

ADC Source Impedance

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TMS470 Microcontroller

ABSTRACT

Unbuffered multiplexed ratiometric analog-to-digital converters have strict requirements on driving source impedance, which are not always obvious. This application report addresses the trade-offs between source impedance and sample rate. It includes examples using the TMS470R1x family of processors in the TSC5000 process node (F10/C10). With adjustments to maximum clock rates, this application note is also applicable to the GS30 process node (F05/C05).

Contents

1	Introduction	2
2	Terms in This Document	2
3	System Model	3
4	ADC Input Model	4
5	External Components	4
6	Symptoms of High Source Impedance	5
7	The Effect of Cext	6
8	Calculating Cext	8
9	Calculating Rsource	10
10	Consequences of High Source Impedance	12
11	Solutions	12
12	Conclusions	13
13	References	13

List of Figures

Figure 1.	ADC System	3
Figure 2.	Input Path of TMS470R1x Multiplexed, Unbuffered ADC	4
Figure 3.	Typical Circuit for External Components With ADC	5
Figure 4.	Adequate Impedance	5
Figure 5.	High Impedance	5
Figure 6.	Zoom In on Figure	6
Figure 7.	Settling time of C _{samp} vs. C _{ext} , With R _{source} = 1160 W	7
Figure 8.	Time-Domain Plot of Four SPICE Runs	8

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Figure 9. Rsource	10
Figure 10. Rsource vs. Cexternal	11

1 Introduction

Unbuffered multiplexed ratiometric ADCs are commonly used in microprocessors because of their simplicity of design and inherent absence of circuits that need trimming in production. Both multiplexed and unmultiplexed versions are commonly found in discrete form, and are probably the most common ADCs in existence. They have no internal buffer amplifiers to introduce input offset and gain errors, and no internal voltage references which might induce scaling errors.

Designers use these ADCs for a variety of low frequency applications. Over the last two decades, they have been included in virtually every microprocessor family from every company and have increased in conversion speed right along with the microprocessors that host them.

A disadvantage is that the sample capacitor within the ADC is directly charged by the external signal, and ever-increasing speed has made this a growing issue. While it may seem like a trivial problem to charge a 20 pF sample capacitor, at high conversion speeds it can be difficult to charge it to within 1/2 the least significant bit (LSB) in the allotted time.

Also, the charge left on the sample capacitor by the previous conversion of a channel can affect the accuracy of the channel currently being converted if inadequate settling time is allowed for a given source impedance. This phenomenon is referred to as channel-to-channel crosstalk.

2 Terms in This Document

ADCLK	The internal clock of the TMS470R1x ADC. The period of this clock is an integer multiple of the peripheral clock period, ICLK. This value is programmable from the ADC registers.
ICLK	The TMS470R1x peripheral clock which drives the ADC. The ICLK period is limited to a minimum of 40nS (maximum of 25 MHz).
Sample Time	The time during which the ADC's sample gate is open for charging the internal sample capacitor, Csamp. In the TMS470R1x ADC, this time is software selectable from the ADC registers as either 2, 8, 32, or 128 ADCLK periods.
Conversion Time	The time required for a single channel to be converted. It is the sum of the sample time plus ten ADCLK cycles; therefore, conversion time is either 12, 18, 42, or 138 ADCLK cycles long, depending on the value set for sample time for the TMS470R1x.
Group Conversion	In the TMS470R1x, a user-programmed autonomous sequential conversion of all selected channels in a group. Group conversions are set up and initiated by software. They may be programmed to run only once or continuously.
Group Cycle Time	Time measured from the start-of-conversion of channel [N] to the start of the next conversion of the same channel [N].
Channel Sample Frequency	This is the frequency at which a single channel is sampled and is equivalent to the reciprocal of the group cycle time.

3 System Model

To start with, we should examine the overall environment in which the ADC is used. A model of the ADC system should include everything from the sensor or signal source to the ADC input itself. Figure 1 partitions the system into four distinct blocks which we can discuss individually.

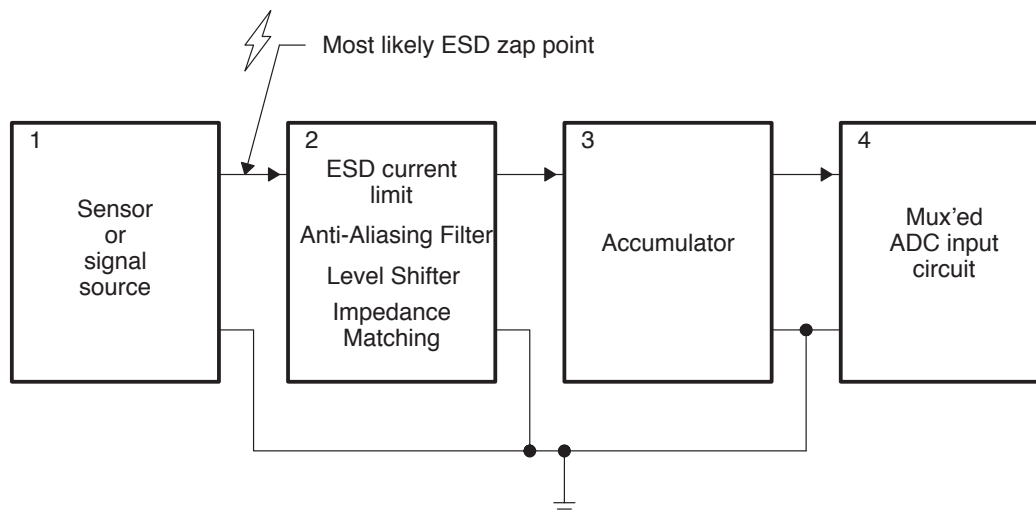


Figure 1. ADC System

Block 1: The sensor can be virtually anything from a sophisticated mass air flow sensor to a brick striking a piezoelectric crystal. As such, the source voltage can range from microvolts (as from a thermocouple) to several thousand volts (the brick/crystal). The source impedance and frequency can range similarly. With this in mind, we cannot say much about the source except that it clearly sets the requirements for the input of Block 2.

Block 2: This might best be described as a matching circuit. It has many simultaneous requirements to fulfill as noted in the figure.

It must maintain at least enough series resistance between the electrostatic discharge (ESD) entry point (if applicable) and the ADC input pin to protect the input from being damaged. For example, to pass the 4KV Contact Model ESD test, about 3000 Ω minimum resistance is required between the zap entry point and the ADC pin.

Any time something is digitized, it is essential that no information above the Nyquist frequency greater than a no effect level (-66dB for 10 bits) be introduced into the sampled signal. Once that noise is digitized, it is indistinguishable from the desired signal, so it must be small. Therefore, the cutoff frequency of a low-pass filter (anti-aliasing filter) must be strategically positioned between the desired maximum signal frequency, f , and the ADC's sampling frequency, f_s . This filter is optional in some cases since some things do not change very fast, for example, the output of a thermistor.

A level shifter is often required to match the peak signal level of the input signal to the nominal 3.3 V swing of the ADC's input. This circuit may be as simple as two

resistors acting as a voltage divider, an active circuit like a voltage amplifier, or a sophisticated automatic gain control (AGC) circuit such as that used with a variable reluctance speed sensor.

Impedance matching is often necessary to match a higher impedance sensor or level shifter to the requirements of Block 3 or 4. The impedance requirement of Block 3 or 4 for a given channel is dictated by the sampling frequency, f_s , of that channel. While the previous three items in Block 2 are generally well understood by designers; the true requirements for source impedance to the ADC inputs are sometimes misunderstood. Understanding the ADC's source impedance requirements is the focus of this application note.

- Block 3: This block is optional depending on required speed, cost, and other factors. If it exists, it is simply a capacitor. We refer to it here as an *accumulator* because it accumulates charge in continuous time, which can then be charge-shared with the ADC's sample capacitor during the discrete-time sampling of that channel.
- Block 4: This is the ADC. Since the ADC is a single converter time-multiplexed with up to sixteen input channels, it demands more attention at design time than if it was a converter-per-channel.

4 ADC Input Model

Starting with Block 4, Figure 2 shows a simplified model of the input path of the TMS470R1x's multiplexed, unbuffered ADC.

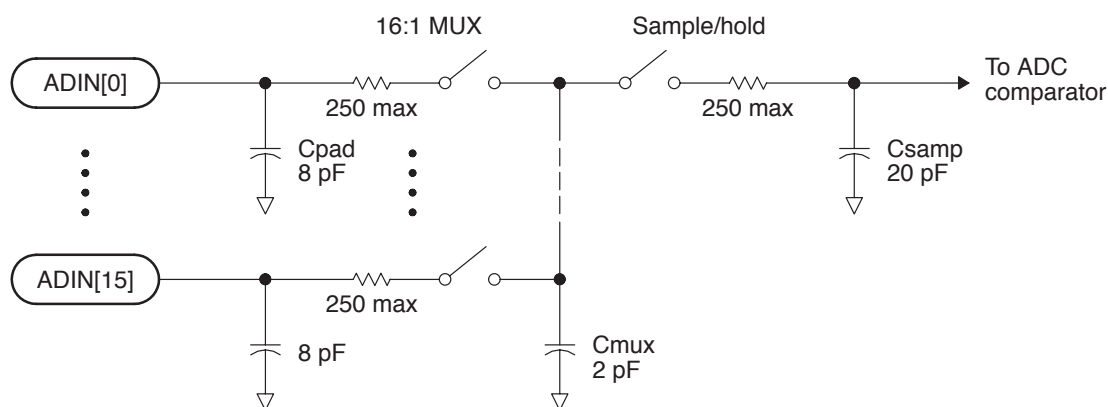


Figure 2. Input Path of TMS470R1x Multiplexed, Unbuffered ADC

There are two CMOS switches in the path between the ADINx pin and the sample capacitor, C_{samp} . The first is a 16-to-1 multiplexer that selects the channel to be converted. The second is the sample-and-hold gate that is controlled by the ADC's successive approximation state machine.

5 External Components

As we discussed for Blocks 2 and 3, it is common practice to add external components to the ADINx pins that scale and filter the signal from the analog source. These components are determined by the requirements set by Blocks 1 and 4. A fairly typical circuit is shown in Figure 3.

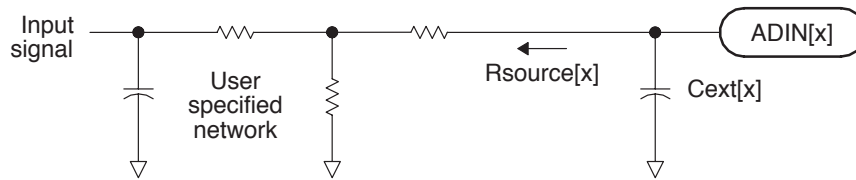


Figure 3. Typical Circuit for External Components With ADC

Generally, most designers place a large capacitor (Block 3) from the ADC pin to ground ($C_{ext}[x]$ in Figure 3). This capacitor is used to lower the source impedance of the channel as seen by the ADC so that the internal 20 pF sample capacitor can be charged quickly. As noted, this is a charge-sharing process between C_{ext} and C_{samp} (refer to Figure 2 and Figure 3), whose RC time constant is primarily determined by the maximum ADC input resistance (500 Ω) and maximum sample capacitance (20 pF) of the ADC.

What is obvious about the above figure is that as R_{source} is increased, the cutoff frequency created by R_{source} and C_{ext} will be lowered. What may not be obvious is that the values of R_{source} and C_{ext} are dictated by an individual channel's sample frequency, *not by the desired cutoff frequency* for that channel. This is simply a side effect of multiplexing the ADC inputs.

6 Symptoms of High Source Impedance

In Figure 4, Figure 5, and Figure 6, we fake oscilloscope pictures to demonstrate the effect of high source impedance. For example, let us say there are two channels that you are converting in sequence with a 10 μ S group cycle time. The first channel has a 100 Hz square wave on it, and the second channel is a DC signal.

For the first oscillograph, shown in Figure 4, let us assume the impedance is adequate for the chosen sample frequency. In other words, this is what you expect to see on the two ADIN pins when everything goes right:

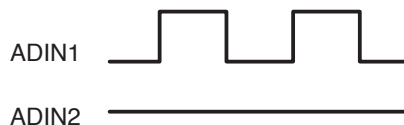


Figure 4. Adequate Impedance

Now let us increase the impedance by 2 or 3 orders of magnitude. After all, these two signals are very low frequencies, 100 Hz and DC. Why *should* they have a low impedance? Figure 5 shows the results.

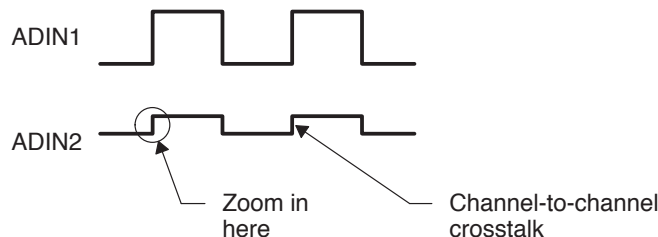


Figure 5. High Impedance

The first waveform has lost some bandwidth, so the corners are not quite so square. Perhaps this is not an issue if we are only interested in its min and max values.

But the second waveform has picked up crosstalk from the previous channel. If it was intended to be a DC level, this signal has been rendered almost useless. What is the source of the problem? Earlier we mentioned that the RC time constant set by $R_{source} \cdot C_{ext}$ is a function of channel sample frequency, not signal frequency. Here is how you can see this phenomenon in action. Figure 6 is a zoom-in on Figure 5 on the lower trace's rising edge:

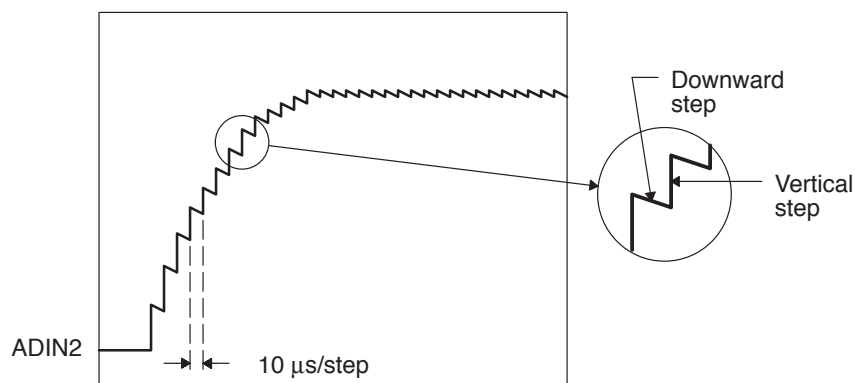


Figure 6. Zoom In on Figure 5

You should see a saw-tooth pattern that makes up the transition edge. Actually in this example, the ratio of sample-frequency to signal-frequency is 1000:1 so probably there are a hundred or so steps rather than the dozen shown. As shown, the step spacing will be at the channel cycle rate. In this case, 10 μ S. The vertical steps are caused by residue from the conversion of ADIN1 left on C_{samp} thus creating a very small undesirable offset in $C_{ext}[2]$ during the conversion of ADIN2. The downward steps are caused by the source for ADIN2 attempting to recover the error via the source impedance. The difference between these two step amounts is the error that accumulates with time. As the error voltage across R_{source} accumulates with each cycle, the error step becomes smaller until the vertical upward step and the downward step cancel each other.

On the oscilloscope, when zoomed out enough to see the 100 Hz waveform, the 100 KHz sampling artifacts of the crosstalk are completely invisible, and the basic exponential shape (in Figure 6) looks like a clean squarewave. In the general case, crosstalk on the current channel looks like a vertically scaled image of the previous channel's waveform.

7 The Effect of C_{ext}

Now let us look at Block 3 and the rationale for selecting C_{ext} , or for that matter even having C_{ext} . To do this, we can use a SPICE model to try several values of C_{ext} and measure the time at which the voltage on C_{samp} settles to within 1/2 LSB of the exact value (assuming 10 bits). Plotting a curve of settling time versus C_{ext} may tell us something about the nature of C_{ext} .

Figure 7 is a graph plotted from multiple runs of SPICE assuming two channels of the TMS470R1x in continuous conversion mode. A mid-range value of 1160 Ω was chosen for R_{source} .

The leftmost point on the graph corresponds to a circuit with $C_{ext} = 0.1$ pF (effectively zero). As C_{ext} is increased, it can be seen that the required settling time gets worse until C_{ext} is around 20 nF. Then there is a sharp roll-off in settling time until C_{ext} is around 41 nF, at which point the slope of the graph settles to near zero. This graph clearly illustrates that there is an optimum value of C_{ext} . In the next section, *Calculating C_{ext}* , we will show how this optimum value is derived, but for now we need to understand the shape of the curve in Figure 7.

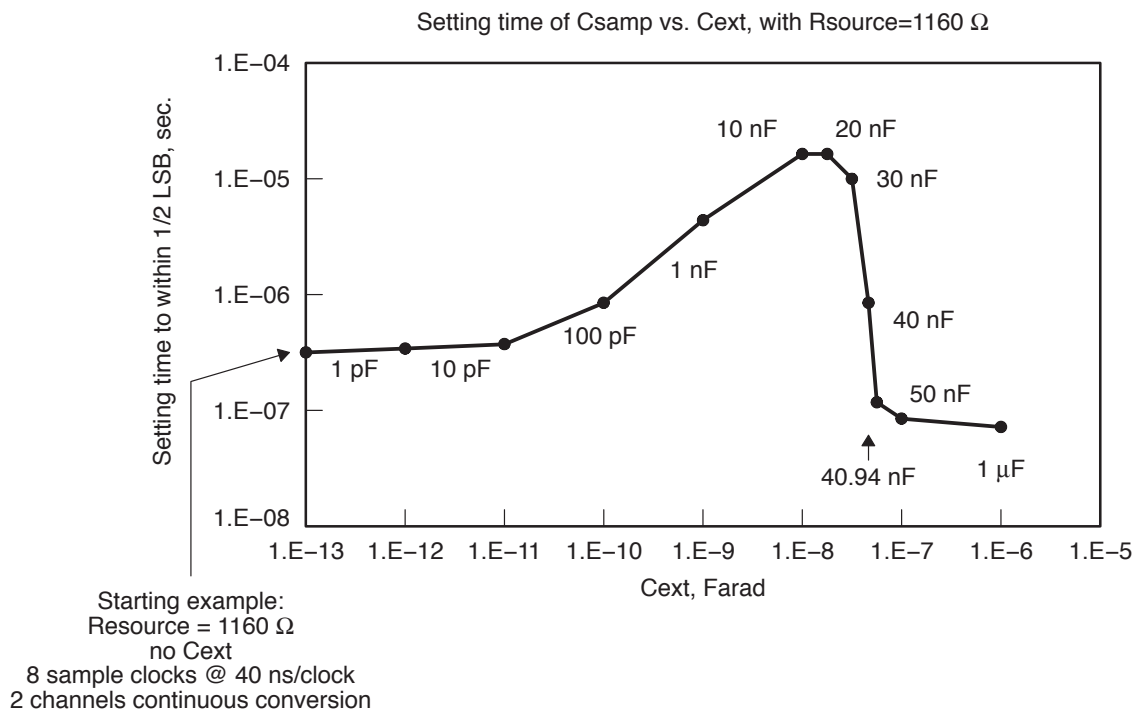


Figure 7. Settling time of C_{smp} vs. C_{ext} , With $R_{source} = 1160 \Omega$

Figure 8 is a hand-drawn time-domain plot of four SPICE runs like that made for the graph in Figure 7. These may help demonstrate the reason for the sudden drop in settling time as C_{ext} increases. However, the waveforms have such high scale differences that not even a log-log graph does an adequate job of placing them on the same plot, so there is some graphic license taken in Figure 8.

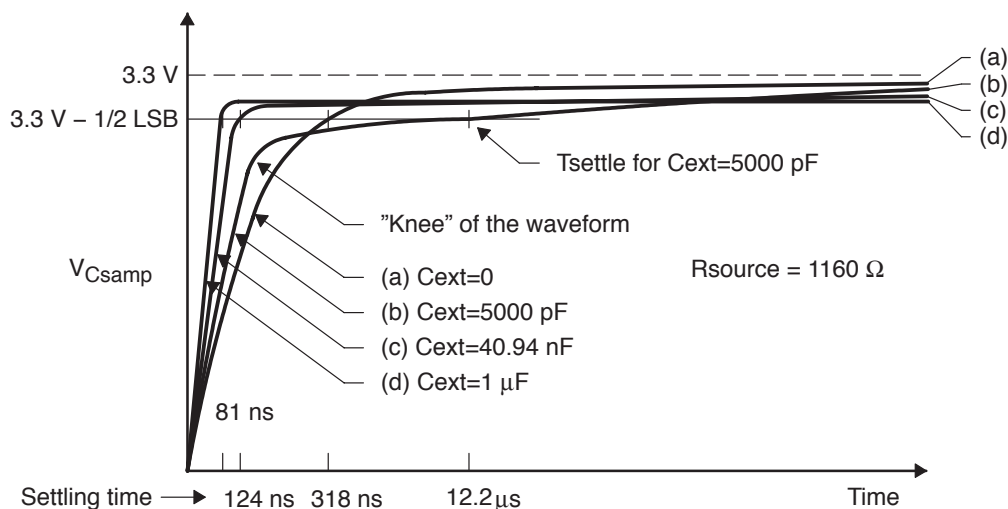


Figure 8. Time-Domain Plot of Four SPICE Runs

The object is to get C_{samp} charged to within 1/2 LSB of 3.3 V before declaring C_{samp} settled. Note that as C_{ext} becomes much larger than C_{samp} , the curve looks more like two straight lines joined by a knee. As C_{ext} gets larger, the knee gets sharper.

Below are the dependencies of each of the curves above:

- (a) With $C_{\text{ext}} = 0$, there is effectively no discernible knee. The curve is a simple RC made up of $(R_{\text{source}} + R_{\text{mux}}) \cdot C_{\text{samp}}$.
- (b, c, d) For the other three curves, charge sharing jumps the voltage up to the knee with an RC time constant dominated by $R_{\text{mux}} \cdot C_{\text{samp}}$. Then from the knee on, the RC time constant is dominated by $R_{\text{source}} \cdot C_{\text{ext}}$.
- (c, d) As the knee rises above the 3.3 V–1/2 LSB line with increasing C_{ext} , there is a rapid reduction in time required for C_{samp} to settle, because being above the 1/2 LSB line is the very definition of settled.

The vertical segment is dominated by charge sharing between C_{ext} and C_{samp} , while the horizontal segment is dominated by C_{ext} recovering via R_{source} . If, after charge-sharing, the knee falls short of the 3.3 V–1/2 LSB line, then it can take a very long time to finish charging C_{ext} and C_{samp} the rest of the way. However, if the knee occurs *at* or *above* the line, then charging C_{samp} is already done, and all that remains is to complete the recharging of C_{ext} . However, once C_{samp} is settled, the A-to-D conversion can proceed and we have a full group cycle time to complete recharging C_{ext} .

8 Calculating C_{ext}

Let us look at why C_{ext} should be greater than or equal to about 41 nF. To do this we need to examine the charge sharing between C_{ext} and C_{samp} . Note that we will use only C_{samp} (20 pF), not $C_{\text{pad}} + C_{\text{mux}} + C_{\text{samp}}$ (30 pF) for this calculation since C_{pad} (8 pF) capacitance is in parallel with C_{ext} , and C_{mux} (2 pF) is negligible (refer to the ADC model earlier).

Recalling that *conservation of charge* says something like “the total charge *before* sharing is equal to the total charge *after* sharing”:

Before charge sharing,

$$Q_{\text{samp}} = C_{\text{samp}} \times V_{\text{samp}} \text{ and } Q_{\text{ext}} = C_{\text{ext}} \times V_{\text{ext}} \quad (1)$$

Conservation of charge,

$$Q_{\text{final}} = Q_{\text{samp}} + Q_{\text{ext}} \quad (2)$$

Capacitors in parallel add,

$$C_{\text{total}} = C_{\text{samp}} + C_{\text{ext}} \quad (3)$$

After charge sharing,

$$Q_{\text{final}} = C_{\text{total}} \times V_{\text{final}} \quad (4)$$

Substituting [1], [2], and [3] into [4],

$$(Q_{\text{ext}} + Q_{\text{samp}}) = (C_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}}) \times V_{\text{final}} \quad (5)$$

Solving for V_{final} ,

$$V_{\text{final}} = \frac{Q_{\text{ext}} + Q_{\text{samp}}}{C_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}}}, \quad (6)$$

Substituting [1] into [6],

$$V_{\text{final}} = \frac{C_{\text{ext}} \cdot V_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}} \cdot V_{\text{samp}}}{C_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}}} \quad (7)$$

where V_{final} is the voltage remaining on C_{ext} after charge sharing with C_{samp} .

It can be seen that for a 10-bit ADC settling to within 1/2 LSB, V_{final} would have to be:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\text{final}} &= \left(V_{\text{in}} - \frac{V_{\text{in}}}{2^{(10+1)}} \right) \\ &= 0.9995117 \times V_{\text{in}} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

where V_{in} is the desired input signal value.

In a nominal 3.3 V system, this amounts to a worst-case value of 1.62 mV.

Assume that C_{samp} is discharged, C_{ext} holds the value V_{in} , and V_{final} must end up at $0.9995117 \times V_{\text{in}}$ (that is, to within 1/2 LSB of V_{in}):

From equations 7 and 8,

$$V_{\text{in}} \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{10+1}} \right) = \frac{(C_{\text{ext}} \cdot V_{\text{in}} + C_{\text{samp}} \cdot 0)}{(C_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}})} \quad (9)$$

$$(C_{\text{ext}} + C_{\text{samp}}) \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{2048} \right) = C_{\text{ext}} \quad (10)$$

Solving for Cext,

$$C_{ext} = 2047 \times C_{samp} \quad (11)$$

For TMS470R1x ADC,

$$C_{ext} = 2047 \times 20 \text{ pF} = 40.94 \text{ nF} \quad (12)$$

This is a minimum value of Cext. Larger values are all right, but have no effect on sample time and limited effect on group cycle time. This is discussed further later.

Having $C_{ext} < 2047 \times C_{samp}$ requires that C_{samp} be charged entirely during the *sample time* rather than during the *group cycle time*. So $C_{ext} < 2047 \times C_{samp}$ is essentially a different mode of operation from $C_{ext} > 2047 \times C_{samp}$.

From the standpoint of speed and R_{source} requirements, you are actually better off with no external cap if $C_{ext} < 2047 \times C_{samp}$ (assuming there is no anti-aliasing filter). This was shown dramatically in the graphs in Figure 4 through Figure 6.

9 Calculating R_{source}

The total resistance feeding the external capacitor, Cext, is called R_{source}. Namely, it is the Thevenin equivalent resistance of the driving source as viewed by Cext.

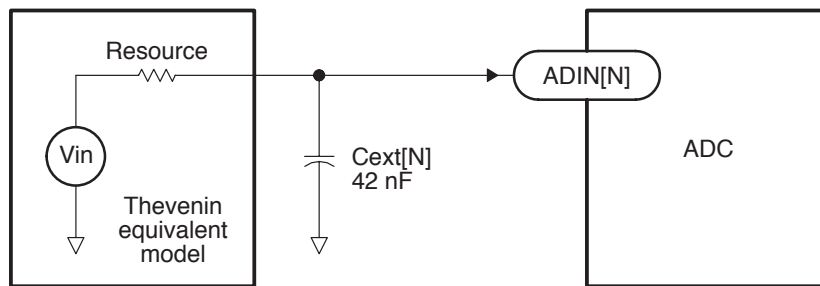


Figure 9. R_{source}

The time constant required for an RC circuit to settle to within 1/2 LSB with 10 bits of resolution is:

$$\gamma = \ln(2^{(10+1)}) = 7.62 \text{ time constants} \quad (13)$$

Given a group cycle time, T_{cyc}, the value of R_{source} required to replenish the charge depleted from Cext is given by the relationship:

$$R_{source} < \frac{T_{cyc}}{\gamma \times C_{ext}} \quad (14)$$

As an example, assume that you are running only two channels in continuous mode with a 25 MHz ICLK, the ADCLK divider is set to divide-by-one (ADCLK = 40 nS), and the number of sample clocks is set to two. This means we have a conversion time of 12 clock cycles per channel (12 = 2 + 10), which is 24 cycles for two channels (T_{cyc} or group cycle time); therefore, T_{cyc} = 960 nS.

If we have followed the rules and made C_{ext} at least 40.94 nF, then the source resistance from equation 14 is:

$$R_{source} < \frac{960 \text{ ns}}{7.62 \times 40.94 \text{ nF}} = 3.08 \Omega \quad (15)$$

Intuitively, this sounds very low and thus suspect; however, look at the voltage across the charging resistor, R_{source} . One side is at V_{in} while the other side must be maintained within $V_{in} \pm 1/2 \text{ LSB}$ to avoid error. So the maximum voltage drop across the resistor is limited to only $1/2 \text{ LSB}$. As noted above, $1/2 \text{ LSB}$ amounts to 1.62 mV. You cannot charge much, even through a 3Ω resistor, with a voltage difference of only 1.62 mV.

Earlier we mentioned that making $C_{ext} \gg 2047 \cdot C_{samp}$ has limited benefit. To bear this out, the graph in Figure 10 compares R_{source} versus C_{ext} . It shows C_{ext} increased from $2047 \cdot C_{samp}$ (the minimum) to about three orders of magnitude larger.

As C_{ext} increases exponentially, R_{source} improves asymptotically to a maximum of 7.62 times the resistance of when C_{ext} was a minimum ($C_{ext_min} = 2047 \cdot C_{samp}$). The number 7.62 should be familiar as we developed it in equation (13). This graph makes it clear that there is little reason to increase C_{ext} beyond $10 \cdot C_{ext_min}$.

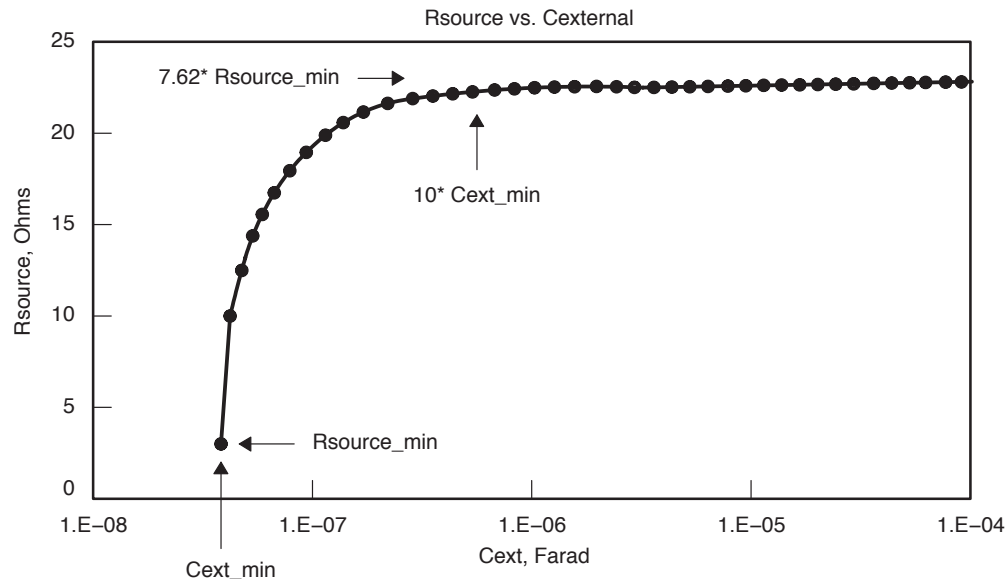


Figure 10. R_{source} vs. $C_{external}$

For reference, in Figure 10, each incremental point on the horizontal axis is a 15% increase in C_{ext} .

10 Consequences of High Source Impedance

If the impedance is too high, the most obvious consequence is response time. That is, the measured value will not be what you thought it should be.

The second, more insidious consequence of high R_{source} is channel-to-channel crosstalk. As stated before, this is charge transferred from one channel to the next, and accumulated over many conversion cycles. With crosstalk, each channel disturbs the *next* channel in the group to be converted. In a 16 channel group conversion, channel 0 disturbs channel 1, channel 1 disturbs channel 2, ..., channel 15 disturbs channel 0. This phenomenon is due to the residue of charge on C_{samp} after converting channel $[N]$ which contaminates channel $[N+1]$.

If the source impedance is low enough, this effect is less than 1/2 LSB, so who cares. But as R_{source} increases, more and more of the contaminated signal is allowed to accumulate on channel $[N+1]$'s external capacitor, $C_{ext[N+1]}$. With each conversion loop, $C_{ext[N+1]}$ is booted (up or down) by a few microvolts that accumulate. Eventually channel $[N+1]$ stabilizes with a new (but incorrect) value.

11 Solutions

Practically, there are only a few possible solutions to this problem:

1. Lower the source impedance, R_{source} . This can be done in a variety of ways depending on the type of signal source. One good way to lower the R_{source} is to use an op amp. This is an almost universal solution since you can match any impedance to any other impedance with proper op amp trickery. However, of course there is the cost, complexity, board area, etc. Sometimes a different interface circuit will help, or the sensor might be designed with a lower output impedance.
2. Accept a lower resolution result. For each bit of resolution lost, the required settling time is cut in half. For many applications, it is not necessary to know a level to within 3.2 mV (1 LSB @ 10 bits). Accepting a lower resolution result may require only software changes, or possibly no changes at all.
3. Break up the channels into two or more groups: channels that can tolerate a slower sample rate in one group, and channels that must be converted faster in another group. This is only software for the slower channels. The higher speed channels may require hardware to reduce impedance.
4. Slow down ADCLK to provide more settling time. This should be only a software change, but may be more extensive than reprogramming the ADCLK divisor value.

Some experts have suggested that the ADC should be modified to discharge C_{samp} to ground between conversions; however, this would only hide the problem. In this case, the crosstalk would always be from a known value (zero), but would result in a gain error that *varies with changes in source impedance*, which in turn may vary with sensor position, creating nonlinearities.

12 Conclusions

Unbuffered multiplexed ratiometric ADCs are excellent in terms of cost and produceability, but careful consideration must be used when designing with them to obtain the expected results.

Most notable are the following points:

- Source impedance issues can be easily diagnosed by examining the waveforms at the ADINx pins while the ADC is running in a continuous loop.
- In most cases, the best speed/impedance results will be obtained by including Cext if the proper value is selected.
- Given a specified number of bits of resolution, Cext can be calculated independent of frequency and source impedance.
- The product of Rsource*Cext is a function of sampling frequency, not input filter bandwidth.
- Several remedies exist for correcting designs that exhibit excessive source impedance.

13 References

1. *SE470R1B31B 16/32-Bit RISC Flash Microcontroller Datasheet*, (literature number SPN064).
2. *Advanced CMOS Logic Data Book*, (literature number SCAD001C).

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