Shunt-Diode Safety
Barriers and Galvanic
Isolators –
a Critical Comparison

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Introduction

The discussion on the relative merits of galvanic isolators and
shunt diode safety barriers has been carried on for many
years. The majority of other articles on this subject have aimed
to prove the superiority of one technique over the other. This
paper brings together the illustrations which have accumulated
over a considerable time in response to various questions
raised at presentations. It attempts to make balanced
arguments so that the reader can decide the most suitable
technique for a particular application.

It ends with a score sheet which might be found useful if a
decision is not completely self revealing.

The paper has evolved over a considerable time, however it is
unlikely that it covers all aspects and will inevitably need to be
revised as techniques develop. If you have any comments on
the contents or omissions within this document the author
would like to receive them. In this way the document will
become more comprehensive and more valuable.
**Figs 1 and 2**
The basic function of an intrinsically-safe interface is to remove the necessity for certifying the safe-area equipment. The equipment in the safe area is usually complex, needs to be flexible and contains considerable power. Therefore it can inject significant levels of energy into the hazardous area, particularly under fault conditions.

An ideal interface allows the normal low energy signal to pass with as small a voltage drop as possible and with very little attenuation. If however a fault develops in the safe-area equipment then the interface changes its transfer characteristic and restricts the energy transferred to the hazardous area to a safe level.

Shunt diode safety barriers were developed in the late 1950’s as process control computers were more widely applied to the chemical industry and are generally regarded as being the older technique. However, intrinsically-safe relay isolators for switch inputs have been available for many years (quite how many I have not been able to establish) and analogue isolators were available in 1953. The recent growth in the use of both types of isolators has resulted from improved performance and lower cost, not to any change in fundamental principles.

**Fig 3 and 4**
Fig 3 illustrates how a shunt diode safety barrier is constructed so as to limit the current and voltage available from the hazardous area terminals. The fuse restricts the fault power, the zeners restrict the voltage and the current limiting resistor (CLR) restricts the current.
The galvanic isolator illustrated in Fig 4 breaks any direct connection between safe- and hazardous-area circuits by interposing a layer of insulation between the two. The power transfer is usually via some form of transformer and the return signal via an optocoupler, transformer, or relay. The final power limitation is achieved by using a diode resistor network very similar to that of a shuntdiode barrier.

**Figs 5 and 6**
Since the hazardous-area circuit from an isolator is not directly connected to the safe area circuit, it is usual to regard the fundamental action as effectively blocking the excessive energy at the layer of insulation. In practice the 0V of the instrument system is normally returned to the neutral star point for interference avoidance and safety reasons. The resultant fault current is thus returned to the neutral star point in the usual way, rupturing the protective fuse and removing the fault, in a relatively short time.

The conventional fault consideration of the shuntdiode barrier is illustrated in Fig 6 where the fault current is returned to the neutral star point within the safe area in much the same way. The important difference is that the transient voltage difference between the barrier busbar and the neutral star point \([X_1, X]\) is now transferred to the hazardous area and hence must be restrained to a low level (less than 10V). In consequence the busbar to neutral star point bond on the shunt diode safety barrier must be of low resistance and be secure, since it is critical to safety.
**Fig 7**

Fig 7 lists the relative merits of isolators and barriers and the significance of these factors varies with the particular installation. The remainder of the document expands these points of comparison so they can each be evaluated.

**Figs 8, 9 and 10**

In general the lower number of components and basic simplicity of the shunt-diode safety barrier means they are considered to be more reliable.

A more accurate comparison has to compare the reliability of an isolator with the barrier plus additional components required to accomplish the same function. For example Figs 9 and 10 show the usual switch contact transfer using a barrier relay combination which should be compared with the more complete functions of the isolator. This reduces the apparent superiority of the barrier.
**Figs 11 and 12 and 16**

In general barriers are more versatile than isolators. For example the MTL7875 barrier of Fig 16 is identical with that used in the switch application of Fig 9.

If the flexibility of barriers is exploited to solve a new application then an analysis taking into account possible resistive drops and leakage currents is desirable, as indicated in Fig 16.

Whenever a different untried combination of an intrinsically safe interface and field mounted equipment is proposed, it is advisable to try an experimental interconnection under laboratory conditions. A satisfactory trial increases the probability of the final installation working.

Fig 12 shows an isolator for use with a conventional 4 to 20mA transmitter. The isolator is designed for use with this type of transmitter and is not useful for any other function.
**Fig 13**

Isolators require additional power which utilises space, dissipates more heat and increases cost. The use of a well ventilated (possibly forced ventilated) cabinet becomes a necessity if isolators are closely packed.

It must be remembered that for both barriers and isolators the maximum permitted ambient temperature is the air temperature immediately adjacent to the apparatus i.e. the temperature inside the enclosure. This temperature may be raised by other adjacent electrical equipment.

**Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers</th>
<th>Isolators</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low dissipation</td>
<td>High dissipation</td>
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Isolators require 1-2VA for added signal power

Temperature rise in large cabinets can be a problem

- Barriers dissipate very little 500mW
- 500 isolators yield 1Kw
- 30°C rise in 2 meter high unventilated rack

**Figs 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18**

Barriers may have over-voltage protection to counteract large supply variations but the protection absorbs line volts.

Conventional barriers restrict the available hazardous-area line volts. For example, the conventional diode return barrier transmitter combination of Fig 16 has a maximum line voltage drop of 0.9V. By comparison the MTL3041 circuit of Fig 17 has 5.5V available for line voltage which readily permits the use of loop powered local indicators as shown in the diagram.

**Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Barriers</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Loop powered</td>
<td>Separately powered required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tightly controlled supply</td>
<td>Wide range power supply</td>
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- Isolator - higher power available for both hazardous and safe area. Variable supply
- Barrier - dissipates some power but can be used in existing circuits

**Comparisons**

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Restricted voltage in hazardous area</td>
<td>Higher voltage (power) available in hazardous area</td>
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- Isolators inject voltage to replace losses
- Barriers absorb available voltage
Active barriers such as the MTL706 shown in Fig 18 permit more line voltage and are tolerant of supply voltage variation. They consume additional power, but offer an alternative to isolators if there is a strong preference for a barrier solution.
**Figs 19 and 20**
The number of interfaces which can be mounted in a cabinet is largely determined by the size of cabling to be accommodated and the degree of accessibility to be achieved. Facilities for cross wiring also use considerable amounts of space.

The numbers quoted are those for generously designed racks and higher density can be achieved at the expense of accessibility and temperature rise. The figures available do however demonstrate the higher packing density which can be achieved with barriers.

The number of mechanical variations available in both barriers and isolators is increasing and each has its particular merits.

The discrete use of multichannel units can also effectively increase the number of channels per cabinet. However single loop integrity is sacrificed and some thought as to whether this is significant or not is essential.

**Figs 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25**
There is normally much emphasis on the necessity for correct bonding of the shunt-diode safety barrier’s ‘0’ volt busbar. However the development of the required bonding system from Fig 22 showing the requirements for structure, computer 0V and screen to the slightly modified system of Fig 23 illustrates that there is no difficult requirement. To avoid significant differences within the hazardous area the bond should have a low resistance \(0.1\,\Omega\) and be of high integrity. The
possibility of installing a second lead (as indicated by the broken line) for monitoring purposes should be considered. However the presence and integrity of the bond is essential in all types of installation.

The isolator bonding system illustrated in Fig 24 is identical with that of the non-hazardous system, but the 0V bond has some safety implications.

The overall earthing system illustrated in Fig 25 emphasises that the instrument system bonding is only a part of the total system. The requirements are only marginally affected by whether barriers or isolators are used.
Figs 26, 27 and 28
Where signals have to be transferred across a hazardous area using intrinsically-safe cabling, the preferred technique is to use galvanic isolation at both ends. Fig 27 illustrates a system frequently used between analyser houses and control room.

If a signal has to be transferred to a remote location in the safe area, Fig 28, the use of an isolator at the interface removes concern over possible potential differences between earth mats. The extra voltage needed to drive the interconnecting cables is also useful. For these reasons isolators are the preferred solution, in these particular circumstances.
Fig 29
There is a general requirement that intrinsically-safe circuits should be earthed at one point only and elsewhere isolated to withstand a 500V insulation test. It follows that where a sensor or some other field apparatus cannot be insulated (e.g., a pH sensor) then the preferred solution is to use an isolator. In some countries the code of practice permits the using of equipotential bonding conductors but this is not a universally accepted practice and should be avoided if at all possible.

Barriers
- Circuit must be isolated from earth in the hazardous area.

Isolators
- Circuit may be earthed at one point in hazardous area.

Requirement of intrinsically safe circuits
- Earthen at one point only Elsewhere insulated to 500V
- If sensor already earthed eg. bonded thermocouple, best to use an isolator - Universally accepted
- Barriers can be used with potential equalising conductor in some countries (eg UK), but messy

Hazardous area isolation

Barriers
- Accuracy (0.1%) and linearity higher

Isolators
- Accuracy and linearity lower (0.25%)

Isolator process for analogue signals has several conversions, hence lower accuracy
- Barrier does not distort current signals. Leakage currents very small
- Digital signals do not lose accuracy

Comparisons
Figs 30, 31, 32 and 33
Although the changing technology of isolators has increased their accuracy, they are in general less accurate than barrier systems. Usually transfer accuracy is adequate but the temperature coefficient remains significant.

Figs 31 and 32 show comparable load cell systems where every effort is made to achieve maximum accuracy. The barrier load cell system can achieve 0.05% without difficulty, and the isolator system would achieve 0.25% if the ambient temperature varied by 25°C.

Fig 33 shows a Smart transmitter which when used with a 4 to 20mA analogue signal would expect to generate a 0.2% error at the interface. If, however, the digital representation of the measurement was used then the isolator would not introduce any error. It follows therefore that where isolators are the preferred solution for use with Smart transmitters and the highest accuracy is required then the digital signal should be used.
**Figs 34, 35 and 36**
Cost comparisons are always difficult because there is very rarely a precise coincidence of function. There is however a general perception that shunt diode safety barriers are less expensive than isolators.

In practice for switch transfer purposes there is little difference in cost per channel between the two techniques. If individual loop integrity and minimum facilities are acceptable the multichannel switch isolators are lower in cost than corresponding barrier solutions as illustrated in Fig 35.

Analogue isolators are more complex than the corresponding barriers and the cost difference becomes significant as shown in Fig 36.

However, except for very large installations the cost difference is rarely the deciding factor.
**Fig 37 and 38**

In general the frequency response of a barrier is determined by the value of the current limiting resistor and the diode capacitance. The diode capacitance is non-linear with voltage and hence some distortion of any high frequency signals inevitably takes place and a discussion on frequency response can be misleading. If a system frequency is higher than 50kHz the only solution is to try the system experimentally, attempting if possible to allow for the effects of interconnecting cables.

Isolators in general have to be designed to operate at the specific frequency transmitted. For example, with Smart transmitters the interface MTL3046B illustrated in Fig 38 works with the majority of transmitters, but not all. It is therefore essential to check compatibility between the particular apparatus and the isolator to be used.

**Fig 39**

In general repair is not a practical proposition.

Some thought on the acceptability of barriers with interchangeable fuses needs to be given if frequent damage is anticipated and cannot be avoided.
**Fig 40, 41 and 42**

Where there is a significant probability of potential differences across a plant due to severe electrical faults or lightning then isolators have greater immunity to damage.

Fig 41 illustrates a possible problem with barriers. A fault current from the electric motor returns via the plant bond generating a voltage between points X and Y. If this is the case, break down occurs between the thermocouple and tank creating a potential hazard. The shunt diode barrier will sacrificially protect the instrumentation.

Intrinsically-safe isolators are routinely tested to withstand 2.5kV rms and hence offer some degree of protection to the instrumentation system.

Figs 42 shows how the use of an isolator together with a suitable surge suppression network can prevent an unacceptable voltage difference occurring within the Zone 0.
Fig 43
The need to minimise the number of techniques used within an installation is obvious. Usually therefore, if a plant already uses shunt-diode barriers or isolators in most circumstances it is better to maintain a consistent practice.

1) Training of technicians
2) Spares
3) Mounting probably cheaper and more convenient

Fig 44
Historically, the need to avoid circulating current in ships hulls has led to the preferred practice of using isolated circuits. In general using shunt-diode safety barriers does not lead to any problems but the arguments are long and expensive.

Similarly, German engineers are trained to use and prefer galvanic isolated circuits.

Barriers
Acceptable in most areas of the world

Isolators
Preferred solution in marine installations and German zones of influence

Marine regulations - propose isolated circuits to avoid currents in hull
Easier to use isolators than argue about 2 channel barriers

German attitude - German engineers prefer galvanic isolation particularly in Zone 0
Easier to to agree than convert

Fig 45 and 46
The score sheet's principal function is to make sure you consider each of the contributing factors.

If you have a preferred technique then pursue that line, since either solution will probably be satisfactory.

Allocate marks out of 10 if the requirement is important.
Allocate marks out of 6 if the requirement is significant.
Allocate no marks if the requirement has no significance.

If total show a significant preference then follow the choice.
If the argument is balanced then follow your personal preference.
Whatever you do, use MTL equipment.

Score sheet
**Barriers**

* Prefer Barriers  
* Existing system predominately barriers

Simple  
Versatile  
Low dissipation  
Loop powered  
Tightly controlled supply  
Restricted voltage available in hazardous area  

Higher packing density  
Safety earth fundamental  
Imposes a reference ‘0’ volt on system  
Circuit must be isolated from earth in hazardous area  
Accuracy and linearity higher (0.1%)  
Lower cost  
Good frequency response [100KHz]  
Encapsulated, irreparable  
Vulnerable to lightning and other surges.  
Acceptable solution in most parts of the world

**Isolators**

* Prefer Isolators  
* Existing system predominately isolator

Complex low MTBF  
Application specific  
High dissipation (2VA)  
Separate power supply  
Wider range power supply  
Higher voltage (power) available in both hazardous area and safe area  
Lower packing density  
Safety earth reduced significance  
Isolation between signals  
Circuit may be earthed at one point in hazardous area  
Lower accuracy and linearity (0.25%)  
Increased cost  
Limited frequency response  
Can be repaired  
Less vulnerable to lightning and other surges.  
Preferred solution in marine installations and Germanic zones of influence

**Score sheet**

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