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Mr. WALKDEN: While appreciating what my Right Hon. Friend has said, is he not aware that batteries are used largely by people in small homesteads who cannot understand why good batteries cannot be obtained while there is a plentiful supply of inferior ones...?

Mr. DALTON: I am very anxious to get a fair distribution of whatever supplies there are, but the best batteries are required for the Services in a very great and increasing quantity...

(Extracts from Hansard, Jan. 16)
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>11 to 25 metres</th>
<th>24</th>
<th>11 to 25 metres</th>
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<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>CA6. 11 to 25 metres</td>
<td>2.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>CB6. 20 to 45</td>
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<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>CC6. 44 to 100</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>CD</td>
<td>2.9</td>
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<td>CD6. 80 to 180</td>
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<td></td>
<td>CE6. 100 to 250</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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As many of the circuits and apparatus described in these pages are covered by patents, readers are advised, before making use of them, to satisfy themselves that they would not be infringing patents.
By a complete departure from the conventional form of valve construction, Mullard have effectively reduced the losses due to H.F. resistance, inductance and capacity effects within the valve itself and in the leads coming from the electrodes.

The all-glass technique makes use of an almost flat circular glass pressing for the base of the valve, into which short pins are sealed, the electrodes being welded directly to the pins. By thus reducing the length of the lead-out connections, considerably improved efficiency at the higher radio frequencies has been achieved.
EVER since the time when the end of the European war appeared to be coming within measurable distance, this journal has urged the need for removing all barriers likely to stand in the way of quick industrial transition to peace-time conditions. It has been stressed that designers and manufacturers of almost every kind of wireless equipment are completely dependent on matters outside their control; without knowing precisely what bands of frequencies are involved and the nature of the emissions to be dealt with, nothing approaching a final design can be produced. We even went to the length of advocating what, for want of a better word, was described as an "international" conference to settle some of the more acute problems that affect large-scale production. Perhaps we were over-optimistic; at any rate, most of the problems still remain unsolved. Even in America, where the question was promptly and most energetically tackled by industrial and other wireless interests, with the fullest support, encouragement and guidance from the U.S. government, a final settlement has barely been reached in producing a complete national plan. As a result, manufacturers everywhere are in the unenviable position of being held up, not only by shortages of man-power and materials—that is more or less inevitable—but also by lack of detailed knowledge of the conditions of use for which their productions must be designed.

But, if there has been a lack of enthusiasm in British official quarters for discussing the post-war re-organisation of radio, industrial interests have shown more concern in its problems. Soon after the tide of battle turned in favour of the United Nations, the Cossor Research Laboratories produced an interesting and highly detailed plan for a new technical set-up of British broadcasting. This was followed by much useful public discussion, generally originated by engineers of manufacturing firms, of proposals for the technical re-organisation of sound and vision broadcasting.

It is all to the good that those who make wireless equipment should put their views before those whose task it is to determine the conditions under which the gear will be used. If only for that reason, we welcome the Report on "Post-war European Broadcasting," recently issued by the Radio Industry Council. A summary of this Report, printed elsewhere in this issue, shows that it presents a Plan for complete re-organisation.

Engineering: not Politics

In many respects the Plan follows established convention; it employs none of the newer techniques of transmission and is restricted virtually to a re-allocation of the existing "long" and "medium" broadcast wavebands. Where it differs from earlier plans is in the fact that it is based on a close adherence to engineering principles and not on political considerations. The authors modestly disclaim complete knowledge of the political, cultural and geo-physical considerations involved, and freely admit that the Plan is in many respects tentative, and subject to modification in matters of detail. We agree with the authors in thinking that non-technical considerations should be regarded as entirely subsidiary to the engineering basis of the Plan; if that basis be sound, the details should settle themselves. As is stated in the Report, the history of wavelength allocation in Europe shows it "has been successively an unidentified, then an imperfectly understood, and finally a politically obscured problem." And, we may add, so it will remain unless politics be divorced from engineering in these matters.

Perhaps the greatest advantage of a plan for channel allocations based on clearly defined technical principles is that it stands a better chance of acceptance without undignified wrangling than does a system which attempts to take into account such things as national aspirations and prejudices. The R.I.C. Plan, so far at least as the allocation of "national" channels is concerned, seems to leave few grounds for quarrelling.
BROADCASTING has grown as a planless thing, with few attempts to establish clear-cut technical principles on which channels should be allocated. At first these principles were not understood; witness the fact that one of the first "plans" was based on a 5-metre separation of carriers, applying equally to the 200-metre and 500-metre ends of the "medium" band. It is a sad reflection that, when we had mastered the principles, their application was hampered by political pressure.

Clearly, these facts have been fully realised in the preparation of a Report entitled "Post War European Broadcasting," prepared by the British Radio Equipment Manufacturers' Association and recently issued by the Radio Industry Council. The Report is the work of a sub-committee under the chairmanship of C. S. Agate, with R. G. Clark, C. A. W. Harmer, H. A. Brooke and G. Bernard Baker as members. In the introduction, great stress is laid on the need for allocating channels and transmitting power on engineering principles, rather than on the political and other considerations that have prevailed in the past.

Broadly, the aim of the plan is to provide every European country with two "national" programmes, as well as a system of localised transmissions to suit the special needs of any important regions or language groups in each country. It is urged that allocations would be made in such a way as to ensure better quality of reception and greater freedom from interference than in the past; the whole system would be planned to give every listener easy reception of foreign stations as an adjunct to the domestic service.

According to the plan, these objects are attained by reserving the longer wavelengths, which give the greatest service areas, for the "national" stations. The actual wavelength bands suggested are virtually the existing "long" and "medium" bands as at present used for broadcasting, with slight extensions. The order of wavelength, and the power to be used, would be related strictly to the area to be served. Thus the largest country would have the longest wavelength for its "national" services. Shorter wavelengths would be reserved mainly (and the shortest exclusively) for regional services or for the "national" services of very small countries. A station separation of 11 kc/s is allowed for, instead of 9 kc/s as at present.

The Report is issued by the R.I.C. as a 20-page 'booklet, including a bibliography and several appendices; there are also two maps, which are reproduced here on a reduced scale as part of the summary of the suggested plan which follows.

Principles of the Plan.—The Report confines itself to considering only existing transmitting means. Such expedients as partial single side-band transmission, emphasis or de-emphasis of part of the modulation spectrum with subsequent correction, narrow-band FM or other methods rendering obsolete all existing receivers, have not been considered.

The coverage of stations is assumed to be determined by the "fading radius." This means that sufficient power is assumed at the transmitter to provide within the fading radius a signal great enough effectively to overcome static noise. A minimum signal greater than 2mV per metre should be aimed at, because in some industrial areas the present noise-level would constitute an appreciable background on such a signal.

The average fading radius cannot be exactly determined, since it depends on soil conductivity and to some extent on the contours of the ground. Even if an average value of 10⁻¹³ is taken for the conductivity—a value which is applicable for large tracts of Europe—various authorities show considerable differences of opinion on the performance to be expected. Also the maximum tolerable ratio of space- to ground-wave is a matter which must be settled arbitrarily. Various authorities place this ratio as 1:2 and 1:5; therefore, 1:3 has been adopted as a mean value.

Based on these assumptions, the primary service area of medium-wave broadcasting stations is roughly given by:—

\[ \text{Range (miles)} = \frac{\lambda}{4} \]

A plot of range against wavelength for the medium-wave band is found to be nearly a straight line, and this has been extrapolated to include the long-wave band as well. Practical experience shows this to be justified.

It is appreciated that geographical distribution is frequently an important factor in the allocation of wavelengths, and known difficulties with terrain have been taken into account.

No claim is made that the frequency allocations proposed are a unique solution to the problem. The authors are aware that they have not full knowledge of all the factors which must be taken into account in making such a plan, but they feel that the allocations provide adequate support for the argument. Changes can be made without upsetting the plan as a whole, so long as the general principle of relating wavelength to area is treated as fundamental.

The Problem.—A successful broadcasting system must attempt to satisfy the following criteria:—

1. It must provide for every nation at least one, and in most cases two programmes.
2. Where a nation possesses more than one language group, a separate regional programme (in some cases two) must be provided for each language.
3. It must provide localised programmes for each important region.
4. It must so allocate the
available spectrum that a minimum of station interference is experienced at any listening point, and so that reasonable quality of reproduction is possible.

5. It must arrange the powers of the various stations so that they provide signals over the whole of their service areas large enough to prevent interstation interference. Powers in excess of this amount must be forbidden, since they are likely to cause unnecessary interference.

6. The whole system should aim at providing for every listener good signals from foreign stations in addition to his own.

It is obvious that whether all the criteria can be satisfied or not depends on the width of the frequency spectrum allocated to broadcasting, and on the number of nations, languages and regions which have to be covered. Experience of the pre-war system showed that the medium waveband alone cannot solve the problem, and even the addition of the long waveband did not, with the then allocations, provide a very satisfactory solution. For example, in the Montreux Plan, on 1375 kc/s (218 metres) there was proposed a Luxembourg station with a power of 200 kw, which was unsuitably high for the wavelength selected, as well as being excessive for the size and needs of the country concerned; on 240.5 kc/s (1247 metres) a station was allotted to Denmark, which is one of the smallest countries in Europe, and could be adequately covered by a shorter wavelength. The Montreux Plan did, on the other hand, propose certain small improvements on the state of affairs as it was in 1939. For example, the 160 kc/s (1875 m.) transmitter at Hilversum was deleted, thereby saving a valuable channel for more efficient use.

The total number of separate broadcasting stations envisaged in the Montreux Plan was about three hundred, and it is almost certain that the number alone was quite sufficient. It is interesting to note that this number of transmitters, each with a service radius of only fifty miles, would more than cover the entire area of Europe, including European Russia, if evenly distributed.

Since there is obviously not room for such a large number of non-shared channels within the broadcast bands, any broadcasting plan must inevitably use shared frequencies. Both the Montreux Plan and the actual arrangement in use at the moment naturally tend to confine the use of shared channels to the higher frequencies (shorter wavelengths), but the result is not altogether satisfactory, due, at least in part, to the use of excessive power.

Proposed National Services.—There are in Europe thirty countries, excluding small principalities such as San Marino, Andorra, Monaco, etc. It is likely that the policy adopted in countries like Switzerland, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, will follow past practice, as it is probable that the cost involved in providing dual national programmes in each language would be considered prohibitive. In a number of cases, therefore, countries which have more than one language should be considered on a regional basis. In practice Russia appears to be the only country which requires a national service in more than one language. It is extremely difficult to estimate Russia’s probable requirements in this direction, so for the purpose of this Plan a dual service in two languages has been assumed for that part of Russia which lies west of longitude 55 deg. E.

Proceeding on these assumptions, the allocations are obtained by examining the areas occupied by the various nationalities in Europe and writing down a list giving the approximate wavelengths of the stations required in each country to cover its area. In cases where the nature of the country is mountainous, special allowances have to be made, while the longer wavelengths are to be avoided in latitudes lower than 40 deg. N. owing to the prevalence of atmospherics on low frequencies in low latitudes.

The next problem is to find sufficient separate channels of the right order of wavelength to cover the areas with a dual national programme service, and with the largest possible separation.

Proceeding along these lines, it was soon found that more long-wave channels were required than could be contained within the commonly-used band of 150-290 kc/s (2000-1000 m.). There are, however, broadcasting stations allocated between 200 kc/s (910 m.) and 450 kc/s (667 m.) in the Montreux Plan, and these are distributed all over Europe. It is proposed, therefore, to add these frequencies to the normal long-wave band, stopping short at 432 kc/s (700 m.) so as to leave a reasonable gap for intermediate-frequency use between the “long” and “medium” wavebands. An economy also derives from the fact that Russia and Iceland already share one wavelength; and in the same way common-wave working lower down the “long” waveband can be arranged without danger of interference for Spain and Russia, and Finland and Turkey.

By these means it is finally possible to allocate two national channels for each of the thirteen large countries, with the frequency separation increased from 9 kc/s to 11 kc/s. This allocation is given in the appendix.

It might at first sight appear that the design of radio receivers covering the band of 156-432 kc/s (with an unused gap between 288 kc/s and 344 kc/s) is a difficult problem. Actually such receivers have been manufactured in quantity at trifling extra cost.

It is appreciated that the operation of some of these transmitters would have to be the subject of agreement with other operating authorities, but the proposals are not very different from those contained in the Montreux Plan, and it should not be politically or technically impossible to rearrange the frequencies involved so as to meet the requirements of all services at present operating in this band.

We are now left with a number of smaller countries whose size does not require long wavelengths, and to these have to be allotted channels in the “medium” waveband in precisely the same way. Starting from the rough order of wavelength in relation to area, determined in accordance with the principles already laid down, the tentative allocations shown in the
Plan for Europe—
appendix have been compiled. 
These cover the remaining seven-
teen European countries.

So far, then, pairs of national 
channels separated by 11 kc/s have been 
allocated to every nation in Europe with little 
necessity for sharing channels. We can, 
therefore, designate the bands 
from 150 kc/s to 1157 kc/s (2000 
to 260 m.) as the "national 
waves," although, in fact, certain 
gaps have been left in the medium 
"national" band to accommo-
date some of the regional services 
required in the bigger bands in 
Europe and for a chain of stations 
along the North African coast.

As we shall see later, when we 
discuss briefly the regional sys-
tems, the requirements of certain 
localities—e.g., Western Russia 
and Turkey—cannot easily be 
predicted, and it may be desirable 
to use some of the "exclusive 
" national channels to provide 
proper regional coverage. Pre-
sent practice has given us some 
experience of such workings, and, 
view of the enormous distances 
involved, no interference need be 
feared on these shared national 
channels if the proper power 
limitations are observed.

Regional Services.—The re-
quirements of regional broad-
casting are not so easy to define, but, 
taking Great Britain as repre-
sentative, and roughly comparing 
the areas and population distribution 
of other countries, we can arrive 
at a list showing the number of 
regional wavelengths required in 
every country. This list comprises 
a total of 93 channels, plus an 
undetermined number for Euro-
pean Russia.

The frequencies at our disposal 
lie between 1157 and 1560 kc/s 
(260 and 192 metres)—a band of 
403 kc/s. The maximum fading 
radius in this band (A/4) is 75 
miles; therefore, provided that 
the transmitter power is not 
allowed to exceed that required to 
give the minimum signal at the 
edge of the service area, the use 
of common waves in this band 
will cause no trouble. This is 
borne out in practice.

If we allow two stations per 
channel, we obtain a total of 
exactly 72 stations with a fre-
quency separation of 11 kc/s.

This, with the "regional" fre-
quencies reserved in the medium 
wave national band (see the ap-
pendix) would satisfy the require-
ments for Europe, excluding 
Russia. But experience in the 
past has shown that common-
wave working is practicable pro-
vided that stations are separated 
by 1,500-2,000 miles; it is there-
fore clearly possible in a large 
number of cases to operate three, 
and in some cases four, stations 
per channel, so that a satisfactory 
solution to the regional allocation 
problem should not be difficult.

It is obviously outside the scope 
of this Report to attempt to allo-
cate either the exact wavelengths 
or positions of all the regional 
services required in Europe, but as 
a check on the plan, the regional 
system proposed for the United 
Kingdom can be roughly outlined. 
It will be assumed that 11 regional 
transmitters are required in Great 
Britain and Northern Ireland. Of 
these, four (Glasgow, Hudders-
field, London and Washford) will 
require allocations from those re-
served in the medium-wave 
national band. The remaining 
seven regions must therefore be 
covered in the regional band 
above 1157 kc/s. Since there are 
403 kc/s in the band, these seven 
channels could be evenly spaced 
80 kc/s apart. Suggested posi-
tions for these regional stations 
are shown in the accompanying 
map. Should any area be insuffi-
ciently covered by its transmitter, 
it is entirely within the scope of 
the plan for additional transmit-
ters to be installed giving the pro-
gramme appropriate to the area 
and synchronised with one of the 
other limited-power regional sta-
tions at a suitable distance away.

This band, therefore, from 
1157-1560 kc/s appears to be 
ample to provide an expanded 
regional service for the whole of 
Europe. Following the proposal 
to call the range between 150 kc/s 
and 1157 kc/s (2,000-260 metres) 
the "national wavebands," it 
would be convenient to refer to 
this second band as the "regional 
waveband." But, as already men-
tioned, it has been necessary be-
cause of special considerations in 
certain localities to allocate on the 
longer wave-lengths a limited num-
ber of regional services in five 
small groups. In addition, alloca-
tions have to be provided for 
Cairo, Algiers, Tunis, Jerusalem, 
Tripoli and Morocco. Despite 
these requirements, the majority 
of regional services are allocated 
in the 1157-1560 kc/s band, and 
the broad classification of the 
waveband as "regional" may be 
considered applicable.

It is interesting to observe that 
these allocations greatly simplify 
both the handling of radio re-
cievers by the public and the 
designing of scales for the re-
cievers. Thus from 150 kc/s to 
1157 kc/s (2,000 to 260 metres), 
where there are few shared chan-
nels, the user may reasonably 
expect at night time to find clear 
programmes subject only to 
natural fading.

It is also worth pointing out 
that if it proves possible to re-
engineer the broadcasting services 
of Europe on the lines described, 
due attention should be given to 
the relation between national and 
regional allocations (particularly 
the latter) and the intermediate 
frequencies used in broadcast re-
cievers. In the past designers 
have always been faced with the 
problem of finding suitable inter-
mediate frequencies after any 
wavelength plan has become a 
fait accompli. The problem 
would be simplified by collabora-
tion, so that certain undesirable 
combinations of frequencies would 
always be avoided in any one 
area.

Finally, it has long been real-
ised that for the success of any 
European broadcasting scheme 
the frequencies of transmitters 
must be rigidly kept if interfer-
ence is to be avoided. In general, 
this state of affairs has been 
reached, and a close check is kept 
on the emission frequencies of 
broadcasting stations. There is, 
however, an unchecked and viru-
 lent source of interference—over-
modulation. It is possibly desir-
able, with an 11-kc/s gap, to 
avoid radiating side-bands outside 
± 8 kc/s. Audio filters can easily 
achieve this at the transmitter, 
but they are useless if the modu-
lation is allowed to exceed 100 per 
cent. The authors feel that it is 
vitai to enforce control of modula-
tion depths, and would point out 
that automatic engineering means 
of achieving this are well known, 
and that there is no need to rely
Plan for Europe—
on the manual dexterity of a
monitoring engineer.

**APPENDIX**

**Tentative National Frequency Allocations**

Providing two national programme services for 30 countries. (European Russia is regarded as two
countries as it has two main languages.)

### Extended Long-wave Band

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency (kc/s)</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>116</td>
<td>Iceland (A)</td>
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<tr>
<td>117</td>
<td>Norway (A)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Great Britain (A)</td>
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<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>Sweden (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>211</td>
<td>Ireland (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222</td>
<td>Great Britain (B)</td>
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<tr>
<td>233</td>
<td>Germany (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>244</td>
<td>Spain (B)</td>
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<tr>
<td>255</td>
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<td>266</td>
<td>Norway (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>277</td>
<td>Sweden (B)</td>
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<tr>
<td>278</td>
<td>Italy (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>344</td>
<td>Germany (B)</td>
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<tr>
<td>355</td>
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<td>377</td>
<td>Italy (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Finland (A)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>399</td>
<td>Turkey (C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>410</td>
<td>Poland (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>421</td>
<td>Finland (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>432</td>
<td>Turkey (C)</td>
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### Medium-wave Band

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<td>Greece (B)</td>
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<td>Switzerland (A)</td>
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<tr>
<td>607</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>629</td>
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<td>Holland (A)</td>
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<td>Estonia (A)</td>
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<td>1047</td>
<td>Regional</td>
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<td>Regional</td>
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<td>Regional</td>
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<td>Regional</td>
</tr>
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<td>Latvia (B)</td>
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<td>Holland (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1146</td>
<td>Estonia (B)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Notes.

Alternative programmes for each country are denoted by the letters A and B.

Separate language divisions (Russia only) shown by numerals 1 and 2.

Russia and Iceland are given common frequencies (as now).

As explained in the text, very small countries are regarded as "regions" and excluded from the
national allocations suggested in this list. Frequencies from 1157 to 1553 kc/s are exclusively "re-
gional"; in addition, those regional stations serving the larger areas are given some channels from the
national band.

It is realised that in one or two cases national coverage is slightly
inadequate, and so extra very-low-power transmitters will have to be
provided to fill the gaps, as is common practice in Great Britain to-
day.
"SEE-SAW" OR "PARAPHASE"?

Origin of the Circuit: Some Practical Points

By R. E. H. CARPENTER

In the July issue of Wireless World, Squadron Leader Scroggie describes a circuit which he aptly calls the "See-Saw" circuit, but which he distinguishes from the "Paraphase" circuit.

In British Patent No. 325833 I coined the word "Paraphase," and if comparison be made between Fig. 6 of the patent and Fig. 4 of the article just mentioned, the two circuits will be found to be essentially identical: the only difference of any importance is that, in the patent drawing the tapping point on the resistance path connected between the two anodes from which the grid voltage of the second valve is derived is displaced, as it ought to be, a little towards the anode of the input valve. This was of course obviously essential in 1920 when high-gain valves were not in common use, but in my opinion it still is for reasons which will be given later. The self-balancing properties of this circuit were well known to me, and it was drawing public attention to it. The circuit as such has, however, been described by various writers; see, for example, L. W. Hayes on page 950 of World Radio for 12th December, 1930, and Radio Designers' Handbook, p. 12. The circuit was used in the Science Museum receiver in 1930 and was chosen because of its self-balancing properties to which I drew attention at the time.

Turning now to S/Ldr. Scroggie's proposal to use a fixed centre-tapping from which to derive the grid voltage for the second valve, I fear that in practice this may give very bad results for the following reasons.

First, it is stated that "so long as the resistors R5 and R6 are equal within commercial limits... the voltage balance adjusts itself." A pair of resistors marked "1 MΩ" taken at random might easily differ by 40 per cent., which is 10 per cent. more than the maximum cross-connected anode-to-anode resistance lying between the tapping point and the electrical fulcrum—obviously this is only a small matter if values of very high voltage gain be employed, but it operates to impede the balance.

Thirdly, the anode resistances may be unequal. It is therefore very much better to employ an adjustable tapping point, which is readily done by connecting a wire-wound potentiometer type resistor between R5 and R6 and taking the grid lead off from the movable connection: the correct balance point is then very easily found in one of two ways.

If the two anode resistances (50,000 Ω in S/Ldr. Scroggie's diagram) are known to be equal within, say, 5 per cent., a pair of low-resistance phones (or better, a step-down transformer with phones across its secondary) is connected in the common anode supply lead to the two valves and signals are applied to the grid of the first. On adjusting the tapping point a position will be found where the signals heard show a sharply defined minimum, which indicates of course that the phase-opposed alternating components of the anode currents are equal, and hence, that the alternating voltages at the points A, B, are equal to the same degree of accuracy as the values of two anode resistors.

Alternatively, if two precisely equal high-value resistors say of 1 MΩ each be connected in series between the two anodes and a condenser in series with a pair of high-resistance headphones be connected between the centre point and earth, the balance point can be determined as before. Whatever method is employed, it is important to do nothing which will affect materially the magnification given by the valves, or the balance will change on removal of the balancing components.

Once the correct tapping-point has been set with a pair of reasonably similar valves, the self-balancing effect is quite sufficient to compensate for subsequent...
"See-Saw" or "Paraphase"?—

changes in valve characteristic or for valve replacement; it is chiefly in this that the real value of the circuit lies.

When two valves of similar characteristics are not available or when the characteristics are not known, a good approximation to the optimum tapping point may be made by interchanging the two valves, and noting the change, if any, in the point of balance: the mean of the two settings may then be employed. If, however, a re-balance can be made whenever a valve is to be replaced it is obviously undesirable to adopt this practice.

Referring to Fig. 4, it is in many cases better to omit the condenser shown in shunt with the common cathode resistor since this carries no alternating component when the valves are balanced and the omission of the condenser helps the self-balancing effect.

The manuscript of the above article, together with several letters of comment on the article "The See-Saw Circuit" have been passed to S/Ldr. Scroggie. He replies as follows:—

I AM indebted to several correspondents for pointing out that my calculations of the "See-Saw" circuit did not take into account the loading effect of the grid leak (R7 in Fig. 1) and several readers have worked out the balance conditions for it. When plotted, they yield Fig. B, which should be compared with my original Fig. 5. It will be seen that the general character of the results is similar, but numerically the departure from balance when R5 and R6 are equal is somewhat increased. It is interesting to note that this increase is exactly neutralised if the valve gain, M, is increased by 50 per cent. As one reader has hinted, if the resistances of R5, R6 and R7 are very high, it may not be permissible to ignore the input capacitance of the valve. For example, it is unlikely to be less than 10 µµF.

Fig. A. A modification of the original "See-Saw" circuit.

that they are correct only when its resistance is infinite. As one of them has pointed out, this condition can be achieved by a modification of the circuit, shown as Fig. A. But I must admit

which at a frequency of 10,000 c/s is 1.6 megohms reactance, comparable with the resistances. If a high-amplification triode were used, the capacitance would be many times greater owing to Miller
tained is suitably adjusted, as it is unlikely that the voltage gain of an output stage would be sufficient to ensure a good enough balance otherwise.

Mr. Carpenter has rightly pointed out that it is better to omit the cathode resistor by-pass condenser when it is common to two similar push-pull valves. If it is not common, however, it is desirable to fit the condenser in order to avoid loss of amplification.

In referring to resistors equal within commercial limits I did not mean that resistors of unlimited tolerances should be used without any check, but that ordinary commercial types could be used after a rough test for equality within, say, 10 per cent., and that it was unnecessary to use precision resistors, or a wire-wound potentiometer as advocated by Mr. Carpenter. I assume, of course, that the amplifier is to be used for ordinary purposes, and not in some precision measurement system.

The name "Paraphase" has often been understood to apply to the particular phase-splitter circuit in which the grid drive for one valve is obtained from a
tapping on the anode resistor of the other; and I confess that I have used it in this sense. I am glad to have it on the authority of the inventor himself that he gave it a much wider meaning, covering practically all RC push-pull amplifiers. This being so, the name "see-saw" is useful for distinguishing one particular form of Paraphase circuit.

Some correspondents made the mistake of saying I assumed the characteristics of the two valves in this circuit to be identical. On the contrary, I said "There is obviously no necessity for this valve (i.e., the driver) to be of the same type as the phase-splitter valve," and to emphasise this point I started by showing the former as an arbitrary generator, which need not even be a valve at all! Except for an output stage, the question of equality of valve characteristics, on which Mr. Carpenter lays stress, therefore does not arise. Nor does the necessity for equal anode resistances. There are, of course, some incidental advantages in symmetry.

Mr. Carpenter's tests for balance both necessitate close equality of two resistors. If facilities exist for obtaining such resistors (or, better still, resistors differing by a specified percentage) it is simpler to use them as the anode-to-anode resistors in the see-saw circuit; and provided the stage gain is not less than about 40 (as it will be with tetrode or pentode) a satisfactory and permanent balance is automatically ensured, without the trouble of making periodical tests and adjustments. It was to draw attention to this great advantage of the see-saw circuit that my article was written.

M. G. S.

SILICONES

Organic Silicon Compounds with Exceptional Properties as Insulators

A NEW range of chemical compounds known as silicones has been developed in America by the Dow Corning Corporation, and is described in a paper in the July 1945 issue of Proceedings of the I.R.E. These possess the heat stability associated with conventional inorganic silicon insulators such as glass, quartz, mica and ceramics, yet are available as liquids, greases and "resins" with physical properties usually found only in the organic group of insulators such as transformer oil, waxes and thermoplastic resins.

The production of organic compounds with silicon is not in itself new, but hitherto it has been of rather academic interest. Recent developments have been along the lines followed in producing new plastics, namely, the building of large polymerised molecules having different physical characteristics. At one end of the scale are a series of volatile liquids with freezing points down to -68 deg. C. and at the other, a range of thermostetting resins with transition temperatures in the region of 250 deg. C. All are characterised by chemical inertness and resistance to oxidation; they do not affect rubber and are non-corrosive to metals. While being soluble in most organic solvents they are unaffected by water. The surface tension of the liquids is low and they show a preferential wetting power for the surfaces of silica compounds such as ceramics, glass, etc.

The latter property combined with the fact that the power factor is less than 0.0002 below 100 Mc/s has been exploited in waterproofing ceramic and glass coil formers to maintain surface resistivity under conditions of tropical humidity. Surfaces so treated exhibit water repelling properties reminiscent of paraffin wax.

Another possible use in radio apparatus is for liquid-filled condensers. The dielectric strength is of the order of 250 to 300 volts per mil and the volume resistivity does not fall below 10\(^10\) at 200 deg. C. Further, the temperature coefficients of power factor and viscosity are much lower than those of conventional hydrocarbon transformer oils.

The silicone greases have been used as a sealing and insulating compound for high tension equipment and also as a lubricant for control spindles in radio instruments, since they do not melt or harden over a temperature range from 200 deg. C. to -40 deg. C.

It seems likely that the use of silicones may revolutionise the design of rotating electrical machinery. Hitherto the limit of working temperature has been set by the slow carbonising or charring of conventional insulating materials like impregnated tape, shellac and plastic varnishes. Now it is possible to use glass fibre, mica or asbestos with silicone resins to fill voids and exclude moisture. Machines of half the usual size for a given horsepower have been built by Westinghouse in America and have shown no sign of deterioration when run at 175 deg. C.

OUR COVER

ONE of the first published pictures of the image received on the viewing screen of an aircraft's radar apparatus, which traces a dim picture of the earth below, is reproduced on our front cover. The photograph, taken in a reconnaissance aircraft flying above dense cloud on D-Day, June 6th, 1944, shows the Normandy coastline. The concentric rings are a fixed scale for measuring distance, whilst the straight line from the centre is a rotating scanner beam.

Other pictures in the series showed scattered blobs of light on the sea which, to radar operators, revealed the Allied invasion fleet approaching the coast.

The illustration, which is taken from the overseas Service edition of Life, first appeared in the U.S. Army Air Forces magazine Impact.
Emergency

LIFEBOAT TRANSMITTER

Auto Transmission of Tone-modulated Distress Signals with Provision also for Telephony

A versatile radio transmitter radiating a tone-modulated signal on the international distress frequency of 500 kc/s (600 metres), with provision also for transmission on the marine short-wave bands of 24, 36 and 63 metres, is being produced in this country by the Société Anonyme Radio Belgique.

Transmission can be effected either by an automatic device operated by a spring motor, which sends out the SOS signal, or by a hand-operated morse key, both these items being built into the set.

Until recently only tone-modulated signals could be transmitted, but in the most up-to-date models provision is made for telephony transmissions also. This latter facility does not entail any major changes in the circuit, which in all essential respects is the same in both transmitters. Incidentally the tone-modulated set is described as the type RB4, which with the extra speech facility, becomes the type RB4-P.

Reduced to its fundamentals the circuit used is a master oscillator driving an RF power amplifier, the latter being grid modulated. There are, however, several interesting features about the actual arrangement of the circuit for the different frequencies available that are worthy of a more detailed description.

The master oscillator, which is the valve V1 in the simplified circuit diagram, is a 6V6 tetrode. On 500 kc/s it is used as a triode oscillator, but on the three high frequencies it is converted into a triot oscillator, which of course requires tetrode connections.

Three single-pole-four-way switches S1, S2, and S3 make the required circuit changes to V1 and their respective functions can quite clearly be followed in the circuit diagram. It need only be said that a Hartley oscillator is used for 500 kc/s, while on the short waves the oscillator is crystal controlled. The tuned circuit, C5L2, in the cathode-earth lead of V1 is not short-circuited on 500 kc/s, as its impedance is too low at this frequency to justify the added complication.

The RF output from V1 is fed via C6 to the grid of V2, which is an 807 valve, operated as an RF power amplifier. On 500 kc/s the output from the PA is fed to a varimeter, L6, which combines the functions of anode circuit and aerial matching transformer. On the short waves these two functions are separated and L4, shunted by one of the pre-set condensers C15, C16, or C17.
tions on the upper portion of L6. Likewise S8 and S9 are six-way switches but shown for simplicity in our diagram as tappings.

In position 2 of the four-way switches, which corresponds to SW1 of the waveswitch marking, 250 kc/s and between 20 and 25 watts on the short waves. The difference in aerial power is accounted for by the fact that with an elevated wire of practical length very little loading is required to bring it into resonance on the short-wave frequencies, whereas on 500 kc/s a considerable portion of L6 has to be used as a loading inductance.

The operation of the circuit is not difficult to follow in this simplified form for it need only be remembered that all the four-way switches, S1 to S6 inclusive, are on a common spindle and when one is in the position marked 1 all are in this position. Thus on 500 kc/s the variometer is brought into use by means of S4 and adjustment for resonance is made by means of S7. Actually S7 is a six-way switch going to as seen in the panel view of the transmitter, V1 becomes a tritet oscillator with a 4,740 kc/s crystal in the grid circuit and with the output taken from the anode at the fundamental frequency.

The coil L4 is brought into circuit in the anode of V2 by S4, position 2, while S5, position 2, places C15 in parallel. This, in common with C16 and C17, is an air-dielectric condenser previously set to tune L4 correctly to resonance. Whilst tritet operation of V1 is maintained on positions 3 and 4 of the waveswitches, in these positions the appropriate anode circuits of V1 are tuned to the second and third harmonies respectively of the other two crystals to give an output either on 8,290 kc/s or on 12,685 kc/s. On 500 kc/s the aerial circuit is adjusted to resonance by S8 (one of the six-point switches).}

While on the short waves adjustment for maximum radiation is effected by the six-point switch S9. This selects the appropriate tapping on the aerial matching transformer which, as already mentioned, is link-coupled to the PA anode circuit. The switch S9 is ganged with S7 and S8 and comprises the tuning control on the panel.

This control may be regarded as a coarse tuning of the aerial and PA anode circuits, the final adjustment being made by a knob marked "Aerial Selection," which consists of the rotating coil of the variometer, L6, and the short-wave tuning condenser C18 ganged on the one spindle.

This apparently elaborate aerial tuning system is really necessary in the present case as provision has to be made for efficient operation on several different kinds of aerial.

Two main types of aerial are catered for in the design, one is a long elevated wire held aloft by a kite or balloon, both of which are included in the equipment, and the other is a short emergency aerial rigged from the lifeboat's mast when conditions preclude
the use of the kite or balloon.

The type of modulation used for this transmitter is of particular interest since it is designed to produce a broad band modulated signal, which is more easily detected than the usual sine-wave modulation.

It will have been observed that the two modulating valves V3 and V4 are connected as a multi-vibrator, and this form of tone generator is employed in order to produce a square wave for modulating the PA valve.

A study of the multi-vibrator circuit will reveal that if C9 be disconnected the valves V3 and V4 then become a straightforward two-stage RC amplifier. It now only needs a microphone to be connected to the grid of V3 for speech modulation of V2 to be effected. When a carbon microphone is used, and this is the one normally supplied, a microphone transformer will be required and a polarising voltage for the microphone has to be provided. The set is battery-operated so this presents no difficulty.

The battery is contained in a separate compartment in the transmitter box and consists of a 12-volt dry-charged inert accumulator of 12 Ah capacity. This battery will hold its charge for a minimum of two years without attention even in tropical zones. Needless to say the battery is not an orthodox pattern but a special type developed by Exide for uses of this kind.

Each accumulator cell consists of two separate compartments one above the other. In the lower one are the plates which, although dry, are in a fully charged state. In the upper compartment is the acid electrolyte. When the transmitter is required to be brought into operation seals between the two compartments of each cell are pierced by a knife, or any spiked tool available, the acid pours into the plate compartment and the battery is ready for use.

The 12-volt supply from this battery is taken to the transmitter through a cable and plug, this arrangement being adopted in order to enable an external source of HT and LT to be used as an a tentative to the built-in battery. The LT supply feeds to the valves heaters, which are arranged in series-parallel, and also to a built-in vibrator HT unit.

Two HT supplies are provided by this vibrator unit, one at 650 volts for the 807 PA valve and another at 250 volts for operating the master oscillator, V1, and the multi-vibrators V3 and V4. The former is obtained by synchronous rectification on the vibrator unit, while the 250-volt supply comes from a separate winding on the vibrator transformer feeding a metal rectifier and two capacitors C12 and C13 arranged as a voltage doubler. Grid bias for the PA valve, V2, is obtained from the 250-volt HT supply, it being provided by the voltage drop across the resistor R8.

The transmitter complete with battery, kite and emergency aerials, and spare valves, is contained in a watertight buoyant wooden box of rugged construction, weighing about 55 lb.

**SOLAR RADIATION**

**Variation in Intensity of Daylight and Ultra-Violet Rays Over the Solar Cycle**

The interesting findings of Dr. J. R. Ashworth in regard to the variations over the solar cycle in the intensity of daylight and ultra-violet rays reaching the earth’s surface, have been mentioned before in these pages. Briefly, the findings are that a minimum intensity of both daylight and ultra-violet rays occurs at the sunspot maximum and a maximum intensity at the sunspot minimum. Yet the sun's ultra-violet radiations are known to be largely responsible for the ionisation of the upper atmosphere, and this is at a maximum at the sunspot maximum, following the variation in solar activity more or less directly.

In a recent letter to *Nature* Dr. Ashworth gives further particulars, and also offers an interesting explanation of the effects observed. He states that, while the curve showing the intensity of the daylight rays has the same period as that for the sunspot activity but is in inverse relation to it, that for the ultra-violet rays exhibits two weak maxima on either side of its minimum and so the curve appears to show a double fluctuation over the cycle.

The explanation given—subject, of course, to modification—is as follows. The daylight rays are assumed to be emitted from the sun in a fairly constant manner, and their emission not to be subject to any large fluctuation over the sunspot cycle. But during their passage through the earth’s atmosphere and they are subject to absorption and the absorbing agent is the ionisation existing there, which has the same period as the sunspot variation. Thus the absorption is greatest at the sunspot maximum and the intensity of the rays at the earth’s surface is therefore at a minimum at that time.

The ultra-violet rays, on the other hand, are subject to two sorts of fluctuation: (a) their emission varies in a direct relation to the sunspot curve, and (b) their absorption in the earth’s atmosphere varies according to the ionisation existing there, which again is in direct relation to the sunspot curve. So that, when the sunspot activity begins to increase the intensity of the ultra-violet rays would at first increase due to the increase in their emission. But, early in the cycle, their absorption would begin to increase due to the increasing ionisation of the upper air, and so a point would be reached when their intensity at the earth’s surface would begin to diminish, and would continue doing so until the sunspot maximum, when the ionisation is greatest. After the sunspot maximum the intensity of the rays would at first increase due to the reduction in the impeding ionisation, and, later on, would diminish due to their decreased emission. There are thus two periods in the cycle, Dr. Ashworth states, when the intensities of the daylight and ultra-violet rays are moving in opposite directions, the one increasing and the other decreasing.

The ionisation of the upper air is at the present time increasing extraordinarily rapidly, the sunspot minimum being now well past, and so observations made in the near future should be of great interest in the light which they may throw upon this matter. Incidentally all this information should also be of great value in helping to increase our knowledge of the ionosphere and radio propagation by its means.
ACHIEVEMENTS OF RADAR

Its Part in the War

In the issues of Wireless World for February and March this year we were able to describe the basic principles of radiolocation or radar, and also to trace briefly the history of its development. A "release" of somewhat more detailed information on its operational uses in the war has now been issued, and it becomes more evident than ever that it was no exaggeration to claim that the part played by this offshoot of radio communication has been truly decisive. All the fighting Services have paid glowing tributes to the help it has given them.

Much additional information has also been disclosed on the origins of radiolocation, and it is gratifying that no unseemly or contentious claims are made as to British priority. No one individual, group or even nation can claim to have "invented" such a thing as radiolocation, but it seems clear that Britain, under the spur of stern necessity, had a working system ready for the war; in this she was first.

A very pleasing picture is presented of the most wholehearted co-operation with America; in this matter it has been to a great extent a case of Lease-Lend in reverse. Many of the devices to be described were originated in the U.K., and were subsequently exploited in the U.S.A. To quote the official British statement, our main contribution to the United States war effort in radar was in the form of ideas, blueprints and prototypes, but quite a large amount of British-made equipment was "lease-lent"; for example, the first U.S. 8th Air Force aircraft to aim their bombs with the help of "H2S" radar gear did so with British-made apparatus.

Radiolocation as a weapon of war, it is now disclosed, arose from an almost accidental contact between a member of the Committee for the Scientific Survey of Air Defence and an official of the National Physical Laboratory. The next step was in 1935, when senior representatives of all three Services discussed the matter. By the end of the year, experimental work was sufficiently far advanced for the Air Ministry to decide on establishing a chain of five radar stations on the East coast of England—the first operational system anywhere in the world. In 1937 radar figured in the annual air exercises and fifteen more stations were authorised in August of the same year.

This was the chain of stations which, as we all know, played such a decisive part in the Battle of Britain. They operated on wavelengths of the order of 10 metres: distance was measured by pulse travel time and bearing (azimuth) by modifications of existing DF methods. Height-finding was a separate development, made possible by a method involving a comparison of strength of the received echo at two sets of aerials at different heights above the ground.

The 10-metre stations were unable to detect aircraft flying at very low heights; for this purpose an equipment using a much shorter wavelength (about 1.35 metre) and with an aerial system rotating on a turntable was evolved. This apparatus was later adapted for installation in night-fighter aircraft; by manoeuvring his machine so as to centre the indicating spot, the pilot was able to reach a position sufficiently close to the enemy aircraft to enable the pilot to close for the attack. Gear of this kind, and subsequent developments of it, was largely responsible for the enemy decision to call off the intensive night bombing of Britain. The toll of his losses to our night fighters rose steadily, until in May, 1941, it amounted to 102 bombers.

Centimetre-wave radar was the next big step. It is the basis of almost all the later applications, and was largely made possible by the development of the modern magnetron valve, devised during the war by a research group working at Birmingham University. The transmission of high pulse powers in centimetre wavelengths and the detection of the reflected energy has involved an entirely new technique, full details of which cannot yet be fully disclosed. It can be stated, however, that a magnetron valve adapted to use cavity resonators generates powers of the order of hundreds of kilowatts in the transmitter, and that the receiver is a superheterodyne in which the local oscillator is a tunable cavity resonator excited on the
Achievements of Radar—velocity modulation principle, with a crystal detector as first detector or frequency changer.

Centimetre technique not only provided the night-fighter pilot with more practical equipment; it made possible the map-like device which helped our bombers to find their targets and also increased the accuracy of the gear used in naval warfare. It also enabled anti-aircraft and coastal artillery fire to be directed with much greater precision—surpassing the inherent accuracy of the guns themselves. Success in this direction can be gauged from the fact that, during the flying-bomb episode, radar-aided batteries were, towards the end of the attacks, able to account for between 80 and 100 per cent. of the bombs that came into their field of fire.

Not the least important contribution of centimetre radar was in conquering the U-boats. Here the problem was to sweep many square miles of sea and to locate a piece of metal projecting above the surface of the water by little more than the height of a man. In any case, it had earlier been realised that very short wavelengths, with their correspondingly compact aerial systems, were essential for naval purposes, and an experimental aircraft detection equipment had been installed on a battleship and cruiser as early as 1938.

Naval uses of radiolocation take many other forms; hostile aircraft detection, direction of carrier-borne fighters, for gunlaying at night and in fog, navigation, minelaying and the presentation of complete tactical pictures of shipping in convoy or fighting units in fleet actions. For most naval purposes narrow beams are needed, and, so far as gunlaying is concerned, the accuracy achieved is at least as great as can be made use of by the guns.

The Naval "Plan Position Indicator" presents, by scanning a considerable volume of space many times a minute, a complete picture of the relative positions of all aircraft in the vicinity; also the shape of any coastline within range is accurately delineated.

The extraordinary and immediate success which followed the application of centimetre radar to long-range bombing deserves special mention. Analysis shows that airborne equipment multiplies by five times the effectiveness of an air fleet costing ten times as much as the gear. For the results achieved by our intensive attacks on Germany we have, first, to thank the so-called "Gee" equipment, which provided navigational aid regardless of visibility. From navigation to "blind" bomb-aiming by radiolocation is a short step, and two equipments for this purpose soon came into being. With the "Oboe" system ground stations' guide the aircraft to the target and give the signal to release bombs.

The parallel development which made blind bombing a reality at distances beyond the effective range of Gee or Oboe was an entirely self-contained airborne equipment known as "H2S" which reproduces in the aircraft a shadow map of the terrain below. Land, water and built-up areas can be interpreted from the images on the tube.

When so many persons have made notable contributions to the development of radiolocation, it would be invidious to single out any individuals for personal mention. Indeed, the whole story has been one of successful team-work, and much of the credit must go to those who organised the teams.
VALVE VECTORS AGAIN

Amplified Explanation for Students

By K. R. STURLEY,

Ph.D., B.Sc., M.I.E.E.

I CANNOT ignore the plea of "Student" in the correspondence columns of the August Wireless World to amplify my statement on valve vectors.* I ought to state that the question at issue is one of convention, but as far as I am aware the only point about which there can be any argument is whether $E_q$ and $\mu E_q$ (the generated voltage imagined to exist inside the valve) are to be represented as vectorially 180° out-of-phase or as in-phase with each other. Either convention may be chosen, but the results, so far as grid voltage $E_q$, anode current $I_a$, and output voltage $E_o$ are concerned, are the same whichever convention is assumed. I still stick to the view that it is better to show $E_q$ and $\mu E_q$ 180° out-of-phase with each other. Anyone who is interested in a comparison of the two conventions should refer to the correspondence columns of Wireless Engineer (August 1945) in which I examine one against the other.

Before passing to the specific query on the vector analysis of a reactive anode load raised in "Student's" letter, it is worth while recapitulating the vector analysis for the resistive anode load according to my convention.

In Fig. 1 and its equivalent in Fig. 2, let us imagine that we have a sinusoidal (to be pedantic cosine sinusoidal) voltage of $-E_q \cos 2\pi ft$ applied to the grid of an amplifier valve of constants $\mu$ and $R_a$, and the time instant corresponds to $t = 0$. This input voltage will be at its maximum negative value of $-E_q$ and will be illustrated by a vector to the left of point o in Fig. 3. By my convention the generated voltage inside the valve is represented by $\mu E_q \cos 2\pi ft$ and will be at its maximum positive value. It is therefore a vector to the right of o in Fig. 3. This voltage produces a current $I'_a \cos 2\pi ft$ in the load resistance $R_o$ such that $I'_a = \frac{\mu E'_q}{R_o + R_a}$, and it is obviously in phase with $\mu E_q$. The current from the generator is also represented by a vector $I'_a$ to the right of o in Fig. 3. The output voltage $E_o \cos 2\pi ft$ is in phase with $I'_a$ and is clearly 180° out-of-phase with $E_q$. So far then this is in agreement with facts, for we know experimentally that an input voltage wave-shape suffers a complete 180° phase shift (of all its components equally if it is a complex wave-shape) in the amplifier, and the output voltage is therefore a magnified mirror image of the input. For example, in Fig. 4a, the wave-shape shown for the input voltage is flattened at the top and peaked at the bottom and it can be resolved into a fundamental and 2nd harmonic frequency. The output wave shape is the magnified inverted image of Fig. 4b; it will be seen that both fundamental and 2nd harmonic have been given a 180° phase shift. It is worth stressing that 180° phase shift of the 2nd harmonic is represented on the time scales of Figs. 4a and b by a time-interval change of one-half that of the fundamental; i.e., for both frequencies it represents a half-cycle shift.

Reverting to the vector diagram of Fig. 3, we find that what is missing is a vector for anode current in phase with $E_q$; instead we have a vector current $I'_a \cos 2\pi ft - R'_a$ of 180° out-of-phase with $E_q$. To understand what this means we must turn to the voltage and current-time relationships shown in Fig. 5a and b. From Fig. 2 it is clear that the AC current from the generator subtracts from the DC anode current; i.e., when $I'_a \cos 2\pi ft$ is increasing, the total anode current is decreasing and vice versa. We, therefore, see from Fig. 5b

Valve Vectors Again—that the total anode current \( I'_a \) — \( I'_a \cos 2\pi ft \) decreases when \( E_g \) decreases and increases when \( E_g \) increases and we can therefore say that the anode current is in phase with the grid voltage.

earlier article. There are objections, as Dr. Farnum pointed out,* because a student may then be confused by seeing two apparently cancelling vectors \( I'_a \) and \( I'_a \). I think therefore that from most points of view it is better to omit it and merely draw attention to Fig. 5b, which indicates quite clearly the relationship of \( I'_a \) to the actual anode current. What we are mostly interested in is the voltage vector \( E_g \cos 2\pi ft \) and the need to show a vector for true anode current only arises in current negative feedback problems.

To complete the vectorial picture shown in Fig. 3, it should be stated that the sets of vectors shown are actually continuously rotating in an anti-clockwise direction in space, completing \( f \) revolutions per second at an angular velocity of \( 2\pi f \) radians per second.

The answer to “Student’s” query “does the connection of a reactance in parallel with a resistive load affect the phase of the anode voltage \( E_g \)” is a very emphatic “yes.” His difficulty seems to arise because he has not appreciated that the phase relationship of \( E_g \) and \( E_g \) is unaffected by the anode load impedance, and also that \( E_g \) is not the anode-cathode voltage but is the actual generated voltage, which has between it and the anode-cathode terminals the internal or slope resistance of the valve (see Fig. 2). Once this idea is accepted we have the straightforward case of a generator of \( E_g \) with an internal resistance \( R_a \) feeding into a reactive load impedance; the terminal voltage (the output voltage from anode to cathode) has a phase relationship to \( E_g \) dependent on \( R_a \), and the resistive and reactive components of the load.

An inductive-resistive parallel-connected load is illustrated in the equivalent circuit of Fig. 6, using again my convention but dropping the cosine factor in the AC voltages and currents.

A vector diagram for this circuit is shown in Fig. 7. The generated voltage phase relationship to \( E_g \) is unaffected by the addition of inductance and is still \( 180^\circ \) out of phase. The current \( I'_a \) it produces (in opposition to \( I_b \)) lags behind \( E_g \) because the circuit is inductive, and it divides between \( R_a \) and \( I_b \) to give two current vectors \( I_a \) and \( I_b \), respectively mutually at right angles. The output voltage vector \( E_g \) is naturally in phase with \( I_b \), and adds to \( I'_a R_a \) to make \( E_g \), upon which it leads by an angle dependent on the magnitudes of \( R_a \), \( R_a \) and \( I'_a \). The voltage and current-time relationships are shown in Fig. 8a and b, for which it is assumed that there is no DC voltage across \( I_a \); i.e., the DC anode voltage equals \( E_g \), the battery voltage. Again it is seen that the actual anode current

Fig. 4. Illustration of the 180° phase change from input to output of a resistance loaded valve. (a) Input signal; (b) Output signal.

We can represent this condition on the vector diagram of Fig. 3 by putting a vector \( I'_a = -I'_a \) in phase with \( E_g \) and saying that this is the true anode current vector, and this I did in my

Fig. 5. Voltage and current-time relationships for a resistance loaded valve. (a) Voltage-time; (b) current-time.

---

is $I_o - I'_a$ and, if we wish, may be represented by a vector $-I'_a$ lagging behind $E_o$ by the same angle as $I'_a$ lags behind $\mu E_o$; i.e., it is $180^\circ$ out of phase with $I'_a$.

For a parallel resistive-inductive load the output voltage vector $E_o$ lags behind $\mu E_o$, and there will be a DC voltage loss in $R_o$.

The main point which needs to be stressed is that the phase of $E_o$ and $\mu E_o$ (be it zero or $180^\circ$), is unaffected by the anode load, but the current $I'_a$ produced by $\mu E_o$ lags or leads upon this voltage when the anode load impedance is inductive or capacitive respectively.

If "Student" has any doubts as to whether this theory applies in practice, I would recommend that he borrows a cathode-ray oscilloscope and makes up an amplifier valve, preferably a pentode of high internal resistance, with a low load resistance, about 3,000 ohms, as in Fig. 9. Apply an input voltage to the valve from the 50-c/s mains supply through an L.T transformer secondary and use this same voltage to lock the CRO time base. Use battery grid bias (not cathode self-bias), be-

cause the self-bias capacitance is not an adequate by-pass at 50 c/s. Connect the Y plate of the CRO through a large capacitor (2µF) first to the input voltage and then to the anode of the valve. "Student" will see that the output voltage shape is a mirror image of his input, thus showing the $180^\circ$ phase shift. Now let him, while looking at the output voltage, place a 1µF capacitor in parallel with the 3,000-ohm anode load. (Note that 1µF at 50 c/s has a reactance of 3,140 ohms). He will see the output voltage wave reduce in amplitude to about 70 per cent. of its original value, and will also see the wave move backwards by about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a cycle (45°) against the direction of the travel of the CRO spot. This is exactly what one would expect by theory, for a parallel connection of resistance and capacitive reactance of equal magnitudes, connected to a generator of high internal resistance, produces a voltage across them lagging on the generated voltage (and the voltage across the resistance when $C$ is removed) by 45°.

![Fig. 9. A circuit for verifying vector phase relationships with a capacitive anode load impedance.](image)

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Urim and Thummim

The radar business seems to be a lot more complicated than either the Editor of Wireless World or myself are aware, judging by the account of it given by the "special correspondent" of a very well-known morning newspaper who has apparently been turned loose on the subject. After telling us that in 1940 the "silent watchers of the night, gazing at their screens were able actually to see the enemy planes sneaking snakelike and sinister amid the banks of cloud," he waxes lyrical over the question of post-war applications of radar.

"Our Special Correspondent."

His description of the way in which radar spotted the enemy aircraft is so entirely devoid of scientific truth and accuracy that it reminds me of nothing so much as the equally unscientific methods of radiolocation employed by one of Macbeth's lady friends ("By the pricking of my thumbs, something wicked this way comes"). The lady's remark might, I think, well serve as the motto of the Royal Radar Corps or whoever were responsible for anti-raider radar, if their work were indeed so closely akin to crystal gazing and suchlike as the "special correspondent" would have us believe.

The only antidote to this sort of thing to my mind is for the government to go on releasing more of the proper dope on radar. One thing, for instance, which has not not yet been made public but which is not on the secret list is that radar is going to revolutionise entirely our nonsensical and utterly unscientific way of describing colours. At present we talk of delicate shades of pink when we ought properly to describe the colour we mean by giving its wavelength clearly and precisely in Angstrom units. Poor prunes like Homer, who lived before the age of science, can be forgiven for talking a lot of nonsense about "rosy-fingered dawn arising from the wine-coloured sea." Nowadays he could be taught to render his report as "0000 hours GMT: XY Angstrom units, etc., etc."

The way radar is going to help us bring about this revolution is that if we see a flower or anything of which we wish to know the exact colour we shall simply aim a calibrated radar unit at it and twiddle the knob which adjusts the length of the emitted wave. All waves will be reflected by the object and show up on the screen until we hit on the exact wavelength of the colour concerned. This wave will, of course, be promptly absorbed and we shall read its length straight off the dial or calibration chart. I am not pretending that there is not a lot of work to do before we get radar right down among the Angstrom units, but don't forget that a few years ago there was a lot of work to do before radar was possible at all.

Stentor Outstentored

Although the general election has long since joined the late lamented Queen Anne I am still feeling the exhausting effects of the campaign into which I was drawn quite against my will and intentions by my righteous indignation at a very grave injustice to the general public which was being impartially perpetrated by what Mr. Churchill has called "men of all parties and no party."

I refer to the pernicious pandemonium of PA with all its cacophonous caterwauling and raucous roaring which was inflicted on us during the campaign. In my opinion it was nothing but a perversion of the power and knowledge which we radio men unwittingly placed in the hands of politicians when we developed the thermionic valve. Were I a master of English like the late Lord Justice Darling I would express my feelings far more pointedly, as did that friend of punsters and exponents of accusatory litanies, on one occasion when he made a particularly pun-

gent and pertinent pronouncement by protesting publicly against "the pernicious practice of certain proprietors of newspaper and periodicals of pandering to the prurient privacies of the public by publicising pictorially and otherwise the personal pecadillos of prominent persons."

Mind you, I am not complaining - at the legitimate use of PA to enable a speaker to be heard clearly in all parts of the meeting which he is addressing; in fact, I am all in favour of it even if he does use it "to pander to the prurient privacies of the public," etc., as so many did during the campaign. After all, this sort of thing was done long before the days of PA. What I object to is that whereas in the good old days any member of the audience had a fair chance of protesting vocally and vegetably, he is now, owing to PA, just unable to compete vocally, and vegetably he is equally at a disadvantage owing to the shortage of vintage tomatoes.

I had not attended many meetings before I began a great salvage drive in my neighbourhood in order to collect enough material to improvise hastily a number of personal PA outfits which I distributed freely to the crowd before the meeting started. I may say at once that although watt for watt my homemade contraptions were at a grave disadvantage they were able to counter the speakers' PA polemics with a very effective "so what."
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CONTRAST EXPANSION

The Use of Negative Feedback: Its Advantages Over Earlier Methods

By J. G. WHITE

In amplitude-modulated radio transmitters, limitations are imposed upon the volume range of the modulating signal by the minimum noise level attainable in the communication system as a whole. The volume range of a symphony orchestra may easily be 70 decibels, and at times may exceed that figure. This means that, where the peaks corresponding to maximum volume may cause the RF carrier to be modulated 100 per cent., the softest passages would fall below the lowest noise level attainable under the most favourable circumstances. Similar limitations occur in laterally-cut sound recordings.

In order to avoid the loss of soft passages in the general background noise and to prevent loud passages from causing overmodulation, the gain of the modulating amplifier is increased during the former and decreased during the latter. The operation, known as volume compression, is normally carried out manually by a control engineer who has some knowledge of music and is armed with a score; thus it is subject to variations dependent upon the control engineer's ability, musical taste, power of anticipation and other personal characteristics. The range of volume ordinarily attained is 35–40 decibels.

In public-address systems a similar control is often used in order that variations in volume due to the movements of a speaker towards or away from the microphone during his speech may be levelled out. Unlike volume compression in broadcast transmitters and recording, the operation is usually automatic.

At the reproducing end of the broadcast or recording chain, the result of the compression is a lack of life and naturalness in the reproduction. To counteract this result, expansion of the audiofrequency signal in the reproducer has been advocated, and several systems have been devised and used in which an increase of audio signal amplitude has resulted in an increase in amplifier gain. The results obtained have been more or less satisfactory, depending on the characteristics of the individual system, and some general criticisms will be offered later in this paper.

The chief criticism of expansion advanced by its opponents is that, as the original compression is dependent upon an individual, no system of expansion can be devised which will automatically provide accurate correction. The argument is unanswerable from an academic standpoint, but in practice is not so unassailable as its supporters believe. It is possible to introduce into a reproducing system a measure of expansion which contributes to a pleasing reproduction of the original, and provides a closer simulation of the intended effect of the original than can be obtained without expansion.

One of the greatest controversies which has raged among designers and critics of broadcast and record reproducers is that concerned with the frequency range necessary for "life-like" reproduction. The various stages need not be recapitulated here, but the present state of the argument is pertinent to the discussion of volume expansion.

Wide agreement has been reached that "straight-line" amplification and accurate reproduction of the original are not necessarily complementary. Tone control—real tone control, not "top-cut"—is generally admitted to be desirable and necessary. It has further been recognised that factors such as the acoustic properties of the listening room may completely upset the design engineer's attempts to provide electrically accurate reproduction of the original, and that such factors are substantially uncontrollable. (Readers may remember Scroggie's "reductio ad absurdum," when he described a "super" home set with control even over the cubic capacity of the listening room.) Reproductors of advanced design are therefore so equipped that the frequency response is under the listener's control.

It is suggested that a similar attitude is the only practical one...
Contrast Expansion—
to assume at the present time with regard to volume expansion. It is impossible to correct accurately for the arbitrary compression introduced at the transmitting or recording end, and, as has recently been pointed out, the properties of are others which are largely a matter of individual opinion. The following are some of the main considerations, listed in a suggested order of importance.

The system should introduce negligible distortion. A moderate degree of expansion with negligible distortion is obviously better than a greater degree which introduces a high percentage of unwanted harmonics.

The degree of expansion should be under the control of the listener. As a minimum, it should be possible to cut out the expansion at will. Speech, singing, and solo instruments, except the organ, are normally not compressed, and chamber music and similar programmes rarely so to any extent.

The degree and control of expansion should be independent of the volume level at which the amplifier is operated.

It may be desirable to arrange for the gain to increase more rapidly than it falls. It is usually desirable for expansion to operate with a minimum of delay, the delay introduced normally resulting from precautions against undesirable effects such as "fluttering." A rapid fall in gain may, however, detract from the result.

The listener may make full expansion undesirable. However, it is also certain that a good system of expansion can improve considerably the reproduction of orchestral programmes, unless the listener is a die-hard of the old straight-line reproduction school.

Desirable Features of an Expansion System

Certain features are generally agreed upon as being desirable in any expansion system, and there

Fig. 2. Variable-gain amplifier.

Fig. 3. Variable output potential divider with contrast gain in earlier stages

As the maximum volume at which a reproducer can work is usually fixed by other than purely technical reasons, the expansion must take effect not only by an increase over normal volume on the expanded peaks, but by a reduction below normal volume on soft passages. It thus becomes important to reduce the noise contributed by the reproducing system to the lowest amount possible. The desired result is more easily achieved if the noise level is reduced by the expander as the soft passages are reduced. Thus it is preferable to introduce
expansion at such a point in the amplifying chain that the minimum amount of amplification follows it.

Expansion systems like tone-control systems introduce a net loss in over-all gain. This should be kept down to a minimum.

Existing Systems of Expansion

Lamp-operated systems.—In the ordinary electric lamp the resistance of the filament varies over a wide range with temperature, the resistance increasing as the temperature rises. The simplest systems of volume expansion have made use of this property in various ways, some having the lamp connected in parallel with the loudspeaker speech coil, Fig. 1 (a); others, of greater complexity, use the lamp as one arm of a bridge which controls the over-all gain, Fig. 1 (b).

Several disadvantages attach to this class of expander. Usually the system has to be operated at a high level, which may not always be desirable. The lamp may be difficult to select for a particular operating condition, and it is impracticable to provide any worthwhile measure of control over the expansion range. The time constants of the arrangement cannot be chosen by the designer unless special lamps are obtainable, and no system of control can be provided easily for the listener. It is essential to use the lamp at a low-impedance point in the amplifying chain, which means that unless step-down and step-up transformers are introduced, the lamp can be connected only in the secondary circuit of the output transformer. In this case manual control of volume level also changes the expansion characteristic.

Lamp-operated systems have, however, the merits of simplicity and cheapness, and may readily be added to existing reproducers.

Amplifiers using variable-gain valves.—Of all systems of expansion, those employing a variable-gain amplifying stage have been most popular. By these methods, of which an example is given in Fig. 2, it is possible to obtain any reasonable degree of expansion, to provide independent volume and expansion controls, and to arrange the time-constants of the circuit to give the desired rates of rise and fall of gain.

Disadvantages are the introduction of harmonic distortion unless the stage is operated at extremely low input levels, and the consequent necessity of introducing the expander at the beginning of the audio chain. Harmonic distortion can be reduced by the use of a push-pull expansion stage, but this does not reduce the odd harmonics, and increases the number of valves necessary.

Amplifiers of constant gain but varying output voltage.—The impedance of a valve may be varied between wide limits by changing the potential of the control grid with respect to cathode. This characteristic may be used for volume expansion by arranging such a variable-impedance valve as one arm of a potentiometer, which is connected between two consecutive stages of an amplifier (Fig. 3). This system has substantially the same advantages as that using variable-gain valves, and, in addition, may be used at a higher signal level. It is much less prone to introduce harmonic distortion, but care must be exercised to ensure that, when the impedance of the controlling valve is low, the load reflected into the anode circuit of the preceding
Contrast Expansion—
stage does not fall below that necessary for satisfactory distortion-free operation.

Amplifiers with variable negative feedback.—Both valve and lamp operated systems have been devised in which the over-all gain of the AF amplifier is modified by negative feedback, the amount of feedback varying inversely as the applied signal.

By the use of this system the total harmonic distortion may be kept at least as low as that in a similar amplifier without feedback. If the system is valve-operated, the degree of expansion and the time-constants of the circuit may be controlled within wide limits, and the control can be made independent of the volume level of the reproduced signal. In addition, it is practicable to arrange the expansion to take place immediately before the output stage, or even the loudspeaker, thus reducing the average noise level. Finally, the additional complexity and cost of the system need not exceed, and may be less than, those of other valve-operated systems.

A lamp-operated negative feedback expander is shown in Fig. 4. It has many of the disadvantages already attributed to lamp circuits although having the advantage of comparative cheapness and probably introducing less distortion than other systems using lamps.

In Figs. 5 (a) and (b) are given outline circuits of two valve-operated negative feedback expanders due to Stevens of the South African Broadcasting Corporation. In each case a valve of which the impedance is dependent upon the amplitude of the signal is introduced into the feedback network in such a manner that the feedback varies inversely as the applied signal.

In the circuit of Fig. 5 (a) the feedback voltage is developed across the impedance in the cathode circuit of V₁ and is proportional to the circulating audio-frequency current. In common with current feedback circuits in general, the output impedance, Zₒ, is high. It can be shown that Zₒ = R₁ + (µ + 1) R₂, where R₁ and R₂ are the anode load resistance and cathode resistance respectively. This necessitates great care in design to avoid excessive high-note attenuation due to the Miller effect in the succeeding stage. It should be noted that expansion is obtained by effective variation of R₂, the latter rising to a high value during soft passages. Thus Zₒ is also at its highest value and high-note loss will be greatest when, owing to the frequency response characteristic of the human ear, it can be least easily tolerated. The disadvantage of high output impedance could most easily be counteracted by feeding into a cathode-follower stage.

To overcome the problem of high output impedance, the voltage feedback circuit, of which Fig. 5 (b) is typical, was produced by Stevens. The expansion due to changes in the degree of negative feedback is modified by taking the output voltage from across part of the feedback potential divider, so introducing the principle of operation outlined in Fig. 3.

This circuit has the disadvantage that, except as the initial stage of an amplifier, it cannot readily be used without an input transformer, which is necessary to ensure the correct polarity of feedback. This may introduce undesirable characteristics, including an increased hum level. (To be concluded.)

BOOK REVIEW


The subject of this book lies on the fringe of the radio engineer’s field of work. The vibration engineer, for whom this book is intended, is almost concerned with the analysis of waveforms which may contain high harmonics of several fundamental frequencies, and the proportion of these harmonics is usually very high by radio standards. The methods described here for examining complex waveforms are of value, however, in the design of very low frequency systems and in impulsive testing. This is an excellent guide to the interpretation of periodic waves. The first chapter discusses the use of complex waveforms from their components and in the later chapters methods of analysis are discussed in great detail. The worker who must examine numbers of waveform records will find the very close discussion a constant and interesting read. An in-depth study of the author’s description of how to determine whether the minor component of a beat system is of higher or lower frequency than the major component is extremely useful.

There are some points with which this reviewer finds himself at variance with the author. On page 219, et seq., the use of a harmonic analyser with crystal filters is discussed. The user of a harmonic analyser would certainly not rely on the calibration to the extent suggested; his trouble would rather be that unless the components to be analysed were of constant frequency, the variations would bring them outside the narrow pass-band and make it impossible to get a steady reading. Reference of Chapter VIII should be replaced by a reference to a fuller account of the Optical Harmonic Analyser.* This makes it clear that a variable density record can also be used. An advantage of variable density recordings with this machine is that other orthogonal functions can be used in the analysis, and variable area slides are more easily produced for such functions. For some work analysis into Bessel functions is particularly convenient and this machine would perform this analysis. Estimation of phase from Lissajou figures and the use of paper rather than film for photographic recording are two of the details where the author’s views are open to question. The use of C.P.S., C.P.M., Kc and Mc. for frequency expressions must be strongly deprecated. The main value of this book is in no way affected by these minor defects, and it is to be hoped that there will be in due course a second edition which will be safe from even the sourest reviewer.

T. R.

* Bell System T. Jour., July 1938.

ARMY, SET TYPE R107

Owing to an error in the official circuit diagrams supplied to us of the R107 receiver, there is a lead missing from the vibrator in the power unit in the circuit reproduced on page 237 of our August issue. The vibrating reed should be joined by a short lead to the earthed junction of R42 and R43. The vibrator contacts short-circuit first one and then the other of these resistors, thus allowing the full a.c. voltage to be applied alternately to each half of the MTI winding on the transformer.
WORLD OF WIRELESS

C.E.R.C.A.

The third conference arranged by the organisation with the above initials, which stand for Commonwealth and Empire, Radio for Civil Aviation, previously arranged to be held in Australia, was opened in London on August 7th. It aims at formulating within the Commonwealth and Empire tentative conclusions on all matters relating to the immediate and ultimate international standardisation of radio aids to civil aviation. This includes not only the standardisation of ground and air equipment, but also that of rules relating to its use.

Lord Winster, the new Minister of Civil Aviation, presided at the opening of the conference, which was attended by delegates from Australia, Canada, the Colonial Office, India, New Zealand, Newfoundland, Southern Rhodesia, and South Africa. Representatives from the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. were also present.

To quote from the speech of the Chief American representative, "This is not an aviation conference in the broad sense, but it is restricted to the difficult questions, largely technical, as to how we can most effectively, and at the same time most inexpensively, guide commercial and private 'planes from their starting place to their destination in safety and in all kinds of weather."

Among the many problems tackled by C.E.R.C.A. since the meetings in London and Ottawa in February and November last year is that of frequency allocations for civil aviation and recommendations have been prepared.

Among the United Kingdom's twenty-three representatives and technical advisers are Sir Robert Watson Watt, Deputy Chairman of the Radio Board, who has been elected Chairman of the conference, and Capt. H. G. Leonard-Williams, Chairman of the Wireless Telegraphy Board.

MONOPOLISTIC U.S. BROADCASTING

Those who advocate commercially-sponsored broadcasting for Britain generally contend that it would give relief from the B.B.C. monopoly, and cite America as the one country where "the ether is free for all." But it would appear that not all American citizens are satisfied that their system gives complete freedom from the monopolistic octopus. In the July Harper's Magazine, in an article deploring the fact that sources of public information are being concentrated into fewer and fewer channels, Morris L. Ernst complains that America is being dominated by four principal networks. These networks, it is implied, are in their turn dominated by fewer than 150 advertisers, from whom 97 per cent. of the networks' revenue is derived. "And in reality the concentration is greater than even that figure would indicate. Both NBC and the Blue Network receive about 50 per cent. of their total business from only ten advertisers; and one-eighth of NBC's total advertising volume in 1943 came from just one advertiser."

RADIO LENINGRAD

Some of the difficulties successfully encountered by Russian engineers in maintaining a broadcasting station during the siege of Leningrad were recently given by Frank Gillard, B.B.C. Reporter, after a visit to the Soviet Radio War Reporting Organisation.

The Leningrad station having suffered heavily in the early stages of the bombardment, a mobile station was brought into use. Barrage balloon cables were used for the aerial, thereby enabling the transmitter to be moved from one balloon site to another around the city. It was a simple matter to connect the lead.
World of Wireless—
from the transmitter to the cable so that the station could be on the air within a few minutes of arriving on a new site.

NEW RECEIVERS
ACCORDING to an announcement by the Radio Industry Council, the first of the industry's post-war civilian receivers are expected to be available in the autumn. Not until well into 1946, however, will there be any substantial supplies.
The first of the sets will be very similar to the immediate pre-war receivers and will be issued under trade names. Prices are likely to be higher than pre-war and in addition purchase tax will be chargeable.

I.E.E. ELECTIONS
THE constitution of the Council of the Institution of Electrical Engineers and of the Section committees for the ensuing year have been announced.
The new President is Dr. P. Dunsheath, O.B.E., who is Director and Chief Engineer of W. T. Henley's Telegraph Works Co. He joined the company in 1919, at the age of 31, to reorganise the Research Department. In 1929 he was appointed Research and Technical Manager and in 1934 Chief Engineer.
The new Vice-Presidents are V. Z. de Ferranti, Chairman and Managing Director of Ferranti, Ltd., A. J. Gill, Deputy Engineer-in-chief, G.P.O., and P. Good, C.B.E., Director of the British Standards Institution.
A. J. Gill was Chairman of the Wireless Section in 1938. He entered the Engineering Department of the G.P.O. in 1913 as assistant engineer, in 1925 he was appointed executive engineer in charge of the Radio Experimental Section, and in 1934 staff engineer on the Radio Branch. He is Chairman of the B.S.I. sub-committee on Graphical Symbols for Telecommunications and is a member of the Operations and Technical Committee of the Radio Board.
A. H. Mumford, the new Chairman of the Radio Section, has been with the G.P.O. since 1923 and has been engaged on the introduction of ultra-short-wave links into the trunk telephone network, the development of the co-axial carrier system and investigations into

60-kW MOBILE STATION
ALL the facilities of a modern high-powered fixed station are combined in what is claimed to be the world's largest mobile transmitter, now being operated by the U.S. Signal Corps in Europe.
Built by Le Materiel Telephonique, the French associate company of the International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation, this 60-kW station, which occupies seventeen large trailers, was delivered within three months of the order being placed.
The station, known colloquially as "Sig. Circus," is capable of handling 200,000 words daily. In addition to the normal radio-teletype channels the station is equipped with complete short- and medium-wave broadcasting facilities, wire, film and disc recording gear and apparatus for facsimile transmission and reception.
A feature is that all radio services can be carried on simultaneously. To prevent mutual interference the transmitting and receiving sections are placed a considerable distance apart and a VHF inter-unit communication system, including voice-frequency carrier equipment, is employed.

WHAT THEY SAY
SERVICE, PLEASE.—What arrangements are being made to prepare technicians for the imminent arrival of television? . . . I find no evidence at all that this country is laying foundations for the technical knowledge we shall need to cope with what we are assured will be a boom.
—Writer in "Bristol Evening World."

RECANTATION.—The difference between you and me is that I have a mind to change. . . . Wire broadcasting offers an awful temptation to those who possess power to give us what they want us to hear.—P. P. Echersley, pleading at the Radio Industries Club for a "sponsored" broadcasting service competitive with the B.B.C.

A. H. MUMFORD, B.Sc. (Eng.), the new Chairman of the Radio Section of the I.E.E.

TRADE NOTES
A BELGIAN importer wishes to obtain sole agencies or sole selling rights for British broadcast receivers, valves and components.
A company in Madeira offers its services to British manufacturers of radio and gramophone accessories wishing to find a market in the island.
An Indian firm of importers asks
for offers of all-India agencies for radio and allied products.

[Replies to the above enquiries, addressed c/o The Editor, will be forwarded.]

The United Radio Company, Sandhurst Bridge, Bombay 1, India, asks for catalogues from British export-ers of wireless goods.

Change of address: Hensons (Radio Wholesalers) to 43, Rose-berley Avenue, London, E.C.1.

PERSONALITIES

The Earl of Listowel has been ap-pointed Postmaster-General in the new Government. Educated at Eton and Balliol, he was Whip of the Labour Party in the House of Lords from 1941 to 1944, after which he became Under-Secretary of State, India Office.

L. A. Woodhead, who has been with Cossor for 15 years, is now manager of their newly revived Technical Service Department.

A. C. Cameron, Secretary of the Central Council for School Broadcasting since 1935, is retiring for health reasons. R. N. Armfelt, an Assistant Controller in the B.B.C., is succeeding him.

OBITUARY

It is with regret we record the death in July of O. S. Pratt, who has been with the Mullard Radio Valve Co. for 21 years. He became head of their Technical Department in 1934 and in 1938 became Chief Valve Engineer. During the last two years he had been Technical Adviser on valves and was engaged on liaison work with Government Departments and on Government Committees.

IN BRIEF

Radio Interference—Wireless World understands it is probable that the question of radio interference will be discussed at the next meeting of the United Nations Co-ordinating Commit-tee to be held in the United States in October.

New Radio Works.—A large factory for the manufacture of radio receivers and components is nearing completion at Hamilton, Lanarkshire. A subsidiary company of Philips has been formed for the project—Philips Hamilton Works, Ltd.

Radio Colour-photography.—The first news picture in colour to be transmitted by radio has appeared in Washington. It shows the Big Three in Berlin. Three negatives, one for each of the prime colours, were exposed simultaneously. Black-and-white prints were made from each and transmitted from Berlin to America, where the received pictures were utilised to reproduce the colour photograph.

Russian Radio.—The Soviet newspaper Trud discloses that a giant radio station was built in the Soviet Union during the war. No details are given as to its position and power, but its masts are stated to be 650 ft. high.

Radio Station Removal.—Five special L.M.S. trains were needed in the remova-l of a complete Admiralty radio station, to its port of embarkation en route to India. 700 tons of equipment included generators, transmitters and masts.

BETRO Members.—More radio firms have been elected as members of the British Export Trade Research Organisa-tion, amongst whom are included: London Electric Wire Company and Smiths, Metropolitan-Vickers Electrical Export Co., A. Heyroll and Co., and Sterling Industries.

Eire Radio.—In the Dail recently it was stated that the revenue from wire-less licences amounted to approximately £107,000, and the income from advertising was approximately £3,700. In contrast to Great Britain's increasing number of licences there was a decrease of 1,528 during the year which ended March 31st last.

Mountain Television.—Plans for the development of Mount Wilson, the California site of the observatory, as a centre for television have been announced. Negotiations are being made by three of the major broadcast-ing networks for station sites.

Will.—The late Sir Ambrose Fleming, who died in April at the age of 95, left £56,561 gross.

Indian Licences Increase.—200,534 broadcast receiving licences were in force in British India at the end of April—an increase of 18,686 over the previous year.

Change of Address.—The new address of the Institute of Physics and its journal of Scientific Instruments is 19, Albemarle Street, London, W.1. Tel.: Regent 3541.

Telegraphic Service Reopened.—The restoration of the public telegraph ser-vice with Yugoslavia is announced by the Post Office and Cable and Wireless.

I.E.E. Students' Section.—The following officers were recently elected at a meeting of the London Students’ Section of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, for the 1934-36 session: Chairman, H. Sherland, B.Sc. (Eng.); Vice-Chairman, R. G. F. Stefaneli; Hon. Secretary, R. V. Darton, B.Sc. (Eng.); Hon. Asst. Secretary, G. S. H. Mogford.

MEETINGS

Institute of Physics Electronics Group.—Annual General Meeting followed by a lecture on " Electronic Conditions in the Sun and Stars" by Dr. D. S. Evans, on September 14th at 5.15, at the Royal Society, Burlington House, Piccadilly, London, W.1.

Institution of Electronics North-West Branch.—" The Theory, Design and Application of Magnetron Valves" by R. G. B. Gwyer on September 21st at 6.30 at the Reynolds Hall, College of Technology, Manchester. Non-members can obtain tickets from L. F. Berry, 105, Birch Avenue, Chadderton, Lancs.
Letters to the Editor

Reducing Amplification Interference - Communication Channel Capacity - Service Valve Types

Physiological Amplifiers

In answer to the letter from George H. Bell in your July issue, may we say that the situation is not perhaps as difficult as he suggests? For some years there have been available circuits designed for the purpose of eliminating interference with electro-physiological experiments. All these circuits depend on having the two input connections either balanced with respect to earth or earth-free and, together with this, some arrangement to give great discrimination against signals appearing in phase at the two input leads.

The important feature of interference due to most alternating current mains and the like is that one side of the source of the interference is earthy. Therefore, with circuits such as those mentioned above, even when the subject or preparation is not earthed, it can be arranged easily that the wanted signal will be amplified up to 1,000 times as much as the interference. If the subject is earthed, this ratio can be greatly increased. However, it should be noted that high discrimination ratios of 1,000 to 1 or more can rarely be maintained in practice owing to uncontrollable variations in electrode characteristics. These variations often introduce errors in balance of the order of 1 part in 1,000, depending on the type of electrodes used and the input impedance of the amplifier, and are likely to render sterile any attempts further to reduce interference by circuit design. No circuit can give better results than those allowed by the goodness and balance of the pick-up contacts. Some circuits (Schmitt: 1935) allow alteration of balance whilst in use. Such alteration will "clean up" the record as regards interference, but may also balance out or distort some of the wanted signal.

There is a considerable body of literature on this subject, some of the references being:


and a review of circuits of this type is given by:


As a practical contribution to your correspondent's enquiry, the circuit shown in the accompanying diagram has been found to fulfil most requirements. Using this circuit, provided the inter-electrode resistance is low (<10^4Ω), completely interference-free records may be obtained within a few feet of unscreened mains-driven equipment. The principles of the circuit are typical of those put forward in the papers referred to above. The cathode follower output is only of value when it is convenient, as is often the case, to have a considerable separation and long-

Balanced amplifier circuit referred to by Dr. G. D. Dawson and W. Grey Walter.
screened leads between the first two stages and succeeding stages. The design of the succeeding stages will, of course, depend entirely on the overall sensitivity required and the type of recording instrument to be used.

The subject of noise is not so well documented, so far as biologists are concerned, for they are worried by components in the frequency band from less than 1 up to 50 c/s, as well as those of higher frequency. Most valves, even those quiet at higher frequencies, appear to generate considerable random potential differences in this frequency band, and the source of this noise is apparently not clear to electronic engineers. It has been observed that high-slope valves are disproportionately more noisy in this band than low-slope valves, and it has been suggested that this is due to the proximity of the grid to the cathode, with consequent heating and contamination of the grid wires and resulting random grid emission. Resistance noise is, of course, inevitable. Cathode noise may be reduced to a very low level by selecting an optimum cathode current, usually 0.2 to 0.5 mA., where the gain of the circuit has not fallen seriously (see figure). Reduction of the very low-frequency noise can, however, only be achieved by selection of valves. The best results seem to be obtained with valves selected from the class of old-fashioned low-slope triodes such as the Osram MH40 and the Mazda V312, at least 75 per cent. of which are good. About 25 per cent. of 6C6s (English or American), used triode-connected, are also up to the same standard. The type 1603 is also good, but does not appear to be obtainable at the moment.

While on the subject of electrophysiological methods, some comment seems to be necessary on the article by "Radiophare" in the same issue. Questions about possible relations between brain EHFs and telepathy are frequently raised and speculated upon. There are three powerful arguments against the existence of any such relation. First, the extremely small size of any induction or radiation field due to the electrical brain rhythms, which may be represented as a current fluctuating at 10 c/s with a peak value in the tissues of the head of about one microamp. Even with a receiving circuit Q of the order of a million, the amount of energy that could be transferred from sender to receiver would be far less than that known to be necessary for the excitation of nervous tissue. Secondly, telepathic and "extra-sensory perception" effects have not been shown to be attenuated by the interposition of magnetic or electrostatic screens between the sender and receiver. Thirdly, in the published accounts of experiments on the transference of thought, no diminution of the effect with distance has been established. These considerations should re-direct speculative and experimental minds into more profitable fields.

G. D. DAWSON,
The National Hospital,

W. GREY WALTER,
The Burden Neurological Institute, Bristol.

High-speed Radio-telegraphy

The description of the Romac 3,000-w.p.m. system in the July, 1945, issue of Wireless World is interesting, but the limitations of any such system deserve some comment. A transmitted speed of 3,000 w.p.m. of Morse code corresponds to transmitter modulation at 1,200 c/s. The length of a dot in such a system will be of the order of 0.4 millisecond. For radio transmission we may allow "ether bias" of say 20 per cent., so that the interval between the shortest and longest transmission paths should not exceed 0.1 millisecond; that is, if multi-path transmission is taking place the path difference should not exceed 30 km. This requirement just cannot be met: it is, indeed, tantamount to asking for single-path transmission. Thus the long-distance radio link itself gives no opportunity for this system to work.

There are other disadvantages. The high modulation frequency precludes the use of modulated CW to protect against fading, and no magic box can restore a signal which has faded right out.

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"The fault in this set, I've detected, Much sooner than I half expected."
"It's FLUXITED" said OH.
"Yes the damn thing won't go!"...
"Why don't you try it connected"!

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Letters to the Editor—

Furthermore, it is fundamental that a given bandwidth can only transmit a given amount of intelligence. The use of crystal-controlled transmitters and receivers would allow close spacing of WT channels and the operation of ten 300-w.p.m. channels in the same band as is used by the 3,000 w.p.m. channel. Recorders and the like are eliminated, the propagation difficulties do not arise, and standard equipment can be used throughout.

I have drawn attention before to the fundamental fact that you do not get something for nothing, except just before an election. The problem of WT transmission is that of getting maximum channel efficiency, maximum bandwidth efficiency and maximum value for the money spent on equipment and staff. A system which gets more words per channel at the cost of fewer channels per band and with low economic conversion efficiency (for there are so many intermediate operations) is not a useful system.

THOMAS RODDAM.

Telepathy or Radio-Telepathy?

As one who, to use "Radio-phrase's" words (your July issue), "understands action at a distance," I am compelled to protest. Telepathy has no connection with radio, and your readers should be warned against indulging in the futile pastime of flogging a dead horse. The rationale of the subject does not lie within the field covered by Wireless World, and so cannot be given here. It is only necessary to point out that the mechanism is a product of the mind, and, unfortunately, cannot be described in simple terms unless the reader has studied the subject of astral phenomena fairly deeply.

It can be pointed out that telepathy can be used to "transmit" and "receive" quite complicated thoughts, but this requires either a "sensitivity" in both parties such as can only be acquired after long training and practice, or natural gifts, which are very rare. The one explanation is to be found in the domain of what is usually known as occult science, but the subject is so vast that suitable references cannot be given here.

This is an unsatisfactory and inadequate statement, but it must be taken as an implication that I flatly contradict the notion that radio has any connection with telepathy. H. A. HARTLEY.

Isleworth.

[This subject is also referred to in the letter headed "Physiological Amplifiers" on page 282.—Ed.]

"Values in the Services"

In your August issue you published an "equivalent list" of Services and commercial valve types.

This list was prepared without the knowledge of the valve manufacturers and it is felt to be desirable to draw particularly to the attention of your readers the fact that a list of this nature must be interpreted with some care, or else it may serve only to mislead.

The commercial type which is shown against any particular Services type may well be a basically similar valve but, in many cases, the two valves will be selected from the current production to specifications which are significantly different. Thus it should not be assumed that the valves shown as equivalents will in fact give similar performances in various circuit applications.

The second point which should be emphasised applies wherever two or more commercial types are shown as being equivalent to one Services type. There is a risk in such a case of the several civilian types being regarded as exact equivalents to each other.

J. R. HUGHES.

Technical Secretary, British Radio Valve Manufacturers' Association.

London, S.W.1.

Television/Cinema Comparisons

The comparisons between the definition of the cinema film and the television picture made by H. W. Lee in the August Wireless World seem to be based upon a fundamental error. There is a vital difference between the moving images formed by the two systems. The television picture consists of a fixed mosaic which remains identical from frame to frame, while the cinema film consists of a random mosaic (the grain of the film), the grain structure of one frame not being the same as the grain structure of the preceding or succeeding frame.

Because of the persistence of vision of the human eye, a cinema picture therefore gives a much better definition than would be supposed from an analysis of the picture elements. This is not so with the television picture where the same "grain structure" persists from frame to frame and is thus much more noticeable to the eye.

The comparison between the definitions of the cinema and the television picture is, therefore, only valid if we compare the television picture with one frame (a still) from the film. When this is done the shortcomings of the film are apparent.

This means that the definition of the television image to give results as good as the cinema film in motion will have to be considerably higher than the definition of one frame of the film.

J. M. T. EVANS.

London, S.W.19.

"Self-healing Paper Condensers"

With reference to the notes which appear in the July Wireless World, I suggest that many radio and condenser engineers will feel uneasy after reading it, because of the failure to acknowledge the pioneer work of Dr. G. P. Mansbridge. It is certainly going a bit far to describe the miniature condensers which have been developed for wartime apparatus as "a new development in the manufacture of paper-dielectric capacitors." The mechanical principles embodied in the "new" condensers, and probably the materials, are similar to those described by Mansbridge before the I.E.E. on May 7, 1908, and it may be of interest to note that such condensers were on sale to the general public a few years before the war started, and possibly up to 1939.

When very small paper-dielectric condensers were required for certain apparatus during the war there were three obvious ways of effecting the desired reduction in dimensions: (1) by reducing the
thickness of the tissues in normal types; (2) the employment of an impregnant with a higher dielectric constant than petroleum jelly, and (3) adoption of the Mansbridge type. The first proposal is impracticable because condensers made with interleaving tissues thinner than the normal 10 microns would be unreliable; the second is theoretically the correct way of attaining the desired result, and impregnant with dielectric constants of at least twice the value of paraffin are actually known, but they have other disadvantages which are too serious to permit their use in positions where absolutely first-class reliability is essential. The Mansbridge type is a perfect solution, because it permits a single tissue to be used; in the modern foil/tissue type two interleaving papers are always employed because, if one were used, a small single hole or other imperfection in the strip of tissue in any condenser would inevitably cause breakdown.

The self-healing properties of the Mansbridge type result from the melting away of the metallising on the tissue around a "fault," or short-circuit, and it is part of the process of manufacture of condensers of this type to "break-down" the foiled tissue by putting it through a machine which impresses a voltage between the tissue side and the metallising, thus burning out the larger imperfections, i.e., places where the metallising has penetrated, or partly penetrated, the tissue.

The unsuitability of these condensers for AC circuits arises from their comparatively high power factor, due to high electrode resistance—a characteristic which might be expected in a film of metal thin enough to melt away at the passage of a current that is too small to burn the tissue.

Bournemouth.

Sets for Export

May I indicate a few points to which manufacturers might give attention, so far as broadcast receivers for Kenya Colony are concerned?

We need short-wave receivers. A range of, say, 10-60 metres would cover most European stations, as well as our own station at Nairobi, about 300 miles away. "All-wave" sets are a waste of space and components. Plain calibrated dials are wanted. My set has 53 useless names on it.

Adequate band-spreading and the highest attainable selectivity are needed, with freedom from frequency drift. Accessibility and robustness are essential; qualified service-men are rare.

By the way, why do I always see American sets in the crews' quarters of British merchant ships? The ships' supply is generally 110 volts DC.

F. V. CR13B.

Mombasa, Kenya Colony.

Re-organising the Industry

I SHOULD be glad of an opportunity to comment briefly on certain of H. A. Hartley's proposals for re-organisation of the radio industry.

Leaving on one side, for the moment, the question as to the desirability of the changes, it is doubtful wisdom to advocate a scheme that has no chance of acceptance, and to address to engineers a plan (Research Centre and Standard Chassis) that would, for most of them, spell the end of their livelihood, is hardly tactful.

It is also doubtful whether such a plan has the economic advantages which are claimed for it, either to the consumer or to the manufacturer. The present position in the industry is that the bulk of production is concentrated in very few firms—E.M.I., Philips, etc. Production in these firms is on such a level that the benefits of standardisation and mass production are already fully realised. Moreover, any of these large units could easily deal with Mr. Hartley's programme (if they thought it sound), irrespective of what other firms might do.

Mr. Hartley's scheme would find small favour with the small manufacturer who competes with the larger one by touches of individuality that a standardised chassis would render impossible, and to divorce cabinet and chassis would only aggravate this position further. There would, in fact, be no place for the small manufacturer in such a scheme.

D. C. BURTON.

London, W.5.
Not Too Easy
A MAN who always has my deepest sympathy is the wireless retailer who, really knows his job. He recommends one set which he knows to be a really sound piece of work and an excellent performer on the local stations (which his customers will use for 95 per cent. of their radio entertainment) and has to grin and bear it when they reject his advice and choose another because it “gets” more foreign stations. He must remain cheerful and polite when summoned urgently to deal with breakdowns (!) due to failure to switch on the wall-socket into which a receiver is plugged, to connect the aerial, or to efforts to receive B.B.C. programmes when the set is switched to “Gram.” He must suffer gladly the folk who bring in an accumulator with the electrolyte at half its proper level and the plates covered with sulphate deposit, saying that of course he’ll be able to have it charged and in working order by to o’clock the next morning, which is the only time when they can call. He has had to persuade customers that the unattractive-looking looking receiver is a sound set and good value for money, both of which it is. And now those who took this advice are bullyragging him because they can’t receive the Light Programme satisfactorily. My hovel is under 20 miles from Brookman’s Park but I can’t get respectable reception on 261 metres —from which, rightly or wrongly, I deduce that the 261-metre transmitter is not at B.P.

The Litz Problem
MANY thanks to the readers who have so kindly sent descriptions of methods of soldering Litzen-draht stranded wire. The crux of the problem is, of course, that you may have to deal with many strands of fine wire—27 of No. 42 SWG, for instance—each separately insulated by a silk wrapping. You must bare every strand and you must not break any of them if the special HF qualities of Litz are not to be impaired. With the simpler and stouter kinds of Litz it is just possible (provided that you have a delicate touch and a patient nature) to scrape the wrapping off each strand separately with a penknife; I’ve done it with 3/40 and even with 9/40 at the old days when Litz first began to be used for wireless purposes. But it is a fiddling and uncertain job and you are more than likely to break the last strand after having dealt successfully with the others. Had Job himself done that twice running, even his patience would have been as exhausted as Hitler’s was wont to be. The method that I evolved and found pretty satisfactory was to singe the silk by moving a match flame to and fro under it and then to rub it gently off with the fingers. But readers have sent other and, I think, altogether better ideas.

“Meths” or Caustic Soda?
One school of thought plunges for methylated spirits, though there are variations in the methods of use suggested. Here is one scheme which seems to be popular; it is, I believe, used in some factories, at any rate. The part to be bare is dipped into meths. and then lighted so as to burn off the insulation. I am told that a little experimenting is advisable to discover the optimum dipping time. When you get that just right the wrappings are charred without damage to the wire. One reader suggests a modus operandi which should ensure this almost automatically. Some meths is poured into a teaspoon; the Litz is then dipped and fired with a match. As soon as the ends of the wire glow red hot the flame is quenched in the spirit remaining in the spoon. Another school pins its faith to caustic soda. The caustic soda scheme looks attractive in many ways. In this the Litz is dipped into a warm solution of caustic soda in a shallow evaporating basin. It is then held in the stream of running water from a tap and the “sludge” gently removed with the fingers. One great advantage of this process is that the strands are left clean and bright—in perfect condition for soldering, but I don’t altogether like the idea of wetting the insulation and one wonders how far the caustic soda solution might creep up the wrappings. One meths. enthusiast, by the way, recommends burning until the bared ends are fused into “bloom.” Wouldn’t this be liable to make the Litz brittle? It seems to me that it might be asking for subsequent trouble in the shape of a break near the soldered connection. I’m sorry that I haven’t been able to try out the various suggestions so as to report practical results. Unfortunately I haven’t an inch of Litz in my workshop at the moment and can’t get any.

Confirmation
Those paragraphs had just been written when a fresh batch of letters from readers arrived. Several of these mention that the dip-and-quincheon method with meths. is that used by radio and instrument manufacturers. One correspondent kindly sends samples of Litz stripped in this way and they leave no doubt that it is a completely satisfactory means of doing the job. These letters, too, contained a new suggestion, which may be useful for other end-baring jobs. The sender is good enough to enclose a sample of a very fine abrasive paper which, he tells me, goes by the name of “Speed Grip.” Its full title is Waterproof Abrasive Paper. Silicon Carbide, Grade T.1. I’m not sure that it would be as quick, sure and effective for Litz stripping as the meths. method; but it would certainly be ideal for baring the ends of very fine, single enamelled wires. The sender tells me that he uses it regularly for dealing also with o.0076 inch diameter (No. 36 SWG) silk-covered aluminium wire. His method is to hold the doubled paper lightly in the right hand and to draw the end through it with the left. The correct pressure quickly comes with practice, he says. He finds that he never has to make more than two draws. I make no apology for devoting so much space to the Litz problem, for it is clearly one that interests many readers.

Text Book Troubles
A CORRESPONDENT writing in last month’s Wireless World put his finger upon one of the main difficulties in writing and in selecting text books; some authors don’t seem able to decide what sort of people their readers are going to be. Large sales mean large royalties and there is always the temptation to write with at any rate half an eye on appealing to the widest possible public. To try to cater in one and the same book for the beginner and the expert, the brilliant and the dull, is a fatal mistake. Yet how often does one find a work with a pretentious title devoting page after page to fourth-form stuff? On the other side of the medal you have the “Primer” of this or the “Ele-
mentary Handbook" of that, whose titles lure the unfortunate beginner into parting with hard cash, only to find himself well out of his depth in Chapter 1 because the author has assumed, despite his title, that all readers of primers and elementary handbooks are thoroughly familiar with Fourier series, or such terms as "negative resistance," "decrement," "mutual inductance" and "Miller effect." Every writer of a technical book should write for the worst example. If we make this clear and unmistakable in his introduction, and should match the methods of his elucidation to the company of his selected readers.

Try- ing It On the Dog!

With the correspondent who suggested that the best writers of textbook were those who had practical instructing experience I could not agree more. There is no other way of discovering (a) what is dark to the minds of students and (b) how to lighten that darkness. When I was instructing in this war and in the last one I used to give one tip to the assistant: collect students' notebooks twice a week during your first month and at least once a week after that. Read what they have written down as the gist of your talks and you'll learn, on the one hand, what their real difficulties are and, on the other, whether or not you have been successful in smoothing them out. Similarly, writers of text books might do a lot worse than let students of various mental calibres read the MS or the proofs and give an account of their reactions.

Bow-wow Latin

THOUGH scientific folk to-day affect to scorn the classics, various bodies connected with wireless seem to have a perfect passion for adopting alleged Latin mottoes. And having concocted something of the worst dog-Latin type they are wont to publish "translations" containing bloomerisms which would have earned fourth-form schoolboys a sound spanking in my young days. The R.M.A.'s Radio maximo arvo is perhaps the worst example. If I remember aright, the official translation is "by radio to the farthest shore!" And now we are told that the Radio Industries Club's Spectemur agendo means "by our deeds we shall be known." I'm afraid it doesn't, not nohow! It might mean several things, but that's not one of them; for spectemur isn't the future indicative and spectare doesn't mean "to know."

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DECOUPLING CIRCUITS

T he value of the resistance and capacity elements required to decouple the valves of a multi-stage amplifier from the impedance of the common HT source becomes inconveniently large when low frequencies are to be handled. The inventors describe an alternative arrangement in which impedances inserted in the HT supply line serve the same purpose.

In the resistance-coupled amplifier shown, the anode currents of the last two valves, which are in phase-opposition, flow through separate impedances \( Z_1, Z_2 \), of such value that the back-EMF's developed across them and the common impedance \( Z_3 \) of the HT source balance-out at the junction points \( J_1, J_2 \). The anodes and screen-grids of the preceding valve are supplied from bus-bars connected to these junctions, which being balanced to earth contain no undesirable "ripple" voltage. To offset the double supply line, the connections to the electrodes of the first valve are made through pairs of resistances, such as \( R \) and \( R' \); each one of which is of normal value.

J. Fursehull Laboratories, Ltd.; F. R. Milson; and S. Smith and Sons (Motor Accessories), Ltd. Application date, July 21st, 1943. No. 567021.

OXIDE-COATED CATHODES

T he barium content of the coating tends to evaporate at the working temperature, thus reducing the effective life of the valve. One possible remedy is to provide a pellet of barium inside the tube where it evaporates as the tube is operated and so supplies free molecules to replace those lost by the cathode. Unfortunately, it seems that the molecules also deposit themselves on the walls or other electrodes and so give rise to undesirable emission.

It has now been found possible to re-activate the cathode by placing a positively charged pellet of barium at a point inside the tube where it is subjected to bombardment by the main electron stream, without, however, being heated to the point of evaporation. In a cathode-ray tube, for instance, the pellet is fixed on the inside of the first accelerating anode, facing the cathode. Under these conditions, the barium is liberated in the form of positively charged ions, which are then focused directly on to the cathode by the prevailing electrostatic field.


Balanced decoupling circuit.

A SELECTION OF THE MORE INTERESTING RADIO DEVELOPMENTS

O SCILLATION GENERATORS

W hen the tuning of the main oscillatory circuit of a valve generator is varied, as in frequency modulation, the reactance of the circuit also changes, so that the full resonant voltage no longer appears across it. In practice this variation is usually offset by including some circuit element which is adjusted concurrently with the change in tuning.

According to the invention, the desired effect is secured by including in the anode circuit of the generating valve a "static" stabiliser, i.e., one that requires no specific resetting. The stabiliser consists of an inductance in series with a condenser, the resonant frequency of the combination being fixed either slightly above or below the tuning range of the signals, according as the tuning of the main oscillation circuit is varied by an inductance or by a condenser. Under these conditions, the impedance of the stabiliser changes with frequency in the same sense as the main circuit, and so keeps constant the output voltage across the latter.


RF INDUCTANCES

A n iron-dust core for a variable tuning inductance is made in two parts, as shown, the coil being wound around the centre limb of the pot B. The lid or upper part of A is recessed, so that when it is moved closest to the part B there will still be a gap in the magnetic circuit, over the centre limb. This construction is stated to reduce the overall size of the unit required for a given range of tuning inductance and "Q." It also allows the coil to be impregnated after it has been fitted in position.

Neosid, Ltd., and M. Grenly. Application date, October 18th, 1943. No. 567963.

ELECTROLYTIC CONDENSERS

I f over-run, this type of condenser will develop internal heat and generate gas.

To meet this contingency, one wall of the container is slightly thickened to allow for a small flat recess, which is perforated at the centre and bordered by an upstanding rim of metal. A small disc of rubber, in which a slit has been made without removing any of the material, is dropped on to the seating over the aperture, and is then fixed firmly in position by turning or spinning over the edges of the surrounding rim. This leaves the centre of the rubber free to allow the sides of the slit to gape sufficiently to relieve any internal pressure, and to close up tightly again under normal working conditions.

P. A. Sporing; C. P. Johnson; and The Telegraph Condenser Co., Ltd. Application date, August 9th, 1943. No. 567602.
The capital Sigma, in mathematics, is a symbol meaning 'the sum of'.

The Philips emblem, in everyday life is a symbol meaning the sum of expert design, skilled workmanship and good materials.

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ERIE ½ watt resistances 250 250, 3½ 3½, 1 meg. 200, 2,400, 50,000 2,400, 3,000. 2,400, 75,000 75, 0.1 meg. insulated type except 33,500 3, 5/9 dozen.

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H. DARRETT, Kings Park, London, E.12, and at Faircross Parade, Barking, Essex (Head Office).

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Check voltages with switch, 2½ per condenser, 2½ per condenser.

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DIALS, 5½ in. x 3½ in., £1 each.

OPHELIA, 15 litre, £1 each.

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Department of Radio and Musical Instrument Technology.

Head of Department: S.A. Harren, M.C., F. Brit.I.R.E.

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London, operator technician, picture telegraphy; good knowledge of electronics; no previous experience necessary; salary £500 per annum; Class A engineerman or exempt.—Box 1532.

A.E., London factory has vacancies for experienced radio receivers, having pre-war experience of the design of radio and television receivers; preferably ex-R.A.F. vehicles, excellent post-war prospects; appoint when restrictions are withdrawn.—Write in confidence to Box 7189. A.K. Adv., 212a, Shaftesbury Ave., London, W.C.2.

Send to the appropriate engineer required, appointment, when relevant restrictions are withdrawn.—Write in confidence to Box 7191, A.K. Adv., 212a, Shaftesbury Ave., London, W.C.2.

C.A., premises with previous experience as a receiver engineer required, Unit 2, 15, E.C.3, written experience and ability. (Inserted by permission of M.P.M. under Control of Engagement Order, 1945.)—Box 131.

A SERVICE manager is required by a London company manufacturing a high-class radio valve amplifying hearing aid. The position carries a salary of £500-£600 p.a., and offers considerable scope for a young man with knowledge of I.F. amplification, test equipment, and who is also a first-class organiser, correspondents, and able to train and control staff. Applications, giving age and detailed experience should be made to Box 1130.

DEVELOPMENT engineer required by established radio and communications component manufacturers; must have had at least 4 years' experience in the design and production of high-frequency equipment, and be able to wire up. Must have special knowledge of valves and able to construct sets for production work. (Inquiries in confidence to M.P.M. under Control of Engagement Order, 1945.)—Box 1132.

A TELEPHONE RENTAL engineer, 28, Essex Rd., N.1, wishes to forward your ideas in connection with broadcast equipment. (Inserted by permission of M.P.M. under Control of Engagement Order, 1945.)—Box 1132.

WANTED

A BUTT-DESIGNER, specialised in modern cabinet design, seeks contact with radio manufacturer.—Write Box 1135.

COMMUNICATIONS engineer, experienced in radio, carrier and V.F.T., in Services, release about Dec., seeks position or partnership in U.K., Australia or N.Z.—Box 1135.

RADIO and electronic engineer, 52, design, research, development, servicing, shortly returning from R.A.F. service, seeks connection with firm trading (or opening trade) in the U.K.; extensive practical advertising and managerial experience.—Box 1358.

Chief radio officer anticipates discharge from Merchant Navy in near future; City and Guilds Finalist in Radio-communications and electrical technology, completed student-practice course with well-known radio manufacturer; responsible for maintenance and organisation of telephony and telegraphy stations during sea career, aged 24 years; desires Technical situation.—Box 1129.

C.A., premises with previous experience as a receiver engineer required, Unit 2, 15, E.C.3, written experience and ability. (Inserted by permission of M.P.M. under Control of Engagement Order, 1945.)—Box 1132.

PATENT NOTICES

The proprietors of British Patent No. 537689, entitled Improvements in wave-guiding systems, particularly applicable to facsimile telegraphy, and No. 537689, entitled Improvements in frequency modulation systems, offer same for license or otherwise to ensure their practical working in Great Britain.—Inquiries to A.W. Smith, 24a, St. Albans, St. Albans, Hertfordshire.

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THE proprietors of British Patent No. 505639, entitled Improvements in and relating to cathode ray screens for licence or otherwise to ensure its practical working in Great Britain, inquire to Singer, Ebel, Stem and Carlberg, Chrysler Building, New York City, 17, N.Y.S.A.
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