

**applications  
and  
circuit design  
notes**

"A SURVEY OF SOME CIRCUIT APPLICATIONS  
OF THE SILICON CONTROLLED SWITCH  
AND SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIER".

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Bulletin D420-02 - 12-59

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PIONEER 5-2900

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

The PNP Silicon Controlled Switch is an active switching element with characteristics similar to those of a gas thyatron. That is, it will remain in a non-conducting or "off" state until turned on.

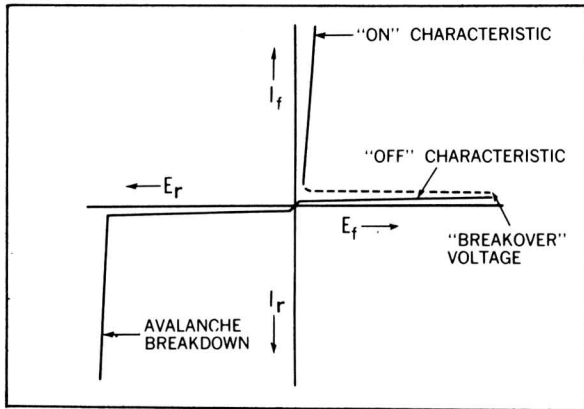


Fig 1 Typical E-I curve

or "fired" by a low level control signal. It will then remain on without the need for sustaining control signal. The Controlled Switch is turned off by reducing its anode current to below the "dropout" level. Its E-I characteristic is shown in Figure 1.

The Controlled Switch (CS) is similar to the Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR) in both physical construction and theory of operation. The CS however, has a much greater firing sensitivity. It is therefore useful in many low level input applications that are not within the capability of the Controlled Rectifiers.

Much of the information presented in the following sections applies to both the CS and SCR.

## 2 COMPARISON TO OTHER SWITCHING ELEMENTS

The CS can complement as well as supersede many other switching elements such as thyratrons, tubes, magnetic amplifiers, relays, mechanical switches, transistors and unijunction transistors.

In comparison with mechanical devices such as relays, the CS has the advantages of no moving parts, miniature size, high speed operation, billions of switching cycles without maintenance or wear out, ability to withstand high shock and vibration, no contact "bounce" or arcing; high sensitivity, and low hold-in current.

The CS can be used in place of gas thyratrons in many applications. In addition to its obvious advantages of smaller size, greater ruggedness, and elimination of filament, it is also free of jitter, firing instability, and aging effects common in

thyratrons. Its forward voltage drop is many times lower, resulting in much higher operating efficiency.

Frequently, the CS can be used to advantage in place of conventional transistors in applications requiring high gain, high peak current, or high voltage ratings. Current gain up to 50,000 is practical. Peak currents of 20 amps can be achieved for short duration, low duty cycle pulses. Voltage ratings extend to 200 volts. The "latch on" property of the CS can simplify many D C circuits. Since the output waveshape from a CS is independent of the input wave shape, it can operate reliably from "sloppy" pulses that would require special shaping to drive a transistor.

Associated with the high peak current and high voltage ratings, is a turn-on time in the region of 1 microsecond which makes the CS useful in pulse modulators for radar and beacon transmitters

Unlike the transistor, the saturation resistance of the CS decreases as the anode current increases. Input requirements for turn-on are independent of anode current, even at peak current levels of 20 amps. Thus switching circuit performance actually improves at higher operating currents.

The unique properties of the CS now permit the "semiconductorizing" of many circuits that up to now could not practically be transistorized.

It is also useful to compare the CS with the unijunction transistor and the four layer diode. Although these latter two devices operate on quite different principles they are similar in two respects. Both fire when a "breakover" or "peak point" voltage has been exceeded, and in both, the control and load circuits are in common. In the CS, control and load circuits are independent. Firing voltage is much lower and more closely controlled. The CS circuits therefore offer much greater design flexibility. Circuit firing point can be precisely set within close tolerance without the need for special selection. The saturation voltage of the CS is significantly lower than that of the unijunction transistor, and current handling capacity is much greater.

### 3 ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS

#### Operation

The operation of the CS can be best understood by considering the analogy of two silicon transistors, an NPN and a PNP connected as shown in Figure 2C in Figure 2C.

The collector of the NPN drives the base of the PNP and the collector of the PNP drives the base of the NPN. This positive feedback loop has a gain equal to  $\beta_1 \beta_2$ , the product of the current

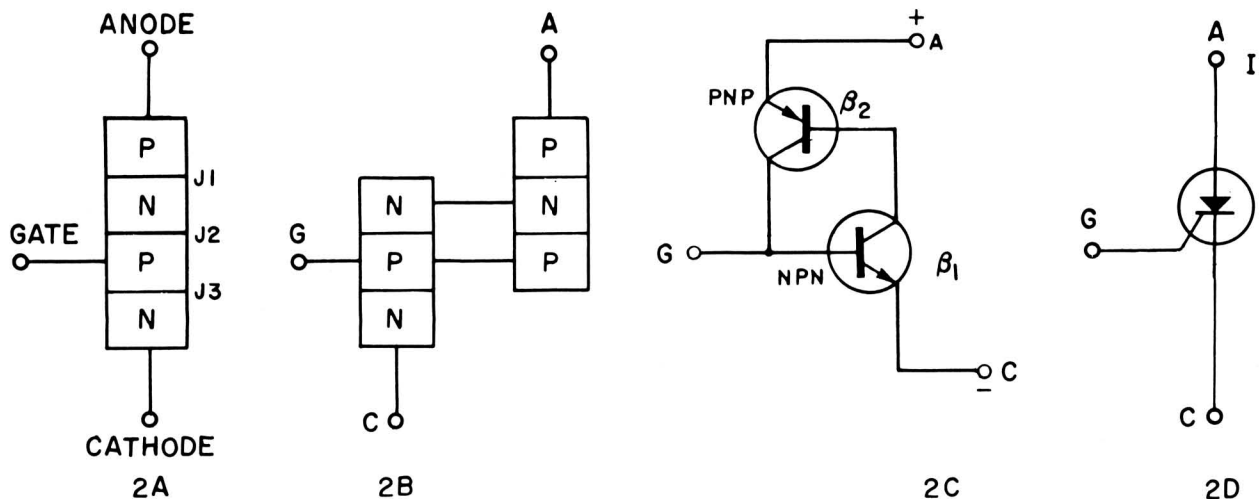


Fig 2

gains of the two transistors. The circuit is stable as long as  $\beta_1 \beta_2$  is less than unity but becomes self-regenerative when the loop gain reaches unity.

With a small negative current applied to terminal G, the NPN transistor is biased off and the loop gain is less than unity. The only current that can flow between output terminals A and C is the cut-off collector current of the two transistors. Consequently the impedance between A and C is very high.

When a positive current is applied to terminal G, the NPN transistor is biased on, causing its collector current to rise. Since the current gain of the NPN  $\beta_1$ , increases with increased collector current, a point is reached where the loop gain equals unity and the circuit becomes regenerative. Collector current of the two transistors rapidly increases to a value limited only by the external circuit. Both transistors are driven into saturation and the impedance between A and C is very low. The positive current applied to terminal G which served to trigger the self-regenerative action is no longer required since the collector of the PNP transistor supplies more than enough current to drive the base of the NPN. The circuit will remain in the "on" state until turned "off". This is accomplished by reducing the collector current to a value below that necessary to maintain the  $\beta_1 \beta_2 = 1$  condition.

The functions of the two transistors are combined into a single PNP diffused wafer. The four drawings in Figure 2 are all equivalent representations for the CS.

#### Firing Sensitivity

The CS is inherently a high sensitivity device. This is because the input NPN transistor is designed to have high gain. It is therefore very useful for high gain switching directly from low level control signals. Usually the CS eliminates the need for intermediate stages of amplification in control circuits.

In those applications where the high sensitivity is

not required, or not desired, any degree of reduced sensitivity can be achieved by gate biasing. In fact some negative gate bias is recommended for all circuits to insure absolute "no fire" stability. Since the CS has a very high gain, it should not be operated or tested with the gate open. Internal leakage current  $I_{AGO}$ , may be large enough to cause turn on, even at 25° C, if the gate is allowed to "float".

For many applications, stabilizing bias is easily achieved by a resistor between gate and cathode. The resistance value is determined by the maximum operating temperature for the application. Since biasing reduces firing sensitivity, the correct resistance value is a key part of the circuit design.

Bulletin D420-01 covers the design considerations for bias stabilization in detail. In less critical circuits where high gain is not the primary object, a 1K resistor will provide stabilization up to 125° C junction temperature. A 1K resistor provides approximately 500  $\mu$ A of bias current at 25° C. The input firing current is therefore 500  $\mu$ A plus the required gate firing current.

A rapidly rising anode voltage resulting from switching transients or other sources, can couple a current into the gate through the anode to gate capacitance of the CS (approximately 25  $\mu$ mf). This gate current can be sufficient to fire the CS. The magnitude of the gate current is given by the expression,  $i = C \frac{dv}{dt}$  where  $i$  is the instantaneous gate current,  $C$  is the anode to gate capacitance, and  $\frac{dv}{dt}$  is the rate of rise of anode voltage. Undesired firing due to the  $dv/dt$  effect can be eliminated by (1) sufficient negative gate bias current, (2) supply filtering, or, (3) a capacitor between anode and cathode. A 01  $\mu$ f capacitor will usually be adequate.

#### Input Characteristics

The input characteristics of the CS, gate to cathode, is similar to the base-emitter input of a conventional NPN silicon transistor. Firing occurs at a specific value of input current and voltage.

All CS s of a particular type will fire within a limited voltage range at a given temperature. For one class of CS the firing voltage is specified at  $52 \pm 0.8V$  at  $25^{\circ}C$ . Firing voltage is a predictable and uniform parameter. Stabilizing bias is used to prevent gate voltage from floating up to the firing voltage level.

#### Output Characteristics

Figure 1 shows the output E-I characteristic of the CS. In the "off" condition, the CS will block

both positive and negative voltages within ratings, applied between anode and cathode. The output impedance of the device is extremely high, usually 10 megohms or more at  $25^{\circ}C$ . When a positive gate signal is applied, the CS turns on and its impedance drops to a very low value. The "on" impedance is below 1 ohm at an anode current of 1 amp. When "on" the characteristics of the CS closely approximate those of a conventional silicon diode or rectifier.

## 4 BASIC STATIC SWITCHING CIRCUITS

### D C Source Voltage

With a D C voltage source, the CS acts as a latching switch. Once turned on by a control signal, it will remain on indefinitely. To turn it off, the anode current must be reduced to below the "dropout" level. Figure 3 shows a simple latching switch circuit. Resistor  $R_G$  provides a negative gate bias current and insures a stable "off" condition. In this circuit, less than 20 microwatts input power ( $6V - 20 \mu A$ ) for a time duration of 1 microsecond or longer will turn on load power up to 200 watts. By proper choice of

$R_G$ , any degree of reduced sensitivity can be designed for.

The CS will latch on at any load current above the dropout level. It will work as well with small loads (10 ma) as it does at higher load currents.

The circuit in Figure 3 can be used as a single contact latching switch for direct control of a given load. It is useful for driving relay coils or similar electromagnetic loads. With the CS, a conventional D C relay can be converted to a high sensitivity latching relay. For inductive loads a diode may be necessary across the load to eliminate voltage surge when the power is removed.

For the simple latching circuit of Figure 3 turn off can be accomplished by removing the source voltage. The CS can also be turned off by the arrangement shown in Figure 4. As before the CS is off until an input control signal turns it on. When "on" the voltage at point A is approximately +1V. Capacitor C charges through  $R_1$  until point B reaches the full positive supply voltage. When switch S is closed, point B is at ground and the

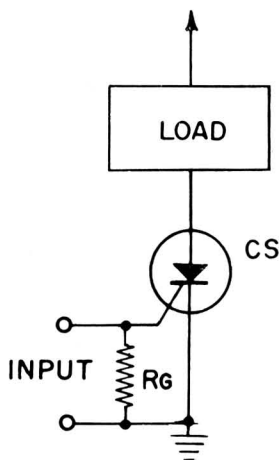


Fig 3 Simple latching switch.

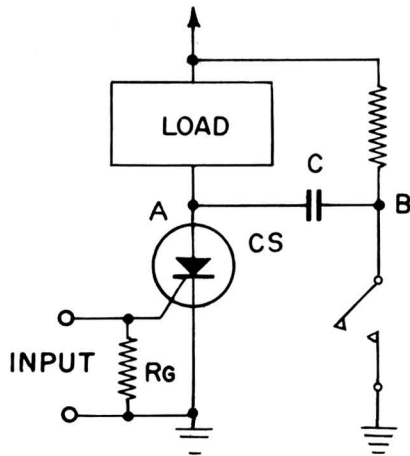


Fig 4 Shunt capacitor turn off

capacitor drives point A negative with respect to ground. The current through the load is then diverted from the CS and begins to discharge the capacitor. Since point A is negative, the CS will turn off. This is called shunt capacitor turn-off. The capacitor, C, must be sufficiently large to hold point A negative for the time required to turn off the CS. The minimum value can be calculated from the relation:  $C_{min} = \frac{25I}{E}$ , where I is the load current in amperes and E is the supply voltage.  $C_{min}$  is in  $\mu f$ . This assumes a turn off time for the CS of 20  $\mu$ seconds which applies over the temperature range of  $-55$  to  $+100^\circ C$ .

If another CS is used in place of switch S, turn off can be accomplished electronically as shown in Figure 5. Operation is identical to that described above except that turn off is accomplished by a

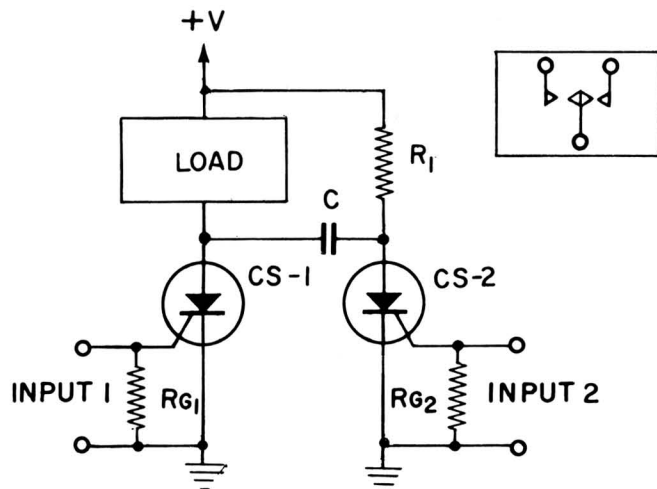


Fig 5 Power flip-flop or DPST static switch

momentary low level positive pulse at input 2. This circuit is actually a power flip-flop. When CS-1 is turned on, CS-2 is turned off by C. When CS-2 is turned on, CS-1 is turned off by C. A second load can take the place of  $R_1$  so that DPST switching between two loads is easily accomplished. This circuit is the static equivalent of the mechanical contact arrangement shown in the inset of Figure 5.

Other turn off methods for D C circuits are described in SSPI Bulletin D420-01.

#### A C Source Voltage

With an A C voltage source, the CS acts as a controlled half wave rectifier. It will block both the positive and the negative half cycle until a positive control signal is applied to the gate. When this occurs, the CS will conduct during the positive half cycle and block during the negative half cycle for as long as the control signal is present. When the control signal is removed, the CS will block both half cycles again, since it automatically turns off at the end of each positive half cycle. By proper timing of the applied control signal, the CS can be made to conduct for all, or part of, the positive half cycle. Thus proportioning control of the output is possible, as well as on-off switching.

Figure 6 shows a simple A C static switch which supplies rectified half wave D C to the load. The

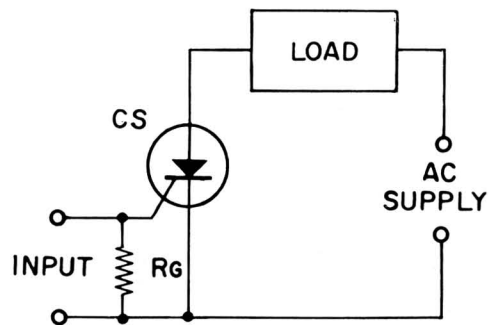


Fig 6 Half wave switch

input control signal can be A C, D C or pulse. If the load is inductive a diode placed across it as shown in Figure 7 gives a continuous current through the load during the negative half cycle. The inductive field built up during the positive half cycle returns stored energy during the nega-

tive half cycle The diode polarity is such as to allow this induced current to flow in the same direction as during the positive half cycle This technique is useful in driving loads such as relays or field windings where half wave pulsating current is undesirable

Figure 7 is a convenient arrangement for achieving low level control of D C relays in which latch on is not desired

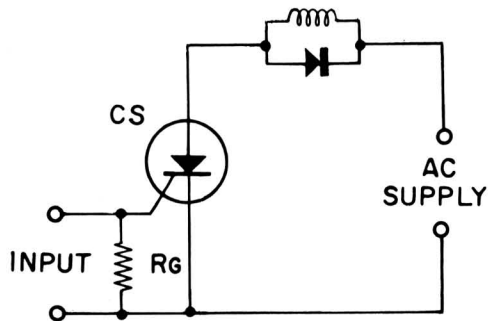


Fig 7 Half wave switch inductive load

In A C circuits, any positive control current applied to the gate during the negative half cycle must be limited to a low value This is necessary since transistor action in the CS will cause the reverse leakage current to increase in proportion to the positive gate current If this leakage current is too large, overheating and thermal runaway can occur The leakage current present during the reverse half cycle will be approximately 1/2 the value of the positive gate current A negative current which will cancel out any positive current that may be present during the negative half cycle is easily obtained by a diode and resistor as shown in Figure 8

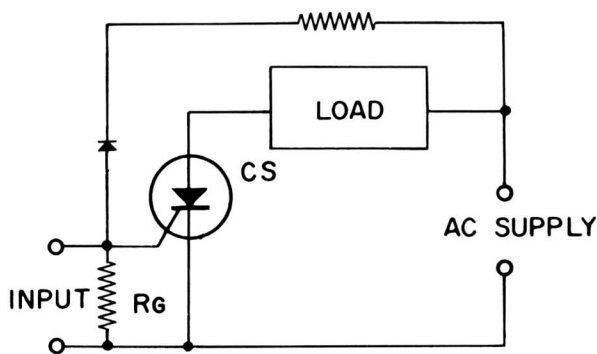


Fig 8 Negative gate biasing

A full wave D. C output static switch is shown in Figure 9 This is a conventional full wave bridge rectifier in which CS's are used in two legs In this circuit, an input control signal is supplied to CS-1 when its anode is positive This will turn CS-1 on for all or part of the half cycle During the next half cycle turn-on control signal is supplied to CS-2 when its anode is positive Proportioning control from zero to full output can be achieved by timing the control signals

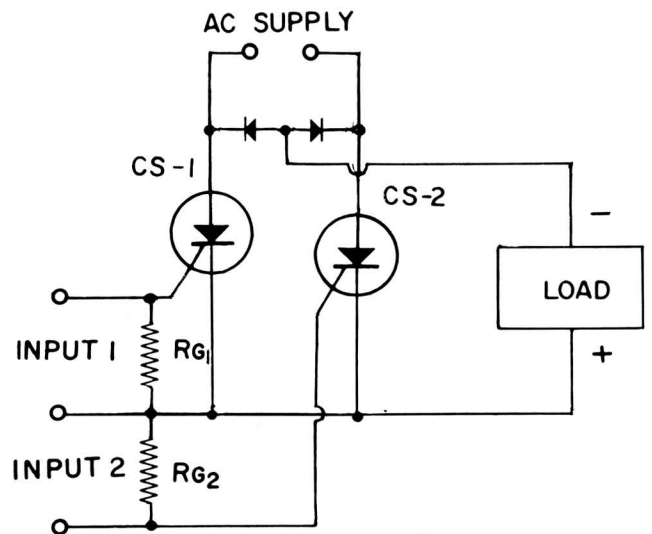


Fig 9 Full wave D.C output

A full wave A. C output switch is shown in Figure 10 The CS's work the same way as in the D C output circuit except that in Figure 10 the CS's are connected in inverse parallel for A C output

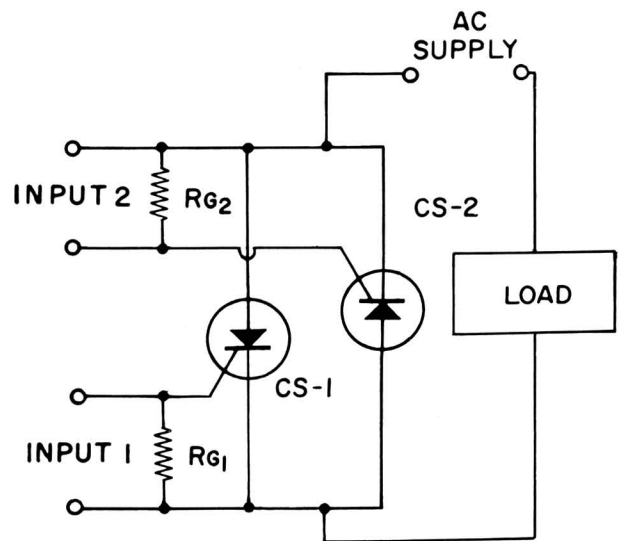


Fig 10 Full wave A.C output

and the two additional conventional rectifiers are not needed

In all of the static switching circuits discussed here, the CS is used to control the load power from a separate low level control signal input. The load circuits are quite simple and straightforward. Switching efficiency is high - up to 98%. When proportioning control is used to vary output from zero to full value, no power is wasted when

the output is not at its full value. Thus the CS acts as a "lossless electronic rheostat"

In the sections to follow, a wide variety of input control circuits are shown which permit many circuit functions to be easily and simply performed. The time variable pulse generator (Section 11) is particularly suited for proportional control of the CS in A-C circuits.

## 5 BASIC D.C. PULSE AND SWEEP CIRCUITS

The CS can be used to generate high current - high voltage pulses using extremely simple circuitry. Peak pulse currents as high as 20 amperes can be generated with voltage amplitudes up to 150 volts. Output amplitude and wave shape are independent of the input pulse. Input pulse amplitudes as low as  $20 \mu\text{A}$ -0.6 volts will produce full output. Thus extremely high power gain is possible. Current gains up to 50,000 and voltage gains up to 200 can be achieved. This represents a power gain of 10,000,000. Operating rep rates are limited by two factors, the maximum allowable power dissipation and the gate recovery time. When power dissipation is not limiting, the CS can operate at rep rates up to 100 KC.

Some of the applications in which CS pulse generators are useful include magnetic core switching radar and beacon modulators, clock generators, timing circuits, and time variable pulse generators for firing Silicon Controlled Rectifiers. Both R-C and L-C pulse generator circuits can be used for generating sawtooth waveforms. Since the CS has voltage ratings up to 200V in both the forward and reverse direction, high voltage outputs can be directly obtained.

### R-C Pulse Generators

A triggered R-C pulse generator is shown in Figure 11. Capacitor C is charged to the supply voltage through charging resistor  $R_C$ . When a trigger pulse is applied to the input, the CS fires, discharging C through load,  $R_L$ . This circuit can be triggered at any desired rep rate. The output pulse amplitude will be a function of the rep rate, however, unless the time between pulses is greater than  $3 R_C C$ . The output pulse voltage amplitude will equal the voltage across the capacitor less the drop across the CS. The available output current is limited by  $R_L$ .

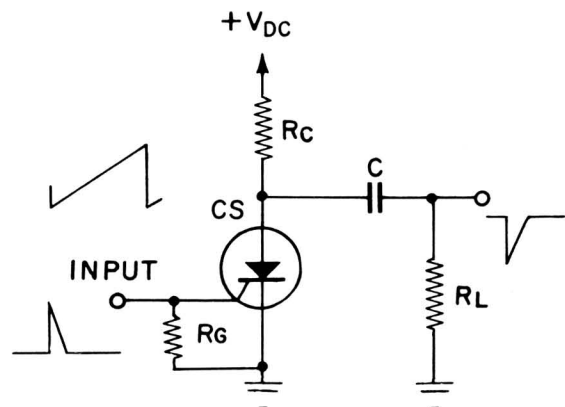


Fig 11



A modified version of this circuit is shown in Figure 12. In this case, the load resistance is placed in the cathode to obtain a positive output pulse. Since this circuit behaves like an emitter follower, there are some special considerations. When the CS fires, the voltage at its gate will rise to a value 0.5V above the voltage across  $R_L$ . If this gate voltage is higher than the input trigger voltage, the triggering circuit will act as a load drawing current from the gate. A coupling diode can be used to eliminate this loading effect. Since the CS turns on in approximately 1  $\mu$ seconds, gate drive will be removed within this time if the input trigger voltage does not exceed the output voltage across  $R_L$ . To insure that the CS will stay on when the triggering voltage is lower than the output voltage, the minimum gate driving current should be increased by a factor of 10 higher than the specified value. This will provide the necessary energy into the gate during the first 0.1  $\mu$ seconds to insure firing.

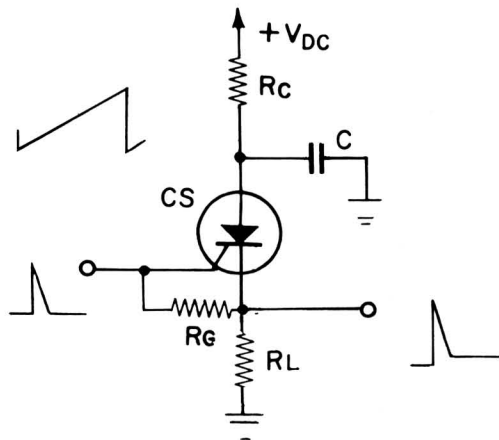


Fig 12

A third version of the R-C pulse generator is shown in Figure 13. This circuit is useful as a frequency divider in addition to pulse generation. Frequency division to 1/10 is possible. In this circuit the charging resistor,  $R_C$ , is in the cathode circuit and the load,  $R_L$  in the anode. With no charge on the capacitor, the full supply voltage is across  $R_C$ . This provides a large negative bias between gate and cathode. Diode  $D_1$  is in the reverse direction and prevents exceeding the gate to cathode voltage rating of the CS. As the capacitor charges, the voltage across  $R_C$  de-

creases toward zero. The CS will fire when the voltage at point A decreases below the gate voltage by an amount equal to the gate firing voltage of the CS plus the forward drop of  $D_1$  (approximately 1 volt total). Assume an input pulse amplitude of +2.5V between gate and ground, an input pulse rep rate of 20 KC, and a supply voltage of 20V. If the time for A to charge down to +1.5 volts is 500  $\mu$ seconds, then one output pulse will occur for each ten input pulses. The output rep rate will be 2 KC and frequency division by ten has occurred.

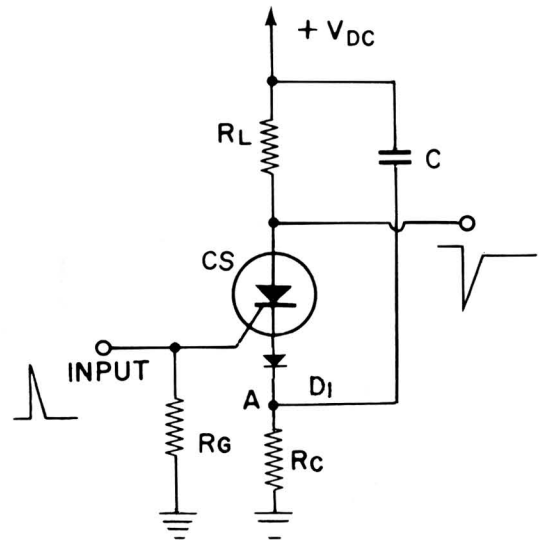


Fig 13

In R-C pulse circuits operating from a D-C source and which require the CS to turn-off after each pulse output,  $R_C$  must be large enough to prevent the steady state current through the CS from exceeding the dropout value. An upper limit also exists for  $R_C$ . It must supply enough current to permit the CS to fire. The requirement for a minimum value of  $R_C$  does not apply to circuits which are turned off by other methods. For example, the L-C pulse generators in the next section which turn off the CS by driving its anode negative.

The R-C pulse generator circuits previously discussed are intended for use where a trigger input fires the CS. They are not well suited for "free-running" or astable applications when the supply voltage is D-C. A "free-running" version of Figure 13 is shown in Figure 14. In this circuit a

square wave or similar source voltage is used to achieve turn-off of the CS. One pulse output can be obtained for each half cycle of source voltage. The time when the output pulse occurs will be directly related to the starting time of the source voltage, and the output pulse can be delayed with respect to the source voltage. Resistor  $R_1$  and  $R_G$  place a positive bias on the gate, with respect to ground. This bias determines the time when the circuit will self trigger. The circuit of Figure 14 is the basis for the time variable pulse generator discussed in Section 11.

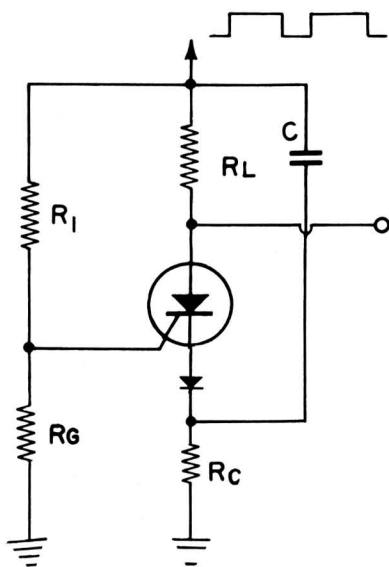


Fig 14

#### L-C Pulse Generators

L-C pulse generators have the advantage of higher operating rep rates than the R-C circuits previously discussed. The output waveform is a half sinusoid which is more useful in some applications. The requirement for a minimum value of  $R_C$ , necessary for automatic turn off in the R-C circuits, does not apply to the L-C circuits since they accomplish turn off of the CS by taking the anode negative. This permits greater design flexibility.

A basic L-C pulse generator is shown in Figure 15. The capacitor  $C$  charges through  $R_C$  to the supply voltage. When an input trigger pulse turns on the CS, the capacitor resonantly discharges through  $L$ ,  $R_L$ , and the CS. This gives a negative half sinusoid of current through  $R_L$  with a pulse

width at the base determined by the resonant frequency of the loop. When the current through the loop goes to zero, the voltage across the CS goes negative, turning it off. A small positive output will occur due to the recovery current flowing through the CS. A diode across  $R_L$  will limit the amplitude of this positive to +0.5V if desired. The L-C pulse generator depends on "ringing" of the resonant loop to turn off the CS at the end of the first half cycle by driving the anode negative. The resonant circuit must therefore be underdamped with  $R_L$  less than  $X_L$  at the resonant frequency.

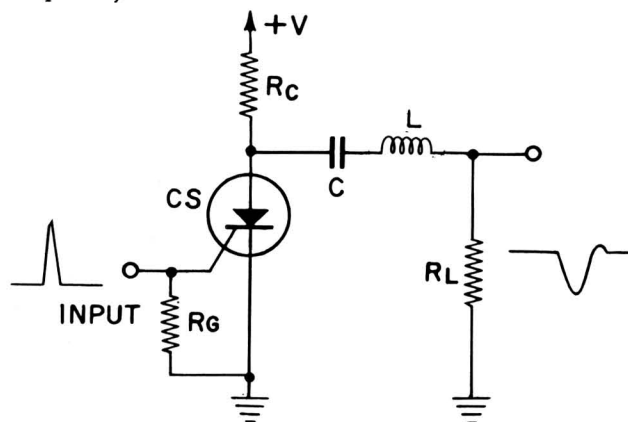


Fig 15

Since the CS limits the resonant discharge to a half cycle, the capacitor ends up charged to approximately the supply voltage value, but in the negative direction. Therefore, after the output pulse is over, the capacitor will begin charging toward +V from -V. The recharging time constant will be determined by  $R_C$  and  $C$ . Resonant recharging can be employed if  $R_C$  is replaced with an inductance and a charging diode is added. In this case  $C$  charges to approximately twice the supply voltage if the circuit  $Q$  is high. The series resistance of  $L_1$  should be large enough to limit the current through the CS to below its average rated value. This will prevent damaging the CS if, for any reason, it gets turned on continuously. Figure 16 shows a resonant recharging circuit.

In the L-C pulse circuits it is important that the anode of the CS remain negative for a time exceeding the gate recovery time. If this is not observed, the CS will turn on by itself as soon as

the anode voltage goes positive during recharge. This limits the upper operating rate but places no restriction on the output pulse width or peak current.

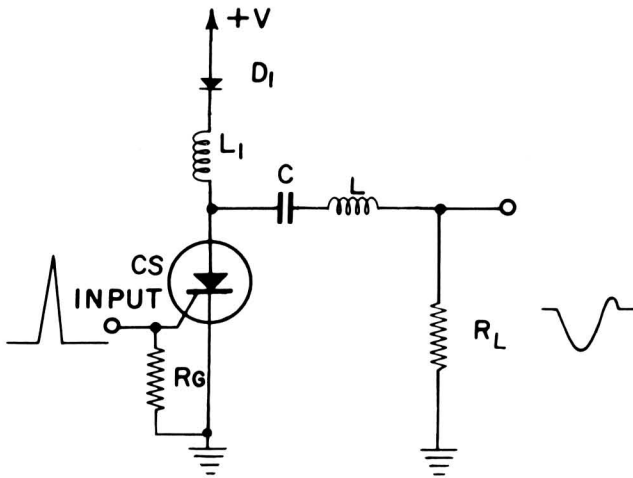


Fig 16

Figure 17 shows another version of the L-C pulse generator which provides a positive output pulse.

In either the R-C or the L-C pulse circuits, using

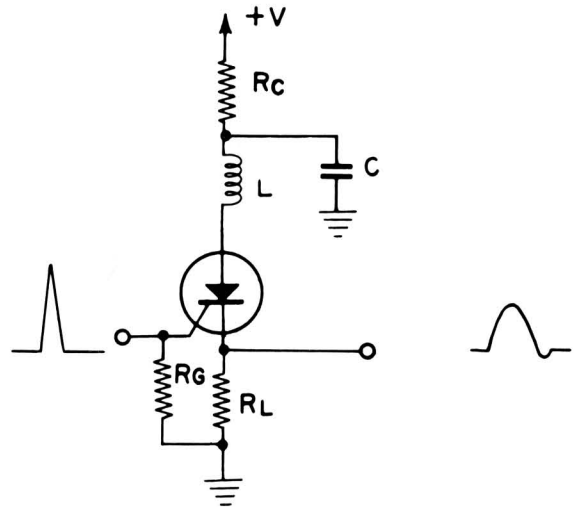


Fig 17

a transistor in place of  $R_C$  will give constant current charging and therefore a linear rather than an exponential charging rate. The L-C circuits are readily adaptable to "free running" or astable applications. A zener diode connected between anode and gate will provide the necessary feedback and set the firing point.

## 6 VOLTAGE LIMIT DETECTORS

The properties of the CS make it particularly useful in voltage limit detectors and related voltage or current threshold actuating circuits. The high sensitivity series with maximum gate firing current of  $20 \mu\text{a}$ , and  $0.52 \pm 0.08\text{V}$  gate firing voltage, have been specifically designed for this type of application. The threshold firing point can be set at any desired value from 0.60V up by the use of an input voltage divider or zener diodes.

The voltage limit detectors can use either D.C. or A.C. load power. If D.C. is used, the CS will "latch on" when the input exceeds the threshold voltage. If A.C. load power is used, the CS will supply power to the load only when the

input voltage exceeds the threshold voltage.

Voltage limit detectors, using the CS, are quite simple and useful in a variety of timing, sensing, indicator warning and safety applications. Since the CS can handle high load power, it can directly actuate the controlled circuit in many cases. A low power input from pressure, temperature, speed, flow, light, or similar transducers can be made to turn on the CS at a preset level. The CS can then actuate a control circuit, relay, solenoid, buzzer, indicator light, horn or similar output.

The simplest form of a voltage limit detector is

shown in Figure 18. This circuit takes advantage of the fact that the CS will not turn on until the minimum gate firing voltage has been exceeded at point A. The ratio between  $R_1$  and  $R_G$  determines the threshold firing voltage at the input. The firing voltage of the CS has a negative temperature coefficient of approximately 3 millivolts per degree C. If a uniform firing voltage at the input is desired over a wide operating temperature range, compensation will be necessary. The value of  $R_G$  is determined by the required bias off current at the upper operating temperature to insure a stable "off" condition for the CS. Where operation will be at temperatures above  $100^\circ\text{C}$ , the basic circuit of Figure 19 may be preferred. With a negative bias supply,  $R_G$  can

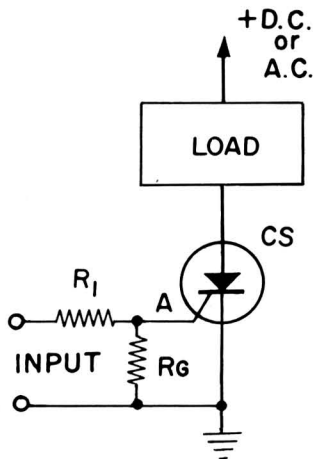


Fig 18

be larger than when it is returned directly to the cathode. Larger  $R_G$  will also reduce current loading on the input.

A zener diode can be used to set the input threshold, as shown in Figure 20, where a higher input voltage and minimum loading is desired. A zener diode with a positive temperature coefficient can be used to compensate the negative coefficient of the CS. A further degree of refinement could be achieved by using a negative temperature coefficient resistance for  $R_G$  to compensate for changes in firing current with temperature. Thermistors will provide a negative coefficient of resistance.

Another arrangement which uses positive cathode bias is shown in Figure 21. A diode,  $D_1$ , is neces-

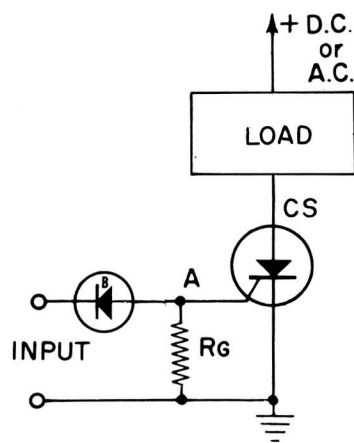


Fig 20

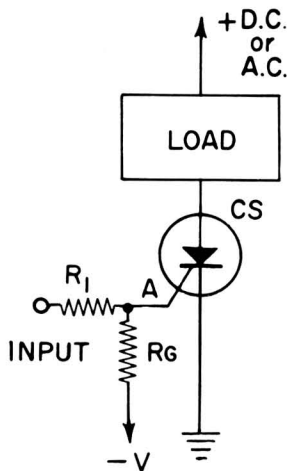


Fig 19

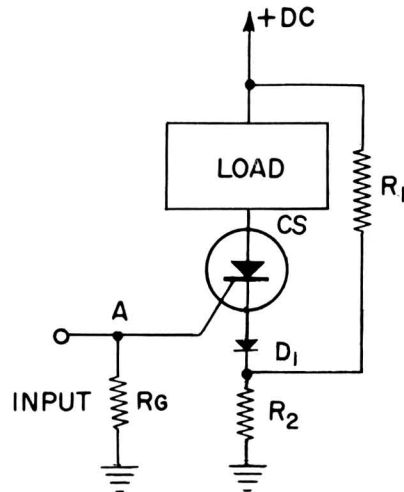


Fig 21

sary if the voltage across  $R_2$  exceeds +5 volts. In this circuit the threshold is a fixed proportion of the supply voltage. This is useful if a changing threshold, as a function of changing supply voltage, is desired.  $R_2$  could be replaced by a zener diode if a fixed or temperature compensated threshold is desired. With a zener diode in the cathode circuit,  $R_1$  and  $D_1$  can be eliminated. This circuit provides excellent bias stabilization for the CS and

permits operation up to  $150^\circ\text{C}$ .

In each of these circuits, the CS will fire when the voltage at point A, with respect to the cathode, is at the specified firing voltage for the CS; and the current required at point A is equal to the minimum gate firing current plus the current required through  $R_G$  to develop the necessary firing voltage.

## 7 TIMING AND TIME DELAY CIRCUITS

The voltage limit detectors discussed in the previous section are readily adaptable to R-C timing and time delay circuits. As a voltage limit detector, the CS will turn on after a preset threshold voltage at the input has been exceeded. This input voltage can be obtained from a capacitor being charged at a specified rate. Thus a fixed time delay can be established by controlling the rate of charge on the input capacitor and the threshold point. This type of circuit will act as a time delay static switch. Delay times up to 20 seconds are possible and the circuits can be put in series for longer times. A time delay static switch of this type can be made very small in size yet control more than 100 watts of load power. Timing accuracy of better than  $\pm 5\%$  can be achieved under varying temperature and supply voltage when the circuits have been properly compensated.

A time delay static switch using a zener diode to establish the voltage threshold is shown in Figure 22. This circuit is the basic voltage limit detector shown in Figure 20 with the addition of a timing capacitor and resistor. Figure 23 graphically shows the relation between firing time and the input voltage. Curve 1 is the charging rate during the period when the voltage across C is less than the zener diode voltage,  $V_{Z1}$ . This is estab-

lished by the value of C,  $R_C$ ,  $R_L$ , the leakage current of C and the leakage current of the zener diode.

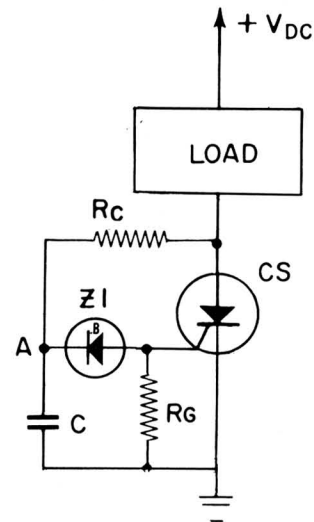


Fig 22 Time delay static switch.

When the voltage at point A equals the zener diode voltage, current will begin to flow from  $R_C$  through the zener diode into  $R_G$  and into the gate of the CS. This occurs at time  $t_1$  on the curve. The additional current through the zener diode reduces the capacitor charging rate, and the voltage build up on C will now follow Curve 2. The voltage at A must rise by an additional amount equal to the firing voltage of the CS,  $V_{GCF}$ .

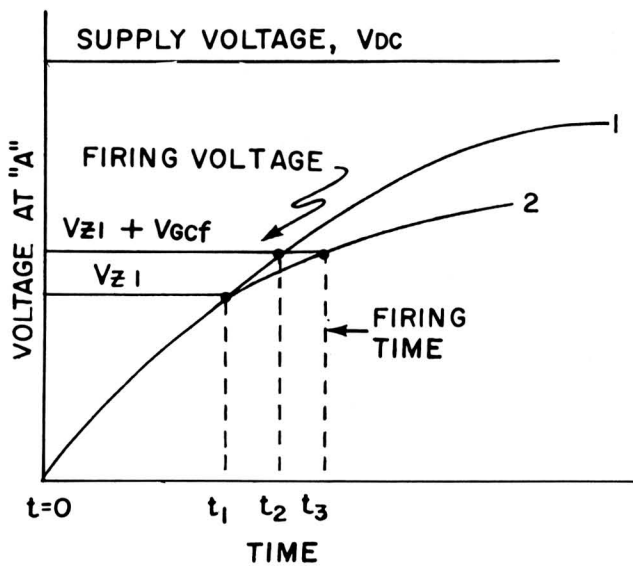


Fig 23

If no additional loading were present on C when it passed the  $V_{Z1}$  voltage, it would continue charging along Curve 1 and the CS would fire at time  $t_2$ . Since there are loading effects present, however, the actual firing time is  $t_3$ .

Since  $R_C$  must supply both the charging current for C and the gate firing current, it has a maximum value based on the minimum current it must supply. This minimum current is the sum of the charging current, the capacitor leakage current, and the current into the zener diode for firing. The current into the zener diode is:  $I_{Z1} = I_{Gf} + \frac{V_{GCF}}{R_G}$ , where  $I_{Gf}$  is the maximum firing current for the CS and  $V_{GCF}$  is the maximum firing voltage of the CS.

The maximum value of  $R_C$  is given by the expression:  $R_C = \frac{V_{DC} - (V_{DZ1} + V_{GCF})}{I_{min}}$ ; where  $V_{DC}$  is the supply voltage,  $V_{DZ1}$  is the zener diode voltage, and  $V_{GCF}$  is the maximum firing voltage of the CS.  $I_{min}$  is determined from the sum of the currents mentioned in the preceding paragraph. This expression assumes  $R_L$  is much smaller than  $R_C$ .

In the circuit of Figure 22, the time delay will be a function of the supply voltage since this determines the charging rate. To make the time delay independent of supply voltage variations, a second zener diode and resistor can be added, as shown

in Figure 24, to give a constant charging voltage for C.

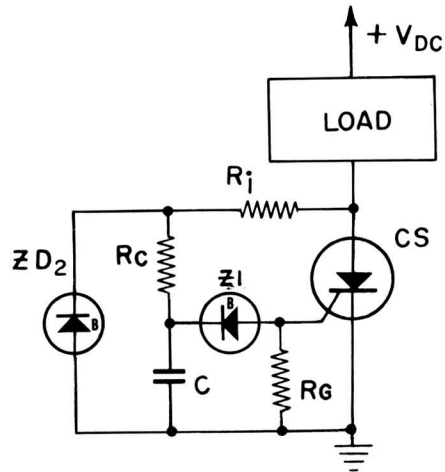


Fig 24

The circuits of Figure 22 and Figure 24 are relatively immune to premature firing due to line voltage transients. A small capacitor (approximately  $0.1 \mu f$ ), directly across the CS from anode to cathode, may be necessary if the line transient is fast. This capacitor will prevent the transient from being coupled to the CS gate by internal anode to gate capacitance.

The timing circuits discussed previously commence their timing cycle when the supply voltage is applied. In some applications it is desirable to start the timing cycle from an electronic pulse at any point in time after the supply voltage is applied. This can be accomplished by adding a CS and two resistors as shown in Figure 25. In this circuit, the timing capacitor will remain uncharged until CS-2 is turned on, clamping point A to approximately +1 volt. When CS-2 is turned on, C commences charging and will fire CS-1 after the preset time delay. Load current will flow through both CS-1 and CS-2. The current through  $R_1$  need only be large enough to exceed the dropout current of CS-2. Two or more timing circuits can be connected in series to achieve longer time delays by this same technique.

An interval timer, or high power one-shot multivibrator can be made by combining the time delay static switch of Figure 22 with the power flip-flop of Figure 5. Such a circuit is shown in Figure 26.

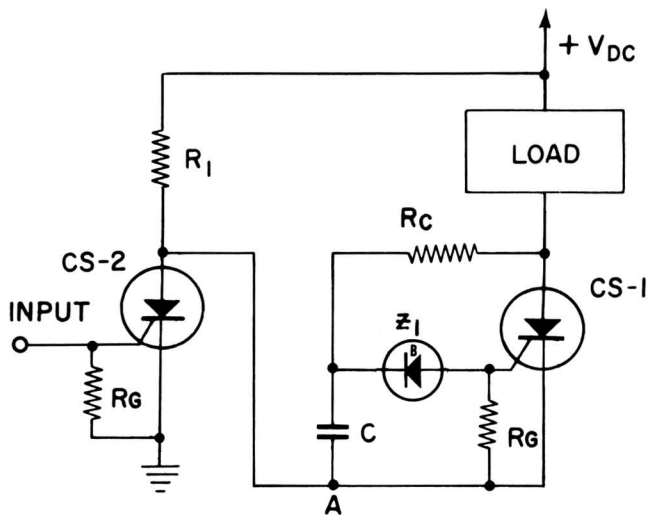


Fig 25

When supply voltage is applied, CS-1 will turn-on after the preset time has elapsed. An input pulse will turn on CS-2. This turns off CS-1 by the action of the commutating capacitor, C. When CS-1 has been turned off, C will commence charging and will turn on CS-1 after the preset time interval. This turns off CS-2 by the action of the commutating capacitor and removes load power. An input pulse should not be applied to

CS-2 for a time period equal to 2 to 3 times the delay time after the supply voltage is first turned on. The time interval between input pulses should also equal at least 2-3 times the delay time. This is necessary to permit C to discharge after CS-2 has turned on, and to allow C<sub>1</sub> to fully charge to the correct polarity.

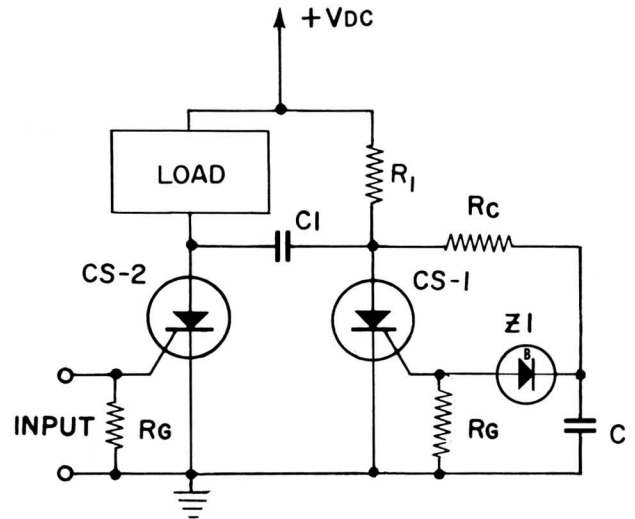


Fig 26 Interval timer (one shot multivibrator)

## 8 PROTECTIVE CIRCUITS

Nearly all electronic circuitry requires some means of protection against excessive voltage transients, overloads and similar unexpected trouble. The problem of protecting transistor circuits is particularly important since transistors can be easily damaged by excessive voltage. Mechanical circuit breakers and fuses are usually not too useful because they respond too slowly or are too big, or cannot be easily reset. In addition, these devices are primarily current actuated and offer little protection against voltage overload.

The CS or SCR can be used to give excellent protection to many types of systems. Figure 27 shows a simple arrangement that will protect against excessive supply voltage. The CS will turn on when the voltage at A exceeds approximately 6 volts. With the voltage divider values used, this would occur when the input reached +35V. When the CS turns on, the voltage to the load will drop to approximately +2V. The current through the CS is limited to safe value by the 27 ohm resistor. This circuit will respond within .2  $\mu$ seconds after the overvoltage occurs. The



response can be slowed down to any desired degree by a capacitor across the 1K resistor. The circuit can be manually reset by turning off the supply voltage momentarily. If electronic reset is desired, a second CS in the power flip-flop connection can be used. This is shown in Figure 28. A positive pulse at the reset input will turn off CS-1 and restore voltage to the load.

circuit will remain on unless the load current, passing through the 47 ohm resistor, rises to a point where the voltage across this resistor exceeds the critical threshold voltage set by the zener diode and turns on CS-1. When this occurs CS-2 is turned off by the commutating capacitor and the load circuit is opened. The load power can also be removed by a positive pulse at the "off" lead or by depressing the "off" switch momentarily. With values shown, the trip point is approximately one amp.

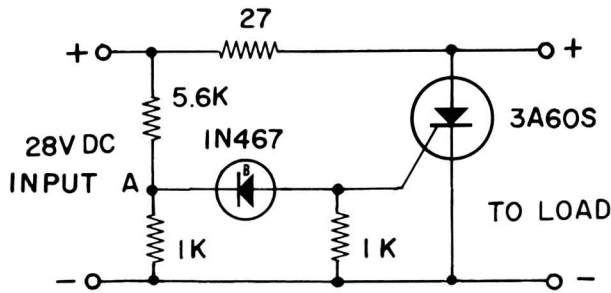


Fig 27 Overvoltage protection

An equally simple arrangement can be achieved for overcurrent protection. Figure 29 shows a circuit which can be turned on and off electronically and will turn itself off when the load current exceeds a pre-set maximum value. Manual turn-on and turn-off is also provided. This again is the basic power flip-flop. Load power is turned on by turning on CS-2. This can be accomplished either by a positive pulse input at the "on" lead or by depressing the "on" switch momentarily. The

Overvoltage and overcurrent protection can be combined to protect a single load by combining the circuits of Figures 27 and 29. It can be designed so that if overvoltage occurs, the current drawn by the voltage protecting CS actuates the overcurrent portion of the circuit and therefore opens the load circuit. This automatically resets the voltage protecting part of the circuit. An electronic reset pulse or manual turn on switch can then re-apply load power.

The design of protective circuits using the CS or SCR is very flexible. Circuits requiring voltage up to 200 volts - 1.25 amps can be protected. The tripping current level can be set as low as 20 mA.

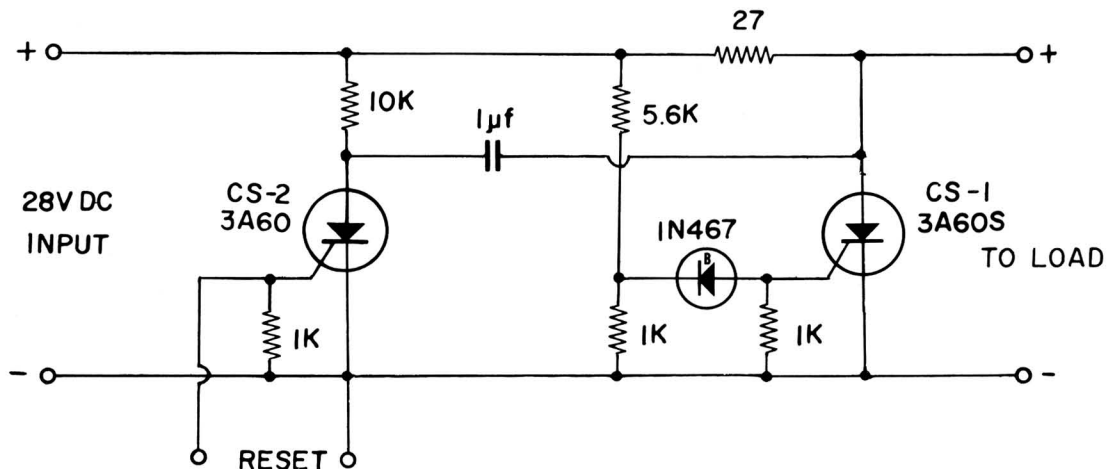


Fig 28 Overvoltage protection electronic reset

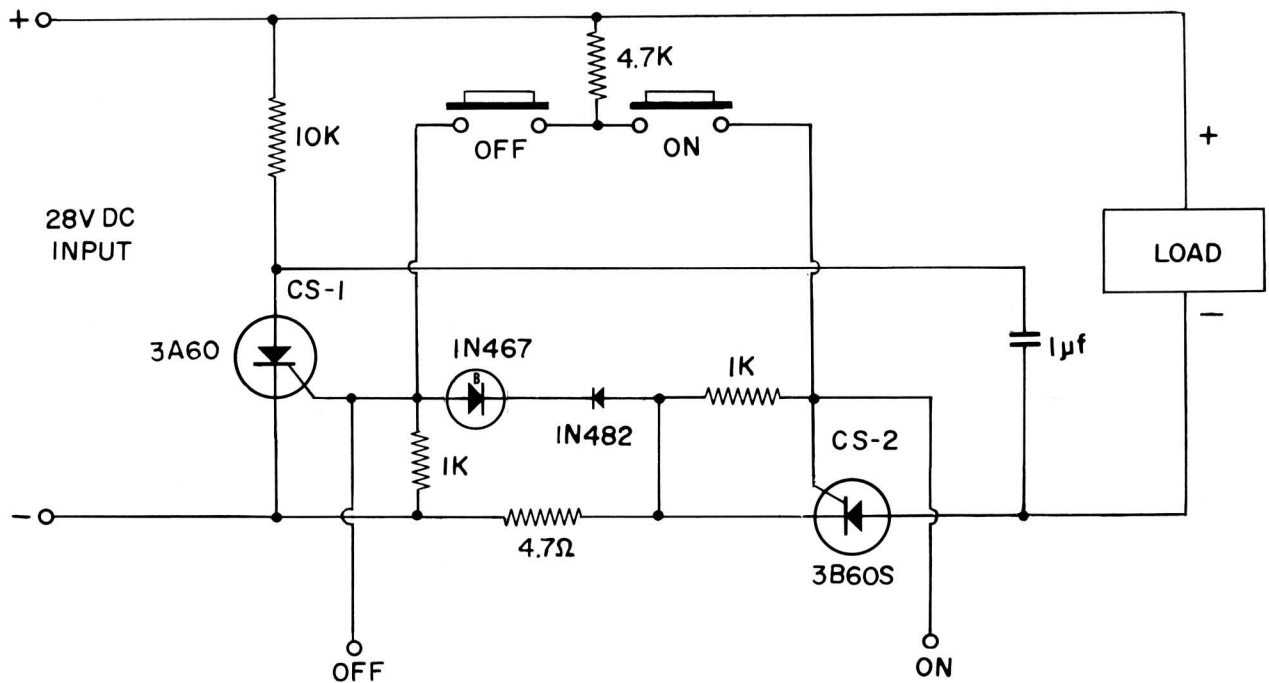


Fig 29 Overcurrent protection.

## 9 LOGIC INPUT CIRCUITS

A variety of logic input circuits are possible with the CS. In fact most of the logic inputs that are used with transistors can be adapted for use as with many previous CS circuits, either A C or D C load power can be used. The logic inputs are useful in data processing, control, indicator, protection, and fusing applications.

Three simple "and" circuits are shown in Figures 30, 31 and 32. In each case, the circuits can be designed so that the CS will turn on only when there are inputs at both A and B. In Figure 30 one of the inputs is the anode source voltage while the other is the gate signal. In Figure 31, the gate is negative biased. The input signals are positive and must be limited in amplitude so that with either input present, the gate re-

mains negative biased but with both present, the gate to ground voltage exceeds the firing requirement and the CS turns on. In Figure 32, the CS is normally biased off by a positive cathode voltage. In this case the inputs must be negative. When both inputs are present, the positive bias is overcome and the cathode goes negative by an amount exceeding the firing requirements of the CS.

Figures 31 and 32 can be used as "or" circuits by increasing the amplitude of the input signals so that either one will turn on the CS. Figure 33 shows another version of an "or" circuit. In this case either a positive input at A or negative input at B will turn on the CS.

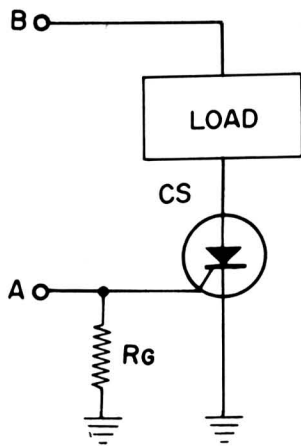


Fig 30 Simple "AND"

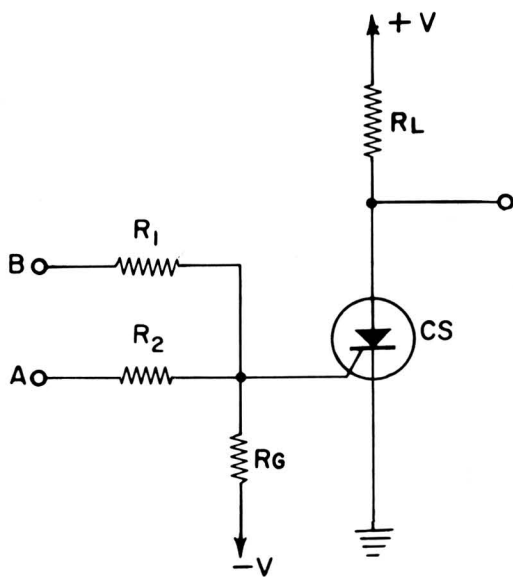


Fig 31 Positive input "AND" or "OR"

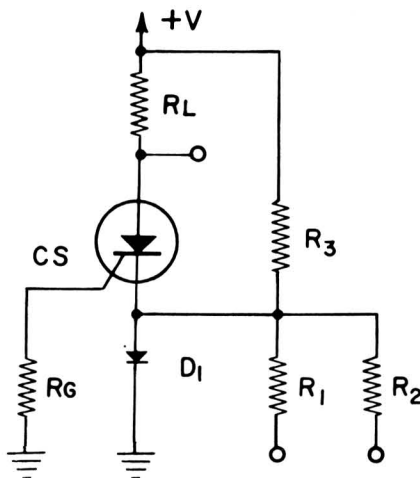


Fig 32 Negative input "AND" or "OR"

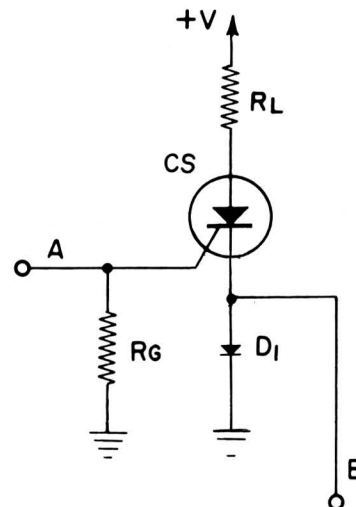


Fig 33 "OR" circuit

By combining the inputs shown in Figure 31 and Figure 32 a single circuit with four inputs is achieved. A variety of "and" plus "or" combination can then be established. Additional inputs can be added to such a combination as long as biasing is properly set.

Figure 34 shows a sequential "and" circuit which is useful for safety, protective, fusing, and related applications. Before power can be applied to  $R_L$ , three pulse inputs must be applied in the correct sequence.

With all three of the CS's off, the bias voltage at input B is  $1/3$  of the supply voltage, and at input C it is  $2/3$  of the supply voltage. CS-2 will not turn on unless the voltage applied at point B exceeds  $1/3$  of the supply voltage. Similarly, CS-3 will not turn on unless the voltage at C exceeds  $2/3$  of the supply voltage. CS-1 on the other hand will turn on with an input at A equal to the normal CS firing requirements. Thus if the input pulse amplitudes are limited to less than  $1/3$  of the supply voltage, CS-2 cannot turn on until CS-1 has first been turned on. Also CS-3 cannot turn on until both CS-1 and CS-2 have been turned on.

A pulse counter circuit is shown in Figure 35. CS-1 and CS-2 are used as memory elements. CS-3 turns on the load power after three positive input pulses have been applied at the input. The first positive input signal at A couples through  $C_1$ , to turn CS-1 on. Diodes  $D_2$  and

$D_3$  are biased in the reverse direction by the charge on  $C_2$  and  $C_3$ , and block the input pulse from the gates of CS-2 and CS-3. After CS-1 turns on, the voltage at its anode is approximately +1 volt and  $C_2$  discharges. When the next positive input pulse occurs, it can now couple through  $D_2$  to turn on CS-2. Again  $D_3$  blocks this pulse from the gate of CS-3. When CS-2 turns on, its anode voltage drops to +1 volt and  $C_3$  discharges. The third positive input pulse can now couple through  $D_3$  to turn on CS-3 and apply power to the load.  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  must provide current above the dropout level to CS-1 and CS-2. The circuit can be made to reset electronically by adding another CS, in the power flip-flop connection as shown in Figure 35A.

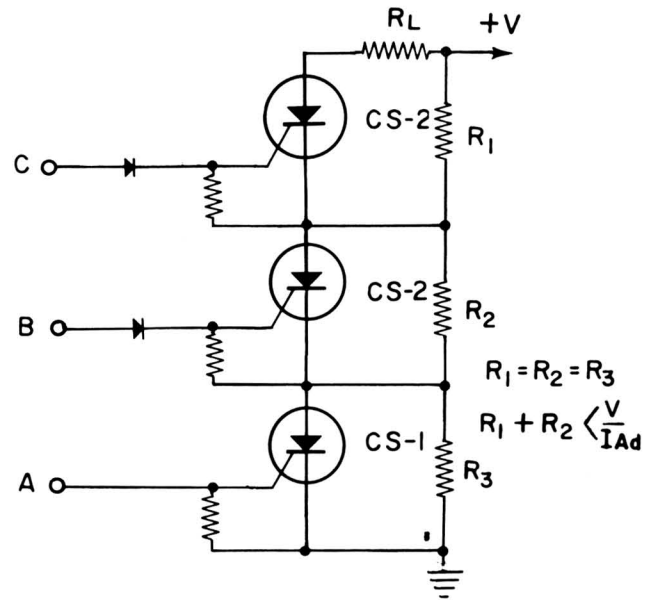


Fig 34 Sequential "AND"

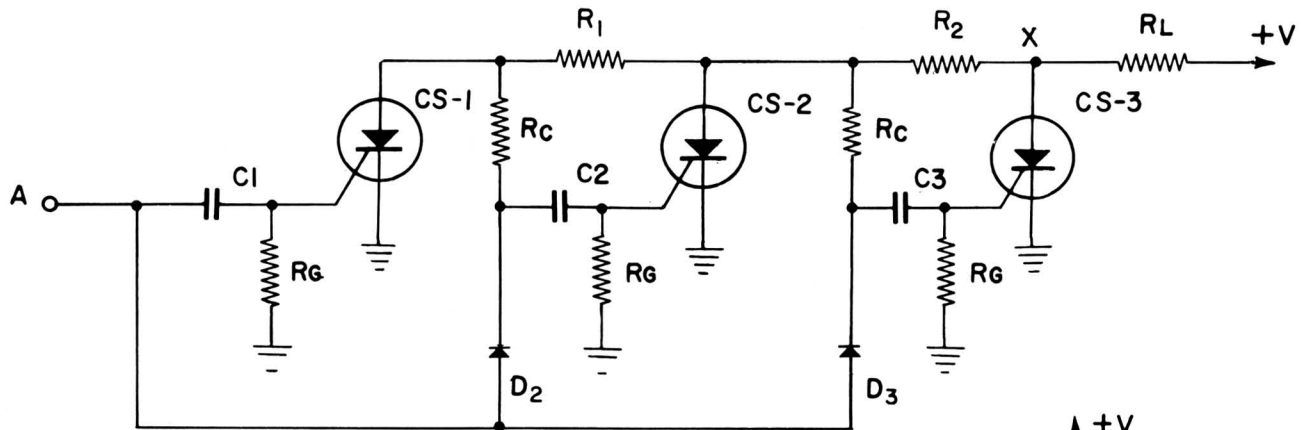


Fig 35 Pulse adder

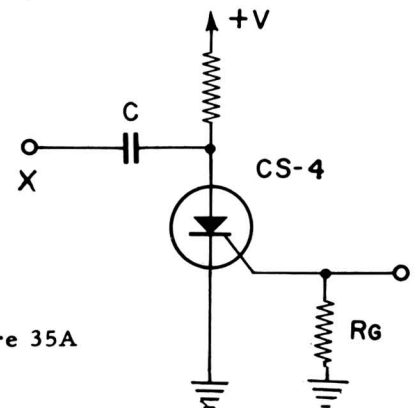


Figure 35A

## 10 SQUIB FIRING, FUSING, AND DETONATING SYSTEMS

The high surge current and peak power handling capabilities of the CS and SCR make them particularly useful in detonating applications. For short time durations, the CS can supply high peak power. Up to 2000 watts (100V-20A) can be supplied to a load for 10  $\mu$ seconds. This is 200,000 ergs of firing energy. Considerably greater energy can be delivered to the load with lower current - longer time conditions. The CS can supply 5 amps for 50 milliseconds which, with a 28 VDC source, amounts to approximately 6,000,000 ergs of firing energy. Many test cycles can be made without damage to the CS. Their

small size permits a high degree of miniaturization.

Simple  $R_C$  time delay, as shown in Figure 22, can be easily introduced to the firing circuit. The sequential "and" circuit in Figure 24, as well as other logic inputs can be used with any desired degree of redundant design to provide the desired safety features. Absolute "no fire stability" for the CS can be established based on the minimum gate firing voltage. Almost any degree of CS firing sensitivity can be achieved by proper circuit design.

## 11 TIME VARIABLE PULSE GENERATOR FOR FIRING SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS AND SWITCHES

The preferred method of firing Controlled Rectifiers is by a high energy short duration pulse. The best timing accuracy is achieved with a pulse having a fast rise time (0.5  $\mu$ sec or less). It is not necessary, and in some cases undesirable, to have a continuous gate signal present. When the SCR is conducting in the forward direction, continuous gate signal simply increases device dissipation without contributing to performance. When the SCR anode voltage is negative, a positive gate signal substantially increases leakage current and therefore device dissipation. Pulse firing avoids these two undesired conditions.

A time variable pulse generator, which has been specifically designed for firing high power as well as low power SCR's is shown in Figure 36. This circuit is an adaptation of the pulse generator shown in Figure 14. The pulse generator will deliver 5V-200 ma pulses with a pulse width of 6  $\mu$ sec or longer. Pulse transformer output is used

to provide isolation between the SCR's being triggered. As shown, it is designed for 60 cycle operation. Control is achieved from approximately 10° to 180° of the AC half cycle. The

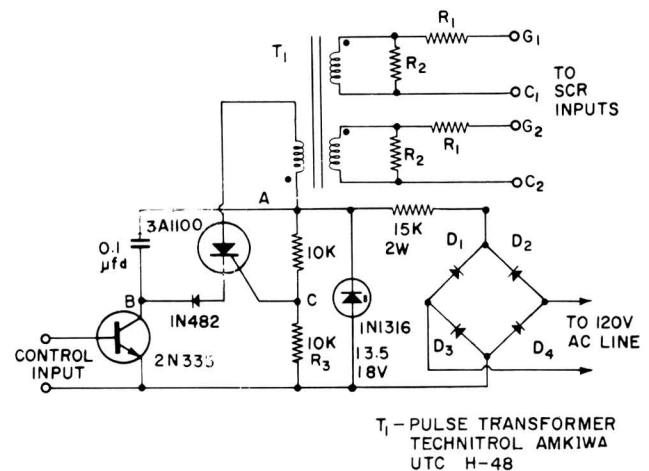


Fig 36 Time variable control circuit for firing SCR

circuit consumes very little power and a sub-miniature zener diode can be used. The 15K current limiting resistor has the highest dissipation; approximately 0.7 watts at 120 VAC. A 2N335 silicon transistor controls charging current to the 0.1  $\mu$ fd capacitor and provides electronic control of the time delay. Since the transistor is a constant current device, the charging rate is linear rather than exponential. Thus, the time delay for firing is inversely proportional to the controlling input current at the base of the 2N335 transistor. A variable resistor can be used in place of the transistor if manual control is desired.

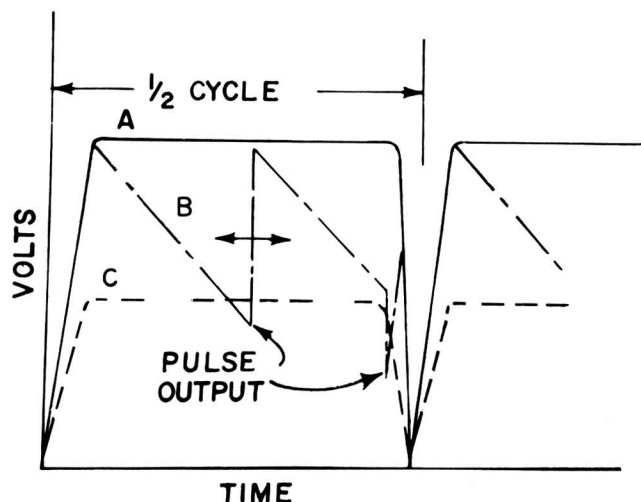


Fig -37

The circuit operation is quite straightforward. The AC line voltage is bridge rectified by  $D_1$  through  $D_4$  so that pulsating DC is obtained at point A.  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  are not required if the AC supply voltage is center-tapped. The zener diode and the 15K resistor limit the voltage at A as shown by the waveform of Figure 37. A resistor divider consisting of two 10K resistors, supplies a bias voltage to the gate of the 3A16 equal to half of the zener voltage. At the beginning of each half cycle the capacitor is discharged and the voltage at point B is equal to the zener voltage. Thus the cathode of the 3A16 is positive with respect to its gate and the CS is biased off. The 1N482 diode is also reverse biased to minimize loading effects on the timing capacitor and to prevent exceeding the cathode-gate voltage

rating of the 3A16. As collector current of the transistor charges the capacitor, the voltage at point B drops toward zero. When this voltage drops below the fixed bias on the gate by an amount sufficient to fire the 3A16, the CS will turn on, discharging the capacitor into the primary of the pulse transformer.

If for any reason, the capacitor does not charge sufficiently to fire the CS before the end of the half cycle, the CS will fire when the voltage at point A drops toward zero at the end of the half cycle. When the voltage at A drops to zero, the gate bias voltage for the 3A16 is also zero. However, with the capacitor partially charged, the voltage at B goes negative, causing the CS to fire and discharging the capacitor. Timing for the next half cycle therefore starts with the capacitor discharged.

Where possible, it is desirable to obtain the AC voltage for the control circuit directly across the SCR's being controlled. This removes the supply voltage to the control circuit after the SCR fires, and eliminates unnecessary dissipation in the control circuit.

The impedance reflected into the primary of the pulse transformer should be low (20 to 50 ohm) and primarily resistive. Termination of the secondary windings as shown in Figure 36 is desirable. The input impedance of the rectifier being controlled will affect the termination. For low power units such as the SSPI 3A or 3B series,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  should be 100 ohms. High power units such as the C35 which require relatively high firing current can be driven directly from the secondary windings. Series resistance of the pulse transformer secondary windings will provide the necessary decoupling without the need for  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . The 0.1  $\mu$ fd capacitor should be replaced by 0.2  $\mu$ fd to furnish the higher energy requirements of the high power SCR's.

The circuit of Figure 38 is the same as Figure 36 except that the single control transistor is replaced by a pair of 2N335 transistors connected as a balanced input amplifier.  $R_3$  in Figure 36

is replaced by a voltage divider,  $R_4$  and  $R_5$ , which provides a reference of 5 volts to the base of  $Q_2$

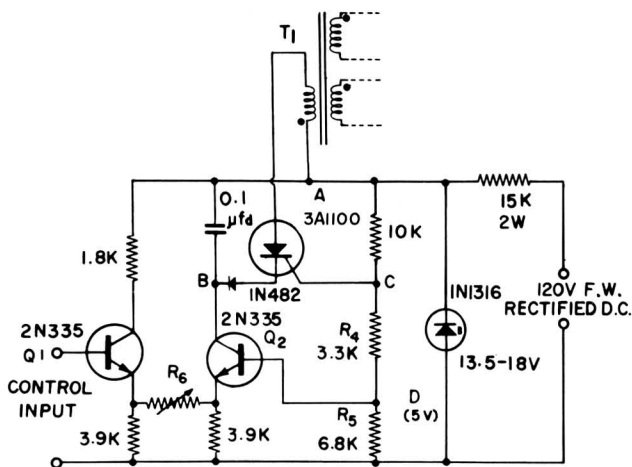


Fig 38 Control circuit with balanced input amplifier

The balanced amplifier is self-compensating for temperature variations of transistor parameters. Its flexibility makes it attractive for a wide variety of control applications.

The two 3.9K resistors in series with the emitters of  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  act as constant current sources, establishing the total emitter current of both transistors at approximately 2 mA. With a control input voltage of 5 volts applied to the base of  $Q_1$  (the same as the reference voltage applied to  $Q_2$ ) the two transistors share equally the 2 mA total available emitter current.  $Q_2$  therefore provides a charging current of 1 mA to the 0.1  $\mu$ fd capacitor. Under this condition,  $R_6$  has no

effect on the circuit, since the current through it is zero.

When the control input voltage is raised above 5 volts,  $Q_1$  demands more current, taking it from  $Q_2$  through resistor  $R_6$ . When the control voltage is below 5 volts, current through  $Q_1$  is reduced and charging current through  $Q_2$  increases. The center of the proportioning control voltage range is established by the reference voltage applied to the base of  $Q_2$ . A zener diode or any other voltage reference may be used in place of the simple voltage divider if greater reference stability is desired.

Resistor  $R_6$  controls the gain of the balanced amplifier and can be used to adjust the proportioning control voltage range above and below the 5 volt center. When  $R_6$  is zero ohms, gain is maximum. Pulse delay is approximately  $10^\circ$  (almost full output) when the control input voltage is 4.9 volts, and  $170^\circ$  (almost no output) at 5.1 volts input. Thus, a 4% input voltage change can control the SCR's from essentially zero to full power output. Increasing  $R_6$  reduces gain and broadens the proportioning range without altering the range center.

In the control circuit as shown in Figure 38, an increase in control voltage causes a decrease in power output, and vice-versa. By applying the reference voltage to the base of  $Q_1$  and the control input to the base of  $Q_2$ , the control sense can be reversed if desired.

## 12 PROPORTIONING CONTROL CIRCUITS

When used with AC load power, the CS or SCR will block during both half cycles unless a gate signal is supplied. The CS or SCR can be turned on at any point during the positive half cycle as long as the anode is more than 3 volts positive

with respect to its cathode. By properly timing a gate signal, the output of the CS or SCR can be made continuously variable from no output to full output. Figure 39 shows the output voltage or current as a function of firing angle for a full



wave D C output with resistive load. Since the internal dissipation of the CS or SCR is very low, nearly lossless proportioning power control can be achieved. The low power requirements for gate firing permit the design of simple very high gain proportioning control amplifiers.

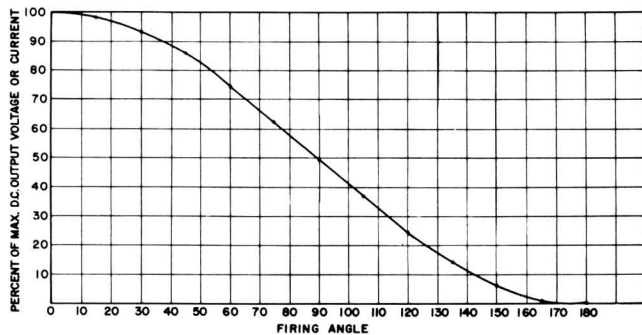


Fig 39 D.C output voltage vs firing angle

The time variable pulse generator of Figure 36 or 38 offers one means for achieving the desired gate signal control for proportional control systems. This circuit will provide an output pulse variable from approximately  $10^\circ$  to  $180^\circ$  as a function of its input current. By using this or similar gate control circuits, in conjunction with the basic full wave DC and AC circuits shown in Figures 9 and 10, proportional control is quite simply accomplished.

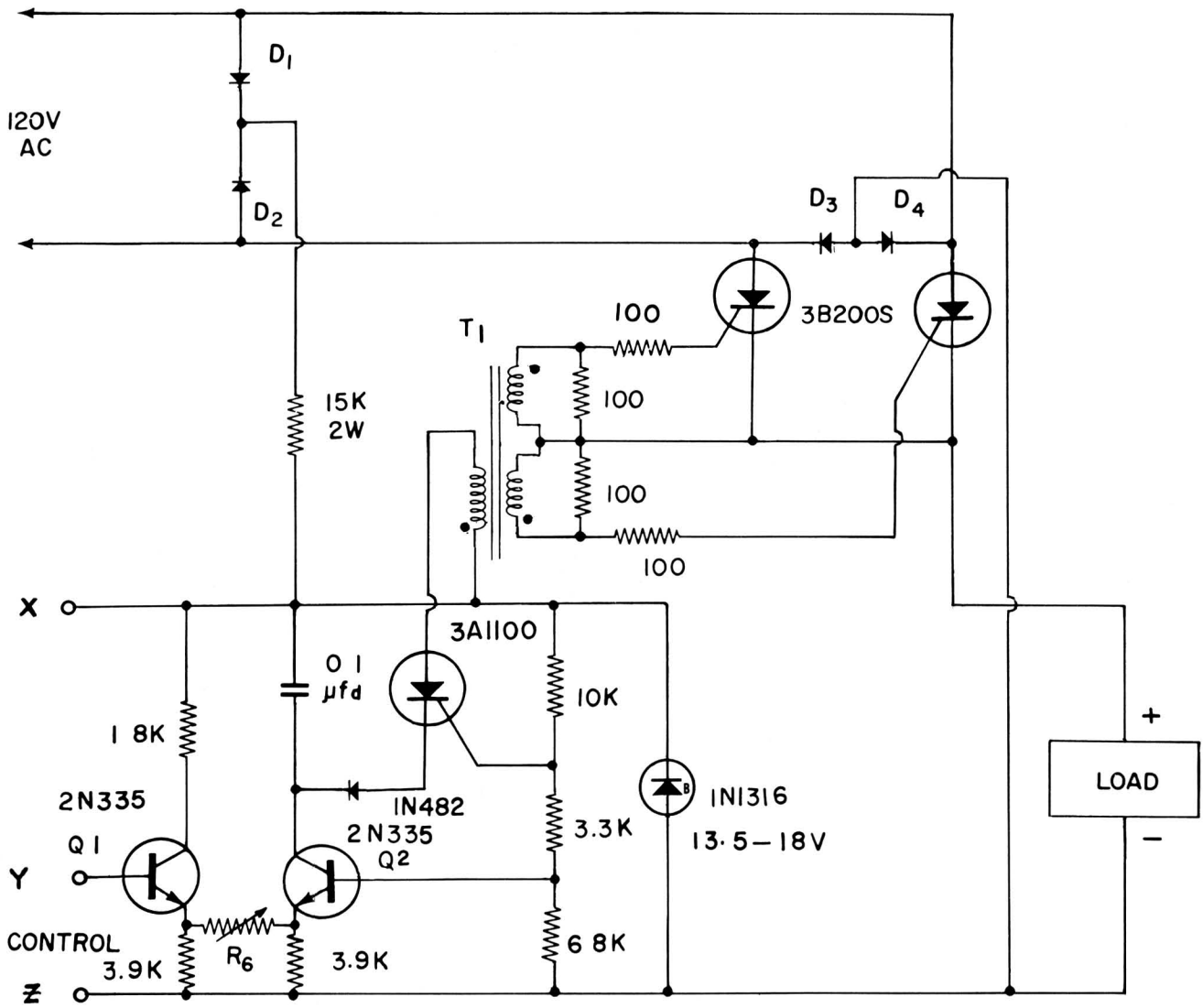
Figure 40 shows a proportioning control amplifier with full wave rectified D.C output, incorporating the control circuit of Figure 38. A D C input voltage variable from 4.9 to 5.1 volts will provide full output control. This circuit is useful for servo motor driving, temperature control and

related applications. Closed loop feedback is easily achieved for self regulating systems. Full wave AC output can be obtained by using the output circuit shown in Figure 10.

The power control circuit of Figure 40 becomes a regulated D C power supply by applying part of the D C output voltage to control input Y. Since the control reference is approximately 5 volts, a voltage divider across the load will regulate the D.C output voltage to 5 volts multiplied by the divider ratio. If the load voltage is unfiltered, it may be desirable to place a small capacitor across the control input.

Regulated D C power supplies using the SCR eliminate the need for high dissipation series control elements such as power transistors or tubes. This greatly minimizes heat sink requirements and permits smaller packaging. In addition, they provide a wide control range. A possible disadvantage is their response time, which can be no faster than the time of one half cycle of the supply voltage.

By connecting a resistor from X to Y and from Y to Z in the control circuit of Figure 40, a bridge circuit is formed together with the resistor network connected to the base of  $Q_2$ . This forms the basis for many simple and reliable power control circuits, by using a variable resistance transducer as one of the two resistance elements at the input. Examples include resistance thermometers for temperature control application and photoconductive cells for light control.



D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub> - 200V SILICON DIODES  
 D<sub>3</sub>, D<sub>4</sub> - 200V SILICON RECTIFIERS  
 T<sub>1</sub> - TECHNITROL AMK1WA

OUTPUT VOLTAGE : 0 TO 100V D.C.  
 OUTPUT CURRENT : 0 TO 2 AMPS D.C.  
 INPUT VOLTAGE : 4.9V TO 5.1V FULL RANGE CONTROL ( R<sub>6</sub> = 0 )  
 INPUT CURRENT : 0 TO 50μA  
 POWER GAIN : 20,000,000

Fig 40 High gain proportioning control - D.C output

### 13 A C. STATIC SWITCHING

It is frequently desirable to use the CS or SCR to provide on-off switching of power to a load. In these applications the contact making actuator only has to supply the gate firing current and voltage. If the actuating element is a set of mechanical contacts many advantages can be realized compared to the case where the mechanical contacts actually switch the load power. Contact voltage and current can be established at any desired level for maximum contact life. Also, much more sensitive contacts can be used. Some of the applications in which this type of static switching could be useful are counting, sorting, speed governors, temperature control and safety devices.

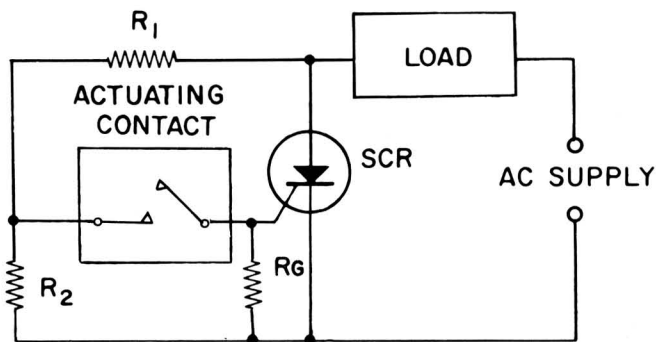


Fig 41

A half wave output static switching circuit is shown in Figure 41. Control voltage is derived from the AC line.  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  limit contact voltage and current to any preset level. If gate to cathode voltage applied to the SCR, during the reverse half cycle, exceeds the -5 volt rating, a diode should be connected between gate and

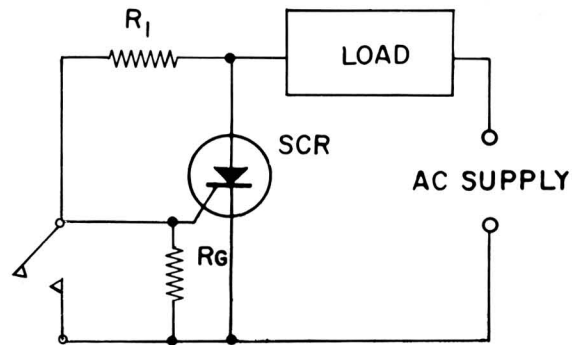


Fig 42

cathode to limit negative gate voltage. A separate gate source voltage could be used if desired rather than obtaining gate voltage from the AC line. The circuit as shown turns on power when the contacts are closed and off with the contacts open. Figure 42 shows the reverse case. Power is on with the contacts open and off with the contacts closed. In both cases the dropping resistor  $R_1$  needs only supply enough current to meet the firing requirements of the SCR.

A full wave AC output static switch is shown in Figure 43. A bridge rectifier supplies full wave DC for the control circuit. Isolating diodes  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  are necessary in the gate circuit since the gates are tied into opposite sides of the AC line.

A circuit supplying full wave DC to the load is easily constructed using the basic circuit shown in Figure 9.

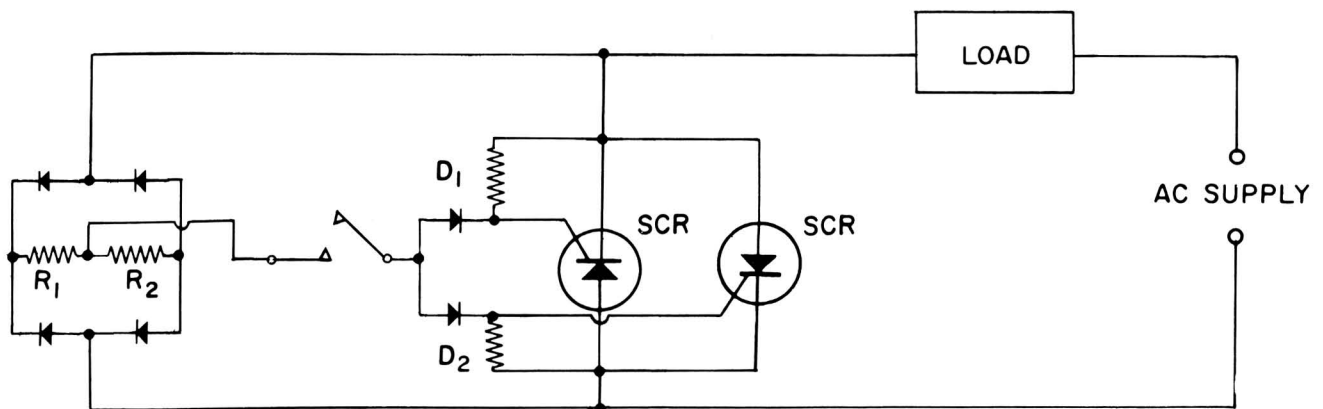


Fig 43

## 14 D C TO D C. CONVERTERS

The CS or SCR offer several advantages in D C to D C converters or in D C to A. C inverters. They have high switching efficiency, high current handling ability, along with miniature size. They can also be operated at ultrasonic frequencies and therefore reduce the step-up transformer size.

Generally, D C to D C conversion is accomplished by transforming the D C source to AC,

stepping up the AC through a transformer, then rectifying the AC output to D C.

There are two approaches to achieving D. C to AC inversion. One is the series inverter which is a current generator, and the other is the parallel inverter which is a voltage generator. Figures 44 and 45 show a basic approach to each of these methods.

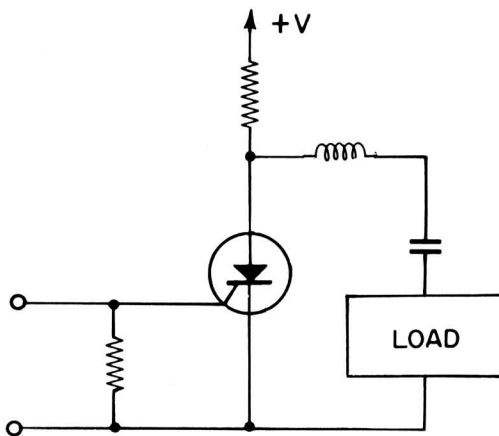


Fig 44 Series inverter

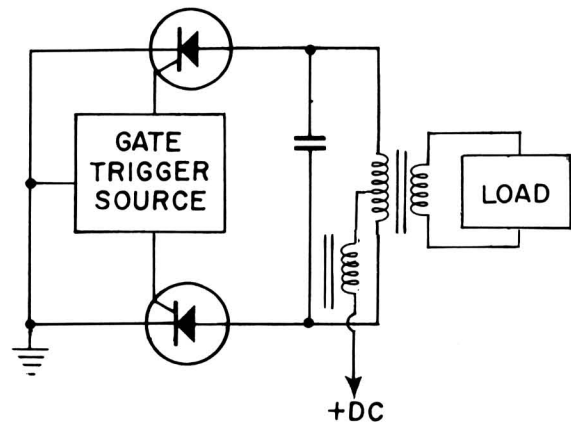


Fig 45 Parallel inverter

## 15 SERVOMOTOR DRIVING

Servomotor drive circuits can take on many forms depending upon the application requirements. The proportioning control circuit in Figure 39 is one approach. This will provide a D C output voltage in proportion to an input error voltage with very high gain. Intermediate amplifier stages between the error signal source and the input to this circuit are usually unnecessary. This circuit will provide D C output power up to 200 watts and its physical size can be made very small. Since it operates off the AC line, a separate D C power supply, as may be required with transistor output stages, is unnecessary.

Where a reversing drive is necessary, two of these amplifiers can be used, one for each direc-

tion. A balanced bridge input between the two amplifiers would provide an input signal to the correct amplifier depending upon the polarity of the error signal.

For simple AC systems, the output circuit in Figure 46 could be used. This provides a constant amplitude A. C sine wave output with reversible phase. It is therefore a reversing drive for AC motors. The load voltage will either be in phase or  $180^\circ$  out of phase with the supply voltage depending on whether the control AC input is in phase or  $180^\circ$  out of phase with the supply.

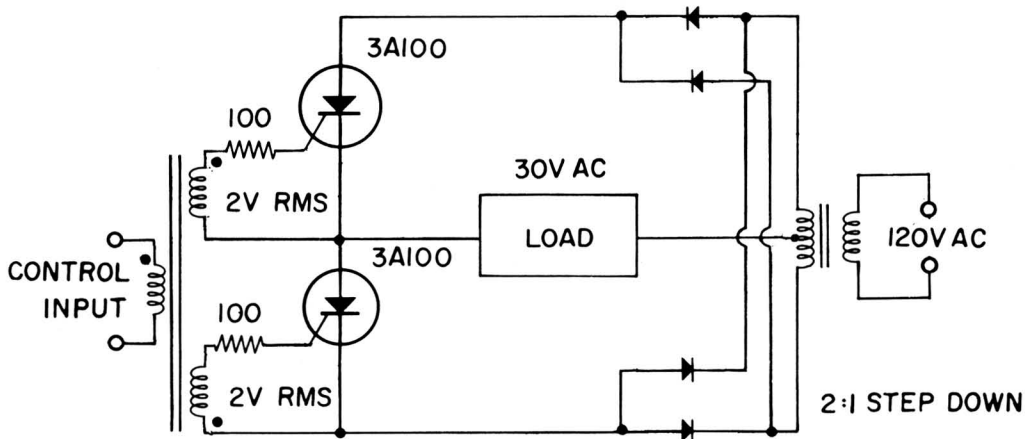


Fig. 46 A C reversing drive

## 16 CONCLUSION

Many circuit applications for the CS and the SCR have been covered in this Bulletin. These represent the most common uses at the present time, yet are by no means all inclusive for these versatile components. It is expected that new applications areas will develop as the "state of the art" of circuit design advances. The creative design engineer will find the CS and the SCR practical and useful active elements in the systems design problems he now faces as well as those that will arise in the future.

## NOTES



# NOTES

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