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Contents

Introduction	4
Data Acquisition Using a touch-screen controller's auxiliary inputs. Most touch-screen controllers (TSCs) have one or more auxiliary analog inputs that can be used to monitor battery voltage or other voltage signals in addition to the TSC signals. This article describes typical applications for these auxiliary inputs. Also discussed are design considerations for ESD protection, circuit isolation after power down, and input-voltage ranges accepted by several devices.	5
Power Management Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V This article investigates the myth that a boost converter is always required to drive white-light-emitting diodes (WLEDs). Several typical WLED datasheets are examined, revealing that many applications require far less than the maximum-rated LED voltage. This article also shows that many applications can be driven by an LDO-based LED driver, such as the Texas Instruments TPS75105, for an extremely small and efficient solution.	9
Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications	12
Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology	16
Index of Articles	20
TI Worldwide Technical Support	24

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Introduction

Analog Applications Journal is a collection of analog application articles designed to give readers a basic understanding of TI products and to provide simple but practical examples for typical applications. Written not only for design engineers but also for engineering managers, technicians, system designers and marketing and sales personnel, the book emphasizes general application concepts over lengthy mathematical analyses.

These applications are not intended as "how-to" instructions for specific circuits but as examples of how devices could be used to solve specific design requirements. Readers will find tutorial information as well as practical engineering solutions on components from the following categories:

- Data Acquisition
- Power Management

Where applicable, readers will also find software routines and program structures. Finally, *Analog Applications Journal* includes helpful hints and rules of thumb to guide readers in preparing for their design.

Using a touch-screen controller's auxiliary inputs

By Wendy Fang, Precision Analog Applications, High-Performance Analog, **and Tony Chang,** Precision Analog Nyquist, High-Performance Analog

Introduction

Texas Instruments (TI) touch-screen controllers (TSCs), including the ADS7843/45/46, TSC2046, and TSC2003/4/5/6/7, have touch-screen input pins and one or more non-touch-screen or auxiliary analog input pins, such as the battery-voltage-monitoring pin ($\rm V_{BAT}$) of the TSC2046 or the AUX pin of the TSC2007. These auxiliary inputs make it possible to monitor the system's battery level or other voltage signals by sharing time with touch-screen inputs or using time periods when the touch screen is not touched.

The auxiliary analog inputs of different TI TSCs may have different input ranges and different levels of electrostaticdischarge (ESD) protection, so certain requirements or limitations should be considered when they are used. This article discusses the general and specific features and limitations of the TSC auxiliary (including battery-voltage) inputs.

Auxiliary analog inputs

Table 1 lists auxiliary analog input pins of TI's current TSCs. Inside a TSC, a MUX selects and connects one of the analog inputs to the ADC via commands sent through the SPI or I²C ports. Figure 1 shows an example.

Auxiliary input mode

TI's TSCs can be operated in either differential or singleended (SE) input mode, but auxiliary analog inputs can be measured and converted only in SE mode (see Figure 2).

Table 1. Auxiliary analog input(s) of TI TSC devices

	AUXILIARY ANALOG INPUTS					
TSC	NUMBER OF INPUTS	PIN NAMES	V _{REF}	MAIN FEATURES ¹		
ADS7843	2	IN3, IN4	External	4-wire, SPI, command-based		
ADS7845	1	AUXIN	External	5-wire, SPI, command-based		
ADS7846	2	V _{BAT} , AUX	Internal	4-wire, SPI, command-based		
TSC2046	2	V _{BAT} , AUX	Internal	4-wire, SPI, command-based		
TSC2003	4	V _{BAT1} , IN1, V _{BAT2} , IN2	Internal	4-wire, I ² C, command-based		
TSC2004	1	AUX	External	4-wire, I ² C, register-based		
TSC2005	1	AUX	External	4-wire, SPI, register-based		
TSC2006	1	AUX	External	4-wire, SPI, register-based		
TSC2007	1	AUX	Shared with V _{DD}	4-wire, I ² C, command-based		

Figure 1. Block diagram of TSC's internal input circuit

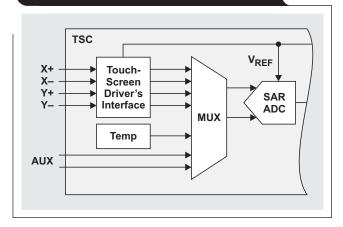
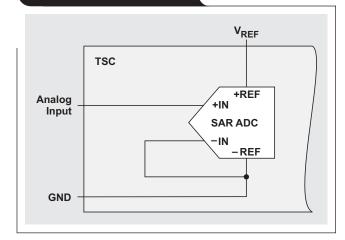


Figure 2. SE mode of a TSC



A TSC in differential mode does not need any reference, since the signal's driver is connected to +REF and –REF directly. However, the reference voltage, $V_{\rm REF}$, is a must for SE operation and thus is always needed when an auxiliary input, such as the AUX or $V_{\rm BAT}$, is measured.

The reference voltage can be provided to the TSC's ADC externally or internally for the ADS7846, TSC2046, and TSC2003. When an external reference is used, these devices can be powered up at the $\rm V_{CC}$ pin with a supply voltage between 2.2 and 5.25 V, and an external $\rm V_{REF}$ ranging from 1.0 V to $\rm V_{CC}$ can be provided. When the TSC's internal reference is used, the ADS7846, TSC2046, or TSC2003 should be powered up with a 2.7- to 5.25-V supply to guarantee that the internal $\rm V_{REF}$ will be around 2.5 V (2.45 V \sim 2.55 V). Other TI TSCs do not have the built-in voltage reference. In practical applications, one can simply route the same TSC power supply to the reference.

Auxiliary-input voltage range

The signal range for an auxiliary input should always be within 0 V to $V_{\rm REF}$. Signals beyond this range will saturate the ADC and can even increase the temperature, damaging the input circuitry.

The signal range for a battery-monitor input, say $V_{\rm BAT},$ can greatly exceed the $V_{\rm REF}$ level, since there is a voltage divider with each $V_{\rm BAT}$ pin (see Figure 3). The input divider circuit limits the range of the signal to the ADC to within 0 V to $V_{\rm REF}.$ Figure 3 shows that the signal to the ADC is only 25% of the signal at the $V_{\rm BAT}$ pin.

As shown in Table 1, the ADS7846, TSC2046, and TSC2003 have one or two battery-monitor input(s) designed to monitor/measure signals of up to 6.0 V while the device is powered with much lower voltage, down to 2.7 VDC.

TSC auxiliary-input features

The main features of TSC auxiliary (including battery) inputs can be summarized as follows:

- Auxiliary input signals can be measured only in SE mode.
- A reference voltage, V_{REF}, must be provided to the ADC when an auxiliary input is measured.
- The signal range of an auxiliary input must be within 0 V to $\mathrm{V}_{\!_{\rm REF}}.$
- The battery input, $V_{BAT},$ can range from 0 V to as high as $4\times V_{REF},$ up to 6.0 V.

Special applications

The following discussion focuses on the special applications of the auxiliary analog input pins of TSCs.

Unused input pins

If the TSC's analog input pins are not used, it is recommended that they be connected directly to an analog ground.

Using AUX input pin to monitor $\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{BAT}}$

As Table 1 shows, several TI TSCs are not furnished with a battery-voltage-monitoring pin (V_{BAT}) . A regular auxiliary input cannot be used directly for monitoring the battery,

Figure 3. Voltage divider reduces input to ADC

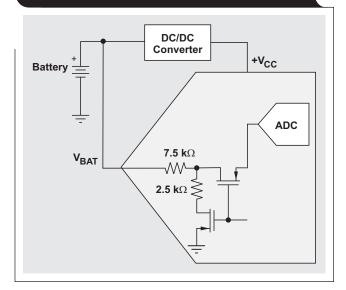
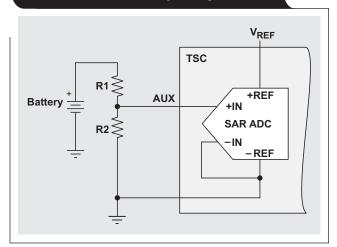


Figure 4. Using AUX with external voltage divider to monitor battery voltage



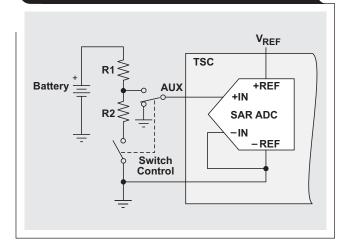
since the battery's voltage is normally higher than that of the TSC's power supply (and thus that of the $V_{\rm REF}$).

A TSC auxiliary pin such as AUX can still be used to measure/monitor the battery voltage if an external voltage divider is added between the battery and the AUX, as shown in Figure 4. R1 and R2 values should be selected with wide enough margins to ensure that the signal at the AUX pin is within 0 V to V_{REF} . Note that the voltage divider shown in Figure 4 consumes extra power since a current of $V_{CC}/(R1+R2)$ continuously drains the battery. Larger resistance can reduce power consumption.

The $V_{\rm BAT}$ input circuit of TI TSCs does not consume extra power from the battery since there is a switcher between the divider and the power (ground) (see Figure 3), and the internal divider is powered up only during the short period of battery measurement.

40 2007

Figure 5. Using TSC AUX pin to monitor battery with controllable switch



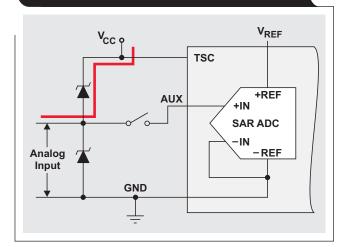
Similarly, while a TSC's AUX pin is used to monitor battery voltage, adding a controllable switcher like that shown in Figure 5 can reduce power consumption and ensure disconnection of the signal from the AUX pin while the TSC is powered down.

ESD protection and auxiliary-input requirements during power down

It is very common in practical applications to power down a TSC when it is not in use to reduce system power consumption. A question then arises: Can the analog signal stay connected to the TSC when the TSC's power source is removed?

Figure 6 shows one case in which the analog input should be removed before the TSC is powered down. If

Figure 6. External ESD-protection circuit may supply pseudo power to TSC



the analog input signal is active (AUX is nonzero) when the TSC is powered down ($V_{\rm CC}=0$), the analog signal may be routed to the $V_{\rm CC}$ through the ESD-protection diode (see the red line in Figure 6). This may partially or fully power up the TSC, depending upon the amplitude of the input signal, consuming more power and possibly causing the TSC to malfunction. Thus the circuit configuration in Figure 6 should be avoided.

An alternative is to simply use ESD-protection circuitry as shown in Figure 7. Under extremely large electrostatic voltages, the circuit in Figure 7a may not be as efficient as that in Figure 7b due to the limited current flow through the ESD-protection diodes. On the other hand, the circuit in Figure 7b is not symmetric and therefore does not provide equal protection for positive and negative ESD bursts.

Figure 7. ESD-protection circuits for TSC analog input pin

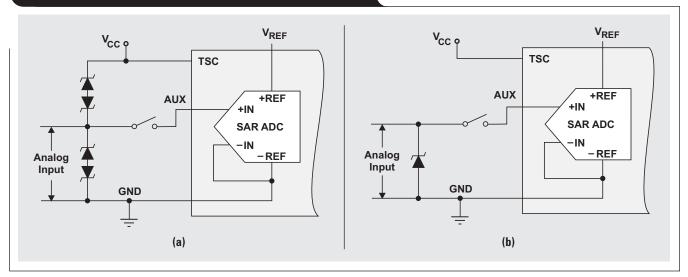
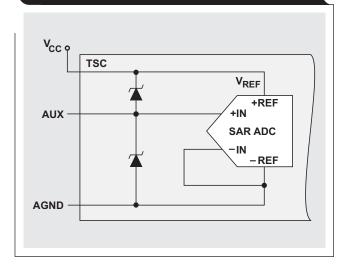


Figure 8. TSC2004/5/6/7 internal ESD protection for AUX input

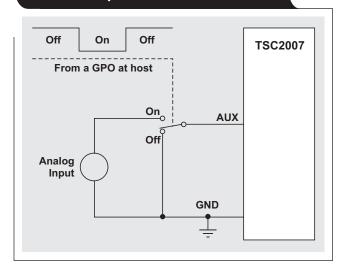


Some of TI's new TSCs, including the TSC2004/5/6/7, were designed with the enhanced, on-chip ESD protection shown by the simplified circuit in Figure 8. Obviously, for these devices, the input signal to the TSC's AUX should be removed before the TSC's $V_{\rm CC}$ power is shut down. An example of removing the AUX signal is shown in Figure 9.

Special applications summary

- An unused analog input pin should be connected directly to the analog ground.
- Pay attention to the divider's resistance values and power consumption when using an AUX to monitor the battery voltage.
- Before removing the TSC's power, always use software commands to disable the TSC's auxiliary functions.
- \bullet For the ADS7846, TSC2046, and TSC2003, the nonzero signal to the AUX or V_{BAT} pin can stay connected while the TSC's power source is removed.
- For the TSC2004/5/6/7, the nonzero signal to AUX should be removed from the analog input pin before the TSC power is removed.

Figure 9. Switching off TSC2004/5/6/7 AUX before TSC is powered down



Reference

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Document Title

TI Lit. #

1. Wendy Fang, "Operation Schemes of Touch Screen Controllers," Application Report slaa359

Related Web sites

dataconverter.ti.com

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Replace partnumber with ADS7843, ADS7845, ADS7846, TSC2003, TSC2004, TSC2005, TSC2006, TSC2007, or TSC2046

Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V

By Will Hadden

Power Management Products, Portable Power DC/DC Applications

The popularity of white-light-emitting diodes (WLEDs) has skyrocketed, primarily because they are used to provide backlight to portable electronics displays. The common belief is that a single WLED requires a 4-V drive voltage. Since a Li-ion battery provides an average voltage of 3.6 V, the general industry consensus is that a step-up converter is required to power WLEDs from a single-cell Li-ion battery. As a result, many ICs are available for driving WLEDs, most requiring an external inductor or flying capacitors to boost the cell voltage high enough. As WLED technology continues to mature, the forward-voltage requirements continue to drop. Currently, there are many LEDs available with typical forward voltages (V_E) in the 3.2- to 3.5-V range with maximum ratings at 3.7 to 4 V. The datasheets usually specify these voltages at LED currents of around 15 to 25 mA. This article discusses lower-current applications and how they affect the forward voltage of the WLED. It also introduces the Texas Instruments (TI) TPS75105, a new LED driver designed to efficiently drive these lowervoltage LEDs with a reduced solution size and cost.

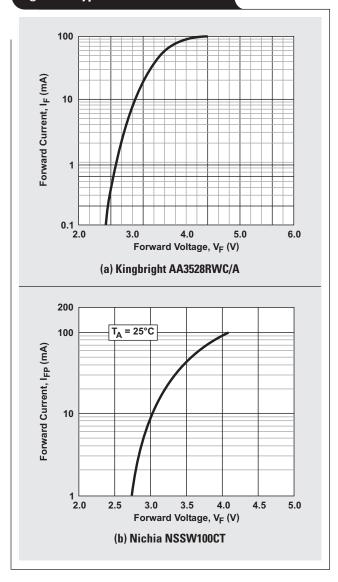
LED forward voltage

The WLED is similar to other standard p-n junction diodes. It does not conduct current until a sufficient forward voltage has been applied. After the threshold is exceeded, the forward current increases with the forward voltage of the WLED. Typical I-V curves for two WLEDs are shown in Figure 1.

Utilizing these graphs is a simple task. As with typical diode I-V curves, the current rises sharply with the voltage after crossing the threshold. The typical forward voltage for the device in Figure 1a is specified to be 3.2 V at 20-mA forward current with a maximum of 3.7 V over process and temperature variations. This leads to the conclusion that the application requires a step-up DC/DC converter to properly drive the WLED from a single Li-ion cell with an output of 3 to 4.2 V. However, this is not necessarily the case. Take, for example, a 5-mA WLED-current application. The curve in Figure 1a shows that the forward voltage required to drive 5 mA is around 2.9 V, which is much less than the typical voltage required to drive 20 mA as specified in the datasheet. A boost converter is not required to drive a 2.9-V output voltage from a 3.6-V Li-ion cell.

WLEDs are specified with a typical value as well as a maximum value to cover lot-to-lot process and manufacturing variations. The I-V curves provided in the datasheet are usually specified with a part that falls at the typical specification. Although the curve shape is valid for every part that is manufactured, the curve shifts to the right or

Figure 1. Typical WLED I-V curves



left depending on the forward voltage at the test conditions for that device. If we use another LED with the same part number as in the previous example, the forward voltage measures 3.7 V (the maximum rating) at the typical test conditions (20-mA forward current). This voltage, which is 0.5 V higher than a typical device, translates to a maximum forward voltage of 3.4 V (2.9 V + 0.5 V) required to drive this WLED at 5 mA. Depending on the cutoff voltage of the application, a boost converter is not needed to drive

this particular WLED at 5 mA. This technique makes it easy to determine the maximum forward voltage for any application.

What about temperature variations?

Some applications require WLEDs to work in harsher conditions with extreme temperatures. Temperature variation affects LED characteristics, but the effect is not as drastic at low current levels as at higher ones. The graph in Figure 2 from a typical WLED datasheet shows forward voltage versus temperature.

This graph shows that the temperature dependence is much stronger with a higher current and forward voltage. Additionally, the forward voltage drops as the temperature increases. The 5-mA curve shows that the forward voltage drops approximately 0.1 V from room temperature (25°C) to the maximum-rated temperature (85°C). This should be taken into account when determining the required forward voltage, but the effect is negligible. If a particular application requires that the LED be driven in a very cold environment, the increased forward voltage may result in lower brightness at low input voltages.

An ultrasmall LED-driver solution

A typical solution for driving multiple WLEDs is to connect them in series and then drive the series string with either an inductive boost converter or a charge pump. This is an excellent method with higher WLED currents that require a higher forward voltage. However, as previously discussed, a boost converter is not required in every WLED driver application. A simpler and lower-cost driver for low-current WLED applications is the ultrasmall TPS75105 LED driver IC. The TPS75105, a linear current source with an ultralow 28-mV dropout voltage, is used for driving four parallel WLEDs in two separate banks. This device provides four 2%-matched current paths in two separately enabled banks. The device is available in the ultrasmall 9-ball, 1.5-mm² wafer-chip-scale package (WCSP), requires no external components when using the default current output, and therefore results in an incredibly small 1.5-mm² solution size. In addition, the TPS75105 is one of the most inexpensive WLED lighting solutions that TI offers. The application circuit for the TPS75105 is shown in Figure 3.

At first glance, using a low-dropout linear circuit to drive LEDs may seem impractical, given the linear regulator's reputation for low efficiency. However, the efficiency of LDOs is often misunderstood. LDO efficiency is entirely based on the input/output voltage ratio; therefore, the efficiency of driving WLEDs can be quite high. For example, driving a 3-V WLED from a 3.6-V Li-ion battery input

Figure 2. Forward voltage vs. temperature (Nichia NSSW100CT)

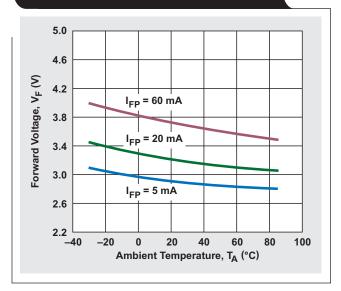
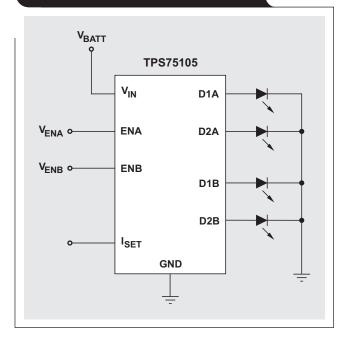


Figure 3. TPS75105 application circuit



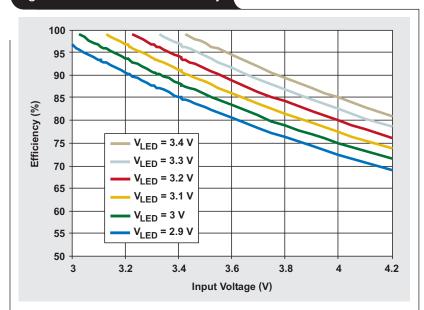


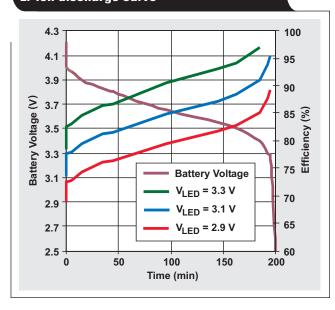
Figure 4. TPS75105 LED efficiency

translates into an LED efficiency of 83%. Figure 4 shows the TPS75105 efficiency data for several different WLED forward voltages over the Li-ion battery range. The LED efficiency for the TPS75105 is comparable to or better than that of other WLED-driver solutions.

Figure 5 demonstrates the LED efficiency of the TPS7510x over the Li-ion discharge curve. The average efficiency for the entire discharge range is over 80% for all three curves, and up to 90% when $V_{\rm LED}=3.3~\rm V.$

While this article concentrates on low-current applications, the TPS7510x can drive up to 25 mA per LED if the input voltage allows. These applications benefit from the very small size.

Figure 5. TPS7510x LED efficiency over the Li-ion discharge curve



Conclusion

When an LED-driver application is evaluated, special consideration should be given to how much current the application requires. If it is well below the current at which the application's WLED $\rm V_F$ is specified, the WLED datasheet I-V curves should be reviewed to determine the actual $\rm V_F$ in the application. The application may be able to use a low-dropout linear current source such as the TPS75105 to achieve an ultralow solution size and low cost without sacrificing the efficiency of a switching stepup converter.

References

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Datasheet	sbvs080
4. TPS75105EVM User's Guide	slvu182

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Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications

(This article will be available December 2007)

40 2007

Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology

By John Tucker

Applications Engineer

Introduction

Most practical electronic devices require an input voltage source. This may be a battery for handheld or portable devices, a 115-V AC line source or "wall wart" for home consumer electronics, or a regulated DC voltage bus for industrial or telecommunications applications. Typically, the input voltage source must be converted to one or more lower voltage sources to power individual circuits such as processors, memory, FPGAs, or other logic. Buck converters are commonly used to derive the required input voltage from a higher voltage source. In some cases, generating a negative voltage from a positive input voltage source may be required. These applications can include audio amplifiers, line drivers and receivers, or instrumentation amplifiers. In such instances it is possible to configure the buck converter into an inverting buck-boost topology, where the output voltage is negative with respect to ground.

Basic buck topology

To understand the inverting buck-boost circuit operation, first consider the basic topology of the buck converter as shown in Figure 1. The components inside the box with a

blue dotted outline are typically integrated into the converter's integrated circuit, while those outside are required external components.

When the FET switch is on, the voltage across the inductor is $V_{\rm IN}-V_{\rm OUT},$ and the current through the inductor increases at a rate of

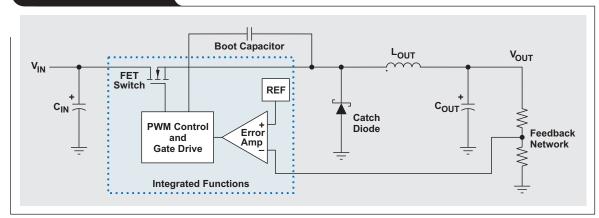
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}i}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{V_{IN} - V_{OUT}}{L} \,. \label{eq:distance}$$

When the switch is off, the inductor voltage reverses to keep the inductor current continuous. Assuming that the voltage drop across the diode is small, the inductor current ramps down at a rate of di/dt = $V_{\rm OUT}/L$. The steady-state load current is always carried by the inductor during both the on and off times of the FET switch. The average inductor current is equal to the load current, and the peak-to-peak inductor ripple current is

$$I_{L(PP)} = \frac{(V_{IN} - V_{OUT})D}{f_{SW}L},$$

where $V_{\rm IN}$ is the input voltage, $V_{\rm OUT}$ is the output voltage, D is the duty cycle $V_{\rm OUT}/V_{\rm IN},\,f_{\rm SW}$ is the switching frequency, and L is the output inductance.

Figure 1. Buck topology



Inverting buck-boost topology

Compare the preceding operation to that of the inverting buck-boost topology shown in Figure 2. The inductor and catch diode have switched places relative to the buck converter of Figure 1; and the output capacitor is reversed in polarity, as the output voltage is negative. During operation, when the FET switch is on, the voltage across the inductor is V_{IN} and the current ramps up at a rate of di/dt = V_{IN}/L . While the FET switch is on, the entire load current is supplied by energy stored in the output capacitor. When the FET switch turns off, the inductor reverses polarity to keep the inductor current continuous. The voltage across the inductor is approximately $\mathbf{V}_{\mathrm{OUT}},$ and the inductor current decreases at a rate of $di/dt = -V_{OUT}/L$. During the off time, the inductor supplies current both to the load and to replenish the energy lost by the capacitor during the on time. So for the buck-boost circuit, the average inductor current is

$$I_{L} = \frac{I_{OUT}}{1 - D},$$

and the peak-to-peak inductor current is

$$I_{L(PP)} = \frac{V_{IN}D}{f_{SW}L}. \label{eq:ILPP}$$

The duty cycle, D, is approximately

$$D = \frac{V_{OUT}}{V_{IN} + V_{OUT}}.$$

These basic differences in circuit operation are important when the buck converter is used as a buck-boost converter.

Design considerations

When a nonsynchronous buck converter is used in an inverting buck-boost configuration, certain considerations must be made. The design equations are presented in simplified form with the semiconductors idealized and other component losses neglected. To implement the buck-boost topology of Figure 2, the buck-converter ground pin is connected to $V_{\rm OUT}$, and the positive lead of the output capacitor is connected to ground. The voltage across the device's $V_{\rm IN}$ pin to GND is then $V_{\rm IN}$ – (– $V_{\rm OUT}$), rather than

just $V_{\rm IN}$ as in the buck converter. This combined voltage must be less than the specified $V_{\rm IN}$ of the chosen device.

The operating duty cycle is

$$\mathrm{D} = \frac{\mathrm{V_{OUT}}}{\mathrm{V_{OUT}} - \mathrm{V_{IN}}},$$

and the average inductor current is

$$I_{L(avg)} = \frac{I_{OUT}}{1 - D}$$

These values also differ from those of the buck converter, whose duty cycle, $D = V_{OUT}/V_{IN}$, and average inductor current are equal to the output current.

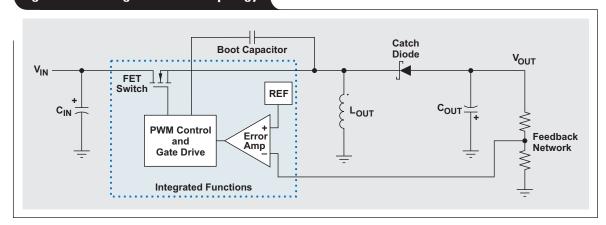
Since the average output current cannot exceed the device's rated output, the available load current is reduced by a factor of 1 – D. So for this design, the maximum available DC load current is $I_{SW} \times (1-D) = I_{Load}$, where I_{SW} is the average rated current of the high-side switch FET.

In addition, the inductor AC ripple current should be kept small for several reasons. The peak inductor current, which is the average inductor current plus half the peak-to-peak AC current, must be below the internal circuit's current limit. The inductor AC ripple current also determines the DC output current below which the circuit begins to operate in the discontinuous conduction mode. This operation mode occurs when the DC output current is equal to half the peak-to-peak AC current. In general, this restriction will be more severe than the current limit. The ripple current also contributes significantly to the output-voltage ripple. Lower inductor ripple currents provide cleaner output voltages.

For the inverting buck-boost converter, there are significant differences between discontinuous- and continuous-mode operation. Designs that are stable in the discontinuous mode may become unstable when increased load current causes them to operate in the continuous mode, during which the feedback loop contains a right-half-plane zero.¹

A bypass capacitor from V_{IN} to ground and from V_{IN} to V_{OUT} should be used on the input. The bypass from V_{IN} to V_{OUT} is across the device voltage input.

Figure 2. Inverting buck-boost topology



Typical waveforms

To demonstrate some of the performance differences between the two topologies, a test circuit was constructed for each type. Both circuits use a 24-V input. The buck converter has a 5-V output at 2 A, while the inverting buckboost converter has a -5-V output, also at 2 A. Output voltage ripple and switching-node waveforms for the inverting buck-boost and buck converters are shown in Figures 3 and 4. Note that the switching-node voltage varies from V_{IN} to V_{OUT} for the inverting buck-boost converter, and from $m V_{IN}$ to ground for the buck converter. The ground reference line is indicated by the C2 marker at the left edge of each figure. Also observe that the output voltage ripple does not show the linear ramp characteristic typical of the buck converter. In the buck converter, the average inductor current is delivered to the load while the AC portion is shunted to ground through the output-filter capacitor. The primary component of the ripple voltage is the AC ripple current times the equivalent series resistance of the output cap, resulting in a waveform resembling a ramp that

rises during the FET switch on time and falls during the switch off time. For the inverting buck-boost converter, the output capacitor supplies the load current during the switch on time and is recharged during the switch off time. This charge-and-discharge cycle is superimposed with the AC ripple current to create a more complex ripple current as shown in the figures. Remember that the output voltage is negative, so the positive portions of the waveform represent the output becoming less negative, or the discharge portion of the cycle.

Figures 5 and 6 show the current flowing in the high-side

Figures 5 and 6 show the current flowing in the high-side switch for the inverting buck-boost and buck converters, respectively, each with the same load current of 2 A. The positive pulse represents the current flowing through the switch into the inductor during the conduction time. When the switch is off, the inductor current for the inverting buck-boost converter in Figure 5 must remain continuous and flows through the catch diode rather than the high-side switching element. For the buck converter in Figure 6, the average current during conduction is equal to the output

Figure 3. Inverting buck-boost output voltage ripple and switching-node voltage

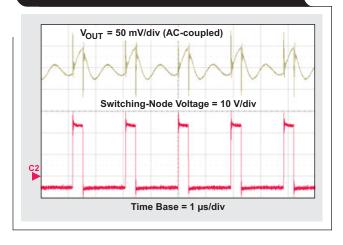


Figure 5. Inverting buck-boost switch current

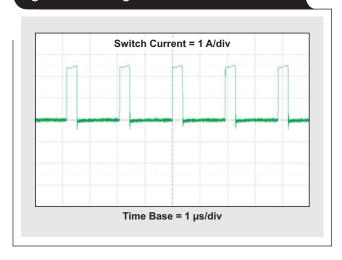


Figure 4. Buck output voltage ripple and switching-node voltage

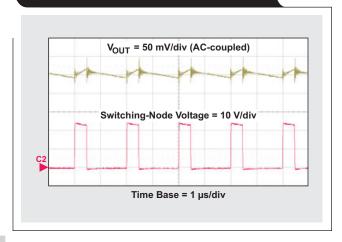
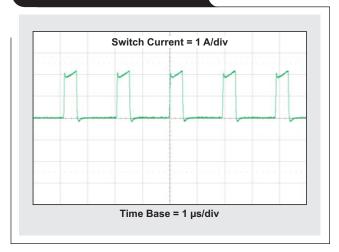


Figure 6. Buck switch current



current, as the inductor is connected directly to the output. In this topology the output current is supplied by the inductor during both the on and off times. For the inverting buck-boost converter, this is not the case; so the average switch current during the on time is $I_{\rm OUT}/(1-D)$.

Input-voltage limitations

In addition to the converter's input-voltage constraint of $V_{\rm IN}$ – (– $V_{\rm OUT}$), there may also be a limit to the input voltage at the low end besides that required by any minimum duty cycle or on-time specifications. Many DC/DC converter circuits include an undervoltage lockout (UVLO) circuit. In the buck configuration, the minimum input voltage would be limited by the UVLO level. This limitation exists for the inverting buck-boost converter as well; however, the UVLO threshold is relative to the device ground, which is configured as $V_{\rm OUT}$. At start-up, the output is 0 V; so the minimum input voltage to guarantee proper start-up is equal to the UVLO level, regardless of the difference between $V_{\rm IN}$ and $V_{\rm OUT}$.

Conclusion

A buck converter can be used to generate a negative output voltage from a positive input voltage if the circuit is configured as an inverting buck-boost converter. The circuit design is straightforward, but these important points should be remembered. The output current is less than

the average inductor current by a factor of $1-\mathrm{D},$ so the available output current will be less than the device rating. The output voltage is negative and is available at the device ground pin, so the effective voltage across the input of the device is $V_{\mathrm{IN}}-V_{\mathrm{OUT}}.$ This difference must not exceed the input-voltage rating of the device. Finally, the ground of the device should not be tied to the system ground.

For a detailed design example using this technique, see Reference 2.

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For more information related to this article, you can download an Acrobat Reader file at www-s.ti.com/sc/techlit/litnumber and replace "litnumber" with the **TI Lit. #** for the materials listed below.

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Index of Articles

Title	Issue	Page	Lit. No.
Data Acquisition			
Aspects of data acquisition system design	ugust 1999	1	SLYT191
Low-power data acquisition sub-system using the TI TLV1572			SLYT192
Evaluating operational amplifiers as input amplifiers for A-to-D converters	-		SLYT193
Precision voltage references			SLYT183
Techniques for sampling high-speed graphics with lower-speed A/D converters			SLYT184
A methodology of interfacing serial A-to-D converters to DSPs			SLYT175
The operation of the SAR-ADC based on charge redistributionF			SLYT176
The design and performance of a precision voltage reference circuit for 14-bit and	· ·		
16-bit A-to-D and D-to-A converters	May 2000	1	SLYT168
Introduction to phase-locked loop system modeling	May 2000	5	SLYT169
New DSP development environment includes data converter plug-ins	august 2000	1	SLYT158
Higher data throughput for DSP analog-to-digital converters	August 2000	5	SLYT159
Efficiently interfacing serial data converters to high-speed DSPs			SLYT160
Smallest DSP-compatible ADC provides simplest DSP interface	November 2000 .	1	SLYT148
Hardware auto-identification and software auto-configuration for the			
TLV320AIC10 DSP Codec — a "plug-and-play" algorithm	November 2000 .	8	SLYT149
Using quad and octal ADCs in SPI mode	November 2000 .	15	SLYT150
Building a simple data acquisition system using the TMS320C31 DSPF	'ebruary 2001	1	SLYT136
Using SPI synchronous communication with data converters — interfacing the			
MSP430F149 and TLV5616F	'ebruary 2001	7	SLYT137
A/D and D/A conversion of PC graphics and component video signals, Part 1: Hardware F	'ebruary 2001	11	SLYT138
A/D and D/A conversion of PC graphics and component video signals, Part 2: Software			
and control	uly 2001	5	SLYT129
Intelligent sensor system maximizes battery life: Interfacing the MSP430F123			
Flash MCU, ADS7822, and TPS60311	Q, 2002	5	SLYT123
SHDSL AFE1230 application			SLYT114
Synchronizing non-FIFO variations of the THS1206	Q, 2002	12	SLYT115
Adjusting the A/D voltage reference to provide gain			SLYT109
MSC1210 debugging strategies for high-precision smart sensors			SLYT110
Using direct data transfer to maximize data acquisition throughput			SLYT111
Interfacing op amps and analog-to-digital converters			SLYT104
ADS82x ADC with non-uniform sampling clock			SLYT089
Calculating noise figure and third-order intercept in ADCs			SLYT090
Evaluation criteria for ADSL analog front end			SLYT091
Two-channel, 500-kSPS operation of the ADS8361			SLYT082
ADS809 analog-to-digital converter with large input pulse signal			SLYT083
Streamlining the mixed-signal path with the signal-chain-on-chip MSP430F169	- /		SLYT078
Supply voltage measurement and ADC PSRR improvement in MSC12xx devices			SLYT073
14-bit, 125-MSPS ADS5500 evaluation			SLYT074
Clocking high-speed data converters			SLYT075
Implementation of 12-bit delta-sigma DAC with MSC12xx controller			SLYT076
Using resistive touch screens for human/machine interface			SLYT209A
Simple DSP interface for ADS784x/834x ADCs			SLYT210
Operating multiple oversampling data converters	Q, 2005	db	SLYT222
Low-power, high-intercept interface to the ADS5424 14-bit, 105-MSPS converter for	0.0005	1.0	CI III
undersampling applications			SLYT223
Understanding and comparing datasheets for high-speed ADCs			SLYT231
Matching the noise performance of the operational amplifier to the ADC			SLYT237
Using the ADS8361 with the MSP430 USI port			SLYT244
Clamp function of high-speed ADC THS1041			SLYT253
Conversion latency in delta-sigma converters			SLYT264
Calibration in touch-screen systems			SLYT277
Using a touch-screen controller's auxiliary inputs	W, 2007	d	SLYT283

Title	Issue	Page	Lit. No.
Power Management			
Stability analysis of low-dropout linear regulators with a PMOS pass element	August 1999	10	SLYT194
Extended output voltage adjustment (0 V to 3.5 V) using the TI TPS5210			SLYT195
Migrating from the TI TL770x to the TI TLC770x			SLYT196
TI TPS5602 for powering TI's DSP			SLYT185
Synchronous buck regulator design using the TI TPS5211 high-frequency			
hysteretic controller	.November 1999	10	SLYT186
Understanding the stable range of equivalent series resistance of an LDO regulator			SLYT187
Power supply solutions for TI DSPs using synchronous buck converters			SLYT177
Powering Celeron-type microprocessors using TI's TPS5210 and TPS5211 controllers			SLYT178
Simple design of an ultra-low-ripple DC/DC boost converter with TPS60100 charge pump	.May 2000	11	SLYT170
Low-cost, minimum-size solution for powering future-generation Celeron™-type			
processors with peak currents up to 26 A	.May 2000	14	SLYT171
Advantages of using PMOS-type low-dropout linear regulators in battery applications	.August 2000	16	SLYT161
Optimal output filter design for microprocessor or DSP power supply	.August 2000	22	SLYT162
Understanding the load-transient response of LDOs	.November 2000	19	SLYT151
Comparison of different power supplies for portable DSP solutions			
working from a single-cell battery	.November 2000	24	SLYT152
Optimal design for an interleaved synchronous buck converter under high-slew-rate,			
load-current transient conditions			SLYT139
–48-V/+48-V hot-swap applications	.February 2001 .	20	SLYT140
Power supply solution for DDR bus termination	July 2001	9	SLYT130
Runtime power control for DSPs using the TPS62000 buck converter	July 2001	15	SLYT131
Power control design key to realizing InfiniBand sm benefits	.1Q, 2002	10	SLYT124
Comparing magnetic and piezoelectric transformer approaches in CCFL applications	.1Q, 2002	12	SLYT125
Why use a wall adapter for ac input power?	.1Q, 2002	18	SLYT126
SWIFT™ Designer power supply design program	.2Q, 2002	15	SLYT116
Optimizing the switching frequency of ADSL power supplies	.2Q, 2002	23	SLYT117
Powering electronics from the USB port			SLYT118
Using the UCC3580-1 controller for highly efficient 3.3-V/100-W isolated supply design	.4Q, 2002	8	SLYT105
Power conservation options with dynamic voltage scaling in portable DSP designs			SLYT106
Understanding piezoelectric transformers in CCFL backlight applications			SLYT107
Load-sharing techniques: Paralleling power modules with overcurrent protection			SLYT100
Using the TPS61042 white-light LED driver as a boost converter			SLYT101
Auto-Track $^{\!$	- /		SLYT095
Soft-start circuits for LDO linear regulators			SLYT096
UCC28517 100-W PFC power converter with 12-V, 8-W bias supply, Part 1			SLYT097
UCC28517 100-W PFC power converter with 12-V, 8-W bias supply, Part 2			SLYT092
LED-driver considerations			SLYT084
Tips for successful power-up of today's high-performance FPGAs			SLYT079
A better bootstrap/bias supply circuit			SLYT077
Understanding noise in linear regulators			SLYT201
Understanding power supply ripple rejection in linear regulators			SLYT202
Miniature solutions for voltage isolation			SLYT211
New power modules improve surface-mount manufacturability			SLYT212
Li-ion switching charger integrates power FETs			SLYT224
TLC5940 dot correction compensates for variations in LED brightness			SLYT225
Powering today's multi-rail FPGAs and DSPs, Part 1			SLYT232
TPS79918 RF LDO supports migration to StrataFlash® Embedded Memory (P30)			SLYT233
Practical considerations when designing a power supply with the TPS6211x			SLYT234
TLC5940 PWM dimming provides superior color quality in LED video displays			SLYT238
Wide-input dc/dc modules offer maximum design flexibility			SLYT239
Powering today's multi-rail FPGAs and DSPs, Part 2			SLYT240
TPS61059 powers white-light LED as photoflash or movie light			SLYT245
TPS65552A powers portable photoflash			SLYT246
Single-chip bq2403x power-path manager charges battery while powering system			SLYT247
Complete battery-pack design for one- or two-cell portable applications			SLYT248
A 3-A, 1.2-V $_{\rm OUT}$ linear regulator with 80% efficiency and P $_{\rm LOST}$ < 1 W	.4Q, 2006	10	SLYT254

Power Management (Continued) bq25012 single-chip, Li-ion charger and dc/dc converter for Bluetooth® headsets 4Q, 2006 .13 SLYT255 Fully integrated TPS6300x buck-boost converter extends Li-ion battery life 4Q, 2006 .15 SLYT256 Selecting the correct IC for power-supply applications 1Q, 2007 .5 SLYT256 LDO white-LED driver TPS7510x provides incredibly small solution size 1Q, 2007 .9 SLYT260 Power management for processor core voltage requirements 1Q, 2007 .1 SLYT261 Enhanced-safety, linear Li-ion battery charger with thermal regulation and input overvoltage protection 2Q, 2007 .8 SLYT269 Current balancing in four-pair, high-power PoE applications 2Q, 2007 .1 SLYT278 Power-management solutions for telecom systems improve performance, cost, and size 3Q, 2007 .1 SLYT278 TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility 3Q, 2007 .1 SLYT278 Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 .1 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 .2 SLYT28
bq25012 single-chip, Li-ion charger and dc/dc converter for Bluetooth® headsets
Fully integrated TPS6300x buck-boost converter extends Li-ion battery life Selecting the correct IC for power-supply applications 1Q, 2007 5 SLYT256 Selecting the correct IC for power-supply applications 1Q, 2007 5 SLYT256 Power management for processor core voltage requirements 1Q, 2007 11 SLYT261 Enhanced-safety, linear Li-ion battery charger with thermal regulation and input overvoltage protection Current balancing in four-pair, high-power PoE applications 2Q, 2007 8 SLYT269 Current balancing in four-pair, high-power PoE applications 2Q, 2007 11 SLYT270 Power-management solutions for telecom systems improve performance, cost, and size 3Q, 2007 11 SLYT278 TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility 3Q, 2007 14 SLYT278 Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT281 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 15 SLYT185 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels 5Q, 2007 17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis 6Q, 2007 18 SLYT197 February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications 7Eeptrary 2000 30 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection 7Eeptrary 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise 7Eeptrary 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise 7Eeptrary 2000 31 SLYT152 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT173 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT173 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT173 Performance of LVDS with different cables 7Eeptrary 2001 19 SLYT173 Per
Selecting the correct IC for power-supply applications
LDO white-LED driver TPS7510x provides incredibly small solution size
Power management for processor core voltage requirements 1Q, 2007 11 SLYT261 Enhanced-safety, linear Li-ion battery charger with thermal regulation and input overvoltage protection 2Q, 2007 8 SLYT269 Current balancing in four-pair, high-power PoE applications 2Q, 2007 11 SLYT270 Power-management solutions for telecom systems improve performance, cost, and size 3Q, 2007 10 SLYT278 TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility 3Q, 2007 14 SLYT279 Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74V1 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 19 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 19 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT185 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 17 SLYT185 UVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise August 2000 30 SLYT163 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT164 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 10, 2004 23 SLYT195 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086
input overvoltage protection
Current balancing in four-pair, high-power PoE applications Power-management solutions for telecom systems improve performance, cost, and size 3Q, 2007 10 SLYT278 TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility 3Q, 2007 14 SLYT279 Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 20 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Interface (Data Transmission) TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables August 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT163 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT153 The SN65LVDS33/84 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT172 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086
Power-management solutions for telecom systems improve performance, cost, and size 3Q, 2007 10 SLYT278 TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility 3Q, 2007 14 SLYT279 Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 20 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT188 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis Industrial signaling (LVDS) August 1999 16 SLYT197 UVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 29 SLYT199 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS SLYT153 SLYT085 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 10 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086
TPS6108x: A boost converter with extreme versatility Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 20 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Interface (Data Transmission) TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT163 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT172 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086
Get low-noise, low-ripple, high-PSRR power with the TPS717xx 3Q, 2007 17 SLYT280 Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 20 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Interface (Data Transmission) TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables August 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 35 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT152 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 10 SLYT165 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT086
Simultaneous power-down sequencing with the TPS74x01 family of linear regulators 3Q, 2007 20 SLYT281 Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V 4Q, 2007 9 SLYT284 Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology 4Q, 2007 16 SLYT286 Interface (Data Transmission) ITIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables August 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 1Q, 2002 23 SLYT157 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT080
Driving a WLED does not always require 4 V
Host-side gas-gauge-system design considerations for single-cell handheld applications 4Q, 2007 .12 SLYT285 Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology .4Q, 2007 .16 SLYT286 Interface (Data Transmission) TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) .4ugust 1999 .16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels .November 1999 .17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis .February 2000 .29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications .February 2000 .33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection .May 2000 .19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables .August 2000 .30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise .November 2000 .30 SLYT163 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A .November 2000 .35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter .July 2001 .19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS .1Q, 2002 .23 SLYT127 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications .1Q, 2004 .18 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses .3Q, 2004 .16 SLYT080
Using a buck converter in an inverting buck-boost topology4Q, 2007.16SLYT286Interface (Data Transmission)Italy EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS)August 1999.16SLYT197Keep an eye on the LVDS input levelsNovember 1999.17SLYT188Skew definition and jitter analysisFebruary 2000.29SLYT179LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applicationsFebruary 2000.33SLYT180LVDS: The ribbon cable connectionMay 2000.19SLYT172Performance of LVDS with different cablesAugust 2000.30SLYT163A statistical survey of common-mode noiseNovember 2000.30SLYT153The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 2000.35SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 2001.19SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS1Q, 2002.23SLYT157Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications1Q, 2004.18SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections1Q, 2004.21SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses3Q, 2004.16SLYT080
Interface (Data Transmission) TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels Skew definition and jitter analysis Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 35 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 36 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT172 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 1Q, 2002 23 SLYT132 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses
TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 .16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 .17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 .29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 .33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 .19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables August 2000 .30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 .30 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 .35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 1Q, 2002 23 SLYT127 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT080
TIA/EIA-568A Category 5 cables in low-voltage differential signaling (LVDS) August 1999 .16 SLYT197 Keep an eye on the LVDS input levels November 1999 .17 SLYT188 Skew definition and jitter analysis February 2000 .29 SLYT179 LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 .33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection May 2000 .19 SLYT172 Performance of LVDS with different cables August 2000 .30 SLYT163 A statistical survey of common-mode noise November 2000 .30 SLYT153 The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32A November 2000 .35 SLYT154 The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converter July 2001 19 SLYT132 Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS 1Q, 2002 23 SLYT127 Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT080
Keep an eye on the LVDS input levelsNovember 199917SLYT188Skew definition and jitter analysisFebruary 200029SLYT179LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applicationsFebruary 200033SLYT180LVDS: The ribbon cable connectionMay 200019SLYT172Performance of LVDS with different cablesAugust 200030SLYT163A statistical survey of common-mode noiseNovember 200030SLYT153The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 200035SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 200119SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS1Q, 200223SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications1Q, 200418SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections1Q, 200421SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses3Q, 200416SLYT080
Skew definition and jitter analysisFebruary 2000.29SLYT179LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applicationsFebruary 2000.33SLYT180LVDS: The ribbon cable connectionMay 2000.19SLYT172Performance of LVDS with different cablesAugust 2000.30SLYT163A statistical survey of common-mode noiseNovember 2000.30SLYT153The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 2000.35SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 2001.19SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS.1Q, 2002.23SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications.1Q, 2004.18SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections.1Q, 2004.21SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses.3Q, 2004.16SLYT080
LVDS receivers solve problems in non-LVDS applications February 2000 .33 SLYT180 LVDS: The ribbon cable connection
LVDS: The ribbon cable connectionMay 200019SLYT172Performance of LVDS with different cablesAugust 200030SLYT163A statistical survey of common-mode noiseNovember 200030SLYT153The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 200035SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 200119SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS1Q, 200223SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications1Q, 200418SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections1Q, 200421SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses3Q, 200416SLYT080
Performance of LVDS with different cablesAugust 2000.30SLYT163A statistical survey of common-mode noiseNovember 2000.30SLYT153The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 2000.35SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 2001.19SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS.1Q, 2002.23SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications.1Q, 2004.18SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections.1Q, 2004.21SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses.3Q, 2004.16SLYT080
The Active Fail-Safe feature of the SN65LVDS32ANovember 2000.35SLYT154The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 2001.19SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS.1Q, 2002.23SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications.1Q, 2004.18SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections.1Q, 2004.21SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses.3Q, 2004.16SLYT080
The SN65LVDS33/34 as an ECL-to-LVTTL converterJuly 200119SLYT132Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS1Q, 200223SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications1Q, 200418SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections1Q, 200421SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses3Q, 200416SLYT080
Power consumption of LVPECL and LVDS1Q, 200223SLYT127Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications1Q, 200418SLYT085The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections1Q, 200421SLYT086Failsafe in RS-485 data buses3Q, 200416SLYT080
Estimating available application power for Power-over-Ethernet applications 1Q, 2004 18 SLYT085 The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections 1Q, 2004 21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses 3Q, 2004 16 SLYT080
The RS-485 unit load and maximum number of bus connections .1Q, 2004 .21 SLYT086 Failsafe in RS-485 data buses .3Q, 2004 .16 SLYT080
Failsafe in RS-485 data buses
Maximizing signal integrity with M-LVDS backplanes
Device spacing on RS-485 buses
Improved CAN network security with TI's SN65HVD1050 transceiver
Detection of RS-485 signal loss
Enabling high-speed USB OTG functionality on TI DSPs
Amplifiers: Audio
Reducing the output filter of a Class-D amplifier
Power supply decoupling and audio signal filtering for the Class-D audio power amplifier August 1999
PCB layout for the TPA005D1x and TPA032D0x Class-D APAs
An audio circuit collection, Part 1
1.6- to 3.6-volt BTL speaker driver reference design
Notebook computer upgrade path for audio power amplifiers
An audio circuit collection, Part 2
An audio circuit collection, Part 3
Audio power amplifier measurements
Audio power amplifier measurements, Part 2

Title	Issue	Page	Lit. No.
Amplifiers: Op Amps			
Single-supply op amp design	November 1999	20	SLYT189
Reducing crosstalk of an op amp on a PCB			SLYT190
Matching operational amplifier bandwidth with applications			SLYT181
Sensor to ADC — analog interface design			SLYT173
Using a decompensated op amp for improved performance			SLYT174
Design of op amp sine wave oscillators	August 2000	33	SLYT164
Fully differential amplifiers			SLYT165
The PCB is a component of op amp design	August 2000	42	SLYT166
Reducing PCB design costs: From schematic capture to PCB layout			SLYT167
Thermistor temperature transducer-to-ADC application	November 2000	44	SLYT156
Analysis of fully differential amplifiers	November 2000	48	SLYT157
Fully differential amplifiers applications: Line termination, driving high-speed ADCs,			
and differential transmission lines	February 2001	32	SLYT143
Pressure transducer-to-ADC application	· ·		SLYT144
Frequency response errors in voltage feedback op amps	-		SLYT146
Designing for low distortion with high-speed op amps			SLYT133
Fully differential amplifier design in high-speed data acquisition systems			SLYT119
Worst-case design of op amp circuits			SLYT120
Using high-speed op amps for high-performance RF design, Part 1			SLYT121
Using high-speed op amps for high-performance RF design, Part 2			SLYT112
FilterPro™ low-pass design tool			SLYT113
Active output impedance for ADSL line drivers	• /		SLYT108
RF and IF amplifiers with op amps			SLYT102
Analyzing feedback loops containing secondary amplifiers			SLYT103
Video switcher using high-speed op amps			SLYT098
Expanding the usability of current-feedback amplifiers			SLYT099
Calculating noise figure in op amps			SLYT094
Op amp stability and input capacitance			SLYT087 SLYT088
Active filters using current-feedback amplifiers			SLYT088
Active inters using current-reedback ampliners Auto-zero amplifiers ease the design of high-precision circuits			SLYT204
So many amplifiers to choose from: Matching amplifiers to applications			SLYT213
Instrumentation amplifiers find your needle in the haystack			SLYT226
High-speed notch filters			SLYT235
Low-cost current-shunt monitor IC revives moving-coil meter design			SLYT242
Accurately measuring ADC driving-circuit settling time			SLYT262
New zero-drift amplifier has an I_Q of 17 μA			SLYT272
General Interest			
Synthesis and characterization of nickel manganite from different carboxylate			
precursors for thermistor sensors	February 2001 .	52	SLYT147
Analog design tools	•		SLYT122
Spreadsheet modeling tool helps analyze power- and ground-plane voltage drops to keep core voltages within tolerance	0,		SLYT273
to keep core voltages within tolerance	<u> </u>	40	5611410

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