



¹ Master course in High Voltage Engineering



Partial Discharges

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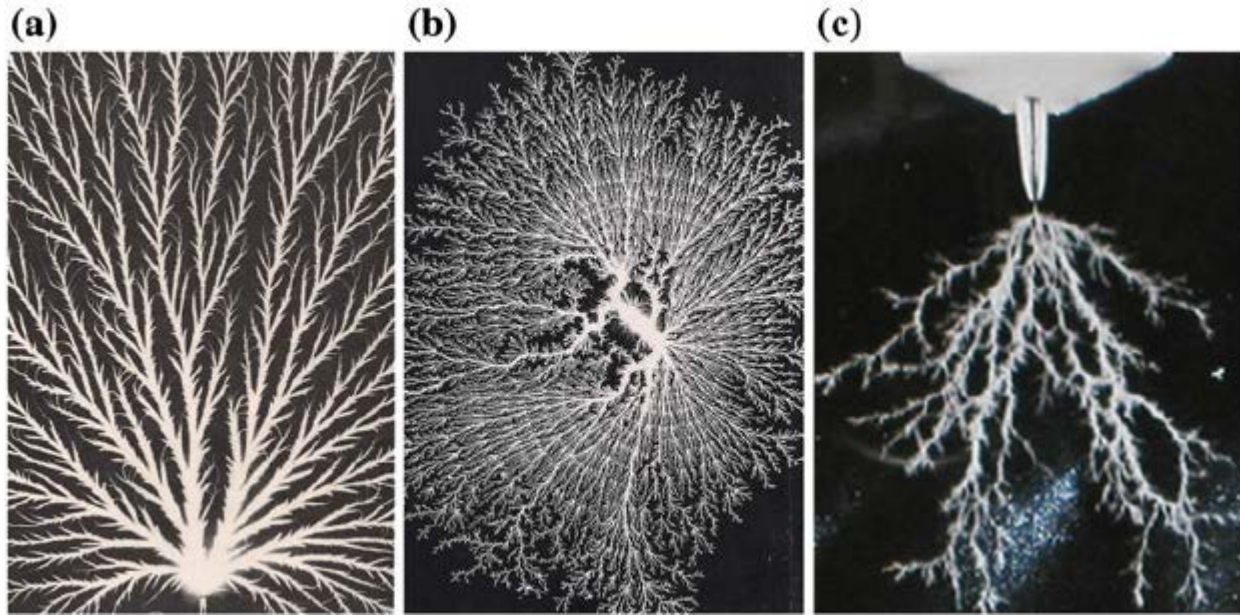
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❖ What is **partial discharge (PD)**?



- IEC 60270: Localized electrical discharges that only partially bridge the insulation between conductors and which can or cannot occur adjacent to a conductor. Partial discharges are in general a consequence of local electrical stress concentrations in the insulation or on the surface of the insulation. Generally such discharges appear as pulses having durations of much less than $1\mu\text{s}$.
- PD are the consequence of dielectric imperfections, such as sharp edges in ambient air, contaminated surface of solid dielectrics and gaseous inclusions in liquid and solid dielectrics.

❖ Partial discharges



In air

In oil

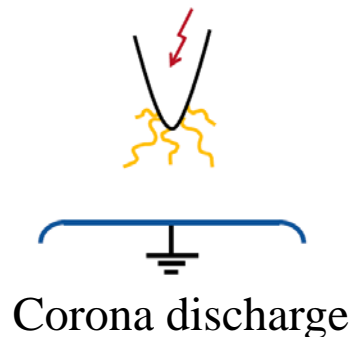
In solid

- PD is associated with the ionization of gas molecules, such events occur not only in ambient air but also in gas-filled cavities of solid dielectrics or in bubbles and water vapour of liquid dielectrics.

❖ Categories of partial discharges

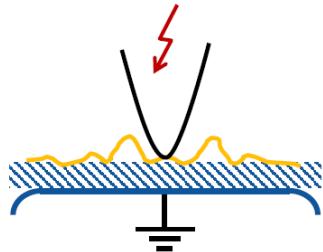
Partial discharges can be divided to three categories:

- Corona discharges
 - Surface discharges
 - Internal discharges
- } External discharges

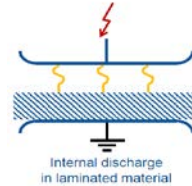


- **Corona** is partial discharges in an inhomogeneous field (macroscopic or microscopic) in a gaseous dielectric. Example: Corona on overhead power lines;

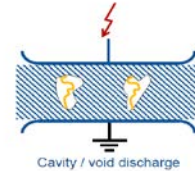
❖ Categories of partial discharges



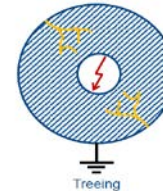
Surface discharges



Internal discharge
in laminated material



Cavity / void discharge



Treeing

Internal discharges

- **Surface discharges** are partial discharges in boundaries between different dielectrics such as: gas/solid, gas/oil, oil/solid etc. Example: The transition between the HV part and the moulded plastics of a surge arrester;
- **Internal discharges** are partial discharges in cavities in solid or liquid dielectrics. The cavities can be limited by parts of electrodes. The cavities will mostly contain the gas which was present at the time of manufacture. Example: Small blasters (cavities) in the moulded (extruded) polyethylene of a HV PEX-cable.

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❖ Insulation aging by partial discharges

Up to 85% destructive fault in medium/high voltage devices is caused by partial discharges. Effects of partial discharges on insulation can be classified as the following aspects:

- Energy impact of high energy electrons or accelerated ions;
- Thermal degradation;
- Active products (ozone, nitric acid, nitrous acid, oxilic acid, etc.);
- Irridiation effects;
- Mechanical stress effects.



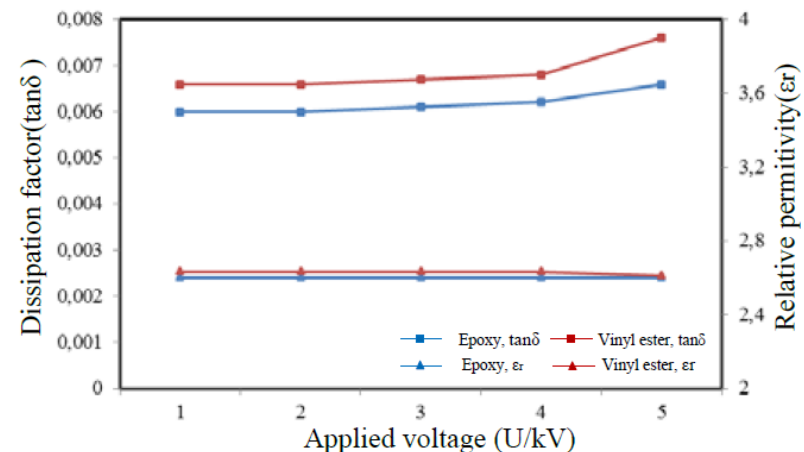
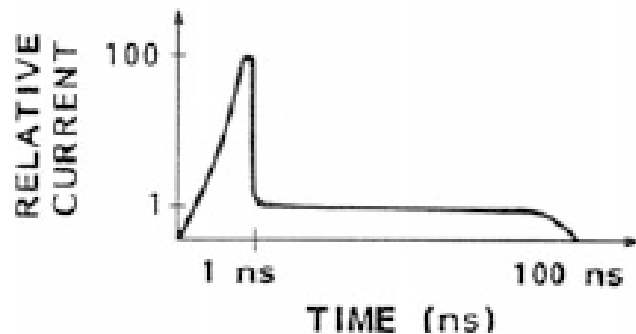
❖ How to restrain partial discharges



Since PD are the consequence of dielectric imperfections, such as sharp edges in ambient air, contaminated surface of solid dielectrics and gaseous inclusions in liquid and solid dielectrics. The actions can be taken to restrain PD:

- Avoid sharp edges in HV devices(grading rings, etc);
- Adopt insulation materials with hydrophobic nature;
- Avoid loose contacts of different dielectrics;
- Optimizing manufacture process, restrain residual of air bubbles in solid or gaseous dielectrics;
- Avoid external particles (dusts, powders) entering devices;

❖ Detection and measurement of partial discharges



- **Electrical pulse currents**, most frequently used detection method;
- **Dielectric losses**, the energy released by PD will increase the dissipation factor, a measurement of the $\tan\delta$ in dependency of voltage applied displays an 'ionization knee', a bending of the otherwise straight dependency.

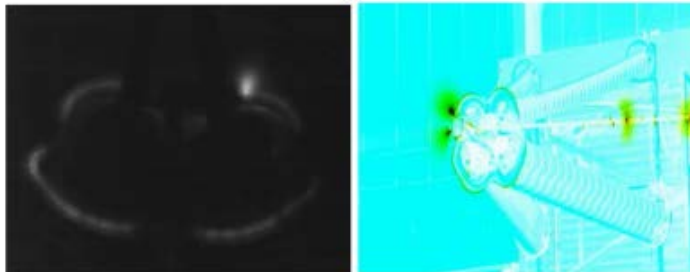
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❖ Detection and measurement of partial discharges

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(a)



(b)

Corona captured by UV camera

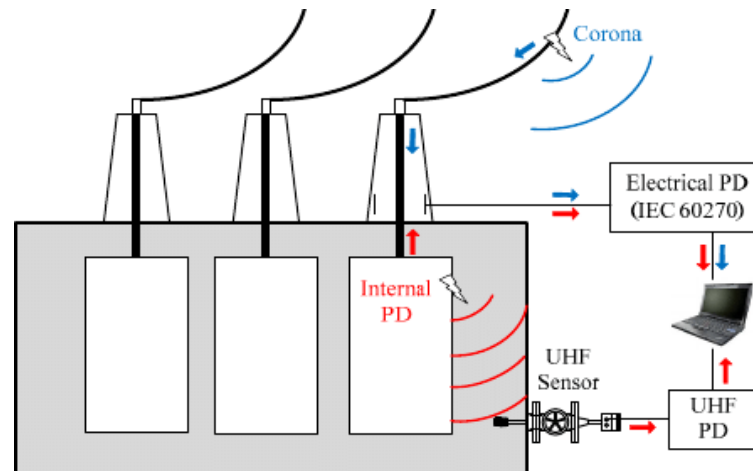


- **Optical techniques;**
- **Sound (noise)-** Listen to the acoustic noise from the discharges, the hissing test;

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❖ Detection and measurement of partial discharges

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- **Electromagnetism (E.M.) radiation (light)-** E.M. simulation and measurement;
- **Chemical reactions-** Component analysis of the insulation after discharges.

External partial discharges

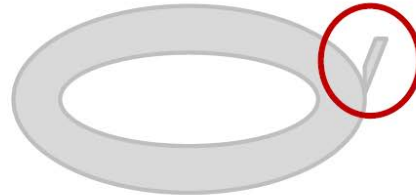
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❖ External partial discharges

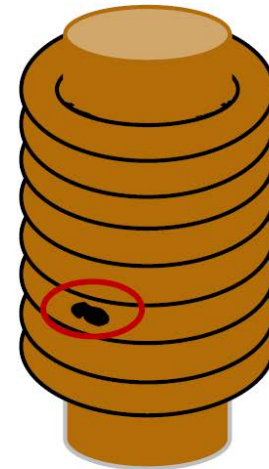
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Thin conductors

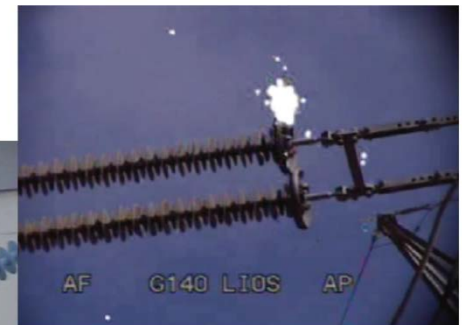
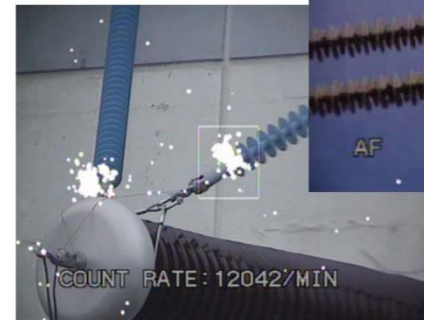


Cone points/tips



Particles/dirts

$$E > 12 - 15 \text{ kV/cm}$$



❖ External partial discharges

- Corona discharge consumes energy- corona losses
- The partial discharges of the corona around the E-field stressed portion of the HV system will cause HF electromagnetic waves which causes radio interference;
- External partial discharges on an experimental setup disturbs the measurement of the internal partial discharges. Test setups are optimized so they produced a minimum of corona;
- Surface discharges in dielectric boundaries gaseous / liquid/ solid will cause erosion of the insulation, which in long terms will cause a complete breakdown.

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❖ Weather effects on corona losses

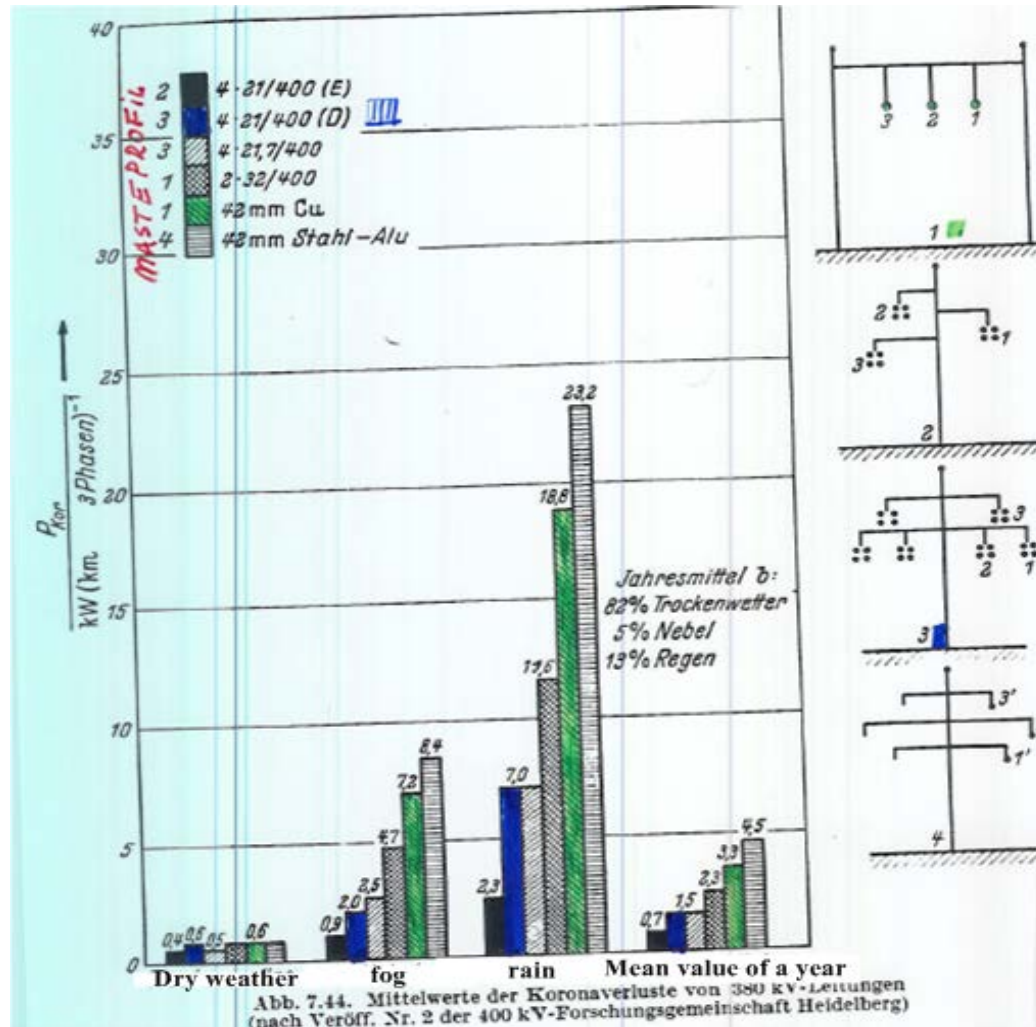
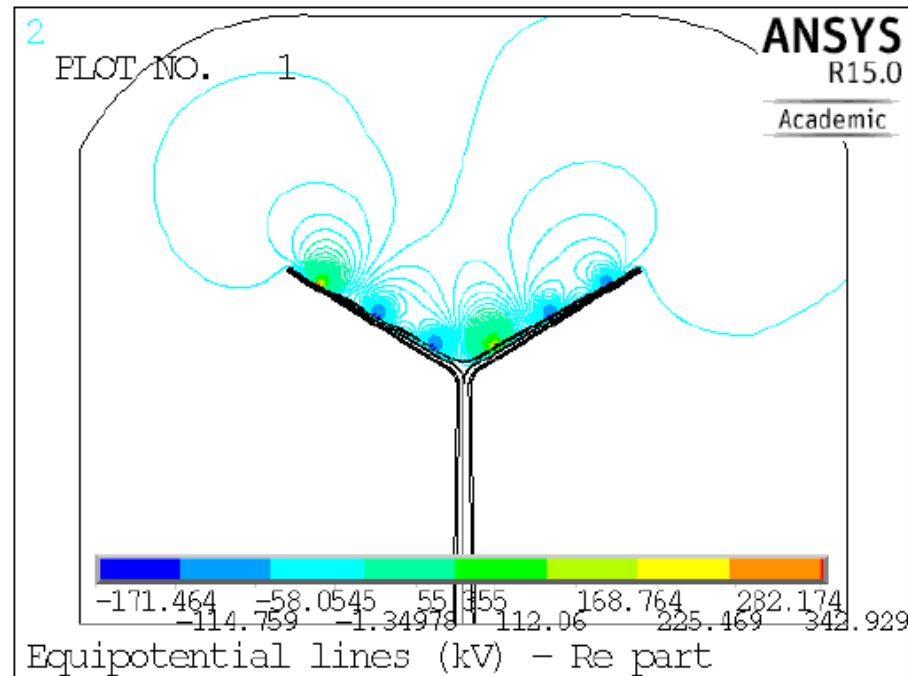


Abb. 7.44. Mittelwerte der Koronaverluste von 380 kV-Leitungen
(nach Veröff. Nr. 2 der 400 kV-Forschungsgemeinschaft Heidelberg)

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❖ Corona in overhead lines

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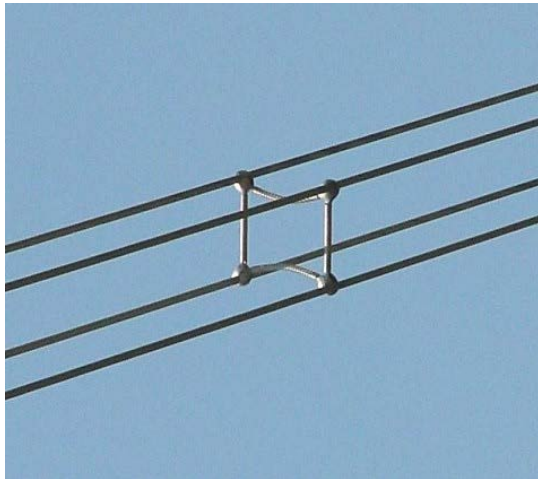


E ??

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❖ How to reduce corona in overhead lines

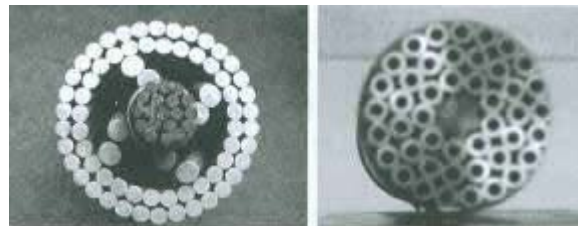
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Bundle conductors



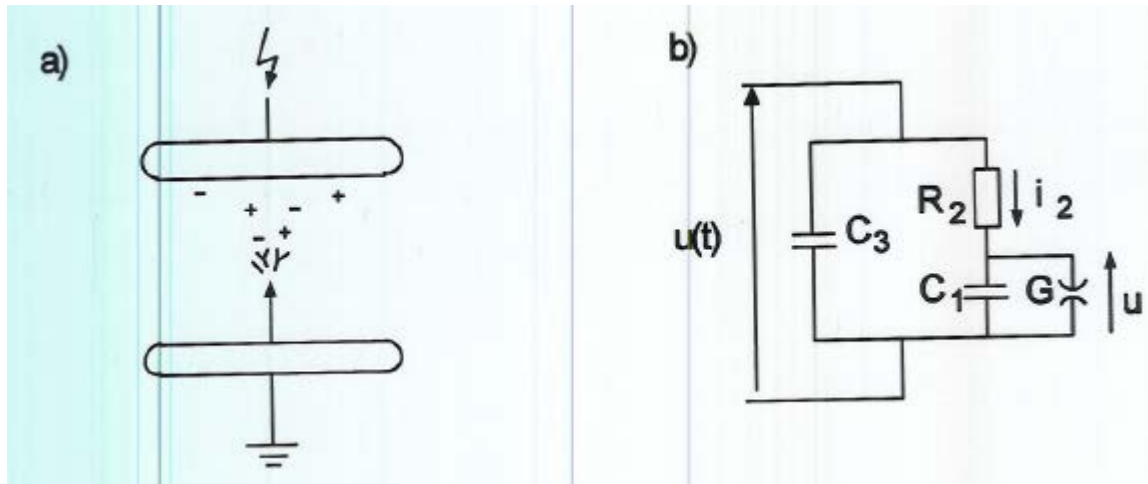
Corona rings



Extended conductors

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❖ Equivalent circuit



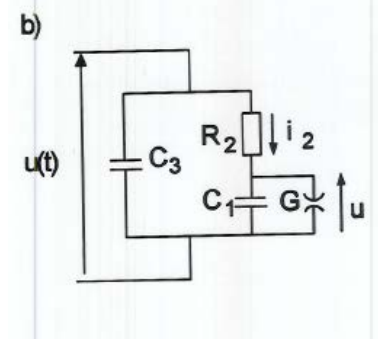
- c_1 is the capacitance of the gaseous volume(extension) which breaks down, when the applied voltage increases above the ignition voltage u_t ;
- G is sparking gap which breaks down (short circuits) when the capacitive volume c_1 breakds down;
- R_2 is the active(resistive) losses caused by the conductivity of the gas;
- c_3 is the normal capacitance of the electrode gap setup.

- Assuming $R_2 \gg 1/\omega c_1$ makes the current through R_2 equal to:

$$i_2 = \frac{u(t)}{R_2}$$

Applied voltage is a sinusoidal waveform:

$$u(t) = \hat{U} \sin \omega t$$



The not broken down voltage $U_{10}(t)$ across the discharge capacitance c_1 can be calculated as: $u_{10}(t) = X_{c1} * i_2(t)$ phase shifted 90° :

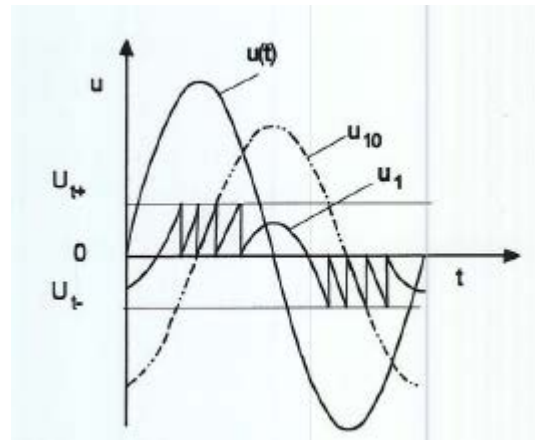
$$u_{10} = \frac{\hat{U}}{\omega c_1 R_2} \sin\left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Increase the voltage until G breaks down, this happens for \hat{U} equals to:

$$\hat{U} = \omega c_1 R_2 u_t$$

This discharges c_1 and the 'not broken down' voltage u_{10} becomes zero.

- Recharging c_1 will happen according to the $\pm \frac{du}{dt}$, i.e. a positive $\frac{du}{dt}$ makes a renewed breakdown for $+U_T$ and a negative $\frac{du}{dt}$ gives a negative $-U_T$.
- Increasing \hat{U} further increases the number of rechargings to U_T followed by breakdown for each period. The partial breakdown appear (not concentrated) around maximum $\frac{du}{dt}$ for the voltage u_{10} , i.e. they appear around the peak of the applied voltage.

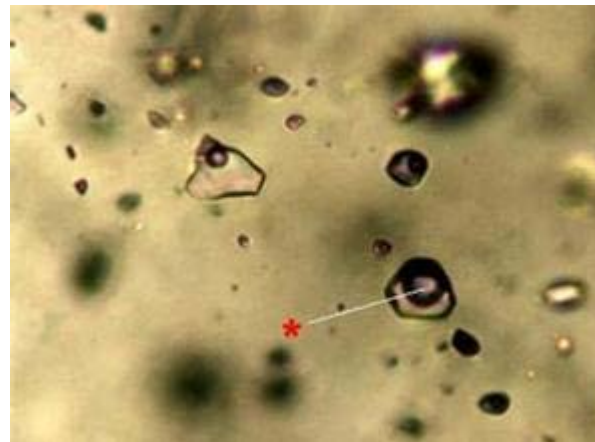


Internal partial discharges

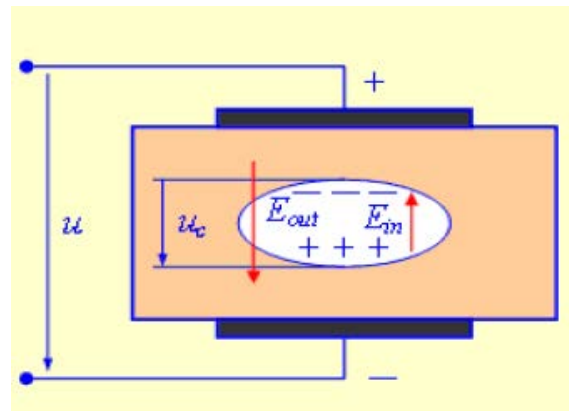
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❖ Causes for internal PD

- Unwanted microscopic blasters or cavities can form in an insulating media during the manufacturing;
- Every cavity will possess a significantly higher E-field strength than the surrounding, homogeneous dielectric. This is mainly due to the following reasons:
 1. Difference in permittivity of the (normally) gas filled cavity and the surrounding dielectric;
 2. The geometry of the cavity.

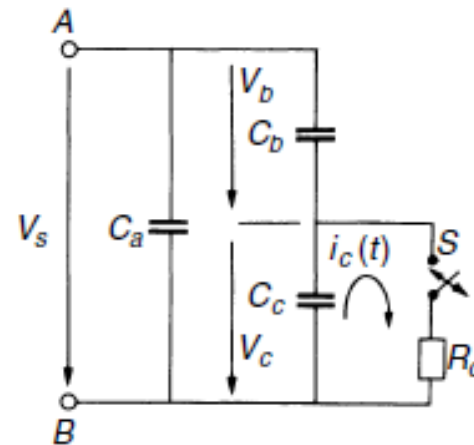
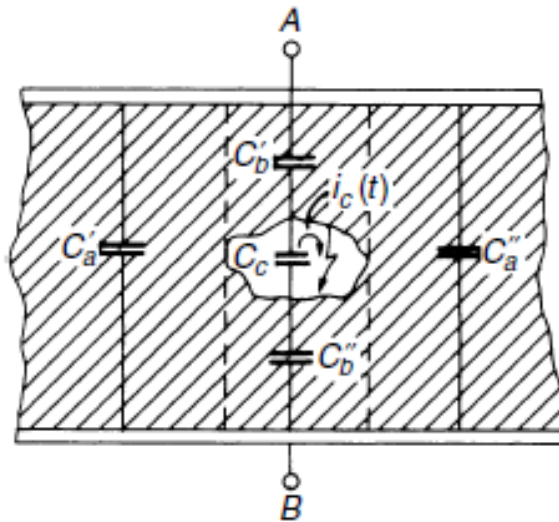


- Exceeding the breakdown voltage U_d of the gas in the cavity will create a breakdown of the cavity;
- The breakdown(s) gives rise to very fast current pulses (ns) which outbalances the field of the cavity by means charge carrier movement from anode to cathode;
- The E-field will be restored when the broken down and the extinguished cavity capacitance recharges. A new breakdown happens as long as the voltage across the cavity $U > U_d$. Repeated current pulses occur.



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❖ Equivalent circuit



- c_c is the modelling the capacitance of the cavity;
- c_b is the ‘healthy’ series capacitance on both sides of the cavity
- c_a is the parallel capacitance of the dielectric around the ‘sick’ branch.

$$c_a = c'_a + c''_a \quad c_b = c'_b + c''_b$$

$$c_a \gg c_b, \quad c_c \gg c_b$$

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❖ Equivalent circuit

- Assuming an applied sinusoidal voltage gives the following voltage across the cavity:

$$u_c = \frac{C_c}{C_b + C_c} * V_s$$

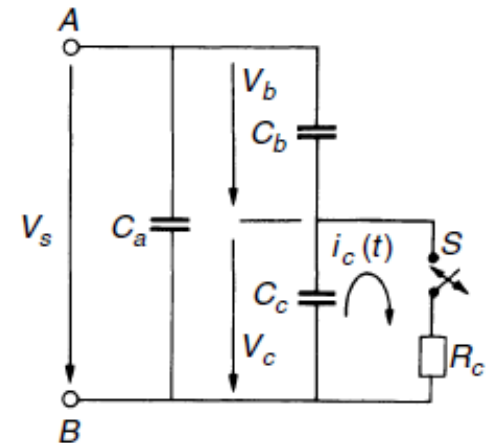
Then:

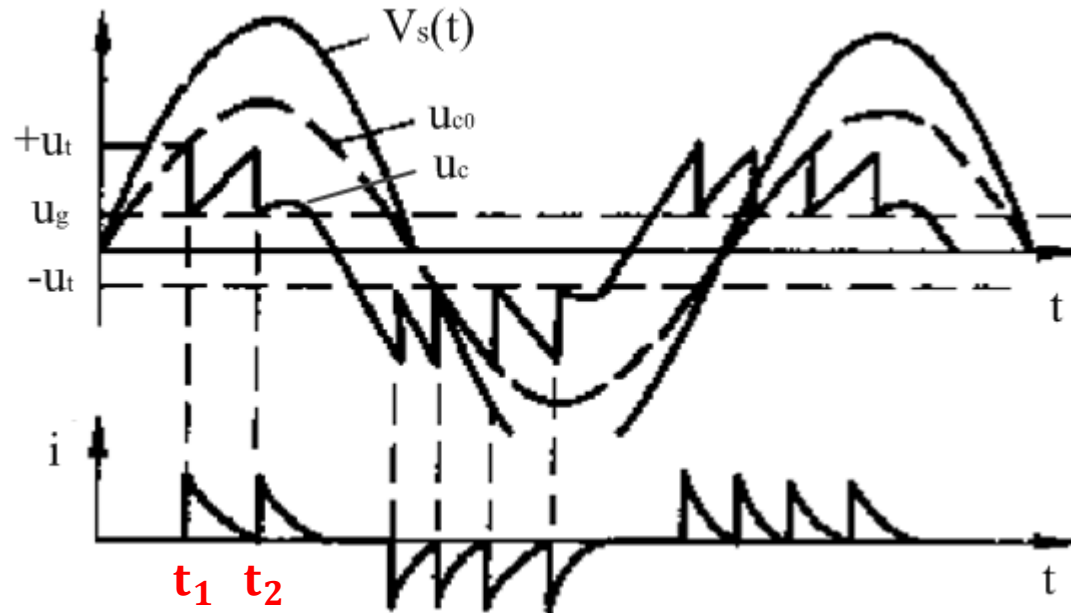
$$V_s = \frac{C_b + C_c}{C_c} * u_c$$

- Assuming the breakdown voltage of the cavity is u_t , then the cavity breakdown happens if :

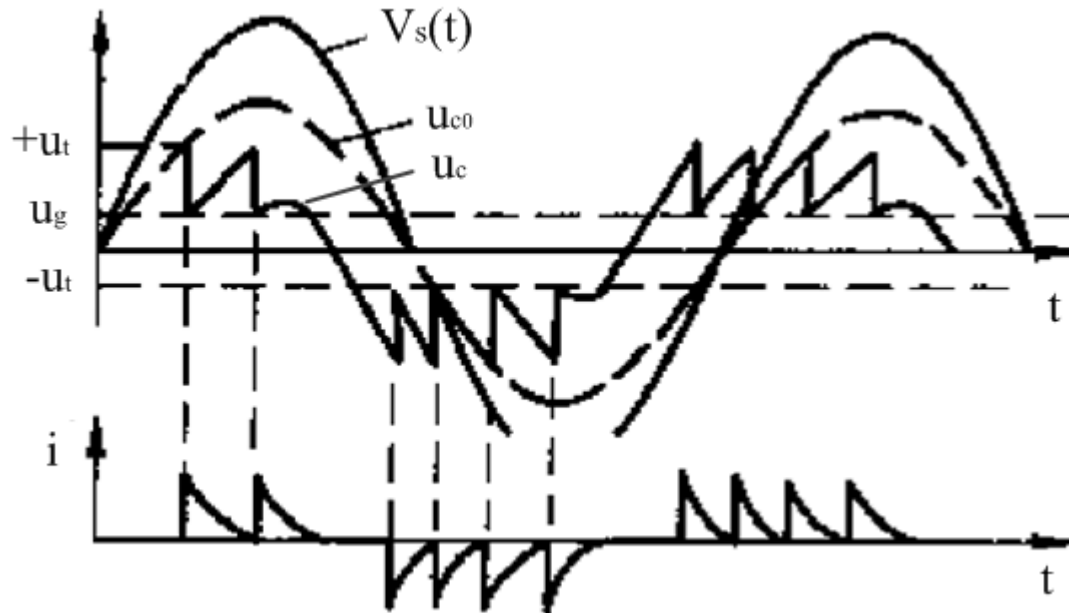
$$u_c \geq u_t, \quad V_s \geq \frac{C_b + C_c}{C_c} * u_t$$

- Thus increase the applied voltage to a certain value can lead to PD.





- With the increase of the applied voltage V_s , the voltage drop at the cavity u_c reaches the breakdown voltage u_t at $t = t_1$; Breakdown happens. The voltage between the cavity decreases to u_g ;
- Then as the increase of applied voltage, the voltage between the cavity increases to u_t at $t = t_2$, breakdown happens again.



- Cavity breakdown happens repeatedly during a voltage cycle;
- For each breakdown, amount of charges flow through the cavity;
- Thus repetitive current pulses (ns) can be measured in the cycle.
- A very important distinction between external and internal PD is the phase localization of the discharge activity. **Internal PD takes place around the zero crossing of the applied voltage.**

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❖ Analyse of the internal PD

- The voltage drop at the cavity when breakdown happens is:

$$\Delta u_c = u_t - u_g$$

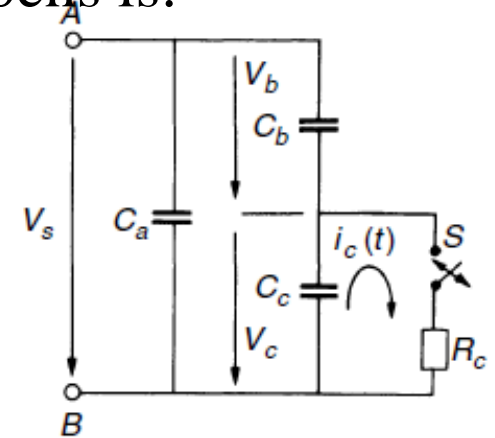
- Thus the quantity of discharges is:

$$\Delta q = \left(c_c + \frac{c_a c_b}{c_a + c_b} \right) * \Delta u$$

$$\approx (c_c + c_b) * \Delta u_c$$

Δq is the real discharge quantity. It indicates the information of the PD in a dielectric.

However, since c_c , c_b , u_t , u_g cannot be measured, the real discharge quantity Δq cannot be measured.



- The voltage drop at the cavity also causes a voltage change at the c_a , i.e. the dielectric.:

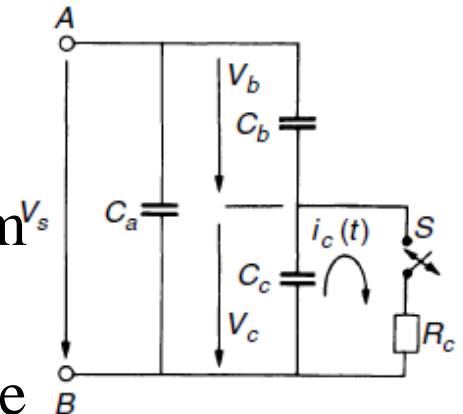
$$\Delta u_a = \frac{c_b}{c_a + c_b} * \Delta u_c$$

(c_b and c_a is connected seriesly if considered from the two terminals of the cavity.)

- Δu_a can be measured because it is the voltage variation at the dielectric.
- Since

$$c_a \gg c_b$$

the voltage drop at the test object during PD is very small.



- Real life practical applications yields:

$$\Delta u_c = 0.1 - 10 \text{ kV}$$

$$\Delta u_a = 0.1 - 1 \text{ V}$$

$$U_a = 100 - 1000 \text{ kV}$$

- The ratio of the voltage drop Δu_a and the applied voltage is in terms of measuring method, very unfavourable.

❖ Analyse of the internal PD

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- The charge quantity supplied by the voltage source during the breakdown process is:

$$\Delta q_a = c_a * \frac{c_b}{c_a + c_b} * \Delta u$$

- Δq_a is the apparant charge. It can be measured since it flows through the main circuit.

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \Delta q \approx (c_c + c_b) * \Delta u \\ \Delta q_a \approx c_b * \Delta u \\ c_a \gg c_b, \quad c_c \gg c_b \end{array} \right.$$

- Actually, the apparent charge is much smaller than the real discharge:

$$\Delta q_a < \Delta q$$

❖ Apparent charge



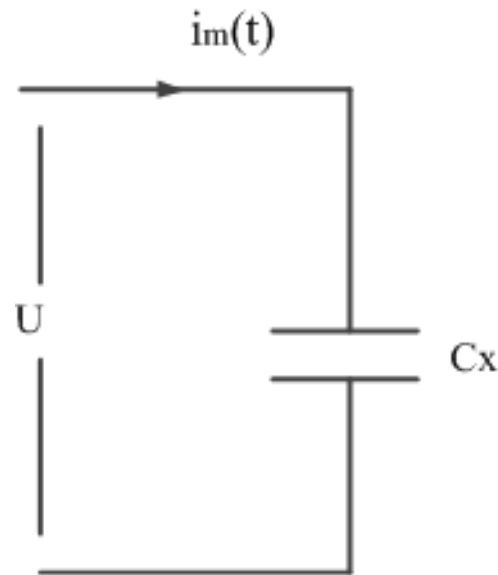
- IEC 60270 defines- apparent charge q of a PD pulse is that unipolar charge which, if injected within a very short time between the terminals of the test object in a specified test circuit, would give the same reading on the measuring instrument as the PD current pulse itself. The apparent charge is usually expressed in picocoulombs;

This definition ends with:

- The apparent charge is not equal to the amount of charge locally involved at the site of the discharge and which cannot be measured directly.

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❖ Measurement of internal PD



$$i_m(t) = \frac{du}{dt} + i(t)$$

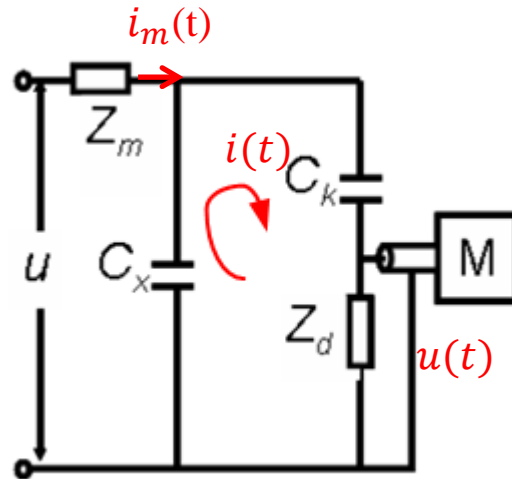
$$\Delta q_a = \int i(t) dt$$

- $i(t)$ is very small, thus it is very difficult to differ it from the displacement current $\frac{du}{dt}$;
- Another method is needed to measure the $i(t)$ directly.

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❖ Measurement of internal PD

C_x is the test object,
 C_k is the coupling capacitor
 Z_m is the low-pass filter
 Z_d is the measuring impedance,
 M is the measuring system.



$$\Delta q_a = \int i(t) dt$$

$$i(t) = \frac{u(t)}{Z_d}$$

- Z_m comprise either only the natural impedance of the lead between voltage source and the parallel arrangement of C_k and the test object, or enlarged by a PD-free inductance or filter, may disconnect the ‘coupling capacitor’ C_k and the test object from the voltage source during the short duration PD phenomena only.
- C_k is a storage capacitor or quite a stable voltage source during the short period of the partial discharge.

32 ❖ Measurement of internal PD



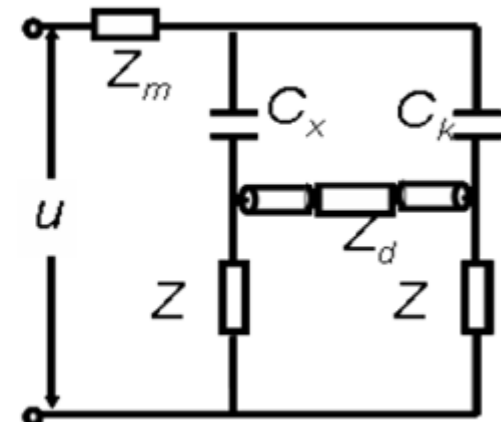
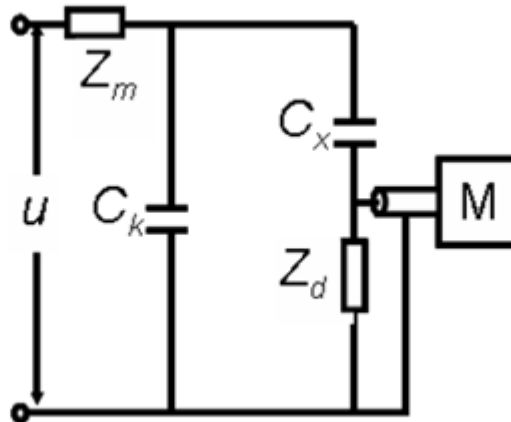
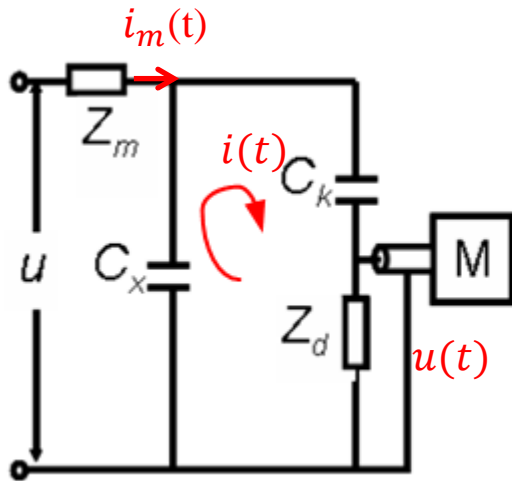
the coupling capacitor C_k shall be of low inductance design and should exhibit a sufficiently low level of partial discharges at the specified test voltage to allow the measurement of the specified partial discharge magnitude. A higher level of partial discharges can be tolerated if the measuring system is capable of separating the discharges from the test object and the coupling capacitor and measuring them separately;

the high-voltage supply shall have sufficiently low level of background noise to allow the specified partial discharge magnitude to be measured at the specified test voltage;

high-voltage connections shall have sufficiently low level of background noise to allow the specified partial discharge magnitude to be measured at the specified test voltage;

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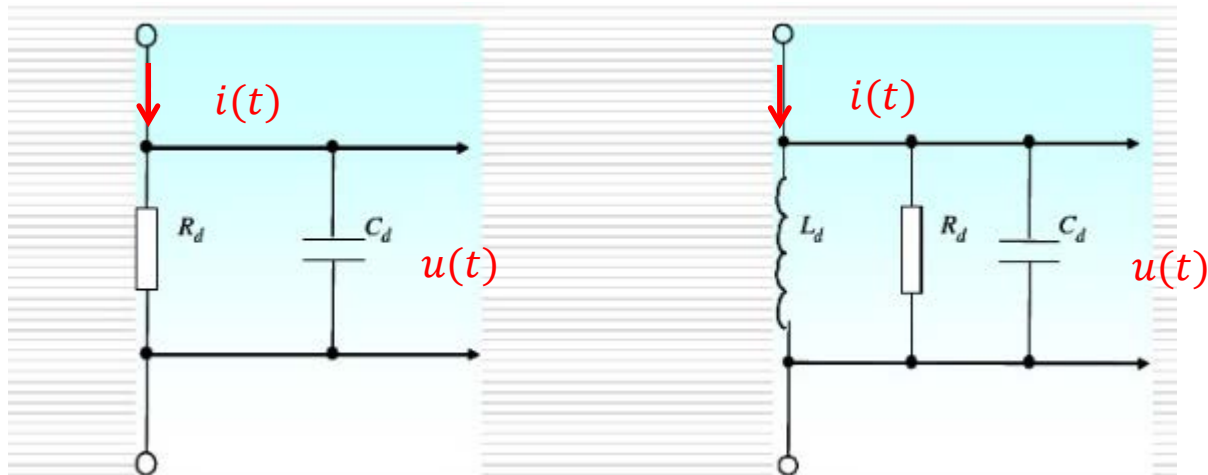
❖ Measurement of internal PD



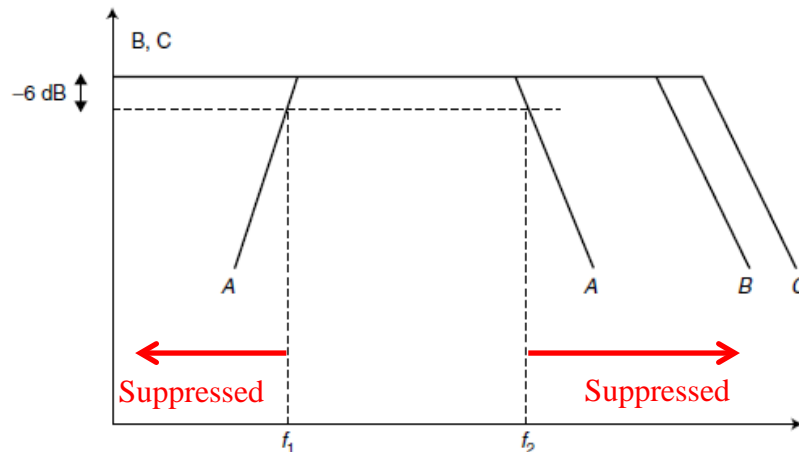
$$\Delta q_a = \int i(t) dt$$

- Parallel-connected detection circuit (left)
- Series-connected detection circuit (middle)
- Balanced detection circuit (right)

34 ❖ Measurement impedance Z_d



- Function:
 1. To transfer the impulse current into voltage;
 2. To suppress the interferences of power frequency and harmonic from source



- A band-pass of the measuring system
- B amplitude frequency spectrum of the PD pulse
- C amplitude frequency spectrum of calibration pulse
- f_1 lower limit frequency
- f_2 upper limit frequency

- Measuring impedance Z_d (transfer impedance) is the ratio of the output voltage amplitude to a constant input current amplitude, as a function of frequency f , when the input is sinusoidal.

$$Z_d(f) = \frac{u}{i}$$

- The lower and upper limit frequencies f_1 and f_2 are the frequencies at which the transfer impedance $Z_d(f)$ has fallen by 6 dB from the peak passband value.

- IEC 60270 recommend: the lower and upper limit frequencies f_1 and f_2 of the measuring impedance $Z_d(f)$ and the measuring system shall be designed to have the following values for f_1 , f_2 and Δf :

$$\begin{aligned}30 \text{ kHz} &\leq f_1 \leq 100 \text{ kHz} \\f_2 &\leq 500 \text{ kHz} \\100 \text{ kHz} &\leq \Delta f \leq 400 \text{ kHz}\end{aligned}$$

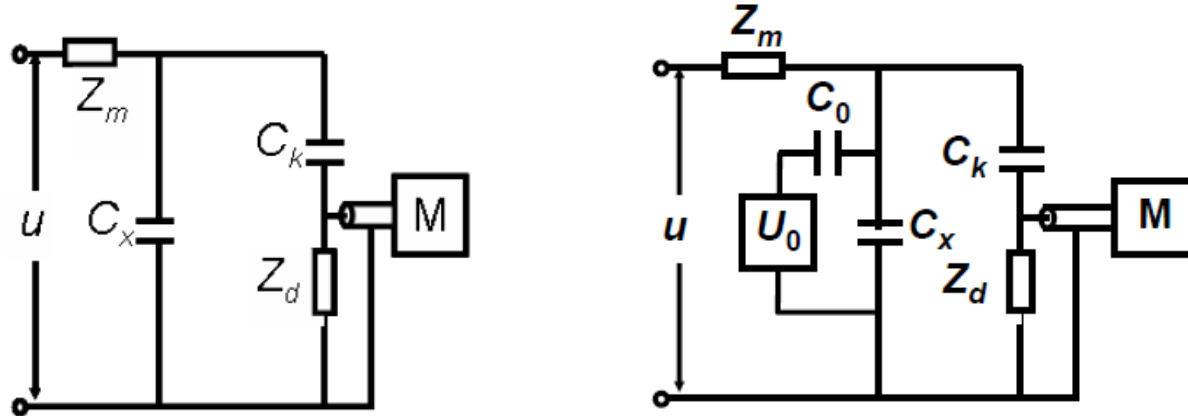
- A narrow-band is also defined:

$$\begin{aligned}9 \text{ kHz} &\leq \Delta f \leq 30 \text{ kHz} \\50 \text{ kHz} &\leq f_m \leq 1 \text{ MHz}\end{aligned}$$

f_m is the central frequency.

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❖ Calibration



- To determine the scale factor S_f required for the calculation of the apparent charge Δq_a , PD calibration should be conducted;
- Insert a known quantity of charge q_0 to the test object and obtain the reading M_0 from the measuring system; Thus the scale factor is obtained: $S_f = \frac{q_0}{M_0}$;
- Thus in the measurement of apparent charge, if the reading is M_x , the apparent charge can be calculated as:

$$q_x = S_f * M_x$$

Exercise 1

- Assuming that a calibrating charge of $q_0 = 200 \text{ pC}$ is injected in the terminals of the test object. This causes a pulse magnitude of 5.4 divisions on the display of the measuring system.
- Performing an actual PD measurement, a reading of 8.6 divisions is obtained.

Question: what is the real pulse magnitude?

❖ Other PD quantities

- The average discharge current I is the sum of the absolute values of individual apparent charge magnitudes q_i during a chosen reference time interval T_{ref} divided by this time interval, i.e.

$$I = \frac{1}{T_{ref}} (|q_1| + |q_2| + \dots + |q_i|)$$

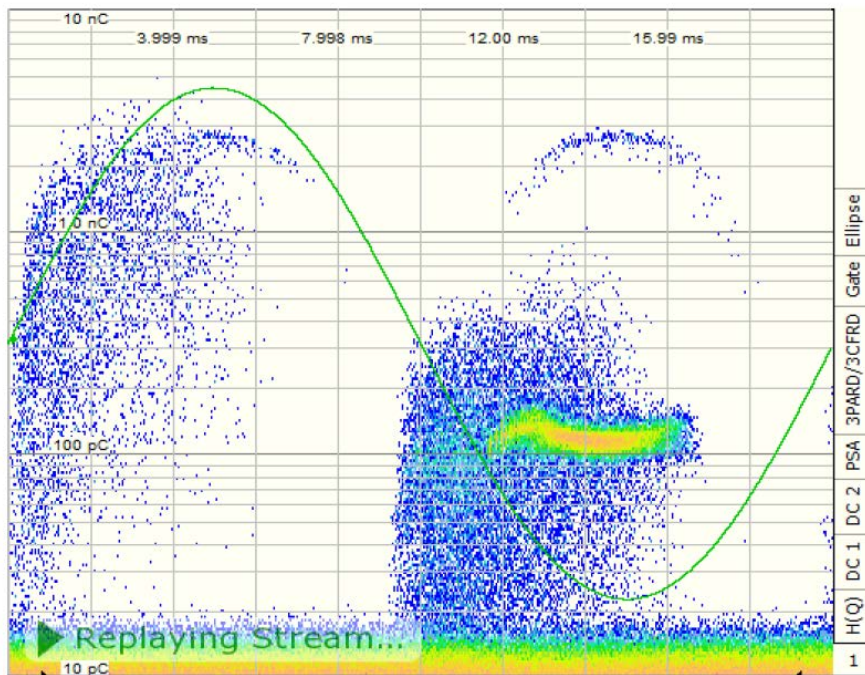
- The discharge power P is the average pulse power fed into the terminals of the test object due to apparent charge magnitudes q_i during a chosen reference time interval T_{ref} , i.e.:

$$P = \frac{1}{T_{ref}} (q_1 u_1 + q_2 u_2 + \dots + q_i u_i)$$

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❖ Analysis of PD

- PRPD (Phase-resolved Partial Discharge)



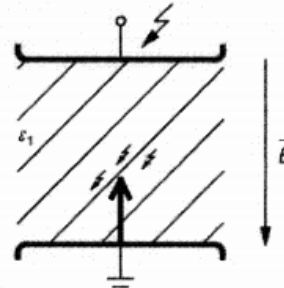
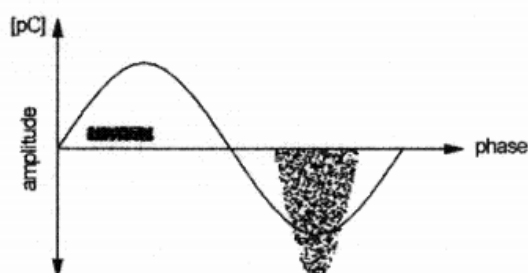
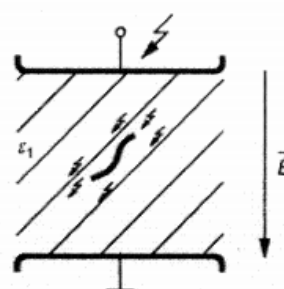
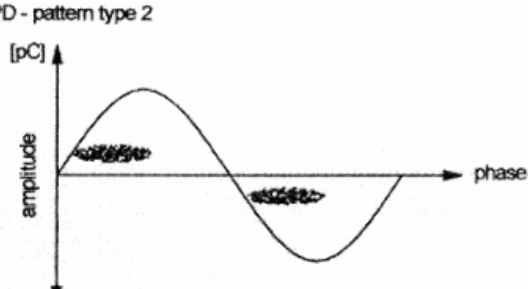
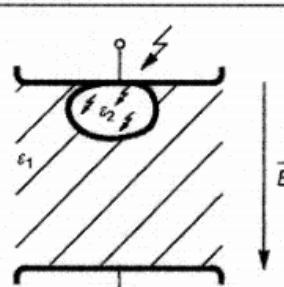
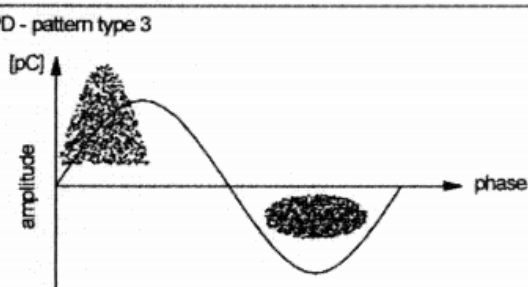
PRPD method

The phase axis (x-axis) consists of one complete cycle of the applied voltage while the PD charge magnitude axis (y-axis) consists of the range of magnitude detected. PD data within certain number of the applied voltage cycle is plotted on the x-axis of one voltage cycle. Therefore, a PRPD pattern shows PD occurrences at a specific phase of the applied voltage with certain charge magnitude within certain number of the applied voltage cycles.

PRPD techniques recognizes discharges of different origins!!!

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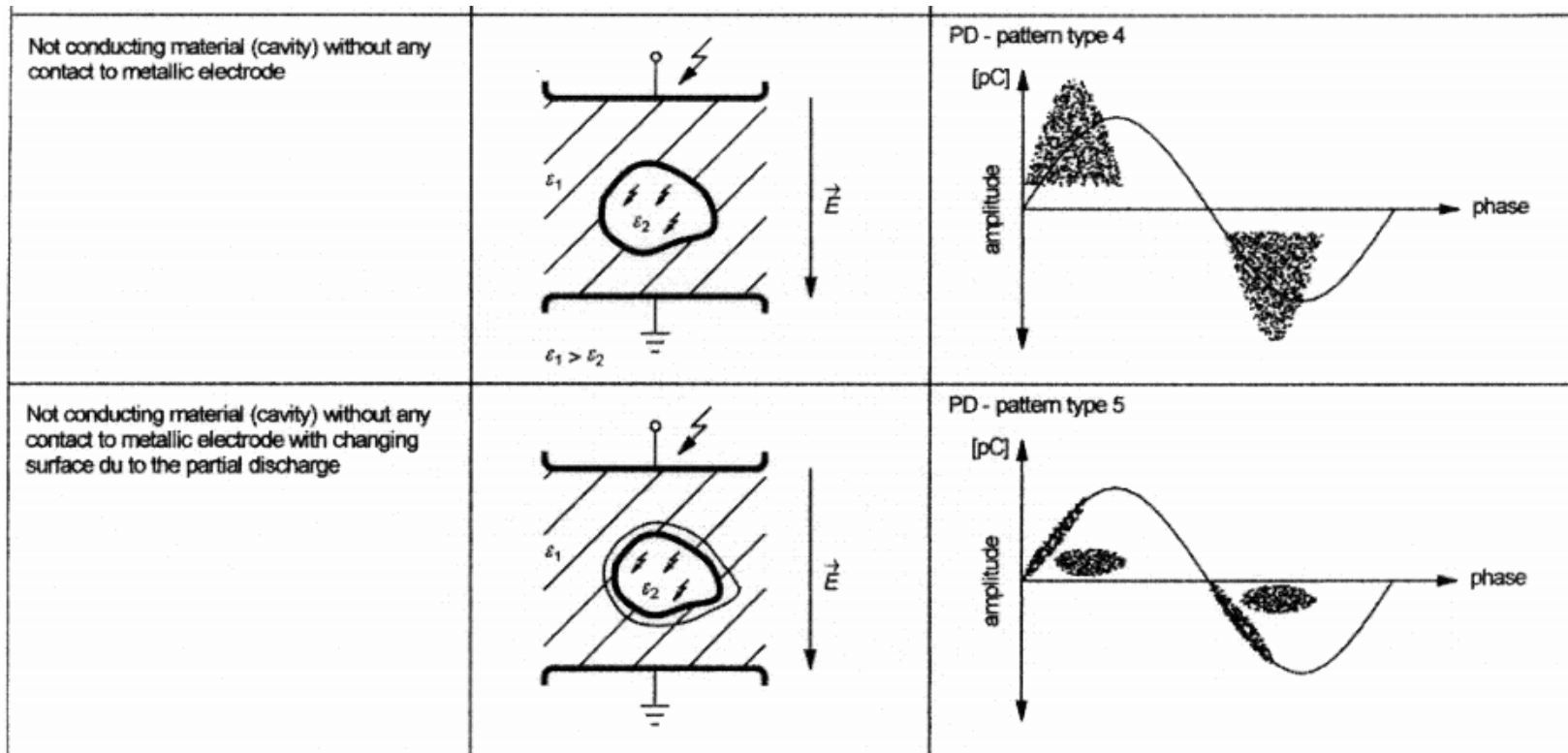
❖ Typical PD patterns

PD - source description	Schematic drawing of the PD - source	Typical PD - pattern
Conducting material (tip electrode) with a direct contact to metallic electrode		<p>PD - pattern type 1</p> 
Conducting material without any contact to metallic electrode		<p>PD - pattern type 2</p> 
Not conducting material (cavity) with a direct contact to metallic electrode		<p>PD - pattern type 3</p> 

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❖ Typical PD patterns

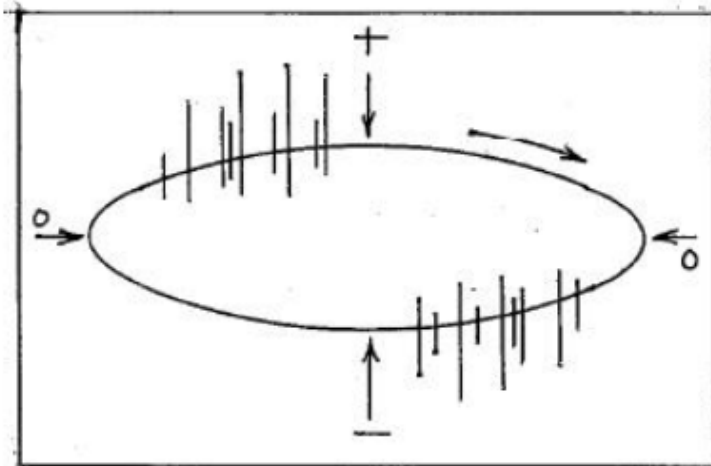
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CIGRE WG 21.03

Recognition of Discharges

Case A.



Discharge Pattern			Variation of Discharge Magnitude with :		Case
Location of Discharges on Test Waveform	Variability of Response	Relative Magnitude of Discharges on +ve and -ve half cycles	Test Voltage	Time of Application	
Most pulses in advance of the voltage peaks	Random movement	Similar magnitude on both half cycles	Constant with test voltage	Constant with time	A
				Falls slowly with time	B
			Rises with test voltage	Constant with time	C
				Falls slowly with time	D
	Steady or repeated motion	Different magnitude on two half cycles	Rises slowly with time	Rises slowly with time	E
				Rises rapidly with time	F
On both sides of the voltage peaks	Steady	Similar magnitude on both half cycles	Constant with test voltage	Constant with time	G
			Rises with test voltage	Constant with time	H
	Stationary	On one half cycle only	Constant with test voltage	Constant with time	J
					K
On both sides of the voltage zeros	Random movement	Similar magnitude at both voltage zeros	Rises with test voltage	Constant with time	L
					M
On both sides of the voltage zeros	Steady	Different magnitude on two half cycles	Constant with test voltage on one half cycle. Rises on other	Constant with time	N

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❖ Inception and extinction voltage

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