

High Voltage Engineering**Syllabus**

Subject Code	:	10EE73	IA Marks	:	25
No. of Lecture Hrs./ Week	:	04	Exam Hours	:	03
Total No. of Lecture Hrs.	:	52	Exam Marks	:	100

PART - A**UNIT - 1**

INTRODUCTION: Introduction to HV technology, advantages of transmitting electrical power at high voltages, need for generating high voltages in laboratory. Important applications of high voltage, Electrostatic precipitation, separation, painting and printing.

6 Hours**UNIT- 2 & 3****BREAKDOWN MECHANISM OF GASEOUS, LIQUID AND SOLID MATERIALS:**

Classification of HV insulating media. Properties of important HV insulating media under each category. Gaseous dielectrics: Ionizations: primary and secondary ionization processes. Criteria for gaseous insulation breakdown based on Townsend's theory. Limitations of Townsend's theory. Streamer's theory breakdown in non uniform fields. Corona discharges. Breakdown in electro negative gasses. Paschen's law and its significance. Time lags of Breakdown. Breakdown in solid dielectrics: Intrinsic Breakdown, avalanche breakdown, thermal breakdown, and electro mechanic breakdown. Breakdown of liquids dielectric dielectrics: Suspended particle theory, electronic Breakdown, cavity breakdown (bubble's theory), electro convection breakdown.

12 Hours

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UNIT- 4

GENERATION OF HIGH DC AND AC VOLTAGES: HV AC-HV transformer; Need for cascade connection and working of transformers units connected in cascade. Series resonant circuit- principle of operation and advantages. Tesla coil. HV DC- voltage doubler circuit, cockcroft- Walton type high voltage DC set. Calculation of high voltage regulation, ripple and optimum number of stages for minimum voltage drop

8 Hours

PART - B

UNIT -5

GENERATION OF IMPULSE VOLTAGES AND CURRENTS: Introduction to standard lightning and switching impulse voltages. Analysis of single stage impulse generator-expression for Output impulse voltage. Multistage impulse generator working of Marx impulse. Rating of impulse generator. Components of multistage impulse generator. Triggering of impulse generator by three electrode gap arrangement. Triggering gap and oscillograph time sweep circuits. Generation of switching impulse voltage. Generation of high impulse current.

6 Hours

UNIT- 6

MEASUREMENT OF HIGH VOLTAGES: Electrostatic voltmeter-principle, construction and limitation. Chubb and Fortescue method for HV AC measurement. Generating voltmeter-Principle, construction. Series resistance micro ammeter for HV DC measurements. Standard sphere gap measurements of HV AC, HV DC, and impulse voltages; Factors affecting the measurements. Potential dividers-resistance dividers capacitance dividers mixed RC potential dividers. Measurement of high impulse currents-Rogowski coil and Magnetic Links.

10Hours

UNIT -7

NON-DESTRUCTIVE INSULATION TESTING TECHNIQUES: Dielectric loss and loss angle measurements using Schering Bridge, Transformer ratio Arms Bridge. Need for discharge detection and PD measurements aspects. Factor affecting the discharge detection. Discharge detection methods-straight and balanced methods.

6 Hours

UNIT- 8

HIGH VOLTAGE TESTS ON ELECTRICAL APPARATUS: Definitions of terminologies, tests on isolators, circuit breakers, cables insulators and transformers

4 Hours

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PART - A

UNIT - 1

INTRODUCTION: Introduction to HV technology, advantages of transmitting electrical power at high voltages, need for generating high voltages in laboratory. Important applications of high voltage, Electrostatic precipitation, separation, painting and printing.

4 Hours

Introduction to HV technology

A high-voltage, direct current (HV) electric power transmission system uses direct current for the bulk transmission of electrical power, in contrast with the more common alternating current systems. For long-distance distribution, HV systems are less expensive and suffer lower electrical losses. For shorter distances, the higher cost of DC conversion equipment compared to an AC system may be warranted where other benefits of direct current links are useful.

The modern form of HV transmission uses technology developed extensively in the 1930s in Sweden at ASEA. Early commercial installations included one in the Soviet Union in 1951 between Moscow and Kashira, and a 10-20 MW system between Gotland and mainland Sweden in 1954. The longest HV link in the world is currently the Inga-Shaba 1,700 km (1,100 mi) 600 MW link connecting the Inga Dam to the Shaba copper mine, in the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Introduction

1.1 Generation and transmission of electric energy

The potential benefits of electrical energy supplied to a number of consumers from a common generating system were recognized shortly after the development of the 'dynamo', commonly known as the generator.

The first public power station was put into service in 1882 in London(Holborn). Soon a number of other public supplies for electricity followed in other developed countries. The early systems produced direct current at low-voltage, but their service was limited to highly localized areas and were used mainly for electric lighting. The limitations of d.c. transmission at low-voltage became readily apparent. By 1890 the art in the development of an a.c

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generator and transformer had been perfected to the point when a.c. supply was becoming common, displacing the earlier d.c. system. The first major a.c. power station was commissioned in 1890 at Deptford, supplying power to central London over a distance of 28 miles at 10 000 V. From the earliest 'electricity' days it was realized that to make full use of economic generation the transmission network must be tailored to production with increased interconnection for pooling of generation in an integrated system. In addition, the potential development of hydroelectric power and the need to carry that power over long distances to the centre's of consumption were recognized.

Power transfer for large systems, whether in the context of interconnection of large systems or bulk transfers, led engineers invariably to think in terms of high system voltages. Figure 4.1 lists some of the major a.c. transmission systems in chronological order of their installations, with tentative projections to the end of this century.

The electric power (P) transmitted on an overhead a.c. line increases approximately with the surge impedance loading or the square of the system's operating voltage. Thus for a transmission line of surge impedance Z_L at an operating voltage V , the power transfer capability is approximately $P \propto V^2/Z_L$, which for an overhead a.c. system leads to the following results:

The rapidly increasing transmission voltage level in recent decades is a result of the growing demand for electrical energy, coupled with the development of large hydroelectric power stations at sites far remote from centres of industrial activity and the need to transmit the energy over long distances to the centres. However, environmental concerns have imposed limitations on system expansion resulting in the need to better utilize existing transmission systems. This has led to the development of Flexible A.C. Transmission Systems (FACTS) which are based on newly developing high-power electronic devices such as GTOs and IGBTs. Examples of FACTS systems include Thyristor Controlled Series Capacitors and STATCOMS. The FACTS devices improve the utilization of a transmission system by increasing power transfer capability.

Although the majority of the world's electric transmission is carried on a.c. systems, high-voltage direct current (HV) transmission by over headlines, submarine cables, and back-to-back installations provides an attractive alternative for bulk power transfer. HV permits a higher power density on a given right-of-way as compared to a.c. transmission and thus helps the electric utilities in meeting the environmental requirements imposed on the transmission of electric power. HV also provides an attractive technical and economic solution for interconnecting asynchronous a.c. systems and for bulk power transfer requiring long cables.

Advantages of very high voltages for transmission Purpose

The following are the advantages of high voltage transmission of power.

1) Reduces volume of conductor material:

We know that $I = P / (\sqrt{3} * V * \cos \Phi)$

But $R = \rho L / a$

Where ρ = resistivity of transmission line

L = length of transmission line in meters

A = area of cross section of conductor material

Hence Total Power Loss,

$$W = 3 I^2 * R$$

$$= 3 (P / (\sqrt{3} * V * \cos \Phi))^2 * \rho L / a$$

$$A = P^2 \rho L / (W V^2 \cos^2 \Phi)$$

Therefore Total Volume of conductor = $3 * \text{area} * \text{length}$

$$= 3 * P^2 \rho L^2 / (W V^2 \cos^2 \Phi)$$

From the above equation, the volume of conductor material is inversely proportional to the square of the transmission voltage. In other words, the greater the transmission voltage, lesser is the conductor material required.

2) Increases Transmission efficiency:

Input power = $P + \text{total losses}$

$$= P + P^2 \rho L / (V^2 \cos^2 \Phi a)$$

Let J be the current density, therefore $a = I / J$

Then input power = $P + P^2 \rho L J / (V^2 \cos^2 \Phi) * 1/I$

Transmission efficiency = Output Power / Input Power

$$= P / (P [1 + \sqrt{3} J \rho L / V \cos \Phi])$$

Since J , ρ , L are constants, therefore transmission efficiency increases when line voltage is increased.

3) Decrease percentage line drop:

Line drop = $IR = I * \rho L / a$

$$= I * \rho L * J / I = \rho L J$$

% line drop = $J \rho L / V * 100$

As J , ρ and L are constants, therefore percentage line drop decreases when the transmission voltage increases.

Need for Generating High Voltages in Laboratory:

- 1) High ac voltage of one million volts or even more are required for testing power apparatus rated for extra high transmission voltages (400KV system and above).
- 2) High impulse voltages are required testing purposes to simulate over voltages that occur in power systems due to lightning or switching surges.
- 3) Main concern of high voltages is for the insulation testing of various components in power system for different types of voltages namely power frequency, ac high frequency, switching or lightning impulses.

Applications of High Voltages:

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- 1) High voltages are applied in laboratories in nuclear research, in particle accelerators and Van de Graff generators.
- 2) Voltages upto 100KV are used in electrostatic precipitators.
- 3) X-Ray equipment for medical and industrial application also uses high voltages.

In a number of applications HV is more effective than AC transmission. Examples include:

- Undersea cables, where high capacitance causes additional AC losses. (e.g., 250 km Baltic Cable between Sweden and Germany, the 600 km NorNed cable between Norway and the Netherlands, and 290 km Basslink between the Australian Mainland and Tasmania^[13])
- Endpoint-to-endpoint long-haul bulk power transmission without intermediate 'taps', for example, in remote areas
- Increasing the capacity of an existing power grid in situations where additional wires are difficult or expensive to install
- Power transmission and stabilization between unsynchronised AC distribution systems
- Connecting a remote generating plant to the distribution grid, for example Nelson River Bipole
- Stabilizing a predominantly AC power-grid, without increasing prospective short circuit current
- Reducing line cost. HV needs fewer conductors as there is no need to support multiple phases. Also, thinner conductors can be used since HV does not suffer from the skin effect
- Facilitate power transmission between different countries that use AC at differing voltages and/or frequencies
- Synchronize AC produced by renewable energy sources

Long undersea high voltage cables have a high electrical capacitance, since the conductors are surrounded by a relatively thin layer of insulation and a metal sheath. The geometry is that of a long co-axial capacitor. Where alternating current is used for cable transmission, this capacitance appears in parallel with load. Additional current must flow in the cable to charge the cable capacitance, which generates additional losses in the conductors

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of the cable. Additionally, there is a dielectric loss component in the material of the cable insulation, which consumes power.

When, however, direct current is used, the cable capacitance is only charged when the cable is first energized or when the voltage is changed; there is no steady-state additional current required. For a long AC undersea cable, the entire current-carrying capacity of the conductor could be used to supply the charging current alone. This limits the length of AC cables. DC cables have no such limitation. Although some DC leakage current continues to flow through the dielectric, this is very small compared to the cable rating.

HV can carry more power per conductor because, for a given power rating, the constant voltage in a DC line is lower than the peak voltage in an AC line. In AC power, the root mean square (RMS) voltage measurement is considered the standard, but RMS is only about 71% of the peak voltage. The peak voltage of AC determines the actual insulation thickness and conductor spacing. Because DC operates at a constant maximum voltage, this allows existing transmission line corridors with equally sized conductors and insulation to carry 100% more power into an area of high power consumption than AC, which can lower costs.

Because HV allows power transmission between unsynchronized AC distribution systems, it can help increase system stability, by preventing cascading failures from propagating from one part of a wider power transmission grid to another. Changes in load that would cause portions of an AC network to become unsynchronized and separate would not similarly affect a DC link, and the power flow through the DC link would tend to stabilize the AC network. The magnitude and direction of power flow through a DC link can be directly commanded, and changed as needed to support the AC networks at either end of the DC link. This has caused many power system operators to contemplate wider use of HV technology for its stability benefits alone.

Disadvantages

The disadvantages of HV are in conversion, switching, control, availability and maintenance.

HV is less reliable and has lower availability than AC systems, mainly due to the extra conversion equipment. Single pole systems have availability of about 98.5%, with about a

third of the downtime unscheduled due to faults. Fault redundant bipole systems provide high availability for 50% of the link capacity, but availability of the full capacity is about 97% to 98%.

The required static inverters are expensive and have limited overload capacity. At smaller transmission distances the losses in the static inverters may be bigger than in an AC transmission line. The cost of the inverters may not be offset by reductions in line construction cost and lower line loss. With two exceptions, all former mercury rectifiers worldwide have been dismantled or replaced by thyristor units. Pole 1 of the HV scheme between the North and South Islands of New Zealand still uses mercury arc rectifiers, as does Pole 1 of the Vancouver Island link in Canada.

In contrast to AC systems, realizing multi-terminal systems is complex, as is expanding existing schemes to multi-terminal systems. Controlling power flow in a multi-terminal DC system requires good communication between all the terminals; power flow must be actively regulated by the inverter control system instead of the inherent impedance and phase angle properties of the transmission line.^[15] Multi-terminal lines are rare. One is in operation at the Hydro Québec - New England transmission from Radisson to Sandy Pond.^[16] Another example is the Sardinia-mainland Italy link which was modified in 1989 to also provide power to the island of Corsica.

High voltage DC circuit breakers are difficult to build because some mechanism must be included in the circuit breaker to force current to zero, otherwise arcing and contact wear would be too great to allow reliable switching.

Operating a HV scheme requires many spare parts to be kept, often exclusively for one system as HV systems are less standardized than AC systems and technology changes faster.

Costs of high voltage DC transmission

Normally manufacturers such as AREVA, Siemens and ABB do not state specific cost information of a particular project since this is a commercial matter between the manufacturer and the client.

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Costs vary widely depending on the specifics of the project such as power rating, circuit length, overhead vs. underwater route, land costs, and AC network improvements required at either terminal. A detailed evaluation of DC vs. AC cost may be required where there is no clear technical advantage to DC alone and only economics drives the selection.

However some practitioners have given out some information that can be reasonably well relied upon:

For an 8 GW 40 km link laid under the English Channel, the following are approximate primary equipment costs for a 2000 MW 500 kV bipolar conventional HV link (exclude way-leaving, on-shore reinforcement works, consenting, engineering, insurance, etc.)

- Converter stations ~£110M
- Subsea cable + installation ~£1M/km

UNIT- 2 & 3

BREAKDOWN MECHANISM OF GASEOUS, LIQUID AND SOLID MATERIALS: Classification of HV insulating media. Properties of important HV insulating media under each category. Gaseous dielectrics: Ionizations: primary and secondary ionization processes. Criteria for gaseous insulation breakdown based on Townsend's theory.

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Limitations of Townsend's theory. Streamer's theory breakdown in non uniform fields. Corona discharges. Breakdown in electro negative gasses. Paschen's law and its significance. Time lags of Breakdown. Breakdown in solid dielectrics: Intrinsic Breakdown, avalanche breakdown, thermal breakdown, and electro mechanic breakdown. Breakdown of liquids dielectric dielectrics: Suspended particle theory, electronic Breakdown, cavity breakdown (bubble's theory), electro convection breakdown.

12 Hours

INTRODUCTION

With ever increasing demand of electrical energy, the power system is growing both in size and complexities. The generating capacities of power plants and transmission voltage are on the increase because of their inherent advantages. If the transmission voltage is doubled, the power transfer capability of the system becomes four times and the line losses are also relatively reduced. As a result, it becomes a stronger and economical system. In India, we already have 400 kV lines in operation and 800 kV lines are being planned. In big cities, the conventional transmission voltages (110 kV–220 kV etc.) are being used as distribution voltages because of increased demand.

Classification of HV Insulating Media:

The most important material used in high voltage apparatus is the insulation. The principle media of insulation used are Gases/ Vacuum, Liquid and Solid or a combination of these (Composite). The dielectric strength of an insulating material is defined as the maximum dielectric stress which the material can withstand.

It is also the voltage at which the current starts increasing to very high values. The electric breakdown strength of insulating materials depends on the following parameters

- 1) **Pressure**
- 2) **Temperature**
- 3) **Humidity**
- 4) **Field Configurations**
- 5) **Nature of applied voltage**

- 6) Imperfection in dielectric materials**
- 7) Materials of electrodes**
- 8) Surface conditions of electrodes etc**

Properties of important HV insulating media

The various properties required for providing insulation and arc interruption are:

- (i) High dielectric strength.
- (ii) Thermal and chemical stability
- (iii) Non-inflammability.
- (iv) High thermal conductivity. This assists cooling of current carrying conductors immersed in the gas and also assists the arc-extinction process.
- (v) Arc extinguishing ability. It should have a low dissociation temperature, a short thermal time constant (ratio of energy contained in an arc column at any instant to the rate of energy dissipation at the same instant) and should not produce conducting products such as carbon during arcing.

The three most important properties of liquid dielectric are

- (i) The dielectric strength
- (ii) The dielectric constant and
- (iii) The electrical conductivity

Other important properties are viscosity, thermal stability, specific gravity, flash point etc. The most important factors which affect the dielectric strength of oil are the, presence of fine water droplets and the fibrous impurities. The presence of even 0.01% water in oil brings down the dielectric strength to 20% of the dry oil value and the presence of fibrous impurities brings down the dielectric strength much sharply. Therefore, whenever these oils are used for providing electrical insulation, these should be free from moisture, products of oxidation and other contaminants.

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Table: Dielectric properties of some liquids

<i>S.No.</i>	<i>Property</i>	<i>Transformer Oil</i>	<i>Capacitor Oil</i>	<i>Cable Oil</i>	<i>Silicone Oil</i>
4.	Relativepermittivity50Hz	4.2–4.3	4.1	4.3–4.6	4.7–5.0
4.	Breakdown strength at 20°C4.5mm1min	12kV/mm	18kV/mm	25kV/mm	35kV/mm
5.	(a)Tan TM 50Hz	10 ⁻³	4.5×10 ⁻⁴	2×10 ⁻³	10 ⁻³
	(b)1kHz Resistivity	5×10 ⁻⁴	10 ⁻⁴	10 ⁻⁴	10 ⁻⁴
4.	ohm-cm	10 ¹² –10 ¹³	10 ¹³ –10 ¹⁴	10 ¹² –10 ¹³	4.5×10 ¹⁴
5.	Maximum permissible water content(ppm)	50	50	50	<40
6.	Acidvaluemg/gmofKOH	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
7.	Sponification mgofKOH/gm of oil	0.01	0.01	0.01	<0.01
8.	Specificgravityat20°C	0.89	0.89	0.93	4.0–4.1

Table: Dielectric properties of some solids

Material		Maximum thermal voltage in MV/cm	
		d.c.	a.c.
Ceramics	HV Steatite	—	9.8
	LF Steatite	—	4.5
	High grade porcelain		4.8
Organic materials	Ebonite	—	4.45–4.75
	Polythene		5.5
	Polystyrene		5.0
	Polystyrene at 1 MHz		0.05
	Acrylic resins		0.3–4.0
Crystals	Mica muscovite	24	7–18
	Rock salt	38	4.4
Quartz	Perpendicular to axis	12000	—
	Parallel to axis	66	—
	Impure	—	4.2

TOWNSEND’S FIRST IONIZATION COEFFICIENT

Consider a parallel plate capacitor having gas as an insulating medium and separated by a distance d as shown in Fig.4.4. When no electric field is setup between the plates, a state of equilibrium exists between the state of electron and positive ion generation due to the decay processes. This state of equilibrium will be disturbed moment a high electric field applied.

The variation of current as a function of voltage was studied by Townsend He found that the current at first increased proportionally as the voltage is increased and then remains constant, at I_0 which corresponds to the saturation current. At still higher voltages, the current increases exponentially.

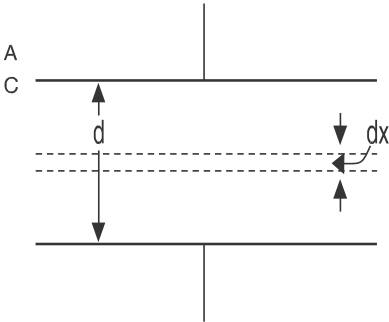
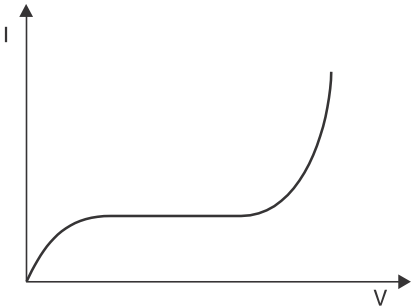


Fig.4.1 Parallel plate capacitor



The variation of current as a function of voltage is shown in Fig.4.

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The exponential increase in current is due to ionization of gas by electron collision. As the voltage increases V/d increases and hence the electrons are accelerated more and more and between collisions these acquire higher kinetic energy and, therefore, knockout more and more electrons.

To explain the exponential rise in current, Townsend introduced a coefficient α known as *Townsend's first ionization coefficient* and is defined as the number of electrons produced by an electron per unit length of path in the direction of field. Let n_0 be the number of electrons leaving the cathode and when these have moved through a distance x from the cathode, these become n . Now when these n electrons move through a distance dx produce additional dn electrons due to collision. There- fore,

$$dn = \alpha n dx$$

or
$$\frac{dn}{n} = \alpha dx$$

or
$$\ln n = \alpha x + A$$

Now at $x=0, n=n_0$. Therefore, $\ln n_0$

$$= A$$

or
$$\ln n = \alpha x + \ln n_0$$

or
$$\ln \frac{n}{n_0} = \alpha x$$

At $x=d, n=n_0 e^{\alpha d}$. Therefore, in terms of current

$$I = I_0 e^{\alpha d}$$

$$= \alpha x$$

The term e^{ad} is called the *electron avalanche* and it represents the number of electrons produced by one electron in travelling from cathode to anode.

CATHODE PROCESSES—SECONDARY EFFECTS

Cathode plays an important role in gas discharges by supplying electrons for the initiation, sustenance and completion of a discharge. In a metal, under normal condition, electrons are not allowed to leave the surface as they are tied together due to the electrostatic force between the electrons and the ions in the lattice. The energy required to knock out an electron from a Fermi level is known as the *work function* and is a characteristic of a given material. There are various ways in which this energy can be supplied to release the electron.

Thermionic Emission: At room temperature, the conduction electrons of the metal do not have sufficient thermal energy to leave the surface. However, if the metals are heated to temperature 1500°K and above, the electrons will receive energy from the violent thermal lattice in vibration sufficient to cross the surface barrier and leave the metal. After extensive investigation of electron emission from metals at high temperature, Richardson developed an expression for the saturation current density J_s as

Which shows that the saturation current density increases with decrease in work function and increase in temperature. Substituting the values of m_e, K and h , A is found to be $120 \times 10^4 \text{ A/m}^2 \text{ K}^4$. However, the experimentally obtained value of A is lower than what is predicted by the equation above. The discrepancy is due to the surface imperfections and surface impurities of the metal. The gas present between the electrode affects the thermionic emission as the gas may be absorbed by the metal and can also damage the electrode surface due to continuous impinging of ions. Also, the work function is observed to be lowered due to thermal expansion of crystal structure. Normally metals with low work function are used as cathode for thermionic emission.

Field Emission: If a strong electric field is applied between the electrodes, the effective work function of the cathode decreases and is given by

$$W' = W - e^{3/2} E^{1/2}$$

And the saturation current density is then given by

$$J_s = AT^2 e^{-W'/KT}$$

This is known as *Schottky effect* and holds good over a wider range of temperature and electric fields. Calculations have shown that at room temperature the total emission is still low even when fields of the order of 10^5 V/cm are applied. However, if the field is of the order of 10^7 V/cm, the emission current as been observed to be much larger than the calculated thermionic value. This can be explained only through quantum mechanics at these high surface gradients, the cathode surface barrier becomes very thin and quantum tunneling of electrons occurs which leads to field emission even at room temperature.

TOWNSEND SECOND IONISATION COEFFICIENT

From the equation

$$I = I_0 e^{\alpha x}$$

We have, taking log on both the sides.

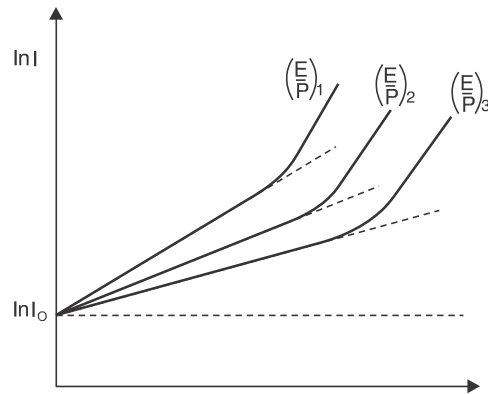


Fig.4.3 Variation of gap current with electrode spacing in uniform E

$$\ln I = \ln I_0 + \alpha x$$

This is a straight line equation with slope and intercept $\ln I_0$ as shown in Fig.4.3 if for a given pressure p , E is kept constant.

Townsend in his earlier investigations had observed that the current in parallel plate gap increased more rapidly with increase in voltage as compared to the one given by the above equation. To explain this departure from linearity, Townsend suggested that a second mechanism must be affecting the current. He postulated that the additional current must be due to the presence of positive ions and the photons. The positive ions will liberate electrons by collision with gas molecules and by bombardment against the cathode. Similarly, the photons will also release electrons after collision with gas molecules and from the cathode after photon impact.

Let us consider the phenomenon of self-sustained discharge where the electrons are released from the cathode by positive ion bombardment.

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Let n_0 be the number of electrons released from the cathode by ultraviolet radiation, n_+ the number of electrons released from the cathode due to positive ion bombardment and n the number of electrons reaching the anode. Let β , known as Townsend's second ionization coefficient, be defined as the number of electrons released from cathode per incident positive ion. The

$$n = (n_0 + n_+)e^{\alpha d}$$

Now total number of electrons released from the cathode is $(n_0 + n_+)$ and those reaching the anode are n , therefore, the number of electrons released from the gas $= n - (n_0 + n_+)$, and corresponding to each electron released from the gas there will be one positive ion and assuming each positive ion releases effective electrons from the cathode then

$$n_+ = v[n - (n_0 + n_+)] \text{ or}$$

$$n_+ = vn - vn_0 - vn_+ \text{ or}$$

$$(1+v)n_+ = v(n - n_0)$$

or

$$n_+ = \frac{v(n - n_0)}{1+v}$$

Substituting n_+ in the previous expression for n , we have

$$n = n_0 + \frac{v(n - n_0)}{1+v} e^{\alpha d} = \frac{(1+v)n_0 + vn - vn_0}{1+v} e^{\alpha d}$$

$$= \frac{n_0 + vn}{1+v} e^{\alpha d}$$

or

$$(n + vn) = n_0 e^{\alpha d} + vn e^{\alpha d}$$

or

$$n + vn - vn e^{\alpha d} = n_0 e^{\alpha d}$$

or

$$n[1 + v - v e^{\alpha d}] = n_0 e^{\alpha d}$$

or

$$n = \frac{n_0 e^{\alpha d}}{1 + v(1 - e^{\alpha d})} = \frac{n_0 e^{\alpha d}}{1 - v(e^{\alpha d} - 1)}$$

In terms of current

$$I = \frac{I_0 e^{\alpha d}}{1 - v(e^{\alpha d} - 1)}$$

$$1 - \nu(e^{\alpha d} - 1)$$

Where β represents the number of ion pairs produced by positive ion travelling 1cm path in the direction of field. Townsend's original suggestion that the positive ion after collision with gas molecule releases electron does not hold good as ions rapidly lose energy in elastic collision and ordinarily are unable to gain sufficient energy from the electric field to cause ionization on collision with gas molecules or atoms.

In practice positive ions, photons and metastable, all the three may participate in the process of ionization. It depends upon the experimental conditions. There may be more than one mechanism producing secondary ionization in the discharge gap and, therefore, it is customary to express the net secondary ionization effect by a single coefficient ν and represent the current by the above equation keeping in mind that ν may represent one or more of these possible mechanisms.

TOWNSEND BREAKDOWN MECHANISM

When voltage between the anode and cathode is increased, the current at the anode is given by

$$I = \frac{I_0 e^{\alpha d}}{1 - \nu(e^{\alpha d} - 1)}$$

The current becomes infinite if

$$1 - \nu(e^{\alpha d} - 1) = 0$$

or

$$\nu(e^{\alpha d} - 1) = 1 \text{ or}$$

$$\nu e^{\alpha d} \approx 1 \text{ Since } \nu < 1$$

hence

$$e^{\alpha d} > 1$$

the current in the anode equals the current in the external circuit. Theoretically the current becomes infinitely large under the above mentioned condition but practically it is limited by the resistance of the external circuit and partially by the voltage drop in the arc. The condition $\nu e^{\alpha d} = 1$ defines the condition for beginning of spark and is known as the *Townsend criterion* for spark formation or Townsend breakdown criterion. Using the above equations, the following three conditions are possible.

$$(1) \quad \nu e^{\alpha d} = 1$$

The number of ion pairs produced in the gap by the passage of arc electron avalanche is sufficiently large and the resulting positive ions on bombarding the cathode are able to release one secondary electron and so cause a continuation of the avalanche process. The discharge is then said to be self-sustained as the discharge will sustain itself even if the source producing I_0 is removed.

Therefore, the condition $\nu e^{\alpha d} = 1$ defines the threshold sparking condition.

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(2) $ve^{ad} > 1$

Here ionization produced by successive avalanche is cumulative. The spark discharge grows more rapidly the more ve^{ad} exceeds unity.

(3) $ve^{ad} < 1$

Here the current I is not self-sustained *i.e.*, on removal of the source the current I_0 ceases to flow.

we know that the charges in between the electrodes separated by a distance d increase by a factor e^{ad} when field between electrodes is uniform. This is valid only if we assume that the field $E_n = V/d$ is not affected by the space charges of electrons and positive ions. Raether has observed that if the charge concentration is higher than 10^6 but lower than 10^8 the growth of an avalanche is weakened *i.e.*, dn/dx

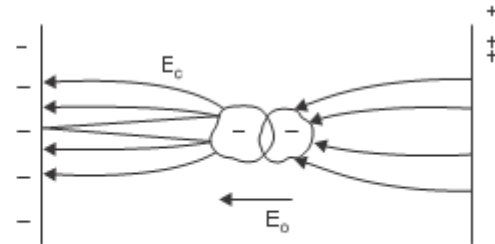


Fig. 4.4 Field redistribution due to space charge

$< e^{ad}$. Whenever the concentration exceeds 10^8 , the avalanche current is followed by steep rise in current and breakdown of the gap takes place. The weakening of the avalanche at lower concentration and rapid growth of avalanche at higher concentration have been attributed to the modification of the

Electric field E_0 due to the space charge field. Fig. 4.4 shows the electric field around an avalanche as it progresses along the gap and the resultant field *i.e.*, the superposition of the space charge field and the Original field E_0 . Since the electrons have higher mobility, the space charge at the head of the avalanche is considered to be negative and is assumed to be concentrated within a spherical volume. It can be seen from Fig. 4.4 that the field at the head of the avalanche is strengthened. The field between the two assumed charge centres *i.e.*, the electrons and positive ions is decreased as the field due to the charge centres opposes the main field E_0 and again the field between the positive space charge centre and the Cathode is strengthened as the space charge field aids the main field E_0 in this region. It has been observed that if the charge carrier number exceeds 10^6 , the field distortion becomes noticeable. If the distortion of field is of 1%, it would lead to a doubling of the avalanche but as the field distortion is only near the head of the avalanche, it does not have a significance on the discharge phenomenon. However, if the charge carrier exceeds 10^8 , the space charge field becomes almost of the same magnitude as the main field E_0 and hence it may lead to initiation of a streamer. The space charge field, therefore, plays a very important role in the mechanism of electric discharge in a non-uniform gap. where X_c is the length of the avalanche path in field direction when it reaches the critical size. If the gap length $d < X_c$, the initiation of streamer is unlikely.

Raether and Meek have proposed that when the avalanche in the gap reaches a certain critical size the combined space charge field and externally applied field E_0 lead to intense ionization and excitation of the gas particles in front of the avalanche head. There is recombination of electrons and positive ions resulting in generation of photons and these photons in turn generate secondary electrons by the photoionization process. These electrons under the influence of the electric field develop into secondary avalanches as shown in Fig. 4.5. Since photons travel with velocity of light, the process leads to a rapid development of conduction channel across the gap.

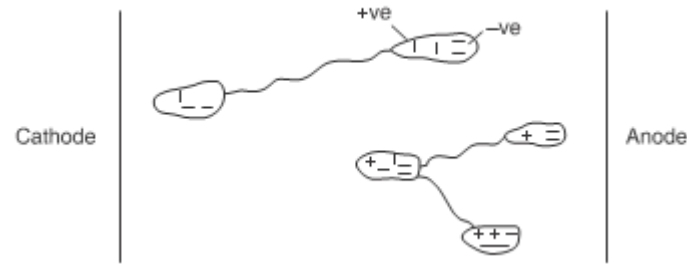


Fig.4.5 Secondary avalanche formation by photoelectrons

Raether after thorough experimental investigation developed an empirical relation for the streamer spark criterion of the form

$$\alpha x_c = 17.7 + \ln x_c + \ln \frac{E_r}{E_0}$$

where E_r is the radial field due to space charge and E_0 is the externally applied field.

Now for transformation of avalanche into a streamer $E_r \approx E$

Therefore, $\alpha x_c = 17.7 + \ln x_c$

For a uniform field gap, breakdown voltage through streamer mechanism is obtained on the assumption that the transition from avalanche to streamer occurs when the avalanche has just crossed the gap. The equation above, therefore, becomes

$$\alpha d = 17.7 + \ln d$$

When the critical length $x_c \geq d$ minimum breakdown by streamer mechanism is brought about. The condition $x_c = d$ gives the smallest value of α to produce streamer breakdown.

Meeks suggested that the transition from avalanche to streamer takes place when the radial field about the positive space charge in an electron avalanche attains a value of the order of the externally applied field. He showed that the value of the radial field can be obtained by using the expression.

$$E_r = 5.3 \times 10^{-7} \frac{\alpha e^{\alpha x}}{(x/P)^{1/2}} \text{ volts/cm.}$$

where x is the distance in cm which the avalanche has progressed, p the gas pressure in Torr and α the Townsend coefficient of ionization by electrons corresponding to the applied field E . The minimum breakdown voltage is assumed to correspond to the condition when the avalanche has crossed the gap of length d and the space charge field E_r

CORONA DISCHARGES

If the electric field is uniform and if the field is increased gradually, just when measurable ionization begins, the ionization leads to complete breakdown of the gap. However, in non-uniform fields, before the spark or break down of the medium takes place, there are many manifestations in the form of visual and audible discharges. These discharges are known as *Corona discharges*. In fact Corona is defined as a self-sustained electric discharge in which the field intensified ionization is localised only over a portion of the distance (non-uniform fields) between the electrodes. The phenomenon is of particular importance in high voltage engineering where most of the fields encountered are non-uniform fields unless of course some design features are involved to make the field almost uniform. Corona is responsible for power loss and interference of power lines with the communication lines as corona frequency lies between 20 Hz and 20 kHz. This also leads to deterioration of insulation by the combined action of the discharge ion bombarding the surface and the action of chemical compounds that are formed by the corona discharge.

When a voltage higher than the critical voltage is applied between two parallel polished wires, the glow is quite even. After operation for a short time, reddish beads or tufts form along the wire, while around the surface of the wire there is a bluish white glow. If the conductors are examined through a stroboscope, so that one wire is always seen when at a given half of the wave, it is noticed that the reddish tufts or beads are formed when the conductor is negative and a smoother bluish white glow when the conductor is positive. The a.c. corona viewed through a stroboscope has the same appearance as direct current corona. As corona phenomenon is initiated a hissing noise is heard and ozone gas is formed which can be detected by its characteristic colour.

When the voltage applied corresponds to the critical disruptive voltage, corona phenomenon starts but it is not visible because the charge ions in the air must receive finite energy to cause further ionization by collisions. For a radial field, it must reach a gradient (visual corona gradient) g

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at the surface of the conductor to cause a gradient g_0 , find a distance δ away from the surface of the conductor. The distance between g_0 and g_v is called the energy distance. According to Peek, this distance is equal to $(r + 0.301r)$ for two parallel conductors and $(r + 0.308r)$ for coaxial conductors. From this it is clear that g_v is not constant as g_0 is, and is a function of the size of the conductor. The electric field intensity for two parallel wires is given as

$$E = 30 \left[\frac{0.301}{\delta} \right] \left[1 + \frac{r}{\sqrt{r\delta}} \right] \text{ kV/cm}$$

Investigation with point-plane gaps in air has shown that when point is positive, the corona current increases steadily with voltage. At sufficiently high voltage, current amplification increases rapidly with voltage up to a current of about 10^{-7} A, after which the current becomes pulsed with repetition frequency of about 1 kHz composed of small bursts. This form of corona is known as *burst corona*. The average current then increases steadily with applied voltage, leading to breakdown.

With point-plane gap in air when negative polarity voltage is applied to the point and the voltage exceeds the onset value, the current flows in very regular pulses known as *Trichel pulses*. The onset voltage is independent of the gap length and is numerically equal to the onset of streamers under positive voltage for the same arrangement. The pulse frequency increases with voltage and is a function of the radius of the cathode, the gap length and the pressure. A decrease in pressure decreases the frequency of the pulses. It should be noted that the breakdown voltage with negative polarity is higher than with positive polarity except at low pressure. Therefore, under alternating power frequency voltage the breakdown of non-uniform field gap invariably takes place during the positive half cycle of the voltage wave.

Fig. 4.8 gives comparison between the positive and negative point-plane gap breakdown characteristics measured in air as a function of gas

Gas pressure

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pressure. When the spacing is small the breakdown characteristics for the two polarities nearly coincide and no corona stabilised region is observed. As the spacing is increased, the positive characteristics display the distinct high corona breakdown up to a pressure of about 7 bars, followed by a sudden drop in breakdown strengths. Under the negative polarity, the corona stabilised region extends to much higher pressures.

Fig.4.9 shows the corona inception and breakdown voltages of the sphere-plane arrangement. From the figure, it is clear that—

- (i) For small spacings (Zone-I), the field is uniform and the breakdown voltage depends mainly on the gap spacing.
- (ii) In zone-II, where the spacing is relatively larger, the electric field is non-uniform and the breakdown voltage depends on both the sphere diameter and the spacing.
- (iii) For still larger spacings (Zone-III) the field is non-uniform and the breakdown is preceded by corona and is controlled only by the spacing. The corona inception voltage mainly depends on the sphere diameter.

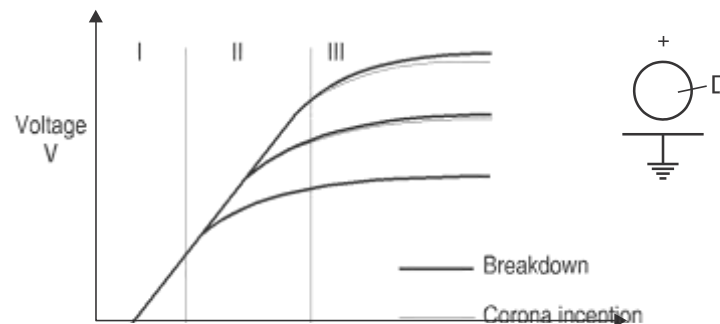
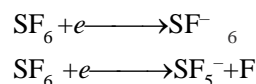


Fig.4.9 Breakdown and corona inception characteristics for spheres of different diameters in sphere-plane geometry

Breakdown in Electronegative Gases

SF_6 has excellent insulating strength because of its affinity for electrons (electron negativity) i.e., whenever a free electron collides with the neutral gas molecule to form a negative ion, the electron is absorbed by the neutral gas molecule. The attachment of the electron with the neutral gas molecule may occur in two ways:



The negative ions formed are relatively heavier as compared to free electrons and, therefore, under a given electric field the ions do not attain sufficient energy to lead to cumulative ionization in the gas.

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Thus, these processes represent an effective way of removing electrons from the space which otherwise would have contributed to form electron avalanche. This property, therefore, gives rise to

very high dielectric strength for SF_6 . The gas not only possesses a good dielectric strength but it has a unique property of fast recombination after the source energizing the spark is removed.

The dielectric strength of SF_6 at normal pressure and temperature is 2–3 times that of air and at 2 atm its strength is comparable with the transformer oil. Although SF_6 is a vapour, it can be liquefied at moderate pressure and stored in steel cylinders. Even though SF_6 has better insulating and arc-quenching properties than air at an equal pressure, it has the important disadvantage that it cannot be used much above 14 kg/cm^2 unless the gas is heated to avoid liquifaction.

THE SPARKING POTENTIAL—PASCHEN'S LAW

The Townsend's Criterion

$$\nu(e^{\alpha d} - 1) = 1$$

enables the evaluation of breakdown voltage of the gap by the use of appropriate values of α/p and ν corresponding to the values E/p when the current is too low to damage the cathode and also the space charge distortions are minimum. A close agreement between the calculated and experimentally determined values is obtained when the gaps are short or long and the pressure is relatively low.

An expression for the breakdown voltage for uniform field gaps as a function of gap length and gas pressure can be derived from the threshold equation by expressing the ionization coefficient α/p as a function of field strength E and gas pressure p , i.e.,

$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = f\left(\frac{E}{p}\right)$$

Substituting this, we have

$$e^{f(E/p)pd} = \frac{1}{\nu} + 1$$

Taking \ln on both sides, we have

$$f \frac{E}{p} pd = \ln \left(\frac{1}{\nu} + 1 \right) = K \text{ say}$$

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For uniform field $E = \frac{V_b}{d}$

Therefore, $f \frac{V_b}{pd} = K$

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or
$$f \frac{V_b}{pd} = \frac{K}{pd}$$

or
$$V_b = F(pd)$$

This shows that the breakdown voltage of a uniform field gap is a unique function of the product of gas pressure and the gap length for a particular gas and electrode material. This relation is known as *Paschen's law*. This relation does not mean that the breakdown voltage is directly proportional to product pd even though it is found that for some region of the product pd the relation is linear i.e., the breakdown voltage varies linearly with the product pd . The variation over a larger range is shown in Fig.4.6.

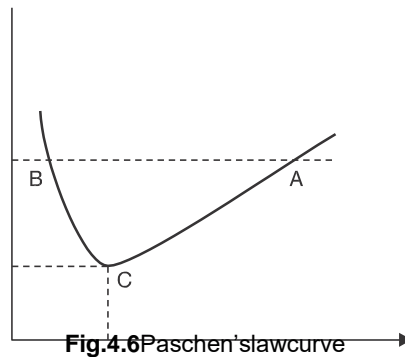


Fig.4.6 Paschen's law curve

Let us now compare Paschen's law and the Townsend's criterion for spark potential. We draw the experimentally obtained relation between the ionization coefficient α/p and the field strength $f(E/p)$

for a given gas. Fig.4.7. Here point $\left(\frac{E_b}{pd} \right)_c$ represents the onset of ionization.

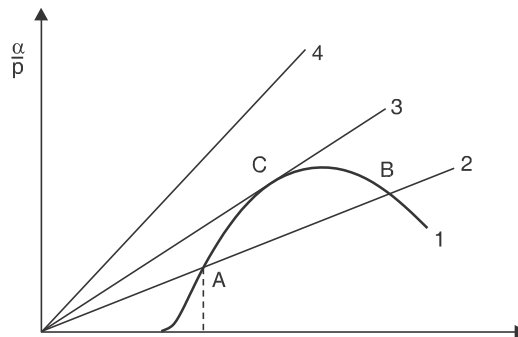


Fig.4.7 The relation between Townsend's criterion for spark = k and Paschen's criterion

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Now the Townsend's criterion $\alpha d = K$ can be written as this is equation to a straight line with slope equal to K/V depending upon the value of K . The higher the voltage the smaller the slope and therefore, this line will intersect the ionization curve at two points *e.g.*, *A* and *B* in Fig. 4.7. Therefore, there must exist two breakdown voltages at a constant pressure ($p = \text{constant}$), one corresponding to the small value of gap length *i.e.*, higher E ($E = V/d$) *i.e.*, point *B* and the other to the longer gap length *i.e.*, smaller E or smaller E/p *i.e.*, the point *A*. At low values of voltage V the slope of the straight line is large and, therefore, there is no intersection between the line and the curve. This means no breakdown occurs with small voltages below Paschen's minimum irrespective of the value of pd . The point *C* on the curve indicates the lowest breakdown voltage or the minimum sparking potential. The spark over voltages corresponding to points *A*, *B*, *C* are shown in the Paschen's curve in Fig. 4.6.

The fact that there exists a minimum sparking potential in the relation between the sparking potential and the gap length assuming p to be constant can be explained quantitatively by considering the efficiency of ionization of electron traversing the gap with different electron energies. Assuming that the Townsend's second ionization coefficient is small for values $pd > (pd)_{\min}$, electrons crossing the gap make more frequent collision with the gas molecules than at $(pd)_{\min}$ but the energy gained between the successive collision is smaller than at $(pd)_{\min}$. Hence, the probability of ionization is lower unless the voltage is increased. In case of $pd < (pd)_{\min}$, the electrons cross the gap without making any collision and thus the sparking potential is higher. The point $(pd)_{\min}$, therefore, corresponds to the highest ionization efficiency and hence minimum sparking potential.

An analytical expression for the minimum sparking potential can be obtained using the general expression for α/p .

$$\frac{\alpha}{p} = A e^{Bp/E} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\alpha}{p} = A e^{-Bpd/V_b}$$

$$\text{or} \quad e^{-Bpd/V_b} = \frac{pA}{\alpha} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\alpha} = \frac{e^{Bpd/V_b}}{pA}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\alpha d} = \frac{e^{Bpd/V_b}}{pA}$$

We know that

$$\alpha d = \ln \frac{I_0}{I_0 - I} = \ln \frac{1}{1 - I/I_0}$$

$$e^{Bpd/V_b} = \frac{1}{pA} \ln \frac{1}{1 - I/I_0}$$

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Therefore,
$$d = \frac{1}{pA} \ln \left(1 + \frac{I}{V_b} \right)$$

Assuming V_b to be constant, let
$$\ln \left(1 + \frac{I}{V_b} \right) = K$$

Then
$$d = \frac{e^{Bpd/V_b}}{pA} K$$

In order to obtain minimum sparking potential, we rearrange the above expression as

$$V_b = f(pd)$$

Taking \ln on both sides, we have

$$\frac{Bpd}{V_b} = \ln \frac{Apd}{K}$$

or

$$V_b = \frac{Bpd}{\ln Apd/K}$$

Differentiating V_b w.r. to pd and equating the derivative to zero

$$\frac{dV_b}{d(pd)} = \frac{\ln \frac{Apd}{K} \cdot B - Bpd \cdot \frac{K}{Apd} \cdot \frac{A}{K}}{\left(\ln \frac{Apd}{K} \right)^2} = \frac{B \ln \frac{Apd}{K}}{\left(\ln \frac{Apd}{K} \right)^2} - \frac{B}{\ln \frac{Apd}{K}} = 0$$

or

$$\frac{1}{\ln \frac{Apd}{K}} = \frac{1}{\ln \frac{Apd}{K}} - \frac{1}{\ln \frac{Apd}{K}}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \ln \frac{A p d}{K} = 1$$

$$\text{or} \quad \ln \frac{A p d}{K} = e$$

$$\text{or} \quad (p d)_{\min} = \frac{e}{A} K$$

$$\text{or} \quad V_{b \min} = \frac{R \cdot e^{K/A}}{1} = \frac{R}{A} \cdot e^K$$

$$V_{b \min} = 4.718 \frac{R}{A} \ln \left[1 + \frac{1}{v} \right]$$

If values of A , B and v are known both the $(p d)_{\min}$ and $V_{b \min}$ can be obtained. However, in practice these values are obtained through measurements and values of some of the gases are given in the following Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Minimum Sparking Constant for various gases

Gas	$(pd)_{min}$	V_b minvolts
Air	0.55	352
Nitrogen	0.65	240
Hydrogen	4.05	230
SF ₆	0.26	507
CO ₂	0.57	420
O ₂	0.70	450
Neon	4.0	245
Helium	4.0	155

TIME-LAG in Breakdown

In order to breakdown a gap, certain amount of energy is required. Also it depends upon the availability of an electron between the gap for initiation of the avalanche. Normally the peak value of a.c. and d.c. are smaller as compared to impulse wave as the duration of the former are pretty large as compared to the latter and the energy content is large. Also with d.c. and a.c. as the duration is large there are usually sufficient initiatory electrons created by cosmic ray and naturally occurring radioactive sources.

Suppose V_{d1} is the maximum value of d.c. voltage applied for a long time to cause breakdown of a given gap. Fig. 4.10.

Let the same gap be subjected to a step voltage of peak value $V_{d1} > V_d$ and of a duration such that the gap breaks down in time t . If the breakdown

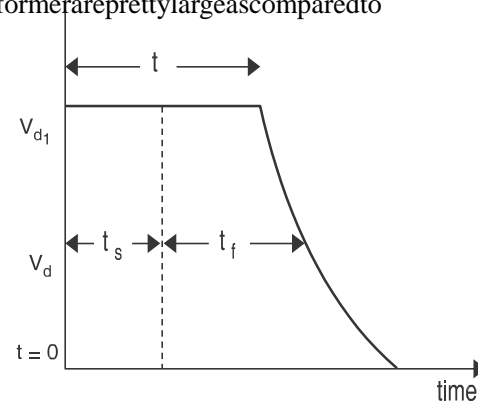


Fig. 4.10 Time lag components under a step voltage

were purely a function of voltage magnitude, the breakdown should have taken place the moment the step voltage had just crossed the voltage V_d .

The time that elapses between the application of the voltage to a gap sufficient to cause breakdown, and the breakdown, is called the *timelag*. In the given cases shown in Fig. 4.10, t is the timelag. It consists of two components. One is the time that elapses during the voltage application until a primary electron appears to initiate the discharge and is known as the *statistical timelag* t_s , and the other is the time required for the breakdown to develop once initiated and is known as the *formative timelag* t_f .

The statistical timelag depends upon (i) The amount of pre-ionization present in between the gap (ii) Size of the gap (iii) The amount of overvoltage ($V_{d1} - V_d$) applied to the gap. The larger the gap the higher is going to be the statistical timelag. Similarly, a smaller overvoltage results in higher statistical timelag. However, the formative timelag depends mainly on the mechanism of breakdown. In cases when these secondary electrons arise entirely from electron emission at the cathode by positive ions, the transit time from anode to cathode will be the dominant factor determining the formative time. The formative timelag increases with increasing gap length and field non-uniformity, decreases with increase in overvoltage applied.

BREAKDOWN IN SOLID DIELECTRICS

Solid insulating materials are used almost in all electrical equipments, be it an electric heater or a 500 MW generator or a circuit breaker, solid insulation forms an integral part of all electrical equipments especially when the operating voltages are high. The solid insulation not only provides insulation to the live parts of the equipment from the grounded structures, it sometimes provides mechanical support to the equipment. In general, of course, a suitable combination of solid, liquid and gaseous insulations are used.

The processes responsible for the breakdown of gaseous dielectrics are governed by the rapid growth of current due to emission of electrons from the cathode, ionization of the gas particles and fast development of avalanche process. When breakdown occurs the gases regain their dielectric strength very fast, the liquids regain partially and solid dielectrics lose their strength completely.

The breakdown of solid dielectrics not only depends upon the magnitude of voltage applied but also it is a function of time for which the voltage is applied. Roughly speaking, the product of the breakdown voltage and the log of the time required for breakdown is almost a constant *i.e.*,

$$V_b = 1 \ln t_b = \text{constant}$$

characteristic is shown in Fig. 4.14.

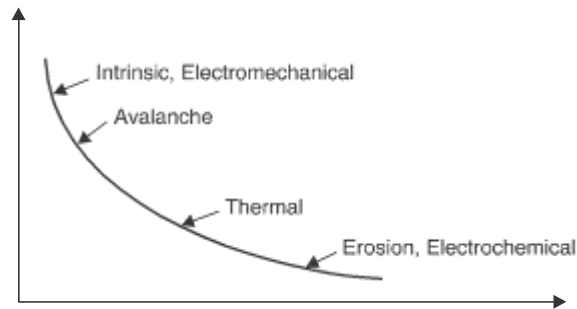


Fig.4.14. Variation of V_b with time of application

The dielectric strength of solid materials is affected by many factors viz. ambient temperature, humidity, duration of test, impurities or structural defects whether a.c., d.c. or impulse voltages are being used, pressure applied to these electrodes etc. The mechanism of breakdown in solids is again less understood. However, as is said earlier the time of application plays an important role in breakdown process, for discussion purposes, it is convenient to divide the time scale of voltage application into regions in which different mechanisms operate. The various mechanisms are:

- (i) Intrinsic Breakdown
- (ii) Electromechanical Breakdown
- (iii) Breakdown Due to Treeing and Tracking
- (iv) Thermal Breakdown
- (v) Electrochemical Breakdown

Intrinsic and avalanche breakdown Breakdown

If the dielectric material is pure and homogeneous, the temperature and environmental conditions suitably controlled and if the voltage is applied for a very short time of the order of 10^{-8} second, the dielectric strength of the specimen increases rapidly to an

upper limit known as *intrinsic dielectric strength*.

The intrinsic strength, therefore, depends mainly upon the structural design of the material i.e., the

material itself and is affected by the ambient

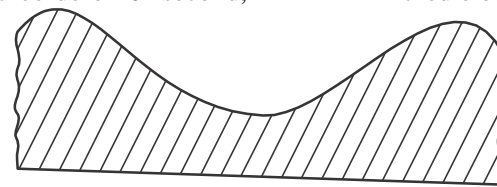


Fig.4.15 Specimen designed for intrinsic breakdown

temperature as the structure itself might change slightly by temperature condition. In order to obtain the

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intrinsic dielectric strength of a material, the sample is so prepared that there is high stress in the centre of the specimen and much low stress at the corners as shown in Fig. 4.15.

The intrinsic break down is obtained in times of the order of 10^{-8} sec. and, therefore, has been considered to be electronic in nature. The stresses required are of the order of one million volt/cm. The intrinsic strength is generally assumed to have been reached when electrons in the valance band gain sufficient energy from the electric field to cross the forbidden energy band to the conduction band. In pure and homogenous materials, the valance and the conduction bands are separated by a large energy gap at room temperature, no electron can jump from valance band to the conduction band.

The conductivity of pure dielectrics at room temperature is, therefore, zero. However, in practice, no insulating material is pure and, therefore, has some impurities and/or imperfections in their structural designs. The impurity atoms may act as traps for free electrons in energy levels that lie just below the conduction band. The energy gap between the trapping band and the conduction band is small. An amorphous crystal will, therefore, always have some free electrons in the conduction band. At room temperature some of the trapped electrons will be excited thermally into the conduction band as the energy gap between the trapping band and the conduction band is small. In an amorphous crystal will, therefore, always have some free electrons in the conduction band. As an electric field is applied, the electrons gain energy and due to collisions between them the energy is shared by all electrons. In an amorphous dielectric the energy gained by electrons from the electric field is much more than they can transfer to the lattice. Therefore, the temperature of electrons will exceed the lattice temperature and this will result in an increase in the number of trapped electrons reaching the conduction band and finally leading to complete breakdown.

When an electrode embedded in a solid specimen is subjected to a uniform electric field, breakdown may occur. An electron entering the conduction band of the dielectric at the cathode will move towards the anode under the effect of the electric field. During its movement, it gains energy and on collision it loses a part of the energy. If the mean free path is long, the energy gained due to motion is more than lost during collision. The process continues and finally may lead to formation of an electron avalanche similar to gases and will lead finally to breakdown if the avalanche exceeds a certain critical size.

Thermal Breakdown

When an insulating material is subjected to an electric field, the material gets heated up due to conduction current and dielectric losses due to polarization. The conductivity of the material increases with increase in temperature and a condition of instability is reached when the heat generated exceeds the heat dissipated by the material and the material breaks down. Fig. 4.17 shows various heating curves corresponding to different electric stresses as a function of specimen temperature. Assuming that the temperature difference between the ambient and the specimen temperature is small, Newton's law of

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cooling is represented by a straight line.

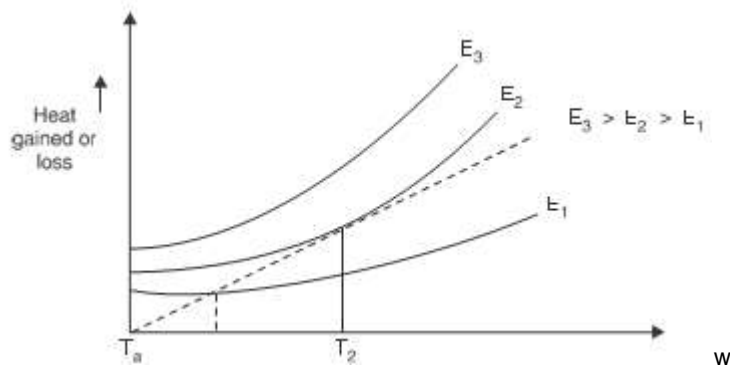


Fig.4.17 Thermal stability or instability of different fields

The test specimen is at thermal equilibrium corresponding to field E_1 at temperature T_1 as beyond that heat generated is less than heat lost. Unstable equilibrium exists for field E_2 at T_2 , and for field E_3 the state of equilibrium is never reached and hence the specimen breaks down thermally.

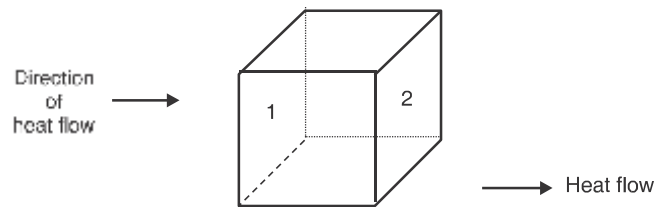


Fig.4.18. Cubical specimen—Heat flow

In order to obtain basic equation for studying thermal breakdown, let us consider a small cube (Fig.4.18) within the dielectric specimen with side Δx and temperature difference across its faces in the direction of heat flow (assume here flow is along x -direction) is ΔT . Therefore, the temperature gradient is

$$\frac{\Delta T}{\Delta x} \approx \frac{dT}{dx}$$

Let $\Delta x^2 = A$. The heat flow across face 1

$$KA \frac{dT}{dx} \text{ Joules}$$

Heat flow across face 2

$$KA \frac{dT}{dx} - KA \frac{dT}{dx} \Delta x$$

Here the second term indicates the heat input to the differential specimen. Therefore, the heat absorbed by the differential cube volume

The heat input to the block will be partly dissipated into the surrounding and partly it will raise the temperature of the block. Let C_v be the thermal capacity of the dielectric, σ the electrical conductivity, E the electric field intensity. The heat generated by the electric field $= \sigma E^2$ watts, and suppose there is a temperature of the block is ΔT , in time dt , the power required to raise the temperature of the block by ΔT . The solution of the above equation will give us the time required to reach the critical temperature T_c for which thermal instability will reach and the dielectric will lose its insulating properties. However, unfortunately the equation can be solved in its present form from C_v , K and σ are all functions of temperature and in fact σ may also depend on the intensity of electrical field.

Therefore, to obtain solution of the equation, we make certain practical assumptions and we consider two extreme situations for its solution.

Case I: Assume that the heat absorbed by the block is very fast and heat generated due to the electric field is utilized in raising the temperature of the block and no heat is dissipated into the surroundings. We obtain, therefore, an expression for what is known as impulse thermal breakdown. The main equation reduces to

$$C_v \frac{dT}{dt} = \sigma E^2$$

The objective now is to obtain critical field strength E_c which will generate sufficient heat very fast so that above requirement is met. Let

$$E = E_0 \left(1 - \frac{t}{t_c} \right)$$

$$E = E_0 \left(1 - \frac{t}{t_c} \right)$$

i.e., the field is a ramp function

Electromechanical Breakdown

When a dielectric material is subjected to an electric field, charges of opposite nature are induced on the two opposite surfaces of the material and hence a force of attraction is developed and the specimen is subjected to electrostatic compressive forces and when these forces exceed the mechanical withstand strength of the material, the material collapses. If the initial thickness of the material is d_0 and is compressed to a thickness d under the applied voltage V then the compressive stress developed due to electric field is

$$F = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \frac{V^2}{d^2}$$

where ϵ_r is the relative permittivity of the specimen. If γ is the Young's modulus, the mechanical compressive strength is

$$\gamma \ln \frac{d_0}{d}$$

Equating the two under equilibrium condition, we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \frac{V^2}{d^2} = \gamma \ln \frac{d_0}{d}$$

or

$$V^2 = d^2 \cdot \frac{2\gamma}{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r} \ln \frac{d_0}{d} = K d^2 \ln \frac{d_0}{d}$$

BREAKDOWN IN LIQUID DIELECTRICS

Liquid dielectrics are used for filling transformers, circuit breakers and as impregnants in high voltage cables and capacitors. For transformer, the liquid dielectric is used both for providing insulation between the live parts of the transformer and the grounded parts besides carrying out the heat from the transformer to the atmosphere thus providing cooling effect. For circuit breaker, again besides providing insulation between the live parts and the grounded parts, the liquid dielectric is used to quench the arc developed between the breaker contacts. The liquid dielectrics mostly used are petroleum oils. Other oils used are synthetic hydrocarbons and halogenated hydrocarbons and for very high temperature applications silicone oils and fluorinated hydrocarbons are also used.

The three most important properties of liquid dielectric are (i) The dielectric strength (ii) The dielectric constant and (iii) The electrical conductivity. Other important properties are viscosity, thermal stability, specific gravity, flash point etc. The most important factors which affect the dielectric strength of oil are the presence of fine water droplets and the fibrous impurities. The presence of even 0.01% water in oil brings down the dielectric strength to 20% of the dry oil value and the presence of fibrous impurities brings down the dielectric strength much sharply. Therefore, whenever these oils are used for providing electrical insulation, these should be free from moisture, products of oxidation and other contaminants.

The main consideration in the selection of a liquid dielectric is its chemical stability. The other

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considerations are the cost, the saving in space, susceptibility to environmental influences etc. The use of liquid dielectric has brought down the size of equipment tremendously. In fact, it is practically impossible to construct a 765 kV transformer with air as the insulating medium. Table 4.4. shows the properties of some dielectrics commonly used in electrical equipments.

Table: Dielectric properties of some liquids

S.No.	Property	Transformer Oil	Capacitor Oil	Cable Oil	Silicone Oil
4.	Relative permittivity 50Hz	4.2–4.3	4.1	4.3–4.6	4.7–5.0
4.	Breakdown strength at 20°C 4.5mm 1 min	12kV/mm	18kV/mm	25kV/mm	35kV/mm
5.	(a) \tan^{TM} 50Hz	10^{-3}	4.5×10^{-4}	2×10^{-3}	10^{-3}
	(b) 1kHz	5×10^{-4}	10^{-4}	10^{-4}	10^{-4}
4.	Resistivity ohm-cm	$10^{12} - 10^{13}$	$10^{13} - 10^{14}$	$10^{12} - 10^{13}$	4.5×10^{14}
5.	Maximum permissible water content (ppm)	50	50	50	<40
6.	Acid value mg/gm of KOH	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
7.	Saponification mg of KOH/gm of oil	0.01	0.01	0.01	<0.01
8.	Specific gravity at 20°C	0.89	0.89	0.93	4.0–4.1

Liquids which are chemically pure, structurally simple and do not contain any impurity even in traces of 1 in 10⁹, are known as *pure liquids*. In contrast, commercial liquids used as insulating liquids are chemically impure and contain mixtures of complex organic molecules. In fact their behaviour is quite erratic. No two samples of oil taken out from the same container will behave identically.

The theory of liquid insulation breakdown is less understood as of today as compared to the gas or even solids. Many aspects of liquid breakdown have been investigated over the last decades but no general theory has been evolved so far to explain the breakdown in liquids. Investigations carried out so far, however, can be classified into two schools of thought. The first one tries to explain the breakdown in liquids on a model which is an extension of gaseous breakdown, based on the avalanche ionization of the atoms caused by electron collision in the applied field. The electrons are assumed to be ejected from the cathode into the liquid by either a field emission or by the field enhanced thermionic effect (Shottky's effect). This breakdown mechanism explains breakdown only of highly pure liquid and does not apply to explain the breakdown mechanism in commercially available liquids. It has been observed that conduction in pure liquids at low electric field (1 kV/cm) is largely ionic due to dissociation of

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impurities and increases linearly with the field strength. At moderately high fields the conduction saturates but at high field (electric), 100 kV/cm the conduction increases more rapidly and thus breakdown takes place. Fig. 4.11 (a) shows the variation of current as a function of electric field for

hexane. This is the condition nearer to breakdown. However, if the figure is redrawn starting with low fields, a current-electric field characteristic as shown in Fig. 4.11 (b) will be obtained. This curve has three distinct regions as discussed above.

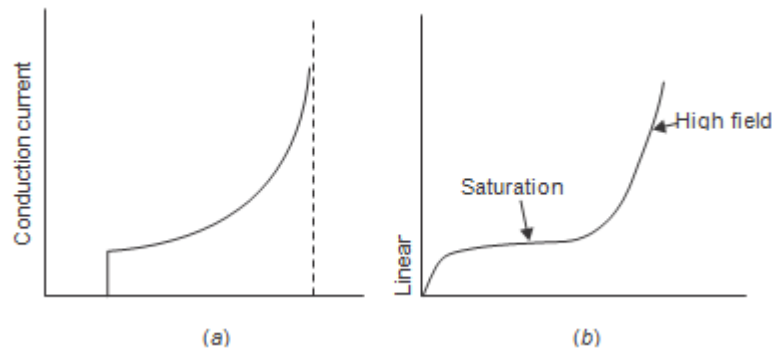


Fig.4.11 Variation of current as a function of electric field

(a) High fields (b) Low fields

The second school of thought recognises that the presence of foreign particles in liquid insulations has a marked effect on the dielectric strength of liquid dielectrics. It has been suggested that the suspended particles are polarizable and are of higher permittivity than the liquid. These particles experience an electrical force directed towards the place of maximum stress. With uniform field electrodes the movement of particles is presumed to be initiated by surface irregularities on the electrodes, which give rise to local field gradients. The particles thus get accumulated and tend to form a bridge across the gap which leads finally to initiation of breakdown. The impurities could also be in the form of gaseous bubbles which obviously have lower dielectric strength than the liquid itself and hence on breakdown of bubble the total breakdown of liquid may be triggered.

Electronic Breakdown

Once an electron is injected into the liquid, it gains energy from the electric field applied between the electrodes. It is presumed that some electrons will gain more energy due to field than they would lose during collision. These electrons are accelerated under the electric field and would gain sufficient energy to knock out an electron and thus initiate the process of avalanche. The threshold condition for the beginning of avalanche is achieved when the energy gained by the electron equals the energy lost during ionization (electron emission) and is

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given by

$$e \lambda E = Chv$$

where λ is the mean free path, h is the energy of ionization and C is a constant. Table 4.3 gives typical values of dielectric strengths of some of the highly purified liquids.

Table 4.5. Dielectric strengths of pure liquids

Liquid	Strength (MV/cm)
Benzene	4.1
Good oil	4.0–4.0
Hexane	4.1–4.3
Nitrogen	4.6–4.88
Oxygen	4.4
Silicon	4.0–4.2

The electronic theory whereas predicts the relative values of dielectric strength satisfactorily, the formative time lags observed are much longer as compared to the ones predicted by the electronic theory.

Suspended Solid Particle Mechanism

Commercial liquids will always contain solid impurities either as fibers or as dispersed solid particles. The permittivity of these solids (ϵ_1) will always be different from that of the liquid (ϵ_2). Let us assume these particles to be sphere of radius r . These particles get polarized in an electric field E and experience a force which is given as

$$F = r^3 \frac{\epsilon_1 - \epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1 + 2\epsilon_2} E \cdot \frac{dE}{dx}$$

and this force is directed towards a place of higher stress if $\epsilon_1 > \epsilon_2$ and towards a place of lower stress

if $\epsilon_1 < \epsilon_2$ when ϵ_1 is the permittivity of gas bubbles. The force given above increases as the permittivity

of the suspended particles (ϵ_1) increases. If $\epsilon_1 \rightarrow \infty$

$$F = r^3 \frac{1 - \epsilon_2 / \epsilon_1}{1 + 2\epsilon_2 / \epsilon_1} E \cdot \frac{dE}{dx}$$

Let $\epsilon_1 \rightarrow \infty$

$$F = r^3 E \cdot \frac{dE}{dx}$$

Thus, the force will tend the particle to move towards the strongest region of the field. In a uniform electric field which usually can be developed by a small sphere gap, the field is the strongest in the uniform field region. Here $dE/dx > 0$ so that the force on the particle is zero and the particle remains in equilibrium. Therefore, the particles will be dragged into the uniform field region. Since the permittivity of the particles is higher than that of the liquid, the presence of particle in the uniform field region will cause flux concentration at its surface. Other particles if present will be attracted towards the higher flux concentration. If the particles present are large, they become aligned due to these forces and form a bridge across the gap. The field in the liquid between the gap will increase and if it reaches critical value, breakdown will take place. If the number of particles is not sufficient to bridge the gap, the particles will give rise to local field enhancement and if the field exceeds the dielectric strength of liquid, local breakdown will occur near the particles and thus will result in the formation of gas bubbles which have much less dielectric strength and hence finally lead to the breakdown of the liquid.

The movement of the particle under the influence of electric field is opposed by the viscous force posed by the liquid and since the particles are moving into the region of high stress, diffusion must also be taken into account. We know that the viscous force is given by (Stoke's relation) $FV = 6\pi\eta r v$ where

η is the viscosity of liquid, r the radius of the particle and v the velocity of the particle.

However, if the diffusion process is included, the drift velocity due to diffusion will be given

$$v_d = - \frac{D}{N} \frac{dN}{dx} = - \frac{KT}{6\pi\eta r} \frac{dN}{N dx}$$

where $D = KT/6\pi\eta r$ is relation known as Stokes-Einstein relation. Here K is Boltzmann's constant and T the absolute temperature. At any instant of time, the particle should have one velocity and, therefore, equation $v = v_d$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} - \frac{KT}{6\pi\eta r} \frac{dN}{N dx} &= \frac{r^2 E}{6\pi\eta} \cdot \frac{dE}{dx} \\ \text{or} \quad \frac{KT}{r} \frac{dN}{N} &= - r^2 E dE \\ \text{or} \quad \frac{KT}{r} \ln N &= - \frac{r^2 E^2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that the breakdown strength E depends upon the concentration of particles N , radius r of particle, viscosity η of liquid and temperature T of the liquid. It has been found that liquid with solid impurities has lower dielectric strength as compared to its pure form. Also, it has been observed that larger the size of the particles impurity the lower the overall dielectric strength of the liquid containing the impurity.

Cavity Breakdown

It has been observed experimentally that the dielectric strength of liquid depends upon the hydrostatic pressure above the gap length. The higher the hydrostatic pressure, the higher the electric strength, which suggests that a change in phase of the liquid is involved in the breakdown process. In fact, smaller the head of liquid, the more are the chances of partially ionized gases coming out of the gap and higher the chances of breakdown. This means a kind of vapour bubble formed is responsible for the breakdown. The following processes might lead to formation of bubbles in the liquids:

- (i) Gas pockets on the surface of electrodes.
- (ii) Due to irregular surface of electrodes, point charge concentration may lead to corona discharge, thus vapourizing the liquid.
- (iii) Changes in temperature and pressure.
- (iv) Dissociation of products by electron collisions giving rise to gaseous products.

It has been suggested that the electric field in a gas bubble which is immersed in a liquid of permittivity ϵ_2 is given by

$$E_b = \frac{3E_0}{\epsilon_2 + 2}$$

Where E_0 is the field in the liquid in absence of the bubble. The bubble under the influence of the electric field E_0 elongates keeping its volume constant. When the field E_b equals the gaseous ionization field, discharge takes place which will lead to decomposition of liquid and breakdown may follow.

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ElectroconvectionBreakdown

It has been recognized that the electroconvection plays an important role in breakdown of insulating fluids subjected to high voltages. When a highly pure insulating liquid is subjected to high voltage, electrical conduction results from charge carriers injected into the liquid from the electrode surface. The resulting space charge gives rise to coulombic forces which under certain conditions causes hydrodynamic instability, yielding convecting current. It has been shown that the onset of instability is associated with a critical voltage. As the applied voltage approaches the critical voltage, the motion at first exhibits a structure of hexagonal cells and as the voltage is increased further the motion becomes turbulent. Thus, interaction between the space charge and the electric field gives rise to forces creating an eddy motion of liquid. It has been shown that when the voltage applied is near to breakdown value, the speed of the eddy motion is given by $v_e = \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_2}}{\rho}$ where ρ is the density of liquid. In liquids, the ionic drift velocity is given by

$$v_d = KE$$

where K is the mobility of ions.

Let
$$M = \frac{v_e}{v_d} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_2}{\rho KE}}$$

The ratio M is usually greater than unity and sometimes much greater than unity (Table 4). Thus, in the theory of electroconvection, M plays a dominant role. The charge transport will be largely by liquid motion rather than by ionic drift. The criterion for instability is that the local flow velocity should be greater than drift velocity.

Medium	Ion	Σ	M
AirNTP	O ⁻ ₂	4.0	4.3×10 ⁻²
Ethanol	Cl ⁻	4.5	26.5
Methanol	H ⁺	35.5	4.1
Nitrobenzene	Cl ⁻	35.5	22
PropyleneCarbonate	Cl ⁻	69	51
TransformerOil	H ⁺	4.3	200

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Example 1 A steady current of $600\mu\text{A}$ flows through the plane electrodes separated by a distance of 0.5cm when a voltage of 10kV is applied. Determine the Townsend's first ionization coefficient if a current of $60\mu\text{A}$ flows when the distance of separation is reduced to 0.1cm and the field is kept constant at the previous value.

Solution: Since the field is kept constant (i.e., if distance of separation is reduced, the voltage is also reduced by the same ratio so that V/d is kept constant).

$$I=I_0 e^{\alpha x}$$

Substituting two different sets of values,

we have $600=I_0 e^{0.5\alpha}$ and $60=I_0 e^{0.1\alpha}$

or $10=e^{0.4\alpha}$ or $0.4\alpha=\ln 10$

$$0.4\alpha=4.3026$$

$$\alpha=5.75 \text{ ionizing collisions/cm.}$$

Example 2 The following table gives two sets of experimental results for studying Townsend's mechanism. The field is kept constant in each set:

<i>I</i> set 30kV/cm Gap distance (mm)	<i>I</i> set V/cm Observed current A	
	<i>I</i> set	<i>I</i> set
0.5	4.5×10^{-13}	6.5×10^{-14}
4.0	5×10^{-13}	4.0×10^{-13}
4.5	8.5×10^{-13}	4×10^{-13}
4.0	4.5×10^{-12}	8×10^{-13}
4.5	5.6×10^{-12}	4.2×10^{-12}
5.0	4.4×10^{-10}	6.5×10^{-12}
5.5	4.4×10^{-10}	6.5×10^{-11}
4.0	4.5×10^{-9}	4.0×10^{-10}
5.0	7.0×10^{-7}	4.2×10^{-8}

The minimum current observed is $6\times 10^{-14}\text{A}$. Determine the values of Townsend's first and second ionization coefficients.

Solution: 1st Set. Since there is gradual increase in current up to gap distance of 3mm , slope between any two points

Let us take gap distances of 2 and 4.5mm .

The respective $\ln I/I_0$ are

$$\ln \frac{4.5\times 10^{-12}}{6\times 10^{-14}}$$

$$\ln \frac{4.5\times 10^{-12}}{6\times 10^{-14}} = 5.21886\times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

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and $\ln \frac{12}{8} = 0.392$

$$6 \times 10^{-14} = 4.5362$$

$$\therefore \text{Theslope} = \frac{4.5362 - 5.2188}{0.05} = 26.34$$

Since there is sudden rise in current at the last observation, this is used to evaluate γ .

We know that

or
$$I = \frac{I_0 e^{\gamma x}}{1 - \gamma(e^{\alpha x} - 1)}$$

or
$$\frac{I}{I_0} = \frac{7}{6} = \frac{e^{26.34 \times 0.5}}{1 - \gamma(e^{0.5} - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{5.24 \times 10^5}{1 - 5.24 \times 10^5 \gamma}$$

or
$$\frac{7}{6} \times 10^7 \frac{1}{5.24 \times 10^5} = \frac{1}{1 - 5.24 \times 10^5 \gamma}$$

or
$$0.0449 = 1 - 5.24 \times 10^5 \gamma$$

or
$$0.9551 = 5.24 \times 10^5 \gamma$$

or
$$\gamma = 0.182 \times 10^{-5} / \text{cm.}$$

Set-II. For the same gap distance the slope will be $\alpha = \ln(12/8)/0.05 = 8.1$ collisions/cm and therefore

$$\frac{I}{I_0} = \frac{2 \times 10^5}{1 - \gamma(e^{8.1 \times 0.05} - 1)}$$

$$2 \times 10^5 = \frac{57.39}{1 - \gamma(56.39)}$$

or
$$\frac{200 \times 10^3}{57.39} = 5.4849 = \frac{1}{1 - 56.39 \gamma}$$

$$4.87 \times 10^{-4} = 1 - 56.39 \gamma$$

$$56.39 \gamma = 4.0$$

or
$$\gamma = 4.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ collisions/cm}$$

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Example 3 The following observations were made in an experiment for determination of dielectric strength of transformer oil. Determine the power law equation.

Gap spacing	4	6	8	10
Breakdown Voltage (kV)	88	135	165	212

Solution: Let us assume that the relation between gap spacing and breakdown voltage be given as

$$V_b = Kd^n$$

Our objective is to find out values of K and n . Substituting values of two observations, we have

$$88 = K \cdot 4^n$$

$$165 = K \cdot 8^n$$

$$\therefore \frac{165}{88} = \frac{8^n}{4^n} = 2^n$$

$$4.875 = 2^n$$

$$0.6286 = n \times 0.693$$

$$\text{or } n = 0.9068$$

$$\text{and } K = \frac{88}{4^{0.9068}} = 25.03$$

Similarly taking 2nd and 4th observation, we have

$$135 = K \cdot 6^n$$

$$212 = K \cdot 10^n$$

$$\text{or } \frac{212}{135} = 4.61^n$$

$$4.57 = 4.61^n$$

Taking \ln on both sides

$$0.4513 = 0.5128 n$$

$$\text{or } n = 0.88$$

$$\text{and } K = \frac{135}{6^{0.88}} = 27.9$$

Therefore, average value of $n \approx 0.89$ and that of $K \approx 26.46$

Ans

Example 4. State and explain Paschen's law. Derive expression for $(pd)_{\min}$ and $V_{b\min}$. Assume $A=12$, $B=365$ and $\gamma=0.02$ for air. Determine $(pd)_{\min}$ and $V_{b\min}$.

Solution: We know that

$$(pd)_{\min} = \frac{ek}{A}$$

where

$$K = \ln(1 + 1/\gamma)$$

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Therefore, $(pd)_{\min} = \frac{e}{A} \ln(1+1/\gamma)$

Substituting the values, we have

$$(pd)_{\min} = \frac{4.718}{12} \ln(1+1/0.02) = 0.89 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Now $V_{bmin} = \frac{B}{A} e K = \frac{365}{12} \times 4.718 \ln 51 = 325 \text{ Volts} \quad \text{Ans.}$

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UNIT- 4

GENERATION OF HIGH DC AND AC VOLTAGES: HV AC-HV transformer; Need for cascade connection and working of transformers units connected in cascade. Series resonant circuit- principle of operation and advantages. Tesla coil. HV DC- voltage doubler circuit, Cockcroft-Walton type high voltage DC set. Calculation of high voltage regulation, ripple and optimum number of stages for minimum voltage drop

8 Hours

There are various applications of high d.c. voltages in industries, research medical sciences etc. HV transmission over both overhead lines and underground cables is becoming more and more popular. HV is used for testing HVAC cables of long lengths as these have very large capacitance and would require very large values of currents if tested on HVAC voltages. Even though D.C. tests on A.C. cables is convenient and economical, these suffer from the fact that the stress distribution within the insulating material is different from the normal operating condition. In industry it is being used for electrostatic precipitation of ashing in thermal power plants, electrostatic painting, cement industry, communication systems etc. HV is also being used extensively in physics for particle acceleration and in medical equipments (X-Rays).

The most efficient method of generating high D.C. voltages is through the process of rectification employing voltage multiplier circuits. Electrostatic generators have also been used for generating high D.C. voltages.

GENERATION OF HIGH A.C. VOLTAGES

Most of the present day transmission and distribution networks are operating on a.c. voltages and hence most of the testing equipments relate to high a.c. voltages. Even though most of the equipments on the system are 3-phase systems, a single phase transformer operating at power frequency is the most common form of HVAC testing equipment.

Need of a Transformers

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transformers normally used for the purpose have low power rating but high voltage ratings. These transformers are mainly used for short time tests on high voltage equipments. The currents required for these tests on various equipments are given below:

Insulators, C.B., bushings, Instrument

transformers = 0.1– 0.5 A Power transformers,

h.v. capacitors. = 0.5–1 A

Cables = 1 A and above

The design of a test transformer is similar to a potential transformer used for the measurement of voltage and power in transmission lines. The flux density chosen is low so that it does not draw large magnetising current which would otherwise saturate the core and produce higher harmonics.

Cascaded Transformers

For voltages higher than 400 KV, it is desired to cascade two or more transformers depending upon the voltage requirements. With this, the weight of the whole unit is subdivided into single units and, therefore, transport and erection becomes easier. Also, with this, the transformer cost for a given voltage may be reduced, since cascaded units need not individually possess the expensive and heavy insulation required in single stage transformers for high voltages exceeding 345 kV. It is found that the cost of insulation for such voltages for a single unit becomes proportional to square of operating voltage.

Fig. 4.9 shows a basic scheme for cascading three transformers. The primary of the first stage transformer is connected to a low voltage supply. A voltage is available across the secondary of this transformer. The tertiary winding (excitation winding) of first stage has the same number of turns as the primary winding, and feeds the primary of the second stage transformer. The potential of the tertiary is fixed to the potential V of the secondary winding as shown in Fig. 4.9. The secondary winding of the second stage transformer is connected in series with the secondary winding of the first stage transformer, so that a voltage of $2V$ is

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available between the ground and the terminal of secondary of the second stage transformer. Similarly, the stage-III transformer is connected in series with the second stage transformer. With this the output voltage between ground and the third stage transformer, secondary is $3V$. it is to be noted that the individual stages except the upper most must have three-winding transformers. The upper most, however, will be a two winding transformer.

Fig. 4.9 shows metal tank construction of transformers and the secondary winding is not divided. Here the low voltage terminal of the secondary winding is connected to the tank. The tank of stage-I transformer is earthed. The tanks of stage-II and stage-III transformers have potentials of V and $2V$, respectively above earth and, therefore, these must be insulated from the earth with suitable solid insulation. Through h.t. bushings, the leads from the tertiary winding and the h.v. winding are brought out to be connected to the next stage transformer.

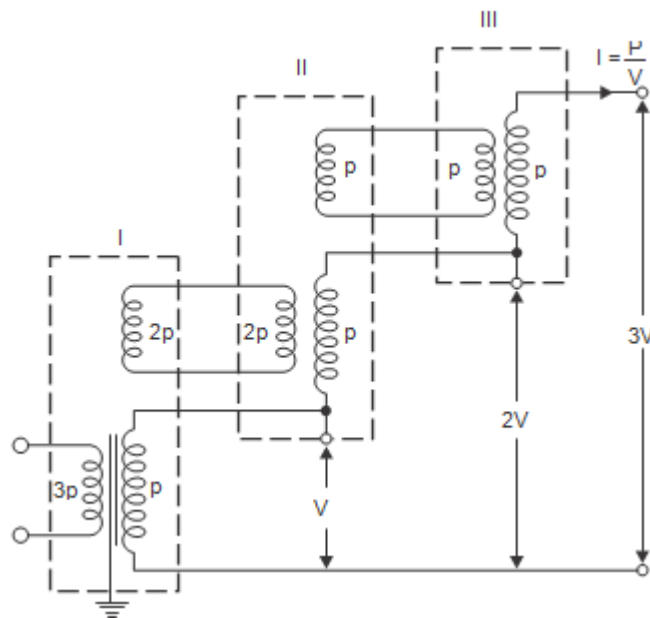


Fig.4.9 Basic 3 stage cascaded transformer

However, if the high voltage windings are of mid-point potential type, the tanks are held at $0.5V$, $4.5V$ and $4.5V$, respectively. This connection results in a cheaper construction and the high voltage insulation now need not be designed for $V/2$ from its tank potential.

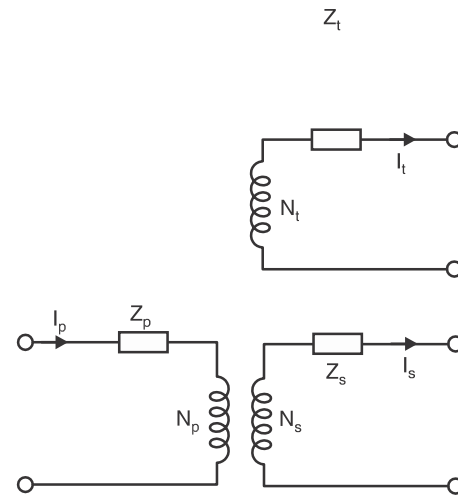
The main disadvantage of cascading the transformers is that the lower stages of the primaries of

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the transformers are loaded more as compared with the upper stages.

The loading of various windings is indicated by P in Fig. 4.9. For the three-stage transformer, the total output VA will be $3VI=3P$ and, therefore, each of the secondary winding of the transformer would carry a current of $I=P/V$. The primary winding of stage-III transformer is loaded with P and so also the tertiary winding of second stage transformer. Therefore, the primary of the second stage transformer would be loaded with $2P$. Extending the same logic, it is found that the first stage primary would be loaded with P . Therefore, while designing the primaries and tertiaries of these transformers,



this factor must be taken into consideration.

4.10 Equivalent circuit of one stage

The total short circuit impedance of a cascaded

transformer from data for individual stages can be obtained. The equivalent circuit of an individual stage is shown in Fig. 4.10.

Here Z_p , Z_s , and Z_t are the impedances associated with each winding. The impedances are shown in series with an ideal 3-winding transformer with corresponding number of turns N_p , N_s and N_t . The impedances are obtained either from calculated or experimentally-derived results of the three short-circuit tests between any two windings taken at a time.

Let Z_{ps} = leakage impedance measured on primary side with secondary short circuited and tertiary open.

Z_{pt} = leakage impedance measured on primary side with tertiary short circuited and secondary open.

Z_{st} = leakage impedance on secondary side with tertiary short circuited and primary open.

If these measured impedances are referred to primary side then

$$Z_{ps} = Z_p + Z_s, Z_{pt} = Z_p + Z_t \quad \text{and} \quad Z_{st} = Z_s + Z_t$$

Solving these equations, we have

$$Z_p = \frac{1}{2}(Z_{ps} + Z_{pt} - Z_{st}), Z_s = \frac{1}{2}(Z_{ps} + Z_{st} - Z_{pt})$$

and

$$Z_t = \frac{1}{2} (Z_{pt} + Z_{st} - Z_{ps}) \quad (4.19)$$

Assuming negligible magnetizing current, the sum of the ampere turns of all the windings must be zero.

$$N_p I_p - N_s I_s - N_t I_t = 0$$

Assuming lossless transformer, we have,

$$Z_p = jX_p, \quad Z_s = jX_s \quad \text{and} \quad Z_t = jX_t$$

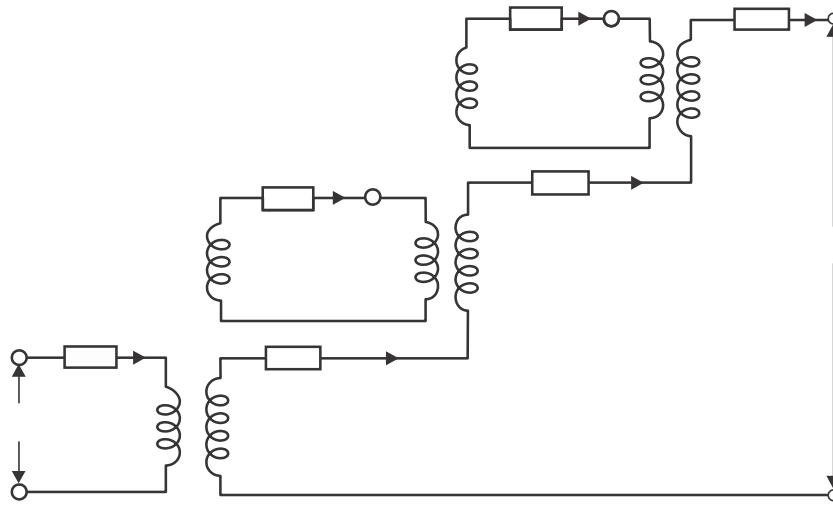


Fig.4.11 Equivalent circuit of 3-stage transformer

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Fig. 4.11 can be further reduced to a very simplified circuit as shown in Fig. 4.14. The resulting short circuit reactance X_{res} is obtained from the condition that

N_p

the power rating of the two circuits be the same. Here currents have been shown corresponding to high voltage side.

$$I^2 X_{res} = (3I)^2 X_p + (2I)^2 X_p + I^2 X_p + I^2 X_s + I^2 X_s + I^2 X_s + (2I)^2 X_t + I^2 X_t$$

$$X_{res} = 14X_p + 3X_s + 5X_t \quad (4.20)$$

instead of $3(X_p + X_s + X_t)$ as might be expected. Equation (4.20) can be generalised for an n -stage transformer as follows:

$$X_{res} = \sum_{i=1}^n [(n-i+1)$$

$$X_{pi} + X_{si} + (i-1)X_{ti}]$$

Where X_{pi} , X_{si} and X_{ti} are the short-circuit reactance of the primary, secondary and tertiary windings of i th transformer.

It has been observed that the impedance of a two-stage transformer is about 3–4 times the impedance of one unit and a three-stage impedance is 8–9 times the impedance of one unit transformer. Hence, in order to have a low impedance of a cascaded transformer, it is desirable that the impedance of individual units should be as small as possible.

SERIES RESONANT CIRCUIT

The equivalent circuit of a single-stage test transformer along with its capacitive load is shown in Fig. 4.15. Here L_1 represents the inductance of the voltage regulator and the transformer primary, L_2 the

S

exciting inductance of the transformer, L_2 the inductance of the transformer secondary and C the capacitance of the load. Normally inductance L is very large as compared to L_1 and L_2 and hence its shunting effect can be neglected. Usually the load capacitance is variable and it is possible that for certain loading, resonance may occur in the circuit suddenly and the current will then only be limited by the resistance of the circuit and the voltage across the test specimen may go up as high as 20 to 40 times the desired value.

Similarly, presence of harmonics due to saturation of iron core of transformer may also result in resonance. Third harmonic frequencies have been found to be quite disastrous.

With series resonance, the resonance is controlled at fundamental frequency and hence no unwanted resonance occurs.

The development of series resonance circuit for testing purpose has been very widely welcomed by the cable industry as they faced resonance problem with test transformer while testing short lengths of cables.

In the initial stages, it was difficult to manufacture continuously variable high voltage and high

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value reactor to be used in the series circuit and therefore, indirect methods to achieve this objective were employed. Fig. 4.16 shows a continuously variable reactor connected in the low voltage winding of the step-up transformer whose secondary is rated for the full test voltage. C_2 represents the load capacitance.

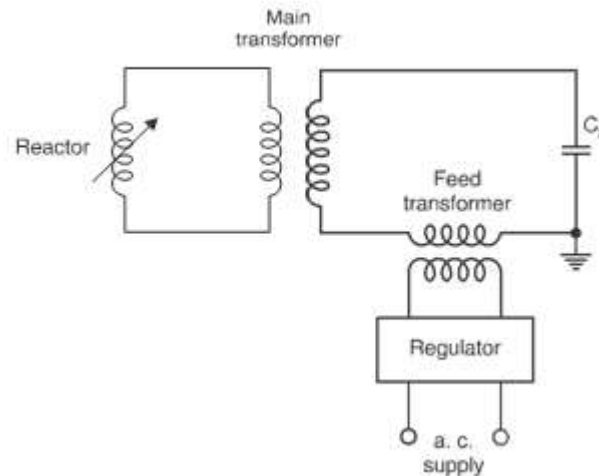


Fig. 4.16 Single transformer/reactor series resonance circuit

If N is the transformation ratio and L is the inductance on the low voltage side of the transformer, then it is reflected with $N^2 L$ value on the secondary side (load side) of the transformer. For certain setting of the reactor, the inductive reactance may equal the capacitive reactance of the circuit, hence resonance will take place. Thus, the reactive power requirement of the supply becomes zero and it has to supply only the losses of the circuit. However, the transformer has to carry the full load current on the high voltage side. This is a disadvantage of the method. The inductor is redesigned for high quality factors $Q = \omega L/R$. The feed transformer, therefore, injects the losses of the circuit only.

It has now been possible to manufacture high voltage continuously variable reactors 300 kV per unit using a new technique with split iron core. With this, the testing step-up transformer can be omitted as shown in Fig. 4.17. The inductance of these inductors can be varied over a wider range depending upon the capacitance of the load to produce resonance.

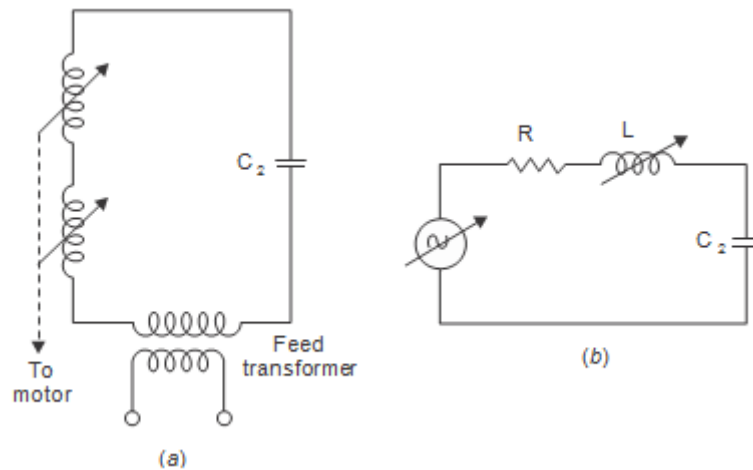


Fig.4.17(a) Series resonance circuit with variable h.t. reactors (b) Equivalent circuit of (a)

Fig.4.17(b) represents an equivalent circuit for series resonance circuit. Here R is usually of low value. After the resonance condition is achieved, the output voltage can be increased by increasing the input voltage. The feed transformers are rated for nominal current ratings of the reactor.

Under resonance, the output voltage will be

$$V_0 = \frac{V}{R\omega C_2}$$

Where V is the supply voltage.

Since at resonance

$$\omega L = \frac{1}{\omega C_2}$$

Therefore
$$V_0 = \frac{V}{R} \omega L = VQ$$

where Q is the quality factor of the inductor which usually varies between 40 and 80. This means that with $Q=40$, the output voltage is 40 times the supply voltage. It also means that the reactive power requirements of the load capacitance in kVA is 40 times the power to be provided by the feed transformer in kW. This results in a relatively small power rating for the feed transformer.

The following are the advantages of series resonance circuit.

- (i) The power requirements in kW of the feed circuit are $(kVA)/Q$ where kVA is the reactive power requirements of the load and Q is the quality factor of variable reactor usually greater than 40. Hence, the requirement is very small.

- (ii) The series resonance circuit suppresses harmonics and interference to a large extent. The near sinusoidal wave helps accurate partial discharge of measurements and is also desirable for measuring loss angle and capacitance of insulating materials using Schering Bridge.
- (iii) In case of a flashover or breakdown of a test specimen during testing on high voltage side, the resonant circuit is detuned and the test voltage collapses immediately. The short circuit current is limited by the reactance of the variable reactor. It has proved to be of great value as the weak part of the insulation of the specimen does not get destroyed. In fact, since the arc flashover has very small energy, it is easy to observe where exactly the flashover is occurring by delaying the tripping of supply and allowing the recurrence of flashover.
- (iv) No separate compensating reactors (just as we have in case of test transformers) are required. This results in a lower overall weight.
- (v) When testing SF_6 switchgear, multiple breakdowns do not result in high transients. Hence, no special protection against transients is required.
- (vi) Series or parallel connection of several units is not at all a problem. Any number of units can be connected in series without bothering for the impedance problem which is very severely associated with a cascaded test transformer. In case the test specimen requires large current for testing, units may be connected in parallel without any problem.

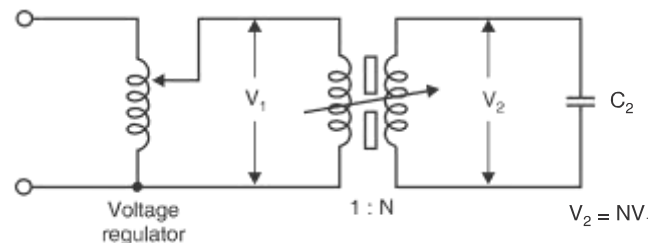


Fig.4.18 Parallel resonant system

Fig. 4.18 shows schematic of a typical parallel resonant system. Here the variable reactor is incorporated into the high voltage transformer by introducing a variable air gap in the core of the transformer. With this connection, variation in load capacitance and losses cause variation in input current only. The output voltage remains practically constant. Within the unit of single staged design, the parallel resonant method offers optimum testing performance.

In an attempt to take advantage of both the methods of connections, *i.e.*, series and parallel resonant systems, a third system employing series parallel connections was tried. This is basically a modification of a series resonant system to provide most of the characteristics of the parallel system. Fig.4.19. shows a schematic of a typical series parallel method.

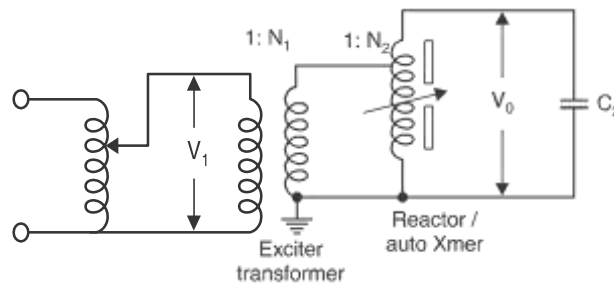


Fig.4.19 Series-parallel resonant system

Here the output voltage is achieved by autotransformer action and parallel compensation is achieved by the connection of the reactor. It has been observed that during the process of tuning for most of the loads, there is a certain gap opening that will result in the parallel connected test system going into uncontrolled overvoltage of the test sample and if the test set is allowed to operate for a long time, excessive heating and damage to the reactor would result.

Also, it has been observed experimentally that complete balance of amperes return takes place when the system operates under parallel resonance condition. Under all other settings of the variable reactor, an unbalance in the amperes returns will force a large leakage flux into the surrounding metallic tank and clamping structure which will cause large circulating currents resulting in hot spots which will affect adversely the dielectric strength of oil in the tank.

In view of the above considerations, it has been recommended not to go in for series-parallel resonant mode of operation for testing purpose. If a single stage system up to 300 kV using the resonance test voltage is required, parallel resonant system must be adopted. For test voltage exceeding 300 kV, the series resonant method is strongly recommended.

The specific weight of a cascaded test transformer varies between 10 and 20 kg/kVA whereas for a series resonant circuit with variable high voltage reactors it lies between 3 and 6 kg/kVA.

With the development of static frequency converter, it has now been possible to reduce the specific weight still further. In order to obtain resonance in the circuit a choke of constant magnitude can be used and as the load capacitance changes the source frequency should be changed. Fig.4.20 shows a schematic diagram of a series resonant circuit with variable frequency source.

The frequency converter supplies the

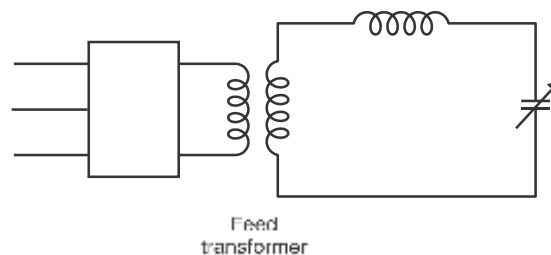


Fig.4.20 Schematic diagram of series resonant circuit with variable frequency sources

losses of the testing circuit only which are usually of the order of 3% of the reactive power of the load capacitor as the chokes can be designed for very high quality factors.

A word of caution is very important, here in regard to testing of test specimen having large capacitance. With a fixed reactance, the frequency for resonance will be small as compared to normal

frequency. If the voltage applied is taken as the normal voltage, the core of the feed transformer will get saturated as V/f then becomes large and the flux in the core will be large. So, as a suitable voltage must be applied to avoid this situation.

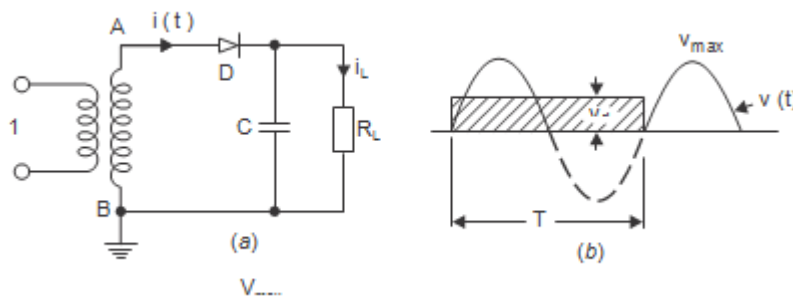
With the static frequency converter circuits, the specific weight has come down to 0.5 kg/kVA. It is to be noted that whereas the series resonant systems are quite popular for testing cables and highly loss-free capacitive loads, cascaded transformers are more common in high voltage laboratories for testing equipment in MV range and also for relatively high loads.

HALF-WAVE RECTIFIER AND VOLTAGE Doubler CIRCUIT

The simplest circuit for generation of high direct voltage is the half-wave rectifier shown in Fig. 4.1

Here R_L is the load resistance and C the capacitance to smooth the d.c. output voltage.

If the capacitor is not connected, pulsating d.c. voltage is obtained at the output terminals whereas with the capacitance C , the pulsation at the output terminals are reduced. Assuming the ideal transformer and small internal resistance of the diode during conduction, the capacitor C is charged to the maximum voltage V_{max} during conduction of the diode D . Assuming that there is no load connected, the d.c. voltage across the capacitor remains constant at V_{max} whereas the supply voltage oscillates between $\pm V_{max}$ and during negative half cycle the potential of point A becomes $-V_{max}$ and hence the diode must be rated for $2V_{max}$. This would also be the case if the transformer is grounded at A instead of B as shown in Fig. 4.1(a). Such a circuit is known as *voltage doubler* due to Villard for which the output voltage would be taken across D . This d.c. voltage, however, oscillates between zero and $2V_{max}$ and is needed for the Cascaded circuit.



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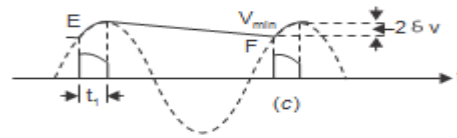


Fig.4.1(a)Single Phaserectifier(b)OutputvoltagewithoutC (c)OutputvoltagewithC

If the circuit is loaded, the output voltage does not remain constant at V_{max} . After point E (Fig. 4.1(c)), the supply voltage becomes less than the capacitor voltage, diode stops conducting. The capacitor cannot discharge back into the a.c. system because of one-way action of the diode. Instead, the current now flows out of C to furnish the current i_L through the load. While giving up this energy, the capacitor voltage also decreases at a rate depending on the time constant CR of the circuit and it reaches the point F corresponding to V_{min} . Beyond F , the supply voltage is greater than the capacitor voltage and hence the diode D starts conducting charging the capacitor C again to V_{max} and also during this period it supplies current to the load also. This second pulse of $i_p (i_c + i_L)$ is of shorter duration than the initial charging pulse as it serves mainly to restore into C the energy that C meanwhile had supplied to load. Thus, while each pulse of diode current lasts much less than a half cycle, the load receives current more continuously from C .

Assuming the charges supplied by the transformer to the load during the conduction period t , which is very small to be negligible, the charge supplied by the transformer to the capacitor during conduction equals the charges supplied by the capacitor to the load. Note that $i_c > i_L$. During one period $T = 1/f$ of the a.c. voltage, a charge Q is transferred to the load R_L and is given as

$$Q = \int_T i_L dt = \int_T \frac{V_{RL}}{R_L} dt = IT = \frac{I}{f}$$

where I is the mean value of the d.c. output $i_L(t)$ and $V_{RL}(t)$ the d.c. voltage which includes a ripple as shown in Fig. 4.1(c).

This charge is supplied by the capacitor over the period T when the voltage changes from V_{max} to V_{min} over approximately period T neglecting the conduction period of the diode.

Suppose at any time the voltage of the capacitor is V and it decreases by an amount of dV over the time dt then the charge delivered by the capacitor during this time is

$$dQ = CdV$$

Therefore, if voltage changes from V_{max} to V_{min} , the charge delivered by the capacitor

$$\int_{V_{max}}^{V_{min}} dQ = \int_{V_{max}}^{V_{min}} C dV = -C(V_{max} - V_{min})$$

Or the magnitude of charge delivered by the capacitor

$$Q = C(V_{max} - V_{min}) \quad (4.3)$$

Using equation (4.2)

$$Q = 2\delta VC \quad (4.4)$$

Therefore, $2\delta VC = IT$

or
$$\delta V = \frac{IT}{2C} = \frac{I}{2fC}$$

Equation (4.5) shows that the ripple in a rectifier output depends upon the load current and the circuit parameter like f and C . The product fC is, therefore, an important design factor for the rectifiers. The higher the frequency of supply and larger the value of filtering capacitor the smaller will be the ripple in the d.c. output.

The single phase half-wave rectifier circuits have the following disadvantages:

- (i) The size of the circuit is very large if high and pure d.c. output voltages are desired.
- (ii) The h.t. transformer may get saturated if the amplitude of direct current is comparable with the nominal alternating current of the transformer.

It is to be noted that all the circuits considered here are able to supply relatively low currents and therefore are not suitable for high current applications such as HV transmission.

When high d.c. voltages are to be generated, **voltage doubler** or cascaded voltage multiplier circuits are used. One of the most popular doubler circuit due to Greinacher is shown in Fig. 4.4.

Suppose B is more positive with respect to A and the diode D_1 conducts thus charging the capacitor C_1 to V_{max} with polarity as shown in Fig. 4.4. During the next half cycle terminal A of the capacitor C_1 rises to V_{max} and hence terminal M attains a potential of $2V_{max}$. Thus, the capacitor C_2 is charged to $2V_{max}$ through D_2 . Normally the voltage across the load will be less than $2V_{max}$ depending upon the time constant of the circuit $C_2 R_L$.

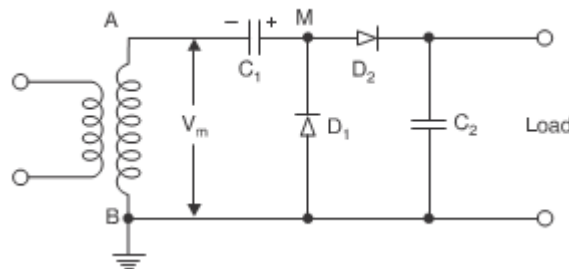


Fig. 4.2 Greinacher voltage doubler circuit

COCKROFT-WALTON VOLTAGE MULTIPLIER CIRCUIT

In 1932, Cockroft and Walton suggested an improvement over the circuit developed by Greinacher for producing high D.C. voltages. Fig. 4.5 shows a multistage single phase cascade circuit of the Cockroft-Walton type.

No Load Operation: The portion ABM'MA is exactly identical to Greinacher voltage doubler circuit and the voltage across C becomes $2V_{max}$ when M attains a voltage $2V_{max}$.

During the next half cycle when B becomes positive with respect to A , potential of M falls and, therefore, potential of N also falls becoming less than potential at M' hence C_2 is charged through D_4 . Next half cycle A becomes more positive and potential of M and N rises thus charging C'_2 through D'_4 . Finally all the capacitors $C'_1, C'_2, C'_3, C_1, C_2$,

and C_3 are recharged. The voltage across the column of capacitors consisting of C_1, C_2, C_3 , keeps on oscillating as the supply voltage alternates. This column, therefore, is known as *oscillating column*. However, the voltage across the capacitances C'_1, C'_2, C'_3 , remains constant and is known as *smoothing column*. The voltages at M', N' , and O' are $2V_{max}, 4V_{max}$ and $6V_{max}$. Therefore, voltage across all the capacitors is $2V_{max}$ except for C_1 where it is V_{max} only. The total output voltage is $2nV_{max}$ where n is the number of stages. Thus, the

use of multistages arranged in the manners shown enables very high voltage to be obtained. The equal stress of the elements (both capacitors and diodes) used is very helpful and promotes a modular design of such generators.

Generator Loaded: When the generator is loaded, the output voltage will never reach the value $2nV_{max}$. Also, the output wave will consist of ripples on the voltage. Thus, we have to deal with two quantities, the voltage drop ΔV and the ripple δV .

Suppose each charge q is transferred to the load per cycle. This charge is $q = I/f = IT$. The charge comes from the smoothing column, the series connection of C'_1, C'_2, C'_3 . If no charge were retransferred during T from this stack via D_1, D_2, D_3 , to the oscillating column, the peak to peak ripple would merely be

$$2\delta V = IT \sum_{n=0}^n \frac{1}{C'_i} \quad (4.6)$$

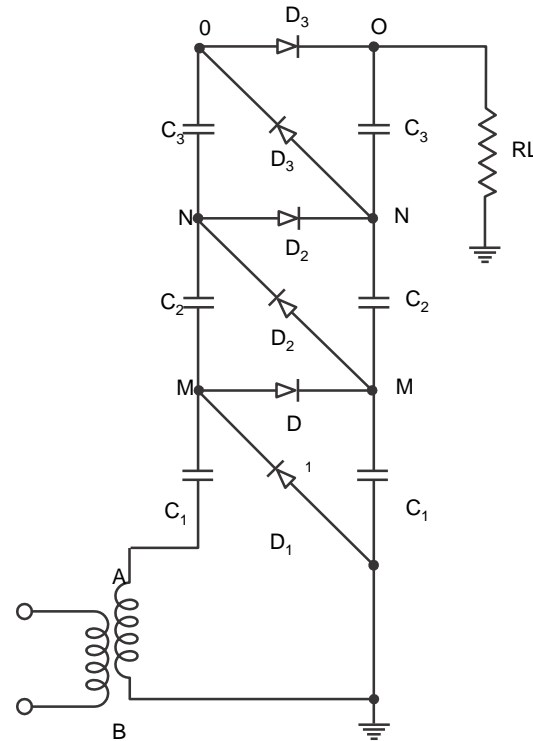


Fig. 4.3

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But in practice charges are retransferred. The process is explained with the help of circuits in Fig. 4.4(a) and (b). Fig. 4.4(a) shows arrangement when point A is more positive with reference to B and charging of smoothing column takes place and Fig. 4.4(b) shows the arrangement when in the next half cycle B becomes positive with reference to A and charging of oscillating column takes place. Referto Fig. 4.4 (a). Say the potential of point O' is now $6 V_{max}$. This discharges through the load resistance and say the charge lost is $q = IT$ over the cycle. This must be regained during the charging cycle (Fig. 4.4(a)) for stable operation of the generator. C_3 is, therefore supplied a charge q from C_5 . For this C_2 must acquire a charge of $2q$ so that it can supply q charge to the load and q to C_3 , in the next half cycle termed by Cockroft and Walton as the transfer cycle (Fig. 4.4(b)). Similarly C'_1 must acquire for stability reasons a charge $3q$ so that it can supply a charge q to the load and $2q$ to the capacitor C_2 in the next half cycle (transfer half cycle).

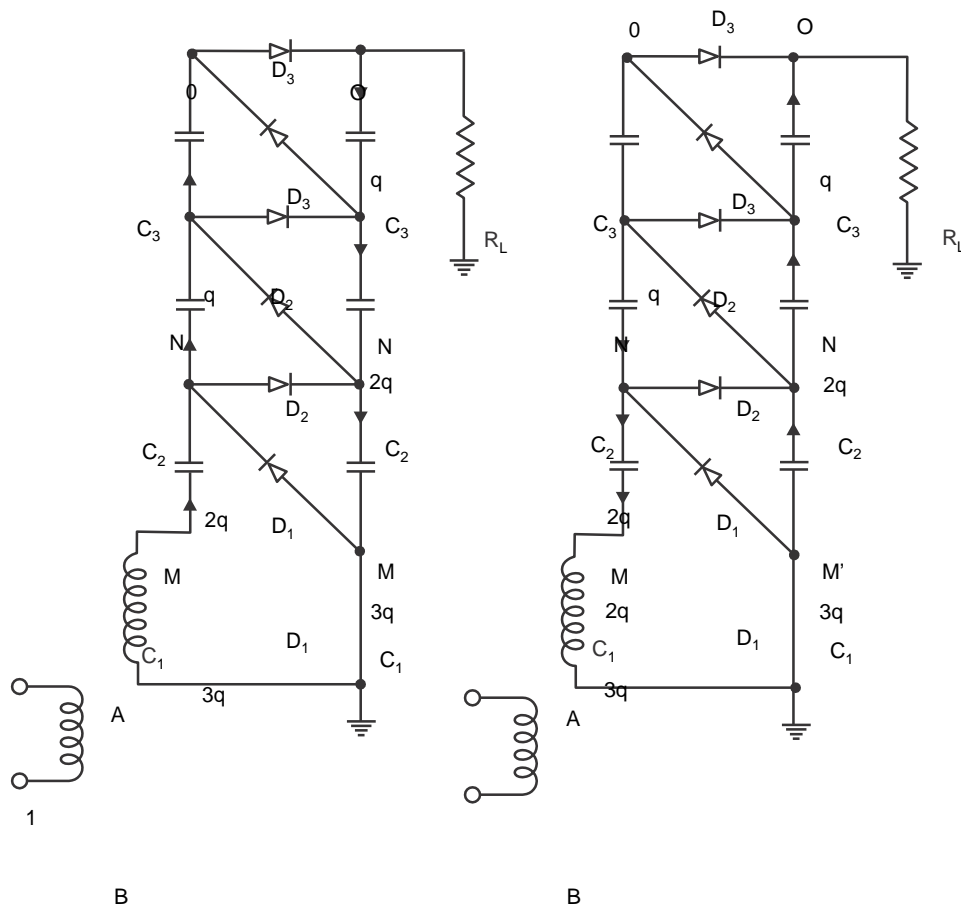


Fig.4.4(a)Charging ofsmoothingColumn(b)Chargingofoscillatingcolumn

DuringthetransfercycleshowninFig.4.4(b),thediodes D_1, D_2, D_3 ,conductwhenBispositive withreferencetoA.Here C'_2 transfers q charge to C_3 , C_1 transfers charge $2q$ to C_2 andthetransformer provideschange $3q$.

Forn-stagecircuit,thetotalripplewillbe

$$2\delta V = \frac{I}{f} \left(\frac{1}{C'_n} + \frac{2}{C'_{n-1}} + \frac{3}{C'_{n-2}} + \dots + \frac{n}{C'_1} \right)$$

or

$$\delta V = \frac{I}{2f} \left(\frac{1}{C'_n} + \frac{2}{C'_{n-1}} + \frac{3}{C'_{n-2}} + \dots + \frac{n}{C'_1} \right) \quad (4.7)$$

Fromequation(4.7),itisclearthatinamultistagecircuitthelowestcapacitorsareresponsibleformost ripple and it is, therefore, desirable to increase the capacitance in the lower stages. However, this is objectionablefromtheviewpointofHighVoltageCircuitwhereif theloadislargeandtheloadvoltage

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goes down, the smaller capacitors (within the column) would be overstressed. Therefore, capacitors of equal value are used in practical circuits i.e., $C'_n = C'_{n-1} = \dots C'_1 = C$ and the ripple is given as

$$\delta V = \frac{I}{2fC} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{In(n+1)}{4fC} \quad (4.8)$$

The second quantity to be evaluated is the voltage drop ΔV which is the difference between the theoretical no-load voltage $2nV_{max}$ and the on-load voltage. In order to obtain the voltage drop ΔV refer to Fig. 4.4(a).

Here C'_1 is not charged up to full voltage $2V_{max}$ but only to $2V_{max} - 3q/C$ because of the charge given up through C_1 in one cycle which gives a voltage drop of $3q/C = 3I/fC$

The voltage drop in the transformer is assumed to be negligible. Thus, C'_2 is charged to the voltage

$$2V_{max} - \frac{3I}{fC}$$

since the reduction in voltage across C'_3 again is $3I/fC$. Therefore, C'_2 attains the voltage

$$2V_{max} - \frac{3I + 3I + 2I}{fC}$$

In a three-stage generator

$$\Delta V_1 = \frac{3I}{fC}$$

$$\Delta V_2 = \frac{2 \times 3 + 3 - 1}{fC} I = \frac{I}{fC}$$

$$\Delta V_3 = \frac{(2 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 1)}{fC} I = \frac{I}{fC}$$

In general for an n -stage generator

$$\Delta V_n = \frac{nI}{fC}$$

$$\Delta V_{n-1} = \frac{I}{fC} \{2n + (n-1)\}$$

$$\Delta V_{n-2} = \frac{I}{fC} \{2n + 2(n-1) + (n-2)\}$$

⋮

$$\Delta V_1 = \frac{I}{fC} \{2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 1\}$$

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$$\Delta V = \Delta V_n + \Delta V_{n-1} + \dots + \Delta V_1$$

After omitting I/fC , the series can be rewritten as:

$$\begin{aligned} T_n &= n \\ T_{n-1} &= 2n + (n-1) \\ T_{n-2} &= 2n + 2(n-1) + (n-2) \\ T_{n-3} &= 2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + (n-3) \\ &\vdots \\ T_1 &= 2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 1 \\ T &= T_n + T_{n-1} + T_{n-2} + \dots + T_1 \end{aligned}$$

To sum up we add the last term of all the terms (T_n through T_1) and again add the last term of the remaining term and so on, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} &[n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 2 + 1] \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 2] \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + \dots + 2 \times 4 + 2 \times 3] \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + \dots + 2 \times 4] \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 5] + \dots [2n] \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging the above terms we have

$$\begin{aligned} &n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 2 + 1 \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 2 + 2 \times 1] - 2 \times 1 \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 2 \times 1] - 2 \times 2 - 2 \times 1 \\ &+ [2n + 2(n-1) + 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 4 + 2 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 2 \times 1] \\ &- 2 \times 3 - 2 \times 2 - 2 \times 1 \\ &\vdots \\ &[2 \times n + 2(n-1) + \dots + 2 \times 2 + 2 \times 1] - [2(n-1)] \\ &+ 2(n-2) + \dots + 2 \times 2 + 2 \times 1 \end{aligned}$$

(b)

or

$$n + (n-1) + (n-2) + \dots + 2 + 1$$

Plus $(n-1)$ number of terms of $2[n + (n-1) + \dots + 2 + 1]$

minus $2[1 + (1+2) + (1+2+3) + \dots + \{1+2+3+\dots+(n-1)\}]$

The last term (minus term) is rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} &2[1 + (1+2) + \dots + \{1+2+3+\dots+(n-1)\} + \{1+2+\dots+n\}] \\ &- 2[1+2+3+\dots+n] \end{aligned}$$

The n th term of the first part of the above series is given as

$$t_n = \frac{2n(n+1)}{2} = (n^2 + n)$$

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Therefore, the above terms are equal to

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum (n^2 + n) - 2 \sum n \\ &= \sum (n^2 - n) \end{aligned}$$

Taking once again all the terms we have

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \sum n + 2(n-1) \sum n - \sum (n^2 - n) \\ &= 2n \sum n - \sum n^2 \\ &= 2n \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\ &= \frac{6(n^3 + n^2) - n(2n^2 + 3n + 1)}{6} \\ &= \frac{6n^3 + 6n^2 - 2n^3 - 3n^2 - n}{6} \\ &= \frac{4n^3 + 3n^2 - n}{6} = \frac{2}{3}n^3 + \frac{n}{2} - \frac{n^2}{6} \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

Here again the lowest capacitors contribute most to the voltage drop ΔV and so it is advantageous to increase their capacitance in suitable steps. However, only a doubling of C_1 is convenient as this capacitor has to withstand only half of the voltage of other capacitors. Therefore, ΔV_1 decreases by an amount nI/fC which reduces ΔV of every stage by the same amount *i.e.*, by

$$n \cdot \frac{nI}{2fC}$$

Hence
$$\Delta V = \frac{I}{fC} \left[\frac{2}{3}n^3 - \frac{n}{2} \right] \quad (4.10)$$

If $n \geq 4$ we find that the linear term can be neglected and, therefore, the voltage drop can be approximated to

$$\Delta V \approx \frac{I}{fC} \cdot \frac{2}{3}n^3 \quad (4.11)$$

The maximum output voltage is given by

$$V_{0max} = 2nV_{max} - \frac{I}{fC} \cdot \frac{2}{3}n^3 \quad (4.12)$$

From (4.12) it is clear that for a given number of stages, a given frequency and capacitance of each stage, the output voltage decreases linearly with load current I . For a given load, however, $V_0 = (V_{0max} - V)$ may rise initially with the number of stages n , and reaches a maximum value but decays

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beyond optimum number of stage. The optimum number of stages assuming a constant V_{max} , I , f and C can be obtained for maximum value of V_{0max} by differentiating equation (4.12) with respect to n and equating it to zero.

$$\frac{dV_{max}}{dn} = 2V_{max} - \frac{2}{3} \frac{I}{fC} n^2 = 0$$

$$= V_{max} - \frac{I}{3fC} n^2 = 0$$

or

$$n_{opt} = \sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} \quad (4.13)$$

Substituting n_{opt} in equation (4.12) we have

$$(V_{0max})_{max} = \sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} \left[2V_{max} - \frac{2}{3} \frac{I}{fC} \left(\sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} \right)^2 \right]$$

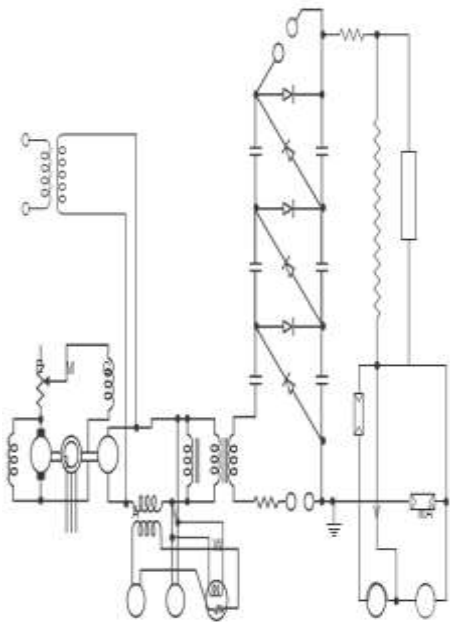
$$= \sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} \left[2V_{max} - \frac{2}{3} V_{max} \right]$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} \cdot \frac{4}{3} V_{max} \quad (4.14)$$

It is to be noted that in general it is more economical to use high frequency and smaller value of capacitance to reduce the ripples or the voltage drop rather than low frequency and high capacitance.

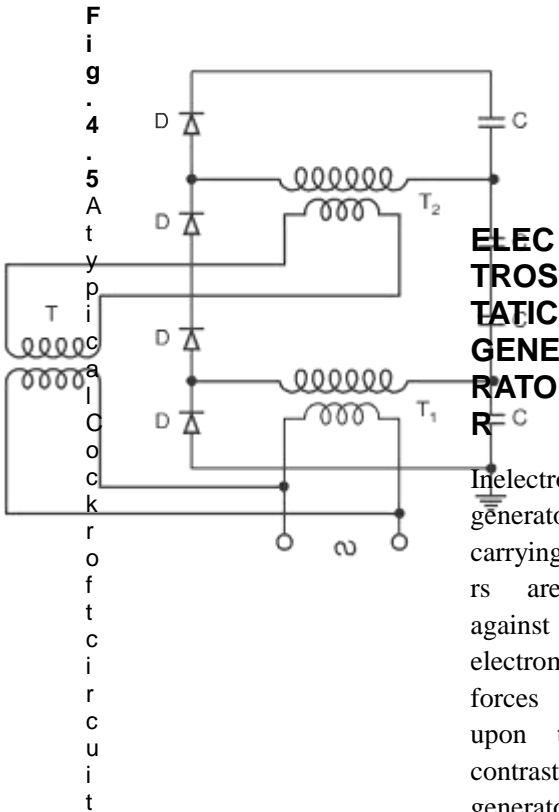
Cascaded generators of Cockcroft-Walton type are used and manufactured world wide these days. A typical circuit is shown in Fig. 4.5. In general a direct current upto 20 mA is required for high voltages between 1 MV and 2 MV. In case where a high value of current is required, symmetrical cascaded rectifiers have been developed. These consist of mainly two rectifiers in cascade with a common smoothing column. The symmetrical cascaded rectifier has a small voltage drop and also a smaller voltage ripple than the simple cascade. The alternating current input to the individual circuits must be provided at the appropriate high potential; this can be done by means of isolating transformer. Fig. 4.6

shows a typical cascaded rectifier circuit. Each stage consists of one transformer which feeds two half wave rectifiers.



Energy is converted into electric energy directly. The electric charges are moved against the force of electric fields, thereby higher potential energy is gained at the cost of mechanical energy.

The basic principle of operation is explained with the help of Fig. 4.7.



In electrostatic generators, current carrying conductors are moved against the electromagnetic forces acting upon them. In contrast to the generator, electrostatic generators convert mechanical

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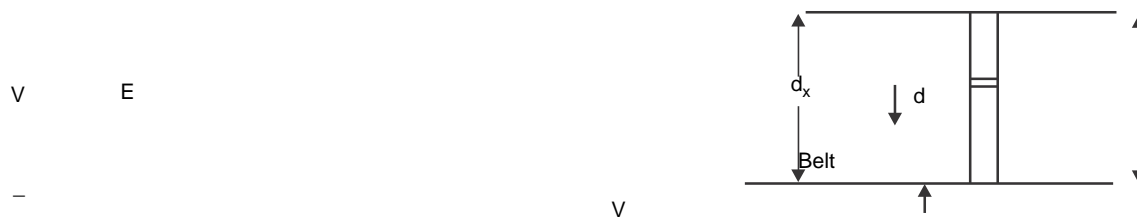


Fig.4.7

An insulated belt is moving with uniform velocity v in an electric field of strength $E(x)$. Suppose the width of the belt is b and the charged density σ consider a length dx of the belt, the charge $dq = \sigma b dx$.

The force experienced by this charge (or the force experienced by the belt).

$$dF = Edq = E\sigma b dx$$

or

$$F = \sigma b \int E dx$$

Normally the electric field is uniform

$$\therefore F = \sigma b V$$

The power required to move the belt

$$= \text{Force} \times \text{Velocity}$$

$$= Fv = \sigma b V v$$

$$(4.15)$$

Now current

$$I = \frac{dq}{dt} = \sigma b \frac{dx}{dt} = \sigma b v$$

$$(4.16)$$

\therefore The power required to move the belt

$$P = Fv = \sigma b V v = VI$$

$$(4.17)$$

Assuming no losses, the power output is also equal to VI .

Fig.4.8 shows belt driven electrostatic generator developed by Van de Graaff in 1934. An insulating belt is run over pulleys. The belt, the width of which may vary from a few cm to metres is driven at a speed of about 15 to 30 m/sec, by means of a motor connected to the lower pulley. The belt near the pulley is charged electrostatically by an excitation arrangement. The lower charges spray unit consists of a number of needles connected to the controllable d.c. source (10 kV–100 kV) so that the discharge between the points and the belt is maintained. The charge is conveyed to the upper end where it is collected from the belt by discharging points connected to the inside of an insulated metal electrode through which the belt passes. The entire equipment is enclosed in an earthed metal tank filled with insulating gases of good dielectric strength viz. SF_6 etc. So that the potential of the electrode could be raised to relatively high voltage without corona discharge or for a certain voltage a smaller size of the equipment

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will result. Also, the shape of the h.t., electrodes should be such that the surface gradient of electric field is made uniform to reduce again corona discharges, even though it is desirable to avoid corona entirely. An isolated sphere is the most favourable electrode shape and will maintain a uniform field E with a voltage of Er where r is the radius of the sphere.

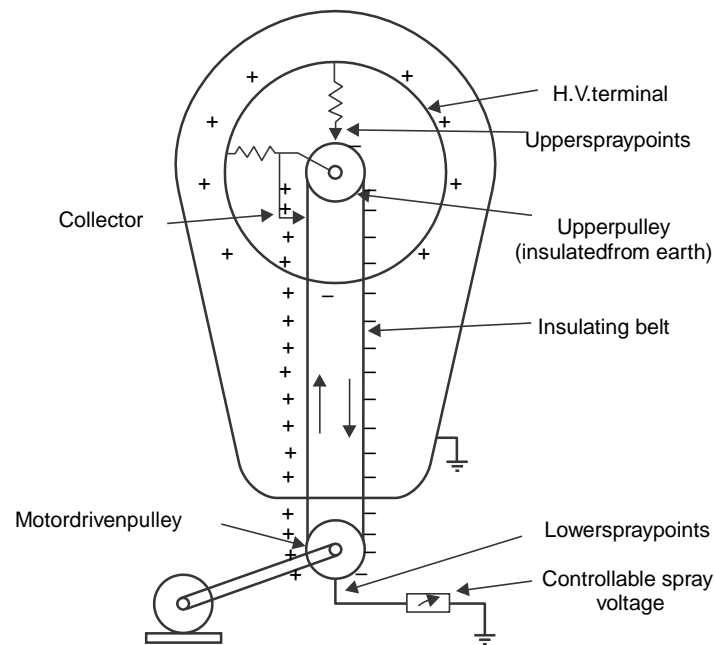


Fig.4.8 Van de Graaff generator

As the h.t. electrode collects charges its potential rises. The potential at any instant is given as $V = q/C$ where q is the charge collected at that instant. It appears as though if the charge were collected for a long time any amount of voltage could be generated. However, as the potential of the electrode rises, the field set up by the electrode increases and that may ionise the surrounding medium and, therefore, this would be the limiting value of the voltage. In practice, equilibrium is established at a terminal voltage which is such that the charging current

$$I = C \frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt}$$

equals the discharge current which will include the load current and the leakage and corona loss currents. The moving belt system also distorts the electric field and, therefore, it is placed within properly shaped

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field grading rings. The grading is provided by resistors and additional corona discharge elements.

The collector needle system is placed near the point where the belt enters the h.t. terminal. A second point system excited by a self-inducing arrangement enables the downgoing belt to be charged to the polarity opposite to that of the terminal and thus the rate of charging of the latter, for a given speed, is doubled. This self-inducing arrangement requires insulating the upper pulley and maintaining it at a potential higher than that of the h.t. terminal by connecting the pulley to the collector needle

system. The arrangement also consists of a row of points (shown as upper spray points in Fig. 4.8) connected to the inside of the h.t. terminal and directed towards the pulley above its point of entry into the terminal. As the pulley is at a higher potential (positive), the negative charges due to corona discharge at the upper spray points are collected by the belt. This neutralises any remaining positive charge on the belt and leaves an excess of negative charges on the downgoing belt to be neutralised by the lower spray points. Since these negative charges leave the h.t. terminal, the potential of the h.t. terminal is raised by the corresponding amount.

In order to have a rough estimate of the current supplied by the generator, let us assume that the electric field E is normal to the belt and is homogeneous.

We know that $D = \epsilon_0 E$ where D is the flux density and since the medium surrounding the h.t. terminal is air $\epsilon_r = 1$ and $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/metre}$.

According to Gauss law, $D = \sigma$ the surface charge density.

$$\text{Therefore, } D = \sigma = \epsilon_0 E \quad (4.18)$$

$$\text{Assuming } E = 30 \text{ kV/cm} \quad \text{or} \quad 30,000 \text{ kV/m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &= 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \times 30,000 \times 10^3 \\ &= 26.562 \times 10^{-6} \text{ C/m}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Assuming for a typical system $b = 1$ metre and velocity of the belt $v = 10 \text{ m/sec}$, and using equation (4.16), the current supplied by the generator is given as

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \sigma b v \\ &= 26.562 \times 10^{-6} \times 1 \times 10 \\ &= 26.562 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Amp} \\ &= 265 \mu\text{A} \end{aligned}$$

From equation (4.16) it is clear that current I depends upon σ , b and v . The belt width (b) and velocity v being

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limited by mechanical reasons, the current can be increased by having higher value of σ . σ can be increased by using gases of higher dielectric strength so that electric field intensity E could be increased without the inception of ionisation of the medium surrounding the h.t. terminal. However, with all these arrangements, the actual short circuit currents are limited only to a few mA even for large generators.

.

The advantages of the generator are:

- (i) Very high voltages can be easily generated
- (ii) Ripple free output
- (iii) Precision and flexibility of control

The disadvantages are:

- (i) Low current output
- (ii) Limitations on belt velocity due to its tendency for vibration. The vibrations may make it difficult to have an accurate grading of electric fields

These generators are used in nuclear physics laboratories for particle acceleration and other processes in research work.

Example 1. A ten stage Cockraft-Walton circuit has all capacitors of $0.06\mu\text{F}$. The secondary voltage of the supply transformer is 100kV at frequency of 150Hz . If the load current is 1mA , determine (i) voltage regulation (ii) the ripple (iii) the optimum number of stages for maximum output voltage (iv) the maximum output voltage.

Solution: Given $C=0.06\mu\text{F}$, $I=1\text{mA}$, $f=150\text{Hz}$

$$n=10$$

$$\text{Voltage drop } V = \frac{I}{fC} \left[\frac{F_2}{3} n^3 + \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{nI}{6} \right] = \frac{I}{fC} \left[\frac{F_2}{3} n^3 + \frac{n^2}{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{150 \times 0.06 \times 10^{-6}} \left[\frac{10^2}{3} \times 10^3 + \frac{10^2}{2} \right]$$

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$$= \frac{666.6 + 50}{5.0 \times 3} = \frac{717 \times 10^3}{3 \times 3} = 80 \text{ kV}$$

Therefore, percentage voltage regulation

$$\frac{80 \times 100}{2 \times 10 \times 100} = 4\%$$

$$(ii) \text{ The ripple voltage } \delta V = \frac{I}{fC} \frac{n \Delta n + 1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1 \times 10^{-3} \times 55}{150 \times 0.06 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= 6.1 \text{ kV}$$

$$\therefore \% \text{ ripple} = \frac{6.1 \times 100}{2 \times 10 \times 100} = 0.3\% \quad \text{Ans.}$$

$$(iii) \text{ Optimum no. of stages} = \sqrt{\frac{V_{max} f C}{I}} = \sqrt{\frac{100 \times 150 \times 0.06 \times 10^{-6} \times 10^3}{10^{-3}}} = 30 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

(iv) The maximum output voltage

$$= 30 \times \frac{4}{3} \times V_{max} = 30 \times \frac{4}{3} \times 100 = 4000 \text{ KV} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

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Example 2. A 100kVA 250V/200kV feed transformer has resistance and reactance of 1% and 5% respectively. This transformer is used to test a cable at 400kV at 50Hz. The cable takes a charging current of 0.5A at 400kV. Determine the series inductance required. Assume 1% resistance of the inductor. Also determine input voltage to the transformer. Neglect dielectric loss of the cable.

Solution: The circuit is drawn in Fig. Ex. 4.2

The resistance and reactance of the transformer are

$$\frac{1}{100} \times \frac{200^2}{0.1} = 4\text{K}\Omega$$

$$\frac{5}{100} \times \frac{200^2}{0.1} = 20\text{K}\Omega$$

$$\frac{5}{100} \times \frac{200^2}{0.1} = 20\text{K}\Omega$$

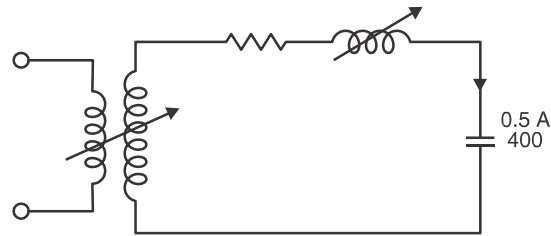


Fig. Ex. 4.2

The resistance of the inductor is also 4KΩ.

The capacitive reactance of capacitor (Test Specimen)

$$= \frac{400}{0.5} = 800\text{K}\Omega$$

For resonance $X_L = X_C$

Inductive reactance of transformer is 20KΩ. Therefore, additional inductive reactance required will be

$$800 - 20 = 780\text{K}\Omega$$

$$\text{The inductance required} = \frac{780 \times 1000}{314} = 2484\text{H}$$

Total resistance of the circuit = 8KΩ
under resonance condition the supply voltage

$$(\text{Secondary voltage}) = IR = 0.5 \times 8 = 4\text{kV}$$

$$\text{Therefore, primary voltage} = 4 \times \frac{250}{200}$$

$$= 5\text{volts Ans.}$$

Questions:

1. Explain and compare the performance of half wave rectifier and voltage doubler circuits for generation of high d.c. voltages.
2. Define ripple voltage. Show that the ripple voltage in a rectifier circuit depends upon the load current and the circuit parameters.
3. Explain with neat sketches Cockroft-Walton voltage multiplier circuit. Explain clearly its operation when

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the circuit is (i) unloaded (ii) loaded.

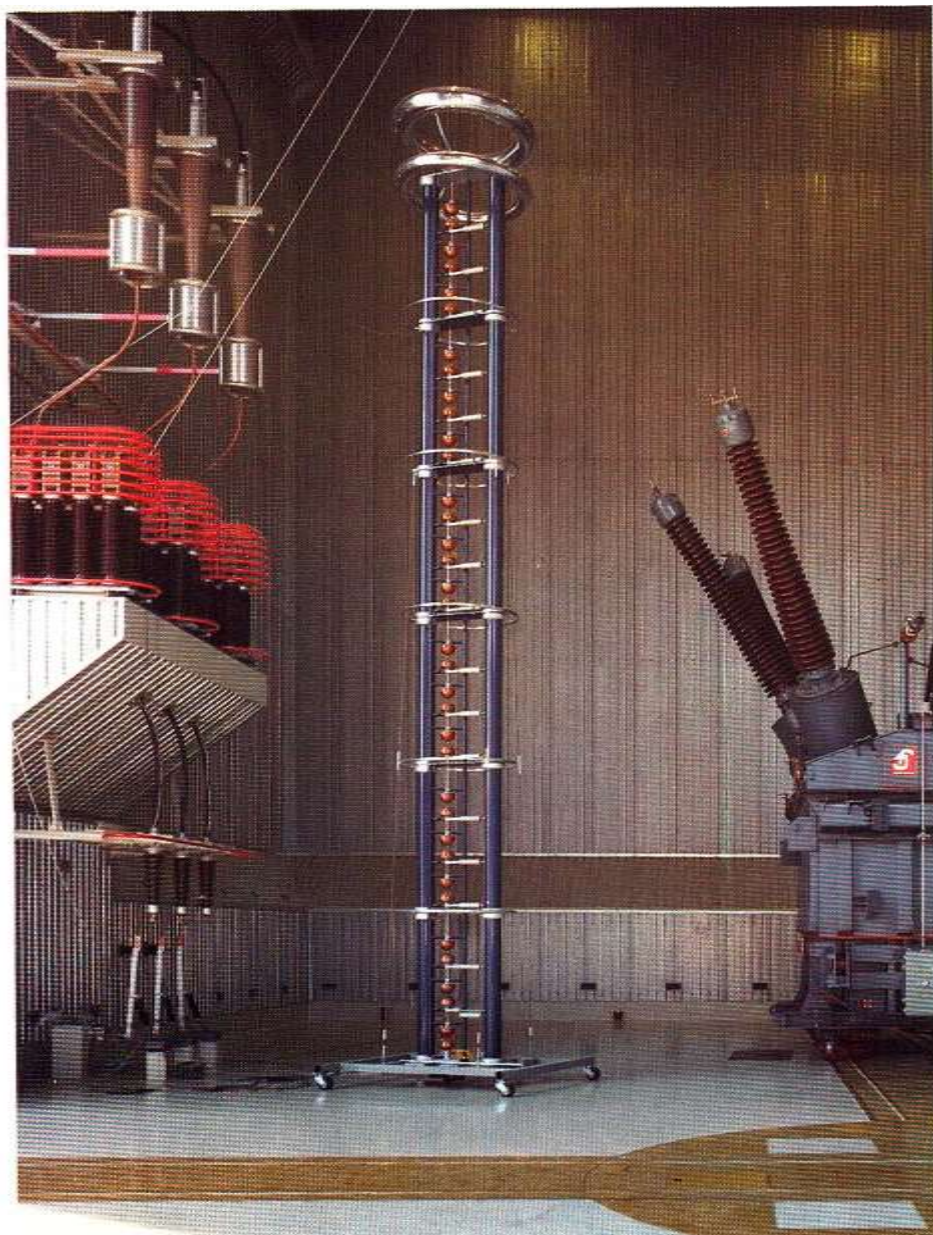
4. Derive an expression for ripple voltage of a multistage Cockroft-Walton Circuit.
5. Derive an expression for the voltage output under load condition. Hence, deduce the condition for optimal number of stages if a maximum value of output voltage is desired.
6. Describe with neat diagram the principle of operation and application of asymmetrical cascaded rectifier.
7. Explain clearly the basic principle of operation of an electrostatic generator. Describe with neat diagram the principle of operation, application and limitations of Van de Graaf generator.
8. What is a cascaded transformer? Explain why cascading is done? Describe with neat diagram a three-stage cascaded transformer. Label the power ratings of various stages of the transformer.
9. Draw equivalent circuit of a 3-stage cascaded transformer and determine the expression for short-circuit impedance of the transformer. Hence deduce an expression for the short-circuit impedance of an n -stage cascaded transformer.
10. Explain with neat diagram the basic principle of reactive power compensation in high voltage a.c. testing of insulating materials.
11. Explain with neat diagram the principle of operation of (i) series (ii) parallel resonant circuits for generating high a.c. voltages. Compare their performance.
12. Explain the series-parallel resonant circuit and discuss its advantages and disadvantages.



DC voltage test set 2000 kV, 10 mA for testing power cables, including a HV measuring resistor and automatic grounding system (foreground)



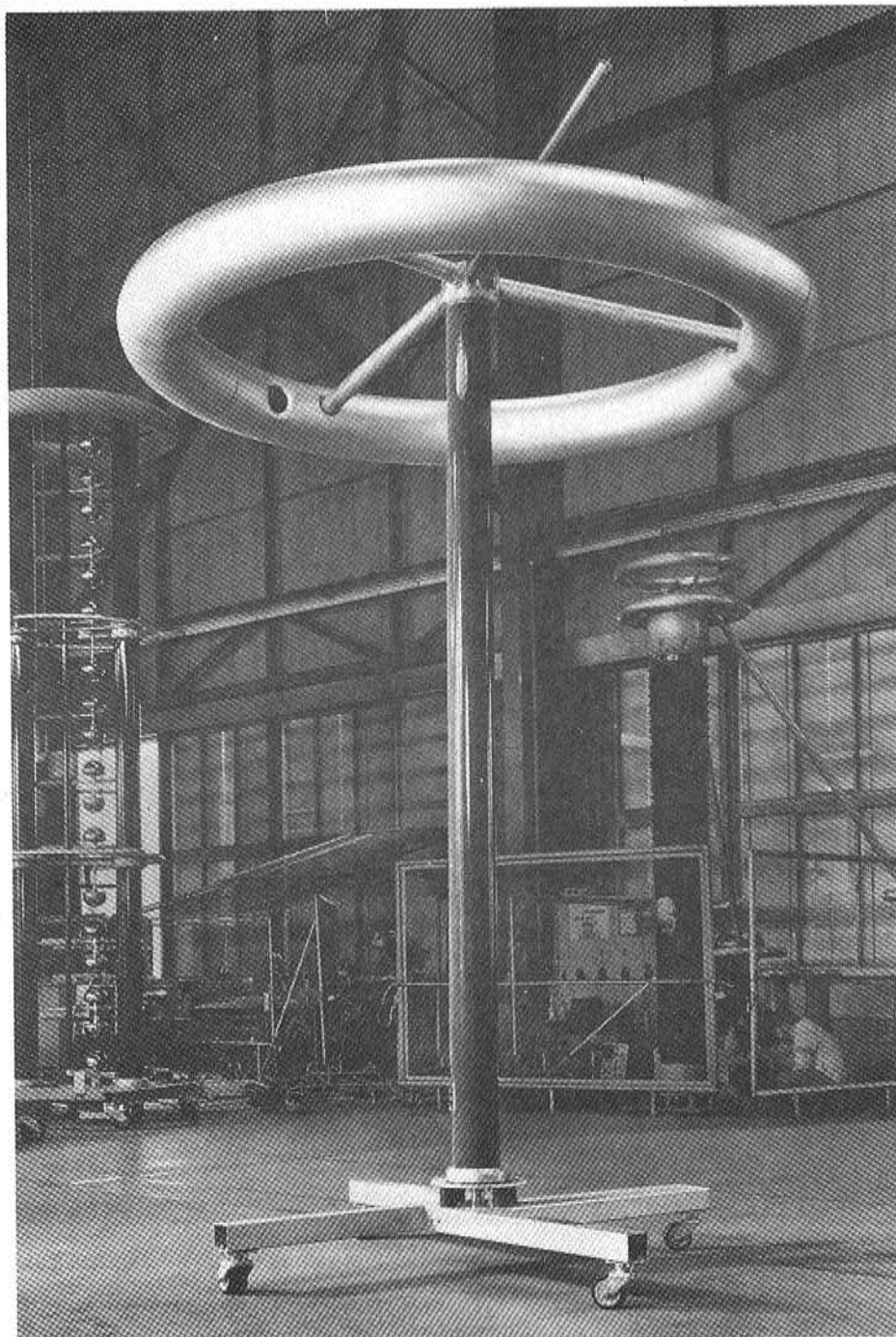
Cascaded serie resonant test system 3 x 350 kV, for the testing of power cables, with AC voltage divider (left)



Triggered impulse chopping gap 3600 kV for impulse testing of power transformers



Large outdoor impulse voltage dividers, damped capacitive type with large top electrode for ultra-high switching impulse voltages



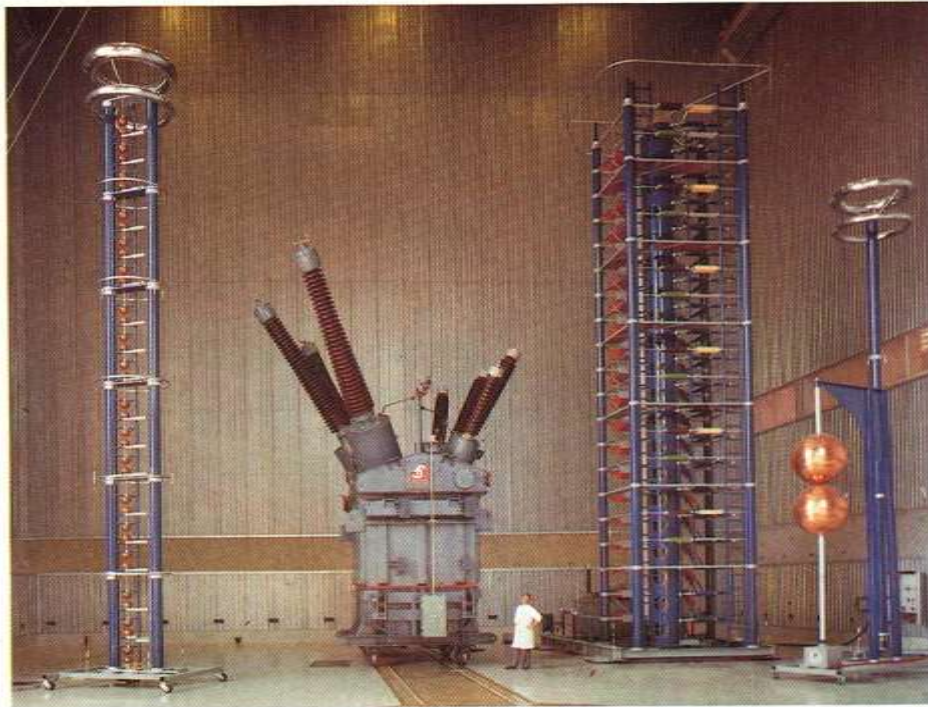
Resistive impulse voltage divider 1800 kV



Three-stage cascade transformer 3 x 600 kV, 2 A cont. outdoor type with AC voltage divider 1500 kV

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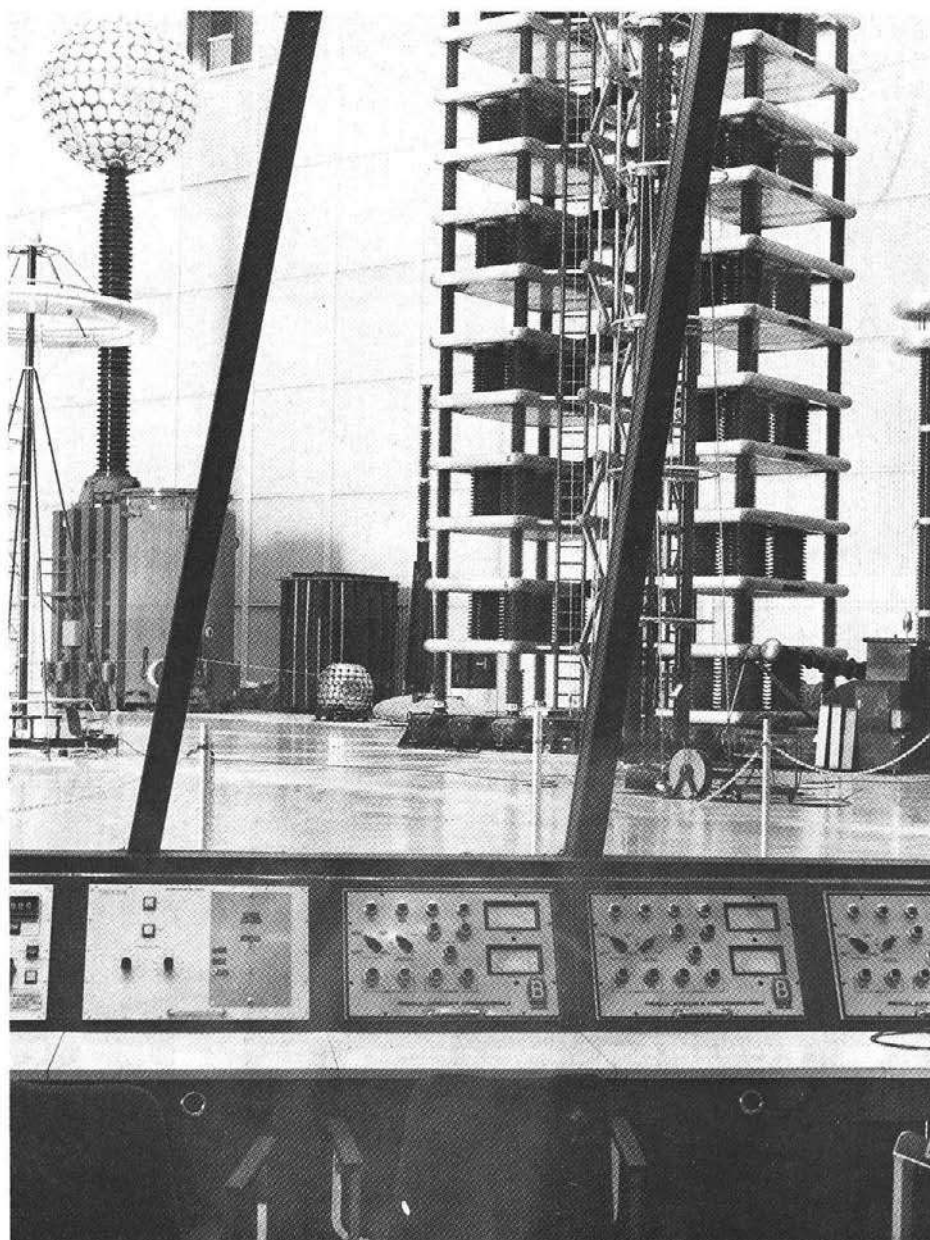
Large impulse voltage generators

Above: Indoor 4000 kV

Below: Outdoor 6400 kV shown together with typical test objects

Above: Large power transformer (center)

Below: Power circuit breakers (foreground right)



View from the control room at IREQ

PART - B**UNIT -5**

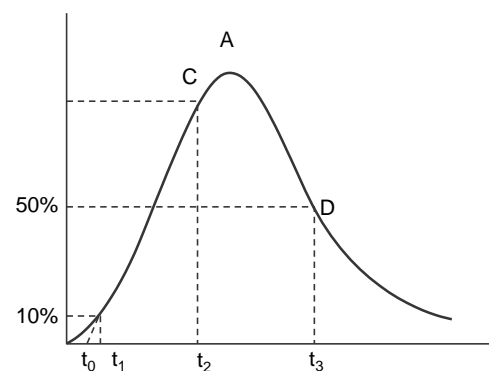
GENERATION OF IMPULSE VOLTAGES AND CURRENTS: Introduction to standard lightning and switching impulse voltages. Analysis of single stage impulse generator-expression for Output impulse voltage. Multistage impulse generator working of Marx impulse. Rating of impulse generator. Components of multistage impulse generator. Triggering of impulse generator by three electrode gap arrangement. Triggering gap and oscillograph time sweep circuits. Generation of switching impulse voltage. Generation of high impulse current.

6 Hours**DEFINITIONS:IMPULSEVOLTAGE**

An impulse voltage is a unidirectional voltage which, without appreciable oscillations, rises rapidly to a maximum value and falls more or less rapidly to zero Fig.5.4. The maximum value is called the peak value of the impulse and the impulse voltage is specified by this value. Small oscillations are tolerated, provided that their amplitude is less than 5% of the peak value of the impulse voltage. In case of oscillations in the wave shape, a mean curve should be considered.

If an impulse voltage develops without causing flashover or puncture, it is called a full impulse voltage. A full impulse voltage is characterised by its peak value and its two time intervals, the wavefront and wavetail time intervals defined below:

The wavefront time of an impulse wave is the time taken by the wave to reach its maximum value starting from zero value. Usually it is difficult to identify the start and peak points of the

**Fig.5.1** Full impulse wave

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wave and, therefore, the wavefront time is specified as $4.25(t_2 - t_1)$, where t_2 is the time for the wave to reach to its 90% of the peak value and t_1 is the time to reach 10% of the peak value. Since $(t_2 - t_1)$ represents about 80% of the wavefront time, it is multiplied by 4.25 to give total wavefront time. The point where the line CB intersects the time axis is referred to be the nominal starting point of the wave.

The nominal wave tail time is measured between the nominal starting point t_0 and the point on the wave tail where the voltage is 50% of the peak value *i.e.* wave fail time is expressed as $(t_3 - t_0)$.

The nominal steepness of the wavefront is the average rate of rise of voltage between the points on the wavefront where the voltage is 10% and 90% of the peak value respectively.

The standard wave shapes specified in BSS and ISS is a 1/50 microsec. wave *i.e.* a wavefront of 1 microsec. and a wave tail of 50 microsec. A tolerance of not more than $\pm 50\%$ on the duration of the wavefront and 20% on the time to half value on the wave tail is allowed. The wave is completely specified as 100kV, 1/50 microsec. where 100kV is the peak value of the wave.

The wave shape recommended by the American Standard Association is 4.5/40 microsec. with permissible variations of 0.5 microsec. on the wavefront and ± 10 microsec. on the wave tail. Here wavefront time is taken as 4.67 times the time taken by the wave to rise from 30% to 90% of its peak value and wave tail time is computed as in BSS or ISS *i.e.* it is given as $(t_3 - t_0)$ Fig. 5.4.

Chopped Wave

If an impulse voltage is applied to a piece of insulation and if a flashover or puncture occurs causing sudden collapse of the impulse voltage, it is called a chopped impulse voltage. If chopping takes place on the front part of the wave, it is known as front chopped wave, Fig. 5.2(a) else, it is known simply as a chopped wave, Fig. 5.2(b). Again, if chopping takes place on the front, it is specified by the peak value corresponding to the chopped value and its nominal steepness is the rate of rise of voltage measured between the points where the voltage is 10% and 90% respectively of the voltage at the instant of chopping. However, a wave chopped on the tail is specified on the lines of full wave.

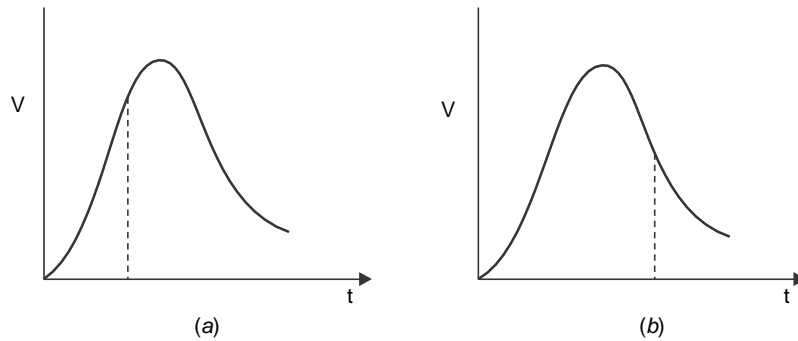


Fig.5.2 Chopped waves. (a) Front chopped wave (b) Chopped wave

Impulse Flash Over Voltage

Whenever an impulse voltage is applied to an insulating medium of certain thickness, flashover may or may not take place. If out of a total of say ten applications of impulse voltage about 5 of them flashover then the probability of flashover with that peak voltage of the impulse voltage is 50%. Therefore, a 50 percent impulse flashover voltage is the peak value of that impulse flashover voltage which causes flashover of the object under test for about half the number of applications of impulses. However, it is to be noted that the flashover occurs at an instant subsequent to the attainment of the peak value. The flashover also depends upon the polarity, duration of wavefront and wavetail of the applied impulse voltages.

If the flashover occurs more than 50% of the number of applications, it is defined as an impulse flashover voltage in excess of 50%.

The impulse flashover voltage for flashover on the wavefront is the value of the impulse voltage at the instant of flashover on the wavefront.

Impulse Puncture Voltage

The impulse puncture voltage is the peak value of the impulse voltage which causes puncture of the material when puncture occurs on the wavetail and is the value of the voltage at the instant of puncture when puncture occurs on the wavefront.

Impulse Ratio for Flash Over

The impulse ratio for flashover is the ratio of impulse flashover voltage to the peak value of power frequency flashover voltage.

The impulse ratio is not a constant for any particular object, but depends upon the shape and polarity of the impulse voltage, the characteristics of which should be specified when impulse ratios are quoted.

Impulse Ratio for Puncture

The impulse ratio for puncture is the ratio of the impulse puncture voltage to the peak value of the power frequency puncture voltage.

IMPULSE GENERATOR CIRCUITS

Fig.5.3 represents an exact equivalent circuit of a single stage impulse generator along with a typical load.

C_1 is the capacitance of the generator charged from a d.c. source to a suitable voltage which causes discharge through the sphere gap. The capacitance C_1 may consist of a single capacitance, in which case the generator is known as a single stage generator or alternatively if C_1 is the total capacitance of a group of capacitors charged in parallel and then discharged in series, it is then known as a multistage generator.

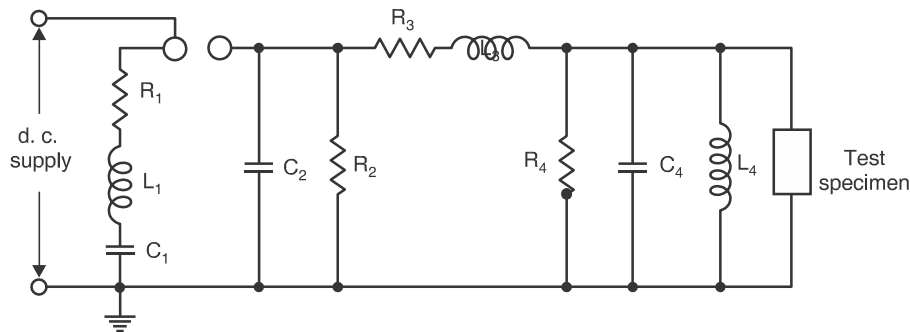


Fig.5.3 Exact equivalent circuit of a single stage impulse generator with a typical load

L_1 is the inductance of the generator and the leads connecting the generator to the discharge circuit and is usually kept as small as possible. The resistance R_1 consists of the inherent series resistance of the capacitances and leads and often includes additional lumped resistance inserted within the generator for damping purposes and for output waveform control. L_3, R_3 are the external elements which may be connected at the generator terminal for waveform control. R_2 and R_4 control the duration of the wave. However, R_4 also serves as a potential divider when a CRO is used for measurement purposes. C_2 and C_4 represent the capacitance to earth of the high voltage components and leads. C_4 also includes the capacitance of the test object and of any other load capacitance required for producing the required waveshape. L_4 represents the inductance of the test object and may also affect the waveshape appreciably.

Usually for practical reasons, one terminal of the impulse generator is solidly grounded. The polarity of the output voltage can be changed by changing the polarity of the d.c. charging voltage.

For the evaluation of the various impulse circuit elements, the analysis using the equivalent circuit of Fig. 5.3 is quite rigorous and complex. Two simplified but more practical forms of impulse generator circuits are shown in Fig. 5.4(a) and (b).

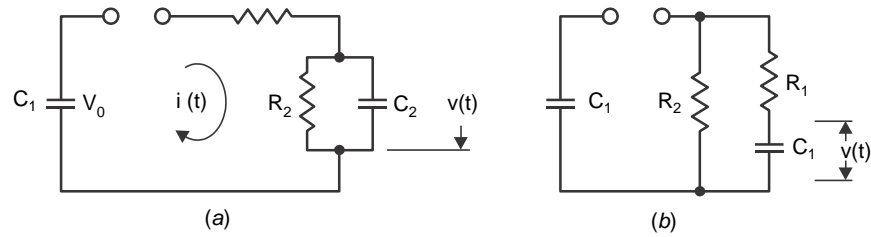


Fig.5.4Simplifiedequivalentcircuitofanimpulsegenerator

Thetwocircuitsarewidelyusedanddifferonlyinthepositionofthewavetailcontrolresistance R_4 . When R_2 is on the load side of R_1 (Fig. a) the two resistances form a potential divider which reduces the output voltage but when R_2 is on the generator side of R_1 (Fig. b) this particular loss of output voltage is absent.

The impulse capacitor C_1 is charged through a charging resistance (not shown) to a d.c. voltage V_0 and then discharged by flashing over the switching gap with a pulse of suitable value. The desired impulse voltage appears across the load capacitance C_4 . The value of the circuit elements determines the shape of the output impulse voltage. The following analysis will help us in evaluating the circuit parameters for achieving a particular wave shape of the impulse voltage.

Table 5.1
Values of α and β for typical waveform

Wave	α	β
0.5/5	4.080	5.922
1/5	4.557	4.366
1/10	4.040	4.961
4.5/40	4.776	4.757
1/50	5.044	5.029

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Table5.2
Calculationfora1/50microsec.wave

<i>Timein microsec.</i>	$e^{-0.015t}$	$e^{-6.073t}$	(2)–(3)	4.01749(4)
0.0	4.0	4.0	0.00	0.0
0.1	0.998501	0.5448199	0.45368	0.4616148
0.2	0.9970045	0.2968287	0.7001757	0.71242
0.3	0.9955101	0.1617181	0.8337919	0.8483749
0.4	0.9940179	0.0881072	0.9059106	0.9217549
0.5	0.992528	0.0480026	0.9445253	0.961045
0.6	0.9910403	0.0261557	0.9648875	0.9817633
0.8	0.9880717	0.0077628	0.9803088	0.9974577
4.0	0.9851119	0.002342	0.9828076	4.0000
4.1	0.9836353	0.0012554	0.9823798	0.995616
4.2	0.982116	0.00068396	0.981477	0.998643
4.0	0.9704455	5.3095×10^{-6}	0.970445	0.987418
10.0	0.8607079	0.0	0.8607079	0.87576
50	0.4723665	0.0	0.4723665	0.4806281
48	0.4867522	0.0	0.4867522	0.49526
47	0.4941085	0.0	0.4941085	0.5627

Table5.4
Approximatecapacitanceofsomeequipments

<i>Equipment</i>	<i>Capacitance</i>	γ
Lineinsulators, pininsulators	25pF	1000
Bushings	150to400pF	64.5
Currenttransformers	200to600pF	44.67
Powertransformersupto1MVA	1000to2000pF	14.5
Powertransformersupto50MVA	10,000pF	4.5
Powertransformersabove100MVA	30,000pF	0.83
Cablesamplesfor10mlength	2500pF	10.0
Experimentalsetupmeasuringupto100KV	100pF	250
Capacitor, leadsfora.c. testvoltageupto1000KV	1000pF	25

MULTISTAGE IMPULSE GENERATOR CIRCUIT

In order to obtain higher and higher impulse voltage, a single stage circuit is inconvenient for the following reasons:

- (i) The physical size of the circuit elements becomes very large.
- (ii) High d.c. charging voltage is required.
- (iii) Suppression of corona discharges from the structure and leads during the charging period is difficult.
- (iv) Switching of very high voltages with spark gaps is difficult.

In 1923 E. Marx suggested a multiplier circuit which is commonly used to obtain impulse voltages with a high peak value as possible for a given d.c. charging voltage.

Depending upon the charging voltage available and the output voltage required, a number of identical impulse capacitors are recharged in parallel and then discharged in series, thus obtaining a multiplied total charging voltage corresponding to the number of stages. Fig. 5.7 shows a 3-stage impulse generator circuit due to Marx employing 'b' circuit connections. The impulse capacitors C_1 are recharged to the charging voltage V_0 through the high charging resistors R_c in parallel. When all the gaps G break down, the C_1 ' capacitances are reconnected in series so that C_2 is charged through the series connection of all the wave front resistances R_1' and finally all C_1' and C_2 will discharge through the resistors R_2' and R_1' . Usually $R_c \gg R_2 \gg R_4$.

If in Fig. 5.7 the wave tail resistors R_2' in each stage are reconnected in parallel to the series combination of R_1' , G and C_1' , an impulse generator of type circuit 'a' is obtained.

In order that the Marx circuit operates consistently it is essential to adjust the distances between various sphere gaps such that the first gap G_1 is only slightly less than that of G_2 and soon. If it is also necessary that the axes of the gaps G be in the same vertical planes so that the ultraviolet radiations due to spark in the first gap G , will irradiate the other gaps. This ensures a supply of electrons released from the gap electron to initiate breakdown during the short period when the gaps are subjected to overvoltages.

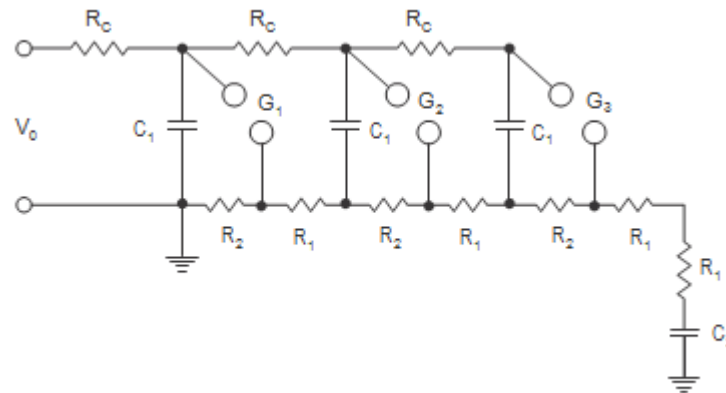


Fig. 5.7 A 3-stage Marx impulse generator in circuit 'b' connections.

The wavefront control resistance can have three possible locations (i) entirely within the generator (ii) entirely outside the generator (iii) partly within and partly outside the generator.

The first arrangement is unsatisfactory as the inductance and capacitance of the external leads and the load form an oscillatory circuit which requires to be damped by an external resistance. The second arrangement is also unsatisfactory as a single external front resistance will have to withstand, even though for a very short time, the full rated voltage and therefore, will turn out to be inconveniently long and would occupy much space. A compromise between the two is the third arrangement as shown in Fig. 5.7 and thus both the "space economy" and damping of oscillations are taken care of.

It can be seen that Fig. 5.7 can be reduced to the single stage impulse generator of Fig. 5.4 (b). After the generator has fired, the total discharge capacitance C_1 may be given as

$$\frac{1}{C_1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{C_i'}$$

the equivalent front resistance

$$R_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i' + R_i''$$

and the equivalent tail control resistance

$$R_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n R_2'$$

where n is the number of stages.

Goodlett has suggested another circuit shown in Fig. 5.8, for generation of impulse voltage where the load is earthed during the charging period, without the necessity for an isolating gap. The impulse output voltage has the same polarity as the charging voltage in case of Marx circuit, it is reversed in case of Goodlett circuit. Also, on discharge, both sides of the first spark gap are raised to the charging voltage in the Marx circuit but in case of Goodlett circuit they attain earth potential.

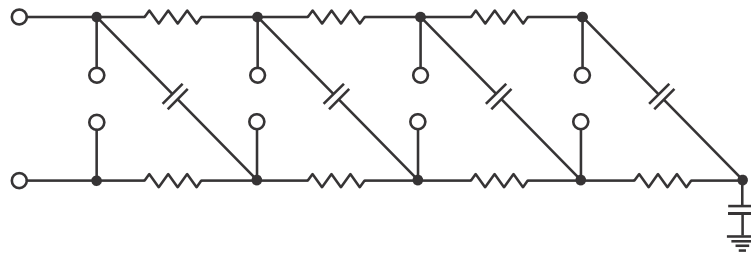


Fig. 5.8 Basic goodlett circuit

TRIGGERING AND SYNCHRONISATION OF THE IMPULSE GENERATOR

Impulse generators are normally operated in conjunction with cathode ray oscillographs for measurement and for studying the effect of impulse waves on the performance of the insulation of the equipments. Since the impulse waves are of shorter duration, it is necessary that the operation of the generator and the oscillograph should be synchronized accurately and if the wave front of the wave is to be recorded accurately, the time sweep circuit of the oscillograph should be initiated at a time slightly before the impulse wave reaches the deflecting plates.

If the impulse generator itself initiates the sweep circuit of the oscillograph, it is then necessary to connect a delay cable between the generator or the potential divider and the deflecting plates of the oscilloscope so that the impulse wave reaches the plates at a controlled time after the sweep has been tripped. However, the use of delay cable leads to inaccuracies in measurement. For this reason, some tripping circuits have been developed where the sweep circuit is operated first and then after a time of about 0.1 to 0.5 μsec , the generator is triggered.

One of the methods involves the use of a three-sphere gap in the first stage of the generator as shown in Fig. 5.10. The spacing between the spheres is so adjusted that the two series gaps are able to withstand the charging voltage of the impulse generator. A high resistance is connected between the outer spheres and its centre point is connected to the control spheres so that the voltage between the

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outerspheres is equally divided between the two gaps. If the generator is now charged to a voltage slightly less than the breakdown voltage of the gaps, the breakdown can be achieved at any instant by applying an impulse of either polarity and of a peak voltage not less than one-fifth of the charging voltage to the controls sphere.

The operation is explained as follows. The switch S is closed which initiates the sweep circuit of the oscillograph. The same impulse is applied to the grid of the thyatron tube. The inherent time delay of the thyatron ensures that the sweep circuit begins to operate before the start of the high voltage impulse.

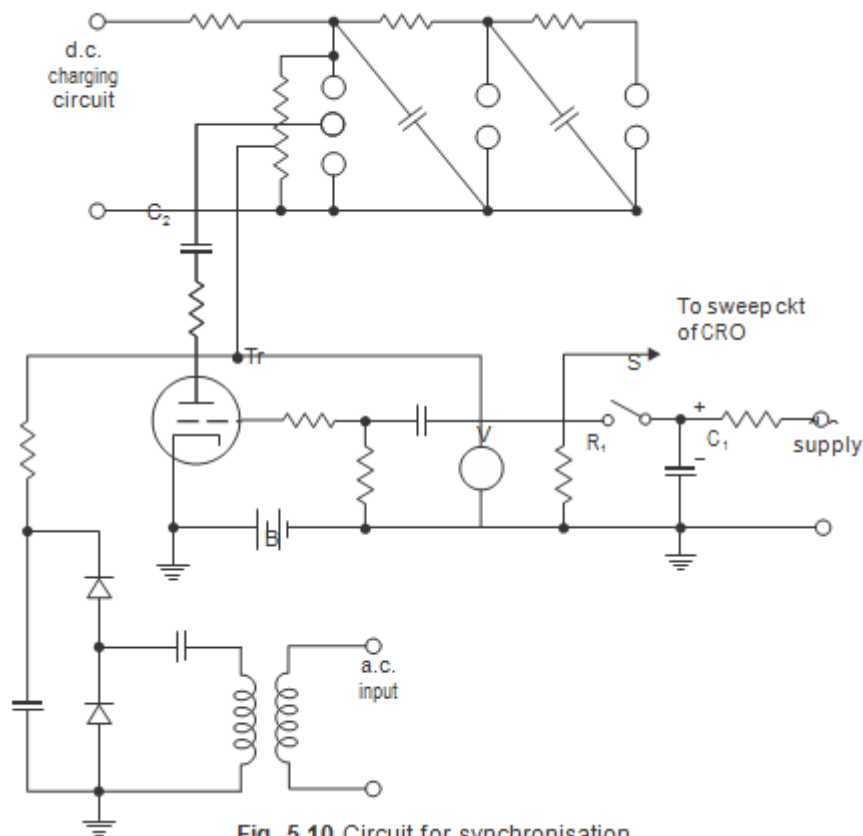


Fig. 5.10 Circuit for synchronisation

A further delay can be introduced if required by means of a capacitance-resistance circuit $R_1 C_4$. The tripping impulse is applied through the capacitor C_4 . During the charging period of the generator the anode of the thyatron tube is held at a positive potential of about 20 kV. The grid is held at a negative potential with the help of battery B so that it does not conduct during the charging period. As the switch S is closed, the trigger pulse is applied to the grid of the thyatron tube which conducts and a negative impulse of 20 kV is applied to the central sphere which triggers the impulse generator.

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Fig.5.11 shows a trigatron gap which is used as the first gap of the impulse generator and consists essentially of a three-electrode gap. The high voltage electrode is a sphere and the earthed electrode may be a sphere, a semi-sphere or any other configuration which gives homogeneous electric field. A small hole is drilled into the earthed electrode into which a metal rod projects. The annular gap between the rod and the surrounding hemisphere is about 1 mm. A glass tube is fitted over the rod electrode and is surrounded by a metal foil which is connected to the earthed hemisphere. The metal rod or trigger electrode forms the third electrode, being essentially at the same potential as the drilled electrode, as it is connected to it through a high resistance, so that the control or tripping pulse can be applied between these two electrodes. When a tripping pulse is applied to the rod, the field is distorted in the main gap and the latter breaks down at a voltage appreciably lower than that required to cause its breakdown in the absence of the tripping pulse. The function of the glass tube is to promote corona discharge round the rod as this causes photoionisation in the annular gap and the main gap and consequently facilitates their rapid breakdown.

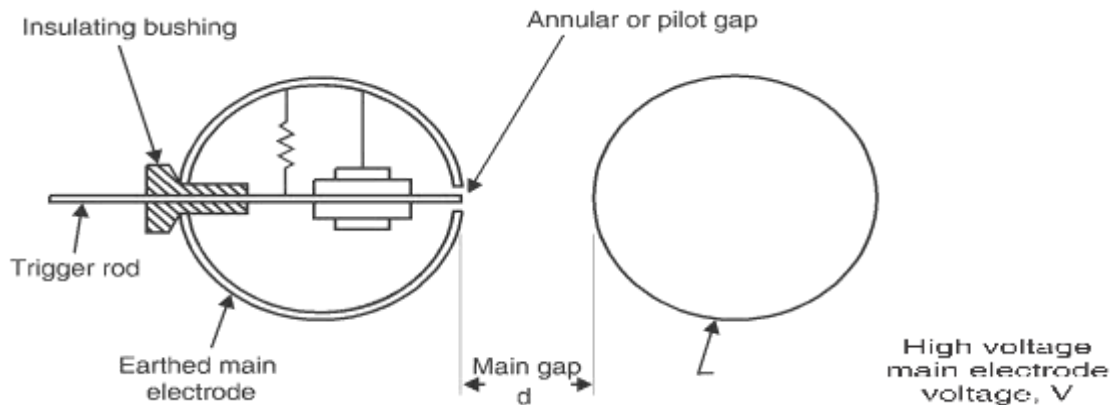


Fig.5.11 The trigatron spark gap

For single stage or multi-stage impulse generators the trigatron gaps have been found quite satisfactory and these require a tripping voltage of about 5 kV of either polarity. The tripping circuits used today are commercially available and provide in general two or three tripping pulses of lower amplitudes. Fig.5.12 shows a typical tripping circuit. The capacitor C_1 is charged through a high resistance R_4 as the remotely controlled switch S is closed, a pulse is applied to the sweep circuit of the oscilloscope through the capacitor C_5 . At the same time the capacitor C_2 is charged up and a triggering pulse is applied to the trigger electrode of the trigatron. The required delay in triggering

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ng the generator

can be provided by suitably adjusting the values of R_2 and C_4 . The residual charge on C_2 can be discharged through a high resistance R_5 . These days lasers are also used for tripping the spark gap.

The trigatron also has a phase shifting circuit associated with it so as to synchronise the initiation time with an external alternating voltage. Thus, it is possible to combine high alternating voltage tests with a superimposed impulse wave of adjustable phase angle.

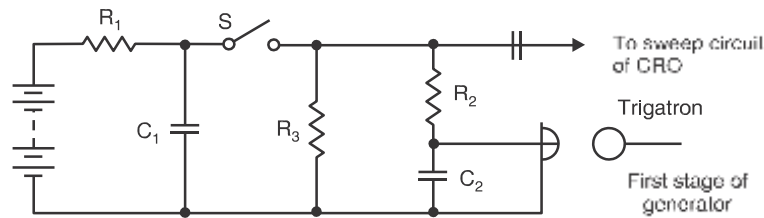


Fig.5.12 A typical tripping circuit of a trigatron

The trigatron is designed so as to prevent the overcharging of the impulse capacitors in case of an accidental failure of triggering. An indicating device shows whether the generator is going to fire correctly or not. An additional feedback circuit provides for a safe wave chopping and oscillograph release, independent of the emitted control pulse.

IMPULSE CURRENT GENERATION

The impulse current wave is specified on the similar lines as an impulse voltage wave. A typical impulse current wave is shown in Fig.5.15.

High current impulse generators usually consist of a large number of capacitors connected in parallel to the common discharge path. A typical impulse current generator circuit is shown in Fig.5.14.

The equivalent circuit of the generator is shown in Fig.5.15 and approximates to that of a capacitance C charged to a voltage V_0 which can be considered to discharge through an inductance L and a resistance R . In practice both L and R are the effective inductance and resistance of the leads, capacitors and the test objects.

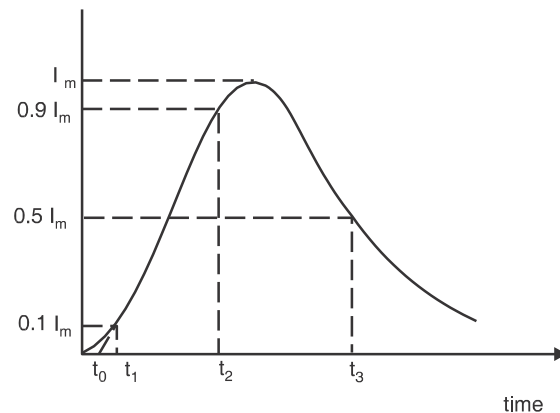


Fig.5.13 A typical impulse current wave

Analysis of Impulse Current Generator Referto Fig.5.15

After the gap S is triggered, the Laplace transform current is given as

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$$I(s) = \frac{V_0}{s} \frac{1}{R + sL + 1/Cs}$$

$$= \frac{V}{L} \cdot \frac{1}{s^2 + R/Ls + 1/LC}$$

$$= \frac{V}{L} \cdot \frac{1}{(s + \alpha)^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\text{and } \omega = \frac{1}{L} \sqrt{1 - R^2 C L^2}$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = \frac{R}{2L}$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{L} \sqrt{1 - \frac{R^2 C L^2}{4}}$$

or

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \sqrt{1 - \frac{R^2 C L^2}{4}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} (1 - \nu)$$

where

$$\nu = \frac{R}{2} \sqrt{\frac{C}{L}}$$

Taking the inverse Laplace we have the current

$$i(t) = \frac{V}{\omega L} e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t \quad (5.25)$$

For current $i(t)$ to be maximum $\frac{di(t)}{dt} = 0$

$$\frac{di(t)}{dt} = \frac{V}{\omega L} [\omega e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t - \alpha e^{-\alpha t} \sin \omega t] = 0$$

$$= \frac{V}{\omega L} e^{-\alpha t} [\omega \cos \omega t - \alpha \sin \omega t] = 0$$

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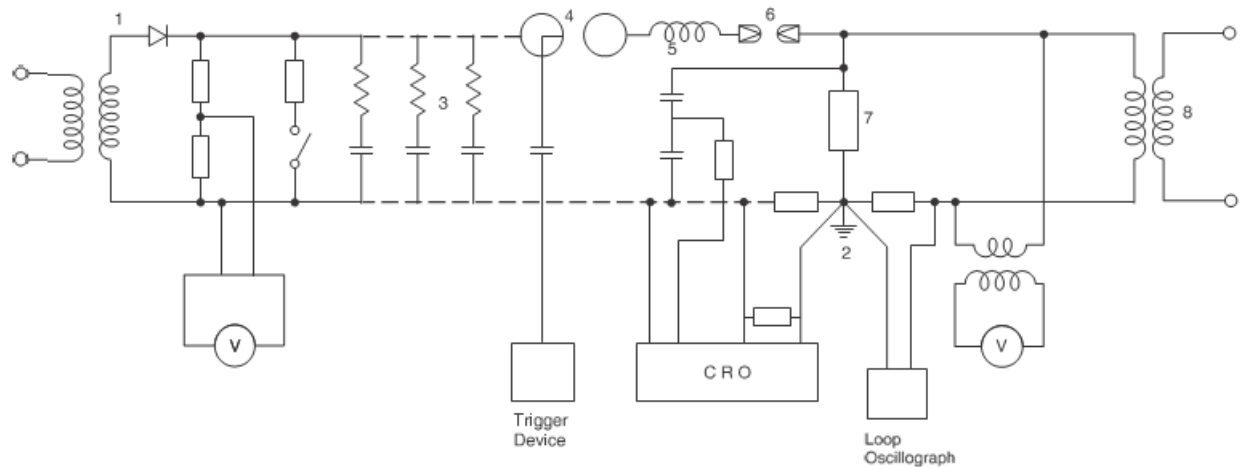


Fig. 5.14 A typical impulse current generator circuit. 1. Transformer 2. Diode 3. Capacitor with damping resistors 4. Charging unit 4. Earthing device 5. Reactor coil 6. Protective sphere gap 7. Test specimen (LA) 8. Test transformer for power frequency.

1. Define the terms (i) Impulse voltages; (ii) Chopped wave; (iii) Impulse flash over voltage; (iv) Impulse puncture voltage; (v) Impulse ratio for flash over; (vi) Impulse ratio for puncture.
2. Draw an exact equivalent circuit of an Impulse Generator and indicate the significance of each parameter being used.
3. Draw and compare the two simplified equivalent circuits of the impulse generator circuits (a) and (b).
4. Give complete analysis of circuit 'a' and show that the wave front and wave tail resistances are physically realisable only under certain condition. Derive the condition.
5. Give complete analysis of circuit 'b' and derive the condition for physical realisation of wave front and wave tail resistances.
6. Derive an expression for voltage efficiency of a single stage impulse generator
7. Describe the construction, principle of operation and application of a multistage Marx's Surge Generator.
8. Explain the Goodlet circuit of impulse voltage generation and compare its performance with that of Marx's circuit.
9. Describe the construction of various components used in the development of an impulse generator.
10. Explain with neat diagram triggering and synchronisation of the impulse generator with the CRO.
11. Draw a typical impulse current generator circuit and explain its operation and application.
12. Draw an exact diagram of a high current generator circuit (equivalent circuit) and through analysis of the circuit show how the waveform can be controlled.

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UNIT- 6

MEASUREMENT OF HIGH VOLTAGES: Electrostatic voltmeter-principle, construction and limitation. Chubb and Fortescue method for HV AC measurement. Generating voltmeter-Principle, construction. Series resistance micro ammeter for HV DC measurements. Standard sphere gap measurements of HV AC, HV DC, and impulse voltages; Factors affecting the measurements. Potential dividers-resistance dividers capacitance dividers mixed RC potential dividers.Measurement of high impulse currents-Rogowsky coil and Magnetic Links

10Hours

INTRODUCTION

Transient measurements have much in common with measurements of steady state quantities but the short-lived nature of the transients which we are trying to record introduces special problems. Frequently the transient quantity to be measured is not recorded directly because of its large magnitude *e.g.* when a shunt is used to measure current, we really measure the voltage across the shunt and then we assume that the voltage is proportional to the current, a fact which should not be taken for granted with transient currents. Often the voltage appearing across the shunt may be insufficient to drive the measuring device; it requires amplification. On the other hand, if the voltage to be measured is too large to be measured with the usual meters, it must be attenuated. This suggests an idea of a measuring system rather than a measuring device.

Measurements of high voltages and currents involves much more complex problems which a specialist, in common electrical measurement, does not have to face. The high voltage equipments have large stray capacitances with respect to the grounded structures and hence large voltage gradients are set up. A person handling these equipments and the measuring devices must be protected against these overvoltages. For this, large structures are required to control the electrical fields and to avoid flashover between the equipment and the grounded structures. Sometimes, these structures are required to control heat dissipation within the circuits. Therefore, the location and layout of the equipments is very important to avoid these problems. Electromagnetic fields create problems in the measurements of impulse voltages and currents and should be minimized.

The chapter is devoted to describing various devices and circuits for measurement of high voltages and currents. The application of the device to the type of voltages and currents is also discussed.

ELECTROSTATIC VOLT METER

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The electric field according to Coulomb is the field of forces. The electric field is produced by voltage and, therefore, if the field force could be measured, the voltage can also be measured. Whenever a voltage is applied to a parallel plate electrode arrangement, an electric field is set up between the plates. It is possible to have a uniform electric field between the plates with a suitable arrangement of the plates. The field is uniform, normal to the two plates and directed towards the negative plate. If A is the area of the plate and E is the electric field intensity between the plates, ϵ the permittivity of the medium between the plates, we know that the energy density of the electric field between the plates is given as,

$$W_d = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon E^2$$

Consider a differential volume between the plates and parallel to the plates with area A and thickness dx , the energy content in this differential volume Adx is

Electrostatic voltmeters measure the force based on the above equations and are arranged such that one of the plates is rigidly fixed whereas the other is allowed to move. With this the electric field gets disturbed. For this reason, the movable electrode is allowed to move by not more than a fraction of a millimetre to a few millimetres even for high voltages so that the change in electric field is negligibly small. As the force is proportional to the square of V_{rms} , the meter can be used both for a.c. and d.c. voltage measurement.

The force developed between the plates is sufficient to be used to measure the voltage. Various designs of the voltmeter have been developed which differ in the construction of electrode arrangement and in the use of different methods of restoring forces required to balance the electrostatic force of attraction. Some of the methods are

- (i) Suspension of moving electrode on one arm of a balance.
- (ii) Suspension of the moving electrode on a spring.
- (iii) Pendulous suspension of the moving electrode.
- (iv) Torsional suspension of moving electrode.

The small movement is generally transmitted and amplified by electrical or optical methods. If the electrode movement is minimised and the field distribution can be exactly calculated, the meter can be used for absolute voltage measurement as the calibration can be made in terms of the fundamental quantities of length and force.

From the expression for the force, it is clear that for a given voltage to be measured, the higher

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the force, the greater is the precision that can be obtained with the meter. In order to achieve higher force for a given voltage, the area of the plates should be large, the spacing between the plates (d) should be small and some dielectric medium other than air should be used in between the plates. If uniformity of electric field is to be maintained an increase in area A must be accompanied by an increase in the area of the surrounding guard ring and of the opposing plate and the electrode may, therefore, become unduly large especially for high voltages. Similarly the gap length cannot be made very small as this is limited by the breakdown strength of the dielectric medium between the plates. If air is used as the medium, gradients up to 5 kV/cm have been found satisfactory. For higher gradients vacuum or SF_6 gas has been used.

The greatest advantage of the electrostatic voltmeter is its extremely low loading effect as only electric fields are required to be set up. Because of high resistance of the medium between the plates, the active power loss is negligibly small. The voltage source loading is, therefore, limited only to the reactive power required to charge the instrument capacitance which can be as low as a few picofarads for low voltage voltmeters.

The measuring system as such does not put any upper limit on the frequency of supply to be measured. However, as the load inductance and the measuring system capacitance form a series resonance circuit, a limit is imposed on the frequency range. For low range voltmeters, the upper frequency is generally limited to a few MHz.

Fig. 6.7 shows a schematic diagram of an absolute electrostatic voltmeter. The hemispherical metal dome D encloses a sensitive balance B which measures the force of attraction between the movable disc which hangs from one of its arms and the lower plate P . The movable electrode M hangs with a clearance of above 0.01 cm , in a central opening in the upper plate which serves as a guard ring. The diameter of each of the plates is 1 metre . Light reflected from a mirror carried by the balance beam serves to magnify its motion and to indicate to the operator at a safe distance when a condition of equilibrium is reached. As the spacing between the two electrodes is large (about 100 cm for a voltage of about 300 kV), the uniformity of the electric field is maintained by the guard rings G which surround the space between the discs M and P . The guard rings G are maintained at a constant potential in space by a capacitance divider ensuring a uniform spatial potential distribution. When voltages in the range 10 to 100 kV are measured, the accuracy is of the order of 0.01 percent.

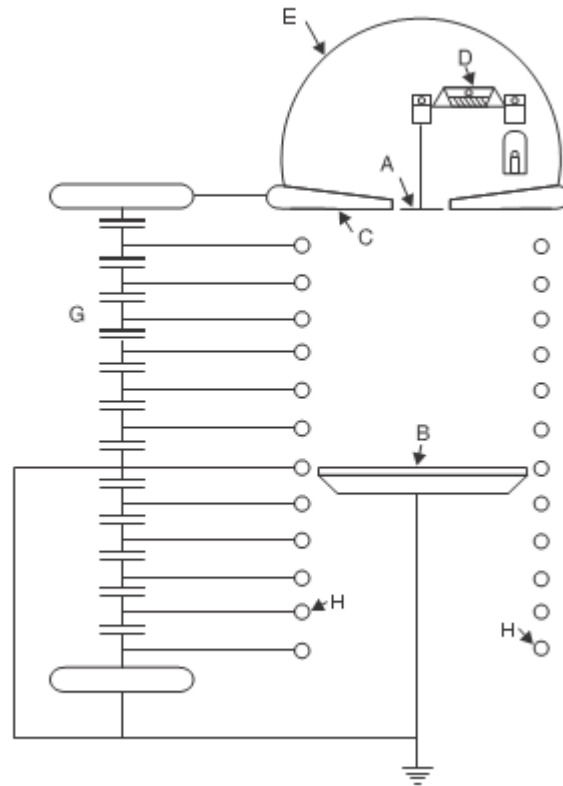


Fig. 6.7 Schematic diagram of electrostatic voltmeter

Hueter has used a pair of spheres of 100 cm diameter for the measurement of high voltages utilising the electrostatic attractive force between them. The spheres are arranged with a vertical axis and at spacings slightly greater than the sparking distance for the particular voltage to be measured. The upper high voltage sphere is supported on a spring and the extension of spring caused by the electrostatic force is magnified by a lamp-mirror scale arrangement. An accuracy of 0.5 percent has been achieved by the arrangement.

Electrostatic voltmeters using compressed gas as the insulating medium have been developed. Here for a given voltage the shorter gap length enables the required uniformity of the field to be maintained with the electrodes of smaller size and a more compact system can be evolved.

One such voltmeter using SF_6 gas has been used which can measure voltages up to 1000 kV and accuracy is of the order of 0.1%. The high voltage electrode and an earthed plane provide a uniform electric field within the region of a 5 cm diameter disc set in a 65 cm diameter guard plane. A weighing balance

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arrangement is used to allow a large damping mass. The gap length can be varied between 4.5, 5 and 10 cm and due to a maximum working electric stress of 100 kV/cm, the voltage ranges can be selected to 250 kV, 500 kV and 1000 kV. With 100 kV/cm as gradient, the average force on the disc is found to be 0.8681 N equivalent to 88.52 gmwt. The disc movements are kept as small as 1 μm by the weighing balance arrangement.

The voltmeters are used for the measurement of high a.c. and d.c. voltages. The measurement of voltages lower than about 50 volts is, however, not possible, as the forces become too small.

GENERATING VOLT METER

Whenever the source loading is not permitted or when direct connection to the high voltage source is to be avoided, the generating principle is employed for the measurement of high voltages. A generating voltmeter is a variable capacitor electrostatic voltage generator which generates current proportional to the voltage to be measured. Similar to electrostatic voltmeter the generating voltmeter provides loss free measurement of d.c. and a.c. voltages. The device is driven by an external constant speed motor and does not absorb power or energy from the voltage measuring source. The principle of operation is explained with the help of Fig. 6.8. H is a high voltage electrode and the earthed electrode is subdivided into a sensing or pickup electrode P , a guard electrode G and a movable electrode M , all of which are at the same potential. The high voltage electrode H develops an electric field between itself and the electrodes P , G and M . The field lines are shown in Fig. 6.8. The electric field density σ is also shown. If electrode M is fixed and the voltage V is changed, the field density σ would change and thus a current $i(t)$ would flow between P and the ground.

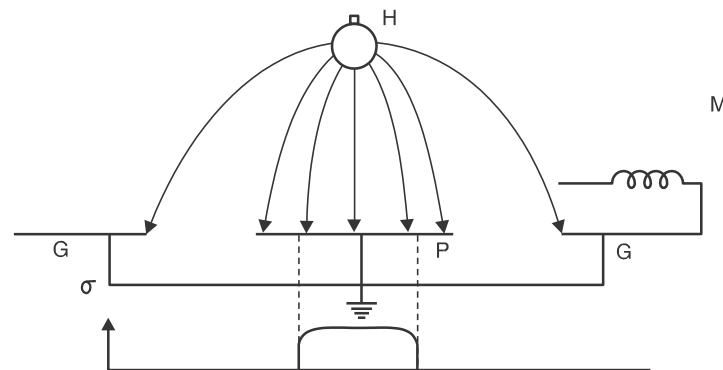


Fig.6.8 Principle of generating voltmeter

Fig.6.10 shows a schematic diagram of a generating voltmeter which employs rotating vanes

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for variation of capacitance. The high voltage electrode is connected to a disc electrode D_3 which is kept at a fixed distance on the axis of the other low voltage electrodes D_2, D_1 , and D_0 . The rotor D_0 is driven at a constant speed by a synchronous motor at a suitable speed. The rotor vanes of D_0 cause periodic change in capacitance between the insulated disc D_2 and the high voltage electrode D_5 . The number and shape of vanes are so designed that a suitable variation of capacitance (sinusoidal or linear) is achieved. The a.c. current is rectified and is measured using moving coil meters. If the current is small an amplifier may be used before the current is measured.

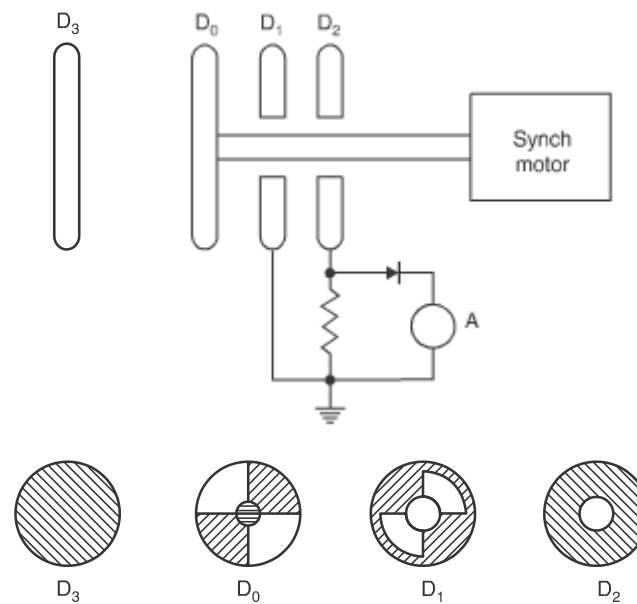


Fig.6.10 Schematic diagram of generating voltmeter

Generating voltmeters are linear scale instruments and applicable over a wider range of voltages. The sensitivity can be increased by increasing the area of the pickup electrode and by using amplifier circuits.

The main advantages of generating voltmeters are (i) scale is linear and can be extrapolated (ii) source loading is practically zero (iii) no direct connection to the high voltage electrode.

However, they require recalibration and construction is quite cumbersome.

The breakdown of insulating materials depends upon the magnitude of voltage applied and the time of application of voltage. However, if the peak value of voltage is large as compared to breakdown strength of the insulating material, the disruptive discharge phenomenon is in general caused by the instantaneous maximum field gradient stressing the material. Various methods discussed so far can measure peak voltages but because of complex calibration procedures and limited accuracy call for more convenient and more accurate methods. A more convenient though less accurate method would

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but the use of a testing transformer where in the output voltage is measured and recorded and the input voltage is obtained by multiplying the output voltage by the transformation ratio. However, here the output voltage depends upon the loading of the secondary winding and wave shape variation is caused by the transformer impedances and hence this method is unacceptable for peak voltage measurements.

THE CHUBB-FORTESCUE METHOD

Chubb and Fortescue suggested a simple and accurate method of measuring peak value of a.c. voltages. The basic circuit consists of a standard capacitor, two diodes and a current integrating ammeter (M.C.ammeter) as shown in Fig. 6.11(a).

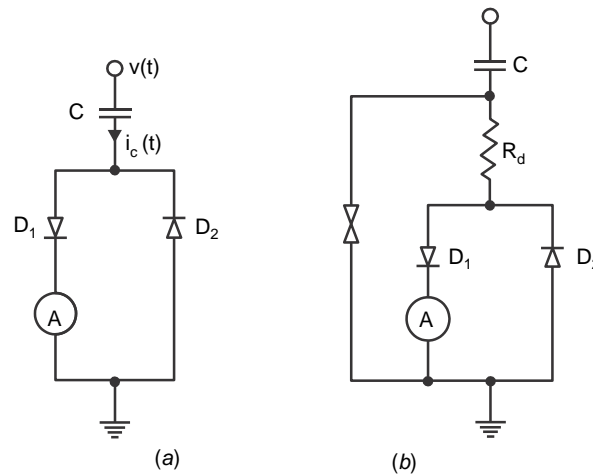


Fig.6.11 (a) Basic circuit (b) Modified circuit

The displacement current $i_c(t)$, Fig. 6.12 is given by the rate of change of the charge and hence the voltage $V(t)$ to be measured flows through the high voltage capacitor C and is subdivided into positive and negative components by the back to back connected diodes. The voltage drop across these diodes can be neglected (1 V for Si diodes) as compared with the voltage to be measured. The measuring instrument (M.C.ammeter) is included in one of the branches. The ammeter reads the mean value of the current.

$$I = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} C \frac{dv(t)}{dt} dt = \frac{C}{T} \cdot 2V = 2VfC \text{ or } V = \frac{I}{2fC}$$

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There relation is similar to the one obtained in case of generating voltmeters. An increased current would be obtained if the current reaches zero more than once during one half cycle. This means the wave shapes of the voltage would contain more than one maximum per half cycle. The standard a.c. voltages for testings should not contain any harmonics and, therefore, there could be very short and rapid voltages caused by the heavy pre-discharges, within the test circuit which could introduce errors in measurements. To eliminate this problem filtering of a.c. voltage is carried out by introducing a damping resistor in between the capacitor and the diode circuit, Fig. 6.11(b).

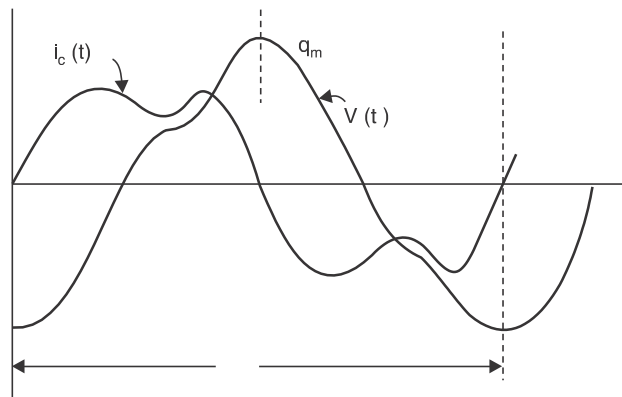
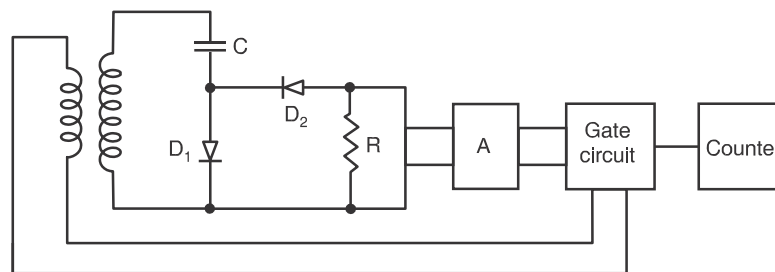


Fig.6.12

Also, if full wave rectifier is used instead of the half wave as shown in Fig. 6.11, the factor 2 in the denominator of the above equations should be replaced by 6. Since the frequency f , the capacitance C and current I can be measured accurately, the measurement of symmetrical a.c. voltages using Chubb and Fortescue method is quite accurate and it can be used for calibration of other peak voltage measuring devices.

Fig. 6.13 shows a digital peak voltage measuring circuit. In contrast to the method discussed just now, the rectified current is not measured directly, instead a proportional analog voltage signal is derived which is then converted into a proportional medium frequency for using a voltage to frequency converter (Block A in Fig. 6.13). The frequency ratio of f_m/f is measured with a gate circuit controlled by the a.c.

power frequency (supply frequency f) and a counter that opens for an adjustable number of period $\Delta t = p/f$. The number of cycles n counted during this interval is



$$dq(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \left[\int \sigma(a) da \right]$$

Where $\sigma(a)$ is the electric field density or charged density along some path and is assumed constant over the differential area da of the pick up electrode. In this case $\sigma(a)$ is a function of time also and da the area of the pick up electrode P exposed to the electric field.

However, if the voltage V to be measured is constant (d.c voltage), a current $i(t)$ will flow only if it is moved *i.e.* now $\sigma(a)$ will not be function of time but the charge q is changing because the area of the pick up electrode exposed to the electric field is changing. The current $i(t)$ is given by

Peak Voltmeters with Potential Dividers

Passive circuits are not very frequently used these days for measurement of the peak value of a.c. or impulse voltages. The development of fully integrated operational amplifiers and other electronic circuits has made it possible to sample and hold such voltages and thus make measurements and, therefore, have replaced the conventional passive circuits. However, it is to be noted that if the passive circuits are designed properly, they provide simplicity and adequate accuracy and hence a small description of these circuits is in order. Passive circuits are cheap, reliable and have a high order of electromagnetic compatibility. However, in contrast, the most sophisticated electronic instruments are costlier and their electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) is low.

The passive circuits cannot measure high voltages directly and use potential dividers preferably of the capacitance type.

Fig. 6.14 shows a simple peak voltmeter circuit consisting of a capacitor voltage divider which reduces the voltage V to be measured to a low voltage V_m .

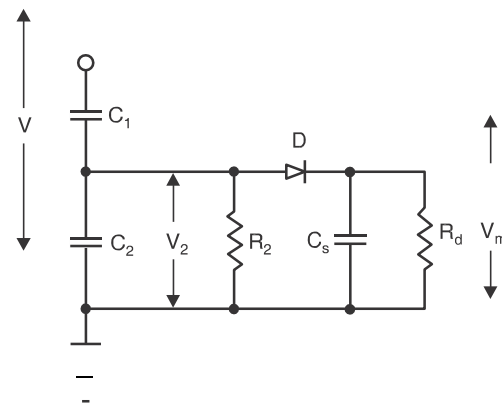


Fig.6.14 Peak voltmeter

Suppose R_2 and R_d are not present and the supply voltage is V . The voltage across the storage capacitor C_s will be equal to the peak value of voltage across C_2 assuming voltage drop across the diode to be negligibly small. The voltage could be measured by an electrostatic voltmeter or other suitable voltmeters with very high input impedance. If the reverse current through the diode is very small and

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the discharge time constant of the storage capacitor very large, the storage capacitor will not discharge significantly for a long time and hence it will hold the voltage to its value for a long time. If now, V_s decreased, the voltage V_2 decreases proportionately and since now the voltage across C_2 is smaller than the voltage across C_s to which it is already charged, therefore, the diode does not conduct and the voltage across C_s does not follow the voltage across C_4 . Hence, a discharge resistor R_d must be introduced into the circuit so that the voltage across C_s follows the voltage across C_4 . From measurement point of view it is desirable that the quantity to be measured should be indicated by the meter within a few seconds and hence R_d is so chosen that $R_d C_s \approx 1 \text{ sec}$. As a result of this, following errors are introduced. With the connection of R_d , the voltage across C_s will decrease continuously even when the input voltage is kept constant. Also, it will discharge the capacitor C_2 and the mean potential of $V_2(t)$ will gain a negative d.c. component. Hence a leakage resistor R_2 must be inserted in parallel with C_2 to equalise these unipolar discharge currents. These two errors correspond to the voltage shape across the storage capacitor which contains ripple and is due to the discharge of the capacitor C_s . If the input impedance of the measuring device is very high, the ripple is independent of the meter being used. The error is approximately proportional to the ripple factor and is thus frequency dependent as the discharge time-constant cannot be changed. If $R_d C_s = 1 \text{ sec}$, the discharge error amounts to 1% for 50 Hz and 0.33%.

for 150 Hz. The third source of error is related to this discharge error. During the conduction time (when the voltage across C_s is lower than that across C_2 because of discharge of C_s through R_d) of the diode the storage capacitor C_s is recharged to the peak value and thus C_s becomes parallel with C_4 . If discharge error is e_d , recharge error e_r is given by

$$e_r = 2e_d \frac{C_s}{C_1 + C_2 + C_s}$$

Hence C_s should be small as compared with C_2 to keep down the recharge error.

It has also been observed that in order to keep the overall error to a low value, it is desirable to have a high value of R_d . The same effect can be obtained by providing an equalising arm to the low voltage arm of the voltage divider as shown in Fig. 6.15. This is accomplished by the addition of

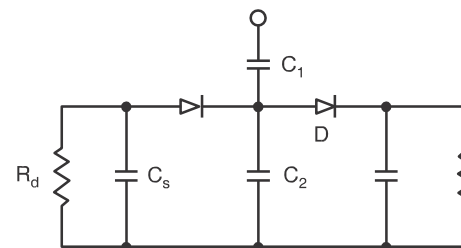


Fig. 6.15 Modified peak voltmeter circuit

a second network comprising diode, C_s and R_d for negative polarity current to the circuit shown in Fig. 6.16. With this, the d.c. currents in both branches are opposite in polarity and equalise each other. The errors due to R_2 are thus eliminated.

Rab us developed another circuit shown in Fig. 6.16. to reduce errors due to resistances. Two

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storage capacitors are connected by a resistor R_s within every branch and both are discharged by only one resistance R_d .

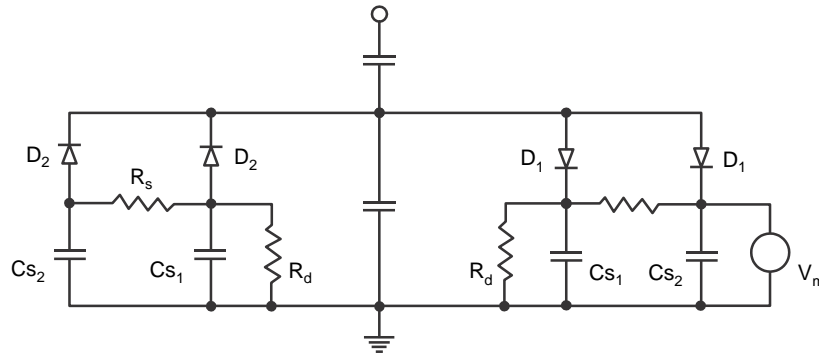


Fig.6.16 Two-way booster circuit designed by Rabus

Here because of the presence of R_s , the discharge of the storage capacitor C_{s2} is delayed and hence the inherent discharge error e_d is reduced. However, since these are two storage capacitors within one branch, they would draw more recharge from the capacitor C_2 and hence the recharge error e_r would increase. It is, therefore, a matter of designing various elements in the circuit so that the total sum of all the errors is a minimum. It has been observed that with the commonly used circuit elements in the voltage dividers, the error can be kept to well within about 1% even for frequencies below 20 Hz.

The capacitor C_1 has to withstand high voltage to be measured and is always placed within the test area whereas the low voltage arm C_2 including the peak circuit and instrument for measurement is located in the control area. Hence a coaxial cable is always required to connect the two areas. The cable capacitance comes parallel with the capacitance C_2 which is usually changed in steps if the voltage to be measured is changed. A change of the length of the cable would, thus, also require recalibration of the system. The sheath of the coaxial cable picks up the electrostatic fields and thus prevents the penetration of this field to the core of the conductor. Also, even though transient magnetic fields will penetrate into the core of the cable, no appreciable voltage (extraneous or noise) is induced due to the symmetrical arrangement and hence a coaxial cable provides a good connection between the two areas. Whenever a discharge takes place at the high voltage end of capacitor C_1 to the cable connection where the current looks into a change in impedance a high voltage of short duration may be built up at the low voltage end of the capacitor C_1 which must be limited by using an overvoltage protection device (protection gap). These devices will also prevent complete damage of the measuring circuit if the insulation of C_1 fails.

SPHERE GAP

Sphere gap is by now considered as one of the standard methods for the measurement of peak value of d.c., a.c. and impulse voltages and is used for checking the voltmeters and other voltage measuring devices used in high voltage test circuits. Two identical metallic spheres separated by certain distance form a sphere gap. The sphere gap can be used for measurement of impulse voltage of either polarity provided that the impulse is of a standard waveform and has a wave front time at least 1 microsec. and wave tail time of 5 microsec. Also, the gap length between the spheres should not exceed a sphere radius. If these conditions are satisfied and the specifications regarding the shape, mounting, clearances of the spheres are met, the results obtained by the use of sphere gaps are reliable to within $\pm 3\%$. It has been suggested in standard specification that in places where the availability of ultraviolet radiation is low, irradiation of the gap by radioactive or other ionizing media should be used when voltages of magnitude less than 50 kV are being measured or where higher voltages with accurate results are to be obtained.

In order to understand the importance of irradiation of sphere gap for measurement of impulse voltages especially which are of short duration, it is necessary to understand the time-lag involved in the development of spark process. This time lag consists of two components—(i) The statistical time-lag caused by the need of an electron to appear in the gap during the application of the voltage. (ii) The formative time lag which is the time required for the breakdown to develop once initiated.

The statistical time-lag depends on the irradiation level of the gap. If the gap is sufficiently irradiated so that an electron exists in the gap to initiate the spark process and if the gap is subjected to an impulse voltage, the breakdown will take place when the peak voltage exceeds the d.c. breakdown value. However, if the irradiation level is low, the voltage must be maintained above the d.c. breakdown value for a longer period before an electron appears. Various methods have been used for irradiation, e.g. radioactive material, ultraviolet illumination as supplied by mercury arc lamp and corona discharges.

It has been observed that large variation can occur in the statistical time-lag characteristic of a gap when illuminated by a specified light source, unless the cathode conditions are also precisely specified.

Irradiation by radioactive material has the advantage in that they can form a stable source of irradiation and that they produce an amount of ionisation in the gap which is largely independent of the voltage and of the surface conditions of the electrode. The radioactive material may be placed inside high voltage electrode close behind the sparking surface or the radioactive material may form the sparking surface.

The influence of the light from the impulse generators spark gap on the operation of the sphere gap has been studied. Here the illumination is intense and occurs at the exact instant when it is required, namely, at the instant of application of the voltage wave to the sphere gap.

The formative time lag depends mainly upon the mechanism of spark growth. In case of secondary electron emission, it is the transit time taken by the positive ion to travel from anode to cathode that decides the formative time lag. The formative time-lag decreases with the applied overvoltage and increases with gap length and field non-uniformity.

Specifications on Spheres and Associated Accessories

The spheres should be so made that their surfaces are smooth and their curvatures as uniform as possible. The curvatures should be measured by a spherometer at various positions over an area enclosed by a circle of radius $0.3D$ about the parking point where *D* is the diameter of the sphere and parking points on the two spheres are those which are at minimum distances from each other.

For smaller size, the spheres are placed in horizontal configuration whereas larger sizes (diameters), the spheres are mounted with the axis of the sphere gaps vertical and the lower sphere is grounded. In either case, it is important that the spheres should be so placed that the space between spheres is free from external electric fields and from bodies which may affect the field between the spheres (Figs. 6.1 and 6.2).

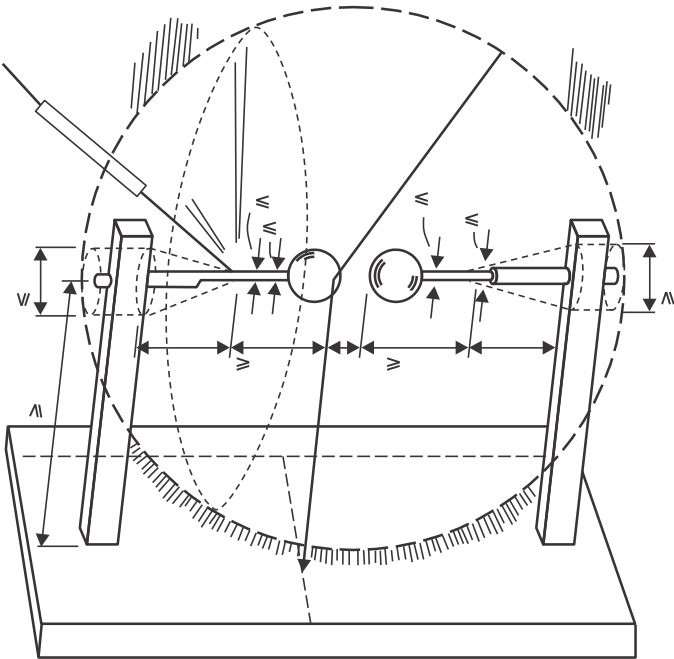


Fig.6.1

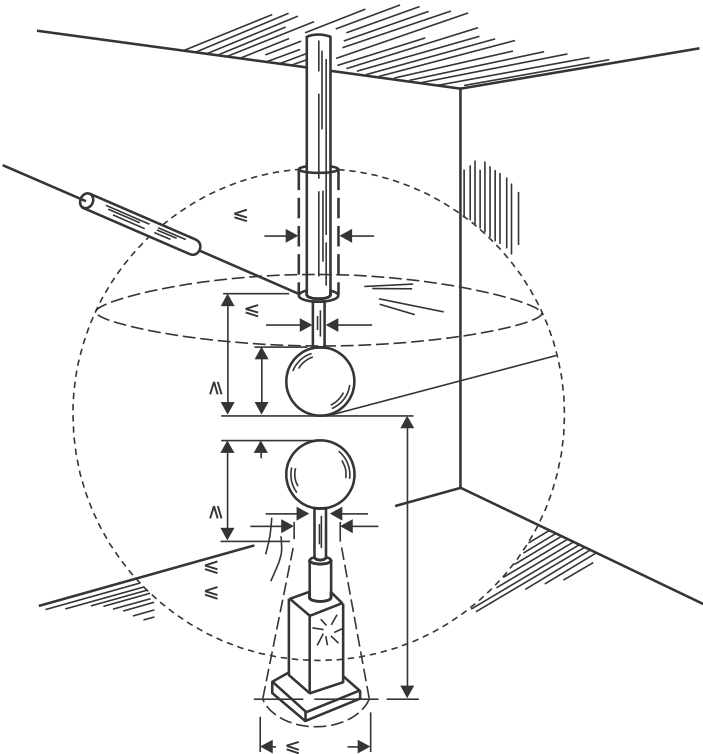


Fig.6.2

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According to BSS 358:1939, when one sphere is grounded, the distance from the sparking point of the high voltage sphere to the equivalent earth plane to which the earthed sphere is connected should lie within the limits as given in Table 6.4.

Table 6.1
Height of sparking point of high voltage sphere above the equivalent earth plane.
S = Sparking point distance

Sphere Diameter		S < 0.5D		S > 0.5D	
D		Maxm. Height	Min. Height	Maxm. Height	Min. Height
Upto	25cms.	7D	10S	7D	5D
	50cms.	6D	8S	6D	4D
	75cms.	6D	8S	6D	4D
	100cms.	5D	7S	5D	5.5D
	150cms.	4D	6S	4D	3D
	200cms.	4D	6S	4D	3D

In order to avoid corona discharge, the shank supporting the sphere should be free from sharp edges and corners. The distance of the sparking point from any conducting surface except the shank should be greater than

$$F_{25+} V_{cms}$$
$$\frac{H}{3K}$$

where V is the peak voltage in kV to be measured. When large spheres are used for the measurement of low voltages the limiting distance should not be less than a sphere diameter.

It has been observed that the metal of which the spheres are made does not affect the accuracy of measurements. MSS 358: 1939 states that the spheres may be made of brass, bronze, steel, copper, aluminium or light alloys. The only requirement is that the surfaces of these spheres should be clean, free from grease films, dust or deposited moisture. Also, the gap between the spheres should be kept free from floating dust particles, fibres etc.

For power frequency tests, a protective resistance with a value of 1 Ω/V should be connected in between the spheres and the test equipment to limit the discharge current and to prevent high frequency oscillations in the circuit which may otherwise result in excessive pitting of the spheres. For higher frequencies, the voltage drop would increase and it is necessary to have a small value of the resistance. For impulse voltage the protective resistors are not required. If the condition of the spheres and its

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associated accessories as given above are satisfied, the spheres will spark at a peak voltage which will be close to the nominal values shown in Table 6.4. These calibration values relate to a temperature of 20°C and pressure of 760 mmHg. For a.c. and impulse voltages, the tables are considered to be accurate within $\pm 3\%$ for gap lengths up to $0.5D$. The tables are not valid for gap lengths less than $0.05D$ and impulse voltages less than 10 kV. If the gap length is greater than $0.5D$, the results are less accurate and are shown in brackets.

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Table 6.2
Sphere gap with one sphere earthed
Peak value of disruptive discharge voltages (50% for impulse tests) are valid for (i) alternating voltages
(ii) d.c. voltage of either polarity (iii) negative lightning and switching impulse voltages

Sphere Gap Spacing mm		Voltage KV Peak Sphere dia in cm.					
	14.5	25	50	75	100	150	200
10	34.7						
20	59.0						
30	85	86					
40	108	112					
50	129	137	138	138	138	138	
75	167	195	202	203	203	203	203
100	(195)	244	263	265	266	266	266
125	(214)	282	320	327	330	330	330
150		(314)	373	387	390	390	390
175		(342)	420	443	443	450	450
200		(366)	460	492	510	510	510
250		(400)	530	585	615	630	630
300			(585)	665	710	745	750
350			(630)	735	800	850	855
400			(670)	(800)	875	955	975
450			(700)	(850)	945	1050	1080
500			(730)	(895)	1010	1130	1180
600				(970)	(1110)	1280	1340
700				(1025)	(1200)	1390	1480
800					(1260)	1490	1600
900					(1320)	1580	1720
1000					(1360)	1660	1840
1100						1730	1940
1200						1800	2020
1300						1870	2100
1400						1920	2180
1500						1960	2250
1600							2320
1700							2370
1800							2410
1900							2460
2000							2490

Duetodustandfibrepresentintheair,themeasurementofd.c.voltagesisgenerallysubjectto largererrors.Here theaccuracyiswithin $\pm 5\%$ provided the spacing is less than $0.4D$ and excessive dust is not present.

The procedure for high voltage measurement using sphere gaps depends upon the type of voltage to be measured.

Table 6.3
Sphere Gap with one sphere grounded
Peak values of disruptive discharge voltages (50% values).
Positive lightning and switching impulse voltages

SphereGap		PeakVoltagekV Spherediaincms						
Spacingmm	14.5	25	50	75	100	150	200	
10	34.7							
20	59	59						
30	85.5	86						
40	110	112						
50	134	138	138	138	138	138	138	
75	(181)	199	203	202	203	203	203	
100	(215)	254	263	265	266	266	266	
125	(239)	299	323	327	330	330	330	
150		(337)	380	387	390	390	390	
175		(368)	432	447	450	450	450	
200		(395)	480	505	510	510	510	
250		(433)	555	605	620	630	630	
300			(620)	695	725	745	760	
350			(670)	770	815	858	820	
400			(715)	(835)	900	965	980	
450			(745)	(890)	980	1060	1090	
500			(775)	(940)	1040	1150	1190	
600				(1020)	(1150)	(1310)	1380	
700				(1070)	(1240)	(1430)	1550	
750				(1090)	(1280)	(1480)	1620	
800					(1310)	(1530)	1690	
900					(1370)	(1630)	(1820)	
1000					(1410)	(1720)	1930	
1100						(1790)	(2030)	
1200						(1860)	(2120)	

For the measurement of a.c. or d.c. voltage, a reduced voltage is applied to begin with so that the switching transient does not flash over the sphere gap and then the voltage is increased gradually till the gap breaks down. Alternatively the voltage is applied across a relatively large gap and the spacing is

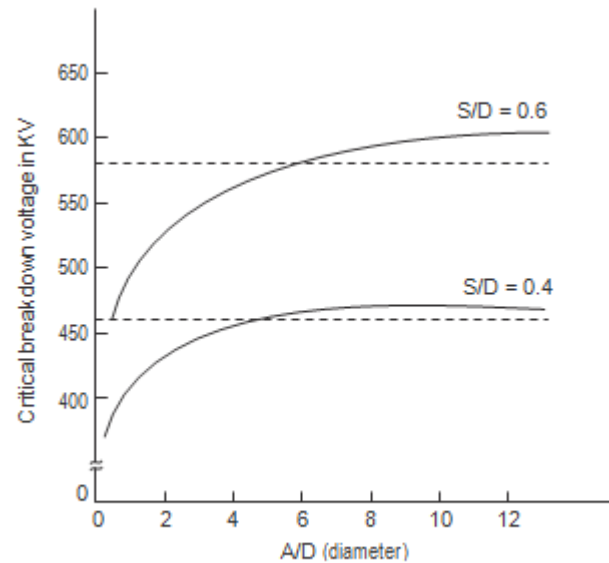


Fig. 6.3 Breakdown voltage as a function of A/D

Where ΔV = per cent reduction in voltage in the breakdown voltage from the value when the clearance was $14.6D$, and m and C are the factors dependent on the ratio S/D .

Fiegeland and Keen have studied the influence of nearby ground plane on impulse breakdown voltage of a 50 cm diameter sphere gap using 4.5/40 microsec. negative polarity impulse wave. Fig. 6.3 shows the breakdown voltage as a function of A/D for various values of S/D . The voltage values were corrected for relative air density.

It is observed that the voltage increases with increase in the ratio A/D . The results have been compared with those given in Table 6.2 and represented in Fig. 6.3 by dashed lines. The results also agree with the recommendation regarding the minimum and maximum values of A/D as given in Table 6.4.

Influence of Humidity

Kuffel has studied the effect of the humidity on the breakdown voltage by using spheres of 2 cm to 25 cm diameter and uniform field electrodes. The effect was found to be maximum in the region 0.4 mm Hg. and thereafter the change was decreased. Between 4–17 mm Hg. the relation between breakdown voltage and humidity was practically linear for spacing less than that which gave the maximum humidity effect. Fig. 6.4 shows the effect of humidity on the breakdown voltage of a 25 cm diameter sphere with spacing of 1 cm when a.c. and d.c. voltages are applied. It can be seen that

- (i) The a.c. breakdown voltage is slightly less than d.c. voltage.
- (ii) The breakdown voltage increases with the partial pressure of water vapour.

It has also been observed that

- (i) The humidity effect increases with the size of spheres and is largest for uniform field electrodes.
- (ii) The voltage change for a given humidity change increases with gap length.

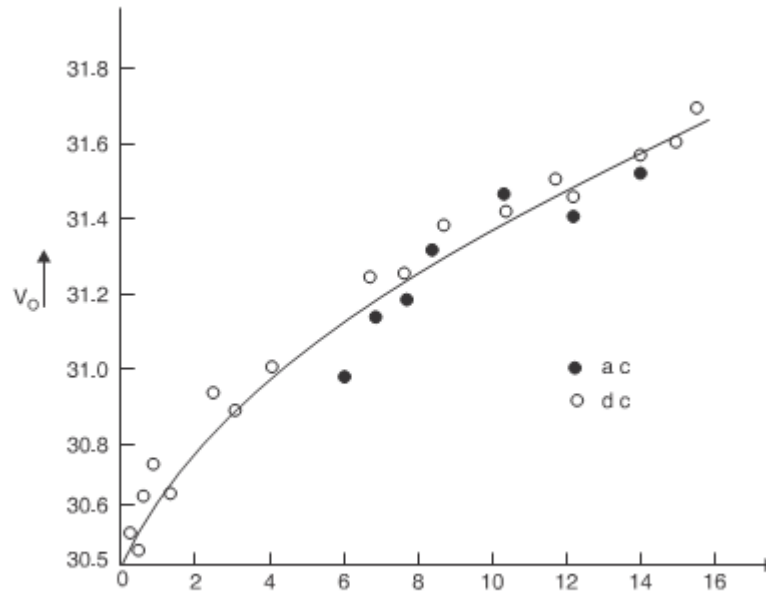


Fig. 6.4 Breakdown voltage humidity relation for a.c. and d.c. for 4.0 cm gap between 25 cms diameter spheres

The increase in breakdown voltage with increase in partial pressure of water vapour and this increase in voltage with increase in gap length is due to the relative values of ionisation and attachment coefficients in air. The water particles readily attach free electrons, forming negative ions. These ions therefore slow down and are unable to ionise neutral molecules under field conditions in which electrons will readily ionise. It has been observed that within the humidity range of 4 to 17 g/m³ (relative humidity of 25 to 95% for 20°C temperature) the relative increase of breakdown voltage is found to be between 0.2 to 0.35% per g/m³ for the largest sphere of diameter 100 cms and gap length up to 50 cms.

Influence of Dust Particles

When a dust particle is floating between the gap this results into erratic breakdown in homogeneous or slightly inhomogeneous electrode configurations. When the dust particle comes in contact with one electrode under the application of d.c. voltage, it gets charged to the polarity of the electrode and gets attracted by the opposite electrode due to the field forces and the breakdown is triggered shortly before arrival. Gaps subjected to a.c. voltages are also sensitive to dust particles but the probability of erratic breakdown is less. Under d.c. voltages erratic breakdowns occur within a few minutes even for voltages as low

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as 80% of the nominal breakdown voltages. This is a major problem, with high d.c. voltage measurements with sphere gaps.

UNIFORM FIELD SPARK GAPS

Bruce suggested the use of uniform field spark gaps for the measurements of a.c., d.c. and impulse voltages. These gaps provide accuracy to within 0.2% for a.c. voltage measurements and an appreciable improvement as compared with the equivalent sphere gap arrangement. Fig. 6.5 shows a half-contour of one electrode having plane and spherical surfaces with edges of gradually increasing curvature.

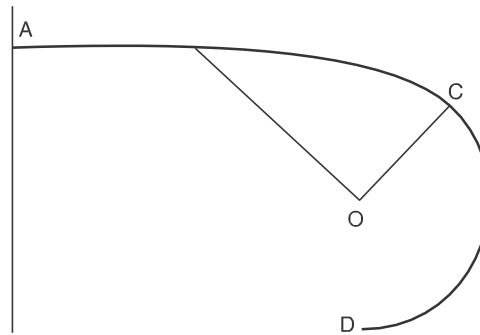


Fig. 6.5 Half contour of uniform spark gap

The portion AB is flat, the total diameter of the flat portion being greater than the maximum spacing between the electrodes. The portion BC consists of a sine curve based on the axes OB and OC and given by $XY = CO \sin(BX/BO \cdot \pi/2)$. CD is an arc of a circle with centre at O.

Bruce showed that the breakdown voltage V of a gap of length S cm in air at 20°C and 760 mm Hg. pressure is within 0.2 percent of the value given by the empirical relation.

$$V = 26.22S + 6.08 \sqrt{S}$$

This equation, therefore, replaces Tables 6.2 and 6.3 which are necessary for sphere gaps. This is a great advantage, that is, if the spacing between the spheres for breakdown is known the breakdown voltage can be calculated.

The other advantages of uniform field spark gaps are

- (i) No influence of nearby earthed objects
- (ii) No polarity effect.

However, the disadvantages are

- (i) Very accurate mechanical finish of the electrode is required.
- (ii) Careful parallel alignment of the two electrodes.
- (iii) Influence of dust brings in erratic breakdown of the gap. This is much more serious in these gaps as compared with sphere gaps as the highly stressed electrode areas become much larger. Therefore, a uniform field gap is normally not used for voltage measurements.

RODGAPS

A rod gap may be used to measure the peak value of power frequency and impulse voltages. The gap usually consists of two 4.27 cm square rod electrodes square in section at their ends and are mounted on insulating stands so that a length of rod equal to or greater than one half of the gap spacing overhangs the inner edge of the support. The breakdown voltages as found in American standards for different gap lengths at 25°C, 760 mm Hg. pressure and with water vapour pressure of 15.5 mm Hg. are reproduced here

<i>Gap length in Cms.</i>	<i>Breakdown Voltage KV peak</i>	<i>Gap Length in cms.</i>	<i>Breakdown Voltage KV peak</i>
2	26	80	435
4	47	90	488
6	62	100	537
8	72	120	642
10	81	140	744
15	102	160	847
20	124	180	950
25	147	200	1054
30	172	220	1160
35	198		
40	225		
50	278		
60	332		
70	382		

The breakdown voltage is a rod gap increases more or less linearly with increasing relative air density over the normal variations in atmospheric pressure. Also, the breakdown voltage increases with increasing relative humidity, the standard humidity being taken as 15.5 mm Hg.

Because of the large variation in breakdown voltage for the same spacing and the uncertainties associated with the influence of humidity, rod gaps are no longer used for measurement of a.c. or impulse voltages. However, more recent investigations have shown that these rods can be used for d.c. measurement provided certain regulations regarding the electrode configurations are observed. The arrangement consists of two hemispherically capped rods of about 20 mm diameter as shown in Fig. 6.6.

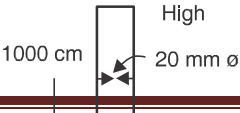


Fig.6.6 Electrode arrangement for a rod gap to measure HV

The earthed electrode must be long enough to initiate positive breakdown streamers if the high voltage rod is the cathode. With this arrangement, the breakdown voltage will always be initiated by positive streamers for both the polarities thus giving a very small variation and being humidity dependent. Except for low voltages (less than 120 kV), where the accuracy is low, the breakdown voltage can be given by the empirical relation.

$$V = \delta(A + BS)^4 \sqrt{5.1 \times 10^{-2}(h + 8.65)} \text{ kV}$$

where h is the absolute humidity in gm/m^3 and varies between 4 and 20 gm/m^3 in the above relation. The breakdown voltage is linearly related with the gap spacing and the slope of the relation $B = 5.1 \text{ kV/cm}$ and is found to be independent of the polarity of voltage. However, constant A is polarity dependent and has the values

$A = 20 \text{ kV}$ for positive polarity

$= 15 \text{ kV}$ for negative polarity of the high voltage electrode.

The accuracy of the above relation is better than $\pm 20\%$ and, therefore, provides better accuracy even as compared to a sphere gap.

IMPULSE VOLTAGE MEASUREMENTS USING VOLTAGE DIVIDERS

If the amplitude of the impulse voltage is not high and is in the range of a few kilovolts, it is possible to measure them even when these are of short duration by using CRO. However, if the voltages to be measured are of high magnitude of the order of megavolts which normally is the case for testing and research purposes, various problems arise. The voltage dividers required are of special design and need a thorough understanding of the interaction present in these voltage dividing systems. Fig. 6.17 shows a layout of a voltage testing circuit within a high voltage testing area. The voltage generator G is connected to a test object— T through a lead L .

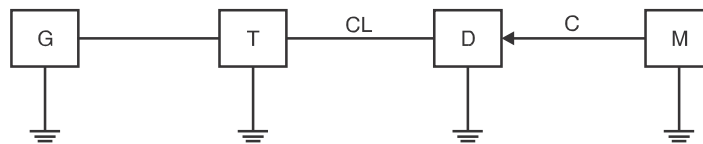


Fig.6.17 Basic voltage testing circuit

These three elements form a voltage generating system. The lead L consists of a lead wire and a resistor to damp oscillation or to limit short-circuit currents if the test object fails. The measuring system starts at the terminal of the test object and consists of a connecting lead CL to the voltage divider D . The output of the divider is fed to the measuring instrument (CRO etc.) M . The appropriate ground return should assure low voltage drops for even highly transient phenomena and keep the ground potential of zero as far as possible.

It is to be noted that the test object is a predominantly capacitive element and thus this forms an oscillatory circuit with the inductance of the load. These oscillations are likely to be excited by any steep voltage rise from the generator output, but will only partly be detected by the voltage divider. A resistor in series with the connecting leads damps out these oscillations. The voltage dividers should always be connected outside the generator circuit towards the load circuit (Test object) for accurate measurement. In case it is connected within the generator circuit, and the test object discharges (chopped wave) the whole generator including voltage divider will be discharged by this short circuit at the test object and thus the voltage divider is loaded by the voltage drop across the lead L . As a result, the voltage measurement will be wrong.

Yet for another reason, the voltage dividers should be located away from the generator circuit. The dividers cannot be shielded against external fields. All objects in the vicinity of the divider which may acquire transient potentials during a test will disturb the field distribution and thus the divider performance. Therefore, the connecting lead CL is an integral part of the potential divider circuit.

In order to avoid electromagnetic interference between the measuring instrument M and C the high voltage test area, the length of the delay cables should be adequately chosen. Very short length of the cable can be used only if the measuring instrument has high level of electromagnetic compatibility (EMC). For any type of voltage to be measured, the cable should be co-axial type. The outer conductor provides a shield against the electrostatic field and thus prevents the penetration of this field to the inner conductor. Even though, the transient magnetic fields will penetrate into the cable, no appreciable voltage is induced due to the symmetrical arrangement. Ordinary coaxial cables with braided shields may well be used for d.c. and a.c. voltages. However, for impulse voltage measurement double shielded cables with predominantly two insulated braided shields will be used for better accuracy.

During disruption of test object, very heavy transient current flow and hence the potential of the ground may rise to dangerously high values if proper earthing is not provided. For this, large metal sheets of highly conducting materials such as copper or aluminium are used. Most of the modern high

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voltage laboratories provide such ground return along with a Faraday Cage for a complete shielding of the laboratory. Expanded metal sheets give similar performance. At least metal tapes of large width should be used to reduce the impedance.

Voltage Divider

Voltage dividers for a.c., d.c. or impulse voltages may consist of resistors or capacitors or a convenient combination of these elements. Inductors are normally not used as voltage dividing elements as pure inductances of proper magnitudes without stray capacitance cannot be built and also these inductances would otherwise form a oscillatory circuit with the inherent capacitance of the test object and this may lead to inaccuracy in measurement and high voltages in the measuring circuit. The height of a voltage divider depends upon the flash over voltage and this follows from the rated maximum voltage applied. Now, the potential distribution may not be uniform and hence the height also depends upon the design of the high voltage electrode, the top electrode. For voltages in the megavolt range, the height of the divider becomes large. As a thumb rule following clearances between top electrode and ground may be assumed.

4.5 to 3 metres/MV for d.c. voltages.

2 to 4.5 m/MV for lightning impulse voltages.

More than 5 m/MV rms for a.c. voltages.

More than 4 m/MV for switching impulse voltage.

The potential divider is most simply represented by two impedances Z_1 and Z_2 connected in series and the sample voltage required for measurement is taken from across Z_2 , Fig. 6.18.

If the voltage to be measured is V_1 and sampled voltage V_2 , then

$$V_2 = \frac{Z_2}{Z_1 + Z_2} V_1$$

If the impedances are pure resistances

$$V_2 = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V_1$$

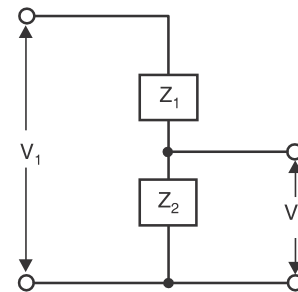


Fig. 6.18 Basic diagram of a potential divider circuit

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The voltage V_2 is normally only a few hundred volts and hence the value of Z_2 is so chosen that V_2 across it gives sufficient deflection on a CRO. Therefore, most of the voltage drop is available across the impedance Z_1 and since the voltage to be measured is in megavolts the length of Z_1 is large which results in inaccurate measurements because of the stray capacitances associated with long length voltage dividers (especially with impulse voltage measurements) unless special precautions are taken. On the low voltage side of the potential dividers where a screened cable of finite length has to be employed for connection to the oscillograph other errors and distortion of wave shape can also occur.

Resistance Potential Dividers

Resistance potential dividers are the first to appear because of their simplicity of construction, less space requirements, less weight and easy portability. These can be placed near the test object which might not always be confined to one location.

The length of the divider depends upon two or three factors. The maximum voltage to be measured is the first and if height is a limitation, the length can be based on a surface flashover gradient in the order of 3–4 kV/cm irrespective of whether the resistance R_1 is of liquid or wire wound construction.

The length also depends upon the resistance value but this is implicitly bound up with the stray capacitance of the resistance column, the product of the two (RC) giving a time constant the value of which must not exceed the duration of the wave front it is required to record.

It is to be noted with caution that the resistance of the potential dividers should be matched to the equivalent resistance of a given generator to obtain a given wave shape.

Fig. 6.19(a) shows a common form of resistance potential divider used for testing purposes where the wave front time of the wave is less than 1 microsec.

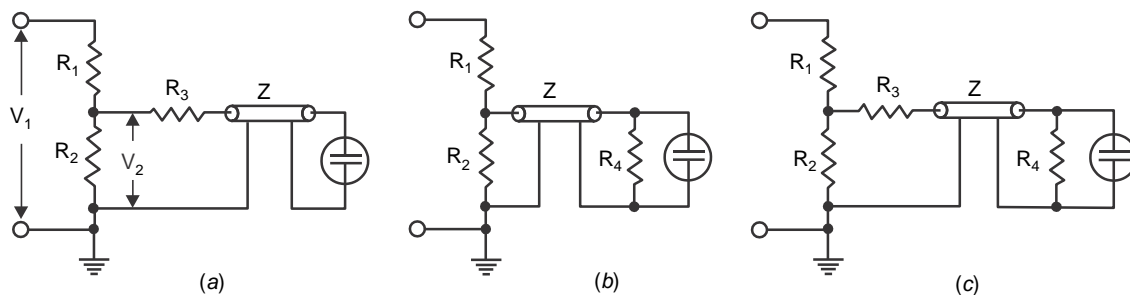


Fig. 6.19 Various forms of resistance potential dividers recording circuits (a) Matching at divider end (b) Matching at Oscillograph end (c) Matching at both ends of delay cable

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Here R_3 , the resistance at the divider end of the delay cable is chosen such that $R_2 + R_3 = Z$ which puts an upper limit on R_2 i.e., $R_2 < Z$. In fact, sometimes the condition for matching is given as

$$Z = R_3 + \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

But, since usually $R_1 \gg R_2$, the above relation reduces to $Z = R_3 + R_2$. From Fig. 6.19(a), the voltage appearing across R_2 is

$$V_2 =$$

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$$\begin{array}{c} Z_1 \quad V \\ Z+R \end{array}$$

where Z_1 is the equivalent impedance of R_2 in parallel with $(Z + R_3)$, the surge impedance of the cable being represented by an impedance Z to ground.

$$\text{Now} \quad Z_1 = \frac{(Z+R_3)R_2}{R_2 + Z + R_3} = \frac{(Z+R_3)R_2}{2Z}$$

$$\text{Therefore,} \quad V_2 = \frac{(Z+R_3)R_2}{2Z} \cdot \frac{V_1}{Z+R}$$

However, the voltage entering the delay cable is

$$V_3 = \frac{V_2}{Z+R} = \frac{Z}{Z+R} \cdot \frac{(Z+R_3)R_2}{2Z} \cdot \frac{V_1}{Z+R} = V_1 \frac{R_2}{2(Z+R)}$$

As this voltage wave reaches the CRO end of the delay cable, it suffers reflections as the impedance offered by the CRO is infinite and as a result the voltage wave transmitted into the CRO is doubled. The CRO, therefore, records a voltage

$$V_3' = \frac{R_2}{Z+R} V_1$$

The reflected wave, however, as it reaches the low voltage arm of the potential divider does not suffer any reflection as $Z = R_2 + R_3$ and is totally absorbed by $(R_2 + R_3)$.

Since R_2 is smaller than Z and Z_1 is a parallel combination of R_2 and $(R_3 + Z)$, Z_1 is going to be smaller than R_2 and since $R_1 \gg R_2$, R_1 will be much greater than Z_1 and, therefore to a first approximation $Z_1 + R_1 \approx R_1$.

$$\text{Therefore,} \quad V_3' \approx \frac{R_2}{R_1} V_1 \text{ as } R_2 \ll R_1$$

Fig. 6.19(b) and (c) are the variants of the potential divider circuit of Fig. 6.19(a). The cable matching is done by a pure ohmic resistance $R_4 = Z$ at the end of the delay cable and, therefore, the voltage reflection coefficient is zero i.e. the voltage at the end of the cable is transmitted completely into R_4 and hence appears across the CRO plates without being reflected. As the input impedance of the delay cable is $R_4 = Z$, this resistance is in parallel to R_2 and forms an integral part of the divider's low voltage arm. The voltage of such a divider is, therefore, calculated as follows:

Equivalent impedance

$$= R_1 + \frac{R_2 Z}{R_2 + Z} = \frac{R_1(R_2 + Z) + R_2 Z}{(R_2 + Z)}$$

$$\text{Therefore, Current} \quad I = \frac{V_1(R_2 + Z)}{\dots}$$

$$V_1(R_2 + Z)$$

$$R_2 Z$$

$$V_2 = \frac{IR_2 Z}{R_2 + Z} = \frac{V_1(R_2 + Z) R_2 Z}{R_1(R_2 + Z) + R_2 Z}$$

$$= \frac{R_2 Z}{R(R + Z) + RZ} V_1$$

or voltage ratio

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{R_2 Z}{R(R + Z) + RZ}$$

Due to the matching at the CRO end of the delay cable, the voltage does not suffer any reflection at that end and the voltage recorded by the CRO is given as

$$V_2 = \frac{R_2 Z V_1}{R(R + Z) + RZ} = \frac{R_2 Z V_1}{(R + R)Z + RR} = \frac{R_2 V_1}{(R_1 + R) + \frac{R_1 R_2}{Z}}$$

Normally for undistorted wave shape through the cable

$$Z \approx R_2$$

Therefore,

$$V_2 = \frac{R_2}{2R + R} V_1$$

For a given applied voltage V_1 this arrangement will produce a smaller deflection on the CRO plates as compared to the one in Fig. 6.19(a).

The arrangement of Fig. 6.19(c) provides for matching at both ends of the delay cable and is to be recommended where it is felt necessary to reduce to the minimum irregularities produced in the delay cable circuit. Since matching is provided at the CRO end of the delay cable, therefore, there is no reflection of the voltage at that end and the voltage recorded will be half of that recorded in the arrangement of Fig. 6.19(a) viz.

$$V_2 = \frac{R_2}{2(R + R)} V_1$$

It is desirable to enclose the low voltage resistors of the potential dividers in a metal screening box. Steel sheet is a suitable material for this box which could be provided with a detachable close fitting lid for easy access. If there are two low voltage resistors at the divider position as in Fig. 6.19(a) and (c), they should be contained in the screening box, as close together as possible, with a removable metallic partition between them. The partition serves two purposes (i) it acts as an electrostatic shield between the two resistors (ii) it facilitates the changing of the resistors. The length of the leads should be short so that practically no inductance is contributed by these leads. The screening box should be fitted with a large earthing terminal. Fig. 6.20 shows a sketched cross-section of possible layout for the

lowvoltagearmofvoltagedivider.

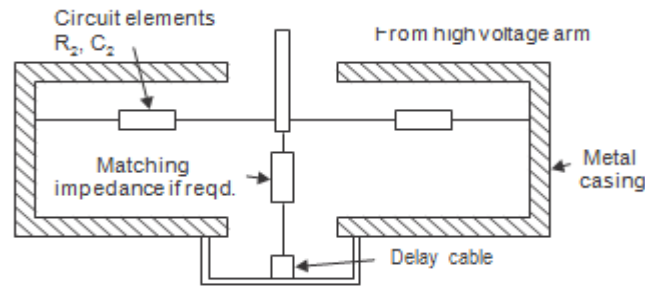


Fig. 6.20 Cross-section of low voltage arm of a voltage divider

Capacitance Potential Dividers

Capacitance potential dividers are more complex than the resistance type. For measurement of impulse voltages not exceeding 1 MV, capacitance dividers can be both portable and transportable. In general, for measurement of 1 MV and over, the capacitance divider is a laboratory fixture. The capacitance dividers are usually made of capacitor units mounted one above the other and bolted together. It is this failure which makes the small dividers portable. A screening box similar to that described earlier can be used for housing both the low voltage capacitor unit C_2 and the matching resistor if required.

The low voltage capacitor C_2 should be non-inductive. A form of capacitor which has given excellent results is of mica and tin foil plate, construction, each foil having connecting tags coming out at opposite corners. This ensures that the current cannot pass from the high voltage circuit to the delay cable without actually going through the foil electrodes. It is also important that the coupling between the high and low voltage arms of the divider be purely capacitive. Hence, the low voltage arm should contain one capacitor only; two or more capacitors in parallel must be avoided because of appreciable inductance that would thus be introduced. Further, the tapping to the delay cable must be taken off as close as possible to the terminals of C_4 . Fig. 6.21 shows variants of capacitance potential dividers.

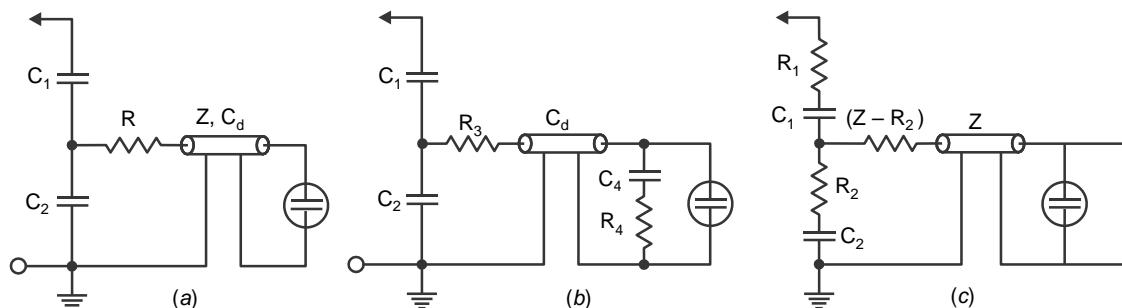


Fig.6.21 Capacitor dividers (a) Simple matching (b) Compensated matching (c) Damped capacitor dividers simple matching

For voltage dividers in Fig. (b) and (c), the delay cable cannot be matched at its end. A low resistor in parallel to C_2 would load the low voltage arm of the divider too heavily and decrease the output voltage with time. Since R and Z form a potential divider and $R=Z$, the voltage input to the cable will be half of the voltage across the capacitor C_4 . This halved voltage travels toward the open end of the cable (CRO end) and gets doubled after reflection. That is, the voltage recorded by the CRO is equal to the voltage across the capacitor C_4 . The reflected wave charges the cable to its final voltage magnitude and is absorbed by R (*i.e.* reflection takes place at R and since $R=Z$, the wave is completely absorbed as coefficient of voltage reflection is zero) as the capacitor C_2 acts as a short circuit for high frequency waves. The transformation ratio, therefore, changes from the value:

$$\frac{C_1 + C_2}{C_1}$$

for very high frequencies to the value

$$\frac{C_1 + C_2 + C_d}{C_1}$$

for low frequencies.

However, the capacitance of the delay cable C_d is usually small as compared with C_4 .

For capacitive divider an additional damping resistance is usually connected in the lead on the high voltage side as shown in Fig. 6.21 (c). The performance of the divider can be improved if damping resistor which corresponds to the aperiodic limiting case is inserted in series with the individual element of capacitor divider. This kind of damped capacitive divider acts for high frequencies as a resistive divider and for low frequencies as a capacitive divider. It can, therefore, be used over a wider range of frequencies *i.e.* for impulse voltages of very different duration and also for alternating voltages.

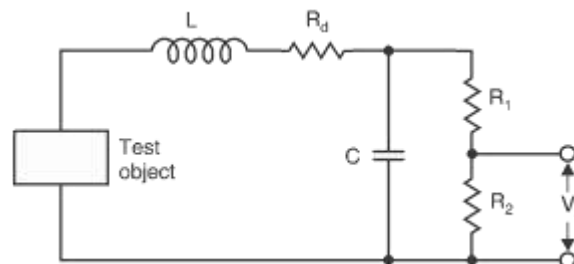


Fig.6.22 Simplified diagram of a resistance potential divider

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Fig. 6.22 shows a simplified diagram of a resistance potential divider after taking into consideration the lead in connection as the inductance and the stray capacitance as lumped capacitance. Here L represents the loop inductance of the lead-in connection for the high voltage arm. The damping resistance R_d limits the transient overshoot in the circuit formed by test object, L , R_d and C . Its value has a decided effect on the performance of the divider. In order to evaluate the voltage transformation of the divider, the low voltage arm voltage V_2 resulting from a square wave impulse V_1 on the h.v. side must be investigated. The voltage V_2 follows curve 2 in Fig. 6.23(a) in case of aperiodic damping and curve 2 in Fig. 6.23(b) in case of sub-critical damping. The total area between curves 1 and 2 taking into consideration the polarity, is described as the response time.

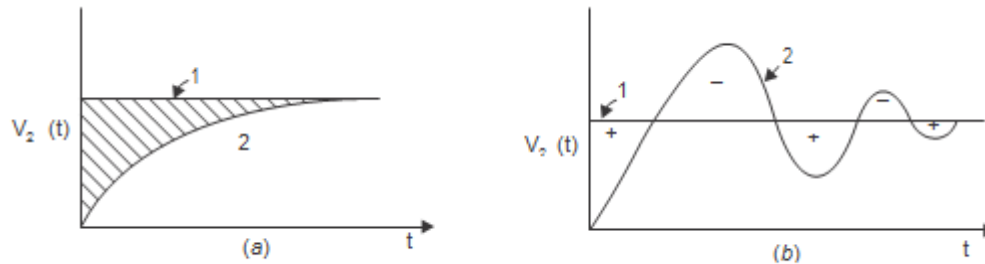


Fig. 6.23 The response of resistance voltage divider

With subcritical damping, even though the response time is smaller, the damping should not be very small. This is because an undesirable resonance may occur for a certain frequency within the passing frequency band of the divider. A compromise must therefore be realised between the short rise time and the rapid stabilization of the measuring system. According to IEC publication No. 60 a maximum overshoot of 3% is allowed for the full impulse wave, 5% for an impulse wave chopped on the front at times shorter than 1 microsec. In order to fulfill these requirements, the response time of the divider must not exceed 0.2 microsec. for full impulse waves 4.2/50 or 4.2/5 or impulse waves chopped on the tail. If the impulse wave is chopped on the front at times shorter than 1 microsec the response time must be not greater than 5% of the time to chopping.

Klydonograph or Surge Recorder

Since lightning surges are infrequent and random in nature, it is necessary to install a large number of recording devices to obtain a reasonable amount of data regarding these surges produced on transmission lines and other equipments. Some fairly simple devices have been developed for this purpose. Klydonograph is one such device which makes use of the patterns known as Lichtenberg figures which are produced on a photographic film by surface corona discharges.

The Klydonograph (Fig. 6.24) consists of a rounded electrode resting upon the emulsion side of a photographic film or plate which is kept on the smooth surface of an insulating material plate backed by a plate electrode. The minimum critical voltage to produce a figure is about 2 kV and the maximum voltage that can be recorded is about 20 kV, as a high voltage spark over occurs which spoils the film. The device can be used with a potential divider to measure high voltages and with a resistance shunt to measure impulse current.

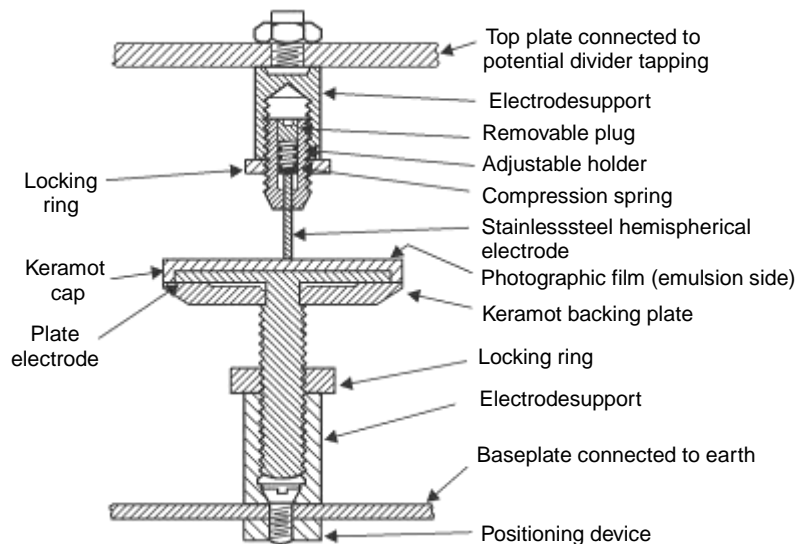


Fig. 6.24 Kiydonograph

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There are characteristic differences between the figures for positive and negative voltages. However, for either polarity the radius of the figure (if it is symmetrical) or the maximum distance from the centre of the figure to its outside edge (if it is unsymmetrical) is a function only of the applied voltage. The oscillatory voltages produce superimposed effects for each part of the wave. Thus it is possible to know whether the wave is unidirectional or oscillatory. Since the size of the figure for positive polarity is larger, it is preferable to use positive polarity figures. This is particularly desirable in case of measurement of surges on transmission lines or other such equipment which are ordinarily operating on a.c. voltage and the alternating voltage gives a black band along the centre of the film caused by superposition of positive and negative figures produced on each half cycle. For each surge voltage it is possible to obtain both positive and negative polarity figures by connecting pairs of electrodes in parallel, one pair with a high voltage point and an earthed plate and the other pair with a high voltage plate and an earthed point.

Klydonograph being a simple and inexpensive device, a large number of elements can be used for measurement. It has been used in the past quite extensively for providing statistical data on magnitude, polarity and frequency of voltage surges on transmission lines even though its accuracy of measurement is only of the order of 25 percent.

Example 1. *Determine the breakdown voltage for air gap of 2mm and 15mm lengths under uniform field and standard atmospheric conditions. Also, determine the voltage if the atmospheric pressure is 750mm Hg and temperature 35°C.*

Solution: According to empirical formula which holds good at standard atmospheric conditions

$$V_b = 26.22S + 6.08 \sqrt{S}$$

where S is the gap length in cms.

(i) When

$$S = 0.2 \text{ cm}$$

$$V = 26.22 \times 0.2 + 6.08 \sqrt{0.2} = 7.56 \text{ kV} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

(ii) When

$$S = 4.5 \text{ cms}$$

$$V_b = 26.22 \times 4.5 + 6.08 \sqrt{4.5} = 36.33 + 7.446 = 43.776 \text{ kV} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

The air density correction factor

$$\frac{5.92b}{273+t}$$

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$$= \frac{5.92 \times 75}{273 + 35} = 0.9545 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Therefore, voltage for 2mm gap will be 7.216kV and for 15mm gap it will be 44.78kV.

Example 3. Anelectrostatic voltmeter has two parallel plates. The movable plate is 10cm in diameter. With 10kV between the plates the pull is 5×10^{-3} N. Determine the change in capacitance for a movement of 1mm of movable plate.

Solution: $5 \times 10^{-3} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{36\pi} \times 10^{-9} \times \frac{18}{d^2} 25\pi \times 10^{-4}$

or $d = 26.35 \text{ mm.}$

Therefore, change in capacitance

$$\frac{10^3}{36} \times 10^{-9} \times 25 \times \frac{1}{\pi} \times 10^{-4} \left(\frac{1}{26.35} - \frac{1}{27.35} \right) = 0.0959 \text{ pF} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Example 5. A peak reading voltmeter is required to measure voltage up to 150kV. The peak voltmeter uses an RC circuit, a microammeter and a capacitance potential divider. The potential divider has a ratio of 1200:1 and the micrometer can read up to $10 \mu\text{A}$. Determine the value of R and C if the time constant of RC circuit is 8secs.

Solution: The voltage across the low voltage arm of the potential divider,

$$= \frac{150 \times 1000}{1200} = 125 \text{ volts.}$$

The same voltage appears across the resistance.

Therefore $R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{125}{10 \times 10^{-6}} = 14.5 \text{ M}\Omega$

Since the time constant of the RC circuit is 8sec.

$$\frac{R}{C} = 8 \quad \Rightarrow \quad C = \frac{R}{8} = \frac{14.5 \times 10^6}{8} = 0.64 \mu\text{F} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

1. What are the requirements of a sphere gap for measurement of high voltages? Discuss the disadvantages of sphere gap for measurements.
2. Explain clearly the procedure for measurement of (i) impulse; (ii) a.c. high voltages using sphere gap.
3. Discuss the effect of (i) nearby earthed objects (ii) humidity and (iii) dust particles on the measurements

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- using sphere gaps.
4. Describe the construction of a uniform field spark gap and discuss its advantages and disadvantages for high voltage measurements.
 5. Explain with neat diagram how rod gaps can be used for measurement of high voltages. Compare its performance with sphere gap.
 6. Explain with neat diagram the principle of operation of an Electrostatic Voltmeter. Discuss its advantages and limitations for high voltage measurements.
 7. Draw neat schematic diagram of a generating voltmeter and explain its principle of operation. Discuss its application and limitations.
 8. Draw Chubb-Fortescue Circuit for measurement of peak value of a.c. voltages discuss its advantages over other methods.
 9. Discuss the problems associated with peak voltmeter circuits using passive elements. Draw circuit developed by Rabus and explain how this circuit overcomes these problems.
 10. What are the problems associated with measurement of very high impulse voltages? Explain how these can be taken care of during measurements.
 11. Discuss and compare the performance of (i) resistance (ii) capacitance potential dividers for measurement of impulse voltages.
 12. Discuss various resistance potential dividers and compare their performance of measurement of impulse voltages.
 13. Discuss various capacitance, potential dividers and compare their performance for measurement of impulse voltages.
 14. Draw a simplified equivalent circuit of a resistance potential divider and discuss its step response.
 15. Discuss various methods of measuring high d.c. and a.c. currents.
 16. Discuss various methods of measuring high impulse currents.
 17. What is Rogowski Coil? Explain with neat diagram its principle of operation for measurement of hi

gh impulse currents.

UNIT -7

NON-DESTRUCTIVE INSULATION TESTING TECHNIQUES: Dielectric loss and loss angle measurements using Schering Bridge, Transformer ratio Arms Bridge. Need for discharge detection and PD measurements aspects. Factor affecting the discharge detection. Discharge detection methods-straight and balanced methods.

6 Hours

All electrical appliances are insulated with gaseous or liquid or solid or a suitable combination of these materials. The insulation is provided between live parts or between live part and grounded part of the appliance. The materials may be subjected to varying degrees of voltages, temperatures and frequencies and it is expected of these materials to work satisfactorily over these ranges which may occur occasionally in the system. The dielectric losses must be low and the insulation resistance high in order to prevent thermal breakdown of these materials. The void formation within the insulating materials must be avoided as these deteriorate the dielectric materials.

One of the possible testing procedure is to over-stress insulation with high a.c. and/or d.c. or surge voltages. However, the disadvantage of the technique is that during the process of testing the equipment may be damaged if the insulation is faulty. For this reason, following non-destructive testing methods that permit early detection for insulation faults are used:

- (i) Measurement of the insulation resistance under d.c. voltages.
- (ii) Determination of loss factor $\tan \delta$ and the capacitance C .
- (iii) Measurement of partial discharges.

MEASUREMENT OF DIELECTRIC CONSTANT AND LOSS FACTOR**Dielectric loss and equivalent circuit**

In case of time varying electric fields, the current density J_c using Ampere's law is given by

$$J_c = \sigma E + \epsilon \frac{\partial E}{\partial t}$$

For harmonically varying fields

$$E = E_m e^{j\omega t}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} = j\omega E_m e^{j\omega t} = j\omega E$$

Therefore,

$$J_c = \sigma E + j\omega \epsilon E$$

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$$=(\sigma + j\omega\epsilon)E$$

In general, in addition to conduction losses, ionization and polarization losses also occur and, therefore, the dielectric constant $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r$ is no longer a real quantity rather it is a

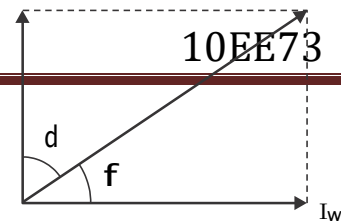


Fig.7.3 Phasor diagram for a real dielectric material

complex quantity. By definition, the dissipation factor $\tan\delta$ is the ratio of real component of current I_w to the reactive component I_r (Fig.7.3).

$$\tan\delta = \frac{I_w}{I_r} = \frac{P_{diel}}{P_r}$$

Here δ is the angle between the reactive component of current and the total current flowing through the dielectric at fundamental frequency. When δ is very small $\tan\delta \approx \delta$ when δ is expressed in radians and $\tan\delta = \sin\delta = \sin(90^\circ - \phi) = \cos\phi$. i.e., $\tan\delta$ then equals the power factor of the dielectric material.

As mentioned earlier, the dielectric loss consists of three components corresponding to the three loss mechanisms.

$$P_{diel} = P_c + P_p + P_i$$

and for each of these an individual dissipation factor can be given such that

$$\tan\delta = \tan\delta_c + \tan\delta_p + \tan\delta_i$$

If only conduction losses occur then

$$P_{diel} = P_c = \sigma E^2 A d = V^2 \omega C \tan\delta = \frac{V^2 \omega \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r A}{d} \tan\delta$$

$$\text{or } \sigma E^2 = \frac{V^2}{d^2} \omega \epsilon \tan\delta = E^2 \omega \epsilon \tan\delta$$

$$\text{or } \tan\delta = \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon_r \epsilon_0}$$

This shows that the dissipation factor due to conduction loss alone is inversely proportional to the frequency and can, therefore, be neglected at higher frequencies. However, for supply frequency each loss component will have considerable magnitude.

In order to include all losses, it is customary to refer the existence of a loss current in addition to the charging current by introducing complex permittivity.

$$\epsilon^* = \epsilon' - j\epsilon''$$

and the total current I is expressed as

$$I = (j\omega\epsilon' + \omega\epsilon'') \frac{C_0}{\epsilon_0} V$$

where C_0 is the capacitance without dielectric material. or

$$I = j\omega C_0 \epsilon_r^* V$$

$$\epsilon_r^* = \frac{(\epsilon' - j\epsilon'')}{\epsilon_r}$$

where

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$$= \epsilon'_r - j\epsilon''_r$$

ϵ_r^* is called the complex relative permittivity or complex dielectric constant, ϵ'_r and ϵ''_r are called the permittivity and relative permittivity and ϵ''_r and ϵ'_r are called the loss factor and relative loss factor respectively. The loss tangent

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\epsilon''}{\epsilon'} = \frac{\epsilon''_r}{\epsilon'_r}$$

The product of the angular frequency and ϵ'' is equivalent to the dielectric conductivity σ'' i.e., $\sigma'' = \omega \epsilon''$.

The dielectric conductivity takes into account all the three power dissipative processes including the one which is frequency dependent. Fig. 7.4 shows two equivalent circuits representing the electrical behavior of insulating materials under a.c. voltages, losses have been simulated by resistances.

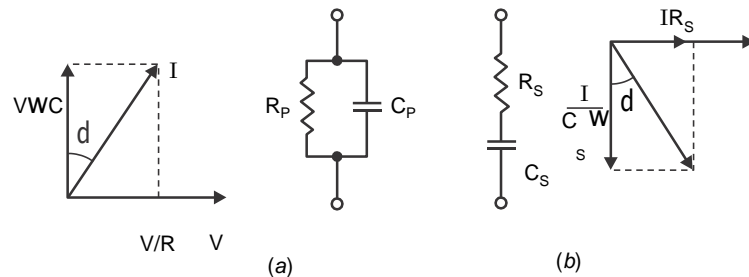


Fig. 7.4 Equivalent circuits for an insulating material

Normally the angle between V and the total current in a pure capacitor is 90° . Due to losses, this angle is less than 90° . Therefore, δ is the angle by which the voltage and charging current fall short of the 90° displacement.

For the parallel circuit the dissipation factor is given by

$$\tan \delta = \frac{1}{\omega C_p R_p}$$

and for the series circuit

$$\tan \delta = \omega C_s R_s$$

For a fixed frequency, both the equivalent circuits should hold good and one can be obtained from the other. However, the frequency dependence is just the opposite in the two cases and this shows the limited validity of these equivalent circuits.

The information obtained from the measurement of $\tan \delta$ and complex permittivity is an indication of the quality of the insulating material.

- (i) If $\tan \delta$ varies and changes abruptly with the application of high voltage, it shows inception of internal partial discharge.
- (ii) The effect of frequency on the dielectric properties can be studied and the band of frequencies where dispersion occurs i.e., where that permittivity reduces with rise in frequency can be obtained.

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The bridge is widely used for capacity and dielectric loss measurement of all kinds of capacitances, for instance cables, insulators and liquid insulating materials. We know that most of the high voltage equipments have low capacitance and low loss factor. Typical values of these equipments are given in Chapter 5. This bridge is then more suitable for measurement of such small capacitance equipments as the bridge uses either high voltage or high frequency supply. If measurements for such low capacity equipments is carried out at low voltage, the results so obtained are not accurate.

Fig. 7.5 shows a high voltage Schering bridge where the specimen has been represented by a parallel combination of R_p and C_p .

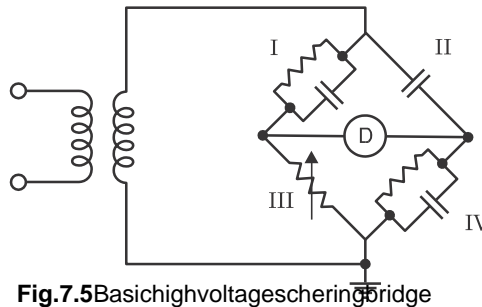


Fig. 7.5 Basic high voltage Schering bridge

The special features of the bridge are:

4. High voltage supply, consists of a high voltage transformer with regulation, protective circuitry and special screening. The input voltage is 220 volt and output continuously variable between 0 and 10 kV. The maximum current is 100 mA and it is of 1 kVA capacity.
4. Screened standard capacitor C_s of $100\text{ pF} \pm 5\%$, 10 kV max and dissipation factor $\tan \delta = 10^{-5}$. It is a gas-filled capacitor having negligible loss factor over a wider range of frequency.
5. The impedances of arms I and II are very large and, therefore, current drawn by these arms is small from the source and a sensitive detector is required for obtaining balance. Also, since the impedance of arm I and II are very large as compared to III and IV, the detector and the impedances in arm III and IV are at a potential of only a few volts (10 to 20 volts) above earth even when the supply voltage is 10 kV, except of course, in case of breakdown of one of the capacitors of arm I or II in which case the potential will be that of supply voltage. Spark gaps are, therefore, provided to spark over whenever the voltage across arm III or IV exceeds 100 volts so as to provide personnel safety and safety for the null detector.
4. **Null Detector:** An oscilloscope is used as a null detector. The γ -plates are supplied with the bridge voltage V_{ab} and the x -plates with the supply voltage V . If V_{ab} has phase difference with respect to V , an ellipse will appear on the screen (Fig. 7.6). However, if magnitude balance is not reached, an inclined straight line will be observed on the screen. The information about the phase is obtained from the area of the ellipse and the one about the magnitude from the inclination angle. Fig. 7.6a shows that both magnitude and phase are balanced and this represents the null point condition. Fig. (7.6c) and (d) shows that only phase and amplitude respectively are balanced.

(a) (b) (c) (d)

Fig.7.6 Indications on null detector

The handling of bridge keys allows to meet directly both the phase and the magnitude conditions in a single attempt. A time consuming iterative procedure being used earlier is thus avoided and also with this a very high order of accuracy in the measurement is achieved.

The high accuracy is obtained as these null oscilloscopes are equipped with a γ -amplifier of automatically controlled gain. If the impedances are far away from the balance point, the whole screen is used. For nearly obtained balance, it is still almost fully used. As V_{ab} becomes smaller, by approaching the balance point, the gain increases automatically only for deviations very close to balance, the ellipse area shrinks to a horizontal line.

5. *Automatic Guard Potential Regulator*: While measuring capacitance and loss factors using a.c. bridges, the detrimental stray capacitances between bridge junctions and the ground adversely affect the measurements and are the source of error. Therefore, arrangements should be made to shield the measuring system so that these stray capacitances are either neutralised, balanced or eliminated by precise and rigorous calculations. Fig.7.7 shows various stray capacitance associated with High Voltage Schering Bridge.

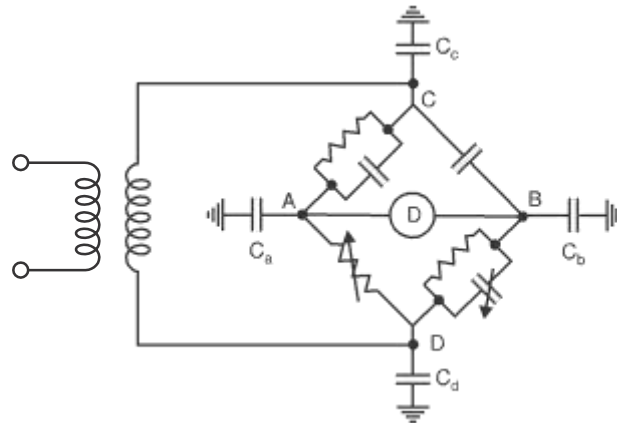


Fig.7.7 Schering bridge with stray capacitances

C_a, C_b, C_c and C_d are the stray capacitances at the junctions A, B, C and D of the bridge. If point D is earthed during measurement capacitance C_d is thus eliminated. Since C_c comes across the power supply for the bridge, has no influence on the measurement. The effect of other stray capacitances C_a and C_b can be eliminated by use of auxiliary arms, either guard potential regulator or auxiliary branch as suggested by Wagner.

Fig.7.8 shows the basic principle of Wagner earth to eliminate the effect of stray capacitances C_a and C_b . In this arrangement an additional arm Z is connected between the low voltage terminal of the four arm

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bridge and earth. The stray capacitance C between the high voltage terminal of the bridge and the grounded shield and the impedance Z together constitute a six arm bridge and a double balancing procedure is required.

Switch S is first connected to the bridge point b and balance is obtained. At this point a and b are at the same potential but not necessarily at the ground potential. Switch S is now connected to point C and by adjusting impedance Z balance is again obtained. Under this condition point 'a' must be at the same potential as earth although it is not permanently at earth potential. Switch S is again connected to point b and balance is obtained by adjusting bridge parameters. The procedure is repeated till all the three points a, b and c are at the earth potential and thus C_a and C_b are eliminated.

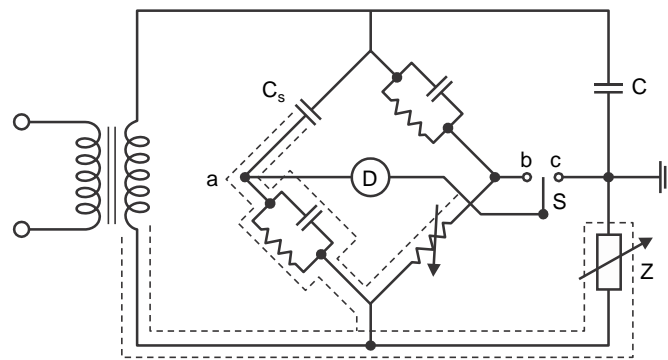


Fig.7.8 Bridge incorporating Wagnerearth

This method is, however, now rarely used. Instead an auxiliary arm using automatic guard potential regulator is used. The basic circuit is shown in Fig. 7.9.

The guard potential regulator keeps the shield potential at the same value as that of the detector diagonal terminals a and b for the bridge balance considered. Since potentials of a, b and shield are held at the same value the stray capacitances are eliminated. During the process of balancing the bridge the points a and b attain different values of potential in

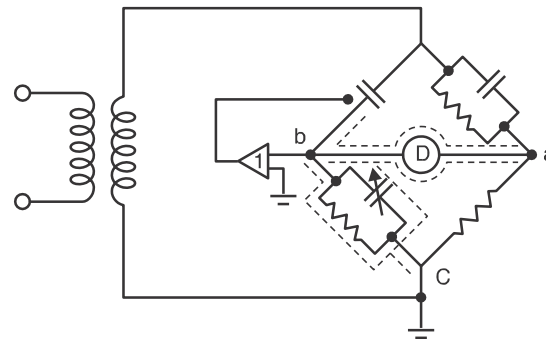


Fig.7.9 Automatic Wagnerearth or automatic guard potential regulator

magnitude and phase with respect to ground. As a result, the guard potential regulator should be able to adjust the voltage both in magnitude and phase. This is achieved with a voltage divider arrangement provided with coarse and fine controls, one of them fed with in-phase and the other quadrature component of voltage. The control voltage is then the resultant of both components which can be adjusted either in positive or in negative polarity as desired. The comparison between the shielding potential adjusted by means of the Guard potential regulator and the bridge voltage is made in the null indicator oscilloscope as mentioned earlier. Modifying the potential, it is easy to bring the reading of the null detector to a horizontal straight line which shows a balance between the two voltages both in magnitude and phase.

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The automatic guard potential regulator adjusts automatically the guard potential of the bridge making this equal in magnitude and phase to the potential of the point a or b with respect to ground. The regulator does not use any external source of voltage to achieve this objective. It is rather connected to the bridge corner point between a or b and c and is taken as a reference voltage and this is then transmitted to the guard circuit with unity gain both in magnitude and phase. The shield of the C_s and C_p are not grounded but connected to the output of the regulator which, in fact, is an operational amplifier. The input impedance of the amplifier is more than 1000 Megaohms and the output impedance is less than 0.5 ohm. The high input impedance and very low output impedance of the amplifier does not load the detector and keeps the shield potential at any instant at an artificial ground.

Balancing the Bridge

For ready reference Fig. 7.5 is reproduced here and its phasor diagram under balanced condition is drawn in Fig. 7.10(b)

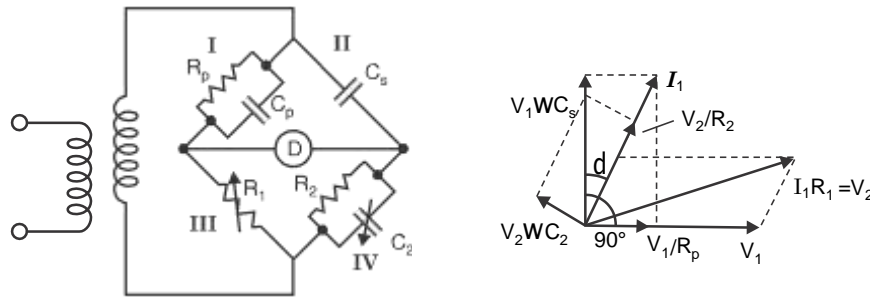


Fig. 7.10(a) Schering bridge **(b)** Phasor diagram

The bridge is balanced by successive variation of R_1 and C_2 until on the oscilloscope (Detector) a horizontal straight line is observed:

$$\text{At balance} \quad \frac{Z_I}{Z_{II}} = \frac{Z_{III}}{Z_{IV}}$$

$$\text{Now} \quad Z_I = \frac{R_p}{1 + j\omega C_p R_p}$$

$$Z_{II} = \frac{1}{j\omega C_s}$$

$$Z_{III} = R_1 \text{ and } Z_{IV} = \frac{R_2}{1 + j\omega C_2 R_2}$$

From balance equation we have

$$\frac{R_p}{R_1 (1 + j\omega C_p R_p)} = \frac{1/j\omega C_s (1 + j\omega C_2 R_2)}{R_2}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{R_p (1 - j\omega C_p R_p)}{R_1 (1 + \omega^2 C_p^2 R_p^2)} = \frac{1 + j\omega C_2 R_2}{j\omega C_s R_2}$$

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TRANSFORMER RATIO ARM BRIDGE

For measurement of various parameters like resistance, inductance, capacitance, usually four arm bridges are used. For high frequency measurements, the arm with high resistances leads to difficulties due to their residual inductance, capacitance and skin effect. Also if length of the leads is large, shielding is difficult. Hence at high frequencies the transformer ratio arm bridge which eliminates at least two arms, are preferred. These bridges provide more accurate results for small capacitance measurements. There are two types of transformer ratio arm bridges (i) Voltage ratio; (ii)

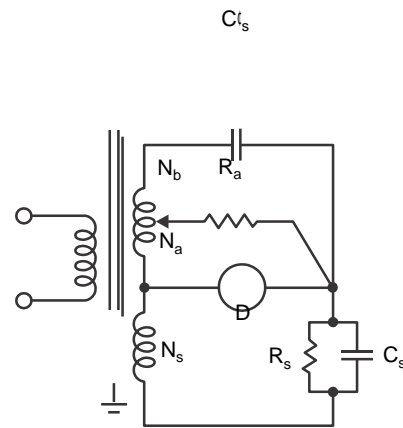


Fig. 7.16 Transformer voltage ratio arm bridge

Current ratio. The voltage ratio type is used for high frequency low voltage application. Fig. 7.16 shows schematic diagram of a voltage ratio arm bridge. Assuming ideal transformer, under balance condition:

However, in practical situation due to the presence of magnetising current and the load currents, the voltage ratio slightly differs from the turns ratio and therefore, the method involves certain errors. The errors are classified as ratio error and load error which can be calculated before hand for a transformer. A typical bridge has a useful range from a fraction of pF to about $100 \mu F$ and is accurate over a wide range of frequency from $100 Hz$ to $100 kHz$, the accuracy being better than $\pm 0.5\%$.

The current ratio arm bridge is used for high voltage low frequency applications. The main advantage of the method is that the test specimen is subjected to full system voltage. Fig. 7.17 shows schematic diagram of the bridge. The main component of the bridge is a three winding current transformer with very low losses and leakage (core of high permeability). The transformer is carefully shielded against stray magnetic fields and protected against mechanical vibrations.

NEED FOR PARTIAL DISCHARGES

Partial discharge is defined as a localised discharge process in which the distance between two electrodes is only partially bridged *i.e.*, the insulation between the electrodes is partially punctured. Partial discharges may originate directly at one of the electrodes or occur in a cavity in the dielectric. Some of

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the typical partial discharges are: (i) Corona or gas discharge. These occur due to non-uniform field on sharp edges of the conductors subjected to high voltage especially when the insulation provided is air or gas or liquid Fig. 7.18(a). (ii) Surface discharges and discharges in laminated materials on the interfaces of different dielectric materials such as gas/solid interface as gas gets overstressed ϵ_r times the stress on the solid material (where ϵ_r is the relative permittivity of solid material) and ionization of gas results Fig. 7.18(b) and (c). (iii) Cavity discharges: When cavities are formed in solid or liquid insulating material the gas in the cavity is overstressed and discharges are reformed Fig. 7.18(d) (iv). Treeing Channels: High intensity fields are reproduced in an insulating material at its sharp edges and this deteriorates the insulating material. The continuous partial discharges so produced are known as Treeing Channels Fig. 7.18(e).

External Partial Discharge

External partial discharge is the process which occurs external to the equipment e.g. on overhead lines, on armature etc.

Internal Partial Discharge

Internal partial discharge is a process of electrical discharge which occurs inside a closed system (discharge in voids, treeing etc). This kind of classification is essential for the PD measuring system as external discharges can be nicely distinguished from internal discharges. Partial discharge measurement have been used to assess the life expectancy of insulating materials. Even though there is no well defined relationship, yet it gives sufficient idea of the insulating properties of the material. Partial discharges on insulation can be measured not only by electrical methods but by optical, acoustic and chemical methods also. The measuring principles are based on energy conversion process associated with electrical discharges such as emission of electromagnetic waves, light, noise or formation of chemical compounds. The oldest and simplest but less sensitive is the method of listening to hissing sound coming out of partial discharge. A high value of loss factor $\tan \delta$ is an indication of occurrence of partial discharge in the material. This is also not a reliable measurement as the additional losses generated due to application of high voltage are localised and can be very small in comparison to the volume losses resulting from polarization process. Optical methods are used only for those materials which are transparent and thus not applicable for all materials. Acoustic detection methods using ultrasonic transducers have, however, been used with some success. The most modern and the most accurate methods are the electrical methods. The main objective here is to separate impulse currents associated with PD from any other phenomenon.

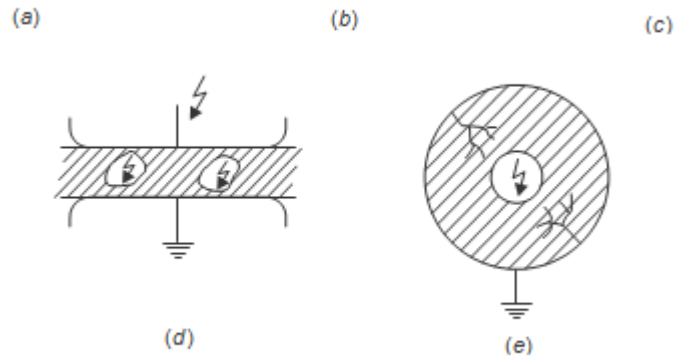


Fig. 7.18 Various partial discharges

The Partial Discharge Equivalent Circuit

If there are any partial discharges in a dielectric material, these can be measured only across its terminal. Fig. 7.19 shows a simple capacitor arrangement in which a gas-filled void is present. The partial discharge in the void will take place as the electric stress in the void is ϵ_r times the stress in the rest of the material where ϵ_r is the relative permittivity of the material. Due to geometry of the material, various capacitances are formed as shown in Fig. 7.19(a). Flux lines starting from electrode A and terminating at the void will form one capacitance C_{b1} and similarly C_{b2} between electrode B and the cavity. C_c is the capacitance of the void. Similarly C_{a1} and C_{a2} are the capacitance of healthy portions of the dielectric on the two sides of the void. Fig. 7.19(b) shows the equivalent of 7.19(a) where $C_a = C_{a1} + C_{a2}$, and $C_b = C_{b1}C_{b2}/(C_{b1} + C_{b2})$ and C_c is the cavity capacitance. In general $C_a \gg C_b \gg C_c$.

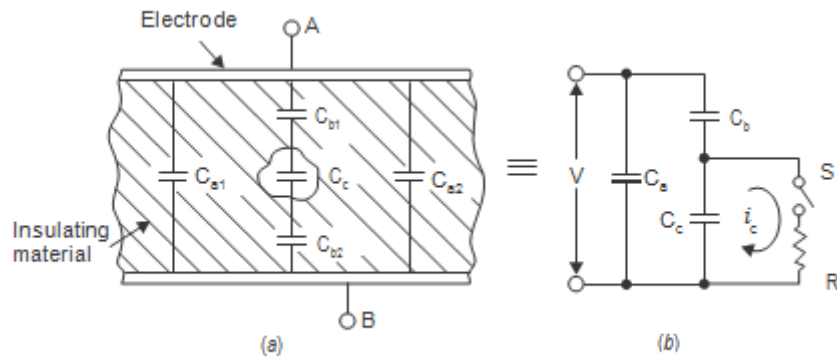


Fig. 7.19. (a) Dielectric material with a cavity (b) Equivalent circuit

Closing of switch S is equivalent to simulating partial discharge in the void as the voltage V_c across the void reaches breakdown voltage. The discharge results into a current $i_c(t)$ to flow. Resistor R_c simulates the finite value of current $i_c(t)$.

Suppose voltage V is applied across the electrode A and B and the sample is charged to this voltage and source is removed. The voltage V_c across the void is sufficient to breakdown the void. It is equivalent to closing switch S in Fig. 7.19(b). As a result, the current $i_c(t)$ flows which releases a charge $\Delta q_c = \Delta V_c C_c$ which is dispersed in the dielectric material across the capacitance C_b and C_a . Here ΔV_c is the drop in the voltage V_c as a result of discharge. The equivalent circuit during redistribution of charge Δq_c is shown in Fig. 7.20

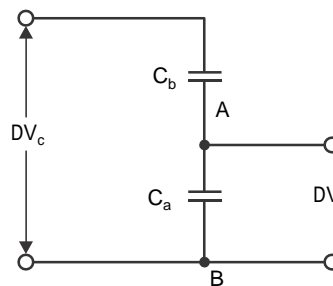


Fig. 7.20 Equivalent of 7.19(a) after discharge

The voltage as measured across AB will be

$$\Delta V = \frac{C_b}{C_a + C_b} \Delta V_c = \frac{C_b}{C_a + C_b} \frac{\Delta q_c}{C_c}$$

Ordinarily ΔV_c is in kV whereas ΔV is a few volts since the ratio C_b/C_a is of the order of 10^{-4} to 10^{-5} . The voltage drop ΔV even though can be measured but as C_b and C_c are normally not known neither ΔV_c nor Δq_c can be obtained. Also since V is in kV and ΔV is in volts the ratio $\Delta V/V$ is very small $\approx 10^{-3}$, therefore the detection of $\Delta V/V$ is a tedious task.

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Suppose, that the test object remains connected to the voltage source Fig. 7.24. Here C_k is the coupling capacitor. Z is the impedance consisting either only of the lead impedance or lead impedance and PD -free inductor or filter which decouples the coupling capacitor and the test object from the source during discharge period only, when very high frequency current pulse $i_c(t)$ circulate between C_k and C_t . C_t is the total equipment capacitance of the test specimen.

C_t

Fig. 7.21

It is to be noted that Z offers high impedance to circular current (impulse currents) and, therefore, these are limited only to C_k and C_t . However, supply frequency displacement currents continue to flow through C_k and C_t and wave shapes of currents through C_k and C_t are shown in Fig. 7.24.

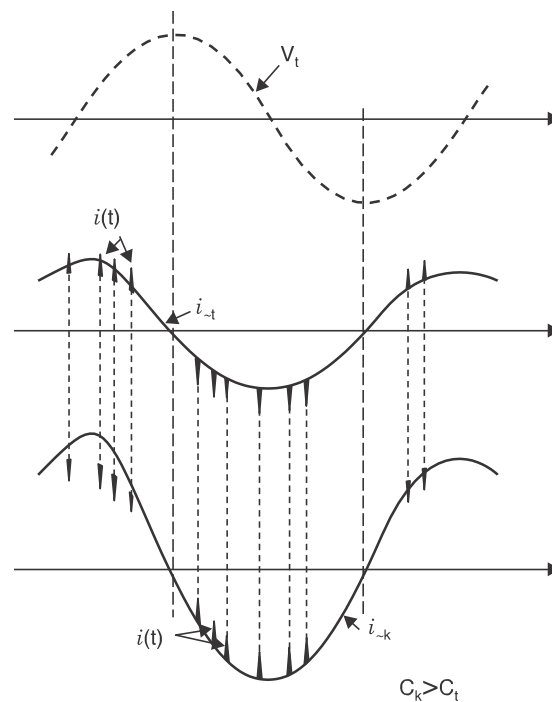


Fig. 7.22 Current waveforms in C_k and C_t .

It is interesting to find that pulse currents in C_k and C_t have exactly same location but opposite polarities and these are of the same magnitude. Therefore, one can say that these pulse currents are not supplied by the source but are due to local partial discharges. The amplitude of pulses depends upon the

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voltage applied and the number of pulses depends upon the number of voids. The larger the number of faults the higher the number of pulses over a half cycle.

During discharge, the voltage across the test object C_t falls by an amount ΔV and during this period C_k stores the energy and releases the charge between C_k and C_t thus compensating the drop ΔV . The equivalent capacitance of the test specimen is $C_t \approx C_a + C_b$ assuming C_c to be negligibly small. If $C_k \gg C_t$, the charge transfer is given by

$$q = \int i(t) dt \approx (C_a + C_b) \Delta V$$

$$\text{Now } \Delta V = \frac{C_b}{C_a + C_b} \Delta V_c$$

$$\text{and } \Delta V = \frac{q}{C_a + C_b}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \frac{q}{C_a + C_b} = \frac{C_b}{C_a + C_b} \Delta V_c$$

$$\text{or } q = C_b \Delta V_c$$

Here q is known as apparent charge as it is not equal to the charge locally involved i.e. $C_c \Delta V_c$. This charge q is, however, more realistic than calculating ΔV , as q is independent of C_a whereas ΔV depends upon C_a .

In practice the condition $C_k \gg C_t$ is never satisfied as the C_k will overload the supply and also it will be uneconomical. However, if C_k is slightly greater than C_t , the sensitivity of measurement is reduced as the compensating current $i_c(t)$ becomes small. If C_t is comparable to C_k and ΔV is the drop in voltage of C_t as a result of discharge, the transfer of charge between C_t and C_k will result into common voltage $\Delta V'$.

$$\Delta V' = \frac{C_t \Delta V + C_k \cdot 0}{C_t + C_k} = \frac{C_t \Delta V}{C_t + C_k} = \frac{q}{C_t + C_k}$$

$\Delta V'$ is the net rise in voltage of the parallel combination of C_k and C_t and, therefore, the charge q_m transferred to C_t from C_k will be

$$q_m = C_k \Delta V'$$

The charge q_m is known as measurable charge. The ratio of measurable charge to apparent charge is, therefore, given as

$$\frac{q_m}{q} = \frac{C_k}{C_t + C_k}$$

In order to have high sensitivity of measurements i.e., high q_m/q it is clear that C_k should be large compared to C_t . But we know that there are disadvantages in having large value of C_k . Therefore, this method of measurement of PD has limited applications.

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The measurement of *PD* current pulses provides important information concerning the discharge processes in a test specimen. The time response of an electric discharge depends mainly on the nature of fault and design of insulating material. The shape of the circular current is an indication of the physical discharge process at the fault location in the test object. The principle of measurement of *PD* current is shown in Fig. 7.25.

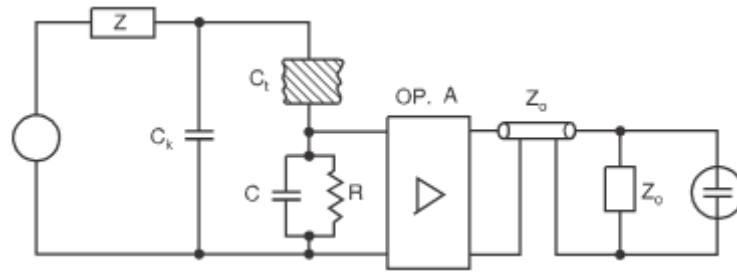


Fig. 7.23 Principle of pulse current measurement

Here C indicates the stray capacitance between the lead of C_t and the earth, the input capacitance of the amplifier and other stray capacitances. The function of the high pass amplifier is to suppress the power frequency displacement current $i_k(t)$ and $I_c(t)$ and to further amplify the short duration current pulses. Thus the delay cable is electrically disconnected from the resistance R . Supposed during a partial discharge a short duration pulse current $\delta(t)$ is produced and results in apparent charge q on C_t which will be redistributed between C_t , C and C_k . The circuit for the same is given in Fig. 7.24.

(i) *Pulse shaped noise signals*: These are due to impulse phenomena similar to *PD* currents.

(ii) *Harmonic signals*: These are mainly due to power supply and thyristorised controllers.

We are taking apparent charge as the index level of the partial discharges which is integration of *PD* pulse currents. Therefore, continuous alternating current of any frequency would disturb the integration process of the measuring circuit and hence it is important that these currents (other than *PD*

currents) must be suppressed before the mixture of currents is passed through the integrating circuit. The solution to the problem is obtained by using filter circuits which may be completely independent of integrating circuits.

Fig. 7.26 shows two different ways in which the measuring impedance Z_m can be connected in the circuit.

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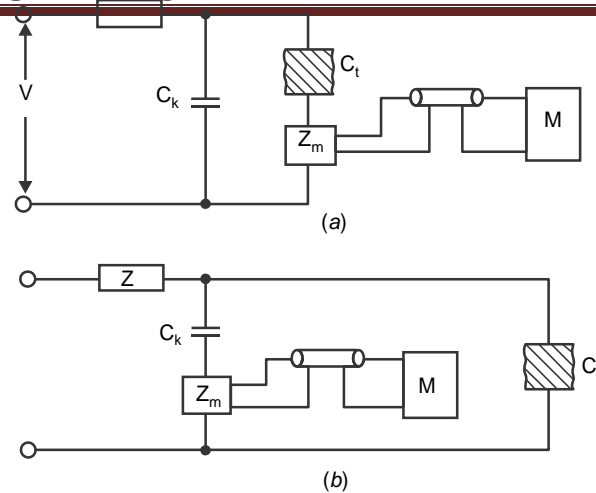


Fig.7.26

In Fig. 7.26(a) Z_m is connected in series with C_t and provides better sensitivity as the PD current excited from C_t would be better picked up by measuring circuit Z_m . However, the disadvantage is that in case of puncture of the test specimen the measuring circuit would also be damaged. Specifically for this reason, the second arrangement in which Z_m is connected between the ground terminal of C_k and the ground and is the circuit most commonly used.

As is mentioned earlier, according to international standards the level of partial discharge is judged by quantity of apparent charge measured. The apparent charge is obtained by integration of the circular current $i_c(t)$. This operation is carried out on the PD pulses using 'wideband' and 'narrow band' measuring systems. These are basically bandpass filters with amplifying action. If we examine the frequency spectrum of the pulse current, it will be clear why bandpass filters are suitable for integrating PD pulse currents.

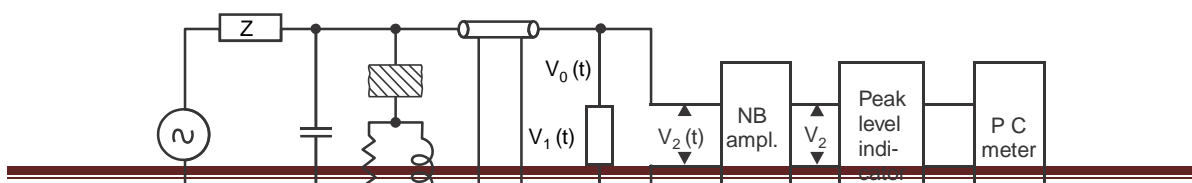
We know that for an non-periodic pulse current $i(t)$, the complex frequency spectrum of the current is given by Fourier transform as

$$I(f)$$

Narrow Band PD-Detection Circuit

A narrow band PD detection circuit is basically a very sensitive measurement receiver circuit with a continuously variable measuring or centre frequency f_m in the range of approximately 50 kHz to several MHz. The nomenclature on narrow-band is justified as the bandwidth of the filter amplifier is typically only 9 kHz. However, if special circumstances demand, the bandwidth may be slightly made wider or narrower than 9 kHz.

Fig. 7.31 shows a narrow band PD measuring circuit.



R L

Fig.7.31 Basic narrowband PD measuring circuit

Parallel combination of R and L constitute the measuring impedance Z_m . The measuring impedance acts as a high pass and high frequency PD current pulses $i(t)$ are decoupled from the test circuit. Whereas in wideband circuits the measuring impedance $Z_m (R \parallel L \parallel C)$ performs integration operation on the input Dirac delta current $i(t)$, no integration is carried out by Z_m in the narrowband circuit. A low resistance rating of the measuring impedance Z_m prevents that the series connection of C_k and C_t attenuates high frequency components of PD signals. Since the delay cable is terminated with Z_0 which is the surge impedance of the cable itself the capacitance C_c of the cable does not play any role.

Assuming that the parallel combination of R and L is so chosen that L does not perform integrating operation on the input signal $i(t) = I_0 \delta(t)$, the voltage $v_1(t)$ at the input of the narrow band amplifier is proportional to the PD impulse current $i(t)$ i.e.,

$$v_1(t) = I_0 \delta(t) R_m$$

Again, assuming that $i(t) = I_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ as in Fig. 7.27, we have

$$v_1(t) = I_0 e^{-t/\tau} R_m$$

$$I_0 \tau R_m \quad V_0 \tau$$

$$V_1(j\omega) = \frac{I_0 \tau R_m}{1 + j\omega \tau} = \frac{V_0 \tau}{1 + j\omega \tau}$$

where

$$R_m = \frac{R Z_0}{R + Z_0}$$

The time constant of the circuit $T = R_m C$

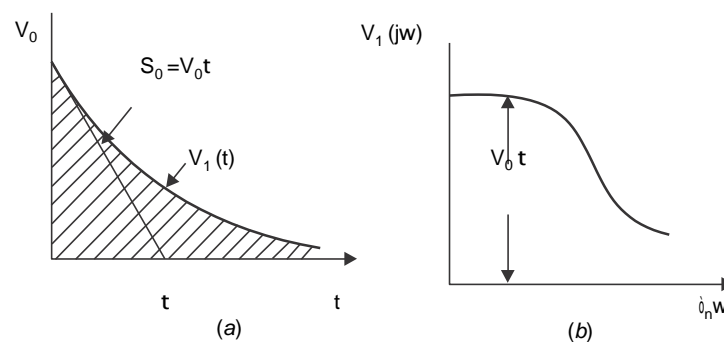
where

$$C = \frac{C_t C_k}{C_t + C_k}$$

Let

$$S_0 = V_0 \tau$$

The quantity S_0 contains the information concerning the individual pulse charge q and is referred to as the integral signal amplitude and is represented in Fig. 7.34.

**Fig.7.32** (a) Approximate voltage impulse (b) Its frequency response

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Comparison between wideband and narrowband PD measuring circuits

		Wide Band	Narrow Band
4.	Bandwidth	$f_2 - f_1 = 150 \text{ to } 200 \text{ kHz}$	$\Delta f = 9 \text{ kHz}$
4.	Centre frequency	Fixed $f_0 = 80 - 150 \text{ kHz}$	Variable $f_m = 50 \text{ kHz to } 2 \text{ MHz}$
5.	Pulse resolution time	Small about $15 \mu\text{sec.}$	Large about $220 \mu\text{sec.}$
4.	Pulse polarity	Detectable	Not detectable
5.	Noise susceptibility	Relatively high as no. of interference sources increases with bandwidth	Low due to selective measurements through variable centre frequency.
7.	Maximum admissible PD pulse width	Approx $1 \mu\text{sec.}$	Depends upon f_m in
7.	Indication of measured value	Directly in pC	Directly in pC

Table above shows relative merits and demerits of the two circuits. However, in practical situations, a system that can be switched over between wideband and narrowband should prove to be more versatile and useful.

OSCILLOSCOPE AS PD MEASURING DEVICE

Oscilloscope is an integral and indispensable component of a PD measuring system. An indicating meter e.g. a pC meter and RIV meter can give quantity of charge, whether the charge is a result of partial discharge or due to external interferences, cannot be estimated. This problem can be solved only if the output waveform is studied on the Oscilloscope. Whether the origin of the discharge is from within the test object or not, can frequently be determined based on the typical patterns. If it is ascertained from the pattern that the discharge is from the test object, the magnitude of the apparent charge should be measured with pC meters or RIV meters. The peak value of the integrated pulse current is the desired apparent charge q . These signals are normally superposed on the a.c. test voltage for observation on the Oscilloscope. Depending upon the preference, either sine or elliptical shapes can be selected. One complete rotation of the ellipse or one complete cycle of sine wave equals 20 msec. of duration. Since the duration of these current pulses to be measured is a few microsecond, these pulses when seen on the power frequency wave, look like vertical lines of varying heights superimposed on the power frequency waves.

Whenever a calibration facility exists in the PD test circuit, the calibration curve of known charge appears on the screen. The calibration pulse can be shifted entirely along the ellipse or sine curve of the power supply and the signal to be measured can be compared with the calibration pulse.

Example 1: A 20 kV , 50 Hz Schering bridge has a standard capacitance of $106 \mu\text{F}$. In a test on a bakelite sheet balance was obtained with a capacitance of $0.35 \mu\text{F}$ in parallel with a non-inductive resistance of 318 ohms , then the non-inductive resistance in the remaining arm of the bridge being 130 ohms . Determine the equivalent series resistance and capacitance and the p.f. of the specimen.

Solution: Here $C'_s = 106 \mu\text{F}$, $C_2 = 0.35 \mu\text{F}$

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$$R_2 = 318 \text{ ohms and } R_1 = 130 \text{ ohms.}$$

Since $R = R_s + R_1 C'_s = 106 \times \frac{318}{130} = 259 \mu\text{F}$ **Ans.**

$$\frac{0.35}{106}$$

$= 0.429 \text{ ohm}$ **Ans.**

and

$$C_s = C'_s \frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tan \delta_s &= \omega C_s R_s = 314 \times 259 \times 10^{-6} \times 0.429 \\ &= 5.5 \times 10^{-4} \times 10^{-6} = 0.035 \end{aligned} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Since $\tan \delta = \sin \delta = \cos(90^\circ - \delta)$
 $= \cos \phi = 0.035$ **Ans.**

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Example 2. Determine $p.f.$ and the equivalent parallel resistance and capacitance of the rest specimen of example 7.1

Solution: For parallel equivalent

$$C_p = C_s \frac{R_2}{R_1}$$

Here C_s is the standard capacitance

$$C_p = 106 \times \frac{318}{130} = 259 \mu F \quad \text{Ans.}$$

$$R_p = \frac{R_1}{\omega^2 C C_2 R_s^2}$$

$$R_p = \frac{130}{314^2 \times 0.35 \times 106 \times 10^{-12} \times 318^2} = 351 \text{ ohms} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{1}{314 \times 351 \times 259 \times 10^{-6}} = \frac{1}{28.54} = 0.035 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Example 3. A 33 kV, 50 Hz high voltage Schering bridge is used to test a sample of insulation. The various arms have the following parameters on balance. The standard capacitance 500 pF, the resistive branch 800 ohm and branch with parallel combination of resistance and capacitance has values 180 ohms and 0.15 μF . Determine the value of the capacitance of this sample its parallel equivalent loss resistance, the $p.f.$ and the power loss under the set test conditions.

Solution: Given

$$C_s = 500 \text{ pF}$$

$$R_1 = 800 \text{ ohm}$$

$$R_2 = 180 \text{ ohm}$$

$$C_2 = 0.15 \mu F$$

Now

$$C_p = C_s \frac{R_2}{R_1} = 500 \times 10^{-12} \times \frac{180}{800} = 114.5 \text{ pF}$$

$$R_p = \frac{R_1}{\omega^2 C C_2 R_s^2} = \frac{800}{314^2 \times 500 \times 10^{-12} \times 0.15 \times 10^{-6} \times 180^2}$$

$$= \frac{800}{4.3958 \times 10^{11} \times 10^{18}} = 335.9 \times 10^7 = 3339 \text{ M}\Omega$$

$$\text{p.f.} = \tan \delta_p = \frac{1}{\omega C R_{pp}} = \frac{1}{314 \times 114.5 \times 10^{-12} \times 3339 \times 10^6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{117.95} = 0.008478 \quad \text{Ans.}$$

$$\text{Power loss} = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{33^2 \times 10^6}{3339 \times 10^6}$$

$$= 0.326 \text{ watts} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Example 4. A length of cable is tested for insulation resistance by the loss of charge method. An electrostatic voltmeter of infinite resistance is connected between the cable conductor and earth forming a joint capacitance of 600 pF. It is observed that after charging the voltage falls from 250 volt to 92 V in one minute. Determine the insulation resistance of the cable.

Solution: The voltage at any time t is given as

$$v = V e^{-t/CR}$$

where V is the initial voltage

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{V}{v} = e^{t/CR}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \ln \frac{V}{v} = \frac{t}{CR}$$

$$\text{or} \quad R = \frac{t}{C \ln \frac{V}{v}} = \frac{60}{600 \times 10^{-12} \ln \frac{250}{92}}$$

$$= \frac{60}{\dots}$$

$$= \frac{600 \times 10^{-12} \times 1}{\dots} = 100,000 \text{ Mohms} \quad \text{Ans.}$$

Example 5. Following measurements are made to determine the dielectric constant and complex permittivity of a test specimen:

The air capacitance of the electrode system = 50 pF

The capacitance and loss angle of the electrodes with specimen = 190 pF and 0.0085 respectively.

$$\text{Solution: The dielectric constant } \epsilon_r = \frac{190}{50} = 5.8$$

$$\text{Now complex permittivity } \epsilon = \epsilon' - j\epsilon''$$

$$= \epsilon_0 (\epsilon_r' - j\epsilon_r'')$$

$$\epsilon_r' = \epsilon_r = 5.8$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\epsilon_r''}{\epsilon_r'} = \frac{\epsilon_r''}{5.8} = 0.0085$$

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or

$$\begin{aligned}
 \epsilon_r'' &= 0.0323 \\
 \epsilon &= \epsilon_0 (5.8 - j0.0323) \\
 &= 8.854 \times 10^{-12} (5.8 - j0.0323) \\
 &= (5.36 - j0.0286) \times 10^{-11} \text{ F/m} \quad \text{Ans.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6. Determine the specific heat generated in the test specimen due to dielectric loss if the dielectric constant and loss angle of the specimen are 5.8 and 0.0085 respectively. The electric field is 40 kV/cm at 50 Hz.]

Solution: The specific loss is given by

$$\sigma E^2 \text{ Watts/m}^3$$

where σ is the conductivity of the specimen and E the strength of electric field.

Also we know that

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}$$

or

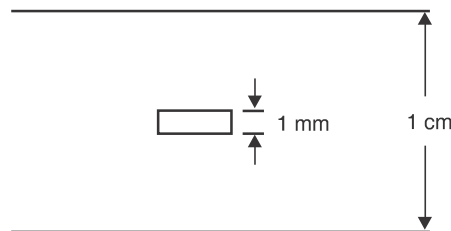
$$\sigma = \omega \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \tan \delta$$

Therefore, specific loss is given as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma E^2 &= \omega \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \tan \delta E^2 \\
 &= 314 \times 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \times 5.8 \times 0.0085 \times 1600 \times 10^{10} \\
 &= 1436 \text{ Watts/m}^3 \quad \text{Ans.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 7. A solid dielectric of 1 cm thickness and $\epsilon_r = 5.8$ has an internal void of 1 mm thickness. If the void is filled with air which breaks down at 21 kV/cm, determine the voltage at which an internal discharge can occur.

Solution: Refer to Fig. Ex. 7.7



For internal discharge to take place the gradient in void should be 21 kV/cm. Therefore, the gradient in the dielectric slab will be

$$\frac{21}{5.8} = 5.526 \text{ kV/cm.}$$

Therefore, total voltage required to produce this gradient will be

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 5.526 \times 0.9 + 21 \times 0.1 \\
 &= 4.97 + 4.1 \\
 &= 7.07 \text{ kVrms} \quad \text{Ans.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Questions

1. What is non-destructive testing of insulating materials? Give very briefly the characteristics of these methods.
2. Starting from first principles, develop expression to evolve equivalent circuit of an insulating material.
3. Draw neat diagram of a high voltage Schering bridge and describe various features of the bridge.
4. Describe the functions of (i) Null detector (ii) Automatic guard potential regulator used in high voltage Schering bridge.
5. Draw neat diagram of high voltage Schering bridge and analyse it for balanced condition. Draw its phasor diagram. Assume (i) Series equivalent (ii) Parallel equivalent representation of the insulating material.
6. What modifications do you suggest in the basic Schering bridge while measuring large capacitances? Give its analysis. How the expressions for capacitance and loss angle get modified?
7. What is an inverted Schering bridge? Give its application.
8. Explain the operation of high voltage Schering bridge when the test specimen (i) is grounded (ii) has high loss factor.
9. Discuss various types of transformer ratio arm bridges and give their application and advantages.
10. Describe with neat diagram the principle of the operation of transformer current ratio arm bridge. Explain how this is used for measurement of capacitance and loss factor of an insulating material.
11. What are partial discharges? Differentiate between internal and external discharges.
12. Develop and draw equivalent circuit of insulating material during partial discharge.
13. What is apparent charge in relation to partial discharges? Show that the calculation of apparent charge as a measure of partial discharges even though is more realistic than calculation of change in voltage across the electrode, has limited application for partial discharge measurement.
14. Explain with neat diagram basic principle of pulse current measurement for estimation of partial discharges.
15. Write short note on the measuring impedance circuit for estimation of partial discharges.
16. Show that the d.c. content of the frequency spectrum equals the apparent charge in the pulse current.
17. Explain with neat diagram how wideband circuit can be used for measuring partial discharge.
18. "For proper measurement of partial discharge the resolution time of the circuit should be smaller than the time-constant of the current pulse" Why? Explain.
19. Explain with neat diagram the Narrow-Band PD-detection circuit.
20. Show that the impulse response of narrow-band pass receiver is an Oscillatory and with main frequency f_m and the amplitude is given by $\sin \mu$ function. Discuss the limitation of narrow band pass detector.
21. Compare the performance of narrow band and wideband PD measuring circuits.
22. Explain with neat diagram a bridge circuit used for suppressing interference signals.
23. Write short note on the use of an Oscilloscope as a PD measuring device.

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UNIT- 8

HIGH VOLTAGE TESTS ON ELECTRICAL APPARATUS: Definitions of terminologies, tests on isolators, circuit breakers, cables insulators and transformers

The very fast development of systems is followed by studies of equipment and the service conditions they have to fulfill. These conditions will also determine the values for testing at alternating, impulse and d.c. voltages under specific conditions.

As we go for higher and higher operating voltages (say above 1000 kV) certain problems are associated with the testing techniques. Some of these are:

- (i) Dimension of high voltage test laboratories.
- (ii) Characteristics of equipment for such laboratories.
- (iii) Some special aspects of the test techniques at extra high voltages.

The dimensions of laboratories for test equipment of 750 kV and above are fixed by the following main considerations:

- (i) Figures (values) of test voltages under different conditions.
- (ii) Sizes of the test equipment in a.c., d.c. and impulse voltages.
- (iii) Distances between the objects under high voltage during the test period and the earthed surroundings such as floors, walls and roofs of the buildings. The problems associated with the characteristics of the equipment used for testing are summarised here.

There are some difficult problems with impulse testing equipment also especially when testing large power transformers or large reactors or large cables operating at very high voltages. The equivalent capacitance of the impulse generator is usually about 40 nanofarads independent of the operating voltage which gives a stored energy of about $\frac{1}{2} \times 40 \times 10^{-9} \times 36 \times 10^9 = 720 \text{ KJ}$ for 6 MV generators which is required for testing equipment operating at 150 kV. It is not at all difficult to pile up a large number of capacitances to charge them in parallel and then discharge in series to obtain a desired impulse wave. But the difficulty exists in reducing the internal reactance of the circuit so that a short wave front with minimum oscillation can be obtained. For example for a 4 MV circuit the inductance of the circuit is about 140 μH and it is impossible to test an equipment with a capacitance of 5000 pF with a front time of 4.2 $\mu\text{sec.}$ and less than 5% overshoot on the wave front.

Cascaded rectifiers are used for high voltage d.c. testing. A careful consideration is necessary when test on polluted insulation is to be performed which requires currents of 50 to 200 mA but extremely predischage streamer of 0.5 to 1 amp during milliseconds occur. The generator must have an internal reactance in order to maintain the test voltage without too high a voltage drop.

TESTING OF OVERHEAD LINE INSULATORS

Various types of overhead line insulators are (i) Pin type (ii) Post type (iii) String insulator unit (iv) Suspension insulator string (v) Tension insulator.

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Arrangement of Insulators for Test

String insulator unit should be hung by a suspension eye from an earthen metal cross arm. The test voltage is applied between the cross arm and the conductor hung vertically down from the metal part on the lower side of the insulator unit.

Suspension string with all its accessories as in service should be hung from an earthen metal cross arm. The length of the cross arm should be at least 4.5 times the length of the string being tested and should be at least equal to 0.9 m on either side of the axis of the string. No other earthen object should be near to the insulator string than 0.9 m or 4.5 times the length of the string whichever is greater. A conductor of actual size to be used in service or of diameter not less than 1 cm and length 4.5 times the length of the string is secured in the suspension clamp and should lie in a horizontal plane. The test voltage is applied between the conductor and the cross arm and connection from the impulse generator is made with length of wire to one end of the conductor. For higher operating voltages where the length of the string is large, it is advisable to sacrifice the length of the conductor as stipulated above. Instead, it is desirable to bend the ends of the conductor over in a larger radius.

For tension insulator the arrangement is more or less same as in suspension insulator except that it should be held in an approximately horizontal position under a suitable tension (about 1000 Kg.).

High voltage testing of electrical equipment requires two types of tests: (i) Type tests, and (ii) Routine test. Type tests involve quality testing of equipment at the design and development level *i.e.* samples of the product are taken and are tested when a new product is being developed and designed or a new product is to be redesigned and developed whereas the routine tests are meant to check the quality of the individual test piece. This is carried out to ensure quality and reliability of individual test objects.

High voltage tests include (i) Power frequency tests and (ii) Impulse tests. These tests are carried out on all insulators.

- (i) 50% dry impulse flash over test.
- (ii) Impulse withstand test.
- (iii) Dry flash over and dry on minute test.
- (iv) Wet flash over and on minute rain test.
- (v) Temperature cycle test.
- (vi) Electro-mechanical test.
- (vii) Mechanical test.
- (viii) Porosity test.
- (ix) Puncture test.
- (x) Mechanical routine test.

The tests mentioned above are briefly described here.

(i) The test is carried out on a clean insulator mounted as in a normal working condition. An impulse voltage of $1/50 \mu$ sec. wave shape and of an amplitude which can cause 50% flash over of the insulator, is applied, *i.e.* of the impulses applied 50% of the impulses should cause flash over. The polarity of the impulse is then reversed and the procedure is repeated. There must be at least 20 applications of the impulse in each case and the insulator must not be damaged. The magnitude of the impulse voltage should not be less than that specified in standard specifications.

(ii) The insulator is subjected to standard impulse of $1/50 \mu$ sec. wave of specified value under

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dry conditions with both positive and negative polarities. If five consecutive applications do not cause any flashover or puncture, the insulator is deemed to have passed the impulse withstand test. If out of five, two applications cause flashover, the insulator is deemed to have failed the test.

(iii) Power frequency voltage is applied to the insulator and the voltage is increased to the specified value and maintained for one minute. The voltage is then increased gradually until flashover occurs. The insulator is then flashed over at least four more times, the voltage is raised gradually to reach flashover in about 10 seconds. The mean of at least five consecutive flashover voltages must not be less than the values specified in specifications.

(iv) If the test is carried out under artificial rain, it is called wet flash over test. The insulator is subjected to spray of water of following characteristics:

Precipitation rate	$3 \pm 10\%$ mm/min. Direction 45° to the vertical
Conductivity of water	100 microsiemens $\pm 10\%$
Temperature of water	Ambient $+15^\circ\text{C}$

The insulator with 50% of the one-min. rain test voltage applied to it, is then sprayed for two minutes, the voltage raised to the one minute test voltage in approximately 10 sec. and maintained there for one minute. The voltage is then increased gradually till flashover occurs and the insulator is then flashed at least four more times, the time taken to reach flashover voltage being in each case about 10 sec. The flashover voltage must not be less than the values specified in specifications.

(v) The insulator is immersed in a hot water bath whose temperature is 70° higher than normal water bath for T minutes. It is then taken out and immediately immersed in normal water bath for T minutes. After T minutes the insulator is again immersed in hot water bath for T minutes. The cycle is repeated three times and it is expected that the insulator should withstand the test without damage to the insulator or glaze. Here $T = (15 + W/4.36)$ where W is the weight of the insulator in kgs.

(vi) The test is carried out only on suspension or tension type of insulator. The insulator is subjected to a $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the specified maximum working tension maintained for one minute. Also, simultaneously 75% of the dry flashover voltage is applied. The insulator should withstand this test without any damage.

(vii) This is a bending test applicable to pin type and line-post insulators. The insulator is subjected to a load three times the specified maximum breaking load for one minute. There should be no damage to the insulator and in case of post insulator the permanent set must be less than 1%. However, in case of post insulator, the load is then raised to three times and there should not be any damage to the insulator and its pin.

(viii) The insulator is broken and immersed in a 0.5% alcohol solution of fuchsin under a pressure of 13800 kN/m^2 for 24 hours. The broken insulator is taken out and further broken. It should not show any sign of impregnation.

(ix) An impulse overvoltage is applied between the pin and the lead foil bound over the top and side grooves in case of pin type and post insulator and between the metal fittings in case of suspension type insulators. The voltage is $1/50$ $\mu\text{sec.}$ wave with amplitude twice the 50% impulse flashover voltage and negative polarity. Twenty such applications are applied. The procedure is repeated for 4.5, 3.5, 5 times the 50% impulse flashover voltage and continued till the insulator is punctured. The insulator must not puncture if the voltage applied is equal to the one specified in the specification.

(x) The string in insulator is suspended vertically or horizontally and at a tensile load 20% in excess of the maximum specified working load is applied for one minute and no damage to the string

should occur.

TESTING OF CABLES

High voltage power cables have proved quite useful especially in case of HV d.c. transmission. Underground distribution using cables not only adds to the aesthetic look of a metropolitan city but it provides better environments and more reliable supply to the consumers.

Preparation of Cable Sample

The cable sample has to be carefully prepared for performing various tests especially electrical tests. This is essential to avoid any excessive leakage or end flashovers which otherwise may occur during testing and hence may give wrong information regarding the quality of cables. The length of the sample cable varies between 50 cm to 10 m. The terminations are usually made by shielding the ends of the cable with stress shields so as to relieve the ends from excessive high electrical stresses.

A cable is subjected to following tests:

- (i) Bending tests.
- (ii) Loading cycle test.
- (iii) Thermal stability test.
- (iv) Dielectric thermal resistance test.
- (v) Life expectancy test.
- (vi) Dielectric power factor test.
- (vii) Power frequency withstand voltage test.
- (viii) Impulse withstand voltage test.
- (ix) Partial discharge test.

(i) It is to be noted that a voltage test should be made before and after a bending test. The cable is bent round a cylinder of specified diameter to make one complete turn. It is then unwound and rewound in the opposite direction. The cycle is to be repeated three times.

(ii) A test loop, consisting of cable and its accessories is subjected to 20 load cycles with a minimum conductor temperature 5°C in excess of the design value and the cable is energized to 4.5 times the working voltage. The cable should not show any sign of damage.

(iii) After test as at (ii), the cable is energized with a voltage 4.5 times the working voltage for a cable of 132 kV rating (the multiplying factor decreases with increases in operating voltage) and the loading current is so adjusted that the temperature of the core of the cable is 5°C higher than its specified permissible temperature. The currents should be maintained at this value for six hours.

(iv) The ratio of the temperature difference between the core and sheath of the cable and the heat flow from the cable gives the thermal resistance of the sample of the cable. It should be within the limits specified in the specifications.

(v) In order to estimate life of a cable, an accelerated life test is carried out by subjecting the cable to a voltage stress higher than the normal working stress. It has been observed that the relation between the expected life of the cable in hours and the voltage stress is given by

$$g = \frac{K}{n\sqrt{t}}$$

where K is a constant which depends on material and n is the life index depending again on the material.

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(vi) High Voltage Schering Bridge is used to perform dielectric power factor test on the cable sample. The power factor is measured for different values of voltages e.g. 0.5, 4.0, 4.5 and 4.0 times the rated operating voltages. The maximum value of power factor at normal working voltage does not exceed a specified value (usually 0.01) at a series of temperatures ranging from 15°C to 65°C. The difference in the power factor between rated voltage and 4.5 times the rated voltage and the rated voltage and twice the rated voltage does not exceed a specified value. Sometimes the source is not able to supply charging current required by the test cable, a suitable choke in series with the test cable helps in tiding over the situation.

(vii) Cables are tested for power frequency a.c. and d.c. voltages. During manufacture the entire cable is passed through a high voltage test and the rated voltage to check the continuity of the cable. As a routine test the cable is subjected to a voltage 4.5 times the working voltage for 10 min without damaging the insulation of the cable. HV d.c. of 4.8 times the rated d.c. voltage of negative polarity for 30 min. is applied and the cable is said to have withstood the test if no insulation failure takes place.

(viii) The test cable is subjected to 10 positive and 10 negative impulse voltage of magnitude as specified in specification, the cables should withstand 5 applications without any damage. Usually, after the impulse test, the power frequency dielectric power factor test is carried out to ensure that no failure occurred during the impulse test.

(ix) Partial discharge measurement of cables is very important as it gives an indication of expected life of the cable and it gives location of fault, if any, in the cable.

When a cable is subjected to high voltage and if there is a void in the cable, the void breaks down and a discharge takes place. As a result, there is a sudden dip in voltage in the form of an impulse. This impulse travels along the cable as explained in detail in Chapter VI. The duration between the normal pulse and the discharge pulse is measured on the oscilloscope and this distance gives the location of the void from the test end of the cable. However, the shape of the pulse gives the nature and intensity of the discharge.

In order to scan the entire length of the cable against voids or other imperfections, it is passed through a tube of insulating material filled with distilled water. Four electrodes, two at the end and two in the middle of the tube are arranged. The middle electrodes are located at a stipulated distance and these are energized with high voltage. The two end electrodes and cable conductor are grounded. As the cable is passed between the middle electrode, if a discharge is seen on the oscilloscope, a defect in this part of the cable is stipulated and hence this part of the cable is removed from the rest of the cable.

TESTING OF POWER TRANSFORMERS

Transformer is one of the most expensive and important equipment in power system. If it is not suitably designed its failure may cause a lengthy and costly outage. Therefore, it is very important to be cautious while designing its insulation, so that it can withstand transient over voltage both due to switching and lightning. The high voltage testing of transformers is, therefore, very important and would be discussed here. Other tests like temperature rise, short circuit, open circuit etc. are not considered here. However, these can be found in the relevant standards specification.

Partial Discharge Test

The test is carried out on the windings of the transformer to assess the magnitude of discharges. The transformer is connected as a test specimen similar to any other equipment as discussed in Chapter-VI and the discharge measurements are made. The location and severity of fault is ascertained using the

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travelling wave theory technique as explained in Chapter VI. The measurements are to be made at all the terminals of the transformer and it is estimated that if the apparent measured charge exceeds 10^4 picocoulombs, the discharge magnitude is considered to be severe and the transformer insulation should be so designed that the discharge measurements should be much below the value of 10^4 pico-coulombs.

Impulse Testing of Transformer

The impulse level of a transformer is determined by the breakdown voltage of its minor insulation (insulation between turn and between windings), breakdown voltage of its major insulation (insulation between windings and tank) and the flash over voltage of its bushings or a combination of these. The impulse characteristics of internal insulation in a transformer differs from flash over in air in two main respects. Firstly the impulse ratio of the transformer insulation is higher (varies from 4.1 to 4.2) than that of bushing (4.5 for bushings, insulator setc.). Secondly, the impulse breakdown of transformer

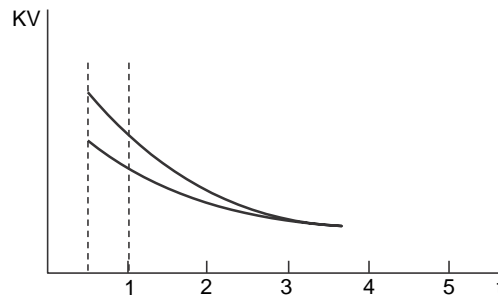


Fig.8.1 Volt time curve of typical major insulation in transformer

insulation is practically constant and is independent of time of application of impulse voltage. Fig.8.1 shows that after three micro seconds the flash over voltage is substantially constant. The voltage stress between the turns of the same winding and between different windings of the transformer depends upon the steepness of the surge wavefront. The voltage stress may further get aggravated by the piling up action of the wave if the length of the surge wave is large. In fact, due to high steepness of the surge waves, the first few turns of the winding are overstressed and that is why the modern practice is to provide extra insulation to the first few turns of the winding. Fig.8.2 shows the equivalent circuit of a transformer winding for impulse voltage.

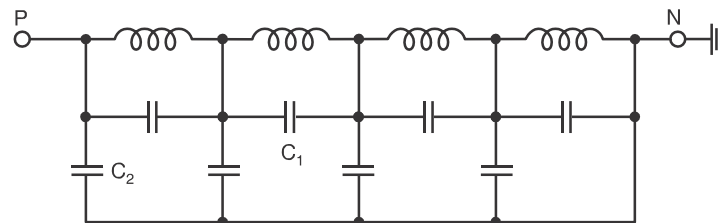


Fig.8.2 Equivalent circuit of a transformer for impulse voltage

Here C_1 represents inter-turn capacitance and C_2 capacitance between winding and the ground (tank). In order that the minor insulation will be able to withstand the impulse voltage, the winding is subjected to chopped impulse wave of higher peak voltage than the full wave. This chopped wave is produced by flash over of a rod gap or bushing in parallel with the transformer insulation. The chopping time is usually 3 to 6 microseconds. While impulse voltage is applied between one phase and

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ground, high voltages would be induced in the secondary of the transformer. To avoid this, the secondary windings are short-circuited and finally connected to ground. The short-circuiting, however, decreases the impedance of the transformer and hence poses a problem in adjusting the wave front and wave tail timings of wave. Also, the minimum value of the impulse capacitance required is given by

where P = rated MVA of the transformer Z = percent impedance of transformer V = rated voltage of transformer.

Fig. 8.3 shows the arrangement of the transformer for impulse testing. CRO forms an integral part of the transformer impulse testing circuit. It is required to record the waveforms of the applied voltage and current through the winding under test.

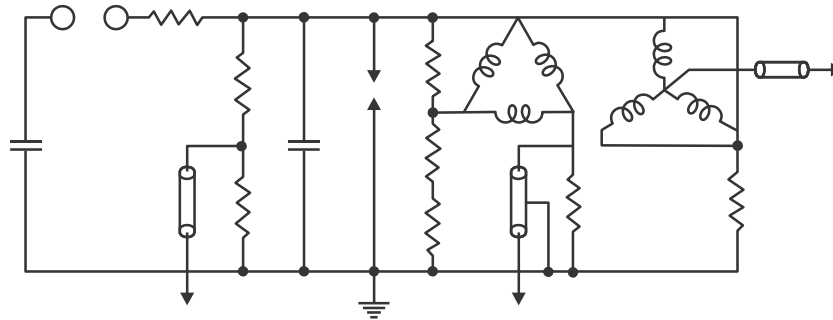


Fig. 8.3 Arrangement for impulse testing of transformer

Impulse testing consists of the following steps:

- (i) Application of impulse of magnitude 75% of the Basic Impulse Level (BIL) of the transformer under test.
- (ii) One full wave of 100% of BIL.
- (iii) Two chopped wave of 115% of BIL.
- (iv) One full wave of 100% BIL and
- (v) One full wave of 75% of BIL.

During impulse testing the fault can be located by general observation like noise in the tank or smoke or bubble in the breather.

If there is a fault, it appears on the Oscilloscope as a partial or complete collapse of the applied voltage.

Study of the waveform of the neutral current also indicated the type of fault. If an arc occurs between the turns or from turn to the ground, a train of high frequency pulses are seen on the oscilloscope and wave shape of impulse changes. If it is a partial discharge only, high frequency oscillations are observed but no change in wave shape occurs.

The bushing forms an important and integral part of transformer insulation. Therefore, its impulse flash over must be carefully investigated. The impulse strength of the transformer windings is

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same for either polarity of wave whereas the flash over voltage for bushing is different for different polarity. The manufacturer, however, while specifying the impulse strength of the transformer takes into consideration the overall impulse characteristic of the transformer.

TESTING OF CIRCUIT BREAKERS

Anequipment when designed to certain specification and is fabricated, needs testing for its performance. The general design is tried and the results of such tests conducted on one selected breaker and are thus applicable to all others of identical construction. These tests are called the type tests. These tests are classified as follows:

4. Short circuit tests:

- (i) Making capacity test.
- (ii) Breaking capacity test.
- (iii) Short time current test.
- (iv) Operating duty test.

4. Dielectric tests:

- (i) Power frequency test:
 - (a) One minute dry withstand test.
 - (b) One minute wet withstand test.
- (ii) Impulse voltage dry withstand test.

5. Thermal test.

4. Mechanical test

Once a particular design is found satisfactory, a large number of similar C.Bs. are manufactured for marketing. Every piece of C.B. is then tested before putting into service. These tests are known as routine tests. With these tests it is possible to find out if incorrect assembly or inferior quality material has been used for approved design equipment. These tests are classified as (i) operation tests, (ii) millivolt drop tests, (iii) power frequency voltage tests at manufacturer's premises, and (iv) power frequency voltage tests after erection on site.

We will discuss first the type tests. In that also we will discuss the short circuit tests after the other three tests.

Dielectric Tests

The general dielectric characteristics of any circuit breaker or switch gear unit depend upon the basic design, i.e. clearances, bushing materials, etc. upon correctness and accuracy in assembly and upon the quality of materials used. For a C.B. these factors are checked from the viewpoint of their ability to withstand over voltages at the normal service voltage and abnormal voltages during lightning or other phenomenon.

The test voltage is applied for a period of one minute between (i) phases with the breaker closed, (ii) phases and earth with C.B. open, and (iii) across the terminals with breaker open. With this the breaker must not flash over or puncture. These tests are normally made on indoor switch gear. For such C.B. the impulse tests generally are unnecessary because it is not exposed to impulse voltage of a very high order. The high frequency switching surges do occur but the effect of these in cable systems used

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for indoors switchgear are found to be safely withstood by the switchgear if it has withstood the normal frequency test.

Since the outdoors switchgear is electrically exposed, they will be subjected to overvoltages caused by lightning. The effect of these voltages is much more serious than the power frequency voltages in service. Therefore, this class of switchgear is subjected in addition to power frequency tests, the impulse voltage tests.

The test voltages should be a standard $1/50 \mu\text{sec}$ wave, the peak value of which is specified according to the rated voltage of the breaker. A higher impulse voltage is specified for non-effectively grounded system than those for solidly grounded system. The test voltages are applied between (i) each pole and earth in turn with the breaker closed and remaining phases earthed, and (ii) between all terminals on one side of the breaker and all the other terminals earthed, with the breaker open. The specified voltages are withstand values *i.e.* the breakers should not flash over for 10 applications of the wave. Normally this test is carried out with waves of both the polarities.

The wet dielectric test is used for outdoors switchgear. In this, the external insulation is sprayed for two minutes while the rated service voltage is applied; the test overvoltage is then maintained for 30 seconds during which no flashover should occur. The effect of rain on external insulation is partly beneficial, in so far as the surface is thereby cleaned, but is also harmful if the rain contains impurities.

Thermal Tests

These tests are made to check the thermal behaviour of the breakers. In this test the rated current through all three phases of the switchgear is passed continuously for a period long enough to achieve steady state conditions. Temperature readings are obtained by means of thermocouples whose hot junctions are placed in appropriate positions. The temperature rise above ambient, of conductors, must normally not exceed 40°C when the rated normal current is less than 800 amps and 50°C if it is 800 amps and above.

An additional requirement in the type test is the measurement of the contact resistances between the isolating contacts and between the moving and fixed contacts. These points are generally the main sources of excessive heat generation. The voltage drop across the breaker pole is measured for different values of d.c. current which is a measure of the resistance of current carrying parts and hence that of contacts.

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Mechanical Tests

AC.B. must open and close at the correct speed and perform such operations without mechanical failure. The breaker mechanism is, therefore, subjected to a mechanical endurance type test involving repeated opening and closing of the breaker. B.S. 116:1952 requires 500 such operations without failure and with no adjustment of the mechanism. Some manufacturers feel that as many as 20,000 operations may be reached before any useful information regarding the possible causes of failure may be obtained. A resulting change in the material or dimensions of a particular component may considerably improve the life and efficiency of the mechanism.

Short Circuit Tests

These tests are carried out in short circuit testing stations to prove the ratings of the C.B.s. Before discussing the tests it is proper to discuss about the short circuit testing stations.

There are two types of testing stations; (i) field type, and (ii) laboratory type.

In case of field type station the power required for testing is directly taken from a large power system. The breaker to be tested is connected to the system. Whereas this method of testing is economical for high voltage C.B.s. it suffers from the following drawbacks:

4. The tests cannot be repeatedly carried out for research and development as it disturbs the whole network.
4. The power available depends upon the location of the testing stations, loading conditions, installed capacity, etc.
5. Test conditions like the desired recovery voltage, the RRRV etc. cannot be achieved conveniently.

In case of laboratory testing the power required for testing is provided by specially designed generators. This method has the following advantages:

4. Test conditions such as current, voltage, power factor, restriking voltage can be controlled accurately.
4. Several indirect testing methods can be used.
5. Tests can be repeated and hence research and development over the design is possible.

The limitations of this method are the cost and the limited power availability for testing the breakers.

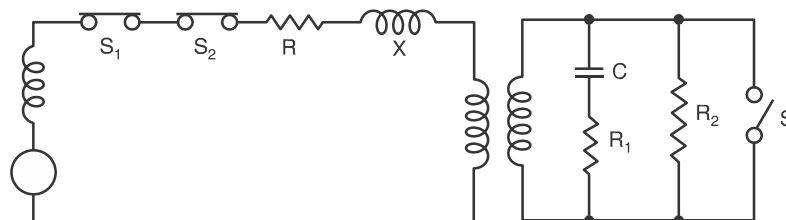


Fig.8.5 Circuit for direct testing

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Here X_G = generator reactance, S_1 and S_2 are master and make switches respectively. R and X are the resistance and reactance for limiting the current and control of p.f., T is the transformer, C , R_1 and R_2 is the circuit for adjusting the striking voltage.

For testing, breaking capacity of the breaker under test, master and breaker under test are closed first. Short circuit is applied by closing the making switch. The breaker under test is opened at the desired moment and breaking current is determined from the oscillograph as explained earlier. For making capacity test the master and the make switches are closed first and short circuit is applied by closing the breaker under test. The making current is determined from the oscillograph as explained earlier.

Questions:

1. Explain the procedure for testing string insulator.
2. Describe the arrangement of insulators for performing various tests.
3. List out various tests to be carried out on insulator and give a brief account of each test.
4. Write a short note on the cable sample preparation before it is subjected to various tests.
5. List out various tests to be carried out on a cable and give a brief account of each test.
6. Explain briefly various tests to be carried out on a bushing.
7. Explain the function of discharge device used in a power capacitor and explain the test for efficacy of this device.
8. Explain the procedure for performing (i) IR test (ii) Stability test and (iii) Partial discharge test.
9. Explain briefly impulse testing of power transformer.
10. Describe various tests to be carried out on C.B.

Short Circuit Test Plants

The essential components of a typical test plant are represented in Fig. 8.4. The short-circuit power is supplied by specially designed short-circuit generators driven by induction motors. The magnitude of voltage can be varied by adjusting excitation of the generator or the transformer ratio. A plant master-breaker is available to interrupt the test short-circuit current if the test breakers should fail. Initiation of the short circuit may be by the master breaker, but is always done by a making switch which is specially designed for closing on very heavy currents but never called upon to break currents. The generator winding may be arranged for either star or delta connection according to the voltage required; by further dividing the winding into two sections which may be connected in series or parallel, a choice of four voltages is available. In addition to this the use of resistors and reactors in series gives a wide range of current and power factors. The generator, transformer and reactors are housed together, usually in the building accommodating the test cells.

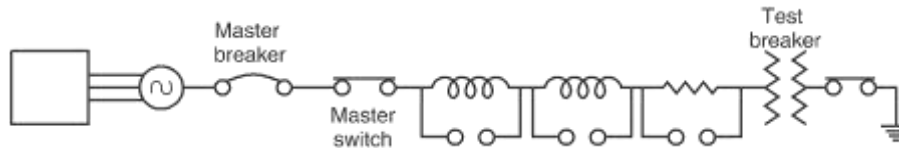


Fig. 8.4 Schematic diagram of a typical test plant

Generator

The short circuit generator is different in design from the conventional power station. The capacity of these generators may be of the order of 2000 MVA and very rigid bracing of the conductors and coil ends is necessary in view of the high electromagnetic forces possible. The limiting factor for the maximum output current is the electromagnetic force. Since the operation of the generator is intermittent, this need not be very efficient. The reduction of ventilation enables the main flux to be increased and permits the inclusion of extra coil end supports. The machine reactance is reduced to a minimum.

Immediately before the actual closing of the making switch the generator driving motor is switched out and the short circuit energy is taken from the kinetic energy of the generator set. This is done to avoid any disturbance to the system during short circuit. However, in this case it is necessary to compensate for the decrementing generator voltage corresponding to the diminishing generator speed during the test. This is achieved by adjusting the generator field excitation to increase at a suitable rate during the short circuit period.

Resistors and Reactors

Resistors are used to control the p.f. of the current and to control the rate of decay of d.c. component of current. There are a number of coils per phase and by combinations of series and parallel connections, desired value of resistance and/or reactance can be obtained.

Capacitors

These are used for breaking line charging currents and for controlling the rate of re-striking voltage.

Short Circuit Transformers

The leakage reactance of the transformer is low so as to withstand repeated short circuits. Since they

are in use intermittently, they do not pose any cooling problem. For voltage higher than the generated

voltages, usually bank of single phase transformers are employed. In the short circuit station at Bhopal there are three single phase unit each of 11 kV/76 kV. The normal rating is 30 MVA but their short circuit capacity is 475 MVA.

Master C.B.s.

These breakers are provided as backup which will operate, should the breaker under test fail to operate. This breaker is normally air blast type and the capacity is more than the breaker under test. After every test, it isolates the test breaker from the supply and can handle the full short circuit of the test circuit.

Make Switch

The make switch is closed after other switches are closed. The closing of the switch is fast, sure and without chatter. In order to avoid bouncing and hence welding of contacts, a high air pressure is maintained in the chamber. The closing speed is high so that the contacts are fully closed before the short circuit current reaches its peak value.

Test Procedure

Before the test is performed all the components are adjusted to suitable values so as to obtain desired values of voltage, current, rate of rise of restriking voltage, p.f. etc. The measuring circuits are connected and oscillograph loops are calibrated.

During the test several operations are performed in a sequence in a short time of the order of 0.2 sec. This is done with the help of a drum switch with several pairs of contacts which is rotated with a motor. This drum when rotated closes and opens several control circuits according to a certain sequence. In one of the breaking capacity tests the following sequence was observed:

- (i) After running the motor to a speed the supply is switched off.
- (ii) Impulse excitation is switched on.
- (iii) Master C.B. is closed.
- (iv) Oscillograph is switched on.
- (v) Make switch is closed.
- (vi) C.B. under test is opened.
- (vii) Master C.B. is opened.
- (viii) Exciter circuit is switched off.