Television

Anyone with a bunch of memory circuits, control logic and a wire wrap gun can whip up a digital video generator with TTL output levels. The problem as I see it is to get that digital video signal into a form that the TV set can digest. The care and feeding of digital inputs to the TV set is the subject of Don Lancaster’s contribution to BYTE 2 – an excerpt from his forthcoming book, TV Typewriter Cookbook, to be published by Howard W. Sams, Indianapolis, Indiana.

...CARL

We can get between a TV typewriter and a television style display system either by an rf modulator or a direct video method.

In the rf modulator method, we build a miniature, low power, direct wired TV transmitter that clips onto the antenna terminals of the TV set. This has the big advantage of letting you use any old TV set and ending up with an essentially free display that can be used just about anywhere. No set modifications are needed, and you have the additional advantage of automatic safety isolation and freedom from hot chassis shock problems.

There are two major restrictions to the rf modulator method. The first of these is that transmitters of this type must meet certain exactly spelled out FCC regulations and that system type approval is required. The second limitation is one of bandwidth. The best you can possibly hope for is 3.5 MHz for black and white and only 3 MHz for color, and many economy sets will provide far less. Thus, long character line lengths, sharp characters, and premium (lots of dots) character generators simply aren’t compatible with clip-on rf entry.

In the direct video method, we enter the TV set immediately following its video detector but before sync is picked off. A few premium TV sets and all monitors already have a video input directly available, but these are still expensive and rare. Thus, you usually have to modify your TV set, either adding a video input and a selector switch or else dedicating the set to exclusive TV typewriter use. Direct video eliminates the bandwidth restrictions provided by the tuner, i-f strip, and video detector filter. Response can be further extended by removing or shorting the 4.5 MHz sound trap and by other modifications to provide us with longer line lengths and premium characters. No FCC approval is needed, and several sets or monitors are easily driven at once without complicated distribution problems.

There are two limitations to the direct video technique. One is that the set has to be modified to provide direct video entry. A second, and far more severe, restriction, is that many television sets are “hot chassis” or ac-dc sets with one side of their chassis connected to the power line. These sets introduce a severe shock hazard and cannot be used as TV typewriter video entry displays unless some isolation technique is used with them. If the TV set has a power transformer, there is usually no hot chassis problem. Transistor television sets and IC sets using no vacuum tubes tend to have power transformers, as do older premium tube type sets. All others (around half the sets around today) do not.

Direct Video Methods

With either interface approach, we usually start by getting the dot matrix data, blanking, cursor, and sync signals together into one composite video signal whose
Interface

form is useful to monitors and TV sets. A good set of standards is shown in Fig. 1. The signal is dc coupled and always positive going. Sync tips are grounded and blacker than black. The normal open circuit black level is positive by one-half a volt, and the white level is two volts positive. In most TV camera systems, intermediate levels between the half volt black level and the two volt white level will be some shade of gray, proportionately brighter with increasing positive voltage. With most TV typewriter systems, only the three states of zero volts (sync), half a volt (black), and two volts (white dot) would be used. One possible exception would be an additional one volt dot level for a dim but still visible portion of a message or a single word.

The usual video source impedance is either 72 or 100 Ohms. Regardless of how far we travel with a composite video output, some sort of shielding is absolutely essential.

For short runs from board to board or inside equipment, tightly twisted conductors should be OK, as should properly guarded PC runs. Fully shielded cables should be used for interconnections between the TVT and the monitor or TV set, along with other long runs. As long as the total cable capacitance is less than 300 pF or so (this is around 18 feet of RG178-U miniature coax), the receiving end of the cable need not be terminated in a 72 or 100 Ohm resistor. When terminated cable systems are in use for long line runs or multiple outputs, they should be arranged to deliver the signal levels of Fig. 1 at their output under termination. Generally, terminated cable systems should be avoided as they need extra in the way of drivers and supply power.

The exact width of the horizontal and vertical sync pulses isn't usually too important, so long as the shape and risetime of these pulses are independent of position control settings and power supply variations. One exception to this is when you're using a color receiver and a color display. Here, the horizontal sync pulse should be held closely to 5.1 microseconds, so the receiver's color burst sampling does in fact intercept a valid color burst. More on this later.

Intentional Smear

Fig. 2 shows us a typical composite video driver using a 4066 quad analog switch. It gives us a 100 Ohm output impedance and the proper signal levels. Capacitor C1 is used to purposely reduce the video rise and fall times. It is called a smearing capacitor.

Why would we want to further reduce the bandwidth and response of a TV system that's already hurting to begin with? In the case of a quality video monitor, we wouldn't. But if we're using an ordinary run-of-the-mill TV set, particularly one using rf entry, this capacitor can very much improve the display legibility and contrast. Why?

Because we are interested in getting the most legible character of the highest contrast we can. This is not necessarily the one having the sharpest dot rise and fall times. Many things interact to determine the upper video response of a TV display. These include the tuner settings and the i-f response and alignment, the video detector response, video peaking, the sound trap setting, rf cable reflections, and a host of other responses. Many of these stages are underdamped and will ring if fed too sharp a risetime input, giving us a ghosted, shabby, or washed out character. By reducing the video bandwidth going into the system, we can move the dot matrix energy lower in frequency, resulting in cleaner characters of higher contrast.

For most TV displays, intentional smearing will help the contrast, legibility, and overall appearance. The ultimate limit to this occurs when the dots overlap and become illegible. The
Fig. 3. Block diagram of typical B and W television.

...Antenna... ANTENNA

3. IF TUNER of typical VIDEO 44 B and IF

Adding optimum amount of intentional smear is usually the value of capacitance that is needed to just close the inside of a "W" presented to the display.

Adding a Video Input

Video inputs are easy to add to the average television set, provided you follow some reasonable cautions. First and foremost, you must have an accurate and complete schematic of the set to be modified, preferably a Sams Photofact or something similar. The first thing to check is the power supply on the set. If it has a power transformer and has the chassis properly safety isolated from the power line, it's a good choice for a TVT monitor. This is particularly true of recent small screen, solid state portable TV sets. On the other hand, if you have a hot chassis type with one side of the power line connected to the chassis, you should avoid its use if at all possible. If you must use this type of set, be absolutely certain to use one of the safety techniques outlined later in Fig. 8.

A block diagram of a typical TV set appears in Fig. 3. UHF or VHF signals picked up by the tuner are downconverted in frequency to a video i-f frequency of 44 MHz and then filtered and amplified. The output of the video i-f is transformer coupled to a video detector, most often a small signal germanium diode. The video detector output is filtered to remove the carrier and then routed to a video amplifier made up of one or more tubes or transistors.

At some point in the video amplification, the black and white signal is split three ways. First, a reduced bandwidth output routes sync pulses to the sync separator stage to lock the set's horizontal and vertical scanning to the video. A second bandpass output sharply filtered to 4.5 MHz extracts the FM sound subcarrier and routes this to a sound i-f amplifier for further processing. The third output is video, which is strongly amplified and then capacitively coupled to the cathode of the picture tube.

The gain of the video amplifier sets the contrast of the display, while the bias setting on the cathode of the picture tube (with respect to its grounded control grid) sets the display brightness. Somewhere in the video amplifier, further rejection of the 4.5 MHz sound subcarrier is usually picked up to minimize picture interference. This is called a sound trap. Sound traps can be a series resonant circuit to ground, a parallel resonant circuit in the video signal path, or simply part of the transformer that is picking off the sound for more processing.

The video detector output is usually around 2 volts peak to peak and usually subtracts from a white level bias setting. The stronger the signal, the more negative the swing, and the blacker the picture. Sync tips are blacker than black, helping to blank the display during retrace times.
Fig. 4 shows us the typical video circuitry of a transistor black and white television. Our basic circuit consists of a diode detector, a unity gain emitter follower, and a variable gain video output stage that is capacitively coupled to the picture tube. The cathode bias sets the brightness, while the video gain sets the contrast. Amplified signals for sync and sound are removed from the collector of the video driver by way of a 4.5 MHz resonant transformer for the sound and a low pass filter for the sync. A parallel resonant trap set to 4.5 MHz eliminates sound interference. Peaking coils on each stage extend the bandwidth by providing higher impedances and thus higher gain to high frequency video signals.

Note particularly the biasing of the video driver. A bias network provides us with a stable source of 3 volts. In the absence of input video, this 3 volts sets the white level of the display, as well as establishing proper bias for both stages. As an increasing signal appears at the last video output transformer, it is negatively rectified by the video detector, thus lowering the 3 volts proportionately. The stronger the signal, the blacker the picture. Sync will be the strongest of all, giving us a blacker than black bias level of only one volt.

The base of our video driver has the right sensitivity we need for video entry, accepting a maximum of a 2 volt peak to peak signal. It also has the right polarity, for a positive going bias level means a whiter picture. But, an unmodified set is already biased to the white level, and if we want to enter our own video, this bias must be shifted to the black level.

We have a choice in any TV of direct or ac coupling of our input video. Direct coupling is almost always better as it eliminates any

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**Fig. 4. Typical video circuitry of transistor B and W TV set.**
shading effects or any change of background level as additional characters are added to the screen. Fig. 5 shows how we can direct couple our video into a transistor black and white set. We provide a video input, usually a BNC or a phono jack, and route this to a PNP Darlington transistor or transistor pair, borrowing around 5 mils from the set's +12 volt supply. This output is routed to the existing video driver stage through a SPDT switch that either picks the video input or the existing video detector and bias network.

The two base-emitter diode drops in our Darlington transistor add up to a 1.2 volt positive going offset; so, in the absence of a video input or at the base of a sync tip, the video driver is biased to a blacker than black sync level of 1.2 volts. With a white video input of 2 volts, the video driver gets biased to its usual 3.2 volts of white level. Thus, our input transistor provides just the amount of offset we need to match the white and black bias levels of our video driver. Note that the old bias network is on the other side of the switch and does nothing in the video position.

Two other ways to offset our video input are to use two ordinary transistors connected in the Darlington configuration, or to use one transistor and a series diode to pick up the same amount of offset, as shown in Fig. 5. If more or less offset is needed, diodes or transistors can be stacked up further to pick up the right amount of offset.

The important thing is that the video driver ends up with the same level for white bias and for black bias in either position of the switch.

Ac or capacitively coupled video inputs should be avoided. Fig. 6 shows a typical circuit. The TV's existing bias network is lowered in voltage by adding a new parallel resistor to ground to give us a voltage that is 0.6 volts more positive than the blacker than black sync tip voltage. For instance, with a 3 volt white level, and 2 volt peak to peak video, the sync tip voltage would be 1 volt; the optimum bias is then 1.6 volts. Input video is capacitively coupled by a fairly large electrolytic capacitor in parallel with a good high frequency capacitor. This provides for a minimum of screen shading and still couples high frequency signals properly. A clamping diode constantly clamps the sync tips to their bias value, with the 0.6 volt drop of this diode being taken out by the extra 0.6 volts provided for in the bias network. This clamping diode automatically holds the sync tips to their proper value, regardless of the number of white dots in the picture. Additional bypassing of the bias network by a large electrolytic may be needed for proper operation of the clamping diode, as shown in Fig. 6. Note that our bias network is used in both switch positions — its level is shifted as needed for the direct video input.

Tube type sets present about the same interface problems as the solid state versions do. Fig. 7 shows a typical direct coupled tube interface. In the unmodified
Fig. 7. Direct coupled video added to tube type B and W television.

FROM LAST VIDEO I-F VIDEO DETECTOR RF VIDEO VIDEO AMP

100µF

CONTRAST

130V

(2V-VIDEO)

(0V-RF)

NEW CATHODE SELF-BIAS

SHIFTS TO SYNC LEVEL IN VIDEO POSITION

*New components.

circuit, the white level is zero volts and the sync tip black level is minus two volts. If we can find a negative supply (scarce in tube type circuits), we could offset our video in the negative direction by two volts to meet these bias levels.

Instead of this, it is usually possible to self bias the video amplifier to a cathode voltage of +2 volts. This is done by breaking the cathode to ground connection and adding a small resistor (50 to 100 Ohms) between cathode and ground to get a cathode voltage of +2 volts. Once this value is found, a heavy electrolytic bypass of 100 microfarads or more is placed in parallel with the resistor. Switching then grounds the cathode in the normal rf mode and makes it +2 volts in the video entry mode.

In the direct video mode, a sync tip grounded input presents zero volts to the grid, which is self biased minus two volts with respect to the cathode. A white level presents +2 volts to the grid, which equals zero volts grid to cathode.

Should there already be a self bias network on the cathode, it is increased in value as needed to get the black rather than white level bias in the direct video mode.

Hot Chassis Problems

There is usually no shock hazard when we use clip-on rf entry or when we use a direct video jack on a transformer-powered TV. A very severe shock hazard can exist if we use direct video entry with a TV set having one side of the power line connected to the chassis. Depending on which way the line cord is plugged in, there is a 50-50 chance of the hot side of the power line being connected directly to the chassis.

Hot chassis sets, particularly older, power hungry tube versions, should be avoided entirely for direct video entry. If one absolutely must be used, some of the suggestions of Fig. 8 may ease the hazard. These include using an isolation transformer, husky back-to-back filament transformers, three wire power systems, optical coupling of the video input,
and total package isolation. Far and away the best route is simply never to attempt direct video entry onto a hot chassis TV.

Making the Conversion

Fig. 9 sums up how we modify a TV for direct video entry. Always have a complete schematic on hand, and use a transformer style TV set if at all possible. Late models, small screen, medium to high quality solid state sets are often the best display choice. Avoid using junk sets, particularly very old ones. Direct coupling of video is far preferable to ac capacitor coupling. Either method has to maintain the black and white bias levels on the first video amplifier stage. A shift of the first stage quiescent bias from normally white to normally black is also a must. Use short, shielded, leads between the video input jack and the rest of the circuit. If a changeover switch is used, keep it as close to the rest of the video circuitry as you possibly can.

Extending Video and Display Bandwidth

By using the direct video input route, we eliminate any bandwidth and response restrictions of an rf modulator, the tuner, video i-f strip, and the video detector filter. Direct video entry should bring us to a 3 MHz bandwidth for a color set and perhaps 3.5 MHz for a black and white model, unless we are using an extremely bad set. The resultant 6 to 7 million dot per second rate is adequate for short character lines of 32, 40, and possibly 48 characters per line. But the characters will smear and be illegible if we try to use longer line lengths and premium (lots of dots) character generators on an ordinary TV. Is there anything we can do to the set to extend the video bandwidth and display response for these longer line lengths?

In the case of a color TV, the answer is probably no. The video response of a color set is limited by an essential delay line and an essential 3.58 MHz trap. Even if we were willing to totally separate the chrominance and luminance channels, we'd still be faced with an absolute limit set by the number of holes per horizontal line in the shadow mask of the tube. This explains why video color displays are so expensive and so rare. Later on, we'll look at what's involved in adding color to the shorter line lengths.

With a black and white TV, there is often quite a bit

Fig. 8. Getting Around a Hot Chassis Problem.

Hot chassis problems can be avoided entirely by using only transformer-powered TV circuits or by using clip-on rf entry. If a hot chassis set must be used, here are some possible ways around the problem:

1. Add an isolation transformer.

A 110 volt to 110 volt isolation transformer whose wattage exceeds that of the set may be used. These are usually expensive, but a workable substitute can be made by placing two large surplus filament transformers back to back. For instance, a pair of 24 volt, 4 Amp transformers can handle around 100 Watts of set.

2. Use a three wire system with a solid ground.

Three prong plug wiring, properly polarized, will force the hot chassis connection to the cold side of the power line. This protection is useful only when three wire plugs are used in properly wired outlets. A severe shock hazard is reintroduced if a user elects to use an adaptor or plugs the system into an unknown or improperly wired outlet. The three wire system should NOT be used if anyone but yourself is ever to use the system.

3. Optically couple the input video.

Light emitting diode-photo-cell pairs are low in cost and can be used to optically couple direct video, completely isolating the video input from the hot chassis. Most of these optoelectronic couplers do not have enough bandwidth for direct video use; the Litronix IL-100 is one exception. Probably the simplest route is to use two separate opto-isolators, one for video and one for sync, and then recombine the signals inside the TV on the hot side of the circuit.

4. Use a totally packaged and sealed system.

If you are only interested in displaying messages and have no other input/output devices, you can run the entire circuit hot chassis, provided everything is sealed inside one case and has no chassis-to-people access. Interface to teletypes, cassettes, etc., cannot be done without additional isolation, and servicing the circuit presents the same shock hazards that servicing a hot chassis TV does.
we can do to present long lines of characters, depending on what set you start out with and how much you are willing to modify the set. The best test signal you can use for bandwidth extension is the dot matrix data you actually want to display, for the frequency response, time delay, ringing, and overshoot all get into the act. What we want to end up with is a combination that gives us reasonably legible characters.

A good oscilloscope (15 MHz or better bandwidth) is very useful during bandwidth extension to show where the signal loses its response in the circuit. At any time during the modification process, there is usually one response bottleneck. This, of course, is what should be attacked first. Obviously the better a TV you start with, the easier will be the task. Tube type gutless wonders, particularly older ones, will be much more difficult to work with than with a modern, small screen, quality solid state portable.

Several of the things we can do are watching the control settings, getting rid of the sound trap, minimizing circuit strays, optimizing spot size, controlling peaking, and shifting to higher current operation. Let's take a look at these in turn.

Control Settings

Always run a data display at the lowest possible contrast and using only as much brightness as you really need. In many circuits, low contrast means a lower video amplifier gain, and thus less of a gain-bandwidth restriction.

Eliminate the Sound Trap

The sound trap adds a notch at 4.5 MHz to the video response. If it is eliminated or switched out of the circuit, a wider video bandwidth automatically

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**Fig. 9. How to Add a Direct Video Input to a TV Set.**

1. Get an accurate and complete schematic of the set — either from the manufacturer’s service data or a Photofact set. Do not try adding an input without this schematic!

2. Check the power supply to see if a power transformer is used. If it is, there will be no shock hazard, and the set is probably a good choice for direct video use. If the set has one side of the power line connected to the chassis, a severe shock hazard exists, and one of the techniques of Fig. 8 should be used. Avoid the use of hot chassis sets.

3. Find the input to the first video amplifier stage. Find out what the white level and sync level bias voltages are. The marked or quiescent voltage is usually the white level; sync is usually 2 volts less. A transistor TV will typically have a +3 volt white level and a +1 volt sync level. A tube type TV will typically have a zero volt white level and a -2 volt sync level.

4. Add a changeover switch using minimum possible lead lengths. Add an input connector, either a phono jack or the premium BNC type connector. Use shielded lead for interconnections exceeding three inches in length.

5. Select a circuit that couples the video and biases the first video amplifier stage so that the white and sync levels are preserved. For transistor sets, the direct coupled circuits of Fig. 5 may be used. For tube sets, the circuit of Fig. 7 is recommended. Avoid the use of ac coupled video inputs as they may introduce shading problems and changes of background as the screen is filled.

6. Check the operation. If problems with contrast or sync tearing crop up, recheck and adjust the white and sync input levels to match what the set uses during normal rf operation. Note that the first video stage must be biased to the white level during rf operation and to the sync level for direct video use. The white level is normally two volts more positive than the sync level.
Fig. 10. Removing the sound trap can extend video bandwidth.

(a) Response

(b) Parallel resonant trap — short or bypass.

(c) Series resonant trap — open or remove.

(d) Combined trap and pickoff — open or remove (series resonant); short or bypass (parallel resonant).

results. Fig. 10 shows us the response changes and the several positions for this trap. Generally, series resonant traps are opened and parallel resonant traps are shorted or bypassed through suitable switching or outright elimination. The trap has to go back into the circuit if the set is ever again used for ordinary program reception. Sometimes simply backing the slug on the trap all the way out will improve things enough to be useful.

Minimizing Strays

One of the limits of the video bandwidth is the stray capacitance both inside the video output stage and in the external circuitry. If the contrast control is directly in the signal path and if it has long leads going to it, it may be hurting the response. If you are using the TV set exclusively for data display, can you rearrange the control location and simplify and shorten the video output to picture tube interconnections?

Additional Peaking

Most TV sets have two peaking networks. The first of these is at the video detector output and compensates for the vestigial sideband transmission signal that makes sync and other low frequency signals double the amplitude of the higher frequency ones. The second of these goes to the collector or plate of the video output stage and raises the circuit impedance and thus the effective gain for very high frequencies. Sometimes you can alter this second network to favor dot presentations. Fig. 11 shows a typical peaking network and the effects of too little or too much peaking. Note that the stray capacitance also enters into the peaking, along with the video amplifier output capacitance and the picture tube's input capacitance. Generally, too little peaking will give you low contrast dots, while too much will give you sharp dots, but will run dots together and shift the more continuous portions of the characters objectionably. Peaking is changed by increasing or decreasing the series inductor from its design value.

Running Hot

Sometimes increasing the operating current of the video output stage can increase the system bandwidth — IF this stage is in fact the limiting response, IF the power supply can handle the extra current, IF the stage isn't already parked at its gain-bandwidth peak, and IF the extra heat can be gotten rid of without burning anything up. Usually, you can try adding a resistor three times the plate or collector load resistor in parallel, and see if it increases bandwidth by 1/3. Generally, the higher the current, the wider the bandwidth, but watch
carefully any dissipation limits. Be sure to provide extra ventilation and additional heatsinking, and check the power supply for unhappiness as well. For major changes in operating current, the emitter resistors and other biasing components should also be proportionately reduced in value.

Spot Size

Even with excellent video bandwidth, if you have an out-of-focus, blooming, or changing spot size, it can completely mask character sharpness. Spot size ends up the ultimate limit to resolution, regardless of video bandwidth.

Once again, brightness and contrast settings will have a profound effect, with too much of either blooming the spot. Most sets have a focus jumper in which ground or a positive voltage is selected. You can try intermediate values of voltage for maximum sharpness. Extra power supply filtering can sometimes minimize hum and noise modulation of the spot.

Anything that externally raises display contrast will let you run with a smaller beam current and a sharper spot. Using circularly polarized filters, graticule masks, or simple colored filters can minimize display washout from ambient lighting. Fig. 12 lists several sources of material for contrast improvement. Much of this is rather expensive, with pricing from $10 to $25 per square foot being typical. Simply adding a hood and positioning the display away from room lighting will also help and is obviously much cheaper.

Direct Rf Entry

If we want the convenience of a "free" display, the freedom from hot chassis problems, and "use it anywhere" ability, direct rf entry is the obvious choice. Its two big limitations are the need for FCC type approval, and a limited video bandwidth that in turn limits the number of characters per line and the number of dots per character.

An rf interface standard is shown in Fig. 13. It consists of an amplitude modulated carrier of one of the standard television channel video frequencies of Fig. 14. Channel 2 is most often used with a 5.250 MHz carrier frequency, except in areas where a local commercial Channel 2 broadcast is intolerably strong. Circuit cost, filtering problems, and stability problems tend to increase with increasing channel number.

The sync tips are the strongest part of the signal, representing 100% modulation, often something around 4 millivolts rms across a 300 Ohm line. The black level is 75% of the sync level, or about 3 millivolts for 4 millivolt sync tips. White level is less than 10% of maximum. Note that the signal is weakest when white and strongest when sync. This is the exact opposite of the video interface of Fig. 1.

Rf modulators suitable for clip-on rf entry TV typewriter use are called Class 1 TV Devices by the FCC. A Class 1 TV device is supposed to meet the rules and regulations summarized in Fig. 15.

Fig. 13. Standard rf interface levels. Impedance = 300Ω. Carrier frequency per Fig. 14.

Fig. 14. Television Picture Carrier Frequencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Channel</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>55.25 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>61.25 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>67.25 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>77.25 MHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>83.25 MHz</td>
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Fig. 15. FCC Regulations on Class 1 TV Devices. More complete information appears in subpart H of Part 15 and subpart F of Part 2 of the Federal Communications Commission Rules and Regulations. It is available at many large technical libraries.

A Class 1 TV device generates a video modulated rf carrier of a standard television channel frequency. It is directly connected to the antenna terminals of the TV set.

The maximum rms rf voltage must be less than 6 millivolts using a 300 Ohm output line. The maximum rf voltage on any frequency more than 3 MHz away from the operating channel must be more than 30 dB below the peak in-channel output voltage.

An antenna disconnect switch of at least 60 dB attenuation must be provided.

No user adjustments are permitted that would exceed any of the above specifications.

Residual rf radiation from case, leads and cabinet must be less than 15 microvolts per meter.

A Class 1 TV device must not interfere with TV reception.

Type approval of the circuit is required. A filing fee of $50 and an acceptance fee of $250 is involved.
with a stable oscillator tuned to one of the Fig. 14 frequencies. A crystal oscillator is a good choice, and low cost modules are widely available. The output of this oscillator is then amplitude modulated. This can be done by changing the bias current through a silicon small signal diode. One milliamperes of bias current makes the diode show an ac and informal impedance of 26 Ohms. Half a mil will look like 52 Ohms, and so on. The diode acts as a variable resistance attenuator in the rf circuit, whose bias is set and changed by the video circuit.

Since diode modulators are non-linear, we can't simply apply a standard video signal to them and get a standard rf signal out. A differential amplifier circuit called a video slicer may be used to compensate for this non-linearity. The video slicer provides three distinct currents to the diode modulator. One of these is almost zero for the white level, while the other two provide the black and sync levels. A contrast control that sets the slicing level lets you adjust the sync tip height with respect to the black level. The video slicer also minimizes rf getting back into the video. An attenuator to reduce the size of the modulated signal usually follows the diode modulator.

An upper side band filter removes most of the lower sideband from the AM modulated output, giving us a vestigial sideband signal that stays inside the channel band limits. This same filter eliminates second harmonic effects and other spurious interference. The video's output is usually routed to an antenna disconnect switch and the TV's antenna terminals. A special switch is needed to provide enough isolation.

Some of the actual circuitry involved is shown in Fig. 17. The video slicer consists of a pair of high gain, small signal NPN transistors, while the oscillator is a commercially available module.

RF entry systems always must be direct coupled to the antenna terminals of the set and should never provide any more rf than is needed for a minimum snow-free picture. They should be permanently tuned to a single TV channel. Under no circumstances should an antenna or cable service hook up remain connected to the set during TVT use, nor should radiation rather than a direct rf cable connection ever be used.

Color Techniques

We can add a full color capability to a TV typewriter system fairly easily and cheaply — provided its usual black and white video dot rate is low enough in frequency to be attractively displayed on an ordinary color TV. Color may be used to emphasize portions of a message, to attract attention, as part of an electronic game, or as obvious added value to a graphics display. Color techniques work best on TV typewriter systems having a horizontal frequency very near 15,735 Hertz.

All we basically have to do is generate a subcarrier sine wave to add to the video output. The phase of this subcarrier (or its time delay) is shifted with respect to what the phase was immediately after each horizontal sync pulse to generate the various colors.

Fig. 18 shows us the differences between normal color and black and white operation. Black and white baseband video is some 4 MHz wide and has a narrow 4.5 MHz sound subcarrier. The video is amplitude modulated, while the sound is narrow band frequency.
modulated. This translates up to a 6 MHz rf channel with a vestigial lower sideband as shown in Fig. 18(b).

To generate color, we add a new pilot or subcarrier at a magic frequency of 3.579545 MHz — see Fig. 18(c). What was the video is now called the luminance, and is the same as the brightness in a black and white system. The new subcarrier and its modulation is called the chrominance signal and determines what color gets displayed and how saturated the color is to be.

Since the black and white information is a sampled data system that is scanned at the vertical and horizontal rates, there are lots of discrete holes in the video spectrum that aren’t used. The color subcarrier is designed to stuff itself into these holes (exactly in a NTSC color system, and pretty much in a TVT display). Both chrominance and luminance signals use the same spectral space, with the one being where the other one isn’t, overlapping comb style.

The phase or relative delay of the chrominance signal with respect to a reference determines the instantaneous color, while the amplitude of this signal with respect to the luminance sets the saturation of the color. Low amplitudes generate white or pastel shades, while high amplitudes of the chrominance signal produce saturated and deep colors.

At least eight cycles of a reference or burst color phase are transmitted immediately following each horizontal sync pulse as a timing reference, as shown in Fig. 19. The burst is around 25% of maximum amplitude, or about the peak to peak height of a sync pulse. The TV set has been trained at the factory to sort all this out. After video detection, the set splits out the chrominance channel with a bandpass amplifier and then synchronously demodulates it with respect to an internal 3.58 MHz reference. The phase of this demodulation sets the color and the amplitude sets the saturation by setting the ratios of electron beam currents on the picture tube's red, blue and green guns.

Meanwhile, the luminance channel gets amplified as brightness style video. It is delayed with a delay line to make up for the time delay involved in the narrower band color processing channel. It is then filtered with two traps — the 4.5 MHz sound trap, and a new trap to get rid of any remaining 3.58 MHz color subcarrier that's left. The luminance output sets the overall brightness by modulating the cathodes of all three color guns simultaneously.

Just after each horizontal sync pulse, the set looks for the reference burst and uses this reference in a phase...
detector circuit to keep its own 3.58 MHz reference locked to the version being transmitted.

Fig. 20 shows us the phase angles related to each color with respect to the burst phase. It also shows us the equivalent amount of delay we need for a given phase angle. Since we usually want only a few discrete colors, it's far easier to digitally generate colors simply by delaying the reference through gates or buffers, rather than using complex and expensive analog phase shift methods.

Strictly speaking, we should control both the chrominance phase and amplitude to be able to do both pastel and strongly saturated colors. But simply keeping the subcarrier amplitude at the value we used for the burst - around 25% of video amplitude - is far simpler and will usually get us useful results.

A circuit to add color to a TV typewriter is shown in Fig. 21. A 3.579545 MHz crystal oscillator drives a string of CMOS buffers that make up a digital delay line. The output delays caused by the propagation delay times in each buffer can be used as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color</th>
<th>Approximate Phase</th>
<th>Approximate Delay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burst</td>
<td>0°</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>15°</td>
<td>12 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>75°</td>
<td>58 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magenta</td>
<td>135°</td>
<td>105 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>195°</td>
<td>151 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyan</td>
<td>255°</td>
<td>198 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green</td>
<td>315°</td>
<td>244 nanoseconds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reference phase and the delayed color outputs go to a one-of-eight data selector. The data selector picks either the reference or a selected color in response to a code presented digitally to the three select lines. The logic that is driving this selector must return to the reference phase position (000) immediately before, during and for a minimum of a few microseconds after each horizontal sync pulse. This gives the set a chance to lock and hold onto the reference color burst.

The chrominance output from the data selector should be disabled for the duration of the sync pulses and any time a white screen display is wanted. The output chrominance signal is RC filtered to make it somewhat sinusoidal. It's then cut down in amplitude to around one-quarter the maximum video white level and is capacitively coupled to the 100 Ohm video output of Fig. 2 or otherwise summed into the video or rf modulator circuitry. For truly dramatic color effects, the amplitude and delay of the chrominance signal can be changed in a more complex version of the same circuit.

More information useful in solving television interface appears in the Television Engineering Handbook, by Donald Fink, and in various issues of the IEEE Transactions on Consumer Electronics.

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Fig. 21. Color subcarrier generator. Hex buffer used as delay line. Use supply voltage variation on 4050 to trim colors.