSISTOR, A Status Report—R. Amatea, H. Becke, J. P. White (EC, Som) *IEEE Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

LINEAR FREQUENCY TRANSLATION Utilizing Schottky Barrier Diodes, A System of—H. H. Goldberg (DCSD, Cam) *Thesis*, U. of Pennsylvania; 10/68

MERCURY-ARC-LAMP BALLASTING, Solid-State—P. Schiff (EC, Som) *Electronics*; 8/4/68

MICROWAVE TRANSISTORS—H. C. Lee (EC, Som) *University of Michigan Summer Course*; 8/16/68

MULTI-ELEMENT SELF-SCANNED MOSAIC SENSORS—P. K. Weimer, W. S. Pike, G. Sadasiv, F. V. Shallcross (Labs., Pr) *IEEE Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

MULTI-ELEMENT SILICON PHOTODIODES for Detection at 1.06 um, Improved—H. C. Sprigings, R. J. McIntyre (LTD, Montreal) *IEEE International Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/68

PLASMA-GROWN ALUMINUM OXIDE, MOS Transistors and Integrated Circuits with—A. Waxman, K. H. Zaininger (Labs., Pr) *1968 International Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

SATURATING TRANSISTOR EMITTER FOLLOWER—D. C. Bussard (DCSD, Cam) *RCA Technical Notes*, TN-771; 9/25/68

SCR TRIGGER AND CIRCUITS, Design Considerations for—D. E. Burke, J. M. S. Nielson, J. V. Youshka (EC, Som) *Electronic Equipment Engineering*; 10/68

SELF-CONSISTENT REGIONAL APPROACH to Computer-Aided Transistor Design—R. B. Schilling (EC, Som) *IEEE Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

SILICON-ON-SAPPHIRE DEVICES—C. W. Mueller, F. P. Heiman (Labs., Pr) *Government Microcircuit Applications Conf.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/1-3/68

SOLID-STATE pH METER—R. C. Denison (CESD, Cam) *Popular Electronics*; 11/68

STRAIN SENSOR, Thin-Film Diode—R. M. Moore, C. J. Busanovich (Labs., Pr) *1968 International Electron Devices Mtg.*, Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

THIN-FILM IMAGE SENSOR with Integrated Addressing Circuits, A 256x256 Element—P. K. Weimer, G. Sadasiv, W. S. Pike, L. Meray-Horvath (Labs., Pr) *1968 Government Microcircuit Applications Conf.*, (GOMAC) Washington, D.C.; 10/1-3/68

TUBES VS SOLID STATE at Microwaves—H. J. Wolkstein (EC, Hr) *IEEE Student Journal*; 7/68

WELL-TYPE Ge(Li) DETECTOR—P. P. Webb (LTD, Montreal) *IEEE 15th Nuclear Science Symposium*, Montreal; 10/68

SPACE NAVIGATION

TRACKING, TELEMETRY, AND COMMAND—Dr. B. E. Keiser (MSR, Mrstn) *Space Aeronautics*, Vol. 50, No. 2; 7/31/68

SPACECRAFT

EARTH RESOURCES SATELLITE—B. P. Miller, H. Gurk (AED, Pr) *19th IAF Congress*, New York N.Y.; 10/14/68

ENVIRONMENT SURVEY SATELLITE, TIROS M—R. Hoedemaker (AED, Pr) *IEEE Student Branch Rutgers University*, New Brunswick, N.J.; 10/9/68

STANDARDIZATION

MEASUREMENT AGREEMENT Comparison Committee C-5, 1967-1968 Report of the—H. S. Ingraham (DCSD, Cam) *1968 National Conf. of Standards Labs*, Boulder, Colo.; 8/26-29/68

SUPERCONDUCTIVITY

β -TUNGSTEN SUPERCONDUCTORS, Characteristic Parameters of—G. D. Cody, R. W. Cohen, L. J. Vieland (Labs., Pr) *11th Conf. on Low Temperature Physics*, St. Andrews, Scotland; 8/22-29/68

CRYOELECTRIC CONTENT-ADDRESSABLE MEMORIES Using Flux-Shuttling Nondestructive Readout—S. A. Keneman (Labs., Pr) *J. of Applied Physics*, Vol. 39, No. 6; 5/68

ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVE PROPAGATION in Superconductors—P. Bura (DCSD, Cam) *RCA Review*; 9/68

EXCITATION OF ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES in Superconducting Junctions by Longitudinal Microwave Phonons—B. Abeles (Labs., Pr) 11th Conf. on Low Temperature Physics, St. Andrews, Scotland; 8/22-29/68

GRANULAR SUPERCONDUCTING ALUMINUM FILMS, Microwave Conductivity of—R. V. D'Aiello, S. J. Freedman (Labs., Pr) 1968 Applied Superconductivity Conf., Gatlinburg, Tenn.; 10/28-30/68

MAGNET, A 1.5-inch-Bore 150-KG—H. C. Schindler (EC, Hr) Applied Superconductivity Conf., Gatlinburg, Tenn.; 10/28-30/68

MAGNET, Propagation Studies in Vapor-Deposited Nb₃Sn—E. R. Shrader (EC, Hr) Applied Superconductivity Conf., Gatlinburg, Tenn.; 10/28-30/68

MAGNET, Pumped Helium Tests of a 51-cm-Bore Nb₃Sn—E. R. Shrader (EC, Hr) Applied Superconductivity Conf., Gatlinburg, Tenn.; 10/28-30/68

MICROWAVE PHONON-ELECTRON INTERACTION in Normal and Superconducting Metals—B. Abeles (Labs., Pr) IEEE Symposium, Yonkers, New York; 9/24/68

QUENCHING OF SUPERCONDUCTING FILMS by Transverse Microwave Phonons—B. Abeles (Labs., Pr) 11th Conf. on Low Temperature Physics, St. Andrews, Scotland; 8/22-29/68

SUPERCONDUCTIVE TUNNELING, Device Applications of—B. N. Taylor (Labs., Pr) *J. of Applied Physics*, No. 39, No. 6; 5/68

TYPE-II SUPERCONDUCTORS, The Pinning Potential and High-Frequency Studies of—J. I. Gittleman, B. Rosenblum (Labs., Pr) *J. of Applied Physics*, Vol. 39, No. 6; 5/68

VORTICES in Type II Superconductors, The Effective Mass of—B. Rosenblum, J. Gittleman, A. Rothwarf (Labs., Pr) 11th Conf. on Low Temperature Physics, St. Andrews, Scotland; 8/22-29/68

TELEVISION BROADCASTING

COLOR CAMERA, RCA TK-44A Live—R. C. Parkhill (CESD, Cam) Society of TV Engineers, Los Angeles, Calif.; 9/19/68

COLORIMETRIC PERFORMANCE of Color TV Cameras, Evaluation of—C. A. Johnson (CESD, Cam) IEEE Fall Symposium, Washington, D.C.; 9/19-21/68

TELEVISION EQUIPMENT

LENS DESIGN for Control of Ultrasonic Energy—J. G. Ziedonis (ME, Trenton) IEEE Ultrasonic Symposium, New York, IEEE Proceedings; 9/25/68

LOW-LIGHT-LEVEL TELEVISION—R. J. Gildea (ASD, Buri) SEER Colloquium, Moorestown, N.J.; 8/8/68

TUBES, ELECTRON

HIGH-GAIN FIRST-DYNODE PHOTOMULTIPLIER, The Performance of—G. A. Morton, H. M. Smith, H. R. Krall (EC, Pr) IEEE Nuclear Science Symposium, Montreal, Canada; 10/23-25/68

PENCIL TUBES and Cavities for Air Traffic Control—E. Rose, O. Johnk (EC, Hr) IEEE Electron Device Mtg., Washington, D.C.; 10/23-25/68

PERMA-CHROME COLOR PICTURE TUBE, Development of the—R. H. Godfrey, T. M. Shrader, R. C. Demmy (EC, Lanc) *IEEE Trans. on Broadcast and TV Receiver*; 9/68

PHOTOCONDUCTIVE TUBES in Color Telecine Applications, Characteristics of—Dr. H. N. Kozanowski (CESD, Cam) International Broadcasting Convention, London, England, *Convention Program*; 9/9-13/68

THIN WINDOW CATHODE RAY TUBES on Electrofax Paper, Exposure Characteristics of—M. M. Sowiak, D. A. Ross (Labs., Pr) International Conf. on Electrophotography, University of Rochester, Rochester, N.Y.; 9/4-6/68

TUBES VS SOLID-STATE at Microwaves—H. J. Wolkstein (EC, Hr) *IEEE Student Journal*; 7/68

TUBE COMPONENTS

GETTER ACTIVITY in Vacuum Devices, Method for Determining—J. J. Maley, J. J. Moscony (EC, Lanc) American Vacuum Society Mtg., Pittsburgh, Pa.; 10/29-11/1/68

Author Index

Subject listed opposite each author's name indicates where complete citation to his paper may be found in the subject index.

ASTRO-ELECTRONICS DIVISION

Bacher, J. energy conversion
Baran, A. S. environmental engineering
Baran, A. S. recording (techniques & materials)
Beierschmitt, A. control systems
D'Arcy, J. A. education (& training)
D'Arcy, J. A. management
Fagan, J. environmental engineering
Gurk, H. geophysics
Gurk, H. spacecraft (& space missions)
Hoedemaker, R. geophysics
Hoedemaker, R. spacecraft (& space missions)
Miller, B. P. geophysics
Miller, B. P. spacecraft (& space missions)
Rusta, D. energy conversion (& power sources)
Scott, R. R. environmental engineering

AEROSPACE SYSTEMS DIVISION

Barrett, W. mathematics
Barry, R. F. checkout
Borgioli, R. C. mathematics
Bucknar, B. circuits, integrated
Carver, O. T. checkout
Carver, O. T. management
Clay, B. R. displays
Congdon, F. computer systems
DeBruyne, P. laboratory techniques
DiMarzio, A. W. mathematics
Galton, E. B. management
Gildea, R. J. television equipment
Greenspan, A. M. checkout
Kornstein, E. lasers
Orenberg, A. checkout
Palmer, E. education
Smith, B. D. management
Wallner, E. mathematics
Wetzstein, H. lasers

CONSUMER ELECTRONICS DIVISION

Whitehurst, M. L. recording

COMMERCIAL ELECTRONIC SYSTEMS DIVISION

Bolger, T. V. recording, image
Bolger, T. V. recording, image
Clark, R. N. antennas
Colby, N. C. communication, digital
Dennison, R. C. solid-state devices
Dennison, R. C. laboratory techniques
Dennison, R. C. mechanical devices
Hopkins, G. C. communications systems
Johnson, C. A. optics
Johnson, C. A. television broadcasting
Kozanowski, H. N. tubes, electron
Musson, D. R. communications systems
Parkhill, R. C. television broadcasting

Siukola, M. S. antennas
West, J. R. recording, image
West, J. R. recording, image

MEDICAL ELECTRONICS

Ziedonis, J. G. optics
Ziedonis, J. G. television equipment

DEFENSE COMMUNICATIONS SYSTEMS DIVISION

Beinert, J. control systems
Bura, P. circuits, integrated
Bura, P. electromagnetic waves
Bura, P. superconductivity
Bussard, D. C. circuit analysis
Bussard, D. C. solid-state devices
Canale, S. management
Canale, S. reliability
Ernst, R. circuit analysis
Ernst, R. communications components
Goldberg, H. H. mathematics
Goldberg, H. H. solid-state devices
Ingraham, H. S. standardization
Merson, L. N. circuit analysis
Pan, W. Y. circuit analysis
Pan, W. Y. communications components
Schmidt, A. mathematics
Tiger, B. reliability
Torrione, P. circuit analysis
Torrione, P. communications components

DEFENSE MICROELECTRONICS

Danis, A. H. circuits, integrated
Danis, A. H. properties, molecular
Keller, K. R. circuits, integrated
Topfer, M. L. circuits, integrated
Topfer, M. L. properties, molecular
Topfer, M. L. circuits, integrated
Topfer, M. L. properties, molecular
Topfer, M. L. circuits, integrated
Topfer, M. L. properties, molecular
Yung, A. K. circuits, integrated

ELECTRONIC COMPONENTS

Agosto, W. N. displays
Ahrns, R. W. circuits, integrated
Ahrns, R. W. circuits, integrated
Amatea, R. solid-state devices
Becke, H. solid-state devices
Berry, T. F. properties, mechanical
Brous, J. circuits, integrated
Brown, R. A. properties chemical
Buckley, E. G. circuits, integrated
Burke, D. E. solid-state devices
Buzzard, R. J. environmental engineering
Caplan, S. displays
Caplan, S. displays
Carley, D. R. circuits, integrated
Carley, D. R. communications components
Chin, T. N. displays
Collard, J. amplification
Collard, J. solid-state devices
Demmy, R. C. tubes, electron
Dingwall, A. G. F. circuits, integrated
Dingwall, A. G. F. circuits, integrated
Eastman, G. Y. environmental engineering
Eastman, G. Y. lasers
Eastman, G. Y. environmental engineering
Elsea, A. R. displays
Feryszka, R. circuits, integrated
Gobat, A. amplification
Gobat, A. solid-state devices
Godfrey, R. H. tubes, electron
Hanchett, G. circuits, integrated
Hanchett, G. communications systems
Hanchett, G. control systems
Harbaugh, W. E. environmental engineering
Harbaugh, W. E. energy conversion
Harbaugh, W. E. energy conversion
Harbaugh, W. E. environmental engineering
Hegy, I. displays
Johnk, O. tubes, electron
Kaplan, L. circuits, integrated
Kaplan, L. communications components
Katz, S. circuits, integrated
Katz, S. circuits, integrated
Keller, K. R. circuits, integrated
Klein, R. I. displays
Krall, H. R. tubes, electron
Kuno, H. amplification
Kuno, H. solid-state devices
Lee, H. C. solid-state devices
Longsdorff, R. W. energy conversion

Longsdorff, R. W. environmental engineering

Maley, J. J. tube components
Mao, R. displays
Mao, R. displays
Mendelson, R. M. circuits, integrated
Morton, G. A. tubes, electron
Moscony, J. J. tube components
Murray, L. A. displays
Murray, L. A. displays
Nielsen, J. M. S. solid-state devices
Raag, V. energy conversion
Robe, T. J. circuits, integrated
Robe, T. J. communications components
Rose, E. tubes, electron
Rosenthal, D. properties, chemical
Ruth, L. C. solid-state devices
Samuel, R. checkout
Samuel, R. checkout
Saxton, A. D. properties, chemical
Schiff, P. solid-state devices
Schilling, R. B. computer-applications
Schilling, R. B. solid-state devices
Schindler, H. C. superconductivity
Schrader, E. R. superconductivity
Schrader, E. R. superconductivity
Scott, R. A. computer storage
Shrader, T. M. tubes, electron
Simon, R. E. properties, optical
Simon, R. E. radiation detection
Smith, H. M. tubes, electron
Sobol, H. circuits, integrated
Sobol, H. communications components
Turner, R. C. energy conversion
Turner, R. C. environmental engineering
Weinberg, G. communications components
White, J. P. solid-state devices
White, R. computer storage
Wolkstein, H. J. communications systems
Wolkstein, H. J. solid-state devices
Wolkstein, H. J. tubes, electron
Yonushka, J. V. solid-state devices
Yung, A. K. circuits, integrated
Yung, A. K. circuits, integrated

INFORMATION SYSTEMS DIVISION

Gallager, J. B. circuits, packaged
Gallager, J. B. mechanical devices

LABORATORIES

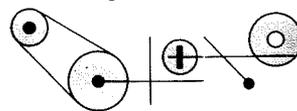
Abeles, B. properties, atomic
Abeles, B. superconductivity
Abeles, B. electromagnetic waves
Abeles, B. superconductivity
Abeles, B. electromagnetic waves
Abeles, B. superconductivity
Abrahams, M. S. properties, surface
Almeleh, N. lasers
Anderson, C. H. properties, optical
Appert, J. R. properties, molecular
Baltzer, P. K. properties, magnetic
Barton, L. properties, molecular
Barton, L. properties, optical
Barton, L. properties, molecular
Berger, S. B. electromagnetic waves
Bergstein, L. properties, surface
Bergstresser, T. K. electromagnetic waves
Blanc, J. properties, optical
Bloom, S. electromagnetic waves
Busanovich, C. J. solid-state devices
Busanovich, C. J. properties, surface
Busanovich, C. J. solid-state devices
Busanovich, C. J. properties, surface
Busanovich, C. J. solid-state devices
Byer, N. E. lasers
Castellano, J. A. properties, molecular
Clough, R. properties, surface
Cody, G. D. superconductivity
Cohen, R. W. superconductivity
Cornely, R. H. lasers
Cornely, R. H. logic theory
Cornely, R. H. lasers
Cornely, R. H. lasers
Coutts, M. D. laboratory techniques
Coutts, M. D. laboratory techniques
Cullen, G. W. properties, molecular
D'Aiello, R. V. electromagnetic waves
D'Aiello, R. V. superconductivity
Dreeben, A. B. properties, surface
Dresner, J. properties, optical
Duffy, M. T. properties, electrical
Duffy, M. T. properties, mechanical
Duffy, M. T. properties, optical
Dumin, D. J. properties, surface
Dumin, D. J. properties, electrical
Dumin, D. J. properties, surface
Dumin, D. J. plasma physics

Dumin, D. J. properties, surface
 Ekstrom, L. properties, electrical
 Ellis, S. G. properties, surface
 Ellis, S. G. properties, surface
 Emmenegger, F. P. electromagnetic waves
 Emmenegger, F. P. properties, molecular
 Enstrom, R. E. properties, molecular
 Feldstein, N. electromagnetic waves
 Freedman, S. J. electromagnetic waves
 Freedman, S. J. superconductivity
 Gittleman, J. I. superconductivity
 Gittleman, J. I. superconductivity
 Goldmacher, J. properties, molecular
 Goodman, A. M. laboratory techniques
 Gordon, I. computer storage
 Gottlieb, G. E. properties, molecular
 Greenaway, D. L. properties, surface
 Greenaway, D. L. properties, optical
 Harbecke, G. properties, surface
 Harbecke, G. properties, optical
 Harbecke, G. electromagnetic waves
 Harbecke, G. properties, optical
 Harvey, R. L. computer storage
 Hawrylo, F. Z. lasers
 Hegyi, I. J. lasers
 Heilmeyer, G. H. properties, molecular
 Heilmeyer, G. H. properties, molecular
 Heilmeyer, G. H. properties, molecular
 Heilmeyer, G. H. properties, optical
 Heiman, F. P. solid-state devices
 Helpert, E. P. properties, surface
 Helpert, E. P. computer applications
 Hersenov, B. properties, magnetic
 Hillier, J. management
 Hirota, R. electromagnetic waves
 Hirota, R. plasma physics
 Hirsch, C. J. electro-optics
 Hopkins, M. M. properties, magnetic
 Keneman, S. A. computer storage
 Keneman, S. A. superconductivity
 Kiess, H. properties, molecular
 Klopfenstein, R. W. mathematics
 Korenjak, A. J. computer components
 Korenjak, A. J. information theory
 Kosonocky, W. F. lasers
 Kosonocky, W. F. logic theory
 Kosonocky, W. F. lasers
 Kosonocky, W. F. lasers
 Kozieliec, F. properties, surface
 Kozieliec, F. solid-state devices
 Kressel, H. lasers
 Kressel, H. lasers
 Kressel, H. lasers
 Kressel, H. properties, optical
 Kudman, I. properties, electrical
 Kudman, I. energy conversion
 Ladany, I. properties, optical
 Ladany, I. solid-state devices
 Larach, S. properties, molecular
 Larach, S. properties, optical
 Lawrence, H. C. communications systems
 Lawrence, H. C. communications systems
 Levin, E. R. laboratory techniques
 Levin, E. R. laboratory techniques
 Levine, J. D. electromagnetic waves
 Lewin, S. Z. electromagnetic waves
 Linhardt, R. J. computer applications
 Linhardt, R. J. mathematics
 McCoy, D. S. linguistics
 McFarlane, S. H. properties, molecular
 Meray-Horvath, L. properties, surface
 Meray-Horvath, L. recording, image
 Meray-Horvath, L. solid-state devices
 Miiller, H. S. computer applications
 Miiller, H. S. mathematics
 Miller, A. properties, molecular
 Miller, J. C. displays
 Miller, A. properties, magnetic
 Millman, R. S. mathematics
 Miyatani, K. properties, molecular
 Miyatani, K. properties, magnetic
 Moore, R. M. properties, surface
 Moore, R. M. solid-state devices
 Moore, R. M. properties, surface
 Moore, R. M. solid-state devices
 Moore, R. M. solid-state devices
 Moss, H. I. computer storage
 Mueller, C. W. solid-state devices
 Nelson, H. lasers
 Nicoll, F. H. lasers
 Nitsche, R. properties, molecular
 Okamoto, F. properties, magnetic
 Okamoto, F. properties, molecular
 Olson, H. F. acoustics
 O'Neill, J. J. properties, electrical
 Pankove, J. I. lasers
 Pankove, J. I. lasers
 Pankove, J. I. lasers
 Pankove, J. I. lasers
 Pauli, M. C. electromagnetic waves

Pike, W. S. recording, image
 Pike, W. S. solid-state devices
 Pike, W. S. properties, surface
 Pike, W. S. recording, image
 Pike, W. S. solid-state devices
 Rehwald, W. properties, mechanical
 Richman, D. properties, molecular
 Robbi, A. D. computer storage
 Robinson, B. B. properties, surface
 Robinson, P. H. properties, surface
 Rosenblum, B. superconductivity
 Rosenblum, B. superconductivity
 Ross, D. L. properties, optical
 Ross, D. A. graphic arts
 Ross, D. A. recording, image
 Ross, D. A. tubes, electron
 Ross, E. C. circuit analysis
 Ross, E. C. computer storage
 Rothwarf, A. superconductivity
 Sadasiv, G. properties, surface
 Sadasiv, G. recording, image
 Sadasiv, G. solid-state devices
 Sadasiv, G. recording, image
 Sadasiv, G. solid-state devices
 Scott, J. H. circuit analysis
 Scott, J. H. computer storage
 Schnitzler, P. properties, surface
 Shabbender, R. computer storage
 Shallcross, F. V. recording, image
 Shallcross, F. V. solid-state devices
 Shrader, R. E. properties, molecular
 Shrader, R. E. properties, optical
 Shrader, R. E. properties, optical
 Smith, R. W. properties, optical
 Sowiak, M. M. graphic arts
 Sowiak, M. M. recording, image
 Sowiak, M. M. tubes, electron
 Staras, H. communications systems
 Southgate, P. D. lasers
 Steigmeier, E. F. properties, optical
 Strauss, L. properties, surface
 Suzuki, K. communications components
 Taylor, B. N. superconductivity
 Taylor, G. W. properties, electrical
 Taylor, G. W. properties, optical
 Taylor, G. W. displays
 Tietjen, J. J. properties, surface
 Tietjen, J. J. properties, surface
 Toda, M. properties, electrical
 Toda, M. properties, surface
 Toda, M. properties, surface
 Turkevich, J. properties, optical
 Tuska, J. W. computer storage
 Unger, S. H. information theory
 Vieland, L. J. superconductivity
 Volkmann, J. E. acoustics
 Volkmann, J. E. amplification
 VonPhilipsborn, H. properties, molecular
 Vossen, J. L. properties, electrical
 Vural, B. properties, surface
 Wada, Y. properties, molecular
 Wada, Y. properties, magnetic
 Wallmark, J. T. computer storage
 Wallmark, J. T. circuit analysis
 Wallmark, J. T. computer storage
 Wallmark, J. T. circuit analysis
 Wallmark, J. T. computer storage
 Wang, C. C. properties, molecular
 Wang, C. C. properties, electrical
 Wang, C. C. properties, mechanical
 Wang, C. C. properties, optical
 Waxman, A. circuits, integrated
 Waxman, A. solid-state devices
 Weimer, P. K. recording, image
 Weimer, P. K. solid-state devices
 Weimer, P. K. properties, surface
 Weimer, P. K. recording, image
 Weimer, P. K. solid-state devices
 Weisbarth, G. S. properties, atomic
 Wentworth, C. computer storage
 Williams, R. properties, electrical
 Williams, R. properties, optical
 Williams, R. properties, electrical
 Willis, A. properties, electrical
 Winder, R. O. logic theory
 Wine, C. M. displays
 Woodward, J. G. laboratory techniques
 Woodward, J. G. laboratory techniques
 Woodward, J. G. recording
 Yocom, P. N. properties, optical
 Yocom, P. N. properties, optical
 Yocom, P. N. molecular
 Yocom, P. N. properties, molecular
 Zaininger, K. H. circuits, integrated
 Zaininger, K. H. solid-state devices
 Zaininger, K. H. radiation effects
 Zaininger, K. H. properties, surface
 Zaininger, K. H. properties, molecular
 Zaininger, K. H. properties, molecular
 Zanon, L. A. properties, molecular
 Zanon, L. A. properties, molecular

Patents Granted

to RCA Engineers



As reported by RCA Domestic Patents, Princeton

LABORATORIES

High-Speed Shutter Using a Magnetostrictive Transducer—Hillel Weinstein (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,400,647, September 10, 1968

Radiation Sensitive Optical Logic Element Using Photochromic Layers—Judea Pearl (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,402,300, September 17, 1968

Motors and Generators Employing Superconductors—Judea Pearl (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,402,307, September 17, 1968

Nondestructive Readout of Cryoelectric Memories—Andrew R. Sass (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,402,400, September 17, 1968

Photographic Methods of Making Electron-Sensitive Mosaic Screens—Harold B. Law (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,406,068, October 15, 1968

Voiced Sound Fundamental Frequency Detector—H. F. Olson, H. Belar (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,400,215, September 3, 1968

Zanoni, L. A. properties, molecular
 Zanoni, L. A. properties, optical

LTD, MONTREAL

Bachynski, M. P. antennas
 Bachynski, M. P. plasma physics
 Carswell, A. I. lasers
 Gibbs, B. W. antennas
 Gibbs, B. W. plasma physics
 Green, R. M. solid-state devices
 Grenier, R. communications systems
 Mathur, D. P. solid-state devices
 McIntyre, R. J. solid-state devices
 McIntyre, R. J. solid-state devices
 McIntyre, R. J. solid-state devices
 Shkarofsky, I. P. laboratory techniques
 Shkarofsky, I. P. properties, atomic
 Sprigings, H. C. solid-state devices
 Webb, P. P. solid-state devices
 Waksberg, A. L. lasers
 Webb, P. P. solid-state devices
 Webb, P. P. solid-state devices
 Wood, J. I. lasers

MISSILE AND SURFACE RADAR DIVISION

Breese, M. properties, molecular
 Breese, M. solid-state devices
 Dolusic, R. antennas
 Finn, H. M. computer applications
 Finn, H. M. radar
 Keiser, B. E. space navigation
 Lisicky, A. J. antennas
 Mikulich, P. J. antennas
 Patton, W. T. properties, molecular
 Patton, W. T. solid-state devices
 Profera, C. antennas
 Sherman, S. M. electromagnetic waves
 Staiman, D. properties, molecular
 Staiman, D. solid-state devices
 Waddington, W. A. management
 Yorinks, L. antennas

SERVICE COMPANY

Chew, V. mathematics
 Chew, V. mathematics
 Mertens, L. E. geophysics
 Somerville, P. N. mathematics

Method of Coating Superconducting Niobium Tin with Lattice Defects—R. E. Enstrom, J. J. Hanak, K. Strater, F. R. Nyman (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,400,016, September 3, 1968

Method of Forming Aligned Oxide Patterns on Opposite Surfaces of a Wafer of Semi-conductor Material—J. H. Scott (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,404,073, October 1, 1968

System for Automatic Correction of Burst Errors—C. V. Srinivasan (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,404,373, October 1, 1968

Transistor-Negative Resistance Diode Circuits Using D.C. Feedback—G. B. Herzog (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,408,592, October 29, 1968

Method of Making High Purity Metal Zeolite and Product Thereof—P. V. Goedertier (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,405,044, October 8, 1968

Photoconductive Device Having a Target Including a Selenium Blocking Layer—J. Dresner (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,405,298, October 8, 1968

Flip-Flop Employing Three Interconnected Majority-Minority Logic Gates—R. O. Winder (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,403,267, September 24, 1968

Method of Changing the Conductivity of Vapor Deposited Gallium Arsenide by the Introduction of Water into the Vapor Deposition Atmosphere—S. G. Ellis (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,397,094, August 12, 1968 (Assigned to U.S. Government)

Method of Electrolytically Binding a Layer of Semiconductors Together—S. G. Ellis (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,396,057, August 6, 1968 (Assigned to U.S. Government)

Infrared Imaging Device with Photoconductive Target—G. A. Morton, R. J. Pressley, S. T. Forge (Labs., Pr) U.S. Pat. 3,398,316, August 20, 1968 (Assigned to U.S. Government)

ELECTRONIC COMPONENTS

Linear Frequency Modulation System Including an Oscillating Transistor, an Internal Capacity of which is Varied in Accordance with a Modulating Signal—L. A. Harwood (EC, Som) U.S. Pat. 3,403,354, September 24, 1968

Wideband High-Frequency Amplifier—M. M. Mitchell (EC, Som) U.S. Pat. 3,401,349, September 10, 1968

Metallic Contacts for Semi-Conductor Devices—E. G. Athanassiadis (EC, Som) U.S. Pat. 3,400,308, September 3, 1968

Gain Controlled Amplifier using Multiple Gate Field-Effect Transistor as the Active Element Thereof—L. A. Kaplan, O. P. Hart (EC, Som) U.S. Pat. 3,404,347, October 1, 1968

Superconductive Magnet Having Grease between Adjacent Winding Layers—E. R. Schrader (EC, Hr) U.S. Pat. 3,408,619, October 29, 1968

Method of Fabricating Directly Heated Cathode—S. E. Aungst, R. A. Lee (EC, Lanc) U.S. Pat. 3,404,442, October 8, 1968

Vaporizable Medium Type Heat Exchanger for Electron Tubes—W. B. Hall, D. M. Ernst (EC, Lanc) U.S. Pat. 3,405,299, October 8, 1968

Method of Making a Laminated Ferrite Memory—J. J. Cosgrove (EC, Needham) U.S. Pat. 3,400,455, September 10, 1968

Tubular Cell Anode for Sputter Ion Pumps—W. G. Henderson (EC, Lanc) U.S. Pat. 3,364,370, January 16, 1968

CONSUMER ELECTRONICS DIVISION

Television Deflection Circuit with Compensation for Voltage Supply Variations—J. A. McDonald, L. G. Smithwick (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,402,318, September 17, 1968

Television Deflection Circuit with Temperature Compensation—J. A. McDonald, E. K. Retherford (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,402,319, September 17, 1968

Television Deflection Circuit—T. J. Christopher (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,402,320, September 17, 1968

Deflection Yoke Mounting Structure—J. W. McLeod, W. R. Abraham (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,404,228, October 1, 1968

Raster Correction Circuit—E. Lemke (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,408,535, October 29, 1968

Protection Circuit for Cathode Ray Tube—P. C. Wilmarth (CED, Indpls) U.S. Pat. 3,407,330, October 22, 1968

COMMERCIAL ELECTRONIC SYSTEMS DIVISION

Utilizing a Zener Diode for Determining Switching Points and Switching Sensitivity—W. C. Painter (CESD, MdWlds) U.S. Pat. 3,402,303, September 17, 1968

Solid State Wave Amplitude Limiting Device—P. Mrozek (CESD, MdWlds) U.S. Pat. 3,408,510, October 29, 1968

Specimen Injector for Electron Microscopes with a Rotatable Specimen Holder—J. R. Fairbanks, B. F. Melchionni (CESD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,405,264, October 8, 1968

INFORMATION SYSTEMS DIVISION

Printer Employing Parallel Printer Bars, and Improved Mounting Means Therefor

—E. J. West (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,401,781, September 17, 1968

Print Hammer Energizing Arrangement—R. C. Peyton (ISD, W. Palm) U.S. Pat. 3,406,381, October 15, 1968

Voltage Regulator Including Transient Reducing Means—R. B. Webb (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,400,325, September 3, 1968

Fixed Read-Only Memory—D. H. Montgomery, S. T. Jolly (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,404,386, October 1, 1968

Memory System Having Improved Electrical Termination of Conductors—A. Hiroshi (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,404,387, October 1, 1968

Nondestructive Readout Memory—H. V. Rangachar, L. Dillon (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,405,400, October 8, 1968

Readback Circuits for Information Storage Systems—G. V. Jacoby, J. D. Gleitman (ISD, Cam) U.S. Pat. 3,405,403, October 8, 1968

AEROSPACE SYSTEMS DIVISION

Rotating Head and Disc Magnetic Recording System—A. Lichowski (ASD, Van Nuys) U.S. Pat. 3,402,403, September 17, 1968

Scan Technique for Vidicon Tracker—V. J. Stakun (ASD, Burl) U.S. Pat. 3,398,284, August 20, 1968 (Assigned to U.S. Government)

DEFENSE MICROELECTRONICS

Clock-Pulse Steering Gate Arrangement for Flip-Flop Employing Isolated Gate Controlled Charging Capacitor—R. C. Heuner, J. W. Harmon (DME, Som) U.S. Pat. 3,403,266, September 24, 1968

ADVANCED COMMUNICATIONS LABORATORY

PM/AM Multiplex Communication—S. J. Mehlman (AC, W. Windsor) U.S. Pat. 3,406,343, October 15, 1968

Professional Meetings

* Dates and Deadlines

Be sure deadlines are met—consult your Technical Publications Administrator or your Editorial Representative for the lead time necessary to obtain RCA approvals (and government approvals, if applicable). Remember, abstracts and manuscripts must be so approved BEFORE sending them to the meeting committee.

Calls for Papers

MARCH 25-27, 1969: Conference on Lasers and Optoelectronics, Univ. of South Hampton, South Hampton, England. **Deadline info: 12/1/68 (synopsis)** to: The Secretary, Organizing Committee for the Conference on "Lasers and Opto-Electronics", Institution of Electronic and Radio Engineers, 9 Bedford Square, London, W.C. 1.

APRIL 15-18, 1969: Int'l Magnetism Conference (INTERMAG), RAI Bldg., Amsterdam, The Netherlands. **Deadline info: 12/1/68 (abst)** to: Dr. U. F. Gianola, Bell Telephone Laboratories, Mountain Avenue, Murray Hill, New Jersey 07974.

APRIL 16-18, 1969: Geoscience Electronics Symposium, Marriott Twin Bridges Motor Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Deadline info: 1/1/69 (abst)** to: M. E. Ringenbach, Director, Equipment Development Lab., U.S. Weather Bureau, Room 201—Gramax Building, 8060 13th Street, Silver Spring, Maryland 20910.

APRIL 21-25, 1969: Conference on Switching Techniques for Telecommunications Networks, London, England. **Deadline info: 12/2/68 (ms)** to: IEE, Conf. Secretariat, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2 England.

APRIL 22-24, 1969: National Telemetering Conference, Washington Hilton Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Deadline info: 12/20/68 (papers)** to: R. W. Rochelle, Code 710, NASA, Goddard S.F. Ctr., Greenbelt, Md. 20771.

APRIL 23-25, 1969: Carnahan Conference on Electronic Crime Countermeasures, Univ. of Kentucky, Carnahan House, Lexington, Ky. **Deadline info: 2/15/69 (papers)** to: J. S. Jackson, College of Engrg, Univ. of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.

APRIL 30-MAY 2, 1969: Electronic Components Conference, Shoreham Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Deadline info: 11/1/68 (sum)** to: James A. O'Connell, Technical Program Chairman, Electronic Components Conference, ITT Headquarters, 320 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y.

MAY 5-6, 1969: ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing, Marina del Rey Hotel, Marina del Rey, California. **Deadline info: 3/15/69 (final ms)** to: Prof. Michael A. Harrison, Department of Computer Science, Univ. of Calif., Berkeley, Calif. 94720.

MAY 5-7, 1969: Electrical and Electronic Measurement and Test Inst. Conf.—Instrument and Measurement Symp. (EEMTIC & IM), Skyline Hotel, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada. **Deadline info: 1/15/69 (abst and sum)** to: Chairman of the Technical Program Committee, Dr. George E. Schafer, Institute for Basic Standards, National Bureau of Standards, Boulder, Colorado, 80302.

MAY 5-8, 1969: International Microwave Symposium, Marriott Motor Hotel, Dallas, Texas. **Deadline info: 1/10/69 (abst and sum)** to: J. B. Horton, POB 5012, Texas Instr., Inc., Dallas, Tex.

MAY 6-8, 1969: Congress on Nuclear Electronics, EURATOM Lab., Ispra, Italy. **Deadline info: 1/10/69 (abst and sum)** to: Prof. Luciano Stanchi, C.C.R. EURATOM, 21020 Ispra (Italy).

MAY 7-9, 1969: Int'l Joint Conf. on Artificial Intelligence, Statler Hilton Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Deadline info: 1/15/69 (ms)** to: Dr. Donald E. Walker, IJCAI Program Chairman, The MITRE Corporation, Bedford, Massachusetts 01730.

MAY 18-21, 1969: Power Industry Computer Application Conference, Brown Palace Hotel, Denver, Colorado. **Deadline info: 1/5/69 (ms)** to: W. D. Trudgen, Gen'l Elec. Co., 2255 W. Desert Cove Rd. POB 2918, Phoenix, Arizona 85002.

MAY 19-21, 1969: Aviation & Space Conference, ASME, Statler Hilton Hotel, New York City. **Deadline info** to: Mr. Leo DeMarinis, Grumman Aircraft Engrg. Corp., Plant #5, Bethpage, L.I., N.Y. 11714.

MAY 26-28, 1969: Laser Engr. and Applications Conf., Washington Hilton Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Deadline info: 1/17/69 (abst and sum)** to: W. B. Bridges, Hughes Res. Labs., 3011 Malibu Canyon Rd., Malibu, Cal.

JUNE 9-11, 1969: Int'l Communications Conf., Univ. of Colorado, Boulder, Colo. **Deadline info: 1/1/69 (papers)** to: Dr. Martin Nesenbergs, Environmental Science Services Administration, Inst. for Telecommunications Sciences, R614, Boulder, Colorado 80302.

JUNE 22-27, 1969: Summer Power Meeting, Sheraton Dallas Hotel, Dallas, Texas. **Deadline info: 2/15/69 (papers)** to: J. R. Wilson, Gen'l Elec. Co., POB 5821, Dallas, Texas.

JULY 20-25, 1969: Engr. in Medicine & Biology & Int'l Fed. for Medical

& Biological Engrg. Conf., Palmer House, Chicago, Illinois. **Deadline info: 2/1/69 (ms)** to: Lawrence Stark, Univ. of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois.

AUG. 19-21, 1969: Western Electronic Show & Convention (WESCON), Cow Palace & San Francisco Hilton Hotel, San Francisco, Calif. **Deadline info: 6/25/69 (papers)** to: WESCON office.

SEPT. 7-11, 1969: Electrical Insulation Conf., Sheraton-Boston Hotel & War Mem. Aud., Boston, Mass. **Deadline info: 8/1/68 (abst), 2/1/69 (papers)** to: H. P. Walker, NAVSEC, Code 6156D, Washington, D.C. 20360.

SEPT. 15-17, 1969: Conf. on Trunk Telecommunications by Guided Waves, London, England. **Deadline info: 1/5/69 (syn), 5/1/69 (ms)** to: IEE, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2, England.

SEPT. 21-25, 1969: Joint Power Generation Conf., White House Inn, Charlotte, North Carolina. **Deadline info: 5/9/69** to: R. A. Budenholzer, III, Inst. of Tech. Ctr., Chicago, Ill. 60616.

JAN. 25-30, 1970: Winter Power Meeting, Statler Hilton Hotel, New York, N.Y. **Deadline info: 9/15/69 (papers)** to: IEE Hqtrs., Tech. Conf. Svcs., 345 E. 47th St., New York, N.Y.

Meetings

JAN. 21-23, 1969: Reliability Symposium, Palmer House, Chicago, Illinois. **Prog info:** J. E. Condon, Office of Reliability & Quality Assurance, NASA Hqqs., Washington, D.C.

JAN. 22-24, 1969: Hawaii International Conf. on System Sciences, Univ. of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii. **Prog info:** F. F. Kuo, Dept. of EE, 2565 The Mall, Univ. of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii.

JAN. 26-31, 1969: Winter Power Meeting, Statler Hilton Hotel, New York, N.Y. **Prog info:** J. W. Bean, Amer. Elec. Pwr. Svc. Corp., 2 Bdwy., New York, N.Y.

JAN. 28-31, 1969: Int'l Symposium on Information Theory, Nevele Country Club, Ellenville, N.Y. **Prog info:** David Slepian, Dept. of Transportation, Washington, D.C.

FEB. 10-11, 1969: Transducer Conf., Washingtonian Motel & Nat'l Bur. of Standards, Washington, D.C. **Prog info:** H. P. Kalmus, Harry Diamond Labs, Dept. of the Army, Washington, D.C. 20438.

FEB. 11-13, 1969: Aerospace and Electronic Systems Winter Convention (WINCON), Biltmore Hotel, Los Angeles, Calif. **Prog info:** G. D. Bagley, TRW Sys., 1 Space Park, Redondo Beach, Calif. 90278.

FEB. 19-21, 1969: Int'l Solid State Circuits Conf., Univ. of Penna., & Sheraton Hotel, Phila., Penna. **Prog info:** R. S. Engelbrecht, Bell Telephone Labs., Murray Hill, New Jersey.

MARCH 5-7, 1969: Particle Accelerator Conf., Shoreham Hotel, Washington, D.C. **Prog info:** F. T. Howard, Oak Ridge Nat'l Lab, POB X, Oak Ridge, Tenn. 37830.

MARCH 12-14, 1969: Microwave Technique Conf., Cologne (F. R. Germany). **Prog info:** H. H. Burghoff, Strememann Allee 21, VDE-Haus, 6 Frankfurt/Main 70 F.R. Germany.

MARCH 24-27, 1969: IEEE Int'l Convention & Exhibition, Coliseum & N.Y. Hilton Hotel, New York, N.Y. **Prog info:** IEEE Hqqs., 345 E. 47th St., New York, N.Y.

MARCH 24-27, 1969: Semiconductor Device Research Conf., Munich, F.R. Germany. **Prog info:** W. Heywang, Balanstrasse 73, 8 Muenchen 80, F.R. Germany.

MARCH 25-27, 1969: Data Transmission Conf., Mannheim, F.R. Germany. **Prog info:** H. H. Burghoff, Strememann Allee 21, 6 Frankfurt/Main 70, F.R. Germany.

APRIL 15-18, 1969: Int'l Computer Aided Design Conf., Univ. of Southampton, England. **Prog info:** IEE, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2, England.

APRIL 23-25, 1969: Southwestern IEEE Conf. & Exhibition (SWIEECCO), San Antonio Conv. Ctr., & Palacio Del Rio Hotel, San Antonio, Texas. **Prog info:** W. H. Hartwig, Univ. of Texas, EE Dept., Austin, Texas 78712.

MAY 5-8, 1969: Int'l Congress on Instrumentation in Aerospace Simulation Facilities, Polytechnic Inst. of Bklyn. Grad. Ctr., Farmingdale, New York.

MAY 6-8, 1969: Conference on Power Thyristors and their Applications, London, England. **Prog info:** IEE, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2, England.

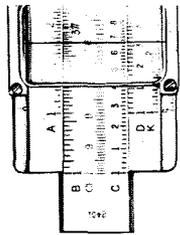
MAY 12-16, 1969: Underground Distribution Conf., Disneyland Hotel & Anaheim Conv. Ctr., Anaheim, Calif. **Prog info:** W. A. Thue, Florida Pwr. & Light Co., POB 3316, Miami, Fla. 33101.

MAY 14-16, 1969: Spring Joint Computer Conference, Sheraton Boston Hotel, War Mem. Audit, Boston, Mass. **Prog info:** T. D. Bonn, Honeywell EDP, 200 Smith St., Waltham, Mass. 02154.

MAY 19-21, 1969: Aerospace Electronics Conf. (NAECON), Sheraton Dayton Hotel, Dayton, Ohio. **Prog info:** IEEE Dayton Office, 124 E. Monument Ave., Dayton, Ohio 45402.

JUNE 17-19, 1969: Computer Conference, Leamington Hotel, Minneapolis, Minn. **Prog info:** D. L. Epley, Dept. of EE, Univ. of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240.

JUNE 17-19, 1969: Electromagnetic Compatibility Symposium, Berkeley Cartaret Hotel, Asbury Park, New Jersey. **Prog info:** Charles Joly, Honeywell Inc., POB 54, Eatontown, N.J. 07724.



Engineering

News and Highlights

NASA Awards to Six AED Engineers

Six engineers received New Technology Awards from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration on August 1, 1968.

Dr. Andrew G. Holmes-Siedle, Waldemar Poch, Dr. George Brucker, and William Dennehy, all of the Advanced Technology Group at AED, were presented the awards for their work in predicting radiation damage effects in transistors. **Mr. Steven Tietelbaum** and **Charles Staloff**, of the Spacecraft Electronics Group, received the awards for their design of a unique frequency-shift-keyed demodulation system used on satellite telemetry.

The New Technology Awards are given for original work performed for NASA and are considered to have a potential for wide usefulness for the aerospace community. The method developed by the Advanced Technology Group has already been used to help make the TIROS weather satellites more reliable and may be used further in helping satellites survive many times longer than normal in the space environment. NASA may present additional awards if these techniques do achieve wide use. Each engineer received a \$25 check.

M&SR Technical Excellence Awards

The following M&SR engineers were nominated for Technical Excellence Awards for their performance during the Second Quarter of 1968: **L. J. Clayton** for his outstanding performance as lead programmer on the AN/FSQ-59(v) Data Control System computer program for DCSD, Camden; **T. U. Foley** for his conception, formulation, and design of multi-section, high-power RF harmonic filters for the AN/FPS-95 radar; **C. E. Profera, Jr.** for his continued performance in the area of antenna and feed design, resulting in important recent accomplishments in phased array antennas and advanced antenna feed systems; **R. J. Winkelman** for his contributions as lead programmer on the AN/FYA-7(v) Automatic Bearing Instrumentation System computer program for DCSD, Camden; **O. M. Woodward** for outstanding technical performance at an HF broadcast installation in Nigeria.

Professional Engineers

John Stevens, ISD, W. Palm; Penna. 14151-E; 6/15/68
N. Steinberg, DCSD, Cam.; N.J. PE-16537; 10/8/68
T. J. Burke, MSR, Mrstn.; N.J. PE-16533; 10/8/68
C. E. Reeder, Standards; N.J. PE-16499; 10/8/68

H. W. Leverenz Chairman of RCA Education Aid Committee

Humboldt W. Leverenz was appointed Chairman of the RCA Educational Aid Committee by **Dr. George H. Brown**, Executive Vice President, Patents and Licensing. The Committee, made up of RCA executives, is concerned with the Corporations granting of scholarships and fellowships, as well as financial contributions to educational institutions.

Mr. Leverenz is a Staff Vice President in the RCA Patents and Licensing activity and maintains his office at the David Sarnoff Research Center in Princeton, New Jersey.

EASD Engineering Facilities to be Improved

Plans have been completed, and are currently being reviewed with Camden Facilities for approval and implementation, to provide more privacy and less distracting noise in the working environment of design engineers at the Electromagnetic and Aviation Systems Division. The goal of this facilities improvement is to enhance the creative output of the design engineering staff by providing for interrelated, flexible four-to-six man work areas acoustically conditioned.

Professional Activities

Drs. M. P. Bachynski and **T. W. Johnston** were advanced to the status of Fellows of the American Physical Society in April 1968.

M. L. Topfer (DME, Som) was named Program Chairman of the greater New York section ISHM.

H. S. Ingraham, Jr. (DCSD, Cam) Leader, Measurements Engineering Laboratory, was elected to the Board of Directors of the National Conference of Standards Laboratories at its 1968 Standards Laboratory Conference in Boulder, Colorado, August 28, 1968. Mr. Ingraham has been an RCA Delegate to the NCSL since 1962, and is currently Chairman of the NCSL Committee C-5 on Measurement Agreement Comparison Programs.

Degrees Granted

A. Szur, AED, Pr. MBA, Rutgers University, 10/1/68
T. Campbell, EC, Som. MS, Electrical Engineering, Rutgers University, 6/68
A. J. Einhorn, RCA Glob. Comm. . . . MS, Operations Research, New York Univ., 6/68
R. Tatowicz, RCA Glob. Comm. . . . MS, Electrical Engineering, New York Univ., 6/68

RCA Graphic Systems Division received an award in the New Jersey 1968 "New Good Neighbor" Awards Competition. Some of the criteria for this award are: the economic value of the Division to the area, the beauty of the plant and grounds, the planning and facilities, with particular emphasis on working conditions. In addition, the overall community relations evidenced by the handling of plant traffic and participation in local affairs is considered.



RCA Demonstrates new Light Detector

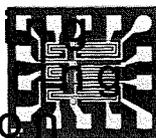
RCA recently developed a new light detector that could revolutionize efforts to map the structure of the DNA molecule on which all life is based, to detect light from the mysterious radio stars known as "pulsars," to see more deeply into the atom, and to learn how green plants convert sunlight into food. The device, a radically improved *photomultiplier*, was shown publicly for the first time at the 15th Annual Nuclear Symposium to be held in Montreal on October 23, 1968.

Key to the unprecedented performance of the unit is a new "dynode" or amplifying stage that is 10 times more efficient than those presently in use. Since the emission of light can be a by-product of many natural events from the birth of a star to the fission of an atom or a chemical change in a human cell, scientists can use it to tell them what is going on. Unfortunately, such light is often too weak or occurs in flashes too brief to be seen by the human eye, or an unaided optical instrument. Therefore, scientists frequently use a photomultiplier in association with their microscopes, telescopes, scintillation counters, or similar equipment. It is in just such areas that the new photomultiplier should have its greatest immediate impact.

This unit's amazing performance is attributed to the use of a novel materials technology developed at the David Sarnoff Research Center in Princeton, N.J. The work was done by **Dr. Ralph E. Simon**, **Dr. Alfred H. Sommer**, and **Dr. Brown F. Williams** of the Conversion Devices Laboratory and **Dr. James J. Tietjen** of the Materials Research Laboratory.

Errata: The August-September 1968 issue of the RCA ENGINEER (Vol. 13, No. 2) contained a review of Dr. Sommer's book *Photoemissive Materials*. Unfortunately, the publication date was given incorrectly as November 1969. The correct publication date was November 1968, and the book is presently available.

Continu Enginee Educatio



The CEE program is designed to help the engineer update and advance his technical knowledge within his professional field and to correct any deficiencies he might have in his educational background. The CEE program offers a varied curriculum that will be continually updated and expanded. Each course is an in-depth study of a particular topic which will be offered in the plant at a time convenient to the particular location.

Descriptions of courses that are currently available are listed below. Other courses will be covered in future issues of the RCA ENGINEER as they are developed.

C1—Digital Computer Fundamentals

This introductory course answers the question "How does a computer function?" It covers basic digital computers system and its organization, including machine language programming, binary arithmetic, basic gates, logic design, memory systems, and control circuits. *Course length*, six 2-hour sessions; *Background required*, engineering; *Text*, none.

C2—Fortran Programming

This basic course in FORTRAN IV programming has some material on numerical analysis. The course covers the use of subscripts, functions, subroutines, double precision, and complex and logical variables—with emphasis on writing programs. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, engineering; *Text*, D. D. McCracken, *A Guide to Fortran IV Programming* (Wiley, 1965).

C3—RCA Basic Time Sharing System

Course describes the SYSTEM, COMPILER, and EDIT Commands in BTSS. It covers the mechanics of the teletype terminal, use of paper tape, use of the simulated magnetic tape operations, the stored SNOBE program to solve differential equations. After the first session, complete FORTRAN programs can be run. *Course Length*, 6 eighty-minute sessions; *Background required*, FORTRAN Programming; *Text*, BTSS Manual.

C6—Analytical and Computer Methods in Solid State Engineering I

Topics covered include ordinary and partial differential equations, iteration and perturbation methods, evaluation of integrals, solution of integral equations, calculus of variations, and numerical analysis. Physical problems from the field of solid state electronics will be utilized. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, familiarity with calculus; *Text*, Matthews and Walker, *Mathematical Methods of Physics* (Benjamin, N.Y. 1964).

C7—Analytical and Computer Methods in Solid State Engineering II

This course is a continuation of C6. Topics include ordinary and partial differential equations, iteration and perturbation methods, evaluation of integrals, solution of integral equations, calculus of variations, and numerical analysis. Problems from the field of solid state electronics will be utilized. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, familiarity with calculus; *Text*, Matthews and Walker, *Mathematical Methods of Physics* (Benjamin, N.Y. 1964).

E1—Microelectronics for Design Engineers I

The integrated circuit chip is examined for its unique properties, characteristics, and limitations. The course reviews critically the application of available microelectronic packages and design of new microelectronics from the standpoint of the design engineer. Digital circuits and analog or linear circuits are considered in detail. *Course length*, 20 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, engineering; *Text*, Lynn, Meyer, and Hamilton, *Analysis and Design of Integrated Circuits* (McGraw-Hill 1967).

M1—Engineering Mathematics I

Topics include calculus review, differential equations and engineering applications, determinants, matrices, vector and tensor analysis. Exercises emphasize practical problems. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, calculus; *Text*, C. R. Wylie, Jr., *Advanced Engineering Mathematics*, (McGraw-Hill 1960) and H. Margenau and G. M. Murphy, *The Mathematics of Physics and Chemistry*, (Van Nostrand 1956).

M2—Engineering Mathematics II

This course is a continuation of Engineering Mathematics I. Topics treated include complex variables, Bessel functions, Legendre polynomials, Fourier series, integral and Laplace transformation. Examples from the fields of electromagnetic theory and electronic circuitry are emphasized. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, satisfactory completion of M1; *Text*, C. R. Wylie, Jr., *Advanced Engineering Mathematics* (McGraw-Hill 1960) and H. Margenau and G. M. Murphy *The Mathematics of Physics and Chemistry* (Van Nostrand 1956).

M3—Engineering Probability and Statistics

Lectures include the concept of a sample space, probability, random variables, probability distributions, point and interval estimation, hypothesis testing, analysis of variance, and the design of experiments. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, engineering; *Text*, furnished by CEE Staff.

P1—Engineering Physics Refresher I

Topics included are mechanics, equilibrium, Newton's laws of motion, two-dimensional motion, work, energy, momentum and rotational motion of rigid bodies, fol-

lowed by heat, including calorimetry and transfer, thermo-dynamics and thermal properties. Elasticity, stress and strain, and simple harmonic motion are used to introduce wave motion and acoustics. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, algebra and trigonometry; *Text*, Sears and Zemansky, *University Physics*, Third Edition (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company 1964).

P2—Engineering Physics Refresher II

Electricity and magnetism, including electric fields and potentials, capacitors, dielectrics, resistivity, emf, elementary dc circuits, magnetic fields, induced emfs, magnetic properties of matter, and ac circuits and topics covered. The course concludes with optics, including geometrical optics, optical instruments, interference, diffraction and polarization. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, P1 or consent of CEE staff; *Text*, Sears and Zemansky, *University Physics*, Third Edition (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company 1964).

P3—Modern Physics I

Included in this course are relativity, photoelectric effect, photons, the nuclear atom, atomic structure, electron diffraction, de Broglie waves, introductory wave mechanics, energy levels, and X-rays. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, basic physics, including mechanics, electricity, magnetism, and optics; *Text*, R. L. Sproull, *Modern Physics*; Wehr and Richards, *Physics of the Atom*.

P4—Modern Physics II

Included are the topics of radio-activity, nuclear physics and cosmic rays. These concepts, especially wave mechanics are then used to explain the mechanical, electrical, thermal, magnetic, and optical properties of the solid state. *Course length*, 12 two-hour sessions; *Background required*, P3 or permission of CEE Staff; *Text*, R. L. Sproull, *Modern Physics*; Wehr and Richards, *Physics of the Atom*.

P5—Semiconductor Device Physics I

Topics include Crystallography, Band Theory, Fermi level, donors and acceptors, and optical properties of semiconductors. Types of diodes are presented, and a discussion of the transistor as a small signal device (Bipolar, FET, MOS, and Injection) is presented. *Course length*, twelve 2-hour sessions; *Background required*, engineering; *Text*, Nussbaum, *Semiconductor Device Physics* (Prentice-Hall, 1962).

P6—Semiconductor Device Physics II

Course is a continuation of P5. Topics include the transistor as a large signal device, switching devices and digital applications, thermistors, varistors, photoelectric cells and solar batteries, photoconductors, and elements of integrated circuits. *Course length*, twelve 2-hour sessions; *Background required*, P5 or permission of CEE Staff; *Text*, Nussbaum, *Semiconductor Device Physics* (Prentice-Hall 1962).

Staff Announcements

Marketing

Chase Morsey, Jr., Vice President, Marketing, appointed **G. C. Evanoff** to the newly established position of Staff Vice President, Product Planning and Business Development. The organization of Product Planning and Business Development is as follows: **L. R. Day**, Director, Special Development Projects; **W. H. Enders**, Director, Advanced Product Planning; **F. H. Erdman**, Staff Vice President, New Business Programs; and **T. G. Paterson**, Director, Systems Development.

Services

Stephen Heller, Division Vice President, Operations announced the appointment of **Joseph F. Murray** as Division Vice President, Government Services, for the RCA Service Company.

Defense Electronic Products

I. K. Kessler, Vice President, Defense Electronic Products, announced the following appointments in the Defense Electronic Products organization: **J. H. Sidebottom**, Division Vice President, Advanced Surface Missile System Program (ASMS); **I. K. Kessler**, Acting Manager, Defense Marketing.

S. N. Lev, Division Vice President and General Manager, Defense Communications Systems Division, announced the following appointments in Defense Communications Systems Division: **R. D. Lynch**, Plant Manager, Defense Communications Systems Plant; and **S. N. Lev**, Acting Manager, Fabrication and Plant Engineering.

S. Sternberg, Division Vice President and General Manager, Electromagnetic and Aviation Systems Division, appointed **J. R. Shirley**, Division Vice President, Aviation Equipment Department.

RCA Laboratories

W. M. Webster, Staff Vice President, announced his staff as follows: **J. A. Rajchman**, Staff Vice President, Data Processing Research; **F. D. Rosi**, Staff Vice President, Materials and Device Research; **H. R. Lewis**, Director, Materials Research; **W. J. Merz**, Director, Laboratories RCA, Ltd., Zurich; **P. Rappaport**, Director, Process and Materials Applied Research; **F. D. Rosi**, Acting Director, Semiconductor Device Research; **T. O. Stanley**, Director, Systems Research; **G. B. Herzog**, Director, Data Processing Applied Research; **L. S. Nergaard**, Director, Microwave Research; **K. H. Powers**, Director, Communications Research; **T. O. Stanley**, Acting Director, Consumer Electronics Research; **A. A. Barco**, Staff Advisor; **R. E. Quinn**, Manager, Technical Administration; **P. Brown, Jr.**, Technical Administrator.

Promotions

to engineering leader and manager

As reported by your Personnel Activity during the past two months. Location and new supervisor appear in parentheses.

RCA Global Communications

Irwin A. Cohen: from Group Leader to Manager, Leased Channel Engineering (Manager, Leased Channel Engineering)

Jack A. Goldberg: from Group Leader to Manager, External Telex Engineering (Manager, External Telex Engineering)

James R. McDonald: from Group Leader to Manager, New York Telex Engineering (Manager, New York Telex Engineering)

Stanley M. Solomon: from Senior Project Member, Defense Electronic Products, to Group Leader (A. Avanesians, Mgr., Systems Engineering)

Jerome H. Schatz: from Design Engineer to Group Leader (J. C. Hepburn, Ch. Engr., Systems Engineering)

RCA Service Company

L. C. Costanzo: from Associate Engineer, Facilities, to Manager, Operation & Maintenance (E. W. Fuller, O&M, Thule, Greenland)

D. E. Allen: from Leader, Engineers, to Manager, Command Control Engrg. (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

J. B. Galpin: from Leader, Engineers, to Manager, Data Handling Engrg. (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

F. C. Minning: from Leader, Engineers, to Manager, RML Pulse Radar Engrg. (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

O. B. Rawls: from Engineer to Manager, FCA Engineering (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

E. M. Fetner: from Leader to Manager, Telemetry Antenna Systems Engineering (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

J. E. Wakefield: from Leader to Manager, Telemetry Integration & Installation Engineering (K. F. Wenz, Instrumentation Support Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

J. J. Pex: from Engineer to Leader, Engineers (D. L. Ely, Down Range Instrumentation, MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

R. C. Walter: from Engineer to Leader, Engineers (F. Minning, RML Pulse Radar Engrg., MTP, Cocoa, Fla.)

D. B. Johnson: from Engineer to Leader, Systems Service Engineers (F. Atlee, Cherry Hill)

J. L. McNully: from Engineer to Leader, Systems Service Engineers (W. J. Siddall, Cherry Hill)

E. A. Schiele: from Engineer to Leader, Systems Service Engineers (O. E. Cole, Cherry Hill)

S. A. Lapp: from Engineer to Manager, Mobile Radars (R. E. L. Fogle, White Sands Missile Range, New Mexico)

Electromagnetic & Aviation Systems Division

H. Rocheleau: from Sr. Member to Leader, D&D, Engrg. Staff (H. Haid, Engineering Staff, Van Nuys)

D. Koch: from Program Support Adm. to Manager, Product Support Engrg. (G. F. Fairhurst, Van Nuys)

Information Systems Division

S. E. Basara: from Leader, D&D, Engrg., to Manager, Cir., Memories & Power Supplies (R. H. Yen, Camden)

D. P. Burkart: from Engineer to Manager, Documentation Control (E. Chierici, Documentation Control, Camden)

Electronic Components

J. B. Grosh: from Engineer to Leader, Product Development (Mgr., Engineering Services)

V. S. Proudian: from Senior Liaison Eng, S. G. 78, to Leader, Liaison Eng, S. G. 80 (Manager, Bloomington)

L. H. Gnau: from Senior Engineer to Engineering Leader, Product Development (R. E. Berlin, Harrison)

E. R. Larson: from Engineer, Nuvistor Mfg. to Manager, Tube Production Engineering (C. W. Hear, Harrison)

Astro-Electronics Division

J. C. Blair: from Engineer to Leader (G. Barna, Princeton)

C. Staloff: from Sr. Engr. to Leader (A. Garman, Princeton)

B. M. Soltoff: from Sr. Engr. to Leader (G. Barna, Princeton)

I. Stein: from Adm. Space Power Applic. to Mgr. Project (R. Hogan, Princeton)

Consumer Electronics Division

H. R. Harris: from Associate Member, Engineering Staff, to Leader, Engineering Staff (D. H. Fisher, Indpls.)

B. A. Hegarty: from Member, Engineering Staff, to Leader, Engineering Staff (D. H. Fisher, Indpls.)

D. E. Kowallek: from Member, Engineering, to Leader, Engineering Staff (D. H. Fisher, Indpls.)

R. S. Degenkolb: from Member, Engineering Staff, to Leader, Engineering Staff (D. H. Fisher, Indpls.)

Defense Electronic Products

J. Pone: from AA Engineer to Leader, Design and Development (A. Genetta, Camden)

J. F. Calvarese: from A Engineer to Ldr., Engineering Systems Projects (M. Amsler, Camden)

T. Canavan: from A A Engr. to Ldr., Systems Projects (K. K. Miller, Camden)

B. L. McKern: from Ldr., Engrg. Systems Projects to Mgr., Engrg. (J. Vollmer, Camden)

T. B. Martin: from A A Engr. to Ldr., Design and Development Engrs. (J. Vollmer, Camden)

J. B. Feller: from A A Engr. to Ldr., Systems Projects (C. Arnold, Camden)

R. D. DeVantier: from Ldr., Engineering to Mgr., Engineering (M. Amsler, Camden)



McDonough Ed Rep for EASD

Jack McDonough has been appointed Editorial Representative to the RCA ENGINEER. In this capacity, Mr. McDonough will represent the Aviation Equipment Department of the Electromagnetic and Aviation Systems Division. He is responsible for planning and processing articles for the RCA ENGINEER.

Mr. McDonough is presently Leader, Publications Engineering, RCA Aviation Equipment Department, Los Angeles, Calif.; he holds a BA degree from University of Iowa. Mr. McDonough served in U.S. Army Signal Corps during World War II. He then worked three years as reporter-photographer for Keokuk (Iowa) *Daily Gate* newspaper. He worked for General Motors Corporation from 1952 to 1959 when he joined RCA. He continues to study electronics and has completed several electronics courses at San Fernando Valley Junior College.

New Satellite Communications Circuit to Link California and Hawaii

A new overseas satellite communications circuit, operated by RCA Global Communications, Inc., will link California and Hawaii through the INTELSAT II satellite presently in orbit some 22,300 miles above the Pacific Ocean and will be able to carry 12 two-way voice conversations or data produced by computer at the approximate rate of 50,000 words per minute.

The DOD circuit will be the first of its kind to use a 48 kHz bandwidth, and also the first to go into operation between the U.S. mainland and an overseas point. This complex communications facility will be capable of handling voice, record, facsimile, and computer-to-computer communications.

The DOD award totals approximately \$1 million per annum, and gives RCA responsibility for end-to-end operation of a communications facility that will link DOD stations in Santa Rosa, California and Kunia, Hawaii, via the new earth station located in Jamesburg, California, and the Paumalu, Hawaii, station. RCA Globcom has ownership interests in both earth stations.

RCA Awards Contract to Provide Work for Ghetto Residents

RCA recently awarded a \$29,000 subcontract to Freedom Electronics and Engineering Division of Freedom Industries, Inc., Roxbury, Mass., for the assembly and test of electronic harness cable and subassemblies for automated test systems. The subcontract was awarded by the Aerospace Systems Division of RCA Defense Electronic Products, Burlington, Mass., and will extend over a six month period.

Freedom Electronics and Engineering, a division of Freedom Industries, Inc., is a newly formed ghetto area corporation which is providing management and supervisory opportunity as well as employment for ghetto residents. The agreement announced today reflects RCA's total commitment to urban problems, and is consistent with U.S. Government procurement practices.

Under terms of the subcontract, RCA will provide all materials including the necessary tooling and test equipment.

Standardization Expert to Aid Brazil

Madhu S. Gokhale, a standardization expert, formerly with RCA is now in Brazil for a two-month assignment which will be followed by two months return visit six months later. This work is being done under the United Nations program of technical assistance and Industrial Development.



Ed Hughes Retires

Edward C. Hughes, Jr., a charter member of the RCA ENGINEER Editorial Advisory Board, is retiring in December 1968. Mr. Hughes, who has been Administrator, Commercial Engineering Programs since September 1958, received the EE from Rensselaer Polytechnical Institute. He joined RCA in 1930 as a technical writer in Sales Promotion at Harrison. In 1933, he was named Manager of Amateur Radio Tube and Apparatus Sales. From 1937 to 1945, he was Assistant to the Manager of Renewal Sales, and from 1945 to 1947 was Assistant to the General Manager of the Tube Department. From 1947 to 1952, Mr. Hughes was Assistant to the Vice President, Technical Products, of the Tube Department and from 1952 to 1955 was Assistant to the Executive Vice President. In 1955, he transferred to Princeton as Manager of Technical Services for the Commercial Tube Department. Mr. Hughes, in addition to his contributions as an RCA ENGINEER Advisory Board Member, is a member of the *RCA Review* Board of Editors; a member of the Board of Technical Advisors for RCA Institutes. Mr. Hughes is also a member of the JEDEC tube council; he serves on the Technical Export Technical Committee TC-39; and he is a senior member of the IEEE. Mr. Hughes received the RCA Victor Award of Merit in 1948.



AED honors technical authors and speakers: A reception and dinner for authors of technical presentations from the Astro-Electronics Division was held on the evening of November 18th in the Prince William Room of the Nassau Inn, Princeton, N.J. Random House College Edition Dictionaries were awarded to all participants. After the introductory remarks by Dr. R. B. Marsten, Chief Engineer, the group was addressed by Dr. William M. Webster, Staff Vice-President, RCA Laboratories, who reminisced in a light vein about writing techniques used by various technical authors he had known. C. Constantino, Vice-President and General Manager of AED, and W. O. Hadlock, Manager of Technical Publications, Corporate Engineering Services, and Editor of the *RCA Engineer*, were among the guests.



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RCA Engineer

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I. FEINSTEIN Defense Microelectronics, Somerville, N.J.

H. EPSTEIN Systems Engineering, Evaluation, and Research, Moorestown, N.J.

J. E. FRIEDMAN Advanced Technology, Camden, N.J.

M. G. PIETZ (Acting) Central Engineering, Camden, N.J.

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Information Systems

Information Systems Division

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M. MOFFA Engineering, Camden, N.J.

S. B. PONDER Palm Beach Engineering, West Palm Beach, Fla.

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I. H. KALISH Solid State Signal Device Engrg., Somerville, N.J.

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J. D. YOUNG Semiconductor Operations, Findlay, Ohio

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R. L. KAUFFMAN Conversion Tube Operations, Lancaster, Pa.

H. J. WOLKSTEIN Microwave Tube Operations, Harrison, N.J.

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D. J. CARLSON Advanced Devel., Indianapolis, Ind.

R. C. GRAHAM Radio "Victrola" Product Eng., Indianapolis, Ind.

P. G. McCABE TV Product Eng., Indianapolis, Ind.

J. OSMAN Electromech. Product Eng., Indianapolis, Ind.

L. R. WOLTER TV Product Eng., Indianapolis, Ind.

R. F. SHELTON Resident Eng., Bloomington, Ind.

Record Division

M. L. WHITEHURST* Record Eng., Indianapolis, Ind.

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RCA Service Company

B. AARONT EDP Service Dept., Cherry Hill, N.J.

W. W. COOK Consumer Products Service Dept., Cherry Hill, N.J.

L. H. FETTER Govt. Service Dept., Cherry Hill, N.J.

M. G. GANDER* Consumer Product Administration, Cherry Hill, N.J.

K. HAYWOOD Tech. Products, Adm. & Tech. Support, Cherry Hill, N.J.

W. R. MACK Missile Test Project, Cape Kennedy, Fla.

RCA Global Communications, Inc.

E. J. WILLIAMSON* RCA Global Communications, Inc., New York, N.Y.

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L. F. JONES Engineering, New Business Programs, Princeton, N.J.

National Broadcasting Company, Inc.

W. A. HOWARD* Staff Eng., New York, N.Y.

RCA International Division

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RCA Victor Company, Ltd.

W. A. CHISHOLM* Research & Eng., Montreal, Canada

Education Systems

Instructional Systems

E. M. MORTENSON* Instructional Systems Engineering, Palo Alto, Cal.