

ountain Street, Framingham, Massachusetts 01701 U.S.A. Telephone: (617) 872-8841 • Teletype 710 346-0678 Cable THERMISTOR, FRAMINGHAM. MA

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Fenwal Electronics was founded in 1955 to manufacture precision thermistors and thermistor sensor assemblies. It has pioneered in the work of applying the unique characteristics of these versatile semiconductors to a broad range of consumer, industrial, aerospace and military applications.

The manufacturing facility at 63 Fountain Street, Framingham, Massachusetts 01701, U.S.A., has been surveyed and approved by major contractors from every part of the world and by various government agencies including all branches of the military and NASA. Many types of testing required in the production of high reliability products is performed by Fenwal Electronics either at our main plant or through facilities at affiliate plants. The capability to meet and exceed rigid high reliability design requirements, enabled Fenwal Electronics to participate in

virtually every major military and aerospace program. Quality control facilities comply with MIL-Q-9858A and have been Air Force approved to conduct QPL testing to MIL-T-23648A.

The ever increasing number of users and applications for thermistors demands that thermistor manufacturers provide high reliability and quality as an integral part of every thermistor purchased. Fenwal Electronics prides itself on being that kind of a company. Past and present performances tell the story of why Fenwal Electronics is one of the major thermistor manufacturers in the world and why we have always been a leader in the field of thermistor and thermistor assembly design applications.

At Fenwal Electronics, we prove daily ... " Worldwide Thermistor Leadership through Quality''

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NTC TYPE

WHAT ARE THERMISTORS?

Thermistors are "thermal resistors" or resistors with a high negative temperature coefficent of resistance. As the temperature increases, the resistance decreases and as the temperature decreases, the resistance increases. This is just opposite to the effect of temperature changes on metals.

Thermistors are semiconductors of ceramic material made by sintering mixtures of metallic oxides such as manganese, nickel, cobalt, copper, iron and uranium. Although these materials and their semiconducting characteristics have been known for nearly 200 years, only in the last 30 years have techniques of producing thermistors been well enough developed to permit production of reproducible and stable units. Various mixtures of these metallic oxides are formed into useful shapes. Their electrical characteristics may be controlled by varying the type of oxide used and the physical size and configuration of the thermistor. Standard forms now available are:

BEADS: Beads are made by forming small ellipsoids of thermistor material on two fine wires tight and parallel about 0.01 inches apart. The material is sintered at high temperature and the leads become embedded tightly in the beads making good electrical contact inside the thermistors. Beads may be coated with glass for protection or they may be mounted in evacuated or gas-filled bulbs. Resistance values of 10 ohms to over 100 megohms can be obtained in beads ranging from 0.006 to 0.050 inches in diameter.

GLASS PROBES: Beads sealed into the tips of solid glass rods of up to 0.1 inches diameter and $\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 inches in length.

DISCS: Discs are made by pressing thermistor material under several tons of pressure in a round die to produce flat pieces like a coin. These pieces are sintered and then coated with silver on the two flat surfaces. Standard discs are from 0.05 inch to 1 inch in diameter and 0.010 to 0.25 inches thick. Resistance values of 1 ohm to 1 megohm can be produced in this way.

WASHERS: Washers are made like discs except that a hole is formed in the center so the unit can be mounted on a bolt. Several washers may be mounted together on a bolt with terminals between them so they may be connected either in series or parallel as desired. Standard washers are 0.77 inches in diameter.

RODS: Rods are extruded through dies to make long cylindrical units which are normally 0.053, 0.110, or 0.173 inches in diameter and from $1/2$ to 2 inches long. Leads are attached to the end of the rods and resistance values can be provided from 1,000 ohms to 150,000 ohms. The major advantage of rods over other configurations is the ability to produce high resistance units with moderately high power handling capability.

E-l CURVE-MATCHED THERMISTOR PAIRS: Matched thermistor assemblies designed for use in gas Chromotographic equipment and other thermal conductivity gas analysis instruments. Each bead is mounted to a special hermetically sealed stem. For maximum sensitivity, the higher resistance units should be used at higher temperatures. Ask for E-l Curve Manual L-7.

VACUUM AND GAS FILLED ASSEMBLIES: Vacuum and gas filled assemblies are uniquely qualified as transducers because of two inherent characteristics: first, is their high sensitivity to small variations in their own temperature and second, is their ability to operate in the " self-heated mode." In thermal conductivity instrumentation, these units may be used in high accuracy flowmeters, anemometers and vacuum gauges for use as sensing thermistors to detect minute thermal changes caused by the presence or flow of a liquid or gas. Ask for E-l Curve Manual L-7.

LINEAR THERMISTOR NETWORKS (LTNTM): Precision resistors and thermistors which are designed to produce a resistance change or voltage output that varies linearly with temperature over the selected temperature range. Ask for Bulletin L-9A.

MID-TEMP. BEAD AND PROBE THERMISTORS: Useage at higher MID-TEMR range from 200°C to 600°C now possible for thermistor users previously limited to temperature range of 300°C. Ask for Bulletin L-10.

THERMISTOR CONFIGURATIONS

FENWAL ELECTRONICS offers the broadest variety of Thermistor Sensors and Thermistor Sensor Assemblies in the world. We offer over 1,000 standard units and will provide engineering assistance to guarantee customized units that will satisfy your design applications. Listed below are basic thermistor configurations which are available in a broad range of resistances, temperature ranges, sizes, etc.

WHAT ARE THERMISTORS?

(continued)

Precision Interchangeable R-T Curve Matched Thermistors

ISO-CURVE CURVE-MATCHED, INTERCHANGEABLE THERMISTORS: Special glass bead and glass probe thermistors that have been precision matched at the factory to standardized resistance-temperature curves and are designated for use at temperatures to 300°C. They have the unique and valuable characteristic of complete electrical interchangeability. In addition they offer all of the functional advantages associated with standard thermistors, including large resistance change per degree of temperature change which provides high accuracy and resolution. Thermistors are normally rated by the value of their resistance at 25°C. Standard units having the same rated resistance, however, will not exhibit identical resistance-versus-temperature characteristics over their full temperature range. ISO-CURVE thermistors, on the other hand, will match a specified R-T curve over the full temperature range required. ISO-CURVE thermistors are available at the present time in a number of standardized R-T curve values; 500, 1K, 2K, 4K, 15K, 16K, 25K, 100K and 400K ohms. These standard curves represent permanent specifications and an F. E. ISO-CURVE thermistor purchased five years from now will be perfectly interchangeable with one of the same value purchased today. Ask for ISO-CURVE Thermistor Manual L-2B.

UNI-CURVE INTERCHANGEABLE CURVE-MATCHED THERMISTORS: A companion to the famous ISO-CURVE units. UNI-CURVE thermistors are high quality, low cost epoxy coated R-T curve-matched interchangeable thermistors designed for use at temperatures to 150°C. They offer additional cost savings by eliminating the need for individual R-T calibration, as well as standardization of circuit components, and simplify design and replacement problems. They are particularly well suited for use in applications such as temperature measurement, indication and control, also for compensation of ambient temperature effects on copper coils, transistors, integrated circuits and other semiconductor devices. UNI-CURVES are available at the present time in a number of standard resistance values; 100, 300, 500, 1,000, 2252, 3K, 5K, 10K, 30K, 50K and 100K ohms. Fenwal Electronics high volume UNI-CURVE manufacturing capability provides availability of interchangeable thermistors at low cost with the quality and ruggedness to meet the rigid design requirements of MIL-T-23648. Ask for UNI-CURVE Thermistor Manual L-6A.

THERMISTOR PROBE ASSEMBLIES: Standardized or special customized thermistor assemblies, provided in complete, ready-to-mount housings, enable you to take advantage of the precision and interchangeability of Fenwal Electronics thermistors. A complete line of thermistor probe assemblies is available for a variety of missile, aircraft and industrial applications, including liquid level indication and control, temperature measurement and control of liquids, solids, gases and other applications. Calibration can be supplied with probe assemblies at desired temperatures. Thermistor probe assemblies with identical resistancetemperature curves are available to close tolerances over a wide temperature range. Most of these housings can be made to meet military specifications if required. Ask for Thermistor Housing Manual L-5A.

WHAT DO THERMISTORS DO?

There are three important characteristics of thermistors that make them useful in electronic and electrical circuits.

RESISTANCE-TEMPERATURE CHARACTERISTIC: The resistance of a thermistor is solely a function of its absolute temperature. Since electrical power being dissipated within a thermistor will heat it above its ambient temperature and thereby reduce its resistance, it is necessary to test for resistance with a very small amount of power so there will be no measurable increase in the thermistor temperature. The resistance so measured is called Ro, which means the resistance at essentially zero power.

*The typical theoretical mathematical expression which relates the resistance and the absolute temperature of a thermistor is as follows: 2. \mathcal{L}

$$
\frac{\text{Ro}\left(\text{T}_1\right)}{\text{Ro}\left(\text{T}_2\right)} = \text{e}^{\beta\left(\frac{1}{\text{T}_1} - \frac{1}{\text{T}_2}\right)}
$$

Where:

Ro (T_1) is the resistance at absolute temperature T_1 .

Ro (T_2) is the resistance at absolute temperature T_2 .

e is 2.718.

 β is a constant which depends on the material used to make the thermistor.

Unless otherwise specified all values of β are determined from measurements made at 0° C and 50° C. The range of *f* values for Fenwal Electronics' thermistor materials is typically 3000-5000.

The temperature coefficient of a thermistor or alpha " α ["] is expressed in the following equation:

$$
\alpha_{\text{T}} = \frac{1}{R_{\text{T}}} \frac{dR_{\text{T}}}{dT} \text{ OHMS/OHM/}^{\circ}\text{C}
$$
\nwhich is approximately equal to $-\frac{\beta}{T^2}$

The value of α ^T is more useful when expressed in %/°C. and in some cases is as high as —5.8% at room temperature as compared to .36% for platinum. αT is not a constant, but varies smoothly over the whole temperature range. This value is a useful measure of thermistor's sensitivity to temperature change and is higher at low temperatures

Curve No. 1 shows the resistance variation of two basic Fenwal Electronics' thermistor materials with temperature, and also shows the resistance variation of platinum for comparison. Between the temperatures of — 100°C. and 400°C., there is a change of ten million to one in resistance of thermistor materials whereas platinum resistance changes by only ten to one over the same temperature range.

VOLTAGE-CURRENT CHARACTERISTIC: If a very small voltage is applied to a thermistor, a small current will flow which does not produce enough heat in the thermistor to heat it measurably above its surroundings. Under these circumstances, Ohm's law will be followed and the current will be proportional to the applied voltage. However, if the voltage is gradually increased, the current will increase,

and the heat generated in the thermistor will finally begin to raise its temperature above that of its surroundings. The resistance will consequently be lowered and more current will flow than if the resistance had remained constant.

Curve No. 2 shows that the voltage drop across a thermistor increases as the current increases until it reaches a peak value beyond which the voltage drop decreases as the current increases. In this portion of the curve, the thermistor is exhibiting a negative resistance characteristic. Thus, under any fixed ambient conditions, the resistance of a thermistor is a function of the power being dissipated within itself, provided there is sufficient power to raise its temperature considerably above ambient. Under normal operating conditions the temperature may rise two to three hundred degrees Centigrade and the resistance may be lowered to 1/1000 of its value at low current. For temperature measurement and indication, or any other applications which require that the thermistor be operated with "negligible self-heat" reference should be made to the dissipation constant value for the particular thermistor. The "self-heat" in °C due to applied power will be a direct fraction or multiple of the dissipation constant. For example: For a thermistor with a D.C. of 1 mw/ $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$,0.1 mw relates to 0.1 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ self heat. 10mw \pm 10°C self-heat.

CURRENT-TIME CHARACTERISTIC: If a voltage is applied to a thermistor and resistor in series, a current will flow which is determined by the voltage and the total circuit resistance. If the voltage is high enough, some heat will be generated in the thermistor which will lower its resistance and more current will flow. This, in turn, will heat the thermistor more and lower its resistance further.

This process will continue until the thermistor reaches the maximum temperature possible for the amount of power available in the circuit, at which time a steady state will exist.

Since the thermistor has a certain mass, it takes time for it to be heated to its maximum value and this is a function of the mass of the thermistor, the value of the series resistance and the applied voltage.

Curve No. 3 shows that the time delay for the circuit to reach maximum current for a given thermistor is a function of the applied voltage. By suitable choice of thermistor and associated circuitry, it is possible to produce time delays from milliseconds to several minutes.

*This is a Typical Theoretical Mathematical Expression used solely for this problem and should not be construed as a truism.

HOW ARE THERMISTORS USED?

HOW ARE THERMISTORS USED? There are many circuits in which thermistors have been used to great advantage. The number of successful applications has been growing rapidly in the last few years and the future use of thermistors is limited only by the imagination and enterprise of skilled engineers. A few of the more common applications are described below.

TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENT: A simple circuit (Fig. 1) for temperature measurement consists of a battery, a thermistor, and a microammeter. As the temperature changes, the resistance of the thermistor changes and the current flow through the meter can be calibrated in terms of temperature. In this circuit, the thermistor may be mounted at a great distance from the meter and ordinary copper wire may be used for connection. Since the thermistor may be of high resistance, such as 100,000 ohms or more, any change in resistance of the copper transmission line due to ambient temperature changes will be negligible. As long as the supply voltage remains constant, the current flow will be determined only by the absolute temperature of the thermistor. Changes in the transmission line length or changes in temperature of the meter will not affect the accuracy of the temperature indication.

A more sensitive temperature measuring circuit (Fig. 2) consists of a thermistor in one leg of a bridge circuit. The meter may be a center zero galvanometer. The more sensitive the galvanometer, the shorter the temperature range indicated on the full scale of the meter. Such indicators have been made with a full scale reading of 1°C. A similar circuit (Fig. 3) but with two thermistors instead of one may be used for making accurate temperature differential measurements. If the two thermistors are placed in different
locations, the unbalance of the bridge will be dependent upon the
difference of temperature of the two thermistors. A typical
FE 4,000-ohm thermistor with a temp $\sqrt{2}$ \odot \odot 25° C will exhibit a resistance change of 156 ohms per degree C change in temperature, compared to only 7.2 ohms for a platinum resistance bulb with the same basic resistance. Connected in a simple makes the thermistor ideal for remote measurements or control, since changes in contact or transmission line resistance due to ambient temperature effects are negligible. For example, 400' of #18 AWG copper wire transmission line, subjected to a 25°C temperature change, will affect the accuracy of measurement or control approximately 0.05°C.

Thermistor control systems are inherently sensitive, stable, and fast acting, and require relatively simple circuitry. Neither polarity nor lead length is significant, and no reference temperature or cold junction compensation is required, as with thermocouples.

Due to the large voltage outputs provided by a typical thermistor bridge (Fig. 4) or by a standard thermistor telemetering circuit (Fig. 5), no amplification is required. The voltage output of the
standard thermistor bridge or telemetering circuit at 25°C will
be 18 millivolts/°C using a 4,000 ohms GB34P92 thermistor; 450
times greater than that of a output is only 0.040 millivolts/°C.

TEMPERATURE COMPENSATION

Copper Coil Compensation — A properly selected thermistor, mounted against or near a circuit element such as a copper coil, (Fig. 6), and experiencing the same ambient changes, can be connected in the circuit in such a way as to compensate almost exactly for the electrical changes caused by the original element. For example, it may be desired to have a relay operate at the same voltage over a broad temperature range. Assume a unit with
a copper coil of 5000Ω @ 25°C, which pulls in at 1 ma., used in
a VR circuit where it must pull in at a constant voltage from 0 C to 60 $^{\circ}$ C. Uncompensated, the coil resistance varies from 4555 Ω at 0°C to 5623 Ω @ 60°C, representing a change of about \pm 101/2%. With a single thermistor compensation network, this variation can
be reduced to about $\pm 15\Omega$ or $\pm 4\%$. Fig. 7 illustrates the effect
of a compensation network. With double or triple compensation networks variations can be reduced even further. It is desirable in such applications that there be good thermal

coupling between thermistor and component so that both are at the same temperature at all times regardless of whether the temperature change is due to ambient temperature or current flow through either component.

Thermistors have been used to compensate magnetic amplifiers so their gain remains constant as temperature changes.

In addition, they are frequently used to temperature-compensate the copper coils in: METERS, to maintain proper indicator needle displacement — DEFLECTION YOKES, for constant impedance — SERVO MOTORS, GENERATORS and SYNCHRO RESOLVERS, to eliminate phase displacement errors — ELECTRIC MOTORS and GENERATORS, to maintain constant speed and output — VIBRATING REED CHOPPERS, to maintain steady make-break characteristics.

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HOW ARE THERMISTORS USED?

(continued)

Transistor Compensation — Because transistor operation is
thermal-sensitive, disc thermistors are often used to minimize
temperature-caused variations in emitter and collector current.
Fig. 8 illustrates the result of an e with three intersections-between desired and actual curves.

TEMPERATURE CONTROL: A simple temperature control can be made by placing a thermistor (Fig. 9) in series with a relay, a battery, and a variable resistor. It is possible to make the relay
battery, and a variable resistor will close when the thermistor gets warm and open when it gets cold.

cold.
A more sensitive temperature control may be made by placing a
thermistor (Fig. 10) in one leg of a bridge circuit, a variable
resistor in another leg, and a polarized relay across the output.
When the thermistor beco

A more sensitive control may be made by applying AC to the bridge and placing a high gain amplifier between the bridge and the relay. Such controls have operated to a precision of .001°F. with ease as per (Fig. 11).

LIQUID LEVEL MEASUREMENT: If a thermistor is placed in series
with a light bulb and a battery, the light will operate if the thermistor is suspended in air. The thermistor heats up and the
resistance drops permitting eno liquid and the thermistor resistance will increase and sufficiently reduce the current in the bulb to extinguish it. This device may be used as a liquid level indicator.

A liquid level control may be made by substituting a relay for the light bulb, the relay operating a valve to control the liquid flow.

TIME DELAY: By placing a thermistor and a variable resistor in series with a battery and a relay (Fig. 13) a variable time delay relay may be made. When the switch is closed, the current flow is limited by the high resis where variable or fixed delay is required.

CURRENT SURGE SUPPRESSION: A thermistor in series with a vacuum tube filament or in series with an incandescent light bulb (Fig. 14) will prevent an initial current surge when the devices are turned on from a cold start. By selecting a thermistor with the same time constant as the filaments, it is possible to have the current remain substantially constant during the initial warmup time.

SWITCHING: If several devices such as low voltage light bulbs are connected in series with a suitable thermistor connected in parallel with each unit (Fig. 15) very little current will pass through the thermistors because they are not appreciably heated by the small voltage drop across the bulbs. If one bulb burns out, the full line voltage appears across the parallel thermistor and heats it over its peak and the voltage quickly drops to the original value of the bulb voltage. The result is that the other bulbs remain lighted and only the burned out one is extinguished. The thermistor continues to carry the load of the bulb. When the bulb is replaced, it takes the current from the thermistor which cools off and returns to its original idle condition of high resistance and low current.

POWER MEASUREMENT: If a bead thermistor of 2000 ohms is placed in a 200 ohm bridge circuit with a variable resistor in series with the bridge, (Fig.16) the current may be increased gradually until the thermistor heats up enough to lower its resistance to 200 ohms at which point the bridge will be in balance. This current may be measured and the D.C. power in the ther-
mistor calculated. If a source of high frequency power is applied
to the thermistor through suitable capacitors, it will be still
further heated and the bridge w may then be reduced until the bridge balances again and the new D.C. power calculated. The difference in the two D.C. power calculations will be the H.F. power.

HOW ARE THERMISTORS USED?

(continued)

VOLTAGE CONTROL: A thermistor with a suitable series resistor " A" may be placed in parallel (Fig. 17) with the load in a circuit to maintain constant voltage across the load. When the load resistance increases, the drop across resistor " B" tries to reduce and tends to raise the voltage across the load. The thermistor heats up and reduces its resistance so more current flows through the thermistor and through resistor "B " which brings the voltage across the load back to its original value. Such controls can maintain as close as 1% voltage regulation over a broad range of load resistance or over a broad range of supply voltages. Any voltage between $\frac{1}{2}$ volt and 100 volts may be regulated in this way by suitable circuitry.

POWER LEVEL CONTROL: Automatic power level control can be obtained in amplifiers by many methods of applying thermistors to the circuit. The simplified schematic (Fig. 18) shows one such approach. A thermistor is placed in a negative feedback circuit so the thermistor is heated when the output level increases. The resistance therefore reduces the amplifier gain. Such controls have been used to control the output level of amplifiers to within 1/2 db. with as much as a 40 db. variation at the input.

THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY INSTRUMENTS: Fig. 19 depicts a bridge circuit with enough current flowing through the thermistors to heat them to about 150°C., they may be used in many instruments for measurement of various physical phenomena. If the two thermistors are placed in small cavities in a brass block so the gas in the cavities may be changed, the unit becomes a gas
analyzer. If air is put in both cavities and the bridge is balanced
by varying the setting of "A" then the air on one cavity is replaced
by carbon dioxide, and the the carbon dioxide has a lower thermal conductivity than air and
that thermistor will become hotter and lower in resistance. The
amount of unbalance will represent 100% CO2 in the analyzer.
50% CO2 will give just half the may therefore be calibrated with a linear scale to read in % C02 in air. Similar calibration may be made for any other mixture of two gases. Such an instrument has been made without using

amplifiers to have a full scale reading of 1/2% CO2 in air.
If the same bridge is made with one thermistor sealed in a cavity
in a brass block and the other mounted in a small pipe, it may
be used as a flow meter. When no the thermistor is cooled and its resistance increases which unbalances the bridge. The amount of cooling is proportional to the rate of flow of the air and the meter may be calibrated in terms of flow in the pipe. The same instrument may be used for measuring flow rate of any gas or liquid. Such instruments have been made to measure flow rates as low as .001 c.c. per minute. One instrument can measure flow rates over a range of 100,000 to 1 or more, merely by switching resistance in series with the output meter.

If this instrument is made with the sensing thermistor held in free air, it becomes an anemometer capable of measuring air velocity from the slightest breeze to a gale and can be calibrated in terms of miles per hour of wind velocity.

If one of the thermistors is mounted in a sealed, evacuated bulb, and the other is mounted in a chamber connected to a vacuum pump, it may be calibrated as a vacuum gauge in terms of mm of mercury. By pumping the chamber down to a high vacuum and balancing the bridge, output will be obtained when the chamber is not at high vacuum because the presence of air will cool the thermistor etc.

ALTIMETER: A very sensitive altimeter has been made by placing a thermistor at the surface of a liquid (Fig. 20) in an open con-tainer and applying heat to the liquid until it boils. The thermistor resistance may be measured by any convenient means and its
resistance will be determined by the boiling point of the liquid
which is determined by the pressure applied to the liquid which
is a function of the altitude. Suc and has been made capable of measuring altitude from sea level to over 125,000 feet with a precision of better than 1% of the measured pressure.

SOLVING APPLICATIONS PROBLEMS WITH THERMISTORS

Much has been written concerning the general characteristics and applications of thermistors, but little on how-tosolve actual problems. Three application problems, each highlighting a different major characteristic are solved here.

BACKGROUND DATA

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Although "thermistor" means "thermal resistor" and applies to devices with a positive or a negative temperature coefficient of resistance, the latter is the major thermistor industry today. We will limit our discussion to that field. The same techniques, slightly modified, may be used to solve problems involving thermistors with positive coefficients.

Thermistors really do only one thing: they change their electrical resistance with absolute temperature. The thermistors we are discussing here reduce resistance as temperature increases. The curve which represents this relationship is called the R-T (Resistance-Temperature) curve and is usually plotted in terms of the logarithm of resistance vs. temperature, Fig. 1.

Another common way of presenting this information is in tabular form where the ratio of the resistance at any temperature to the resistance at 25 deg. C. is tabulated against various temperatures (R-T Tables, page 28). This is the characteristic which is used in temperature measurement, temperature control, and temperature compensation. Most thermistors are rather small, ranging from tiny beads, a few thousandths of an inch in diameter, to discs about 1 inch in diameter and *'A* inch thick.

If an appropriate voltage is applied, .a small current, not sufficient to heat the thermistor measurably above its surroundings, will flow. Under these circumstances, Ohm's law will be followed and the current will be proportional to the applied voltage.

SOLVING AN APPLICATIONS PROBLEM WITH THERMISTORS

However, if the voltage is gradually increased, the current will increase and the heat generated in the thermistor will finally begin to raise its temperature above that of its surroundings. The resistance will consequently be lowered and more current will flow than if the resistance had remained constant.

The curve which shows this characteristic is called the E-l (Voltage-Current) curve and is usually plotted in terms of the logarithm of the voltage vs. the logarithm of the current, Fig. 2. The advantage of this type of curve is that the thermistor power and resistance may also be read on the diagonal logarithmic scales. Fig. 2 shows that the voltage drop across a thermistor increases with the current until it reaches a peak value at " B" beyond which the voltage drop decreases as the current increases. In this portion of the curve, the thermistor is exhibiting a negative resistance characteristic.

POWER CONSIDERATIONS

Thus, under any fixed ambient conditions, the resistance of a thermistor is a function of the power being dissipated within itself, provided there is sufficient power to raise its temperature considerably above ambient. Under normal operating conditions, the temperature may rise to 200 deg. or 300 deg. C. and the resistance may be lowered to .001 of its value at low current. This characteristic is used in such devices as voltage regulators, microwave power meters, gas analyzers, and automatic volume and power level controls.

If a voltage is applied to a thermistor and resistor in series a current will flow which is determined by the voltage and the total circuit resistance. If the voltage is high enough, some heat will be generated in the thermistor, lowering its resistance and permitting more current to flow. This, in turn, will heat the thermistor still more and lower its resistance further. The process will continue until the thermistor reaches the maximum temperature possible for the amount of power available in the circuit, at which time, a steady state will exist. The E-l curve described represents only these steady state conditions.

Fig. 3 shows the " Current-Time" or " dynamic" characteristic of a thermistor in a fixed circuit in which voltage is varied. Fig. 4 shows the same characteristic in which the voltage is fixed and the series resistance is varied. This is the function of thermistors normally used for time delay and surge suppression applications.

(continued)

Specific Problems

Now that we have discussed the data normally published by manufacturers, let us solve a few specific problems. It would be very nice, if we could write a series of precise mathematical equations, with instructions to put in a few conditions, and solve for the answers. Unfortunately, this is not the case.

A thermistor appears to be a simple device, but the mathematical expression of all its electrical characteristics, in terms of its mechanical structure, is extremely complicated and involves a large number of independent parameters.

If you have tried to solve a thermistor problem by trial and error, do not be ashamed; it is still the easiest and quickest way to get an answer.

TEMPERATURE COMPENSATION PROBLEM

Let's design a temperature compensator for a copper relay coil, 5000 ohms at 25 deg. C., that pulls in at 1 ma. The relay should operate in a voltage regulation circuit where it must pull in at a constant voltage from 0 deg. to 60 deg. C. For a copper coil, $Rt = Ro$ (1+0.0039 t). Rt at 25 deg. C. equals 5000 ohms so Ro at 0 deg. $C = 4555$ ohms. Every 10 deg. C., the resistance will increase about 178 ohms. The coil resistance vs. temperature is tabulated in Table 1 Column a.

Since the relay pulls in at 1 ma, it will require 4.56 v. at 0 deg. C. and 5.62 v. at 60 deg. C. to pull in. We know that the thermistor will have to, be shunted and will be some resistance considerably lower than the coil resistance. Assume a value between 1000 and 4000 ohms. Assume also that we are short of space and would like to bury the thermistor right in the relay coil. A small glass coated bead or 1/4 inch long glass probe would be convenient. Looking in a catalog, we find that such beads and probes are available in this resistance range and their R-T curve is the one shown in Fig. 1. Thermistor ratios have been added in Table 1, Column b, from R-T Curve 11 on Page 29.

If we subtract the last ratio from the 50 deg. ratio, we get .113 which is the amount of resistance change a 1 ohm thermistor would give between 50 °C. and 60. We need 178 ohms change so by dividing 178 by .11, we find we need a 1600 ohms thermistor at 25 °C. We make this calculation at the highest temperature end of the chart because the thermistor has the least sensitivity here. Also, we want to be sure to have enough thermistor to give the resistance change required. When the thermistor is shunted, at low temperature, the shunt will control the resistance; at high temperatures, the thermistor will control the resistance.

First Attempt

If we use a 1600 ohms thermistor, we can multiply the ratio at 50 deg. and 60 deg. C. by 1600 and find the thermistor resistance values will be 648 and 467 ohms respectively. The difference is very close to the 178 ohms required. The unshunted thermistor would compensate very nicely between 50 deg. and 60 deg. C. but of course, would way overcompensate at lower temperatures.

When we add the shunt, we will reduce the thermistor value about 50%. To make up for this loss, therefore, we want to try a thermistor of 1600X1.5 or 2400 ohms at 25 deg. C. Thermistor resistance values, Table 1, Column c, are obtained by multiplying 2400 by the thermistor ratios. By the time we shunt the thermistor at 60 deg. C., the compensation resistance will be in the order of 500 ohms which added to 5623 will give about 6100 ohms. This is about the value we should have at 0 deg. C. also. Therefore we must shunt the 6840 ohms thermistor to produce 6100-4555 or 1545 ohms. The shunt resistance will be

$$
S = \frac{R_{\rm T} R_{\rm ST}}{R_{\rm T} - R_{\rm ST}} \text{ or } \frac{6840 \text{ X } 1545}{6840 - 1545}
$$

which equals 2000 ohms, where Rt is the thermistor resistance, S is the shunt resistance, and the Rst the shunted thermistor resistance. We can now add two more columns to our chart, the compensator resistance, Table 1, Column d, which is the value of the thermistor shunted by 2000 ohms or SRt, and the total circuit resistance. Table 1, $S + Rt$

Column e, which is the copper coil resistance plus the compensation resistance.

Without compensation, the coil resistance is within \pm 10.5% of a nominal. On the first try, we have brought the variation down to 6112 \pm 30 or \pm 0.49%, Fig. 5.

Second Attempt

For a second try, we see that we need more negative resistance between 50 deg. and 60 deg. C. to reduce the positive slope in that range. Let's try about a 30% increase in thermistor resistance instead of a 2400 ohms unit, we will try a 3100 ohms unit. Column f is added to Table 1 by multiplying 3100 by the thermistor ratios. To get the best compensation, the peak point at 10 deg. C. must equal the peak point at 60 deg. C. If we use a 2000 ohms shunt with our 905 ohms thermistor at 60 deg. C., we get a total circuit resistance of 623 $+$ 5623 or 6246 ohms. To get this same value at 10 deg. C. which is where our curve in Fig. 5 peaks, we must make the shunt and 5704 ohms thermistor equal 6246-4733 or 1513 ohms. Therefore, the shunt must be 2040 ohms. Columns g and h can now be added to Table 2. Plotting this curve in Fig. 5, we see the total circuit is 6231 \pm 19 ohms or \pm 0.31%. This is about the best compensation we can get without using a double or triple compensation network. This is more than 30 times as good as the uncompensated relay!

Power in Thermistor

Maximum power exists when the thermistor and the shunt are of equal value, about 35 deg. C. A max. current of 0.5 ma flows which approximates 0.5 mw in 2040 ohms. A small glass probe embedded in the coil has a dissipation constant of about 1 mw/deg. C. So 0.5 mw raises the thermistor temperature about 0.5 deg. C. This lowers its resistance 1.7% or about 35 ohms. Instead of a 2040 ohms shunt and a 2040 ohms thermistor, we have a 2040 ohms shunt and a 2005 ohms thermistor because of self heat. This makes a compensator of 1012 ohms instead of 1020 ohms. This 8 ohms lower resistance decreases the overall error from \pm 0.31% to \pm 0.29%.

We now have the final answer. A bead type, glass probe thermistor, 1A inch long with a standard B value of 3495, buried in the coil, and shunted by a 2040 ohms resistor will do an excellent job.

VOLTAGE REGULATION PROBLEM

For an automatic camera, a constant light source is needed as a reference for an automatic iris adjuster. The light is to be a 2.6 v., 32 ma bulb operating from a generator. The voltage varies from 24 to 32 v., depending upon load and speed of rotation.

In a voltage regulator circuit, Fig. 6, E is the supply voltage, R a series resistance for control, T the thermistor and S a series resistor with the thermistor. A thermistor voltage control works just like a gas tube control; current through the thermistor circuit varies widely but the voltage across it remains substantially constant. The voltage drop in R always balances out the variation in source voltage.

Looking at Fig. 2 we see a typical E-l curve of a thermistor. There is a short flat part to this curve at the peak, "B." This would give some voltage regulation but would not cover a very broad range of load or source variation. If we put a 10 Ω resistor in series with the thermistor and plot a new E-l curve including this resistor, we get curve D, Fig. 7. If we do the same with a 20 Ω resistor, we get curve E. A 30 Ω resistor gives curve F. In all 3 curves we find an extended flat section of the curve between X and X'.

(continued)

Curve Selection

We want a curve which has a peak slightly above the 2.6 desired controlled voltage. The heavy curve Fig. 7, (similar to Fig. 2) should be about right. First make up a chart, Table 2, showing thermistor current in 5 ma steps from 20 ma to 70 ma. Then read the voltages across the thermistor from the curve.

At some nominal point like 50 ma what value of S do we need to make load voltage 2.6 v. ? Thermistor voltage is 1.72 so we need $2.60 - 1.72$ or $.88$ v. across S. Therefore, S must be

$$
\frac{0.88}{0.050}
$$
 or 17.6 ohms

Multiplying 17.6 by various values of current, we can write down the voltage developed across S. Adding the thermistor and S voltage we get the total values.

The flattest part of the curve is between 30 and 55 ma. What value of R do we need to put 30 ma in the thermistor circuit when our source is minimum (24 v.)? The load current will be 32 ma, the thermistor current will be 30 ma so the total current through R will be 62 ma. The load voltage will be 2.6 v. so we must drop 21.4 v. in R.,

$$
R = \frac{21.4}{0.062} = 345 \text{ ohms.}
$$

What current will the thermistor take at maximum supply voltage? Load voltage of 2.6 means 29.4 v. must be dropped in R.

$$
1=\frac{29.4}{345}=85 \text{ ma}.
$$

Therefore the thermistor must take 85-32 or 53 ma. Without voltage control, the load variation would be 28 ± 4 or \pm 14.3%. With voltage control, the max. load voltage, between 30 and 55 ma, in the thermistor circuit is 2.62 and the min. is 2.58. This is a variation of 2.60 \pm 0.02 or \pm .77% which is about 19 times as good. This could be improved by making a two stage regulator as shown in Figure 8. Here let T and S be the same values just worked out and recalculate R for a source voltage at point x of about $+.04$ volts which can be obtained by calculating values of T', S', and R' as above. This will give an overall control of output to the load of about 2.600 $\pm .005$ volts or $\pm 2\%$ which is 72 times as good as no control at all.

Thermistor Mounting

Since this E-I curve is data on a bead thermistor suspended in air, we would want to have it in a small air filled container like a glass bulb or a crystal can for easy mounting. Our thermistor is operating at about 50 ma and 1.7 v. or 34 ohms. The 25°C. resistance of this unit is 2100 ohms therefore the ratio of 34 to 2100 is 0.016. Looking this up on an R-T chart (Page 29, Curve 11) shows the operating temperature of the thermistor bead to be about 180°C. Because of this high operating temperature, small ambient variations will have little effect on our control. However, large ambient changes will affect the control so it would be a good idea to put the thermistor in a small crystal oven. The thermistor could be supplied in a crystal can for the purpose!

TIME DELAY PROBLEM

Problems of surge suppression and time delay are the most difficult to solve because there is very little published information available. Usually it boils down to trying a few thermistors until one is found that does the job. However, suppose we have data such as that shown in Figs. 3 and 4. Assume we have a relay that has 3000 ohms resistance and pulls in at 5 ma. We want to use it in a 60 v. circuit and want about 1 sec. delay. Can we do it with the thermistor described in Figs. 3 and 4?

Looking at Fig. 3, we see that a 60 v. source with 4500 ohms in circuit will reach 5 ma in 0.75 sec. so we must increase the time about 33% to get to 1 sec.

Obviously, we need more series resistance to increase the time delay.

We can assume that a 33% increase in time delay with 60 v. on the circuit will also give a 33% increase in time delay with 45 v. on the circuit. Therefore we look at Fig. 4 to determine what resistance change will give this much time change. With 45 v. on the circuit and 4500 ohms in series, we see that 5 ma will be reached in about 1.5 sec. A 33% time increase would bring this to 2.0 sec. Also in Fig. 4, we see that to reach 5 ma in 2.0 sec., we need a resistance about halfway between 4500 ohms and 6500 ohms or 5500 ohms.

Therefore 5500 ohms in series with the thermistor and 60 v. will take 1 sec. to reach 5 ma. Since the relay is 3000 ohms, we need 2500 ohms in series with the relay and the thermistor to give the desired time delay.

LIQUID LEVEL CONTROL

PROBLEM: Using a thermistor as the sensor element, automatically maintain the liquid in a tank to a specified level, by control of the solenoid fill valve (S) when the liquid falls below the desired level. (Refer to Fig. 1.)

Known:

- 1. The ambient operating temperature of the liquid and air above the liquid is 25° C.
- 2. The solenoid pull in current is 10 ma. maximum and drop out current is 5 ma. minimum under worst conditions.
- 3. The voltage supply is 115 V.
- 4. Solenoid resistance (S_r) is 1000 Ω .

Determine:

- 1. Thermistor configuration.
- 2. Thermistor Resistance at 25°C.
- 3. Series Resistance for Proper Solenoid Operation.
- 4. Circuit Sensitivity.

SOLUTION:

Step No. 1: Selecting the Thermistor

- **a.** PHYSICAL CONFIGURATION Generally, glass bead thermistors are used in gas or air applications. GLASS PROBES are best suited to liquid level control (immersion) applications, because of their extended glass body length, which prevents conductivity and circuit shorting with the media by the thermistor body leads. It is preferable to have the thermistor enclosed in a metal or plastic probe assembly housing for protection and convenience. (Refer to Thermistor Housing Manual L-5A and to the applicable sections of this handbook.)
- **b.** Select appropriate RESISTANCE VALUE and DISSIPA-TION CONSTANT compatible with the available voltage supply. To obtain maximum current sensitivity, the peak of the thermistor curve at 25°C should not be greater than 70% of the supply voltage. (Point "M" Fig. 2.)

The thermistor must be operated in the self-heat mode at as high a temperature as is compatible with the two mediums (air and liquid) to obtain the greatest sensitivity and still remain within the maximum temperature rating of the thermistor. The E-l CURVE which meets these fundamental requirements is the GA51P2 (Fig. 2). As may be seen, the peak value is about 28 volts and the mid-point of the negative resistance region (between the peak and the maximum operating temperature point) is approximately 10 ma., our chosen operating point in air.

Step No. 2: Selecting the Series Resistor

The series resistor serves a twofold purpose. It limits the self-heat factor in the thermistor in order to prevent thermal runaway and damage, and allows for the selection of the proper operating body temperature of the thermistor for the maximum sensitivity or change in current.

Inspecting the E-l CURVE for the GA51P2 thermistor, note that at 10 ma. the voltage drop across the thermistor is 15 v. Therefore, the difference of 100 v. must be dropped across the series resistor and the solenoid resistance combination $R_s + S_r$ is easily calculated through the use of Ohm's law.

WHERE: $R_s =$ Series Resistance $S_r =$ Solenoid Resistance $E_s =$ Voltage Drop Across R_s \equiv Current in Circuit $R =$ Total Resistance of R_s $+$ S_r THEN: $R = E_s = 100 = 10000$ ohms. $\overline{1}$.01

AND:
$$
R_s = R - S
$$
, or 10000 - 1000 ohms.
\n $R_s = 9000$ ohms.

SOLVING APPLICATIONS PROBLEMS WITH THERMISTORS

(continued)

Step No. 3: Sensitivity Check

A sensitivity check of the circuit is necessary to assure that the desired or adequate decrease in current flow is attained when the thermistor is immersed in liquid for proper operation of the solenoid fill valve.

A method that can be used for determination of sensitivity utilizes two E-l CURVES, plotted on the same graph coordinates. One is the standard, using air as the medium at 25°C. The other curve is for the same thermistor in the other medium (water). A load line is then calculated and plotted through both curves to intersect the operating point on the E-l CURVE for the air medium and establishing the new operating point on the other curve. This second point indicates the new current and voltage operating points for the changed environment, indicating the measure of sensitivity, and satisfies the equation applicable to both curves. (Ref. Fig. 2.)

WHERE: ${\mathsf E}_\mathsf{in} \equiv {\mathsf E}_\mathsf{f} + {\mathsf E}_\mathsf{s}$ $AND:$ $E_t = E_{in} - E_s$ WHEN: E_{in} $=$ 115 Volts $E_t =$ Voltage across the thermistor

 $E_s =$ Voltage across the series resistance

There are three separate and yet interrelated functions that must be performed whenever the two curve method is used to determine the sensitivity.

They are:

DETERMINATION OF THE NEW THERMISTOR D.C. IN THE NEW MEDIUM.

GENERATION OF A NEW E-l CURVE TO REFLECT THE D.C. CHANGE IN THE THERMISTOR FOR THE NEW MEDIUM.

COMPUTING AND PLOTTING A LOAD LINE TO LOCATE THE NEW OPERATING POINT IN THE NEW MEDIUM.

DETERMINING THE D.C.

Dissipation Constants in media other than air, may be determined by test. However, a good approximation of the dissipation constant for the thermistor in a changed medium can readily be made by referring to established standard thermal conductivity tables, and noting the increased or decreased ratio in relation to air. This same magnitude of change is then applied directly to the established D.C. for the thermistor in air.

As an example, a comparison of the thermal conductivity of air and water indicates that water has a conductivity approximately five times greater. If we apply this same magnitude of increase to the GA51P2 thermistor that has a D.C. of 1 milliwatt per degree Centigrade in air, then when immersed in water, its new D.C. will be 5 milliwatts per degree Centigrade.

GENERATING AN E-l CURVE FOR A DIFFERENT MEDIUM

After the new thermistor D.C. has been established, a new E-l CURVE for this new medium (liquid) can be calculated from the existing curve in a similar manner used for plotting a new E-I CURVE at temperatures other than 25 $^{\circ}$ Centrigrade.

Observe the point of intersection of the constant resistance line at the 1 MW point on the power line applicable to the D.C. of the thermistor in air.

Locate and mark the 5 Mw point of intersection on the constant resistance line. Measure the distance between the

1 MW point and the 5 MW point on that resistance line. Proceed to plot the new E-l CURVE points for a thermistor in a liquid medium by keeping the measured distance constant and with one end of that distance, indexed on the existing curve. Keeping the measured distance parallel to the constant resistance lines, mark reference points arbitrarily, at close intervals, by following the contour of the existing curve.

LOAD LINE COMPUTATION AND PLOT

The equation used in locating a new operating point on the calculated E-l CURVE involves two variables: The current through the circuit and the voltage drop across the thermistor. Therefore, one variable must be eliminated. This is done by assuming fixed values of current through the circuit at three or four different current points equally spaced either in the current decade before or after the actual 10 milliampere current operating point of the thermistor in air.

NOTE: If the thermal conductivity of the new medium is greater than air, it effectively increases the D.C. of the thermistor and the current decade preceding the current operating point would be used. If the thermal conductivity is decreased, the current decade after the operating point should be used

In this sensitivity check, values in the current decade preceding the current operating point of 10 milliamperes in air will be used to calculate the voltage drop across the thermistor and plotted on the same coordinate as the two E-l CURVES to generate a load line that will locate the new operating point.

♦

Plotting these voltage points, we find that the load line intersects the E-l CURVE representing the water medium at the 5 milliampere current point, indicating that the current decreases in the circuit from 10 milliamperes when the thermistor is in air to 5 milliamperes when it is immersed in water, providing adequate circuit sensitivity. (Refer to Fig. 2.)

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DESIGNING LINEAR TEMPERATURE READ OUT CIRCUITS

Selection of Thermistor (R_t)

Generally speaking, high resistance units (100k to 500k @ 77°F) are used for high temperatures (300°F to 600°F); intermediate Vesistance units (2k to 75k @ 77°F) at intermediate temperatures (150°F to 300°F); low resistance units (100 to 1k @ 77°F) at low temperatures (-100°F to 150°F).

The maximum Ro at low temperatures must not be excessive and must be compatible with the limits of the associated circuitry, if Ro is excessive, spurious signal pick-up can result. If high Ro is required and pick-up is a problem, shielded lines or the use of D.C. power must be considered.

The minimum resistance at high temperatures must not be too low. Generally, a resistance of a low order of magnitude at high temperatures will result in a decrease in sensitivity. Errors due to contact resistance, line resistance and line resistance variation with changes in ambient temperature may also result at high temperatures due to inadequate thermistor resistance.

Selection of Resistance Values for Associated Circuitry (Ri R2 R3)

Thermistors used for temperature measurement are usually employed in one leg of a bridge circuit, if linearity in the bridge output voltage change over the temperature range is desired with a minimum decrease in thermistor sensitivity, the series resistor (R_2) and the opposite bridge leg resistor (R_3) should be equal to the thermistor resistance at the mid-point of the temperature range. The value of the adjacent bridge leg resistor (R $_{\rm +}$) should be equal to the thermistor's resistance at the temperature where bridge null is desired.

Selection of Input Voltage (E)

The bridge voltage input must be compatible with the dissipation constant of the thermistor and the degree of accuracy or precision to which the temperature is to be measured. This will alleviate the necessity of providing a permanent offset in readout or control instrumentation to overcome the self-heating effects in the thermistor due to application of excessive power. Bridge voltage can be determined as follows:

$$
E = \sqrt{PR}
$$

Bridge Input Voltage = E_m = 2 x E
Where: E = Voltage across thermistor

- $R =$ Resistance of thermistor at mid-point of tempera-
ture range
- ture range

P = D.C. of thermistor which will give desired accuracy

(i.e. if D.C. of thermistor is $\text{Imw}/^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 0.1°C

off-set is allowable use P \equiv .lmw)

Selection of Meter Circuit (R_m + R_s)

if voltmeter is desired, the resistance of the voltmeter should be at least 10 times the resistance of the thermistor at the lowest temperature. The range of the meter should be selected so that it is compatible with the voltage output available with the circuit parameters selected.

If an ammeter readout is desired, the resistance of the meter circuit (Rm + Rs) should be approximately ten times the resistance of the thermistor at the maximum temperature. The selection of the meter circuit values with the proper current range (Im) can be determined by first solving for the maximum current flow through the thermistor that occurs at the highest temperature.

$$
I_1 = \sqrt{\frac{P_1}{P_1}}
$$

Then:
$$
I_n = \frac{I_1 \cdot R_2}{R_2 + R_n} + R_1
$$

Where: $P_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \text{Al} & \text{Al} \\ \text{Al} & \text{Al} \\ \text{accuracy} \\ \text{accuracy} \\ I_1 = \begin{array}{ccc} \text{Resistance of} & \text{thermistor} & \text{the} \\ \text{measure} \\ \text{L} & \text{Maximum} \end{array} \end{array}$
As in the *2* matrix

- I_t = Maximum current through thermistor at maximum use temperature
- $I_m =$ Maximum current through meter circuit
- R_2 \equiv Bridge resistor in series with thermistor $R_m + R_i$ \equiv 10 (R_t)
-

The range of the ammeter selected should have a full scale deflection at a value of current slightly less than the maximum current (I_m) calculated. The variable resistor (R_i) can then be adjusted by increasing its resistance to limit the current flow through the meter (R_m) not to exceed the full scale deflection value.

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•E -l M A TC H ED FOR UH F POW ER M E A S U R E M E N T. " S T U B W IR E ENDS C O A TE D . •(g

GLASS PROBE THERMISTORS Ro @ 25°C % Code Assembly Rig, Ratio Curve D.C. T.C. Lead Lead Lead Assembly Rig, Ratio Curve D.C. T.C. Dia. Mat'l Ohms | Tol. | Number | Description | Fig. | Ratio |Curve | D.C. |T.C. | Dia. | Mat'l | L | D | B | T | Tinned

FIG. 9 EVACUATED OR GAS FILLED UNIT

π

 \overline{B}

 $\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} \hline \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{0} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{0} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{0} \\\hline \end{array}$

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BEAD THERMISTOR ASSEMBLIES

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BEAD THERMISTOR ASSEMBLIES

MOUNTED BEAD

*Time Constant (T.C.) and Dissipation Constant (D.C.) is totally dependent upon the desired method of mounting.
Note 1: Discs can be made to any resistance value from 1 Ω to 1 meg. ohm, dependent upon size.
Note 2: All di

All Fenwail Electronic glass-covered beads and probes may be used satisfactorily up to 550°C. However, for maximum stability, operating temperatures of 300°C should not be exceeded. All dimensions are in inches.

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***Time Constant (T.C.) and Dissipation Constant (D.C.) is totally dependent upon the desired method of mounting.**

Note 1: Discs can be made to any resistance value from 1 0 to 1 meg. ohm, dependent upon size.

Note 2: All disc types are rated to 150°C maximum temperature, except lacquer or varnish coated discs which are limited to 100°C. Note 3: Discs can be supplied with epoxy coating upon request.

All Fenwall Electronics glass-covered beads and probes may be used satisfactorily up to 550°C. However, for maximum stability, operating
temperatures of 300°C should not be exceeded. All dimensions are in inches.

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FIG. 15A \D JAC EN T LEADS

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***Tlme Constant (T.C.) and Dissipation Constant (D.C.) is totally dependent upon the desired method of mounting.**

Note 1: Discs can be made to any resistance value from 1 Ω to 1 meg. ohm, dependent upon size.
Note 2: All disc types are rated to 150°C maximum temperature, except lacquer or varnish coated discs which are limited to 100° **Note 3: Discs can be supplied with epoxy coating upon request.**

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FIG. 15A ADJACENT LEADS

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•Time Constant (T.C.) and Dissipation Constant (D C.) is totally dependent upon the desired method of mounting.

Note 1: Discs can be made to any resistance value from 1 Ω to 1 meg. ohm, dependent upon size.

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Note 2: All disc types are rated to 150°C maximum temperature, except lacquer or varnish coated discs which are limited to 100°C. **Note 3: Discs can be supplied with epoxy coating upon request.**

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Note 1: Rods can be supplied with epoxy coating upon request.
**.016" Leads available on special order. _016" or 020" Leads are available Gold plated on special order.
***Thermistors in Glass Diode Type Enclosure are recom

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ISO-CURVE® INTERCHANGEABLE THERMISTORS

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Note 1: All ISO-CURVE units can withstand maximum temperature to 300°C.

FIG. 25 WASHER ASSEMBLY

RESISTANCE DEVIATION DUE TO BETA TOLERANCE TABLE

The Ro deviation due to Beta tolerance between 0º/50ºC must be added to the resistance tolerance at the reference temperature to give the complete
percentage of resistance deviation. This reference point for standard cata

TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT TABLE

The temperature coefficient table denotes the percent in resistance change per °C at a specific temperature, which is directly readable from the table.

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RESISTANCE-TEMPERATURE CONVERSION TABLE

' Ro = RESISTANCE @ 25°C, Zero Power Applied.

Table shows curves of thermistors made of different types of materials. To determine resistance of thermistor at specified temperature, first determine RT curve number, material, type unit, and then select appropriate vertical column. Multiply resistance of thermistor at 25°C by appropriate horizontal value in line with the specified temperature to obtain

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ISO-CURVE TYPICAL RESISTANCE-TEMPERATURE TABLES

For Additional Information, Reference Pages 25 and 26 of this Manual and ISO-CURVE THERMISTOR CATALOG L-2A.

— 20 1,103,400 ²⁰ 126,740 ⁵⁰ 33,591 ⁹⁰ 7,707.7 ¹³⁰ 2,281.0 _ _ — 10 611,870 25 100,000 60 22,590 100 5,569.3 140 1,734.3 — —

ORDERING & SPECIFYING GUIDE & CHECK LIST

The following is a summary of the data which should be specified when you order or request quotations on standard or special thermistor sensor assemblies.

THERMISTOR ELEMENT

Specify

- **1.** Resistance at 25°C or special temperature points
- 2. Temperature tolerance desired
- 3. Temperature span desired
- **4.** Calibration if desired. Specify temperature point or points

STANDARD THERMISTOR SENSOR ASSEMBLY

Specify

1. Housing desired by "H" number (e.g. H39) from Thermistor Housing Manual L-5A

MODIFICATIONS TO STANDARD HOUSINGS

Specify

- **1.** Modification desired (e.g. non-standard housing material, thread length, probe tips length, etc.)
- 2. Standard or maximum operating temperature
- 3. Shock, vibration, acceleration and pressure requirements, if not listed in housing

SPECIAL THERMISTOR SENSOR ASSEMBLIES

Specify

- **1.** Housing configuration desired, by means of sketch or drawing indicating all critical dimensions and tolerances
- 2. Housing material
- 3. Working environment, medium and corrosiveness of media.
- **4.** Maximum operating temperature
- **5.** Operating temperature range
- **6.** Acceleration, shock, vibration, pressure and humidity requirements
- **7.** Time Constant and dissipation constant desired in specified medium

ORDERING THE COMPLETE ASSEMBLY

As an example:

If you wish a thermistor element of 2000 ohms to a tolerance of $\pm 20\%$ over a temperature range of 0°C to 175°C mounted in an H33 housing modified to have a thread length of $\frac{1}{4}$ " . . .

Order as follows:

H33-2000 (GB32P2) ohms $\pm 20\%$ temperature range 0°C to 175°C. Modification: Thread length to be $\frac{1}{4}$ ".

THERMISTOR GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Thermistor (thur.mls ter) — thermally sensitive resistor whose primary function is to exhibit a change in electrical resistance with a change in body temperature.

Zero-Power Resistance (Ro)— the resistance value of a thermistor at a specified temperature with zero electrical power dissipation.

Standard Reference Temperature—the thermistor body temperature at which nominal zero-power resistance is specified.

Zero-Power Temperature Coefficient of Resistance (α_T) — the ratio at a specified temperature, T, of the rate of change of zero-power resistance with temperature to the zero-power resistance. $1 (dR_r)$

$$
\alpha_{\rm T} = \frac{1}{\rm R}_{\rm T} \frac{\rm (dH}_{\rm T} \rm
$$

Maximum Operating Temperature — the maximum body temperature at which a thermistor will operate for an extended period of time with acceptable stability of its characteristics.

NOTE: This temperature is the result of external and internal heating.

Dissipation Constant (8) — the ratio, at a specified ambient temperature, of a change in power dissipation in a thermistor to the resultant body temperature change.

Thermal Time Constant (τ) — the time required for a thermistor to change 63.2% of the difference between its initial and final body temperature, when subjected to a step function change in temperature under zeropower conditions.

Zero-Power Resistance Temperature Characteristic the relationship between the zero-power resistance of a thermistor and its body temperature.

Temperature — Wattage Characteristic — the relationship, at a specified ambient temperature, between the thermistor temperature and the applied steady-state wattage.

Current — Time Characteristic — the relationship, at a specified ambient temperature, between the current through a thermistor and time upon application of a step function of voltage to it.

Resistance Ratio — the ratio of the zero-power resistances of a thermistor measured at two specified référence temperatures.

$$
\frac{\text{Ro}\left(T_i\right)}{\text{Ro}\left(T_2\right)} = e^{\beta \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right)}
$$

Where:

Ro (T_1) is the resistance at absolute temperature T_1 . Ro (T_2) is the resistance at absolute temperature T_2 . e is 2.718.

 β is a constant which depends on the material used to make the thermistor.

Stability — the ability of a thermistor to retain specified characteristics after being subjected to designated environmental and/or electrical test conditions.

THERMISTOR DESIGN AND APPLICATION AIDS

EXPERIMENTER'S THERMISTOR KITS

Designed specifically for beginning or advanced usage by students, instruc*tors or engineers in college and university biology, chemistry and physics labs or for R&D labs, circuit design or familiarization in a wide variety of electrical and electronic applications.*

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