

## 1 Grounding Optimization

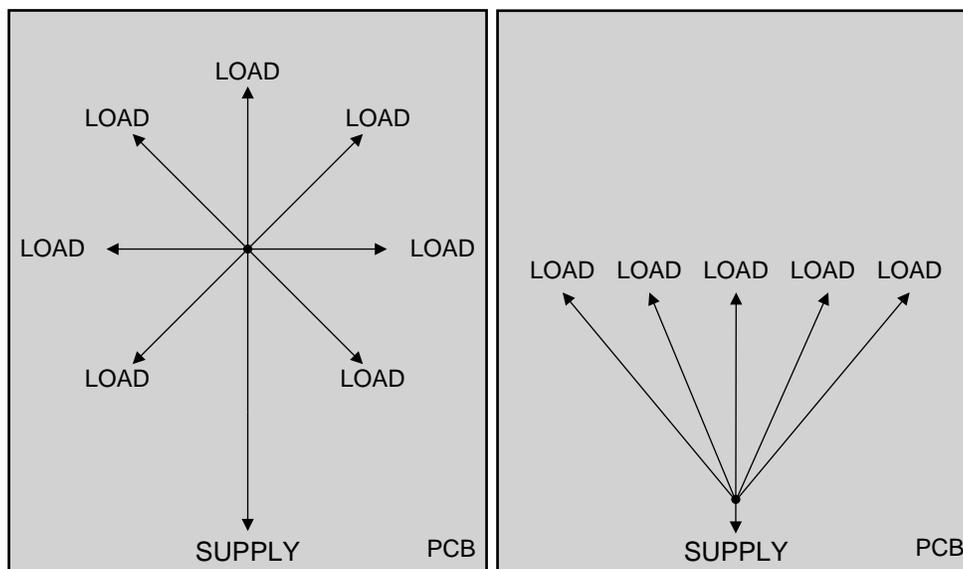
The objective of any good grounding scheme is to provide a stable reference, without noise and other oscillations, for the IC and its surrounding circuits. This section describes the different grounding techniques, common challenges with grounding, the optimal way of using ground planes, and grounding considerations for two-layer boards.

### 1.1 Frequently Used Terms/Connections

The terms used in this section are defined as follows:

**Single Point** — In single-point distribution, all reference points originate from the source which makes sure each resource has its own uninterrupted ground path (see [Figure 1](#)). This connection is recommended for power distribution traces.

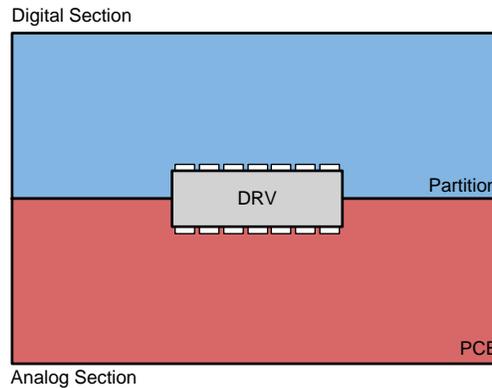
**Star Ground** — In star-ground distribution, all reference points are located centrally; however, the source may not be centralized. This method balances the common impedance across all resources ([Figure 1](#)). This connection is recommended for signal traces.



**Figure 1. Star-Ground and Single-Point Power Distribution**

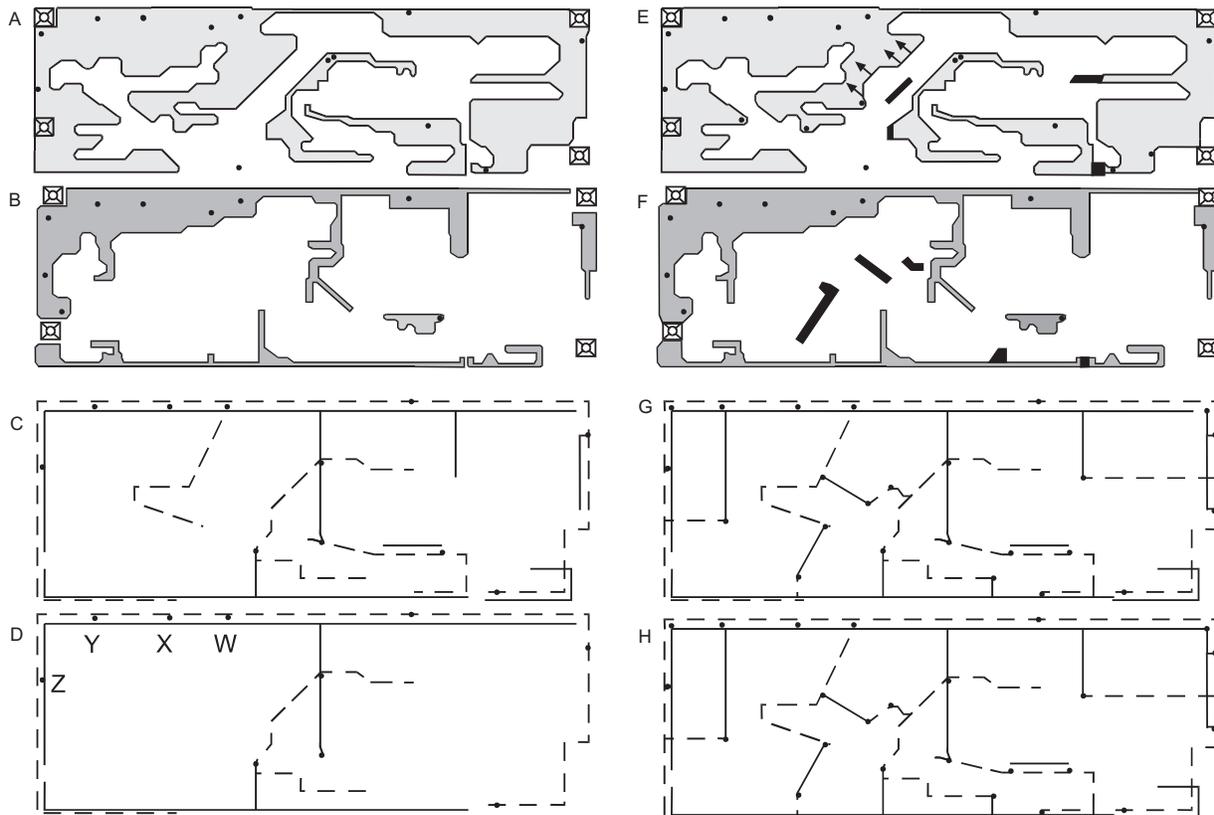
**Partitioning** — In a partitioning ground scheme, the layout of the printed circuit board (PCB) is such that the digital, analog, and high power signals have their own separate areas (see [Figure 2](#)). This separation is not a physical partition of digital and analog ground.

**Grid** — Gridding makes the ground paths continuous throughout the board to make sure each signal has a return path to the source (see [Figure 3](#)). This practice involves making small changes to the component placement, ground fill, via placements, and trace paths to minimize the return path to ground. Gridding effectively creates a more interconnected ground plane, which can decrease noise and lower the impedance between the supply and load.



**Figure 2. Digital - Analog Separation and Ground Partition**

An example of using ground gridding to achieve an effective ground plane is shown in [Figure 3](#). The changes made to implement gridding in the layout were minor, indicating how a small effort can have a large impact.



The dashed line represents top-side and the solid line is bottom-side.

**Figure 3. Gridding of Ground Fills and Traces to Form a Ground Plane**

In the example in [Figure 3](#), layout A and layout B are the top and bottom layers, leaving only the ground fill, ground traces and the vias between the front and back. Layout C in [Figure 3](#) is a simple stick diagram of the ground routing for the board. Each stick, or leg, represents the path of the ground conductor. Most traces are connected at only one end. With most of the single-ended traces removed, the layout D in [Figure 3](#) shows how ground is routed over the entire board; only one path occurs between any two points anywhere on the routing.

Layout E, Layout F, Layout G, and Layout H in Figure 3 shows the design modified to achieve a gridded ground. Some traces (shown in solid black) were added and geometries were moved (indicated by the arrows) in layout E and layout F in Figure 3. Layout G in Figure 3 shows the modified stick diagram of ground. Full traces connected at both ends form a more complete conductor. Compare layout H and layout D in Figure 3. The gridding ground has created an extensive network of interconnections that creates the desired grid. The result is nearly as effective as an actual ground plane.

### 1.2 Using a Ground Plane

In a 4-layer board or a larger 2-layer board design, it is recommended to use a ground plane. Having one layer of the PCB as a continuous ground plane lets each signal have the shortest return path and decreases coupling and interference. It is recommended to minimize ground plane discontinuity by carefully routing signal traces, and place vias away from each other to prevent breaks in the plane. For more information on via placement, see Section 2.4.

Most DRV devices have a thermal pad that functions as a ground and use the ground copper to sink heat. Figure 4 shows good layout examples for common and split ground planes.

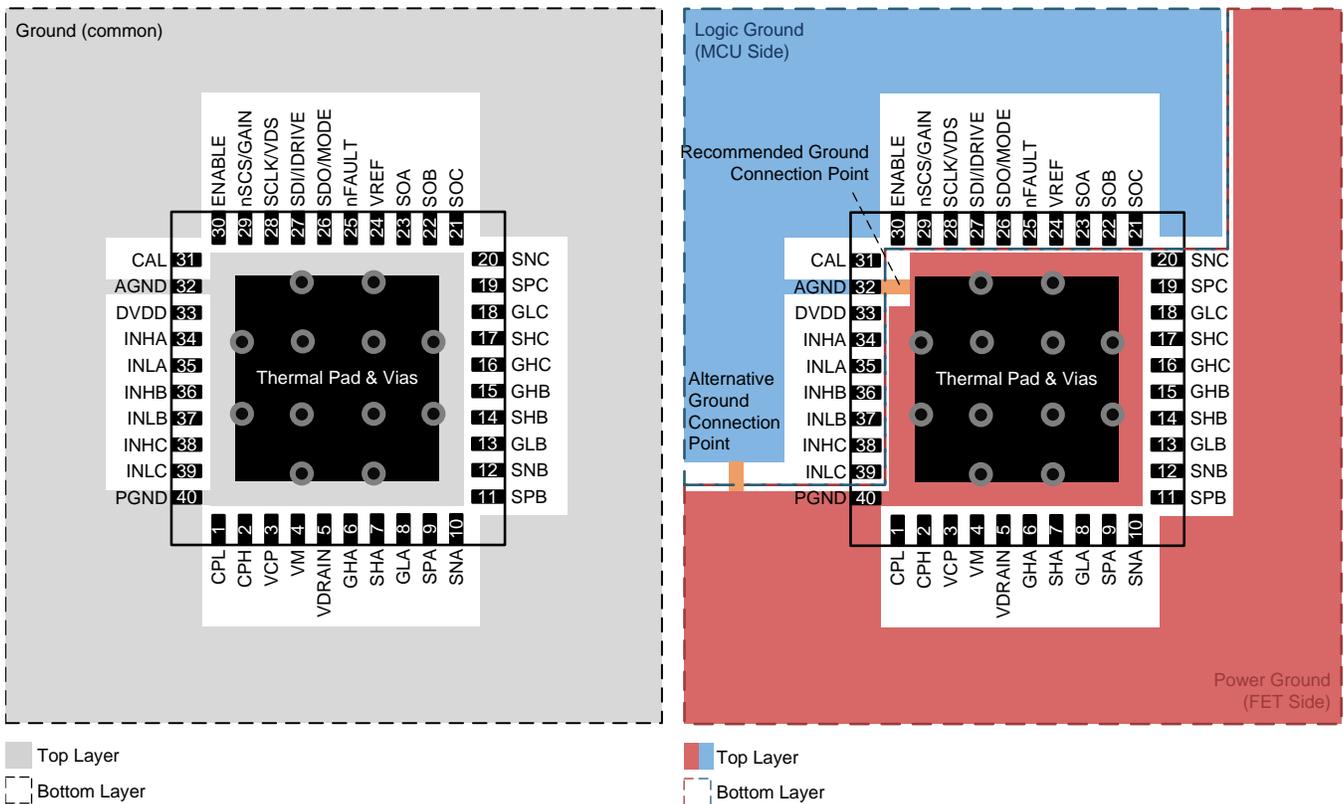


Figure 4. Common Ground Plane vs Split Ground Plane

#### 1.2.1 Two-Layer Board Techniques

If the design is a space-constrained 2-layer board, a ground plane is not always feasible. In this scenario, PCB layout becomes even more significant. Caution must be used to make sure high current paths are routed away from sensitive signals. Noisy parts of the PCB such as the power stage FETs, bootstrap circuits, and charge pumps usually contain high noise and ripple, and should be isolated away from such signals.

### 1.3 Common Problems

#### 1.3.1 Capacitive and Inductive Coupling

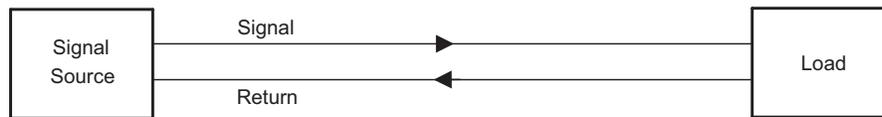
When two traces are run in parallel for even a short distance, capacitive or inductive coupling can occur. Capacitive coupling occurs when a rising edge in one trace causes a rising edge in the other trace. Inductive coupling occurs when one trace has a rising or falling edge and the second trace has a falling or rising edge that is coupled in. Capacitive coupling occurs more frequently than inductive coupling.

The severity of the coupling is a factor of the length of the traces, the frequency of the switching, the voltage change, and the distance between the traces. To decrease capacitive coupling, route noisy signal traces away from important digital and analog signal. Try to route traces over a ground plane.

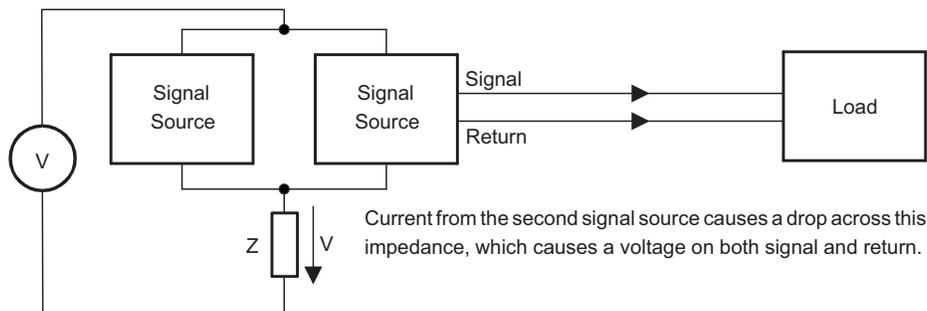
In switching applications with a predriver, special care must be taken to make sure that the high-current carrying ground plane of the predriver is physically isolated from the ground plane of the remaining parts of the IC. These two grounds can be joined at the star-point or single-point grounding location as described in [Section 1.1](#).

#### 1.3.2 Common and Differential Noise

Differential mode noise travels down a trace to a receiving device and then back to the source through a return path, causing a differential voltage between the two traces. Common mode noise occurs when a voltage is generated on both the signal and the return path caused by a voltage drop across a shared impedance. Ground bounce is an example of common mode noise. The possibility for this problem to occur is decreased significantly by making sure all return paths to the source are wide, short, and low impedance traces.



Differential-mode noise is the *noise* voltage when a signal travels to its lead and returns. An output switching is an example of differential-mode noise.



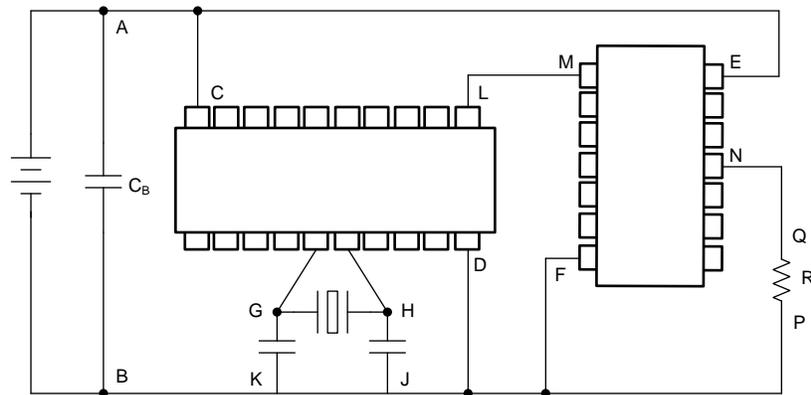
Common-mode noise is the noise voltage that travels down both the signal and return caused by a voltage drop across a shared impedance. Ground bounce on outputs is an example of common-mode noise.

**Figure 5. Differential-Mode vs Common-Mode Noise**

### 1.4 EMC Considerations

The electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) primarily depends on the layout and the electrical connection between the components.

The return path of each signal must flow from the resource to the signal origin which creates current loops. This line loop creates an antenna that can radiate electromagnetic energy which is determined by the current amplitude, the repetition frequency of the signal, and the geometrical area of the current loops. It is recommended to minimize these current loops for optimal EMC performance, [Figure 6](#) shows common types of current loops.



**Figure 6. Current Paths in an Electronic System**

The supply lines in [Figure 6](#) form loops A–C–D–B and A–E–F–B. The energy that the system requires to operate is conducted by these lines.

Loops L–M–F–D, N–Q–P–F, and G–H–J–K are formed by signals and controls. The area these lines enclose is usually small if those lines outside the system are not considered. However, these lines must be considered at high frequency because they often transmit signals which can affect EMC performance.

Current loops can also form when connectors, headers, or other components break up a ground plane. This causes high-frequency components of switching currents to travel further around the board and effectively create a large loop. This can also occur with vias and is highlighted in [Section 3.2.2](#)

## 2 Thermal Overview

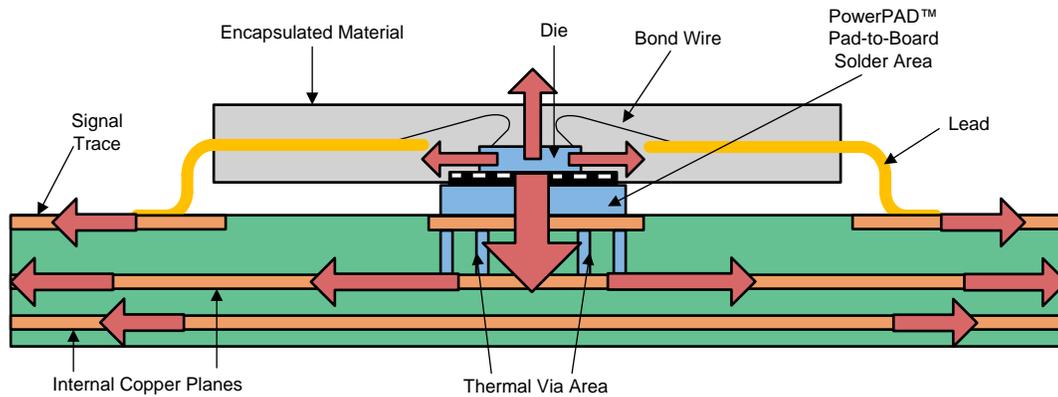
Motor drivers are not ideal devices, in real-world applications some of their power is dissipated internally as heat. The energy converted to heat must be dealt with before damage occurs to the driver. Proper PCB design can effectively remove heat generated by inefficiencies and keep the device at a recommended temperature.

### 2.1 PCB Conduction and Convection

An important consideration for motor driver thermal performance is the pathways which heat generated inside the device can dissipate. Three primary paths for heat to go from the die into lower temperature environments are:

- Encapsulation material
- Bond wires
- Thermal pad

Using these three paths as examples, the thermal pad is the most efficient path for heat to go from the device, followed by the encapsulation material, and finally the bond wires. The technology used in the thermal pad integrated circuit package creates a low thermally resistive path from the die to external copper planes. Therefore the thermal pad can efficiently conduct a large amount of heat away from the die. The thermal pad poured underneath the driver should be large enough to cover the entire area of the thermal pad, and still include a large surface area on other parts of the PCB. The thermal pad should also be tightly bound to the bottom ground plane with several thermal vias placed directly underneath the thermal pad. [Figure 7](#) shows an example of the exit paths used by heat generated in the device die.

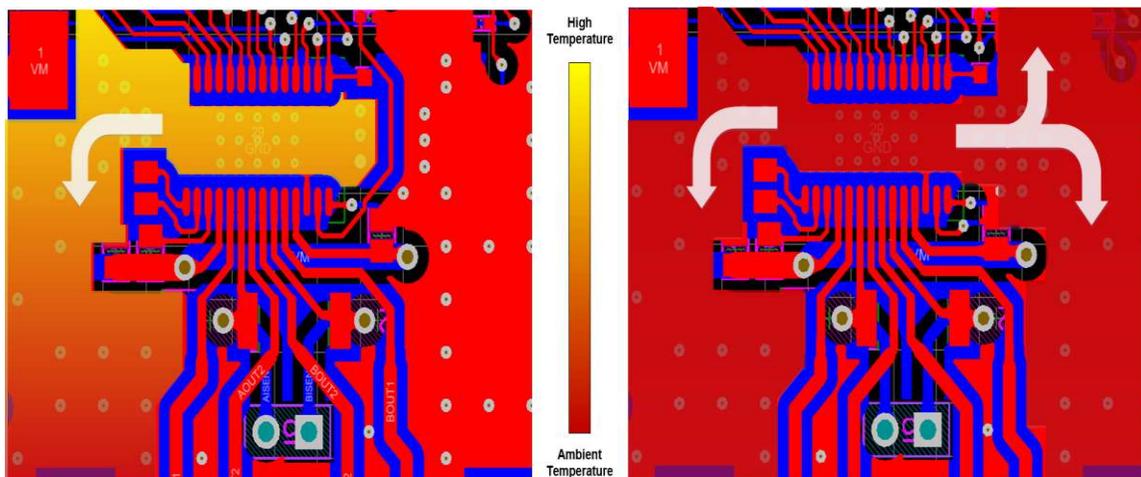


**Figure 7. Cross Section of Thermal Pad™ Package Mounted to PCB and Resulting Heat Transfer**

Connecting both the top and bottom ground planes to the thermal pad of the driver significantly improves the amount of heat dissipated in a PCB design. For this reason, these planes should be made as large as possible in the layout.

## 2.2 Continuous Top-Layer Thermal Pad

Connecting the thermal pad to a solid copper plane is an important requirement to create an exit path for heat generated in the driver die. For the heat to flow away from the device, copper planes must be continuous from the thermal pad to other areas on the board. A best practice is to include a wide exit path from the copper fill underneath the driver into a wide, high surface area plane. If these planes are interrupted, the exit path for heat is constricted which increases the thermal resistance. An increase in the thermal resistance creates a larger temperature differential between the thermal pad and wider surface area on the same plane. [Figure 8](#) shows an example of temperature rise from constricted versus continuous ground pours underneath the driver.



**Figure 8. Broken Ground vs Continuous Ground Pour Heat Map**

Keeping a continuous copper thermal pad underneath the driver is important for efficient device cooling. Incorporating wide paths to high surface area planes keeps the thermal resistance at a minimum between the driver thermal pad and ambient air temperature.

### 2.3 Copper Thickness

While having a continuous, wide plane decreases thermal resistance, the thickness of the copper on the plane is also a critical consideration for PCB thermal performance. By increasing the plating thickness of copper on the PCB, the effective thermal resistance of the plane is decreased. Use Equation 1 to calculate the relationship between copper thickness and plane area.

$$\theta_{Cu} = (1 / \lambda_{Cu} \times \text{Length}) / \text{Area} \quad (1)$$

Assuming a length and width of 1 cm with a plating thickness of 1 ounce (.0035 cm), the approximate thermal resistance for a copper plane laterally joined to the driver is calculated in Equation 2.

$$\theta_{Cu} = (1 / \lambda_{Cu} \times \text{Length}) / \text{Area} = (25^\circ\text{C cm/W} \times 1 \text{ cm}) / 1 \text{ cm} \times 0.0035 \text{ cm} = 71.4^\circ\text{C/W} \quad (2)$$

If the copper thickness is doubled to 2-ounce copper (.007 cm), the thermal resistance for a copper plane laterally joined to the driver with the same dimensions as Equation 2 is calculated in Equation 3.

$$\theta_{Cu} = (1 / \lambda_{Cu} \times \text{Length}) / \text{Area} = (0.25^\circ\text{C cm} / \text{W} \times 1 \text{ cm}) / 1 \text{ cm} \times 0.007 \text{ cm} = 35.7^\circ\text{C/W} \quad (3)$$

If the copper thickness is doubled, the thermal resistance for the same sized plane is halved. Having thicker copper on ground planes connected to the driver contributes to the efficiency of conducting heat away from the device and into the ambient air without causing a significant temperature differential on the board.

### 2.4 Thermal Via Connections

Thermal vias should connect the top and bottom layers together so heat can dissipate from the IC onto both layers. Thermal relief connections should not be used for thermal vias because the path for heat to flow from the top plane through the via to the bottom plane is constricted. This constricted path for heat flow results in an increased temperature on the remaining part of the top plane around the via. Directly connecting vias allows for the lowest possible thermal resistance between the via and copper layers. The thermal via should make their connection to the internal ground plane with a complete connection around the entire circumference of the plated through hole. Do not cover the vias with solder mask which causes excessive voiding. Figure 9 shows temperature differences between thermal relief and direct-connect vias.

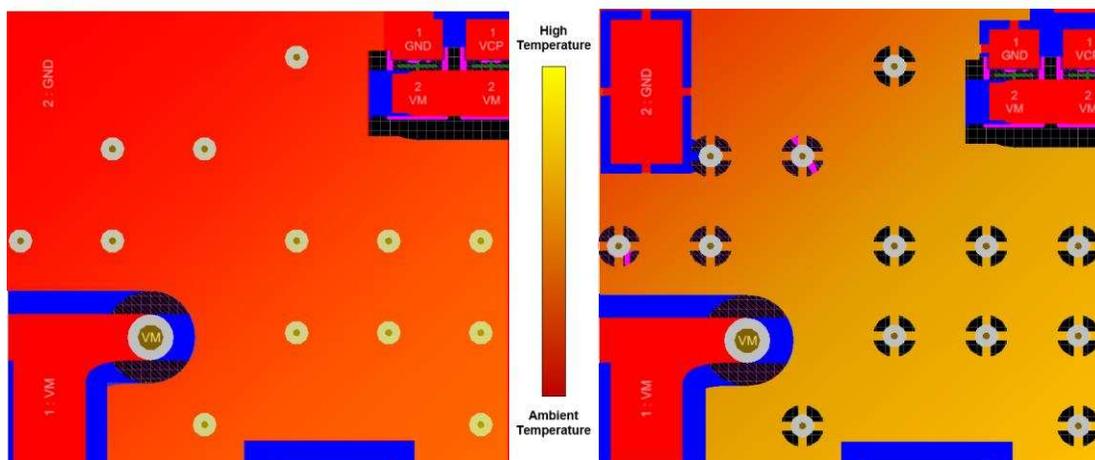


Figure 9. Thermal Relief vs Direct-Connect Heat Map

Thermal relief joints connect planes with vias or components electrically, but they reduce the flow of heat between the component or via and the plane. This is done so a soldering iron or reflow oven only heats the component and ensures a reliable solder connection. This method can be effective for applications where the vias are not required for thermal conduction between planes. However, power applications, such as motor drivers, require that these vias be directly bonded to the plane for optimal thermal performance between layers.

## 2.5 Thermal Via Width

While the thermal pad provides a low impedance thermal path between the die and the top ground plane of the PCB, the thermal impedance of the vias linking the top and bottom ground planes should be considered. Texas Instruments recommends having thermal vias directly beneath the thermal pad that are 20 mil in diameter with a hole size of 8 mil. Use Equation 4 to calculate the thermal resistance of one thermal via through an FR-4 PCB that has a thickness of 1.561 mm.

$$\theta_{Cu} = (1 / \lambda_{Cu} \times \text{Length}) / \text{Area} = (0.25 \text{ cm} / \text{°C/W} \times 0.1561 \text{ cm}) / \pi \times [(0.0508 \text{ cm})^2 - (0.02032 \text{ cm})^2] = 5.7304 \text{ °C/W} \quad (4)$$

Decreasing the diameter of the thermal via or increasing the hole size increases thermal resistance. The suggested 8 mil hole size and 20 mil diameter requires minimal solder wicking from the thermal pad to the bottom layer and keeps the thermal resistance of the via to a minimum. Figure 10 shows recommended via placement.

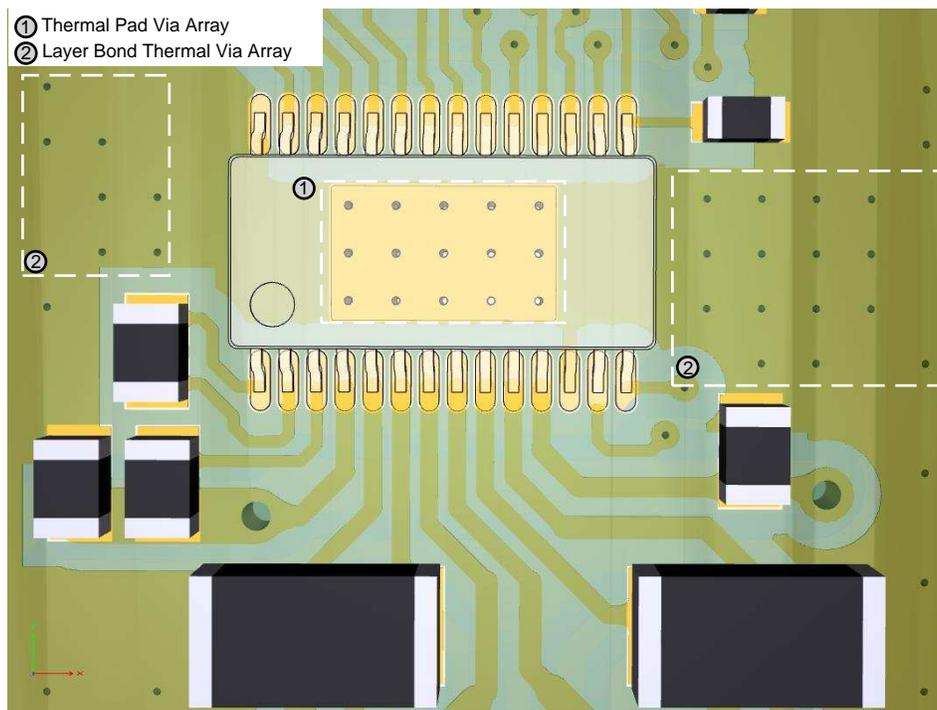


Figure 10. Thermal Via Placement

## 2.6 Summary of Thermal Design

To summarize thermal design, the primary considerations for thermal design in motor driver systems are as follows:

- The thermal pad connection is the most efficient path for device die heat conduction.
- Use continuous top-layer pours from the thermal pad out to the ground planes.
- Use 1.5- or 2-oz copper when possible.
- Use direct-connect thermal vias.
- Use 7.874 mil by 19.874 mil thermal via size to avoid excessive solder wicking.
- Group thermal vias into arrays for minimum thermal resistance between planes

### 3 Vias

A via hole in a PCB has two pads in corresponding positions on different layers of the board which are electrically connected by a hole through the board. The hole is made conductive by electroplating. Several types of vias are available, such as blind vias, buried vias, and thermal vias. For motor driver PCB design, the focus is on normal through-hole vias and thermal vias.

Vias are used frequently in PCB routing for both signal tracks and power tracks. For signal connections, the currents are small (microamperes to milliamperes) and one or two vias may be sufficient to route the signal to another layer. For power connections, multi-vias, or "via stitching," can be added to power or ground traces to ensure low impedance connections between layers and across the power and ground planes. Multi-vias may also be added to dissipate heat from devices down to other board layers as mentioned in [Section 2.4](#).



**Figure 11. Via Connection at the Bottom Copper Plane**

#### 3.1 Via Current Capacity

In motor driver PCB design, multi-vias are often used for high current connections between layers. Giving proper via dimensions and quantity to achieve low resistance and longtime reliability is important. In general, the diameter of the via should at least be the length of the trace. In the case of using a copper plane as a trace, multiple vias should be located close to where current enters or exits the component pins.

[Table 1](#) lists the current capacity for different via diameters for 10°C rise for a 1-oz PCB as per IPC-2152 standard.

**Table 1. Via Current Capacity**

Via Diameter	Current Capacity
6 mil	0.2 A
8 mil	0.55 A
10 mil	0.81 A
12 mil	0.84 A
16 mil	1.1 A

#### 3.2 Via Layout Recommendations

##### 3.2.1 Multi-Via Layout

Multi-vias are useful for low parasitic grounding and high current connections. [Figure 12](#), [Figure 13](#), and [Figure 14](#) show examples of multi-vias placing in different locations of the board design.



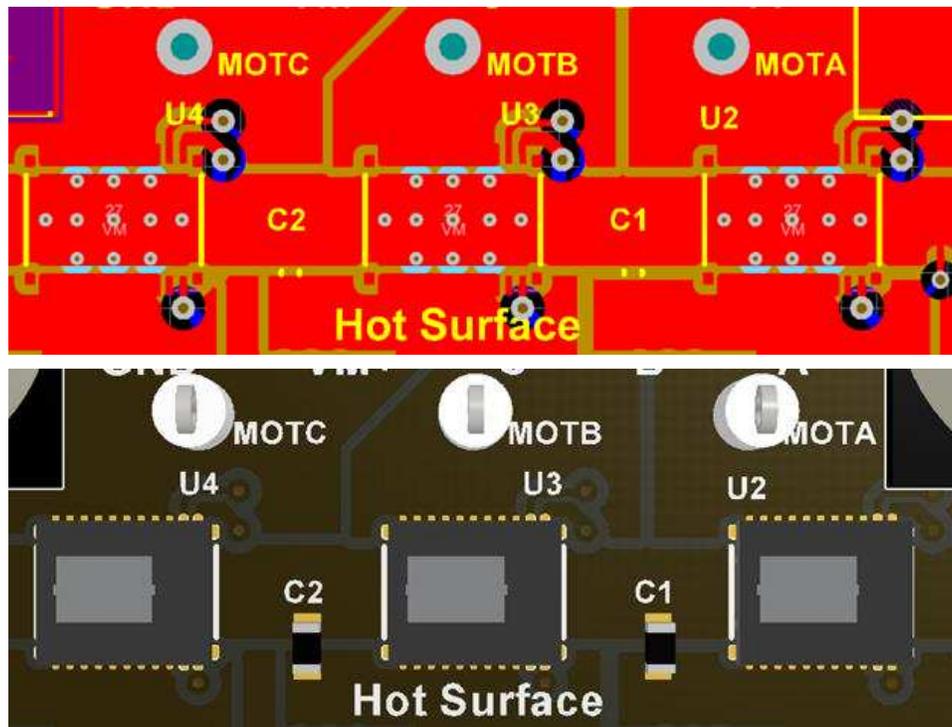


Figure 14. Multi-Via for High-Current Connection

### 3.2.2 Via Placement

Although vias are small, they use space on the PCB and also the ground plane. Having many vias routing together can create a gap on the plane and affect current and ground return. Good via placement creates an ample return path for all signals. Figure 15 shows an example of how to avoid unwanted ground plane splitting by vias.

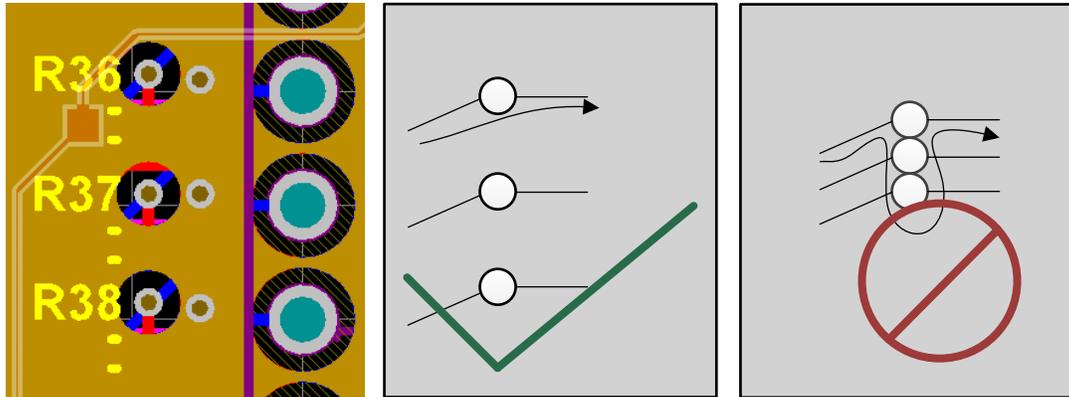


Figure 15. Avoid Ground Plane Splitting by Vias

## 4 General Routing Techniques

Follow these general routing techniques when doing a motor driver PCB design:

- Make gate drive traces wide and as short in length as possible. Start with a trace width of 20 mils for at least a 1 oz copper, more if required by high currents.

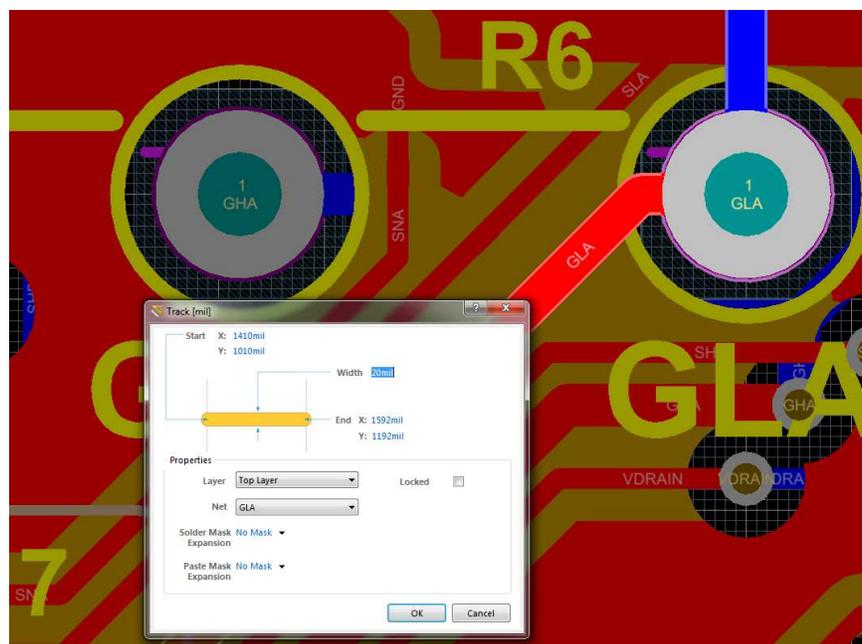


Figure 16. DRV8323xEVM Gate Signal

- Route the signal trace of the high-side gate and the switch node trace as close as possible to minimize inductance, loop area, and the possibility of noise caused by dv/dt switching.

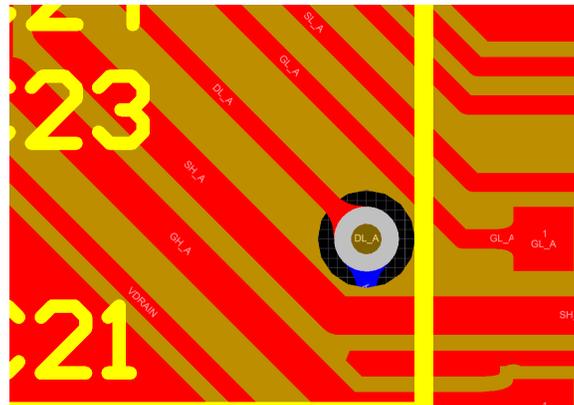


Figure 17. Parallel Gate Traces

- Do not use right-angle traces. A 90 degree bend in a trace acts as an impedance and can cause the current to reflect. When the phases of the motor are switching, the sharp bends can introduce electromagnetic interference (EMI) issues. Circular bends are ideal but may not be practical in actual designs. The best practice for corner routing is to use obtuse angles. Figure 18 shows different examples of angles in traces.

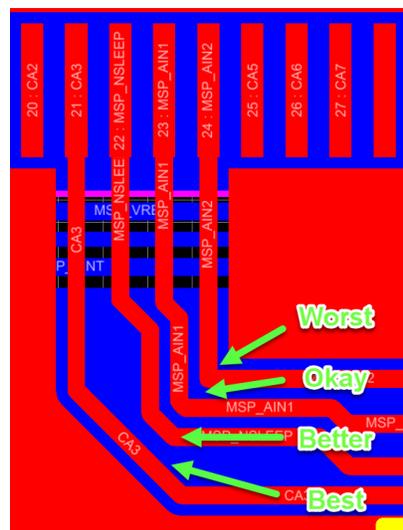


Figure 18. Right Angle Trace

- Transition vias to pads, specifically from thin to thick traces on the output pins. The teardrop technique decreases the thermal stress of the signal transition. This technique also avoids crack of the traces and makes the trace more robust mechanically. The teardrop technique is applicable when going from a small signal to a through-hole pad.

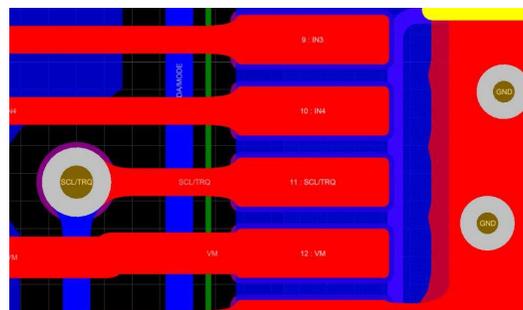
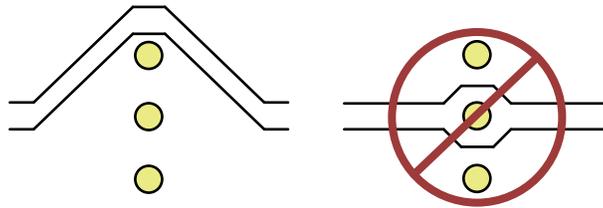


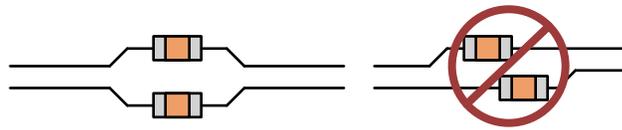
Figure 19. Transitioning Vias to Pads

- Route traces in parallel pairs when routing around an object to avoid differential impedance and discontinuities caused by split traces. This method is important for the signals of the current sense amplifiers.



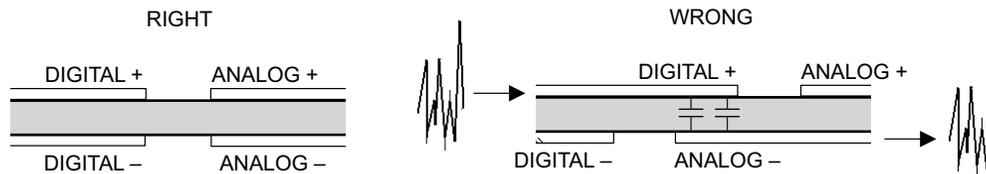
**Figure 20. Routing Parallel Traces**

- Place passive components within the signal path, such as source-matching resistors or ac-coupling capacitors, and next to each other. Placing components in parallel creates wider traces spacing. Staggering components is not recommended as it creates narrow areas.



**Figure 21. Recommended Component Placing**

- Separate grounding for analog and digital portions of circuitry is one of the simplest and most effective methods of noise suppression.



**Figure 22. Analog and Digital Ground Separation**

## 5 Bulk and Bypass Capacitor Placement

### 5.1 Bulk Capacitor Placement

In a motor drive system design, a bulk capacitor minimizes the effects of low-frequency current transient and stores charge to supply large currents required by the motor driver when it switches. When selecting a bulk capacitor, consider the highest current required by the motor system, supply voltage ripple, and type of motor.

Use bulk electrolytic capacitance to help source the low-frequency, high-value currents from the current that is driven through the motor winding. These capacitors usually are greater than 10  $\mu\text{F}$  depending on the application requirements.

Place all bulk capacitors near the power supply module or power entry point of the board. TI recommends that each bulk capacitor have multiple vias connecting the pad to the respective power plane. TI also recommends that all bulk capacitors have low equivalent series resistance (ESR).

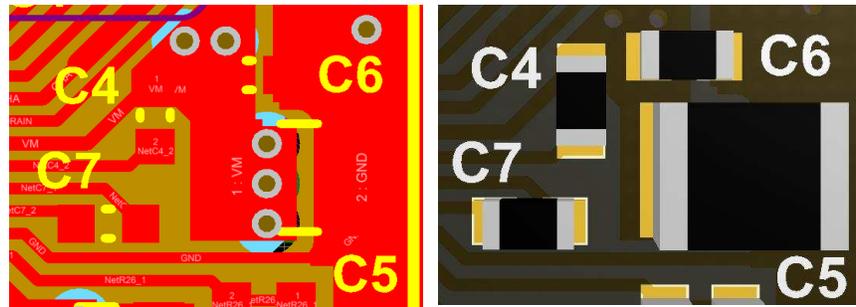


Figure 23. Bulk Capacitor Multi-Via Placement

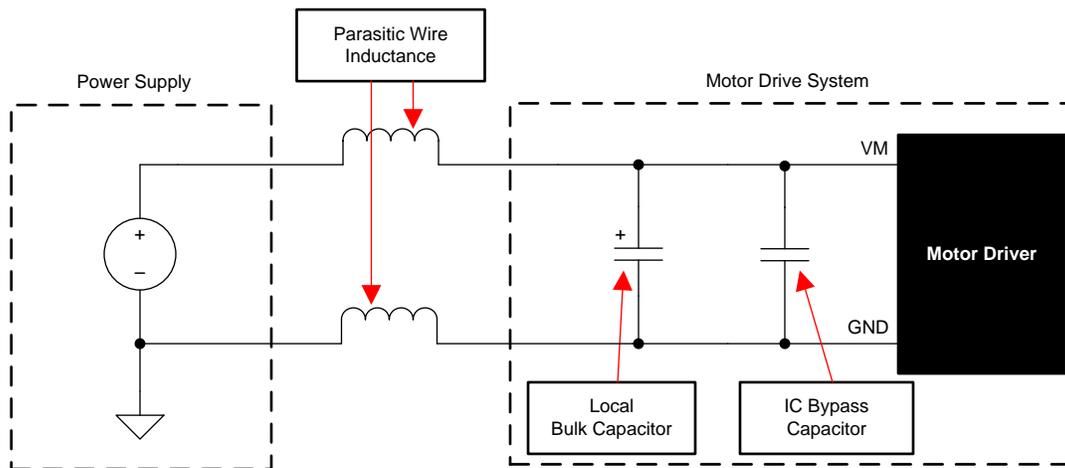


Figure 24. Bulk and Bypass Capacitor Placement

## 5.2 Charge Pump Capacitor

Most of TI's motor drive devices (DRVxx) use charge pump or bootstrap capacitors to fully switch the gate of the high-side N-Channel MOSFET. Place these capacitors as close to the motor drive device as possible. In Figure 25, the C4 capacitor is the capacitance for the charge pump output from VM to the VCP pin, and the C7 capacitor is for the charge-pump switching node.

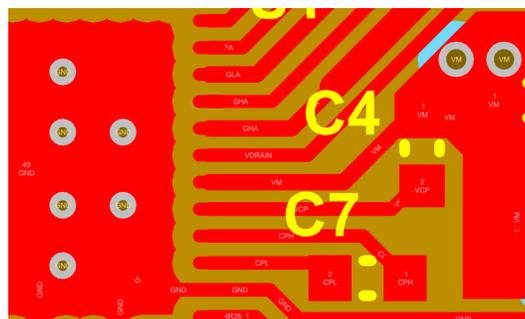
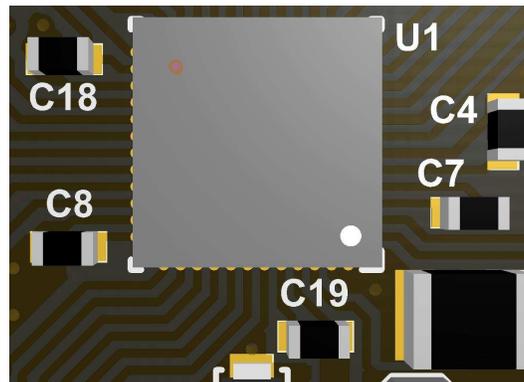


Figure 25. Placement of Charge Pump Capacitors

## 5.3 Bypass/Decoupling Capacitor Placement

### 5.3.1 Near Power Supply

A bypass capacitor is used to minimize high frequency noise into the supply pin of the DRV device. TI recommends placing capacitors as close as possible to the power input pins of the device and ground pins. If the trace lengths between the bypass capacitor and the device are not minimized, they can be inductive at the high frequencies that the bypass capacitor is meant to filter. The added impedance from trace inductance can cause ringing in the voltage or current at the supply pin which contributes to EMI and affects the performance of digital or analog circuits. A best practice is to place the capacitor with the lesser value as close as possible to the device to minimize the influence of the inductance of the trace. Connect larger-value capacitors after the smaller ones because as the value of the capacitor increases the inductance becomes more negligible.



**Figure 26. Decoupling Capacitors Close to Device**

As [Section 3.2](#) shows, the more vias used, the lower the impedance. TI highly recommends using multiple vias at the power and ground layers. Placing vias directly on the mounting pads of the capacitor can be an effective way to minimize the routing area and still achieve the current flow routing. Follow these guidelines for bypass capacitors:

- Do not use vias between the bypass capacitors and the active device. Visualize the high-frequency current flow and reduce loops of high-frequency current as much as possible.
- Make sure bypass capacitors are on the same layer as active components for best results. Do not place a via between the bypass capacitor pin and the IC supply or ground pin.
- Route vias into the bypass capacitors and then into the active component.
- Use the most vias and the widest traces for the best layout.
- The closer the bypass capacitor, the better (less than 0.5 cm, 0.2 in)
- Do not use a length-to-width ratio that is greater than 3:1.

[Figure 27](#) shows an example of good and bad bypassing.

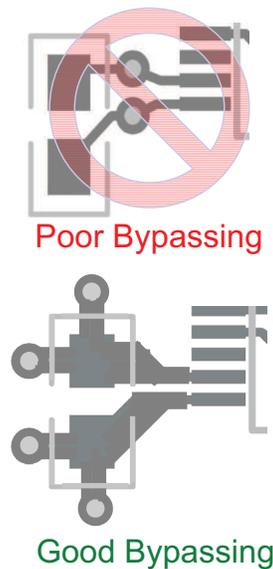


Figure 27. Bypass Capacitor Placement

### 5.3.2 Near Power Stage

For bypass capacitance on the power stage, use small ceramic capacitors to attenuate high frequency currents caused by switching from the MOSFETs and other parasitic capacitances. These capacitors typically have values of capacitance less than 10  $\mu\text{F}$  depending on the application requirements.

Figure 28 shows an H-bridge example with these capacitances.

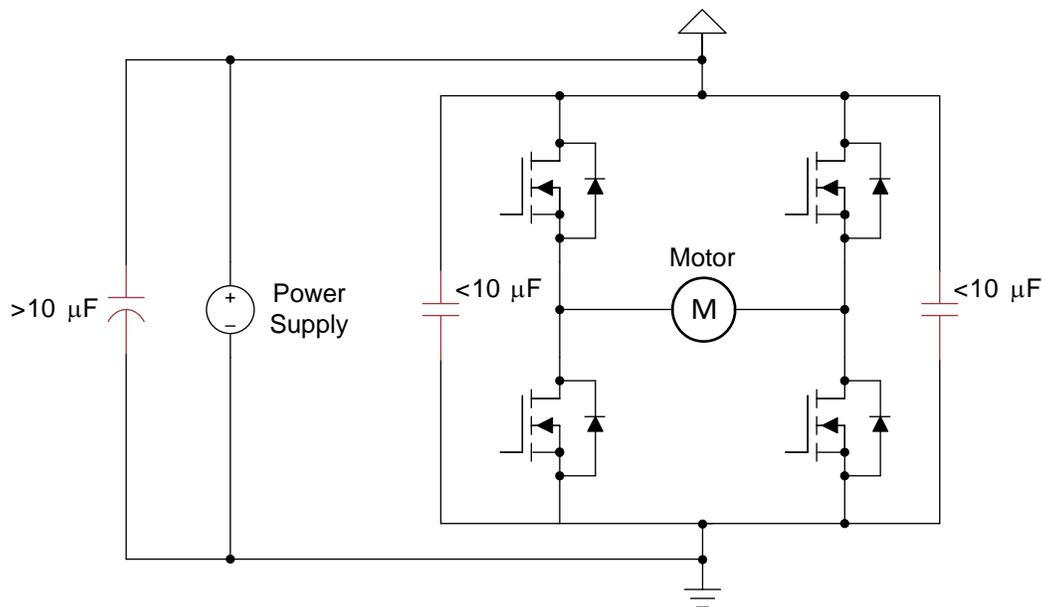
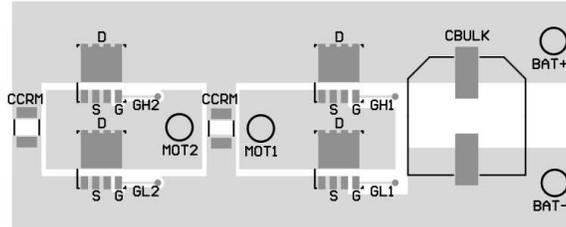


Figure 28. H-Bridge Example With Bypass Capacitances

### 5.3.3 Near Switch Current Source

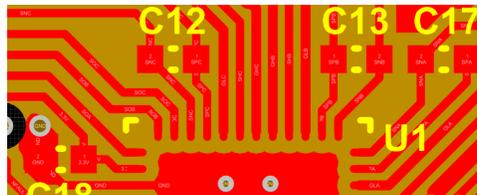
Correct layout and placement of these capacitors is critical to make sure they are effective. Any additional parasitic inductance between the capacitance and the source of the switching current decreases their effect. Ideally, place the capacitors as close as possible to the source of the switching currents, in this case, the motor and MOSFETs. [Figure 29](#) shows an example layout based on the previous schematic example.



**Figure 29. Bypass Capacitor Layout Example**

### 5.3.4 Near Current Sense Amplifiers

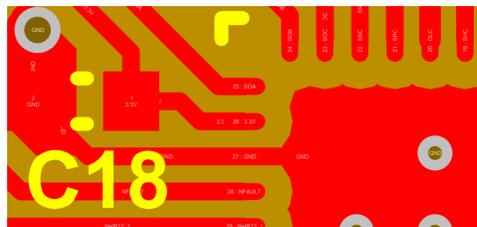
For devices with integrated current sense amplifiers (CSA), TI recommends placing additional decoupling capacitors as close to the sensing pins as possible and using values of approximately 1 nF. [Figure 30](#) shows the decoupling capacitors, C12, C13, and C17.



**Figure 30. SNx and SPx Layout**

### 5.3.5 Near Voltage Regulators

For devices with voltage regulators, place the capacitor as close as possible to the pin. Minimize the ground return loop to the ground pin. As example [Figure 31](#) shows C18 capacitor as close as possible to the DVDD regulator.



**Figure 31. Ground Return Loop for DVDD**

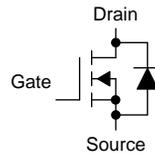
## 6 MOSFET Placement and Power Stage Routing

Placement of the gate driver and power MOSFETs is critical for correct functionality and optimal performance in for pre-driver motor drive solutions. For motor drivers with integrated MOSFETs, such as the [DRV8870](#), [DRV8313](#), [DRV10987](#), [DRV10983-Q1](#), and [DRV8873-Q1](#), the proper routing is already done internally. For gate drivers, such as the [DRV8701](#), [DRV8304](#), [DRV8306](#), [DRV8323](#), [DRV8343-Q1](#), and [DRV8353](#), carefully planning the layout of the PCB and the placement of the power MOSFETs is important. The following sections describe some common MOSFET topologies and present basic layout examples using common motor drive architectures.

## 6.1 Common Power MOSFET Packages

This section describes some of the common package types of N-channel power MOSFETs. The majority of power MOSFETs have one of these four options. By understanding the package types, their dimensions, and pinouts, the PCB can be better designed for an optimal solution.

The symbol in [Figure 32](#) represents an N-channel power MOSFET. While the MOSFET is a four-terminal device with source, gate, drain, and body, the body terminal is usually to the source terminal.

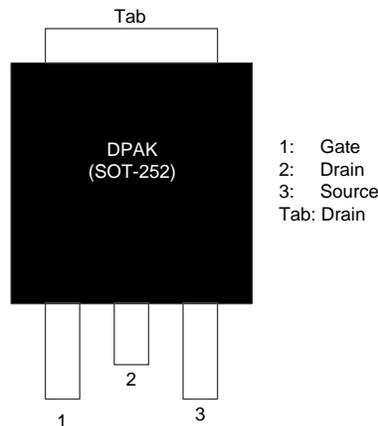


**Figure 32. N-Channel Power MOSFET Symbol**

The MOSFET packages have a direct connection with power stage and thermal dissipation. Different packages have difference routing rules.

### 6.1.1 DPAK

The DPAK (SOT-252) package shown in [Figure 33](#) is one of the most commonly-used packages in the industry. This package offers a compromise between size and performance. The DPAK package is often used for high power MOSFETs and voltage regulators.



**Figure 33. DPAK Package**

### 6.1.2 D2PAK

The D2PAK (SOT-252) package (see [Figure 34](#)) is a larger version of the DPAK package that can provide greater thermal dissipation.

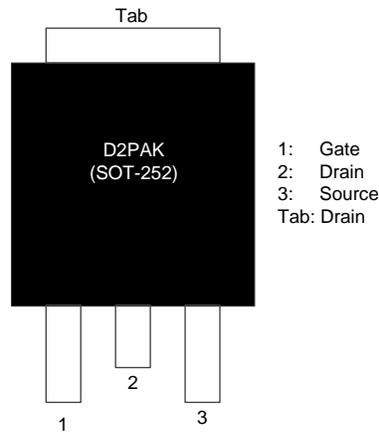


Figure 34. D2PAK Package

### 6.1.3 TO-220

The TO-220 package (see [Figure 35](#)) is a through-hole MOSFET package. The upright tab can be used to mount a heat sink. The disadvantage of using this package is that it requires more space and usually is higher than surface mount package, such as the DPAK and D2PAK packages.

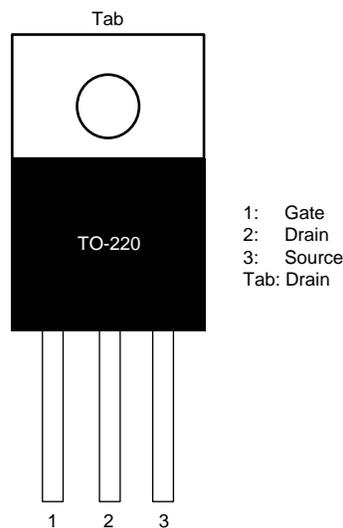


Figure 35. TO-220 Package

### 6.1.4 8-Pin SON

The 8-pin SON package (see Figure 36) is the most common no-lead package. This package offers a solution for minimal board space and optimal performance. The majority of leaded packages have a similar pinout. The 8-pin SON package is unique because the gate pin is on the opposite side when compared to the leaded packages (TO-252 and TO-220).

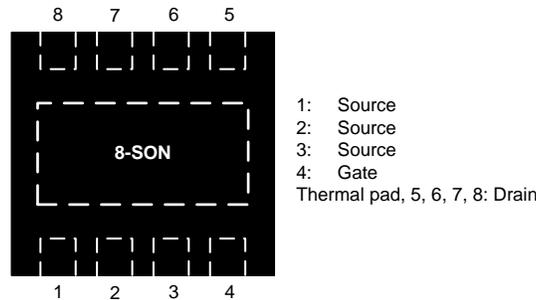


Figure 36. 8-Pin SON Package

## 6.2 MOSFET Layout Configurations

Figure 37 and Figure 38 show common MOSFET placements and layout for two typical configurations; half-bridge stack and half-bridge side-by-side (respectively), for both leaded and non-leaded packages.

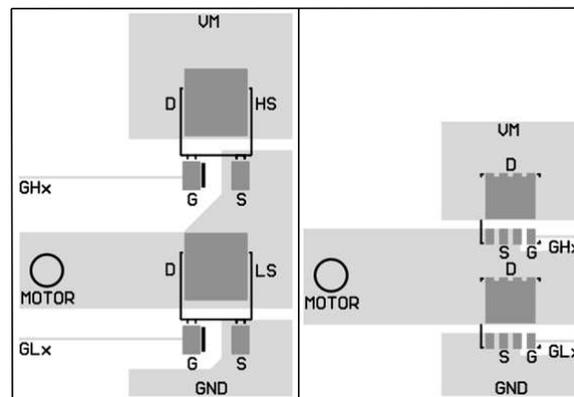


Figure 37. Half-Bridge Stack Configuration

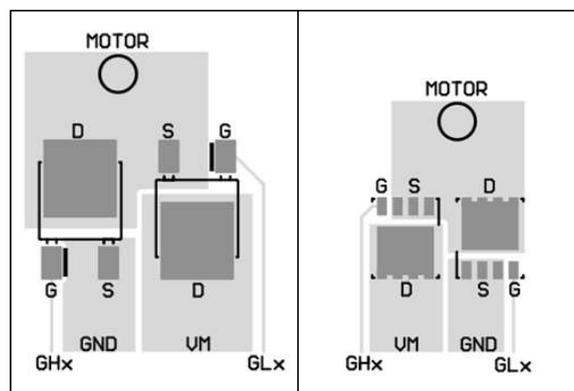
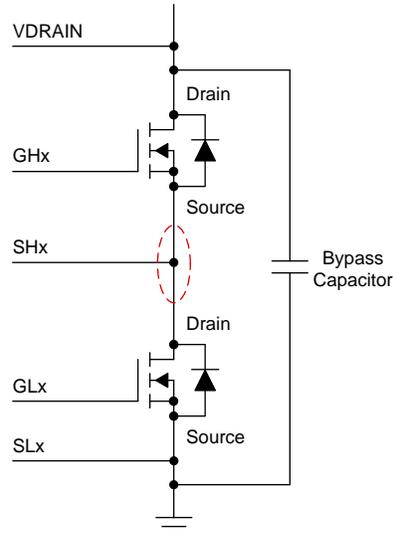


Figure 38. Half-Bridge Side-by-Side Configuration

These layouts for half-bridges can be repeated for multiple half-bridge topologies, including H-bridge (two-half-bridges), inverter (three half-bridges), and dual H-bridge (four half-bridges).

### 6.3 Power Stage Layout Design

After selecting the correct placement for the power MOSFETs, the next step is to make sure routing is correct. Because the MOSFET is used in a high power, switching application for motor drive, the design is sensitive to parasitics introduced by non-ideal layouts. This section describes some of the critical signals to be routed and the best practices for managing them. Power stage is shown in [Figure 39](#).



**Figure 39. Half-Bridge Power Stage with Switch Node**

#### 6.3.1 Switch Node

The switch-node is the connection between the source pin of the high-side MOSFET and drain pin of the low-side MOSFET as shown in [Figure 41](#). This node is the net that is ultimately connected to the load, which is a motor in this application. The switch node is the most critical signal to be routed in the half-bridge configuration because the high-frequency, high-current nature of the signal on this net. The circuit shown in [Figure 39](#) has many non-ideal parasitics caused by the PCB and the power MOSFETs. [Figure 40](#) shows a few of these primary parasitics which are the primary causes of a phenomenon called switch-node ringing.

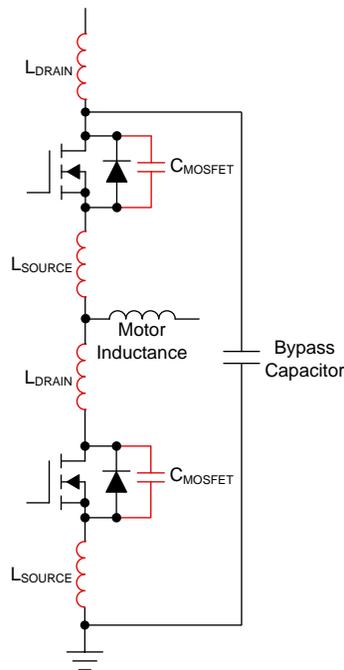


Figure 40. Half-Bridge Parasitics

Switch-node ringing is an LC oscillation on the switch-node due to the parasitics of the PCB and power MOSFETs. Switch-node ringing causes EMI and creates overshoot and undershoot voltages which can violate the absolute maximum ratings of the MOSFET drain-to-source voltage and the gate driver pins. It also can decrease the efficiency of the power stage.

Methods are available to address switch-node ringing through the external measures and system adjustments (reducing slew rates, external snubbers, and others) but a fundamentally sound layout can address many of these primary issues. The layout example in Figure 41 shows a design that minimizes the inductance between the source of the high-side MOSFET and drain of the low-side MOSFET. Best practice is to minimize the length and maximize the width of the copper plane connection and using MOSFET packages with minimum parasitic inductance.

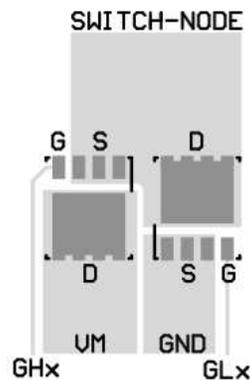
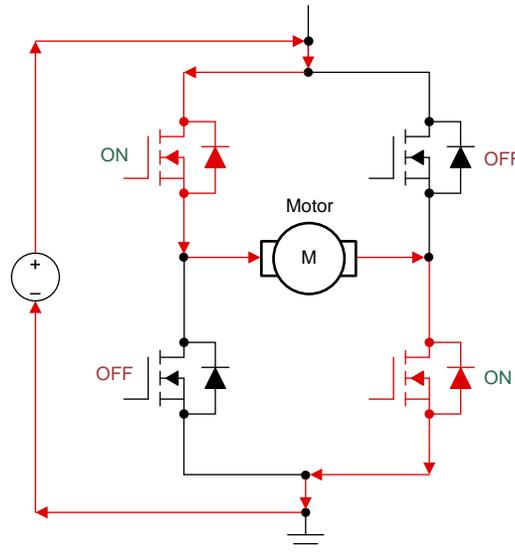


Figure 41. Switch-Node Layout Example

### 6.3.2 High-Current Loop Paths

Because motor applications depend on high switching currents, minimizing the overall loop inductance of the high current path is critical. Minimizing this inductance minimizes voltage ripple and noise, and it can reduce the need for extra bypass capacitance.

In the motor system, the high current loop is traced from the positive terminal of the power supply, through the high-side power MOSFET, through the motor winding, through the opposite low-side MOSFET, and back to the negative terminal of the power supply. [Figure 42](#) shows this flow with in an H-bridge example.

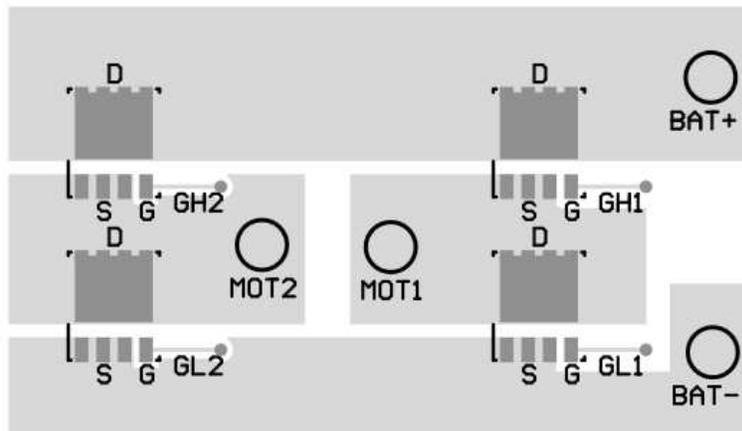


**Figure 42. High-Current Loop Path Example**

The high current loop path should be minimized by doing the following:

- Use correct trace widths for the full high current loop. Increasing the trace width decreases parasitic inductance.
- Use correct placement to minimize the distance between components. Decreasing the trace length decreases parasitic inductance.
- Minimize the number of layer jumps in the high current path and use correct via sizing and numbers when jumping layers with a high current trace.

[Figure 43](#) shows an example layout of an optimized high-current loop.



**Figure 43. High-Current Loop Path Layout Example**

### 6.3.3 VDRAIN Sense Pin

The VDRAIN pin is used to sense the high-side MOSFET drain voltage. Motor drive devices that have a VDRAIN pin must be routed with some consideration for best performance. Because the voltage supply first goes to the drain of the high-side MOSFETs the routing of the VDRAIN pin is critical to the layout. The VDRAIN pin provides a Kelvin connection for the voltage supply (VM) which allows monitoring the VDS voltage of the high-side MOSFET in the case of an overcurrent event (see [Figure 44](#)). Because the VM connection in the power stage is usually composed of a large copper plane and wide traces to support the required current, the additional inductance and voltage drops of the plane could affect the VDS measuring accuracy. Therefore, route the VDRAIN pin in a single trace directly to the drain of the external power MOSFETs. TI recommends using a Net Tie close to the drain to minimize additional inductance that can lead to false OCP faults (see [Figure 45](#)).

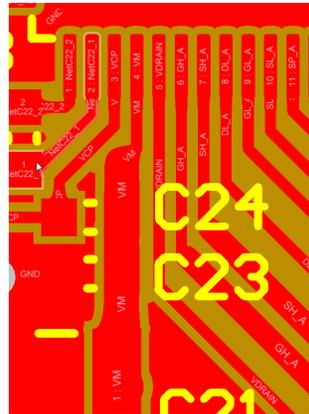


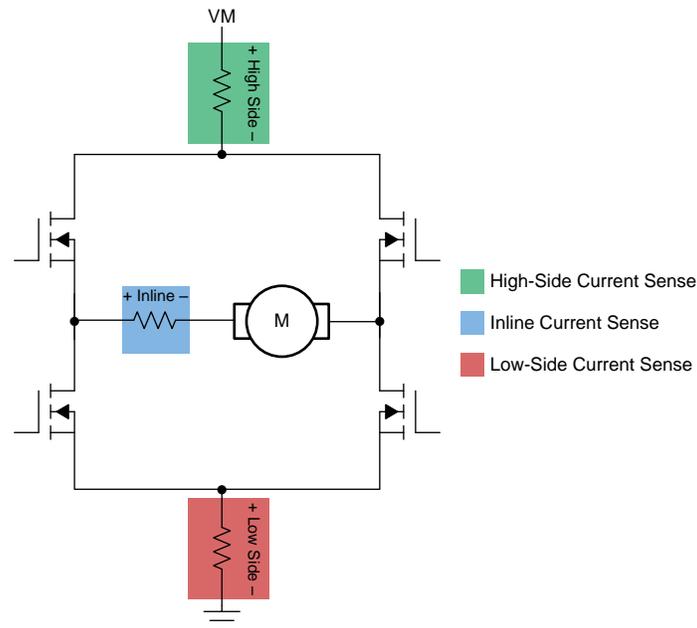
Figure 44. VDRAIN Kelvin Connection



Figure 45. Net Tie High-Side MOSFET Drain

## 7 Current Sense Amplifier Routing

Included with TI's wide range of motor drivers are devices that feature built-in current sensing, most of which use an external shunt resistor as the measurement source. Including the current sense amplifier with the driver provides an all-in-one solution for the motor interface, and it allows higher-quality current sensing at a lower cost. [Figure 46](#) shows all the current sense topologies available.

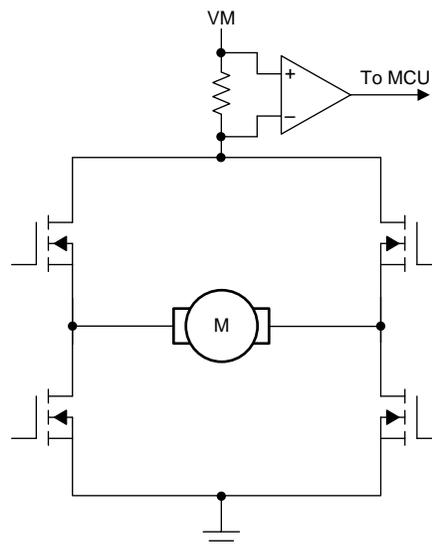


**Figure 46. Current Sense Topologies**

The integrated current sense amplifiers (CSAs) built into these devices typically fall into three categories, each with their benefits. These categories are described in the following sections.

### 7.1 Single High-Side Current Shunt

Figure 47 shows a circuit for high-side current sense.



**Figure 47. High-Side Current Sense**

The benefits of using high-side current sense include:

- Directly measures current from supply
- Can detect load shorts
- Immune to ground disturbance

A tradeoff of using high-side current sense is that it requires more common-mode voltage.

## 7.2 Single Low-Side Current Shunt

Figure 48 shows a circuit for low-side current shunt.

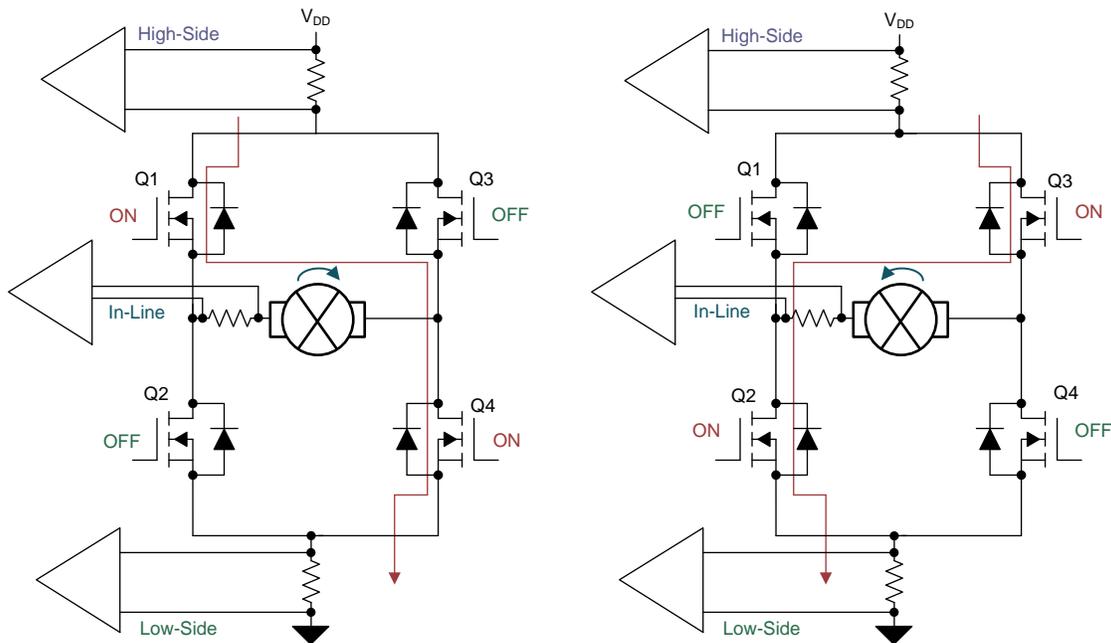


Figure 48. Low-Side Current Sense

A benefit of using a low-side current shunt is that it requires less common-mode voltage.

The tradeoffs of using a low-side current shunt is that it is more susceptible to ground noise and cannot detect ground shorts.

## 7.3 Two-Phase and Three-Phase Current Shunt Amplifiers

Figure 49 shows a circuit with two-phase and three-phase CSAs.

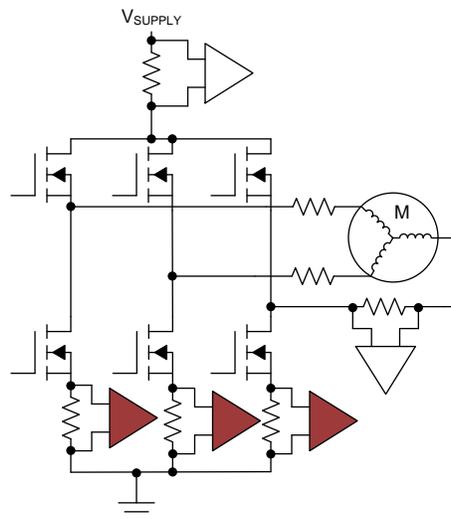


Figure 49. Two-Phase and Three-Phase CSAs

Two-phase and three-phase CSAs are a benefit to board layout because they have low common-mode voltage requirements. They also let each channel be measured individually, and therefore can be used in more complex control schemes such as field-oriented control.

The tradeoffs of using two-phase and three-phase CSAs in board layout include:

- Higher susceptibility to ground noise
- Cannot detect ground shorts
- Could require more software to realize the total system current

## 7.4 Component Selection

When selecting the sense resistor, there are fundamental tradeoffs between accuracy and power consumption. Because the large currents in the power stage flow through the sense resistor, the selected resistor value must be small to keep the power dissipation at a minimum. For high current systems, the resistor value is usually in  $m\Omega$ . For example, a system that drives 20 A of current and uses a 1- $m\Omega$  sense resistor will dissipates 400 mW from that resistor. Under this condition, the input of the CSA only receives 20 mV of signal. Increasing the resistor value can improve the signal-to-noise ratio but will also increase the power dissipation.

The performance parameters of the CSA must also be considered. When designing for the worst-case current in the system, the selected shunt resistor should prevent voltages on the current sense input pins that are higher than the absolute maximum ratings of the CSA. During normal operation, this voltage must stay within the specified parameters for the differential voltage range. To select the sense resistor, refer to the device data sheet.

For devices that use external gain resistors, such as the [DRV3201-Q1](#), select components that have high accuracy. Component mismatch causes large variations in both the common mode and differential mode gains across systems.

## 7.5 Placement

Placement of the sense resistor should be in line with the components of the power stage to minimize trace impedance. The shunt resistor should also be placed close to the connection to the CSA to decrease the possibility of coupling on other traces on the board.

For high-side current sense, the shunt resistor should be near the star point between the supply and the source of the high-side MOSFETs. For high-side current sense devices that use external gain resistors, such as the [DRV3205-Q1](#), the first resistor in the divider should be placed nearest to the shunt resistor. The remaining components should be placed nearest to the device.

For low-side current sense, the shunt resistor should be between the source of the low-side MOSFET and the star point ground connection of the power stage.

For systems with shunt resistors on two or three individual phases, the shunt resistor should be placed between the source of the respective low-side MOSFET and the star point ground connection.

## 7.6 Routing

Routing of the sense signals must be done using a differential pair. In a differential pair, both signals are tightly coupled in the layout and the traces must run parallel from the shunt or sense resistor to the CSA at the input of the IC.

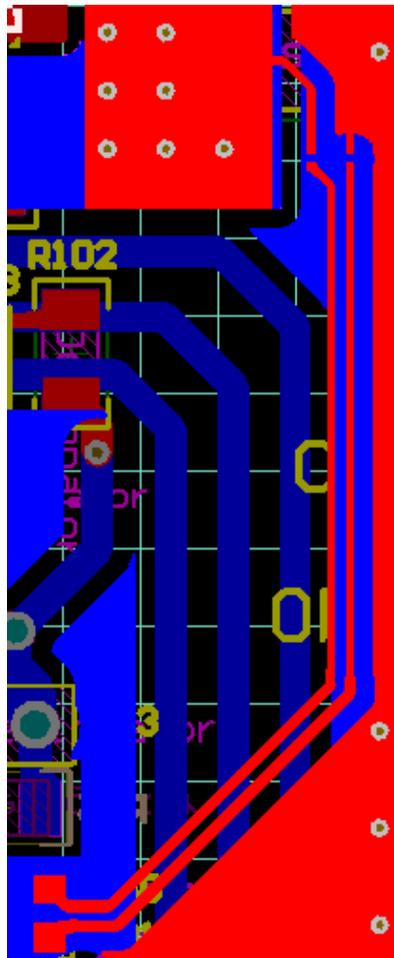


Figure 50. Sense Amplifier Routing

### 7.7 Useful Tools (Net Ties and Differential Pairs)

Many modern CAD tools implement features that can help the layout engineer correctly route the PCB. The features described in this section are part of the Altium Designer tool; however, many other tools have similar features.

When routing a PCB during the initial stages, the guides that help show which component routes where can be deceptive in the case of the sense resistor routing. In the case of the low-side shunt resistor, the negative input could direct straight to ground, and the positive input could direct to the low-side source pin. To avoid this situation, place a Net Tie between the device and the shunt resistor so that the designer can place the route restriction during placement instead of during routing. Figure 51 shows an example of Net Tie placement.

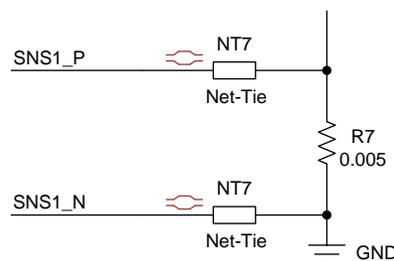


Figure 51. Net Tie Placement Example

The layout technique of using differential pairs reduces common-mode noise by routing two tightly coupled signals in parallel. TI recommends using a differential pair to route the signals from the shunt resistor to the CSA. To reduce noise coupling further, do not route noise-sensitive traces parallel to noisy (switching) signals.

### 7.8 Input and Output Filters

The input and output filters for the sense amplifier are placed as close to the sense amplifier as possible. This placement makes sure the unwanted noise received by the device is limited between the filter and the sense amplifier. Figure 52 shows an example layout of the input filters (C40, R30, and R31).

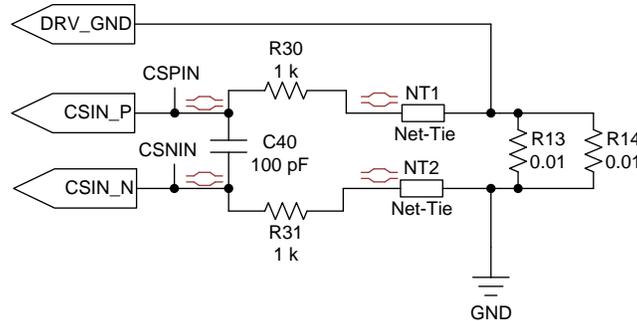


Figure 52. Input and Output Filter Schematic

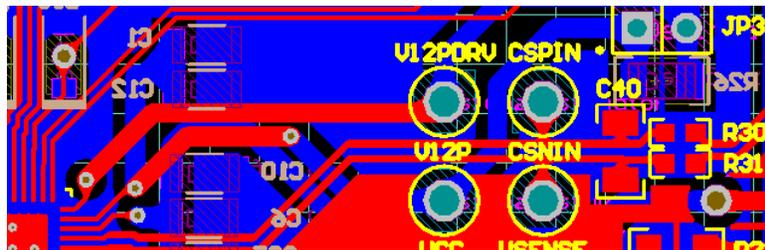


Figure 53. Input and Output Filter Layout

### 7.9 Do's and Don'ts

When designing the board layout for a motor driver, do the following:

- Use Kelvin connections
- Make the layout symmetrical
- Close all connections
- Use Net Ties and differential routing tools