

Useful Information for Temperature Measurement and Control

- Thermocouple Technical Data
- Thermocouple Engineering Data
- Temperature and Power Control Fundamentals
- Glossary





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THERMOCOUPLE TECHNICAL DATA

THERMOELECTRICITY IN RETROSPECT

The principles and theory associated with thermoelectric effects were not established by any one person at any one time. The discovery of the thermoelectric behavior of certain materials is generally attributed to T. J. Seebeck.

In 1821, Seebeck discovered that in a closed circuit made up of wire of two dissimilar metals, electric current will flow if the temperature of one junction is elevated above that of the other. Seebeck's original discovery used a thermocouple circuit made up of antimony and copper. Based on most common usage and recognition today, there are eight thermoelement types: S,R,B,J,K,N,T and E.

In the ensuing years following the discovery of the thermoelectric circuit, many combinations of thermoelectric elements were investigated. Serious application of the findings was accelerated by the needs brought on during the course of the Industrial Revolution.

In 1886, Le Chatelier introduced a thermocouple consisting of one wire of platinum and the other of 90 percent platinum- 10 percent rhodium. This combination, Type S, is still used for purposes of calibration and comparison. It defined the International Practical Temperature Scale of 1968 from the antimony to the gold point. This type of thermocouple was made and sold by W. C. Heraeus, GmbH of Hanau, Germany, and is sometimes called the Heraeus Couple.

Later, it was learned that a thermoelement composed of 87 percent platinum and 13 percent rhodium, Type R, would give a somewhat higher EMF output.

In 1954 a thermocouple was introduced in Germany whose positive leg was an alloy of platinum and 30 percent rhodium. Its negative leg was also an alloy of platinum and 6 percent rhodium. This combination, Type B, gives greater physical strength, greater stability, and can withstand higher temperatures than Types R and S.

The economics of industrial processes prompted a search for less costly metals for use in thermocouples. Iron and nickel were useful and inexpensive. Pure nickel, however, became very brittle upon oxidation; and it was learned that an alloy of about 60 percent copper, 40 percent nickel (constantan) would eliminate this problem. This alloy combination, iron-constantan, is widely used and is designated Type J. The present calibration for Type J was established by the National Bureau of Standards, now known as the National Institute of Standards and Technology (N.I.S.T.).

The need for higher temperature measurements led to the development of a 90 percent nickel-10 percent chromium alloy as a positive wire, and a 95 percent nickel-5 percent aluminum, manganese, silicon alloy as a negative wire. This combination (originally called Chromel- Alumel) is known as Type K.

Conversely the need for sub-zero temperature measurements contributed to the selection of copper as a positive wire and constantan as a negative wire in the Type T thermoelement pair. The EMF-temperature relationship for this pair (referred to as the Adams Table) was prepared by the National Bureau of Standards in 1938. The relatively recent combination of a positive thermoelement from the Type K pair and a negative thermoelement from the type T

pair is designated as a Type E thermoelement pair. This pair is useful where higher EMF output is required.

Within the past 20 years, considerable effort has been made to advance the state of the art in temperature measurement. Many new thermoelement materials have been introduced for higher temperatures.

Combinations of tungsten, rhenium and their binary alloys are widely used at higher temperatures in reducing and inert atmospheres or vacuum.

The most common thermoelement pairs are:

W-W26Re	(Tungsten Vs. Tungsten 26% Rhenium)
W3Re-W25Re	(Tungsten 3% Rhenium Vs. Tungsten 25% Rhenium)
W5Re-W26Re	(Tungsten 5% Rhenium Vs. Tungsten 26% Rhenium)

Letter designations have not yet been assigned to these combinations.

The most recent significant development in thermometry was the adoption of the International Temperature Scale of 1990 (ITS-90). The work of international representatives was adopted by the International Committee of Weights and Measures at its meeting September 1989, and is described in "The International Temperature Scale of 1990," Metrologia 27, No. 1, 3-10 (1990); Metrologia 27, 107 (1990).

LAWS OF THERMOELECTRIC CIRCUITS

Numerous investigations of thermoelectric circuits in which accurate measurements were made of the current, resistance, and electromotive force have resulted in the establishment of several basic laws.

Although stated in many different ways, these precepts can be reduced to three fundamental laws:

1. The law of the Homogeneous Circuit
2. The law of Intermediate Materials
3. The law of Successive or Intermediate Temperatures

Law of Homogeneous Circuit

A thermoelectric current cannot be sustained in a circuit of a single homogeneous material, however, varying in cross section, by the application of heat alone.

Two different materials are required for any thermocouple circuit.

Any current detected in a single wire circuit when the wire is heated in any way whatever is taken as evidence that the wire is inhomogeneous.

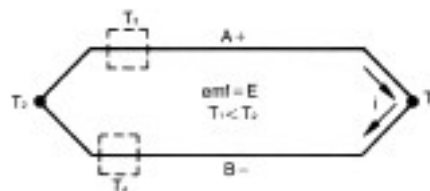


Figure 1. Law of Homogeneous Circuit.

A consequence of this law as illustrated in figure 1, is that if one junction of two dissimilar homogeneous materials is maintained at a temperature T_1 and the other junction at a temperature T_2 , the thermal EMF developed is independent of the temperature distribution along the circuit. The EMF, E , is unaffected by temperatures T_3 and T_4 .

Law of Intermediate Materials.

The algebraic sum of the thermoelectromotive forces in a circuit composed of any number of dissimilar materials is zero if all of the circuit is at a uniform temperature.

A consequence of this law is that a third homogeneous material can be added in a circuit with no effect on the net EMF of the circuit so long as its extremities are at the same temperature.

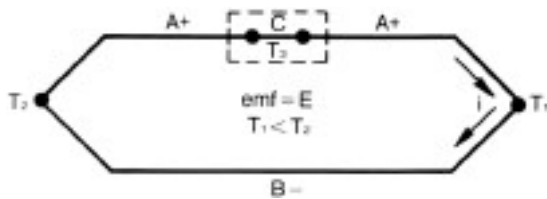


Figure 2. Law of Intermediate Materials.

In figure 2, two homogeneous metals, A and B, with their junctions at temperatures T_1 and T_2 a third metal C, is introduced by cutting A, and forming two junctions of A and C. If the temperature of C is uniform over its whole length, the total EMF in the circuit will be unaffected.

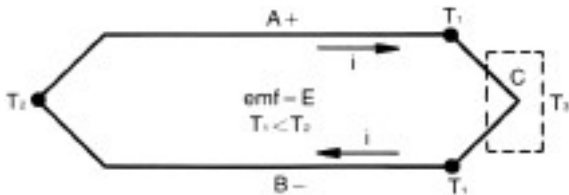


Figure 3. Combining the Law of Intermediate Materials With the Law of Homogeneous Circuit.

Combining the Law of Intermediate Materials with the Law of Homogeneous Circuit, as shown in figure 3, A and B are separated at the temperature T_1 junction. Two junctions AC and CB are formed at temperature T_1 . While C may extend into a region of very different temperature, for example, T_3 the EMF of the circuit will be unchanged. That is, $E_{AC} + E_{CB} = E_{AB}$.

A further consequence to the combined laws of Intermediate Materials and Homogeneous Circuit is illustrated in figure 4.

When the thermal EMF of any material A or B paired with a reference material C is known, then the EMF of any combination of these materials, when paired, is the algebraic sum of their EMF's when paired with reference material C.

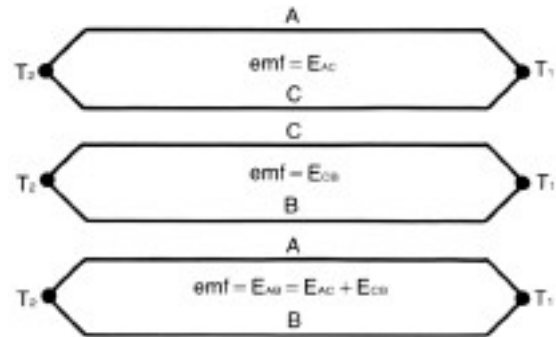


Figure 4. Thermal EMF of two materials with respect to a reference material.

Law of Successive or Intermediate Temperatures

If two dissimilar homogeneous metals produce a thermal EMF of E_1 , when the junctions are at temperatures T_1 and T_2 , and a thermal EMF of E_2 , when the junctions are at T_2 and T_3 , the EMF generated when the junctions are at T_1 and T_3 , will be $E_1 + E_2$.

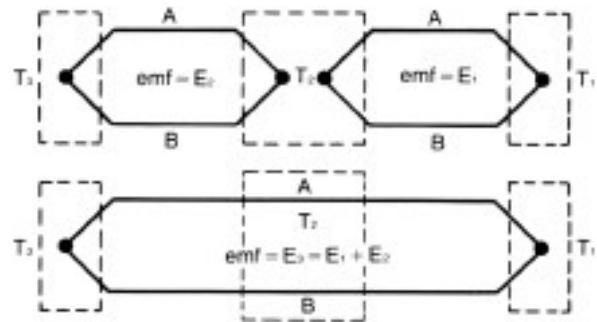


Figure 5. Law of Successive or Intermediate Temperatures.

One consequence of this law permits a thermocouple calibrated at a given reference temperature, to be used at any other reference temperature through the use of a suitable correction.

Another consequence of this law is that extension wires, having the same thermoelectric characteristics as those of the thermocouple wires, can be introduced in the thermocouple circuit (say from region T_2 and region T_3) without affecting the net EMF of the thermocouple.

CONCLUSION

The three fundamental laws may be combined and stated as follows: "The algebraic sum of the thermoelectric EMFs generated in any given circuit containing any number of dissimilar homogeneous materials is a function only of the temperatures of the junctions." Corollary: "If all but one of the junctions in such a circuit are maintained at some reference temperature, the EMF generated depends only on the temperature of that one junction and can be used as a measure of its temperature."

THERMOCOUPLE TECHNICAL DATA

THERMOELECTRIC EFFECTS

Seebeck Effect

The Seebeck effect, figure 6, concerns the conversion of thermal energy into electrical energy. The Seebeck voltage refers to the net thermal electromotive force established in a thermoelement pair under zero current conditions.

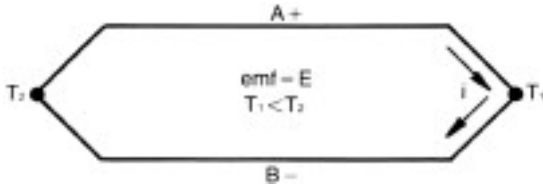


Figure 6. Seebeck Thermal EMF.

When a circuit is formed consisting of two dissimilar conductors A and B, and one junction of A and B is at temperature T_1 while the other junction is at a higher temperature T_2 , a current will flow in the circuit. The electromotive force E producing this current i , is called the Seebeck thermal EMF. Conductor A is considered thermoelectrically positive to conductor B if the current i flows from conductor A to conductor B at the cooler of the two junctions (T_1).

Peltier Thermal Effect.

The Peltier Thermal Effect, figure 7, concerns a reversible phenomenon at the junction of most thermoelement pairs.

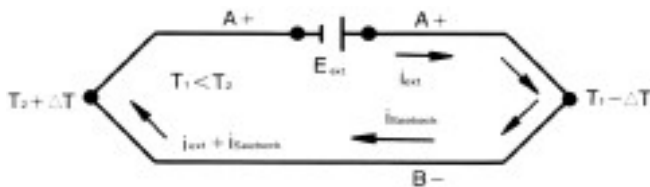


Figure 7. Peltier Thermal Effect.

When an electrical current i_{ext} flows across the junction of a thermoelement pair, heat is absorbed or liberated. The direction of current flow at a particular junction determines whether heat is absorbed or liberated.

If an external current i_{ext} flows in the same direction as the current $i_{Seebeck}$ produced by the Seebeck Effect at the hotter junction of a thermoelement pair, heat is absorbed. Heat is liberated at the other junction.

The Thomson Effect

The Thomson Effect concerns the reversible evolution, or absorption, of heat occurring whenever an electric current traverses a single homogeneous conductor, across which a temperature gradient is maintained, regardless of external introduction of the current or its induction by the thermocouple itself.

The Thomson voltage alone cannot sustain a current in a single homogeneous conductor forming a closed circuit, since equal and opposite EMFs will be set up on the two paths from heated to cooled parts of the circuit.

THERMOELECTRIC CIRCUITS

Series Circuit

A number of similar thermocouples all having thermoelements A and B may be connected in series with all of their measuring junctions at T_2 and their reference junctions at T_1 . Such a series, called a thermopile, is shown in figure 8. With 3 thermocouples in series develops an EMF 3 times as great as a single thermocouple is developed.

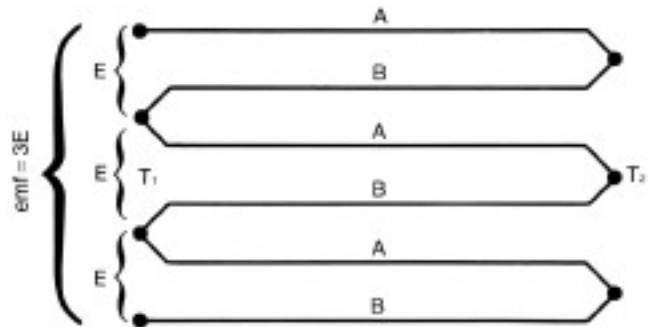


Figure 8. A thermopile of three thermocouples.

Parallel Circuit

If a quantity "N" of thermocouples of equal resistance is connected in parallel with junctions at T_1 and T_2 the EMF developed is the same as for a single thermocouple with its junctions at T_1 and T_2 .

If all of the thermocouples are of equal resistance but their measuring junctions are at various temperatures T_2, T_3, \dots, T_{n+1} , see figure 9, then the EMF developed will correspond to the mean of the temperatures of the individual measuring junctions.

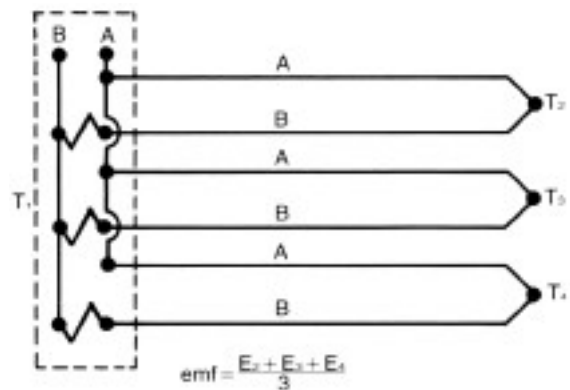
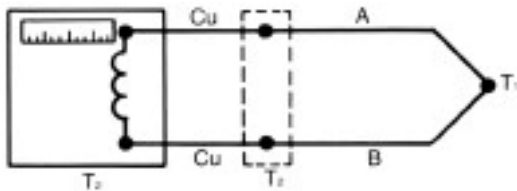


Figure 9. A parallel circuit for mean temperatures.

It is not necessary to adjust the thermocouple resistances when measuring these average temperatures. Instead, swamping resistors may be used. For example, if the thermocouples range in resistance from 5 to 10 ohms, a 500 ohm ($\pm 1\%$) resistor is connected in series with each, and the error in EMF introduced by the inequality in thermocouple resistance becomes an insignificant fraction of the total resistance.

Basic Thermocouple Circuit

Two continuous, dissimilar thermocouple wires extending from the measuring junction to the reference junction, when used together with copper connecting wires and a potentiometer, connected as shown in figure 10, below, make



up the basic thermocouple circuit for temperature measurement.

Figure 10. Basic thermocouple circuit

Differential Thermocouple Circuit

Junctions 1 and 2 are each at different temperatures. The temperature measured by the circuit shown in figure 11 is the difference between T_1 and T_2 .

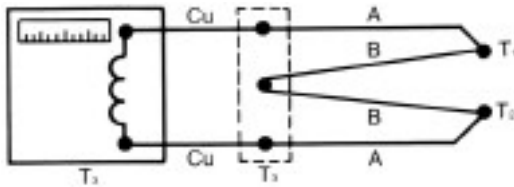


Figure 11. Differential thermocouple circuit

Typical Industrial Thermocouple Circuit

The usual thermocouple circuit includes: measuring junctions, thermocouple extension wires, reference junctions, copper connecting wires, a selector switch, and potentiometer. Many different circuit arrangements of the above components are acceptable, depending on given circumstances.

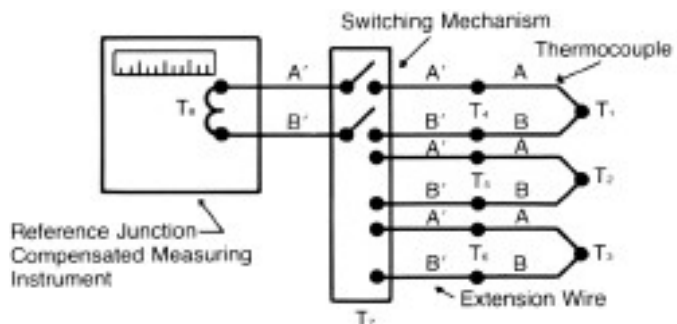


Figure 12. Typical industrial thermocouple circuit

THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

ENVIRONMENTAL LIMITATIONS OF THERMOELEMENTS.

JP

For use in oxidizing, reducing, or inert atmospheres or in vacuum. Oxidizes rapidly above 540°C (1000°F). Will rust in moist atmospheres as in subzero applications. Stable to neutron radiation transmutation. Change in composition is only 0.5 percent (increase in manganese) in 20-year period.

JN, TN, EN

Suitable for use in oxidizing, reducing, and inert atmospheres or in vacuum. Should not be used unprotected in sulfurous atmospheres above 540°C (1000°F).

Composition changes under neutron radiation since copper content is converted to nickel and zinc. Nickel content increases 5 percent in 20-year period.

TP

Can be used in vacuum or in oxidizing, reducing or inert atmospheres. Oxidizes rapidly above 370°C (700°F). Preferred to Type JP element for subzero use because of its superior corrosion resistance in moist atmospheres.

Radiation transmutation causes significant changes in composition.

Nickel and zinc grow into the material in amounts of 10 percent each in a 20-year period.

KP, EP

For use in oxidizing or inert atmospheres. Can be used in hydrogen or cracked ammonia atmospheres if dew point is below -40°C (-40°F). Do not use unprotected in sulfurous atmospheres above 540°C (1000°F).

Not recommended for service in vacuum at high temperatures except for short time periods because preferential

vaporization of chromium will alter calibration. Large negative calibration shifts will occur if exposed to marginally oxidizing atmospheres in temperature range 815 to 1040°C (1500 to 1900°F).

Quite stable to radiation transmutation. Composition change is less than 1 percent in 20-year period.

KN

Can be used in oxidizing or inert atmospheres. Do not use unprotected in sulfurous atmospheres as intergranular corrosion will cause severe embrittlement.

Relatively stable to radiation transmutation. In 20-year period, iron content will increase approximately 2 percent. The manganese and cobalt contents will decrease slightly.

RP, SP, SN, RN, BP, BN

For use in oxidizing or inert atmospheres. Do not use unprotected in reducing atmospheres in the presence of easily reduced oxides, atmospheres containing metallic vapors such as lead or zinc, or those containing nonmetallic vapors such as arsenic, phosphorus, or sulfur. Do not insert directly into metallic protecting tubes. Not recommended for service in vacuum at high temperatures except for short time periods.

Type SN elements are relatively stable to radiation transmutation. Types BP, BN, RP and SP elements are unstable because of the rapid depletion of rhodium. Essentially, all the rhodium will be converted to palladium in a 10-year period.

NP, NN

Proprietary alloys suitable for use in applications cited for KP and KN.

Typical physical properties of thermoelement materials.

Property	Thermoelement Material											
	JP	JN, TN, EN	TP	KP, EP	KN	NP	NN	RP	SP	RN, SN	BP	BN
Melting point												
°C	1490	1220	1083	1427	1399	1410	1340	1860	1850	1769	1927	1826
°F	2715	2228	1981	2600	2550	2570	2444	3380	3362	3216	3501	3319
Temperature coefficient of resistance, / °C x 10 ⁻⁴ (0 to 100°C)	65	-0.1	43	4.1	23.9	24.0	0.01	15.6	16.6	39.2	13.3	20.0
Coefficient of thermal expansion, in./in. °C (0 to 100°C)	11.7 x 10 ⁻⁶	14.9 x 10 ⁻⁶	16.6 x 10 ⁻⁶	13.1 x 10 ⁻⁶	12.0 x 10 ⁻⁶	13.3 x 10 ⁻⁶	12.1 x 10 ⁻⁶	9.0 x 10 ⁻⁶	9.0 x 10 ⁻⁶	9.0 x 10 ⁻⁶	—	—
Density: g/cm ³	7.86	8.92	8.92	8.73	8.60	8.52	8.70	19.61	19.97	21.45	17.60	20.55
lb/in. ³	0.284	0.322	0.322	0.315	0.311	0.308	0.314	0.708	0.721	0.775	0.636	0.743
Tensile strength (annealed): kgf/cm ²	3500	5600	2500	6700	6000	—	—	3200	3200	1400	4900	2800
psi	50000	80000	35000	95000	85000	90000	80000	46000	45000	20000	70000	40000
Magnetic attraction	strong	none	none	none	moderate	none	slight	none	none	none	none	none



THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

Nominal chemical composition of thermoelements.

Nominal Chemical Composition, %												
Element	JP	JN, TN, EN	TP	KP, EN	KN	NP	NN	RP	SP	RN, SN	BP	BN
Iron	99.5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Carbon	**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manganese	**	—	—	—	2	—	0.1	—	—	—	—	—
Sulfur	**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Phosphorus	**	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Silicon	**	—	—	—	1	1.4	4.4	—	—	—	—	—
Nickel	**	45	—	90	95	84.4	95.5	—	—	—	—	—
Copper	**	55	100	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chromium	**	—	—	10	—	14.2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aluminum	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Platinum	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	87	90	100	70.4	93.9
Rhodium	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	10	—	29.6	6.1

*Types JN, TN, and EN thermoelements usually contain small amounts of various elements for control of thermal emf, with corresponding reductions in the nickel or copper content, or both.

**Thermoelectric iron (JP) contains small but varying amounts of these elements.

Upper temperature limits for various size (awg) protected thermocouples

Thermoelement	No. 8 [0.128 in.]	No. 14 [0.064 in.]	No. 20 [0.032 in.]	No. 24 [0.020 in.]	No. 28 0.013 in.]
JP	760°C (1400°F)	593°C (1100°F)	482°C (900°F)	371°C (700°F)	371°C (700°F)
JN, TN, EN	871°C (1600°F)	649°C (1200°F)	538°C (1000°F)	427°C (800°F)	427°C (800°F)
TP	—	371°C (700°F)	260°C (500°F)	204°C (400°F)	204°C (400°F)
KP, EP, KN, NP, NN	1260°C (2300°F)	1093°C (2000°F)	982°C (1800°F)	871°C (1600°F)	871°C (1600°F)
RP, SP, RN, SN	—	—	—	1482°C (2700°F)	—
BP, BN	—	—	—	1705°C (3100°F)	—

Nominal resistance of thermoelements

Ohms per foot at 20°C (68°F)												
Awg. No.	Diameter, in.	KN	KP, EP	TN, JN, EN	TP	JP	NP	NN	RN, SN	SP	BP	BN
8	0.1285	0.0107	0.0257	0.0179	0.000628	0.0043	0.0354	0.0134	0.00386	0.00697	0.00700	0.00648
12	0.0808	0.0270	0.065	0.0448	0.00159	0.0109	0.0884	0.0335	0.00976	0.01761	0.01769	0.01637
14	0.0641	0.0432	0.104	0.0718	0.00253	0.0174	0.1416	0.0537	0.0155	0.0280	0.0281	0.0260
16	0.0508	0.0683	0.164	0.113	0.00402	0.0276	0.2230	0.0846	0.0247	0.0445	0.0447	0.0414
17	0.0453	0.0874	0.209	0.145	0.00506	0.0349	0.2864	0.1086	0.0311	0.0562	0.0564	0.0523
18	0.0403	0.111	0.266	0.184	0.00648	0.0446	0.3625	0.1375	0.0399	0.0719	0.0722	0.0669
20	0.0320	0.173	0.415	0.287	0.0102	0.0699	0.5664	0.2148	0.0624	0.1125	0.1130	0.1046
22	0.0253	0.276	0.663	0.456	0.0161	0.1111	0.9061	0.3437	0.0993	0.1790	0.1798	0.1664
24	0.0201	0.438	1.05	0.728	0.0257	0.1767	1.4356	0.5445	0.1578	0.2847	0.2859	0.2647
26	0.0159	0.700	1.68	1.16	0.0408	0.281	2.2942	0.8702	0.2509	0.4526	0.4546	0.4208
28	0.0126	1.11	2.48	1.85	0.0649	0.447	3.6533	1.3857	0.3989	0.7197	0.7229	0.6692
30	0.0100	1.77	4.25	2.94	0.1032	0.710	5.8000	2.2000	0.6344	1.144	1.149	1.064
36	0.0050	7.08	17.0	11.8	0.4148	2.86	23.200	8.8000	2.550	4.600	4.620	4.277
40	0.0031	18.4	44.2	30.6	1.049	7.22	60.354	22.893	6.448	11.63	11.68	10.81

THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

Nominal weights of thermoelements

Awg. No.	Diameter, in.	Feet Per Pound					Feet Per Troy Ounce				
		KN	KP, EP	TN, JN, EN	TP	JP	RN, SN	SP	RP	BN	BP
8	.128	21	20	20	20	22	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
14	.064	83	82	80	80	91	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.8
16	.051	130	129	127	127	143	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.7	4.3
17	.045	167	166	163	163	184	4.6	4.9	5.0	4.8	5.6
18	.040	212	210	207	207	233	5.8	6.2	6.3	6.0	7.0
20	.032	331	328	323	322	364	9.1	9.7	9.9	9.4	11.0
22	.025	530	525	518	517	583	15.0	16.0	16.4	15.6	18.2
24	.020	838	832	820	816	924	23.4	25.1	25.6	24.4	28.5
26	0.16	1340	1331	1312	1306	1478	36.6	39.2	40.0	38.2	44.5
28	.013	2130	2119	2089	2076	2353	555	59.5	60.7	57.9	67.6
30	.010	3370	3364	3316	3296	3736	60.6	65.0	66.3	63.2	73.8
36	.005	13500	13460	13260	13180	14940	375.5	402.8	411.0	391.9	457.5
40	.003	35200	35010	34500	34292	N.A.	1042.7	1118.6	1141.4	1088.2	1270.5

Limits of Error (Ref. Junction - 0° C)

Thermocouples

Thermo-couple Type	Temp. Range, °C	Temp. Range, °F	Limits of Error	
			Standard [whichever is greater]	Special [whichever is greater]
T	0 to 350	32 to 700	±1°C or ±0.75%	±0.5°C or 0.4%
J	0 to 750	32 to 1400	±2.2°C or ±0.75%	±1.1°C or 0.4%
E	0 to 900	32 to 1600	±1.7°C or ±0.5%	±1°C or 0.4%
K	0 to 1250	32 to 2300	±2.2°C or ±0.75%	±1.1°C or 0.4%
N	0 to 1250	32 to 2300	±2.2°C or ±0.75%	±1.1°C or 0.4%
R or S	0 to 1450	32 to 2700	±1.5°C or ±0.25%	±0.6°C or 0.1%
B	800 to 1700	1600 to 3100	±0.5%	—
W3/W25	0 to 2315	32 to 4200	4.4°C or ±1%	—
W5	0 to 2200	32 to 4100	4.4°C or ±1%	—
T	-200 to 0°C	-328 to 32	±1°C to ±1.5%	±0.5°C or 0.8%
E	-200 to 0°C	-328 to 32	±1.7°C to ±1%	±1°C or 0.5%
K	-200 to 0°C	-328 to 32	±2.2°C to ±2%	—

Thermocouple Extension Wires

Extension Wire Type	Temperature Range, °C	Temperature Range, °F	Limits of Error	
			Standard	Special
KX	0 to 200°C	32° to 400°	±2.2°C	±1.1°C
JX	0 to 200°C	32° to 400°	±2.2°C	±1.1°C
EX	0 to 200°C	32° to 400°	±1.7°C	±1.0°C
TX	-60 to 100°C	-75° to 200°	±1.0°C	±0.5°C
NX	0 to 200°C	32° to 400°	±2.2°C	±1.1°C

Thermocouple Compensating Extension Wire

Thermo-couple Type	Compensating Wire Type	Temp. Range, °C	Temp. Range, °F	Limits of Error
R, S	SX*	25 to 200	32 to 400	±5°C
B	BX***	0 to 200	32 to 400	±4.2°C
B	B**	0 to 100	32 to 200	±3.7°C
W3/W25	W3X	0 to 260	32 to 500	±6.8°C
W5/W26	W5X	0 to 870	32 to 1600	±6.1°C

Thermocouples and thermocouple materials are normally supplied to meet the limits of error specified in the table for temperatures above 0°C. The same materials, however, may not fall within the sub-zero limits of error given in the second section of the table. If materials are required to meet the sub-zero limits, selection of materials usually will be required.

► Limits of error in this table apply to new thermocouple wire, normally in the size range (No. 30 to No. 8 Awg) and used at temperatures not exceeding the recommended range (when derated for wire size). If used at higher temperatures these limits of error may not apply.

► Limits of error apply to new wire as delivered to the user and do not allow for calibration drift during use. The magnitude of such changes depends on such factors as wire size, temperature, time of exposure, and environment.

► Other thermocouple combinations, not listed here, may be specially ordered. Limits of error needed will be determined at time of quote.

Type Wire	Measuring Junction Temperature
SX	Greater than 870°C
BX	Greater than 1000°C

*Copper(t) versus copper nickel alloy (-).

**Copper versus copper compensating extension wire, usable to 100°C with maximum errors as indicated, but with no significant error over 0 to 50°C range.

THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

TEMPERATURE - E.M.F. TABLES - I.T.S. 90

Type B (Platinum 30% Rhodium-Platinum 6% Rhodium)

Temperature in degrees F (C) Reference junction at 32° F (0° C) Millivolts →

Deg. °F (°C)	0°(-18°)	10°(-13°)	20°(-7°)	30°(-2°)	40°(5°)	50°(10°)	60°(16°)	70°(22°)	80°(27°)	90°(33°)
0° (-18°)	-0.001	-0.002	-0.002	-0.003	-0.002	-0.002				
+100° (+38°)	-0.001	0.000	0.002	0.004	0.006	0.009	0.012	0.015	0.019	0.023
+200° (+94°)	0.027	0.032	0.037	0.043	0.049	0.055	0.061	0.068	0.075	0.083
+300° (+149°)	0.090	0.099	0.107	0.116	0.125	0.135	0.145	0.155	0.165	0.176
+400° (+205°)	0.187	0.199	0.211	0.223	0.235	0.248	0.261	0.275	0.288	0.303
+500° (+260°)	0.317	0.332	0.347	0.362	0.378	0.394	0.411	0.427	0.444	0.462
+600° (+316°)	0.479	0.497	0.516	0.534	0.553	0.572	0.592	0.612	0.632	0.653
+700° (+372°)	0.673	0.694	0.716	0.738	0.760	0.782	0.805	0.828	0.851	0.875
+800° (+427°)	0.898	0.923	0.947	0.972	0.997	1.022	1.048	1.074	1.100	1.127
+900° (+483°)	1.154	1.181	1.208	1.236	1.264	1.293	1.321	1.350	1.379	1.409
+1000° (+538°)	1.439	1.469	1.499	1.530	1.561	1.592	1.624	1.655	1.687	1.720
+1100° (+594°)	1.752	1.785	1.818	1.852	1.886	1.920	1.954	1.988	2.023	2.058
+1200° (+649°)	2.094	2.129	2.165	2.201	2.237	2.274	2.311	2.348	2.385	2.423
+1300° (+705°)	2.461	2.499	2.538	2.576	2.615	2.654	2.694	2.734	2.774	2.814
+1400° (+760°)	2.854	5.895	2.936	2.978	3.019	3.061	3.103	3.145	3.188	3.230
+1500° (+816°)	3.273	3.317	3.360	3.404	3.448	3.492	3.537	3.581	3.626	3.672
+1600° (+872°)	3.717	3.763	3.809	3.855	3.901	3.948	3.994	4.041	4.089	4.136
+1700° (+927°)	4.184	4.232	4.280	4.328	4.377	4.426	4.475	4.524	4.574	4.623
+1800° (+983°)	4.673	4.723	4.774	4.824	4.875	4.926	4.977	5.028	5.080	5.132
+1900° (+1038°)	5.184	5.236	5.288	5.341	5.394	5.447	5.500	5.553	5.607	5.661
+2000° (+1094°)	5.715	5.769	5.823	5.878	5.932	5.987	6.042	6.098	6.153	6.209
+2100° (+1149°)	6.624	6.320	6.377	6.433	6.490	6.546	6.603	6.660	6.718	6.775
+2200° (+1205°)	6.833	6.890	6.948	7.006	7.065	7.123	7.182	7.240	7.299	7.358
+2300° (+1260°)	7.417	7.477	7.536	7.596	7.656	7.716	7.776	7.836	7.897	7.957
+2400° (+1316°)	8.018	8.079	8.140	8.201	8.262	8.323	8.385	8.446	8.508	8.570
+2500° (+1372°)	8.632	8.694	8.756	8.819	8.881	8.944	9.006	9.069	9.132	9.195
+2600° (+1427°)	9.258	9.321	9.385	9.448	9.511	9.575	9.639	9.702	9.766	9.830
+2700° (+1483°)	9.894	9.958	10.022	10.086	10.150	10.215	10.279	10.344	10.408	10.473
+2800° (+1538°)	10.537	10.602	10.666	10.731	10.796	10.861	10.925	10.990	11.055	11.120
+2900° (+1594°)	11.185	11.250	11.315	11.380	11.445	11.510	11.575	11.640	11.705	11.770
+3000° (+1649°)	11.835	11.900	11.965	12.030	12.095	12.160	12.225	12.290	12.355	12.420
+3100° (+1705°)	12.484	12.549	12.614	12.679	12.743	12.808	12.872	12.937	13.001	13.066
+3200° (+1760°)	13.130	13.194	13.259	13.323	13.387	13.451	13.515	13.579	13.642	13.706
+3300° (+1816°)	13.769									

TEMPERATURE - E.M.F. TABLES

Type W (Tungsten-Tungsten 26% Rhenium)

Temperature in degrees F (C) Reference junction at 32° F (0° C) Millivolts →

Deg. °F (°C)	0°(-18°)	20°(-7°)	40°(5°)	60°(16°)	80°(27°)	Deg. °F (°C)	0°(-18°)	20°(-7°)	40°(5°)	60°(16°)	80°(27°)
0° (-18°)	-.016	-.007	0.006	0.026	0.050	+2200°	18.701	18.936	19.170	19.405	19.639
+100° (+38°)	0.079	0.113	0.153	0.197	0.246	+2300°	19.873	20.106	20.340	20.573	20.806
+200° (+94°)	0.299	0.357	0.420	0.487	0.559	+2400°	21.038	21.270	21.502	21.734	21.965
+300° (+149°)	0.634	0.714	0.799	0.887	0.979	+2500°	22.195	22.425	22.655	22.884	23.113
+400° (+205°)	1.075	1.175	1.279	1.387	1.498	+2600°	23.341	23.569	23.796	24.023	24.249
+500° (+260°)	1.613	1.731	1.853	1.978	2.106	+2700°	24.474	24.699	24.923	25.146	25.369
+600° (+316°)	2.238	2.373	2.511	2.652	2.796	+2800°	25.591	25.812	26.033	26.253	26.472
+700° (+372°)	2.943	3.093	3.246	3.401	3.559	+2900°	26.690	26.907	27.124	27.340	27.555
+800° (+427°)	3.720	3.884	4.049	4.218	4.389	+3000°	27.769	27.983	28.195	28.407	28.618
+900° (+483°)	4.562	4.737	4.915	5.095	5.277	+3100°	28.827	29.036	29.244	29.451	29.657
+1000° (+538°)	5.461	5.647	5.836	6.026	6.218	+3200°	29.862	30.066	30.269	30.471	30.672
+1100° (+594°)	6.412	6.607	6.805	7.004	7.205	+3300°	30.871	31.070	31.268	31.464	31.660
+1200° (+649°)	7.407	7.611	7.816	8.023	8.232	+3400°	31.854	32.047	32.240	32.430	32.620
+1300° (+705°)	8.441	8.652	8.865	9.078	9.293	+3500°	32.809	32.996	33.182	33.367	33.551
+1400° (+760°)	9.509	9.726	9.945	10.164	10.384	+3600°	33.733	33.914	34.094	34.273	34.450
+1500° (+816°)	10.606	10.828	11.051	11.275	11.500	+3700°	34.626	34.801	34.974	35.146	35.317
+1600° (+872°)	11.725	11.952	12.179	12.407	12.635	+3800°	35.486	35.654	35.821	35.986	36.150
+1700° (+927°)	12.864	13.094	13.324	13.555	13.786	+3900°	36.312	36.473	36.632	36.790	36.946
+1800° (+983°)	14.018	14.250	14.482	14.715	14.948	+4000°	37.101	37.254	37.406	37.557	37.705
+1900° (+1038°)	15.182	15.415	15.649	15.884	16.118	+4100°	37.853	37.998	38.142	38.285	38.425
+2000° (+1094°)	16.353	16.587	16.822	17.057	17.292	+4200°	38.564				
+2100° (+1149°)	17.527	17.762	17.997	18.232	18.467						



THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

TEMPERATURE - E.M.F. TABLES - I.T.S. 90

Type N (Nicrosil-Nisil)

Temperature in degrees F (C) Reference junction at 32° F (0° C) Millivolts →

Deg. ° F (° C)	0° (-18°)	10° (-13°)	20° (-7°)	30° (-2°)	40° (5°)	50° (10°)	60° (16°)	70° (22°)	80° (27°)	90° (33°)
0° (-18°)	-0.461	-0.318	-0.174	-0.029	0.116	0.261	0.407	0.555	0.703	0.853
+100° (+38°)	1.004	1.156	1.309	1.463	1.619	1.776	1.934	2.093	2.253	2.415
+200° (+94°)	2.577	2.741	2.906	3.072	3.240	3.408	3.578	3.748	3.920	4.093
+300° (+149°)	4.267	4.442	4.618	4.795	4.973	5.152	5.332	5.512	5.694	5.877
+400° (+205°)	6.060	6.245	6.430	6.616	6.803	6.991	7.179	7.369	7.559	7.750
+500° (+260°)	7.941	8.134	8.327	8.520	8.715	8.910	9.105	9.302	9.499	9.696
+600° (+316°)	9.895	10.093	10.293	10.493	10.693	10.894	11.096	11.298	11.501	11.704
+700° (+372°)	11.907	12.111	12.306	12.521	12.726	12.932	13.139	13.346	13.553	13.760
+800° (+427°)	13.969	14.177	14.386	14.595	14.804	15.014	15.225	15.435	16.646	15.857
+900° (+483°)	16.069	16.281	16.493	16.705	16.918	17.131	17.344	17.558	17.772	17.986
+1000° (+538°)	18.200	18.414	18.629	18.844	19.059	19.274	19.490	19.705	19.921	20.137
+1100° (+594°)	20.353	20.570	20.786	21.003	21.220	21.437	21.654	21.871	22.088	22.305
+1200° (+649°)	22.523	22.740	22.958	23.176	23.393	23.611	23.829	24.047	24.265	24.483
+1300° (+705°)	24.701	24.919	25.137	25.356	25.574	25.792	26.010	26.229	26.447	26.665
+1400° (+760°)	26.883	27.102	27.320	27.538	27.756	27.975	28.193	28.411	28.629	28.847
+1500° (+816°)	29.065	29.283	29.501	29.719	29.937	30.154	30.372	30.590	30.807	31.025
+1600° (+872°)	31.242	31.459	31.677	31.894	32.111	32.328	32.545	32.761	32.978	33.195
+1700° (+927°)	33.411	33.627	33.844	34.060	34.276	34.491	34.707	34.923	35.138	35.353
+1800° (+983°)	35.568	35.783	35.998	36.213	36.427	36.641	36.855	37.069	37.283	37.497
+1900° (+1038°)	37.710	37.923	38.136	38.349	38.562	38.774	38.986	39.198	39.410	39.622
+2000° (+1094°)	39.833	40.044	40.255	40.466	40.677	40.887	41.097	41.307	41.516	41.725
+2100° (+1149°)	41.935	42.143	42.352	42.560	42.768	42.976	43.184	43.391	43.598	43.805
+2200° (+1205°)	44.012	44.218	44.424	44.629	44.835	45.040	45.245	45.449	45.653	45.857
+2300° (+1260°)	46.060	46.263	46.466	46.668	46.870	47.071	47.272	47.473		

Seebeck coefficient of thermoelements vs. Platinum 67

Thermoelement	JP	JN,TN, EN	TP	KP, EP	KN	RP	SP	BP	BN
Temperature, °C	Seebeck Coefficient, $\mu V/^\circ C$								
-190	+6.3	-20.9	-4.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
-100	14.4	27.0	+1.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
0	17.8	32.2	5.9	+25.7	-13.5	+5.5	+5.5	-	-
200	14.6	41.0	12.0	32.7	7.4	8.5	8.5	+9.2	+7.2
400	9.7	45.5	16.2	34.6	7.7	10.5	9.5	11.7	7.6
600	11.7	46.8	-	33.8	8.8	11.5	10.0	13.8	7.9
800	17.8	46.4	-	32.2	8.8	12.5	11.0	15.8	8.2
1000	-	-	-	30.8	8.3	13.0	11.5	17.7	8.5
1200	-	-	-	29.1	7.4	14.0	12.0	19.1	8.7
1400	-	-	-	-	-	14.0	12.0	19.1	8.7
1600	-	-	-	-	-	13.5	12.0	20.4	8.7
Temperature, °F	Seebeck Coefficient, $\mu V/^\circ F$								
-300	+2.5	-11.9	-2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
-200	6.7	14.0	+0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
-100	8.8	15.8	1.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
32	9.9	17.9	3.3	+14.3	-7.5	+3.0	+3.0	-	-
200	9.6	20.5	5.0	16.7	6.5	4.1	4.0	+4.1	+3.6
400	8.0	22.9	6.7	18.3	4.0	4.9	4.7	5.1	4.0
600	6.2	24.5	8.2	19.0	4.1	5.5	5.2	5.8	4.2
800	5.3	25.3	-	19.1	4.4	5.8	5.4	6.5	4.2
1000	5.7	26.0	-	18.9	4.8	6.2	5.5	7.4	4.3
1500	9.9	25.8	-	17.8	4.9	6.8	6.1	8.8	4.6
2000	-	-	-	16.7	4.3	7.6	6.6	10.2	4.8
2500	-	-	-	14.9	4.0	7.7	6.7	11.0	4.9
3000	-	-	-	-	-	7.6	6.5	11.3	4.9

THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

SELECTION GUIDE FOR PROTECTION TUBES

Application	Protection Tube Material
Heat Treating:	
Annealing	
Up to 1300°F (704°C)	Wrought iron
Over 1300°F (704°C)	28% chrome iron or Inconel
Carburizing hardening	
Up to 1500°F (816°C)	Wrought iron or 28% chrome iron
1500 to 2000°F (1093°C)	28% chrome iron or Inconel
Over 2000°F (1093°C)	Ceramic
Nitriding salt baths	
Cyanide	28% chrome iron
Neutral	Nickel
High speed	Ceramic
Iron and steel:	
Basic oxygen furnace	Quartz
Blast furnaces	
Downcomer	Inconel, 28% chrome iron
Stove Dome	Silicon carbide
Hot blast main	Inconel
Stove trunk	Inconel
Stove outlet flue	Wrought iron
Open hearth	
Flues and stack	Inconel, 28% chrome iron
Checkers	Inconel, Cermet
Waste heat boiler	28% chrome iron, Inconel
Billet heating slab heating and butt welding	
Up to 2000°F (1093°C)	28% chrome iron, Inconel
Over 2000°F (1093°C)	Ceramic, silicon carbide
Bright annealing batch	
Top work temperature	Not required (use bare Type J thermocouple)
Bottom work temperature	28% Chrome iron
Continuous furnace section	Inconel, ceramic
Forging	Silicon carbide, ceramic
Soaking pits	
Up to 2000°F (1093°C)	Inconel
Over 2000°F (1093°C)	Ceramic, silicon carbide
Nonferrous metals:	
Aluminum	
Melting	Cast iron (white-washed)
Heat treating	Wrought iron
Brass or bronze	Not required (use dip-type thermocouple)
Lead	28% chrome iron, wrought iron
Magnesium	Wrought iron, cast iron
Tin	Extra heavy carbon steel
Zinc	Extra heavy carbon steel
Pickling tanks	Chemical lead
Cement:	
Exit flues	Inconel, 28% chrome iron
Kilns-heating zone	Inconel
Ceramic:	
Kilns	Ceramic and silicon carbide
Dryers	Wrought iron, silicon carbide
Vitreous enameling	Inconel, 28% chrome iron

Application	Protection Tube Material
Glass:	
Fore hearths and feeders	Platinum thimble
Lehrs	Wrought iron
Tanks	
Roof and wall	Ceramic
Flues and checkers	28% chrome iron, Inconel
Paper:	
Digesters	Type 316 stainless steel, 28% chrome iron
Petroleum:	
Dewaxing	Type 304 stainless steel or carbon steel
Towers	Type 304 stainless steel or carbon steel
Transfer lines	Type 304 stainless steel or carbon steel
Fractionating column	Type 304 stainless steel or carbon steel
Bridgwall	Type 304 stainless steel or carbon steel
Power:	
Coal-air mixtures	Type 304 stainless steel
Flue gases	Wrought iron or 28% chrome iron
Preheaters	Wrought iron or 28% chrome iron
Steel lines	Type 347 or 316 stainless steel
Water lines	Carbon steel
Boiler tubes	Type 309 or 310 stainless steel
Gas producers:	
Producer gas	28% chrome iron
Water gas	
Carburetor	Inconel, 28% chrome iron
Super heater	Inconel, 28% chrome iron
Tar stills	Carbon steel
Incinerators:	
Up to 2000°F (1093°C)	28% chrome iron, Inconel
Over 2000°F (1093°C)	Ceramic (primary)
Silicon carbide (secondary)	
Food:	
Baking ovens	Wrought iron
Charretort, sugar	Wrought iron
Vegetables and fruit	Type 304 stainless steel
Sanitary	Type 316 stainless steel
Chemical:	
Acetic acid	
10 to 50%, 70°F	Type 304 stainless steel
50%, 212°	Type 316 stainless steel
99%, 70 to 212°F	Type 430 stainless steel
Alcohol, ethyl, methyl	
70 to 212°F	Type 304 stainless steel
Ammonia	
All concentration, 70°F	Type 304 stainless steel

Application	Protection Tube Material
Ammonium chloride All concentration, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Ammonium nitrate All concentration, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Ammonium sulphate 10% to saturated, 212°F (100°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Barium chloride All concentration, 70°F (22°C)	Monel
Barium hydroxide All concentration, 70°F (22°C)	Carbon steel
Barium sulfate	Nichrome*
Brines	Monel
Bromine	Tantalum
Butadiene	Type 304 stainless steel
Butane	Type 304 stainless steel
Butylacetate	Monel
Butyl alcohol	Copper
Calcium chlorate Dilute, 70 to 150°F (22 to 66°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Calcium hydroxide 10 to 20%, 212°F (100°C) 50%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel
Carbolic acid All 212°F (100°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Carbon dioxide wet or dry	2017-T4 aluminum, Monel
Chlorine gas Dry, 70°F (22°C) Moist, 20 to 212°F (-7 to 100°C)	Type 316 stainless steel Hastelloy C
Chromic acid 10 to 50%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 315 stainless steel
Citric acid 15%, 70°F (22°C) 15%, 212°F (100°C) Concentrated, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 315 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel
Copper nitrate	Type 304 stainless steel
Copper sulphate	Type 304 stainless steel
Cresols	Type 304 stainless steel
Cyanogen gas	Type 304 stainless steel
Dow therm*	Carbon steel
Ether	Type 304 stainless steel
Ethyl acetate	Monel
Ethyl chloride 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Ethyl sulphate 70°F (22°C)	Monel
Ferric chloride 5%, 70°F (22°C) to boiling	Tantalum
Ferric sulphate 5%, 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Ferrous sulphate Dilute 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Formaldehyde	Type 304 stainless steel
Formic acid 5%, 70 to 150°F (22 to 66°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Freon	Monel
Gallic acid 5%, 70 to 150°F (22 to 66°C)	Monel

Application	Protection Tube Material
Gasoline 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Glucose 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Glycerine 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Glycerol	Type 304 stainless steel
Hydrobromic acid 98%, 212°F (100°C)	Hastelloy B
Hydrochloric acid 1%, 5%, 70°F (22°C) 1%, 5%, 212°F (100°C) 25%, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°)	Hastelloy C Hastelloy B Hastelloy B
Hydrofluoric acid	Hastelloy C
Hydrogen peroxide 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°)	Type 316 stainless steel
Hydrogen sulphide Wet and dry	Type 316 stainless steel
Iodine 70°F (22°C)	Tantalum
Lactic acid 5%, 70°F (22°C) 5%, 150°F (66°C) 10%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Tantalum
Magnesium chloride 5%, 70°F (22°C) 5%, 212°F (100°C)	Monel Nickel
Magnesium sulphate Hot and cold	Monel
Muriatic acid 70°F (22°C)	Tantalum
Naphtha 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Natural gas 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Nickel chloride 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Nickel sulphate Hot and cold	Type 304 stainless steel
Nitric acid 5%, 70°F (22°C) 20%, 70°F (22°C) 50%, 70°F (22°C) 50%, 212°F (100°C) 65%, 212°F (100°C) Concentrated, 70°F (22°C) Concentrated, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Tantalum
Nitrobenzene 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Oleic acid 70°F (22°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Oleum 70°F (22°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Oxalic acid 5%, hot and cold 10%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Monel
Oxygen 70°F (100°C) Liquid Elevated temperatures	Steel Stainless steel Stainless steel
Palmitic acid	Type 316 stainless steel
Pentane	Type 304 stainless steel
Phenol	Type 304 stainless steel

THERMOCOUPLE ENGINEERING DATA

SELECTION GUIDE FOR PROTECTION TUBES

Application	Protection Tube Material
Phosphoric acid 1%, 5%, 70°F (22°C) 10%, 70°F (22°C) 10%, 212°F (100°C) 30%, 70°F, 212°F (22°C, 100°C) 85%, 70°F, 212°F (22°C, 100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel Hastelloy C Hastelloy B Hastelloy B
Picric acid 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium bromide 70°F (22°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Potassium carbonate 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium chlorate 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium hydroxide 5%, 70°F (22°C) 25%, 212°F (100°C) 60%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel
Potassium nitrate 5%, 70°F (22°C) 5%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium permanganate 5%, 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium sulphate 5%, 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Potassium sulphide 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Propane	Type 304 stainless steel
Pyrogalic acid	Type 304 stainless steel
Quinine bisulphate Dry	Type 316 stainless steel
Quinine sulphate Dry	Type 304 stainless steel
Sea water	Monel
Salicylic acid	Nickel
Sodium bicarbonate All concentration, 70°F (22°C) Saturated, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel
Sodium carbonate 5%, 70 to 150°F (22 to 66°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Sodium chloride 5%, 70 to 150°F (22 to 66°C) Saturated, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C)	Type 316 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel
Sodium fluoride 5%, 70°F (22°C)	Monel
Sodium hydroxide	Type 304 stainless steel
Sodium hypochlorite 5% still	Type 316 stainless steel
Sodium nitrate Fused	Type 316 stainless steel
Sodium peroxide	Type 304 stainless steel
Sodium sulphate 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Sodium sulphide 70°F (22°C)	Type 316 stainless steel
Sodium sulphite 150°F (66°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Sulphur dioxide Moist gas, 70°F (22°C) Gas, 575°F (302°C)	Type 316 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel
Sulphur Dry-molten Wet	Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel

Application	Protection Tube Material
Sulphuric acid 5%, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C) 10%, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C) 50%, 70 to 212°F (22 to 100°C) 90%, 70°F (22°C) 90%, 212°F (100°C)	Hastelloy B Hastelloy B Hastelloy B Hastelloy B Hastelloy D
Tannic acid 70°F (22°C)	Type 304 stainless steel
Tartaric acid 70°F (22°C) 150°F (66°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 316 stainless steel
Toluene	2017-T4 aluminum
Turpentine	Type 304 stainless steel
Whiskey and wine	Type 304 stainless steel
Xylene	Copper
Zinc chloride	Monel
Zinc sulphate 5%, 70°F (22°C) Saturated, 70°F (22°C) 25%, 212°F (100°C)	Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel Type 304 stainless steel

Temperature and Power Control Fundamentals

I. The Control System

The automatic control system consists of a process as shown in **Figure 1**.

II. Sensors

Sensors commonly used in temperature control are:

1. **Thermistor:** A non-linear device whose resistance varies with temperature. Thermistors are used at temperatures under 500°F. Fragility limits their use in industrial applications.
2. **Resistance Temperature Detector (RTD):** Changes in temperature vary the resistance of an element, normally a thin platinum wire. Platinum RTDs find application where high accuracy and low drift are required. 3-wire sensors are used where the distance between the process and the controller is more than several feet. The third wire is used for leadwire resistance compensation.
3. **Thermocouple:** A junction of two dissimilar metals produces a millivolt signal whose amplitude is dependent on (a) the junction metals; (b) the temperature under measurement. Thermocouples require cold-end compensation

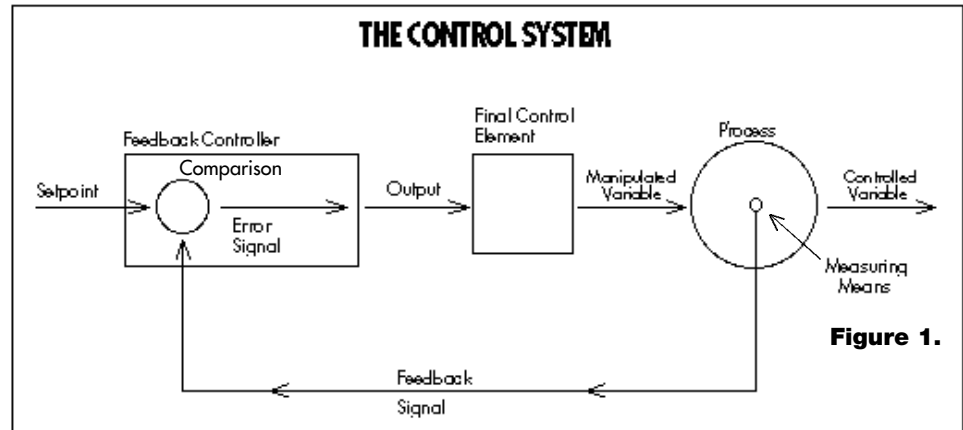


Figure 1.

whereas connections between thermocouple wire and copper at the controller's terminal block produce voltages that are not related to the process temperature. Thermocouple voltage outputs are non-linear with respect to the range of temperatures being measured and, therefore, require linearization for accuracy. Thermocouple junctions are usually made by welding the dissimilar metals together to form a bead. Different thermocouple types are used for various temperature measurements as shown in **Table 1**. Thermocouples are the most commonly used industrial sensor because of low cost and durability.

4. Other temperature sensors include non-contact infrared pyrometers and thermopiles. These are used where the process is in motion or cannot be accessed with a fixed sensor.

III. Sensor Placement

Reduction of transfer lag is essential for accurate temperature control using simple temperature controllers. The sensor, heater and work load should be grouped as closely as possible. Sensors placed downstream in pipes, thermowells or loose-fitting platen holes will not yield optimum control. Gas and air flow processes must be sensed with an open element probe to minimize lag. Remember that the controller can only respond to the information it receives from its sensor.

Thermocouple Type	Wire Color	Useful Temperature Range °F
J	White	32 to 1300
K	Yellow	-328 to 2200
T	Blue	-328 to 650
R/S	Black	-32 to 2642

Table 1.

TEMPERATURE AND POWER CONTROL FUNDAMENTALS

IV. Process Load Characteristics

Thermal lag is the product of thermal resistance and thermal capacity. A single lag process has one resistance and one capacity. Thermal resistance is present at the heater/water interface. Capacity is the storage capacity of the water being heated.

Sometimes the sensor location is distant from the heated process and this introduces dead time. **Figure 2a.**

Introduction of additional capacities and thermal resistance changes the process to multi-lag. **Figure 2b & 2c.**

V. Control Modes

1. On-Off. **Figure 3.**
On-Off control has two states, fully off and fully on. To prevent rapid cycling, some hysteresis is added to the switching function. In operation, the controller output is on from start-up until temperature set value is achieved. After overshoot, the temperature then falls to the hysteresis limit and power is reapplied.

On-Off control can be used where:
(a) The process is underpowered and the heater has very little storage capacity.
(b) Where some temperature oscillation is permissible.
(c) On electromechanical systems (compressors) where cycling must be minimized.

2. Proportional. **Figure 4.**
Proportional controllers modulate power to the process by adjusting their output power within a proportional band. The proportional band is expressed as a percentage of the instrument span and is centered over the setpoint. At the lower proportional band edge and below, power output is 100%. As the temperature rises through the band, power is proportionately reduced so that at the upper band edge and above, power output is 0%.

Proportional controllers can have two adjustments:

- a) Manual Reset. **Figure 5.** Allows positioning the band with respect to the setpoint so that more or less power is applied at setpoint to eliminate the offset error inherent in proportional control.

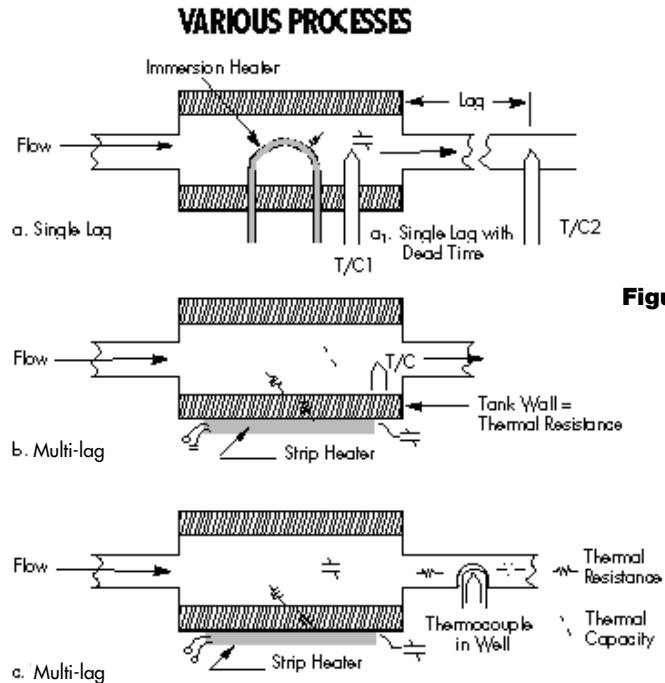


Figure 2.

ON - OFF CONTROL

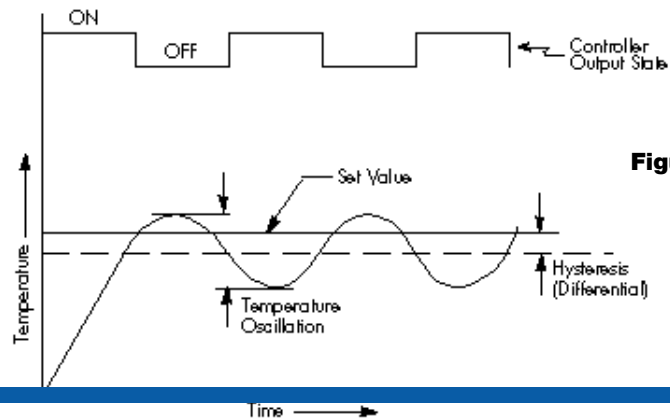


Figure 3.

PROPORTIONAL CONTROL

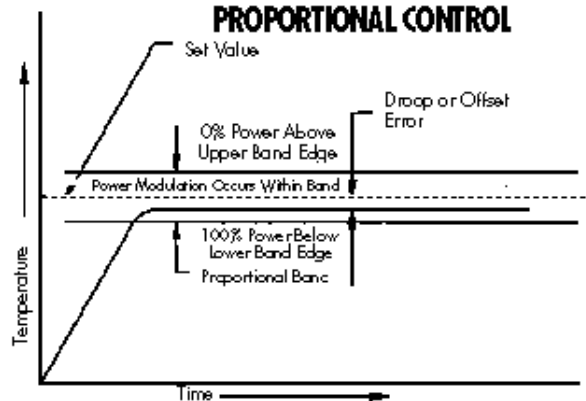


Figure 4.

- b) Bandwidth (Gain). **Figure 6.** Permits changing the modulating bandwidth to accommodate various process characteristics. High-gain, fast processes require a wide band for good control without oscillation. Low-gain, slow-moving processes can be managed well with narrow band to on-off control. The relationship between gain and bandwidth is expressed inversely:

$$\text{Gain} = \frac{100\%}{\text{Proportional Band in \%}}$$

Proportional-only controllers may be used where the process load is fairly constant and the setpoint is not frequently changed.

3. Proportional with Integral (PI), automatic reset. **Figure 7.** Integral action moves the proportional band to increase or decrease power in response to temperature deviation from setpoint. The integrator slowly changes power output until zero deviation is achieved. Integral action cannot be faster than process response time or oscillation will occur.
4. Proportional with Derivative (PD), rate action. Derivative moves the proportional band to provide more or less output power in response to rapidly changing temperature. Its effect is to add lead during temperature change. It also reduces overshoot on start-up.
5. Proportional Integral Derivative (PID). This type of control is useful on difficult processes. Its Integral action eliminates offset error, while Derivative action rapidly changes output in response to load changes.

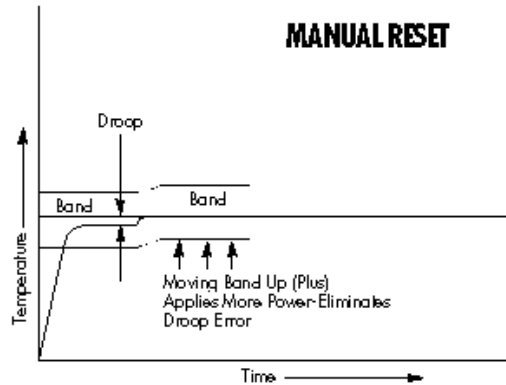


Figure 5.

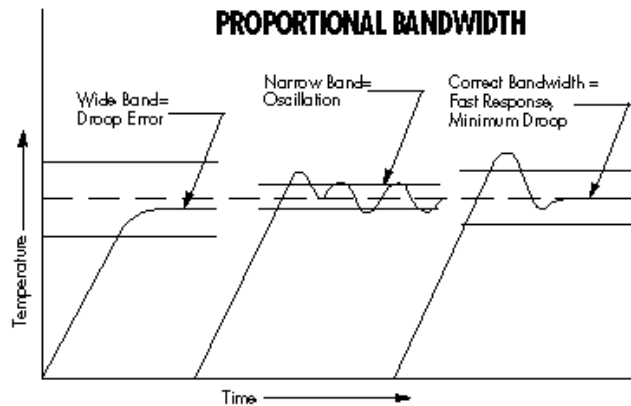


Figure 6.

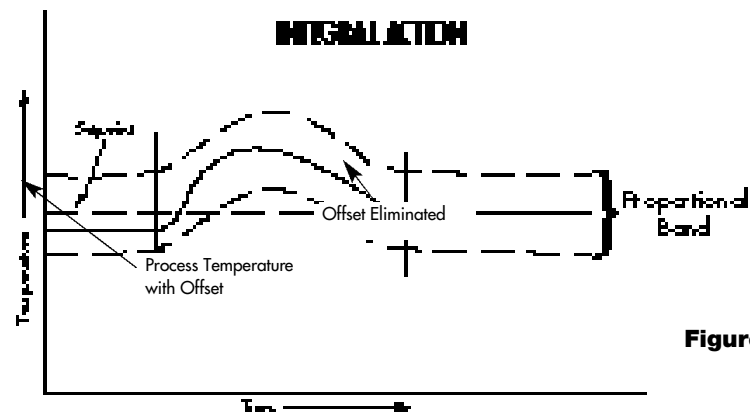


Figure 7.

TEMPERATURE AND POWER CONTROL FUNDAMENTALS

VI. Proportional Outputs

Load power can be switched by three different proportioning means:

1. Current proportional: A 4-20 mA signal is generated in response to the heating % requirement. See **Figure 9**. This signal is used to drive SCR power controllers and motor-operated valve positioners.
2. Phase angle: This method of modulating permits applying a portion of an ac sine wave to the load. The effect is similar to light dimmer function. See **Figure 10**.
3. Time proportioning: A clock produces pulses with a variable duty cycle. See **Figure 11**. Outputs are either direct- or reverse-acting. Direct-acting is used for cooling; reverse-acting for heating.
4. Cycle Time: In time proportioning control the cycle time is normally adjustable to accommodate various load sizes. A low mass radiant or air heater requires a very fast cycle time to prevent temperature cycling. Larger heaters and heater load combinations can operate satisfactorily with longer cycle times. Use the longest cycle time consistent with ripple-free control.

VII. Power Handlers

Power is switched to an electric heating load through the final control element. Small, single-phase 120/240 V loads may be connected directly to the temperature controller. Larger, higher voltage heaters must be switched through an external power handler. Power handlers are either large relays (contactors), solid-state contactors or power controllers.

1. Mechanical contactors are probably the most widely used power handlers. They:
 - Are rugged. Fuses protect against burnout due to shorts.
 - Will wear out in time due to contact arcing.
 - Cannot be fast-cycled for low-mass loads.
 - Produce RF switching noise.

Control Current vs. Power Output

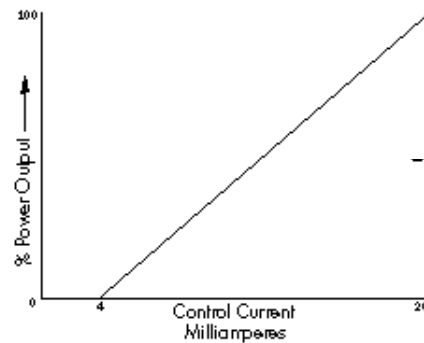


Figure 9.

PHASE ANGLE

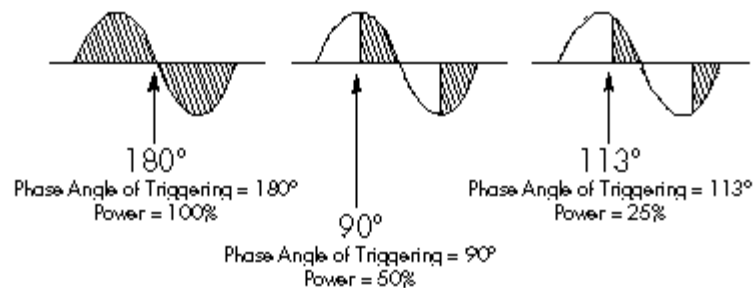


Figure 10.

TIME PROPORTIONING

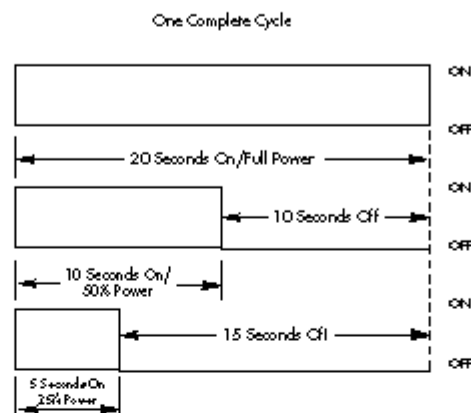


Figure 11.

2. Solid-state contactors are often used on loads requiring fast switching times. They need heat sinking and I²T fuse protection. 3 - 32V S.S. contactors switch power at zero crossing of the ac sine wave.
3. SCR power controllers. These devices switch ac power by means of thyristors (SCRs). These are solid-state devices that

are turned on by gate pulses. They have unlimited life and require no maintenance. SCR controllers are available for switching single- or three-phase loads in zero crossing/burst firing (**Figure 12**) or phase-angle modes (**Figure 10**)

SCR power control selection by switching method can be simplified, as follows:

Use zero crossing for all standard heater applications.

Specify phase angle:

- When soft start (ramp voltage to peak) is required on high inrush heater loads.
- If voltage limit is needed to clamp the maximum output voltage to a level lower than the supply voltage.

VIII. HEATER AND POWER CONTROL CONNECTIONS

Power controls are connected to the control signal and load, per **Figure 12**.

The control signal to the power controller may originate from a manual potentiometer, PLC or temperature controller. This signal is normally 4-20 mA, but can be other currents or voltages. An increase in the signal level produces a corresponding increase in power controller output.

Calculation of SCR size for various voltages and heater sizes is as follows:

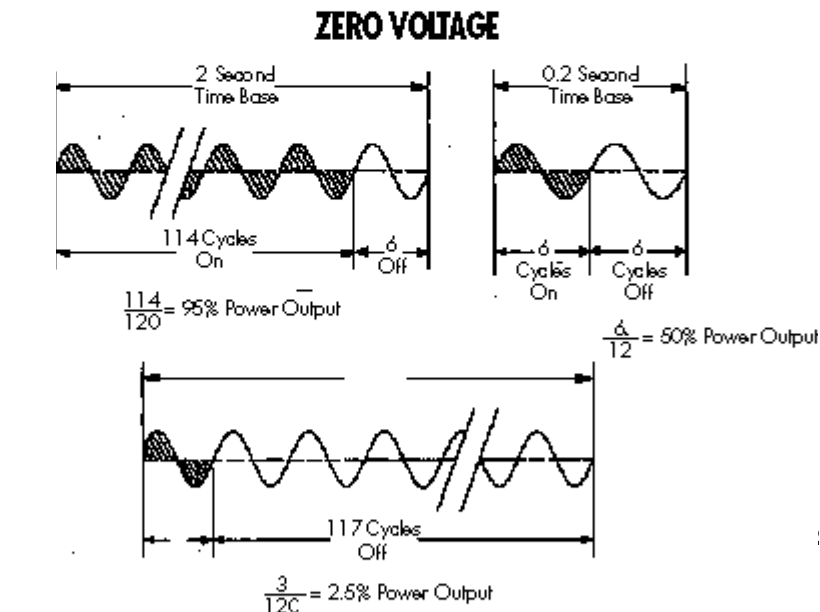
$$\text{Single-phase } \frac{\text{watts}}{\text{volts}} = \text{amps}$$

$$\text{Three-phase } \frac{\text{watts}}{1.73 \times \text{volts}} = \text{amps}$$

watts = total heater watts

volts = line voltage

amps = total line current



SCRs should not be sized at exactly the heater current requirement because heaters have resistance tolerances as do line supplies.

Example: A single-phase 240 volt heater is rated at 7.2 kW
 $7,200 \div 240 = 30 \text{ A}$

If the heater is 10% low on resistance, at 240 V, the heater will draw 33 amperes. Damage to fuses will result. Power controllers must be properly cooled and, therefore, the mounting location should be in a cool area. SCRs dissipate approximately 2 watts per ampere per phase.

Proper fusing is essential to protect the SCR devices from damage due to load short circuits. The type of fuse is marked I²T or semiconductor.

Only SCRs designed to drive transformers should be used for that purpose.

SCR power controllers must never be used as disconnects in high-limit applications.

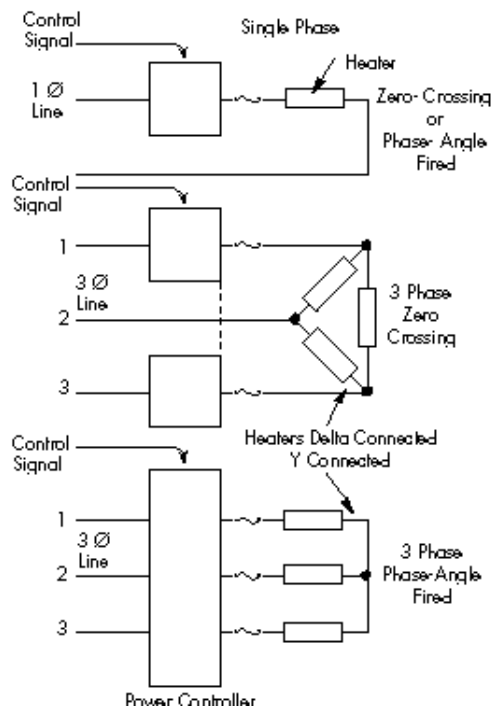


Figure 12.

GLOSSARY

ACCURACY: The difference between the reading of an instrument and the true value of what is being measured, expressed as a percent of full instrument scale.

ACTION: The function of a controller. Specifically, what is done to regulate the final control element to effect control. Types of action include ON-OFF, proportional, integral and derivative.

ACTIVE DEVICE: A device capable of producing gain; for example, transistors, and ICs.

ALARM: A condition, generated by a controller, indicating that the process has exceeded or fallen below the limit point.

AMBIENT TEMPERATURE: The temperature of the immediate surroundings in which a controller must operate.

ANALOG SETPOINT INDICATION: A dial scale to indicate setpoint as opposed to digital setpoint indication. The traditional clock face is a good example of analog indication.

AUTOMATIC TUNING: Sometimes referred to as “self-tuning.” The ability of a control to select and adjust the three control parameters (Proportional, Integral, and Derivative) automatically via a complex algorithm. Generally no operator input is required.

BANDWIDTH: See “Proportional Band”

BUMPLESS TRANSFER: When transferring from auto to manual operation, the control output(s) will not change (“bumpless”- a smooth transition).

CLOSED LOOP: A signal path which includes a forward path, a feedback path and a summing point, and forms a closed circuit.

COLD JUNCTION COMPENSATION: Measurement of temperature at thermocouple connections to controller and compensation for the “cold end” junction millivoltage generated here.

COMMON MODE: The noise signal that is common to all sensor wires.

COMMON-MODE REJECTION: The ability of an instrument to reject interference from a common voltage at its input terminals with relation to ground, usually expressed in dB.

COMPENSATION: See “Cold Junction Compensation”

CONTROL POINT: See “Setpoint”

COOL GAIN: In Athena microprocessor-based temperature controllers, a reference Gain value that is expressed in terms of the controller’s Span, divided by the cooling proportional band, in degrees.

CURRENT PROPORTIONING: An output from a controller which provides current proportional to the amount of power required.

CYCLE TIME: The time necessary to complete a full ON-through-OFF period in a time proportioning control system.

CURRENT ALARM: Provides an alarm signal when a current level is detected below or above a preselected level.

DV/DT: Rate of change of voltage over time. A rapidly rising voltage waveform could induce false firing of an SCR. MOV’s or R-C Snubber Circuits are used to prevent this false firing.

DEAD BAND: The range through which an input can be varied without initiating observable response.

DERIVATIVE: The process by which a controller senses the rate of temperature change and alters output.

DEVIATION ALARM: An alarm referenced at a fixed number of degrees, plus or minus, from setpoint.

DIN: Deutsche Industrial Norms, a widely-recognized German standard for engineering units.

DIFFERENTIAL: The temperature difference between the points at which the controller turns the heater on and off. Typically used when discussing an on/off controller.

DIRECT ACTING: Increase in value of output as the measured value increases.

DRIFT: A deviation of the system from setpoint that typically occurs over a long period of time. Drift may be caused by such factors as changes in ambient temperature or line voltage.

DROOP: Occurs when the actual system temperature stabilizes at some value below the desired setpoint. If system droop is unacceptable, a common solution is the use of a control incorporating an automatic or manual reset feature.

DUTY CYCLE: Percentage of load “ON” time relative to total cycle time.

FEEDBACK CONTROLLER: A mechanism that measures the value of the controlled variable, compares with the desired value and as a result of this comparison, manipulates the controlled system to minimize the size of the error.

FREQUENCY RESPONSE: The response of a component, instrument, or control system to input signals at varying frequencies.

GAIN: Amount of increase in a signal as it passes through any part of a control system. If a signal gets smaller, it is attenuated. If it gets larger, it is amplified.

GUARANTEED SOAK: On a ramp and soak controller, a feature that stops the clock if the temperature drops below a preset value, then continues the timing when the temperature recovers.

HEAT GAIN: In Athena microprocessor-based temperature controllers, a reference Gain value that is expressed in terms of the controller’s Span, divided by the heating proportional band, in degrees.

HYSTERESIS: Temperature sensitivity between turn on and turn off points on on-off control. Prevents chattering.

I2T: A measure of maximum one time overcurrent capability for a very short duration. Value used for fuse sizing to protect SCRs.

IMPEDANCE: The total opposition to electrical flow in an ac circuit.

INTEGRAL FUNCTION: This automatically adjusts the position of the proportional band to eliminate offset.

ISOLATION: Electrical separation of sensor from high voltage and output circuitry. Allows for application of grounded or ungrounded sensing element.

LAG: The time delay between the output of a signal and the response of the instrument to which the signal is sent.

LATCHING ALARM: Requires operator intervention to reset even though the alarm condition on the input may have disappeared.

MOV: Metal Oxide Varistor: A semiconductor device that acts as a safety valve to absorb high voltage transients harmlessly, thereby protecting the SCRs and preventing false firing.

NOISE: An unwanted electrical interference.

NORMAL-MODE REJECTION: The ability of an instrument to reject interference; usually of line frequency across the input terminals (common mode).

OFFSET: A sustained deviation of the controlled variable from setpoint (this characteristic is inherent in proportional controllers that do not incorporate reset action). Also referred to as Droop.

ON/OFF CONTROL: Control of temperature about a setpoint by turning the output full ON below setpoint and full OFF above setpoint in the heat mode.

OPEN LOOP: Control system with no sensory feedback.



GLOSSARY

OUTPUT: Action in response to difference between setpoint and process variable.

OVERSHOOT: Condition where temperature exceeds setpoint due to initial power up.

PARAMETER: A physical property whose value determines the response of an electronic control to given inputs.

PD Control: Proportioning control with rate action.

PHASE: The time-based relationship between two alternating waveforms.

PHASE-ANGLE FIRING: A form of power control where the power supplied to the process is controlled by limiting the phase angle of the line voltage as opposed to burst firing.

PI Control: Proportioning control with auto reset.

PID: Proportional, integral and derivative control action.

POSITIVE TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENT: A characteristic of sensors whose output increases with increasing temperature.

PROCESS VARIABLE: System element to be regulated, such as pressure, temperature, relative humidity, etc.

PROPORTIONAL ACTION: Continuously adjusts the manipulated variable to balance the demand.

PROPORTIONAL BAND: The amount of deviation of the controlled variable required to move through the full range (expressed in % of span or degrees of temperature). An expression of Gain of an instrument (the wider the band, the lower the gain).

PROPORTIONING CONTROL PLUS DERIVATIVE FUNCTION: A controller incorporating both proportional and derivative action senses the rate temperature change and adjusts controller output to minimize overshoot.

PROPORTIONING CONTROL PLUS INTEGRAL: A controller incorporating both proportional and integral action.

PROPORTIONAL, INTEGRAL AND DERIVATIVE CONTROL: A PID controller is a three-mode controller incorporating proportional, integral, and derivative actions.

RAMP: Automatic adjustment for the setpoint for the temperature increase or decrease from process temperature. The target value can be either above or below the current measured value. The ramp value is a combination of time and temperature.

RAMP TO SETPOINT: Allows the operator to enter a target time for the controller to reach setpoint.

RANGE: The difference between the maximum and the minimum values of output over which an instrument is designed to operate normally.

RATE (ACTION): Control function that produces a corrective signal proportional to the rate at which the controlled variable is changing. Rate action produces a faster corrective action than proportional action alone. Also referred to as Derivative Action. Useful in eliminating overshoot and undershoot.

R.C. SNUBBER CIRCUIT: Resistor - Capacitor Snubber Circuit: Controls the maximum rate of change of voltage and limits the peak voltage across the switching device. Used to prevent false firing of SCRs.

REFERENCE JUNCTION: See "Cold Junction Compensation"

REPRODUCIBILITY: The ability of an instrument to duplicate with exactness, measurements of a given value. Usually expressed as a % of span of the instrument.

RESET ACTION: Control function that produces a corrective signal proportional to the length of time and magnitude the controlled variable has been away from the setpoint. Accommodates load changes. Also called Integral Action.

REVERSE ACTING: Reduces the output as the measured value increases.

RFI: An acronym for radio frequency interference. RFI is commonly generated by devices that switch the output power at some voltage other than zero. Typically, phase-angle fired SCRs may generate RFI while zero-cross fired SCRs virtually eliminate RFI.

RTD: An acronym for a resistance temperature detector. Typically a wire wound device that displays a linear change in resistance for a corresponding temperature change. An RTD has a positive temperature coefficient.

SCR: This term has two separate and distinct meanings: 1) A solid-state semiconductor component that conducts or resists current flow depending upon whether a trigger voltage is present at the gate terminal. 2) A complete power controller that utilizes SCRs or TRIACs as the switching devices to control current flow.

SEGMENT: In a ramp and soak controller, one part of a profile.

SOAK: One segment with no setpoint change.

SSR: An acronym for solid-state relay. Semiconductor device that switches electrical current on and off in response to an electrical signal at the control terminals.

SENSITIVITY: The minimum change in input signal required to produce an output change in the controller.

SERIES MODE: A condition in which a noise signal appears in series with a sensor signal.

SETPOINT: The position to which the control point setting mechanism is set, which is the same as the desired value of the controlled variable.

SPAN: The difference between the top and bottom scale values of an instrument. On instruments starting at zero, the span is equal to the range.

STANDBY: Method of putting controller into the idle mode.

SURGE CURRENT: A high current of short duration that generally occurs when the power is first applied to inductive loads. The surge generally lasts no more than several ac cycles.

THERMISTOR: A bead-like temperature sensing device consisting of metallic oxides encapsulated in epoxy or glass. The resistance of a thermistor typically falls off sharply with increasing temperature, making it a particularly good sensing device. A thermistor has a negative temperature coefficient.

THERMOCOUPLE: The junction of two dissimilar metals. A small voltage is generated at this junction, increasing as its temperature rises.

THERMOCOUPLE BREAK PROTECTION: Fail-safe operation that ensures output shutdown upon an open thermocouple condition.

THREE-MODE CONTROL: Proportioning control with reset and rate.

THYRISTOR: Any of a group of solid-state controlling devices. These devices are referred to as TRIACs, SCRs and DIACs.

TIME PROPORTIONING CONTROL MODE: In this mode, the amount of controller "on" time depends upon the system temperature. At the beginning of each time base interval, the signal from the sensor is analyzed and the controller is kept "ON" for a percentage of the time base.

TRIAC: A device, similar to a controlled rectifier, in which both the forward and reverse characteristics can be triggered from blocking to conducting (Also see Thyristor).

ZERO SWITCHING: Action that provides output switching only at the zero voltage crossing point of the ac sine wave.

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