Timekeeping Advances Through COS/MOS Technology

by S.S. Eaton

Most COS/MOS timing circuits consist of three basic parts: an oscillator, or main timing standard; some digital processing logic, usually in the form of frequency-dividing circuits; and logic-circuit drivers for mechanical or electrical output devices controlled by the digital processing logic. The oscillator is perhaps the most important because the accuracy of the total COS/MOS timing system is entirely dependent upon the accuracy of the oscillator. This Note discusses basic oscillator design considerations, practical COS/MOS oscillator circuits, and some typical COS/MOS timing-circuit applications.

BASIC OSCILLATOR DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

A basic oscillator circuit consists of an amplifier and a feedback section, as shown in Fig. 1. For oscillation to occur, the gain of the amplifier times the attenuation of the feedback network must be greater than one. In addition, the total phase shift through the amplifier and feedback network must be equal to n times 360 degrees, where n is an integer. These conditions imply that oscillations occur in any system in which an amplified signal is returned in phase to the amplifier input after being attenuated less than it was originally amplified. In such a system, any noise present at the amplifier input causes oscillation to build up at a rate determined by the loop gain, or $\alpha\beta$ product, of the over-all circuit.

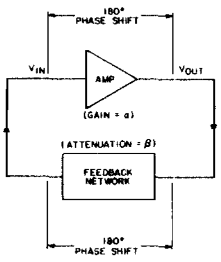


Fig. 1– Basic oscillator circuit.

The frequency stability of an oscillator is primarily dependent upon the phase-changing properties of the feedback network. For high stability, quartz crystals and tuning forks are commonly used as feedback network elements. The quartz crystal is the more popular because of its higher Q or greater inherent frequency stability.

Selection of Crystal Operating Mode

Fig. 2 shows the equivalent circuit of a quartz crystal, and Table I lists typical component values of the elements included in the equivalent circuit for different crystal cuts and operating frequencies. The basic circuit can be resolved into equivalent resistive (R_e) and reactive (X_e) components. Fig. 3 shows curves of these components as functions of frequency for a typical 32.768-kHz crystal. Fig. 3(b) shows two points at which the crystal appears purely resistive, (i.e., points at which $X_e = 0$). These points are defined as the resonant (f_r) and antiresonant (f_a) frequencies. Series-resonant oscillator circuits are designed to oscillate at or near f_r. Parallel-resonant circuits oscillate between f_r and f_a, depending upon the value of a parallel loading capacitor, as discussed later. In contrast to series-resonant circuits, parallel resonant-circuits work best with amplifiers that have high input impedances. The parallel-resonant circuit, therefore, is most applicable to crystal oscillators that employ COS/MOS amplifiers.[1]

Feedback-Circuit Configuration

A feedback circuit suitable for use with a parallel-resonant oscillator circuit is shown in Fig. 4. This circuit, known as a crystal pi network, is intended for use after an amplifier that provides a 180-degree phase shift. The pi network is designed to provide the additional 180-degree phase shift required for oscillation. The phase angle for this type of feedback circuit is extremely sensitive to a change in frequency, a condition necessary for stable oscillation. If the equivalent resistance of the crystal were in fact zero (infinite Q), a change in the phase angle of the feedback circuit would not cause any change in oscillator frequency; the frequency, therefore, would be insensitive to any phase change in the amplifier. Though practical crystals allow only a slight change in frequency for large variations in phase angle, the amplifier phase angle should, to the extent possible, be made independent of temperature and supply-voltage variations in order to minimize the phase compensation required of the feedback network. Any required phase compensation will, of course, dictate a corresponding change in the frequency of oscillation consistent with practical values of crystal Q. For this reason, the equivalent resistance of the crystal should be maintained as low as possible, and the amplifier should be designed to roll off at frequencies greater than the crystal frequency.

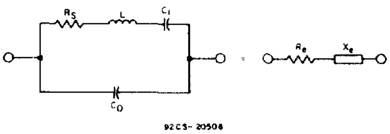


Fig. 2– Equivalent circuit for a quartz crystal.

Table I – Typical Component Values for Common Cuts of Quartz Oscillator Crystals

FREQUENCY	32 kHz	280 kHz	525 kHz	2MHz
Cut	XY Bar	DT	DT	AT
R_s (ohms)	40K	1820	1400	82
L (Hy)	4800	25.9	12.7	0.52
C_1 (pF)	0.00491	0.0125	0.00724	0.0122
C_o (pF)	2.85	5.62	3.44	4.27
C_o/C_1	580	450	475	350
Q	25000	25000	30000	80000

Oscillator Amplifier

Fig. 5 shows a COS/MOS amplifier circuit that may be used to provide the amplification function in a crystal-controlled oscillator. The amplifier is biased so that the output voltage V_{OUT} is equal to the input voltage V_{IN} or typically is equal to one-half the supply voltage V_{DD}, (i.e., $V_{OUT} = V_{IN} = V_{DD}/2$). Biasing is accomplished by means of a resistor that has a value high enough to prevent loading of the feedback network, yet that is low enough in comparison to the amplifier input resistance. Resistor values of 10 to 500 megohms will satisfy these criteria; however, lower values in the order of 15 megohms are generally used to allow greater input leakage without any severe change in bias point. The gain of the amplifier varies with supply voltage, the size of the n- and p-channel MOS transistors, and the sum of the threshold voltages of the n- and p-channel transistors. When an oscillator amplifier is designed to roll off at frequencies greater than the crystal frequency, care must be taken to assure that the transistor sizes are large enough for the particular supply voltage used and range of threshold voltages expected. For any circuit, though, the sum of the threshold voltages of the n- and p-channel transistors must always be less than the supply voltage.

The oscillator amplifier governs, to a certain extent, the selection of the components for the feedback network. The amplifier current consumption is strongly dependent upon the attenuation across the feedback network. As the attenuation becomes greater, the signal at the amplifier input becomes smaller, which, in turn, increases the amplifier current consumption. Large voltage swings at the amplifier input cause little current to flow because the resistance of either the n- or p-channel transistor is high during a large portion of the cycle. On the basis of power considerations, it is best to design the feedback network for a small attenuation.

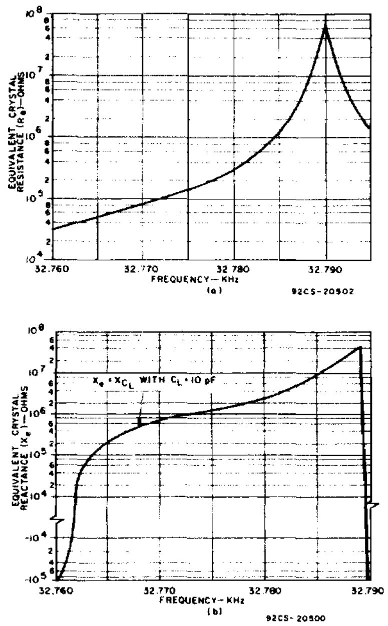


Fig. 3– Impedance characteristics of a quartz oscillator crystal: (a) equivalent crystal resistance as a function of frequency; (b) equivalent crystal reactance as a function of frequency.

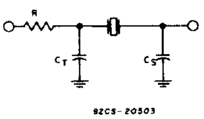


Fig. 4– Crystal pi-type feedback network.

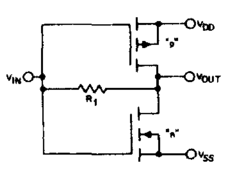


Fig. 5– COS/MOS amplifier.

Equivalent Crystal Resistance

The equivalent resistance R_s of the crystal should be maintained as small as possible in order to obtain minimum attenuation across the feedback network. For any given circuit, the oscillator current always increases with a rise in crystal resistance. This factor and stability considerations provide strong arguments for the purchase of crystals that have low series resistance, although the usual cost tradeoffs prevail.

Crystal Load Capacitance

Another factor that influences the over-all power consumption is the size of the pi-network capacitor at the amplifier output. For minimum current consumption, this capacitor, obviously, should be kept small. This condition, however, does not always imply high frequency stability. The choice of the capacitor value first involves a determination of the over-all crystal load capacitance. The phase angle of the feedback network approaches 180 degrees when the crystal equivalent reactive component X_e is equal to the reactance (X_{CL}) of a capacitor placed in parallel with the crystal. Fig. 4 shows that the effective capacitance across the crystal consists of the two pi-network capacitors in series. If the value of the equivalent reactance X_e at the crystal frequency, as may be determined from Fig. 3(b), is equal to the value of the crystal load capacitance C_L, then the equivalent value of the two series-connected pi-network capacitors can be calculated from the following relationship:

$$C_L = 1/\omega X_e \quad (1)$$

The value of the load capacitance C_L, in general, is chosen first, and the crystal manufacturer is required to cut the crystal to oscillate at the desired frequency for the specified value of load capacitance.

The choice of a load capacitance is important in terms of over-all power consumption and frequency stability. Higher values of C_L generally improve frequency stability, but also increase power dissipation. The timing industry presently seems to have standardized on values of C_L between 10 and 20 picofarads.

The choice of the total equivalent load capacitance C_L only fixes the series sum of the two pi-network capacitors. The individual capacitors themselves can be found from the following equations:

$$C_T = 4C_L/(1 - 5fR_eC_L) \quad (2)$$

$$C_S = 4C_L/(3 + 5fR_eC_L) \quad (3)$$

The actual value of C_S used in the feedback circuit should be about 3 picofarads less than the calculated value to allow for the amplifier input capacitance. The value of the amplifier output capacitor C_T should not normally be fixed. A trimmer capacitor should be placed in parallel with, or used in place of, a fixed output capacitor to allow for variations in stray capacitance and circuit components. The mid-range value of the output capacitor combination should be equal to the calculated value of C_T.

Frequency-Trimming Capability

The required capacitance range for the oscillator trimmer capacitor is determined by the variation in oscillation frequency with a change in load capacitance.[2] The total frequency-trimming range of a crystal-controlled oscillator circuit is mainly a function of the crystal characteristics, or more explicity, is inversely proportional to the slope of the crystal reactance curve, shown in Fig. 3(b). The slope of this curve is a function of the difference between the resonant frequency f_r and the antiresonant frequency f_a. This frequency difference, in turn, is a function of the crystal capacitance ratio C_0/C_1, where C_0 and C_1 are the inherent shunt and series capacitances, respectively, of the crystal structure, as shown in Fig. 2. The slope of the reactance curve is also a function of the total external crystal load capacitance C_L. As shown in Fig. 3(b), this slope decreases as the equivalent reactance increases, (i.e., for smaller values of the capacitance C_L). Fig. 6 and Table II show trimming-range data for a typical 32.768-kHz crystal that has a capacitance ratio C_0/C_1 of 580. These data show that smaller values of load capacitance result in greater trimming-range capability.

Temperature Stability

Another important oscillator consideration is temperature stability. Most crystals have a negative parabolic temperature coefficient.[2] Fig. 7 shows a typical curve of the variation in crystal frequency as a function of temperature. The frequency of the total oscillator circuit also exhibits a similar temperature dependence. Temperature compensation of the over-all oscillator circuit can be achieved by use of a capacitor that has a positive parabolic temperature coefficient in the pi feedback network.[3] For comparison, Fig. 7 also shows a typical resultant curve for the over-all circuit.

The temperature characteristics of a crystal are determined to a large extent by the crystal cut. Popular low-frequency cuts include the NT and XY Bar. The XY Bar is the more popular of the two types because it can be made smaller for a given Q and is easier to trim. The disadvantage of a slightly lower shock resistance of XY Bar crystals is compensated by the superior aging chacteristics of this type.

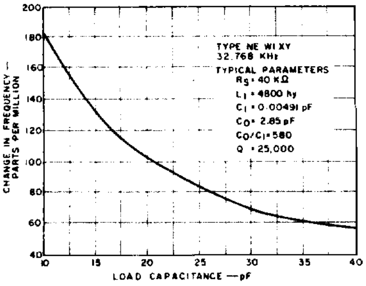


Fig. 6— Frequency as a function of load capacitance for a typical 32-kHz crystal.

AT-cut crystals, when used at frequencies greater than 1 MHz, are characterized by excellent temperature stability and ruggedness. Temperature characteristics for this type of crystal cut as well as for the XY Bar and NT types are shown in Fig. 8.

Crystal Dimensions

Size is also an important consideration in the design of oscillator crystals. The length of quartz required for any given cut is inversely proportional to the square root of frequency. Dimensions for a typical packaged 32-kHz, XY Bar crystal are 0.6 inch by 0.2 inch by 0.11 inch. The smallest XY Bar crystals currently available have dimensions in the order of 0.53 inch by 0.2 inch by 0.11 inch. A 1-MHz AT-cut crystal is significantly larger; however, dimensions again decrease with frequency. Crystal manufacturers are currently working to develop wristwatch-size AT-cut crystals with the anticipation of circuit improvements that will allow low-current operation at high frequencies.

Crystal Shock Resistance and Aging Rate

A prime concern of the timing industry today is that of crystal shock resistance and aging. The aging of a crystal results primarily from aging of the mounting material rather than from aging of the quartz itself. The mounting material enters into the crystal equivalent circuit, and the slowest aging rate results when the mount consists of the least amount of supporting material. This condition of course, results in lower shock resistance, and an optimum trade-off must be achieved. At present, 32-kHz crystals can be made that can withstand a mechanical shock of about 1500 G's applied for 0.5 millisecond and that have aging rates that result in a frequency change of 2 to 5 parts per million for the first year and essentially no aging thereafter. Any mechanical or thermal shock, however, will interrupt the normal aging process. The aging rate of 2 to 5 parts per million presently appears acceptable to the timing industry, although shock resistances of 3,000 to 5,000 G's are desired. This shock level corresponds approximately to the shock experienced by dropping the crystal from a height of one meter onto a hardwood floor.

Table II — Trimming Data for a Typical 32-kHz Quartz Oscillator Crystal

TRIM	LOAD CAPACITANCE, CL			
	5 pF	11.5 pF	20 pF	32 pF
± 20 PPM	−0.45 +0.51 pf	−1.6 +2.0 pf	−3.7 +5.5 pf	−8.0 +14.7 pf
± 25 PPM	−.55 +.65 pf	−1.9 +2.6 pf	−4.5 +7.3 pf	−9.4 +20.5 pf
± 30 PPM	−0.66 +0.79 pf	−2.3 +3.3 pf	−5.2 +9.3 pf	−10.7 +27.9 pf

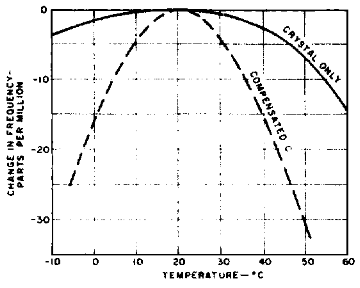


Fig. 7— Effect of temperature on crystal frequency.

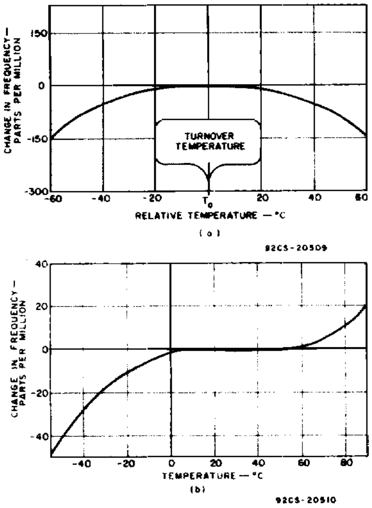


Fig. 8— Frequency-temperature characteristics for various crystal cuts: (a) XY-Bar and NT cuts; (b) AT cut.

PRACTICAL OSCILLATOR CIRCUITS

The basic amplifier, feedback-network, and crystal considerations discussed in the preceding paragraphs can be combined in the design of COS/MOS oscillator circuits. In the circuits, the crystal selected has an equivalent resistance R_e of 50 kilohms and is cut to operate at a frequency of 32.768 kHz with a load capacitance C_L of 10 picofarads. The values of pi feedback-network capacitors C_T and C_S can be calculated by use of Eqs. (2) and (3) as C_T = 43 picofarads and C_S = 13 picofarads. The value of the feedback-network resistance R can be calculated as follows:

$$R = \frac{(3X_e + 0.27\,R_e)(X_e - 0.8\,R_e)}{16\,R_e}$$

$$\approx 1\ \text{M}\Omega$$

This value is the maximum value of resistance allowd for a minimum feedback-network attenuation of 0.75, a value chosen on the basis of power and stability considerations.[1] The calculated value of R includes any fixed resistance plus the amplifier output resistance. Because the output resistance is often appreciable and varies with supply voltage, transistor size, and threshold voltages, it is generally best to add resistance experimentally until the desired power consumption and frequency stability are reached. The effect of this resistance on operating current and frequency stability can be predicted from data given in Table III for the three different COS/MOS crystal oscillator circuits shown in Fig. 9. In each circuit, the pi-network capacitors C_T and C_S are 39 picofarads and 10 picofarads, respectively. These capacitances are slightly less than the calculated values because of stray and amplifier capacitances.

The circuit shown in Fig. 9(a) combines the amplifier and feedback circuits shown in Fig. 4 and 5. Although theory predicts that an increase in the values of the feedback-network resistor R will result in increased frequency stability, the circuit performance data given in Table III show *no significant improvement in this characteristic. This result* indicates that the circuit instability can be attributed almost entirely to phase instabilities of the amplifier. This assumption is verified by data taken from the circuits shown in Figs. 9(b) and 9(c) in which the required feedback-network resistance is incorporated into the amplifier as a fixed value. The resistors essentially fix the amplifier phase shift so that greater stability results. As the data show, use of these resistors also results in a decrease in the total current consumption. Because of the two fixed resistors, the circuit of Fig. 9(b) shows the least current consumption and also the greatest stability.

Table III – Typical Oscillator Data

Circuit	Value of R (Ω)	V_{DD} (Volts)	Current (µA)	Frequency Stability V_{DD} = 1.45V to 1.6V
9(a)	0	1.60	4.0	2.8
"	0	1.45	3.1	
"	100K	1.60	3.1	2.6
"	"	1.45	2.4	
"	200K	1.60	2.9	2.6
"	"	1.45	2.1	
9(b)	100K	1.60	2.3	.3
"	"	1.45	2.0	
"	"	1.1	1.5	
"	150K	1.60	1.8	.2
"	"	1.45	1.6	
"	"	1.1	.95	
9(c)	200K	1.60	5.0	.6
"	"	1.45	4.4	
"	300K	1.60	3.5	.5
"	"	1.45	3.0	

As mentioned previously, the amplifier feedback resistor should not significantly load the crystal feedback network. The resistor value at which loading begins to occur can be determined from a curve of circuit operating frequency as a function of feedback resistance. Fig. 10 shows such a curve for the circuit shown in Fig. 9(b). This curve indicates that 15 megohms is a suitable value for the feedback resistor.

FREQUENCY DIVIDERS

Because of restrictions on crystal size and cost, oscillator frequencies of 8192 Hz, or higher, are generally used for electronic timing circuits. The use of such high crystal frequencies usually requires division of the oscillator frequency to a more convenient value. Synchronous motors, for example, are often driven by frequencies between 0.5 Hz and 64 Hz. Numeric readouts for digital clocks or wristwatches require pulses at least every second, minute, and hour. The necessity for frequency division becomes clear if one considers the wide variety of timing intervals that may be required for certain applications.

The basic frequency-dividing circuit, shown in Fig. 11, consists of a master-slave D-type flip-flop connected as a binary counter stage. N stages may be cascaded with the final output frequency equal to 2^{-N} times the input frequency. Division by integers other than powers of 2 can also be accomplished by use of gating techniques. For example, a divide-by-60 counter implemented as shown in Fig. 12, can be used to obtain minutes from seconds.

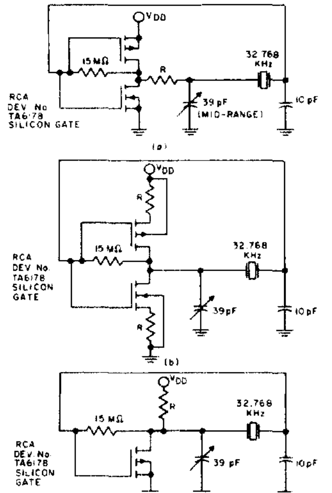


Fig. 9– Typical COS/MOS crystal-oscillator circuits.

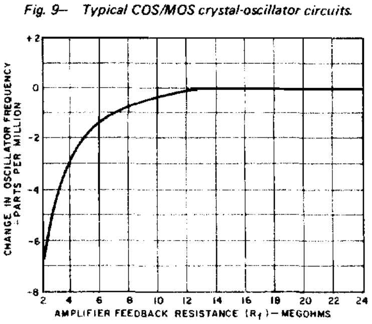


Fig. 10– Oscillator frequency as a function of amplifier feedback resistance.

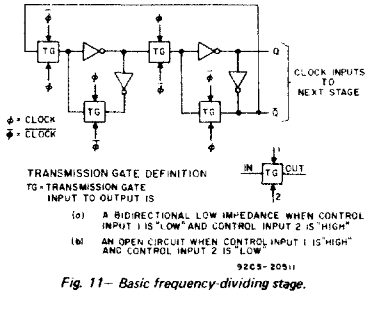


Fig. 11– Basic frequency-dividing stage.

A basic block diagram of a typical digital clock that employs divide-by-60 counters is shown in Fig. 13. The display for the clock is designed to be multiplexed in that new information is provided to only one of the six readout characters, while the eye itself holds the previous state of the other five. The multiplexing unit consists of COS/MOS transmission gates controlled by a six-stage ring counter that also addresses each character sequentially. This type of circuit is particularly applicable for driving light-emitting diode displays.

Light-emitting diodes, as well as other readout devices, require some form of driving circuitry which is often unique to the driven device. Other typical readout devices include stepping motors, balance-wheel motors, tuning-fork motors, and liquid-crystal displays.

Motors are frequently driven by low-impedance MOS transistor drivers. The waveforms required depend upon the particular type of motor. Rotary stepping motors require a pulsed waveform such as that shown in Fig. 14(a). The motor advances one position (for example 180 degrees) on each pulse. Fig. 14(b) shows a COS/MOS circuit that may be used *to generate this type of waveform. The crystal frequency and* the number of countdown stages for this circuit determine the pulse frequency. The duty factor is controlled by two resettable flip-flops that are clocked inversely by the last counting stage and reset by an intermediate stage. The output waveform from this circuit will have a duty factor that is exactly given by 2^{I-1-N} where I is the number of the intermediate stage used to reset the shaping flip-flops and N is the total number of frequency-divider stages.

A tuning-fork motor consists of two coils wired in series and wound on either side of the fork. A subdivision of the crystal frequency drives the coils which electromagnetically vibrate the fork. The fork can be linked to an index wheel *that, in turn, can drive the hands of a watch.*

A balance-wheel motor consists of a coil fixed near the periphery of a pivoted balance wheel. Permanent magnets are attached to one side of the wheel and counterweights to the other. The coil can be energized by pulses supplied to the gate of an n-channel MOS transistor with the coil connected between the drain and the supply voltage of the transistor. When the coil is energized, the balance wheel swings toward the coil. The momentum of the wheel moves it beyond the coil, and spring action then forces it back. Repeated cycles generate a back-and-forth type motion which can be linked to a wheel for driving the hands of a watch or clock.

Seven-segment liquid-crystal numerals can be driven as shown in Fig. 15. An ac voltage is required across each segment of the display to assure long life. For this purpose, a 60-Hz square wave is applied to one input of each of seven exclusive-OR gates. The logic state present at the other input determines whether the segment will transmit or scatter light.

Liquid-crystal displays can be made for operation in either transmissive or reflective modes. The transmissive-mode type requires a light source behind the display. The light will either be transmitted or not depending upon the voltage across the segment. In the reflective-mode type, ambient light can be scattered by the liquid crystal material, or reflected from a mirrored surface placed behind the numeral. If displayed correctly, excellent contrast between "on" and "off" segments can be obtained when reflecting or scattering only ambient light.

The light scattering property of liquid-crystal displays offers two major advantages. First, the problem of washout in high intensity light is prevented. Washout has always been a problem with light generating displays. Second, because the displays do not generate light, they require negligible power. In fact, liquid crystals require the least amount of power of any currently available type of display.[4]

Light-emitting diodes are somewhat simpler to drive than liquid crystals because signals to individual segment and/or numerals can be easily multiplexed. Fig. 16 shows a typical multiplexed driving circuit. The n-p-n transistor, which is common to the cathode of all segments in each numeral, can be turned on to address only one particular numeral. The eye will hold the reading from all off segments long enough for at least six numerals to be multiplexed.

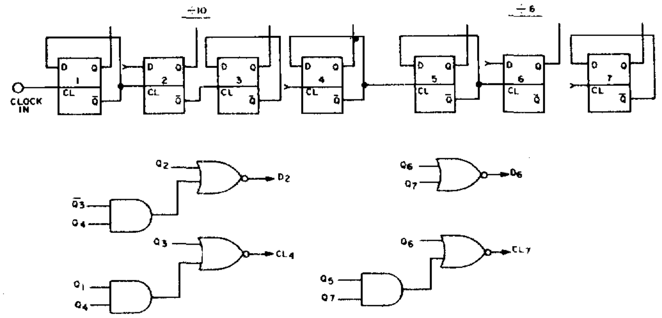


Fig. 12– COS/MOS divide-by-60 counter.

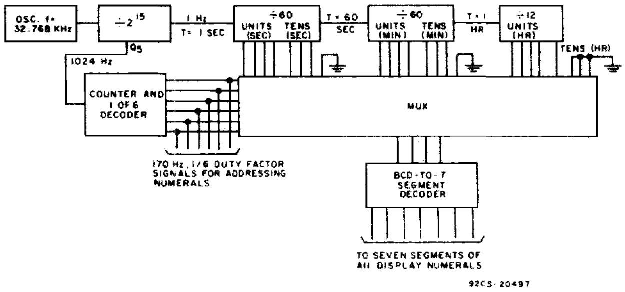


Fig. 13– Typical COS/MOS digital clock.

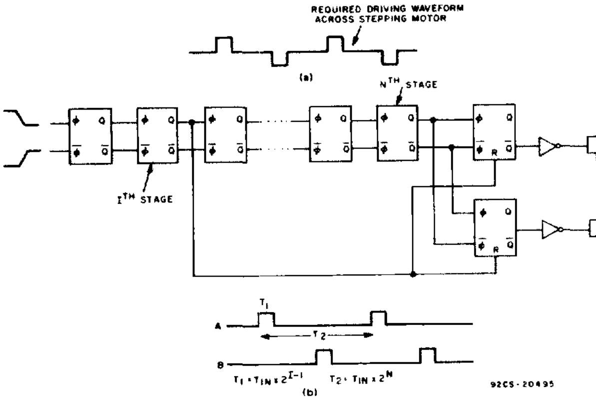


Fig. 14– Generation of required stepping-motor waveforms: (a) required driving waveform across stepping motor; (b) COS/MOS driving circuit and output waveforms applied to motor control winding.

COS/MOS TIMING-CIRCUIT APPLICATIONS

The choice of a readout device depends, of course, upon the application involved and to a certain extent upon the individual characteristics of the device itself. Special considerations for readout devices are perhaps best treated in a discussion of special requirements for three important timing-circuit applications, namely, wristwatches, wall clocks, and automobile clocks.

Wristwatches

In any wristwatch application, size and total operating current are perhaps the two most important considerations. The total timing circuitry, together with the battery and readout device, must fit into a relatively fixed size and have a current consumption small enough to allow at least one year of life. Size and power considerations also become important in crystal selection. The size and cost of a crystal decreases with increases in frequency up to about 1 MHz. The power consumption of the oscillator and counter increases with frequency. On the basis of these considerations, the most popular crystal frequency for wristwatches at present is 32.768 kHz. Typical packaged sizes for this crystal and various available crystal oscillator circuits were discussed in an earlier section of this Note.

The choice of a readout device also involves considerations of size and power as well as, of course, marketing considerations. If conventional-hand movements are chosen, a motor type of drive must be selected. No great size advantage exists over any of the various motor types used in this type of application. In addition, all types can be designed to operate from 1.1 to 1.6 volts with average current consumptions of about 10 microamperes. Sensitivity to vibration, however, is one separating characteristic. Although balance-wheel motors can be designed to compensate to a certain extent for speed variations produced by vibrations, the stepping motor, which is insensitive to vibration, remains superior in this respect. At present, however, the stepping motor is the more expensive of the two types.

Light-emitting diodes require a minimum of two battery cells for proper operation. The required current can be kept to about 2 milliamperes per segment when the diodes are pulsed from a six-stage ring counter, as shown in Fig. 13. A duty factor of 16 per cent is achieved with this arrangement. Because of the high current, however, a continuously operating battery-powered display is not possible, and a "readout on demand" watch is then necessary.

Continuously operating liquid-crystal displays are possible and practical. RCA wristwatch displays employ liquid-crystal material having resistivities of about 5×10^9 ohms per centimeter, which at a 0.5-mil spacing results in a resistance of 6.3 megohms per square centimer. With all segments energized, the display consumes only about 1 microampere of current at 15 volts. Liquid crystals, however, require a minimum supply of 12 volts to assure good contrast between on and off segments. For single-cell operation, a dc-to-dc converter must be used to step the voltage up to the required 12-to-15-volt level. Transformer and capacitor voltage-doubling circuits with conversion efficiencies of about 75 per cent are typically used for this purpose.

Because current consumption is such an important consideration for wristwatch circuits, the careful consideration given to the choice of a battery is easily understood. Small silver-oxide and mercury cells are presently popular for wristwatch use. Pertinent information on these types of

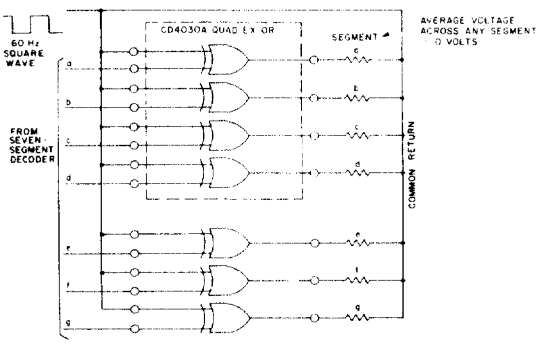


Fig. 15– COS/MOS liquid-crystal driving circuit.

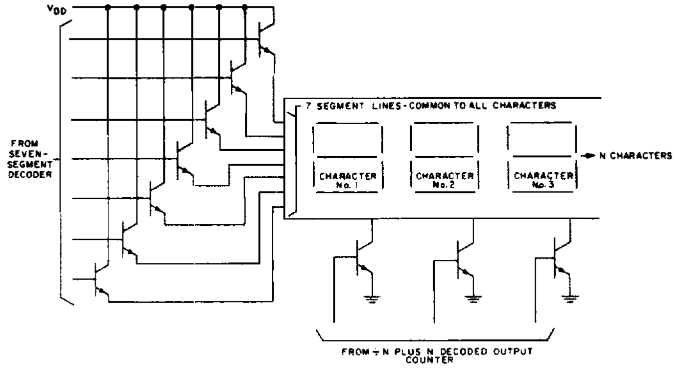


Fig. 16— Multiplexing driving circuit for light-emitting diodes.

Mallory cells is shown in Table IV. Most of the cells listed will last at least one year with a motor current of 10 microamperes and a total oscillator and divider current less than 5 microamperes at an oscillator frequency of 32.768 kHz. The voltage for both types of cells is relatively constant during the active life listed and falls off rapidly thereafter. Typical end-of-life voltages at 1.1 volts for mercury cells and 1.45 volts for silver-oxide cells. Either type of cell works equally well with RCA silicon-gate COS/MOS circuits which operate from supply voltages as low as 1.1 volts.

Wall Clocks

Size and power limitations for clocks are not as restrictive as those for wristwatches. For this reason, lower-cost, higher-frequency crystals may be used. The optimum range of crystal frequencies presently appears to be from 131 kHz to 524 kHz. All the oscillator considerations given previously for operation at 32 kHz apply equally well to this higher frequency range. The oscillator circuit configuration shown in Fig. 9(b) is still the optimum type; however, the value of the source resistors must be decreased to assure adequate gain at the higher frequencies. Source resistors are often best chosen experimentally by gradually increasing the resistance until an output voltage swing of 30 to 70 per cent of the supply voltage V_{DD} is reached. Data taken from a typical 262-kHz oscillator circuit that employs two 10-kilohm source resistors and a DT-cut, 262-kHz crystal are shown in Table V. The table also shows typical counter current.

The most popular readout devices for clocks are conventional-hand movements and liquid-crystal displays. Continuously operating light-emitting-diode numerals consume too much current even for long life of C- and D-size batteries. In contrast, a typical RCA four-digit liquid-crystal display having a 0.4-inch-by-0.6-inch numeral consumes only 100 microamperes of current with all segments energized.

Table IV – Typical Data for Mallory Watch Cells

Type	Voltage	Capacity µA yrs.	Height (in.)	Diameter (in.)
WH3	1.35	25	0.208	0.455
WS 14 Type A	1.55	19	0.210	0.455
W4	1.35	11	0.139	0.455
WS11	1.55	11	0.164	0.455
10 R 101 (EXP)	1.35	36	0.190	0.610
10 L 19 (EXP)	1.55	27	0.190	0.610
WD4	1.36	14	0.149	0.594
WD5	1.36	23	0.110	1.003

Motors for driving the clock hands are typically of the balance-wheel or continuously rotating synchronous types. Sensitivity to vibration is usually not a restriction; hence, the balance wheel motor can be successfully used in place of the more expensive stepping motor. Clock motors typically require about 300 to 450 microwatts of power, or average currents of 200 to 300 microamperes at 1.5 volts.

These currents, together with the oscillator and counter currents given in Table V, can now be compared with typical battery capacities. Battery information extrapolated from published Eveready data on popular AA-, C-, and D-size cells is listed in Table VI.[5] Most of the battery current is consumed by the motor, and if a total current of 250 microamperes is assumed, the data show a carbon-zinc C cell as the minimum size battery required for one year of life.

Auto Clocks

Auto clock circuits are somewhat unique in that power considerations are not nearly as restrictive as in other portable applications. Although the low-power feature of COS/MOS circuits is helpful, the main advantages obtained from the use of COS/MOS in automobile clocks, or in any automotive application, are those of wide operating voltage and temperature range and high noise immunity.

Table V – Typical Data for 262-kHz Oscillator and Counter Circuits

Product	V_{DD} (Volts)	Oscillator Current (µA)	Counter Current (µA)	Freq. Stability (ppm)
Silicon-Gate	1.1V	7	7	2.0 ppm 1.4 1.2
"	1.3V	9.5	9	
"	1.5V	11.5	10	
"	1.6V	12.5	11	
Low-Voltage	2.2V	21	10	1.8
"	3.0V	35	13	

With little restriction on power, the choice of a crystal depends mainly on cost. Crystals typically used for automobile timing applications are AT-cut types that operate at frequencies between 1 MHz and 4.2 MHz. The oscillator considerations discussed earlier also apply to these frequencies; however, as the frequency increases, it becomes increasingly difficult to maintain a low starting voltage at a low current. At high frequencies, the starting voltage and current are inversely proportional and are controlled mainly by the values of the capacitors on the pi-type feedback network and the size of the COS/MOS amplifier transistors.

Table VI – Life Data for Typical Batteries

Eveready Type #	Mallory Type #	Size	Type	Life (Days)
915	M15F	AA	Carbon-Zinc	150
E91	MN1500	AA	Alkaline	200
935	M14F	C	Carbon-Zinc	385
E93	MN1400	C	Alkaline	575
950	M13F	D	Carbon-Zinc	800
E95	MN1300	D	Alkaline	1100

All life data assumes a continuous drain of 250 µA and an end-of-life voltage of 1.1V.

For minimum starting voltage, relatively small capacitors should be used in the pi-feedback network, and no source resistors should be added to the amplifier. As indicated by data taken on the circuit shown in Fig. 9(b) and shown in Table VII, low power can still be maintained even when the source resistors are not used.

Table VII – Typical High-Frequency Data for COS/MOS Oscillator and Counter Circuits (Low-Voltage Product)

V_{DD} (Volts)	Freq. (MHz)	Oscillator Current (mA)	Counter Current (mA)	Motor Current (mA)
5	1	0.28	0.125	5V 2-5 mA 12V 5-10 mA
12	1	1.3	0.275	
5	2	0.37	0.250	
12	2	1.5	0.550	
5	3	0.40	0.375	5V 3-8 mA 12V 8-20 mA
12	3	1.9	0.825	
5	4	0.43	0.500	
12	4	2.3	1.1	

The upper limit of the crystal frequency depends not so much on power consumption as on the minimum supply voltage allowed for circuit operation. The minimum automobile battery voltage is generally considered to be 5 volts; however, the supply voltage for the timing circuit can be considerably less than this value depending upon the design of the transient protection circuit, as discussed later. Table VIII lists minimum COS/MOS supply voltages for typical oscillator circuits. The values shown permit design at two temperatures. The lower temperature is often considered adequate by auto companies with the opinion that the minimum battery voltage of 5 volts rarely, if ever, occurs at high temperatures.

The oscillator in a typical auto clock circuit is followed by a number of frequency-dividing stages, the last stage of which is frequently used to drive a motor. Long counter chains are required because of the high oscillator frequency; however, the power dissipation of COS/MOS circuits is so low that the number of stages is only restricted by chip size limitations. Because COS/MOS circuits consume current only during switching transitions, each counter stage averages one-half the current of the previous stage. The first counter stage, therefore, consumes as much current as all of the following stages combined for a counter of infinite length. Little difference, then, exists between the power consumption of a ten-stage or thirty-stage COS/MOS counter. Table VII lists, in addition to the oscillator current, typical values of counter current, as well as some typical ranges of peak and average motor currents.

Current data, such as that shown in Table VII, are necessary for a proper design of the transient protection circuit, an essential part of any automobile digital logic system. Automobile manufacturers disagree on the maximum amplitude and decay of transient voltage; however, values often used are maximum transients of +120 volts and −90 volts, each decaying exponentially with a maximum time constant of 45 milliseconds. Because standard COS/MOS circuits are rated for a maximum supply of 15 volts, a protection circuit must be included between the battery and the COS/MOS logic.

Table VIII – Minimum Operating Voltages for COS/MOS Integrated Circuits

	Low-Voltage Product				Silicon-Gate Product			
Freq. (MHz)	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Min. Voltage at 25°C	2.9	3.1	3.5	4.0	1.6	2.0	2.6	3.0
Min. Voltage at 82°C 180°F	3.0	3.3	4.0	5.0	1.8	2.6	3.4	4.0

Fig. 17 shows a transient-voltage protection circuit that is frequently used. The zener diode regulates the voltage supply for the clock circuits, and the capacitor and series diode prevent timing losses during negative transients. For minimum zener current during transients, the maximum value of R should be based on the minimum circuit operating voltage and the peak current drawn by the logic circuit and motor at the minimum battery voltage. The minimum zener breakdown voltage is then determined by subtraction of the product of the minimum current drain at the normal battery voltage and the value of R just chosen from the battery voltage. A zener breakdown greater than this voltage assures that no unnecessary current will be drawn by the zener during normal automobile operation.

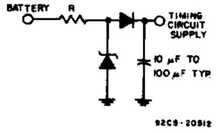
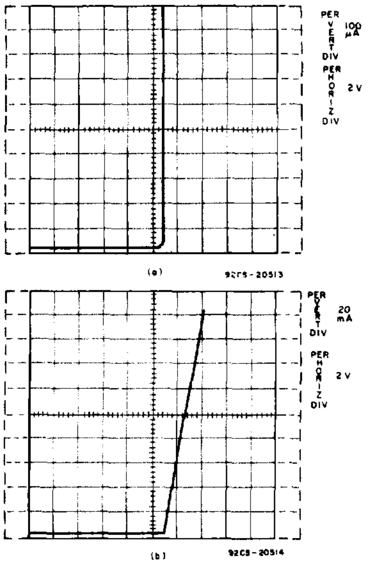


Fig. 17– Automobile transient-protection circuit.

Another important zener characteristic is dynamic impedance. During a current surge, the voltage across the zener must not rise to a damaging level. A value of 22 volts for the 45-millisecond time constant appears safe for standard COS/MOS circuits.

In the design of a typical transient-voltage protection circuit, it is assumed that the minimum battery voltage is 5 volts, that the minimum circuit operating voltage is 3.5 volts at a crystal frequency of 3.145728 MHz, and that a peak current of 3 milliamperes is obtained at 5 volts. The value of the resistance R is then found as (5 − 3.5 + 0.7)/3≈250 ohms. With a minimum current of 5 milliamperes at 12 volts, the minimum zener voltage becomes 12 − 5(0.250) = 11.75 volts. For a +120-volt transient, the zener could then consume a peak current of (120 − 11.8)/250 = 0.4 ampere. For a maximum zener voltage of 13 volts, the dynamic impedance of the zener must be less than (22V − 13V)/.4A = 22 ohms. Components chosen in this manner will provide adequate protection for anticipated transients.

Both protection-circuit diodes can be integrated onto the COS/MOS chip. When located as shown in Fig. 17, the series diode need only have a breakdown rating of about 12 volts. Zener diodes that have breakdown ratings of 4.5 to 6.0 volts or any multiple thereof can also be integrated onto the COS/MOS chip. The breakdown rating can also be increased in 0.7-volt steps by addition of forward-biased diodes in series. Characteristics of two typical zener diodes integrated in series are shown in Fig. 18. Fig. 18(a) shows the area around the "knee" of the breakdown region, and Fig. 18(b) shows the higher-current region useful for determining the dynamic resistance. From the slope of the line, the typical dynamic resistance for two diodes is found to be 17.6 ohms total, or 8.8 ohms per diode. The diodes are rated to withstand a 0.5-ampere surge current that decays with an 80-millisecond time constant. The zener diode, then, is compatible with present automobile protection requirements, and integration of this component should represent a considerable cost saving, especially when integrated with the series diode.



(a)

(b)

Fig. 18– Oscillograph tracings showing characteristics of an integrated zener diode: (a) low-current region; (b) high-current region.

Other Applications

Although wristwatches and clocks of various types are important applications of COS/MOS timing circuits, they are certainly not the only timing applications which can benefit from the unique features of COS/MOS logic. Applications such as fuze timers, feeding systems, automatic sprinklers, incubator timers, and other similar systems can be designed from information provided on the oscillator and counter with only the output device unique to the particular application. Automobile applications for COS/MOS circuits are almost endless. One can think of speed controllers, digital speedometers, miles per gallon indicators, and perhaps even estimated-time-of-arrival indicators that, on the basis of the given total mileage, would update the time on a dynamic basis from information provided by the speedometer, odometer, and clock.

CONCLUSIONS

The primary advantage of electronic timing circuits over conventional mechanical methods of timekeeping lies in the greatly increased accuracy permitted by the highly stable crystal-controlled oscillator circuit. Although crystal oscillator circuits have existed for some time, their usefulness in portable applications has been somewhat limited because of the high current consumption required by the following digital logic. The advent of COS/MOS integrated circuits now permits the design of complete low-power timing systems. The impact of COS/MOS on timing applications is perhaps equalled by the recent development of liquid-crystal displays and dc-to-dc converters that allow low-power continuously operating digital displays. Certainly, no great technological barriers now exist for the use of electronic timing circuits in a wide variety of applications. The search, no doubt, will always continue for the ideal timekeeping device; however, it should be apparent from the information presented that the ideal timekeeping unit can now be more closely approached than ever before.

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