

LMV716 5 MHz, Low Noise, RRO, Dual Operational Amplifier with CMOS Input

Check for Samples: [LMV716](http://www.ti.com/product/lmv716#samples)

- **(Typical Values,** $V^+ = 3.3V$ **,** $T_A = 25^\circ C$ **, unless Otherwise Specified)**
-
-
-
-
- **• Open Loop Gain 122 dB**
-
-
-
-
-
- **Operating Temperature −40°C to 85°C**
• applications.
•• The LAN/346
-

-
-
- **• Audio Preamp**
- **• HDD Vibration Cancellation Circuitry**

Typical Application Circuit

¹FEATURES DESCRIPTION

2 The LMV716 is a dual operational amplifier with both low supply voltage and low supply current, making it ideal for portable applications. The LMV716 CMOS **Input Noise Voltage 12.8 nV/√Hz** included to the pottage drives the I_{BIAS} current down to 0.6 pA;
 Input Bias Current 0.6 pA this coupled with the low noise voltage of 12.8 **• Input Bias Current 0.6 pA** this coupled with the low noise voltage of 12.8 nV/√Hz makes the LMV716 perfect for applications **• Offset Voltage 1.6 mV** requiring active filters, transimpedance amplifiers, **• CMRR ⁸⁰ dB** and HDD vibration cancellation circuitry.

Along with great noise sensitivity, small signal **• Rail-to-Rail Output** applications will benefit from the large gain bandwidth **• GBW 5 MHz** of 5 MHz coupled with the minimal supply current of 1.6 mA and a slew rate of 5.8 V/μs. **• Slew Rate 5.8 V/µs**

•• Supply Current 1.6 mA The LMV716 provides rail-to-rail output swing into heavy loads. The input common-mode voltage range **• Supply Voltage Range 2.7V to 5V** includes ground, which is ideal for ground sensing

The LMV716 has a supply voltage spanning 2.7V to 5V and is offered in an 8-pin VSSOP package that 5V and is offered in an 8-pin VSSOP package that **APPLICATIONS** functions across the wide temperature range of **• Active Filters Filters** *• •* *****• •* **Transimpedance Amplifiers • •** *CODE Place the LMV716 next to sensors, thus reducing external noise pickup.*

Figure 1. High Gain Band Pass Filter

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RUMENTS

These devices have limited built-in ESD protection. The leads should be shorted together or the device placed in conductive foam during storage or handling to prevent electrostatic damage to the MOS gates.

Absolute Maximum Ratings (1)(2)

(1) Absolute Maximum Ratings indicate limits beyond which damage to the device may occur. Operating Ratings indicate conditions for which the device is intended to be functional, but specific performance is not ensured. For ensured specifications and the test conditions, see the Electrical Characteristics.

(2) If Military/Aerospace specified devices are required, please contact the Texas Instruments Sales Office/ Distributors for availability and specifications.

- (3) Human Body Model is 1.5 kΩ in series with 100 pF. Machine Model is 0Ω in series with 100 pF.
- (4) The maximum power dissipation is a function of $T_{J(MAX)}$, θ_{JA} and T_A . The maximum allowable power dissipation at any ambient temperature is $P_D = (T_{J(MAX)}-T_A)/\theta_{JA}$. All numbers apply for packages soldered directly into a PC board.

Operating Ratings (1)

(1) Absolute Maximum Ratings indicate limits beyond which damage to the device may occur. Operating Ratings indicate conditions for which the device is intended to be functional, but specific performance is not ensured. For ensured specifications and the test conditions, see the Electrical Characteristics.

3.3V Electrical Characteristics (1)

Unless otherwise specified, all limits are ensured for T_J = 25°C, V⁺ = 3.3V, V[−] = 0V. V_{CM} = V⁺/2. **Boldface** limits apply at the temperature extremes ⁽²⁾.

(1) Electrical Table values apply only for factory testing conditions at the temperature indicated. Factor testing conditions result in very limited self-heating of the device such that $T_J = T_A$. No ensured specification of parametric performance is indicated in the electrical tables under conditions of internal self-heating where T_J > T_A. Absolute Maximum Ratings indicate junction temperature limits beyond
which the device maybe permanently degraded, either mechanically or electrically.

(2) Boldface limits apply to temperature range of −40°C to 85°C.

 (3) All limits are specified by testing or statistical analysis.
(4) Typical values represent the most likely parametric no

(4) Typical values represent the most likely parametric norm.

Input bias current is specified by design.

(6) Number specified is the lower of the positive and negative slew rates.

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CONNECTION DIAGRAM

Figure 2. Top View - 8-Pin VSSOP

Simplified Schematic

Typical Performance Characteristics

Unless otherwise specified, V^+ 3.3V, $T_J = 25^{\circ}C$.

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Typical Performance Characteristics (continued) Unless otherwise specified, V^+ 3.3V, $T_J = 25^{\circ}C$. **Output Negative Swing Output Positive Swing vs. vs. Supply Voltage Supply Voltage** 120 20 $R_L = 600\Omega$ $R_1 = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$ 18 100 16 VOUT FROM GND (mV) 85^c 25^c VOUT FROM GND (mV) + (mV) 14 80 12 VOUT FROM V 85 C 25 C 60 10 -40^c 8 40 6 4 20 -40° C 2 0 1
2.7 $^{0}_{2.7}$ 2.7 3.2 3.7 4.2 4.7 2.7 3.2 3.7 4.2 4.7 SUPPLY VOLTAGE (V) SUPPLY VOLTAGE (V) **Figure 9. Figure 10. sinking Current**
vs.
V_{OUT} **Output Negative Swing Supply Voltage** 40 50 $R_L = 10 k\Omega$ $V_S = 3.3V$ 35 85°C 40 VOUT FROM GND (mV) 30 VOUT FROM GND (mV) 85 C 25 C 25 25°C 30 ISINK (mA) -40°C 20 20 15 -40^c 10 10 5 $_{2.7}^{0}$ L Ω 2.7 3.2 3.7 4.2 4.7 0 0.5 1 1.5 2 2.5 3 3.3 SUPPLY VOLTAGE (V) VOUT (V) **Figure 11. Figure 12. Sourcing Current PSRR vs. vs. VOUT Frequency** 40 120 $V_S = 3.3V$ 85°C 100 -PSRR 30 80 Isource (mA) ISOURCE (mA) PSRR (dB) $25C$ +PSRR 20 60 -40^o 40 10 20 0 0 0 0.5 1 1.5 2 2.5 3 3.3 100 1k 10k 100k 1M VOUT (V) FREQUENCY (Hz) **Figure 13. Figure 14.**

Typical Performance Characteristics (continued)

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Figure 25.

[LMV716](http://www.ti.com/product/lmv716?qgpn=lmv716)

APPLICATION INFORMATION

With the low supply current of only 1.6 mA, the LMV716 offers users the ability to maximize battery life. This makes the LMV716 ideal for battery powered systems. The LMV716's rail-to-rail output swing provides the maximum possible dynamic range at the output. This is particularly important when operating on low supply voltages.

CAPACITIVE LOAD TOLERANCE

The LMV716, when in a unity-gain configuration, can directly drive large capacitive loads in unity-gain without oscillation. The unity-gain follower is the most sensitive configuration to capacitive loading; direct capacitive loading reduces the phase margin of amplifiers. The combination of the amplifier's output impedance and the capacitive load induces phase lag. This results in either an underdamped pulse response or oscillation. To drive a heavier capacitive load, the circuit in [Figure](#page-8-0) 26 can be used.

Figure 26. Indirectly Driving a Capacitive Load using Resistive Isolation

In [Figure](#page-8-0) 26, the isolation resistor R_{ISO} and the load capacitor C_L form a pole to increase stability by adding more phase margin to the overall system. The desired performance depends on the value of R_{ISO} . The bigger the R_{ISO} resistor value, the more stable V_{OUT} will be.

The circuit in [Figure](#page-8-1) 27 is an improvement to the one in [Figure](#page-8-0) 26 because it provides DC accuracy as well as AC stability. If there were a load resistor in [Figure](#page-8-0) 26, the output would be voltage divided by R_{ISO} and the load resistor. Instead, in [Figure](#page-8-1) 27, R_F provides the DC accuracy by using feed-forward techniques to connect V_{IN} to R_L . Due to the input bias current of the LMV716, the designer must be cautious when choosing the value of R_F . C_F and R_{ISO} serve to counteract the loss of phase margin by feeding the high frequency component of the output signal back to the amplifier's inverting input, thereby preserving phase margin in the overall feedback loop. Increased capacitive drive is possible by increasing the value of C_F . This in turn will slow down the pulse response.

Figure 27. Indirectly Driving a Capacitive Load with DC Accuracy

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DIFFERENCE AMPLIFIER

The difference amplifier allows the subtraction of two voltages or, as a special case, the cancellation of a signal common to two inputs. It is useful as a computational amplifier in making a differential to single-ended conversion or in rejecting a common mode signal.

 $R₂$

 V_{OUT}

Figure 28. Difference Amplifier

$$
V_{\text{OUT}} = \left(\frac{R1 + R2}{R3 + R4}\right) \frac{R4}{R1} V_2 - \frac{R2}{R1} V_1 + \left(\frac{R1 + R2}{R3 + R4}\right) \frac{R3}{R1} \cdot \frac{V^+}{2}
$$

for R1 = R3 and R2 = R4

$$
V_{\text{OUT}} = \frac{R2}{R1} (V_2 - V_1) + \frac{V^+}{2}
$$

(1)

SINGLE-SUPPLY INVERTING AMPLIFIER

There may be cases where the input signal going into the amplifier is negative. Because the amplifier is operating in single supply voltage, a voltage divider using R_3 and R_4 is implemented to bias the amplifier so the inverting input signal is within the input common voltage range of the amplifier. The capacitor C_1 is placed between the inverting input and resistor R₁ to block the DC signal going into the AC signal source, V_{IN}. The values of R₁ and C₁ affect the cutoff frequency, fc = 1/₂ π R₁C₁. As a result, the output signal is centered around mid-supply (if the voltage divider provides V⁺/2 at the non-inverting input). The output can swing to both rails, maximizing the signal-to-noise ratio in a low voltage system.

$$
V_{\text{OUT}} = -\frac{R2}{R1} V_{\text{IN}}
$$

(2)

INSTRUMENTATION AMPLIFIER

Measurement of very small signals with an amplifier requires close attention to the input impedance of the amplifier, the overall signal gain from both inputs to the output, as well as, the gain from each input to the output. This is because we are only interested in the difference of the two inputs and the common signal is considered noise. A classic solution is an instrumentation amplifier. Instrumentation amplifiers have a finite, accurate, and stable gain. Also they have extremely high input impedances and very low output impedances. Finally they have an extremely high CMRR so that the amplifier can only respond to the differential signal.

Three-Op-Amp Instrumentation Amplifier

A typical instrumentation amplifier is shown in [Figure](#page-10-0) 30.

There are two stages in this configuration. The last stage, the output stage, is a differential amplifier. In an ideal case the two amplifiers of the first stage, the input stage, would be set up as buffers to isolate the inputs. However they cannot be connected as followers due to the mismatch of real amplifiers. The circuit in [Figure](#page-10-0) 30 utilizes a balancing resistor between the two amplifiers to compensate for this mismatch. The product of the two stages of gain will be the gain of the instrumentation amplifier circuit. Ideally, the CMRR should be infinite. However the output stage has a small non-zero common mode gain which results from resistor mismatch.

In the input stage of the circuit, current is the same across all resistors. This is due to the high input impedance and low input bias current of the LMV716. With the node equations we have:

$$
GIVEN: I_{R_1} = I_{R_{11}}
$$
\n
$$
(3)
$$

By Ohm's Law:

 $V_{O1} - V_{O2} = (2R_1 + R_{11}) I_{R_{11}}$

 $=$ (2a + 1) R₁₁ • I_{R₁₁}

$$
= (2a + 1) V_{R11}
$$

However:

$$
V_{R_{11}} = V_1 - V_2
$$
 (5)

So we have:

Now looking at the output of the instrumentation amplifier:

$$
V_{\rm O} = \frac{\rm KR_2}{\rm R_2} \quad (V_{\rm O2} \cdot V_{\rm O1})
$$

= -K (V_{\rm O1} \cdot V_{\rm O2}) \tag{7}

Substituting from [Equation](#page-10-1) 6:

 $V_O = -K (2a + 1) (V_1 - V_2)$

(4)

(8)

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This shows the gain of the instrumentation amplifier to be:

−K(2a+1) (9)

Typical values for this circuit can be obtained by setting: a = 12 and K = 4. This results in an overall gain of −100.

Three LMV716 amplifiers are used along with 1% resistors to minimize resistor mismatch. Resistors used to build the circuit are: R₁ = 21.6 kΩ, R₁₁ = 1.8 kΩ, R₂ = 2.5 kΩ with K = 40 and a = 12. This results in an overall gain of $-K(2a+1) = -1000$.

Two-Op-Amp Instrumentation Amplifier

A two-op-amp instrumentation amplifier can also be used to make a high-input impedance DC differential amplifier [Figure](#page-11-0) 31). As in the three op amp circuit, this instrumentation amplifier requires precise resistor matching for good CMRR. R_4 should be equal to R_1 , and R_3 should equal R_2 .

Figure 31. Two-Op-Amp Instrumentation Amplifier

$$
V_0 = \left(1 + \frac{RA}{R3}\right) (V_2 - V_1), \text{ where } R1 = R4 \text{ and } R2 = R3
$$

As shown: $V_0 = 2 (V_2 - V_1)$

ACTIVE FILTERS

Active filters are circuits with amplifiers, resistors, and capacitors. The use of amplifiers instead of inductors, which are used in passive filters, enhances the circuit performance while reducing the size and complexity of the filter. The simplest active filters are designed using an inverting op amp configuration where at least one reactive element has been added to the configuration. This means that the op amp will provide "frequency-dependent" amplification, since reactive elements are frequency dependent devices.

Low Pass Filter

The following shows a very simple low pass filter.

Figure 32. Low Pass Filter

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The transfer function can be expressed as follows:

By KCL:

$$
\frac{4V_1}{R_1} - \frac{V_0}{\left[\frac{1}{jwc}\right]} - \frac{V_0}{R_2} = 0
$$
\n(11)

Simplifying this further results in:

$$
V_O = \frac{-R_2}{R_1} \left[\frac{1}{jwcR_2 + 1} \right] V_i
$$
\n
$$
(12)
$$

or

$$
\frac{V_O}{V_i} = \frac{-R_2}{R_1} \left[\frac{1}{jwcR_2 + 1} \right]
$$
\n(13)

- R² $=$ H_O $H = \frac{V_O}{V}$ Now, substituting ω=2πf, so that the calculations are in f(Hz) rather than in ω(rad/s), and setting the DC gain

$$
H = H_0 \left[\frac{1}{j2\pi fCR_2 + 1} \right]
$$
\n(14)

 $f_{\rm O} = \frac{1}{2.5}$ set:

R1

 $2\pi R_1C$

$$
H = H_O \left[\frac{1}{1 + j \left(f/f_O \right)} \right]
$$
\n(15)

Low pass filters are known as lossy integrators because they only behave as integrators at higher frequencies. The general form of the bode plot can be predicted just by looking at the transfer function. When the f/f_O ratio is small, the capacitor is, in effect, an open circuit and the amplifier behaves at a set DC gain. Starting at f_0 , which is the −3 dB corner, the capacitor will have the dominant impedance and hence the circuit will behave as an integrator and the signal will be attenuated and eventually cut. The bode plot for this filter is shown in [Figure](#page-12-0) 33.

Figure 33. Low Pass Filter Transfer Function

High Pass Filter

The transfer function of a high pass filter can be derived in much the same way as the previous example. A typical first order high pass filter is shown below:

Figure 34. High Pass Filter

Writing the KCL for this circuit :

 $(V₁$ denotes the voltage between C and R₁)

$$
\frac{V_1 V_i}{\frac{1}{jwC}} = \frac{V_1 - V}{R_1}
$$
\n
$$
V + V_1 \qquad V + V_0 \tag{16}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{R_1} = \frac{1}{R_2}
$$
 (17)

Solving these two equations to find the transfer function and using:

$$
f_{\rm O} = \frac{1}{2\pi R_1 C} \tag{18}
$$

 $H_{\rm O} = \frac{-R_2}{R_2}$ R1 $H = \frac{V_i}{V_i}$ VO (high frequency gain)

Which gives:

$$
H = H_O \frac{j \left(f/f_O\right)}{1 + j \left(f/f_O\right)} \tag{19}
$$

Looking at the transfer function, it is clear that when f/f_O is small, the capacitor is open and therefore, no signal is getting to the amplifier. As the frequency increases the amplifier starts operating. At $f = f_0$ the capacitor behaves like a short circuit and the amplifier will have a constant, high frequency gain of H_0 . [Figure](#page-13-0) 35 shows the transfer function of this high pass filter.

Band Pass Filter

Combining a low pass filter and a high pass filter will generate a band pass filter. [Figure](#page-14-0) 36 offers an example of this type of circuit.

Figure 36. Band Pass Filter

In this network the input impedance forms the high pass filter while the feedback impedance forms the low pass filter. If the designer chooses the corner frequencies so that $f_1 < f_2$, then all the frequencies between, $f_1 \le f \le f_2$, will pass through the filter while frequencies below f_1 and above f_2 will be cut off.

The transfer function can be easily calculated using the same methodology as before and is shown in [Figure](#page-14-1) 37.

$$
H = H_O \frac{j (f/f_1)}{[1 + j (f/f_1)] [1 + j (f/f_2)]}
$$
(20)

Where

 \overline{H}

$$
f_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi R_1 C_1}
$$
\n
$$
f_2 = \frac{1}{2\pi R_2 C_2}
$$
\n
$$
H_0 = \frac{R_2}{R_1}
$$
\n
$$
\downarrow \downarrow
$$
\n
$$
H_1 \triangleq dB
$$
\n(21)

Figure 37. Band Pass Filter Transfer Function

STATE VARIABLE ACTIVE FILTER

State variable active filters are circuits that can simultaneously represent high pass, band pass, and low pass filters. The state variable active filter uses three separate amplifiers to achieve this task. A typical state variable active filter is shown in [Figure](#page-15-0) 38. The first amplifier in the circuit is connected as a gain stage. The second and third amplifiers are connected as integrators, which means they behave as low pass filters. The feedback path from the output of the third amplifier to the first amplifier enables this low frequency signal to be fed back with a

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finite and fairly low closed loop gain. This is while the high frequency signal on the input is still gained up by the open loop gain of the first amplifier. This makes the first amplifier a high pass filter. The high pass signal is then fed into a low pass filter. The outcome is a band pass signal, meaning the second amplifier is a band pass filter. This signal is then fed into the third amplifiers input and so, the third amplifier behaves as a simple low pass filter.

Figure 38. State Variable Active Filter

The transfer function of each filter needs to be calculated. The derivations will be more trivial if each stage of the filter is shown on its own.

The three components are:

For A_1 the relationship between input and output is:

$$
V_{O1} = \frac{-R_4}{R_1} V_0 + \left[\frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6} \right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1} \right] V_{1N} + \left[\frac{R_5}{R_5 + R_6} \right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1} \right] V_{O2}
$$

This relationship depends on the output of all the filters. The input-output relationship for A_2 can be expressed as:

$$
V_{O2} = \frac{-1}{s C_2 R_2} V_{O1}
$$
 (23)

And finally this relationship for A_3 is as follows:

$$
V_{O} = \frac{-1}{s \, C_{3}R_{3}} \, V_{O2} \tag{24}
$$

Re-arranging these equations, one can find the relationship between V_{O} and V_{IN} (transfer function of the low pass filter), V_{O1} and V_{IN} (transfer function of the high pass filter), and V_{O2} and V_{IN} (transfer function of the band pass filter) These relationships are as follows:

Low Pass Filter

$$
\frac{V_O}{V_{IN}} = \frac{\left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1}\right] \left[\frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6}\right] \left[\frac{1}{C_2 C_3 R_2 R_3}\right]}{s^2 + s \left[\frac{1}{C_2 R_2}\right] \left[\frac{R_5}{R_5 + R_6}\right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1}\right] + \left[\frac{1}{C_2 C_3 R_2 R_3}\right]}
$$
(25)

High Pass Filter

$$
\frac{V_{O1}}{V_{IN}} = \frac{s^2 \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1}\right] \left[\frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6}\right]}{s^2 + s \left[\frac{1}{C_2 R_2}\right] \left[\frac{R_5}{R_5 + R_6}\right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1}\right] + \left[\frac{1}{C_2 C_3 R_2 R_3}\right]}
$$
(27)

Band Pass Filter

$$
\frac{V_{O2}}{V_{IN}} = \frac{s \left[\frac{1}{C_2 R_2} \right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1} \right] \left[\frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6} \right]}{s^2 + s \left[\frac{1}{C_2 R_2} \right] \left[\frac{R_5}{R_5 + R_6} \right] \left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1} \right] + \left[\frac{1}{C_2 C_3 R_2 R_3} \right]}
$$
(28)

The center frequency and Quality Factor for all of these filters is the same. The values can be calculated in the following manner:

$$
\omega_{\text{C}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{C_2 C_3 R_2 R_3}}
$$

and

$$
Q = \sqrt{\frac{C_2 R_2}{C_3 R_3} \left[\frac{R_5 + R_6}{R_6} \right] \left[\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_4} \right]}
$$

(29)

Designing a band pass filter with a center frequency of 10 kHz and Quality Factor of 5.5

To do this, first consider the Quality Factor. It is best to pick convenient values for the capacitors. $C_2 = C_3 = 1000$ pF. Also, choose R₁ = R₄ = 30 kΩ. Now values of R₅ and R₆ need to be calculated. With the chosen values for the capacitors and resistors, Q reduces to:

$$
Q = \frac{11}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{R_5 + R_6}{R_6} \right]
$$

(30)

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or

 $R_5 = 10R_6 R_6 = 1.5 k\Omega R_5 = 15 k\Omega$ (31)

Also, for $f = 10$ kHz, the center frequency is $\omega c = 2\pi f = 62.8$ kHz.

Using the expressions above, the appropriate resistor values will be $R_2 = R_3 = 16$ k Ω .

The DC gain of this circuit is:

DC GAIN =
$$
\left[\frac{R_1 + R_4}{R_1}\right] \left[\frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6}\right] = -14.8 \text{ dB}
$$
 (32)

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REVISION HISTORY

www.ti.com 10-Dec-2020

PACKAGING INFORMATION

(1) The marketing status values are defined as follows:

ACTIVE: Product device recommended for new designs.

LIFEBUY: TI has announced that the device will be discontinued, and a lifetime-buy period is in effect.

NRND: Not recommended for new designs. Device is in production to support existing customers, but TI does not recommend using this part in a new design.

PREVIEW: Device has been announced but is not in production. Samples may or may not be available.

OBSOLETE: TI has discontinued the production of the device.

⁽²⁾ RoHS: TI defines "RoHS" to mean semiconductor products that are compliant with the current EU RoHS requirements for all 10 RoHS substances, including the requirement that RoHS substance do not exceed 0.1% by weight in homogeneous materials. Where designed to be soldered at high temperatures. "RoHS" products are suitable for use in specified lead-free processes. TI may reference these types of products as "Pb-Free".

RoHS Exempt: TI defines "RoHS Exempt" to mean products that contain lead but are compliant with EU RoHS pursuant to a specific EU RoHS exemption.

Green: TI defines "Green" to mean the content of Chlorine (CI) and Bromine (Br) based flame retardants meet JS709B low halogen requirements of <=1000ppm threshold. Antimony trioxide based flame retardants must also meet the <=1000ppm threshold requirement.

(3) MSL, Peak Temp. - The Moisture Sensitivity Level rating according to the JEDEC industry standard classifications, and peak solder temperature.

(4) There may be additional marking, which relates to the logo, the lot trace code information, or the environmental category on the device.

(5) Multiple Device Markings will be inside parentheses. Only one Device Marking contained in parentheses and separated by a "~" will appear on a device. If a line is indented then it is a continuation of the previous line and the two combined represent the entire Device Marking for that device.

(6) Lead finish/Ball material - Orderable Devices may have multiple material finish options. Finish options are separated by a vertical ruled line. Lead finish/Ball material values may wrap to two lines if the finish value exceeds the maximum column width.

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PACKAGE MATERIALS INFORMATION

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Pin1 Quadrant

TAPE AND REEL INFORMATION

QUADRANT ASSIGNMENTS FOR PIN 1 ORIENTATION IN TAPE

PACKAGE MATERIALS INFORMATION

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*All dimensions are nominal

DGK (S-PDSO-G8)

PLASTIC SMALL-OUTLINE PACKAGE

A. All linear dimensions are in millimeters.

This drawing is subject to change without notice. **B.**

Body length does not include mold flash, protrusions, or gate burrs. Mold flash, protrusions, or gate burrs shall not exceed 0.15 per end.

- Body width does not include interlead flash. Interlead flash shall not exceed 0.50 per side.
- E. Falls within JEDEC MO-187 variation AA, except interlead flash.

DGK (S-PDSO-G8)

PLASTIC SMALL OUTLINE PACKAGE

NOTES: Α. All linear dimensions are in millimeters.

- B. This drawing is subject to change without notice.
- C. Publication IPC-7351 is recommended for alternate designs.
- D. Laser cutting apertures with trapezoidal walls and also rounding corners will offer better paste release. Customers should contact their board assembly site for stencil design recommendations. Refer to IPC-7525 for other stencil recommendations.
- E. Customers should contact their board fabrication site for solder mask tolerances between and around signal pads.

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