

**MASTER**

**Electrical stresses on a selfsupporting metal-free optical fibre cable in high voltage networks**

Berkers, A.G.W.M.

*Award date:*  
1987

[Link to publication](#)

**Disclaimer**

This document contains a student thesis (bachelor's or master's), as authored by a student at Eindhoven University of Technology. Student theses are made available in the TU/e repository upon obtaining the required degree. The grade received is not published on the document as presented in the repository. The required complexity or quality of research of student theses may vary by program, and the required minimum study period may vary in duration.

**General rights**

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain

High Voltage Laboratory (EHO)

Electrical stresses on a selfsupporting  
metal-free optical fibre cable in high  
voltage networks.

EH.87.A.88.

A.G.W.M. Berkers

April, 1987.

The Department of Electrical Engineering  
of the Eindhoven University of Technology  
does not accept any responsibility for the  
contents of this report.

Report of project  
for Ir. degree.

Supervisors:

dr.ir. J.M. Wetzer

prof.dr.ir. P.C.T. van der Laan

## Abstract

Electricity companies need telecommunication for measurements and control. Today optical fibre systems are more and more used for this purpose. A possible way to install an optical communication link is to suspend a selfsupporting metal-free optical fibre cable in the high voltage overhead transmission and distribution lines. Electrical stress mechanisms give an important contribution to the ageing of the cable. Corona at the end of the suspension spiral and tracking are the two most important mechanisms. Calculations and measurements show that the choice of an optimal suspension position of the cable in the tower can prevent corona and considerably decrease the amount of tracking. The amount of tracking can also be decreased by a lower resistance of the cable sheath or by the application of a somewhat conductive layer underneath the sheath. The use of a strongly tracking resistant sheath material will decrease the damage to the cable surface caused by tracking discharges.

## Contents

|   |    |
|---|----|
| 1. Introduction   | 4  |
| 2. Definitions  | 6  |
| 3. Ageing of optical fibre cable (literature study)       | 7  |
| 3.1. Ageing mechanisms                                    | 7  |
| 3.2. Cables in HV OH lines                                | 9  |
| 3.3. Material properties of polyethylene                  | 12 |
| 4. Model calculations                                     | 17 |
| 4.1. Potential distribution perpendicular to the HV lines | 17 |
| 4.2. Potential distribution along the optical fibre cable | 25 |
| 4.3. FEM calculations                                     | 34 |
| 5. Material property measurements                         | 36 |
| 5.1. Surface resistance                                   | 36 |
| 5.2. Tracking resistance                                  | 37 |
| 6. System measurements                                    | 39 |
| 6.1. Current  | 40 |
| 6.2. Corona   | 41 |
| 6.3. Insulated suspension                                 | 43 |
| 6.4. Tracking   | 44 |
| 7. Discussion   | 46 |
| 8. Conclusions  | 49 |
| 9. References   | 50 |
| Appendix A: Surface resistance measurements               |    |
| Appendix B: Text "POTCALC" computer program               |    |

## 1. Introduction

Electricity companies need to know the present status (voltage, current,  $\cos\phi$ ) of their transmission and distribution lines at any moment. Also the status of the ambient air is important (temperature, wind velocity, etc.). Furthermore, telecommunication is required for remote controlled switches and, of course, audio and video signals. Until recently, information was transmitted by copper wires, carrier waves on phase lines, microwave systems and telephone lines. Because of the recent developments in optical fibre systems, these systems are now commercially available for the electricity supply industries.

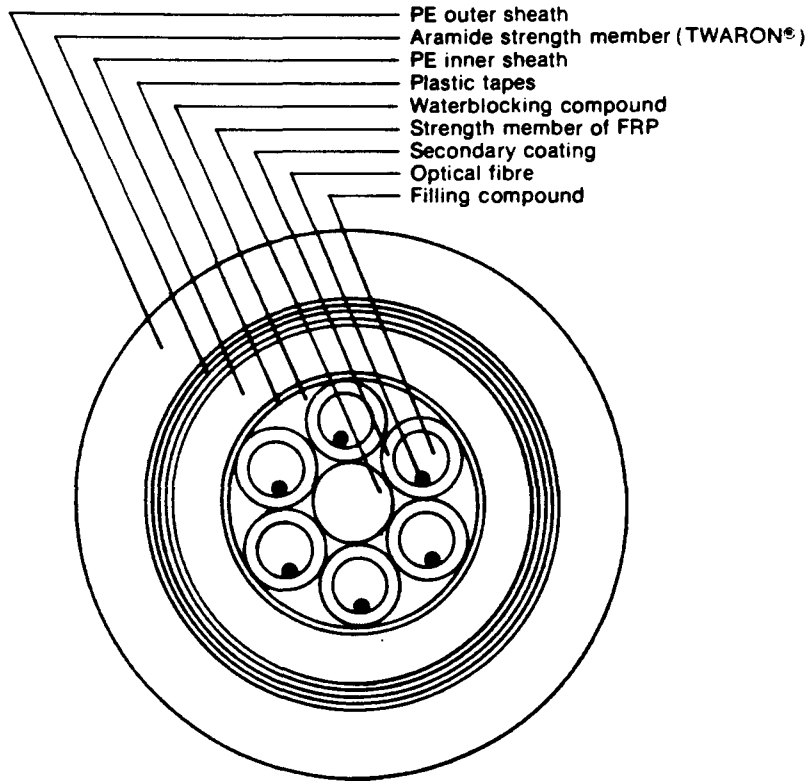
Some important benefits of the use of optical fibre systems, compared to the wire systems mentioned above, are[4] the high obtainable bandwidth, low attenuation and the insensitivity to EMI (electromagnetic interference). Comparing optical fibre systems to microwave systems is more difficult because of the different legal limitations that are involved. Comparing the costs of telecommunication systems is outside the scope of this work, though important.

There are various methods to install an optical fibre cable in a high voltage network, e.g. fibres in the earthwire (or a phase conductor), fibre cable lashed around the earthwire (or a phase conductor) and metal-free selfsupporting cable. The last is more advantageous[1] for later-on installation on existing over-head (OH) lines. The first cable of this type was installed autumn 1982 at the "Rheinisch-Westfälischen Elektrizitätswerk AG" in a 110/220/380 kV line.[2]

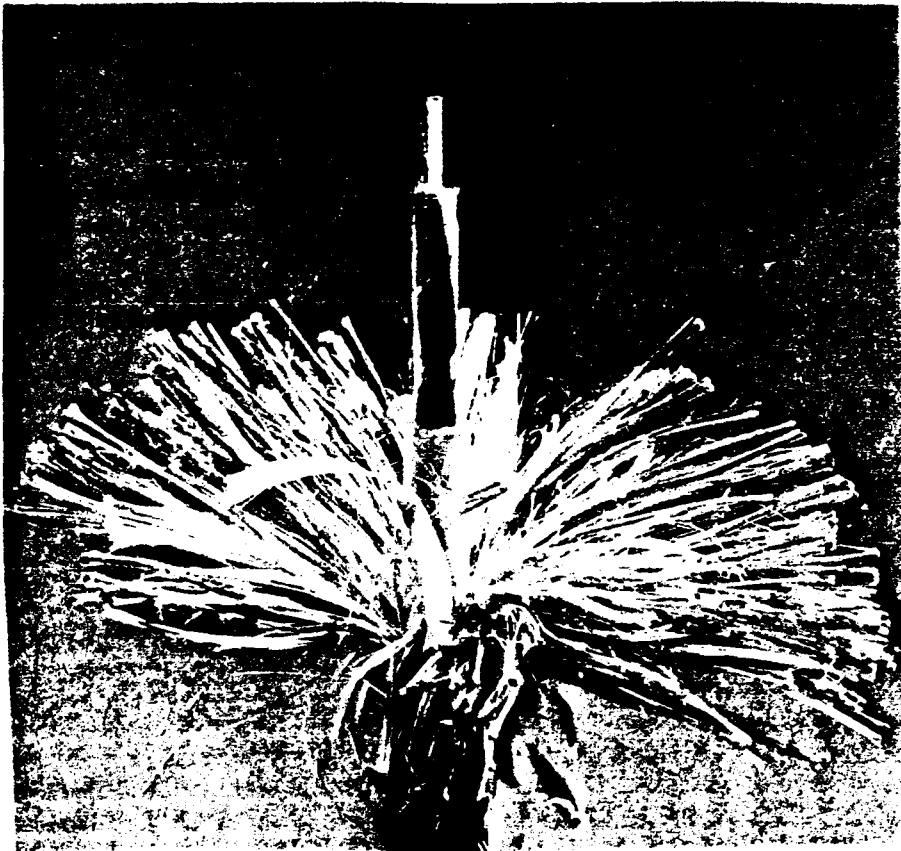
Subject of this report are the electrical stress mechanisms that cause ageing of a metal-free, selfsupporting, aerial, optical fibre cable. First a literature study was performed which is reported in chapter 3. In order to quantify the stress mechanisms, calculations were made in chapter 4. Evaluation of the results of these calculations requires knowledge on material and system properties. Report on the measurements of these properties is given respectively in chapter 5 and 6. Discussion and conclusions are given respectively in chapter 7 and 8.

This study was performed on request of and in cooperation with "NKF Telecommunicatiekabels B.V.", which company also supplied the cable samples of the type shown in figure 1.1 and 1.2 [3].

**Aerial optical fibre cable cross section:**



**figure 1.1: NKF optical fibre cable.**



**figure 1.2: NKF optical fibre cable.**

## 2. Definitions

ageing: deterioration in time as a result of stresses.

arc: relatively stable electrical discharge carrying a high current.

arcing-scintillation: the (repetitive) ignition, extinction and movement of arcs. Arcing can result in tracks or erosion.

carbon black: high purity carbon powder.

dry arc resistance = corona resistance: a quantitative expression of the time required to make an arc of specified current penetrate into the nearby insulating surface.

electrical discharge: conductive path in a gas, bridging a gap between electrodes, carrying a small current.

corona[2]: often luminous and audible partial discharges in a non-uniform field.

flashover[1]: an electrical discharge at the surface of electrical insulation or in the surrounding medium, which may cause permanent damage to the insulation.

partial discharge: conductive path, bridging part of a gap. Though not carrying a conductive current, it may carry a significant capacitive current due to the small risetimes involved.

stress: all forces and other phenomena that may effect a specimens characteristics in a negative way.

surface conductivity[1]: the apparant DC conductance between two electrodes in contact with the surface of a specimen of insulating material related to the surface dimensions, when the current involved is limited to a thin film of moisture or other semi-conducting material on the surface of this specimen. (Some volume conductance is unavoidably included in actual measurements.)

surface resistivity: the reciproke of the surface conductivity.

track[1]: a more or less conducting path of localized deterioration on the surface of an insulating material.

tracking[1]: the process that produces tracks as a result of the action of electric discharges on or close to the insulation surface.

tracking resistance[1]: the quantitative expression of the voltage and time required to develop a track under specified conditions.

### 3. Ageing of optical fibre cable (literature study)

Equipment for high voltage networks is usually designed for 30 years life-time. Until now there is no such long service experience in the case of optical fibre cables.

The sheath of an aerial cable suffers from meteorological (uv radiation, water, wind, temperature, etc.), environmental (pollution accumulation) and mechanical (own weight, shot-gun damage, bird damage) influences, which cause surface degradation. Partial discharges on or near the surface enhance the ageing. The life-time of a cable depends on the combination of stresses on one hand and the construction of the cable and the choice of materials, on the other hand. Because of the limited amount of literature related directly to the subject, (organic) outdoor HV insulators are studied also since they are subject to the same kind of stress.

#### 3.1. Ageing mechanisms.

An important electrical stress mechanism is arcing along an insulator surface, because it can cause tracks or erosion and thus deteriorate the insulator surface. An essential condition for the occurrence of tracks is the presence of carbon. On HV insulators this mechanism can cause flashover. Therefore the deterioration of an artificially aged insulator is often measured in terms of flashover voltage (f.o.v.) [2-9]. Arcing, or scintillation can start in two ways [31], which can occur simultaneously:

- A conductive film (water, possibly polluted) bridges an increasing part of the gap. The field along the remaining, dry, part increases until arcing is initiated (figure 3.1.1). Even though the distance is small, in the order of micrometers, the ignition voltage is relatively high; that is about 400 V, which is about the minimum breakdown voltage in Paschen's law.
- A relatively high leakage current may cause evaporation at locations where the current density is high or the conductivity is low (figure 3.1.2). This high current density will produce locally a lot of heat. Therefore a considerable number of charge carriers will be produced at the instant of disruption. The arc needs now a relatively small voltage to continue.

In both cases arcing may be extinguished when the gap increases by further evaporation.



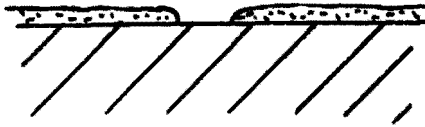
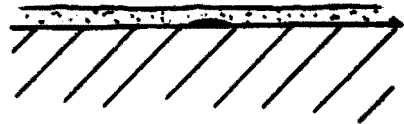
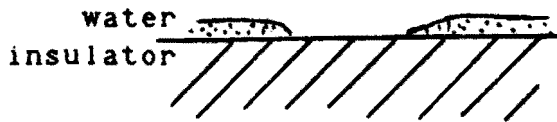


figure 3.1.1: Arc initiation from non conducting state.

figure 3.1.2: Arc initiation from conducting state.

The literature, e.g. references [10,11,12], that reports on the research on the process that leads from arcing to flashover, is important for insulators, but not for cables, because the optical fibre cable doesn't bridge two electrodes.

The probability and intensity of arcing depend, in addition to the voltage, also on the properties of the conductive film that surrounds the insulator[10]. The conductive film consists of water with different soluble salts (most sulphates and chlorides[4]) and can vary in thickness from 0.1 to 600  $\mu\text{m}$ [13]. The thickness of the layer depends on the surface characteristics of the insulator and on the properties of the salts that are present. The surface characteristics can be described by a set of parameters:

- water repellency[12] can be expressed in the angle between a drop of water and the technical clean surface (contact angle) (figure 3.1.3).
- apparent porosity[4] is expressed as the ratio of the volume of open pores of the specimen (freshly crushed fragments of insulator skirts) to its exterior volume.
- water absorption[4] is expressed as the ratio of the water absorbed to the weight of the dry specimen.

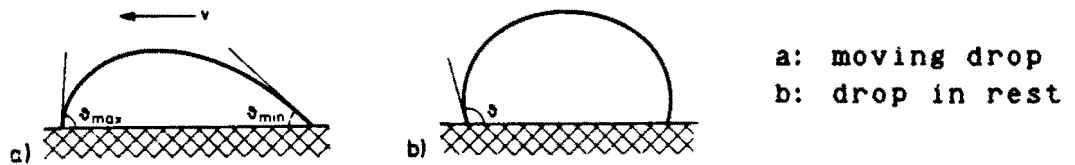


figure 3.1.3: water repellency

The water repellency of an insulator surface decreases during ageing[4,13], because of corrosion and chemical attack caused by weathering conditions (pollution and irradiation[9]). Chemical nature and physical form of pollutant strongly affect the rate of deterioration[4]. The roughness of the insulator surface also has an influence on arcing. Lewis et al.[34] found that a rough insulator surface exhibited considerable tracking resistance compared to a smooth surface. This can be understood by looking at it as an increase in creepage distance.

There are also some electrical properties to characterize the surface of an insulator (defined in chapter 2):

- surface resistivity (IEC 93 [32])
- tracking resistance (IEC 112, 587 [21, 33])
- dry arc resistance (corona resistance) (ASTM D495 [19])

In non-uniform electric field configurations various manifestations of luminous and audible discharges are observed long before the complete breakdown occurs[35]. These discharges may be transient or steady state and are known as "corona". The phenomenon is of particular importance in HV engineering where non-uniform fields are unavoidable. It is responsible for power loss from HV transmission lines and often leads to deterioration of insulation by the combined action of the discharge ions bombarding the surface and the actions of chemical compounds that are formed by the discharge. The electric field strength, at the surface of the conductor in air, required to produce a noticeable AC corona in air is about 25 - 30 kV/cm.

### 3.2. Optical cables in HV OH lines

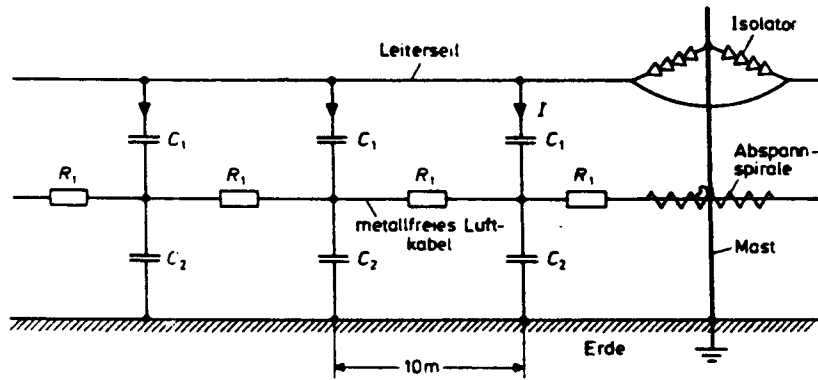
In literature, 3 manufacturers of metal-free selfsupporting optical fibre cables (for OH lines) were found:

- NKF Telecommunicationcables (division of NKF KABEL B. V. ) [14]
- F&G (Felten & Guillaume) Telecommunicationcables and -systems (division of Philips Kommunikations Industrie A. G. ) [1]
- Standard Electric Lorenz AG [15]

All of them use PE (polyethylene) for the outer sheath of the cable. Recently NKF switched from LDPE (Low Density PE)

to HDPE (High Density PE)[16], because of the better transference of pulling force and the smaller sensibility to corona, see paragraph 3.3.1.

The importance of the HV fields to the ageing of the cable is described by Haag[17]. Because of the electrical properties of the sheath, the surface of the cable in the electrical field of the phase conductor gets charged by capacitive coupling (figure 3.2.1). The capacitances shown in the figure depend on the geometry of the optical cable, HV lines and earth.

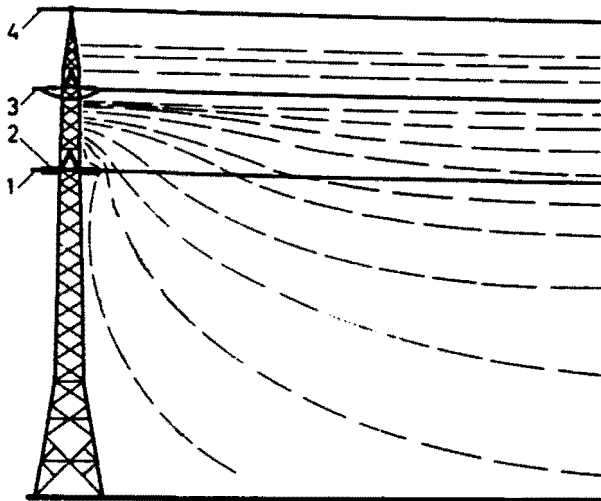


*Modell für die Berechnung der kapazitiven Aufladung und Entladungsströme für metallfreie Luftkabel auf Freileitungsgestängen*

figure 3.2.1.

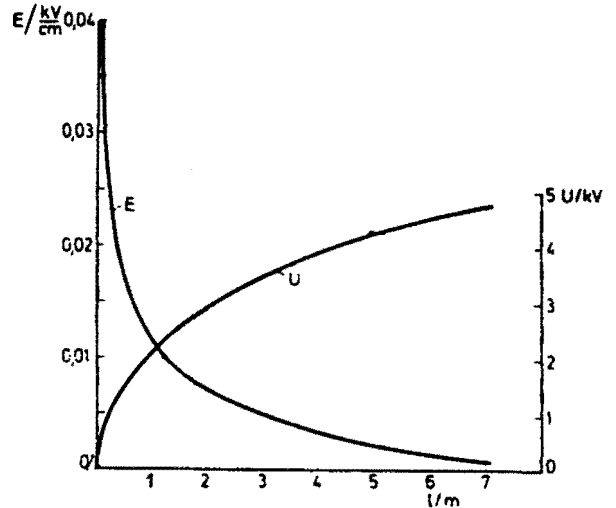
The capacitance from the cable to earth is not constant over the whole length of the cable because of the influence of the grounded tower and the sag of the cable. This influence is not shown in figure 3.2.1. Since the surface resistance is high ( $2 \cdot 10^8 \Omega/\text{m}$  -  $10^{14} \Omega/\text{m}$ )[17], the induced charge cannot flow away. At each tower the cable is grounded. Near the clamps at the tower high electric fields can occur. When the cable gets polluted and wet, the problems described in paragraph 3 (arcing, tracking) will occur. The capacitively induced voltage is considered[17] not important for 20 kV lines, in 110 kV lines no problems are expected, whereas it is the determining factor, for the life-time of the cable, in 220 kV and especially 380 kV lines.

In ref. [1] equipotential lines and electric field were determined graphically for a cable in a 110 kV OH line (see figure 3.2.2 and 3.2.3).



1 electric equipotential lines  
 2 near the pole  
 3 non metallic optical fibre cable  
 4 metal dead ends  
 1 phase conductor  
 2 earth conductor

figure 3.2.2.



Induced voltage and electric  
 force along the optical fibre  
 cable beginning at the earthed  
 dead-end ( $x=0$ )

figure 3.2.3.

Bartlett et al.[36] state that the main problem area for selfsupporting cables at the higher transmission voltages is degradation caused by the effect of the electric field on a cable sheath polluted by prevailing climatic conditions. It seems unlikely that this can be prevented by insulated support clamps[36]. The U.K. approach[36] to prevent the electrical degradation of the cable sheath, which at present limits the use of metal-free selfsupporting cables to voltages below about 110 kV, is to study sheath materials rather than to attempt to modify the cable or fittings near towers. Two approaches, of producing non-tracking and partially conducting sheaths, are being investigated. Looking for remedies against tracking, engineers of Siemens[37] find a solution by providing the cable with a longitudinal resistance of  $10^7$  to  $10^9 \Omega/m$  and a jacket relatively insensitive to tracking and corona. Because of the lowered resistance, areas of high electrical stress between the borders of adjacent moist areas are then more or less electrically bridged thereby reducing tracking. Special outer jackets with a high content of aluminum hydroxide have[37] the suitable combination of the required physical properties. In addition to Bartlett et al. the engineers of Siemens[37] also reject the method of insulated suspension.

A corona discharge close to the optical fibre cable can

cause deterioration as described in paragraph 3.1. Figure 3.2.4 shows the end of the Al/St (Aluminum/Steel) spiral that is often used to suspend the cable. Figure 3.2.5 shows the suspension spirals used for the NKF cable. Sharp edges at the end of the spiral might enhance the electric field strength above the corona onset level.

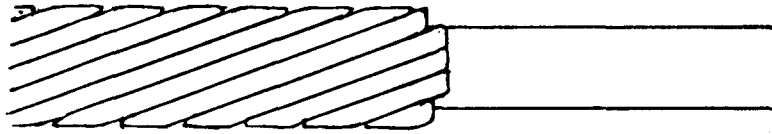


figure 3.2.4: End of spiral for cable suspension.

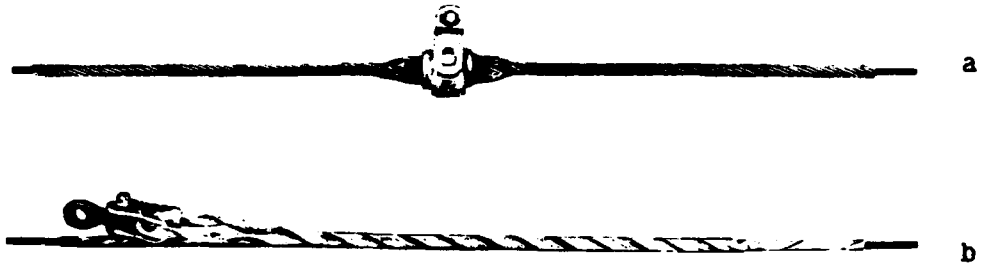


figure 3.2.5: Suspension spirals (a: suspension, b: tension) for NKF cable.

Furthermore[37] protruding irregularities on a possibly conducting cable surface can also cause radial discharges (corona), which erode and degrade the surface of the cable sheath.

Another electrical phenomenon that can damage the cable is caused by the possible soaking of the strength member (aramide or FRP) when the outer sheath is damaged. The strength member of the NKF cable, aramide, has filaments of 12  $\mu\text{m}$  with holes in between of 8  $\mu\text{m}$ [16]. If these holes are filled with water, the resistance decreases. A problem occurs when the heat generated inside, by the resulting current, cannot flow away, or when the conductive area suddenly ends.

### 3.3. Material properties of polyethylene.

#### 3.3.1. Arcing resistance

The dry arc resistance of a material can be determined by using the standard test procedures ASTM D495 or DIN 53 484. Mark[18] gives values for natural PE using the ASTM D495[19] method. In this test the arc resistance is described as the total elapsed time of operation until failure. Failure occurs when the arc, of specified current pattern, disappears into the tested material.

LDPE 135 - 160 s  
 MDPE 200 - 235 s  
 HDPE ---

### 3.3.2. Tracking and erosion resistance

To determine the tracking and erosion resistance different tests are used:

ASTM D2132  
 IEC 112  
 ASTM D2303

Parr and Scarisbrick[20] compared the IEC 112[21] with the ASTM D2132 test. The results are listed below.

|                         | IEC 112(1959)              |               | ASTM D2132(1962)  |      |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|---------------|-------------------|------|
|                         | comparative tracking index | erosion index | failure mechanism | life |
|                         | V                          | V             | -                 | h    |
| LDPE                    | > 500                      | >750          | erosion           | 60.0 |
| LDPE + 2 % carbon black | > 500                      | ---           | tracking          | 0.9  |

The indices given by the IEC 112 test are the voltages at which failure ( $I > 0.5$  A for 2 s) occurs before the 50 drops of test solution have fallen on the test surface. For the ASTM D2132 test the test specimen are artificially contaminated and placed in a specified fog. The time after applying 1500 V is measured until failure ( $I > 2$  A). Parr and Scarisbrick concluded that the ASTM D2132[22] method is more adequate than the IEC 112 method.

Clabburn et al.[23] used the ASTM D2303[24] test to determine the influences of additives to the tracking behaviour of PE, see table 3.3.2.1. This tracking behaviour is expressed in the "initial tracking voltage" (ITV), which is determined in the test at a specified rate of contamination application.

Exposing PE to outdoor environment can also cause loss of tracking resistance, see also paragraph 3.3.6.

| Absorber                                   | ITV in KV |
|--|-----------|
| None                                       | 3.0       |
| 1% Carbon Black                            | 2.0       |
| 2% Carbon Black                            | 1.5       |
| 1% Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>          | 2.75      |
| 1% Zn O                                    | 2.25      |
| 0.5% Uvinol 410 (substituted benzophenone) | 2.5       |
| 0.5% Tinuvin P(substituted benzotriazole)  | 2.75      |

| Trade Name      | Antioxidant Type                         | ITV in KV |
|-----------------|--|-----------|
| None            | None                                     | 3.0       |
| Agerite Resin D | Polymerised dihydro quinoline            | 2.5       |
| Irganox 858     | High molecular weight hindered phenol    | 3.0       |
| Nonox WSL       | Medium molecular weight hindered phenol. | 2.0       |
| Akroflex CD     | Substituted diphenylamines               | 2.25      |
| 2246            | Low molecular weight hindered phenol     | 2.75      |

table 3.3.2.1: Effects of additives on ITV of PE.

### 3.3.3. Water repellency = Hydrophobicity

The water repellency of a material can be expressed in the contact angle between a water-drop and the surface.

McNicoll et al.[25] measured the contact angle between a water-drop and a PE surface:

- molded 94.3
- cut by microtome 103.5

When the PE surface is aged the contact angle becomes slowly smaller.

### 3.3.4. Surface resistance

The surface resistivity of PE depends strongly on the relative humidity (RH) of the surrounding air. Field[26] found that the surface resistivity decreases steadily to its equilibrium value, which is reached in about 100 minutes.

Figure 3.3.4.1 shows the surface resistivity of PE as a function of RH. The resistivity at 100 % RH is  $1.3 \cdot 10^9 \Omega$ . Licari[27] measured the surface resistivity of PE at 96 % RH:

- fingerprint contaminated  $5 \cdot 10^7 \Omega$
- freshly shaved surface  $2.2 \cdot 10^{11} \Omega$

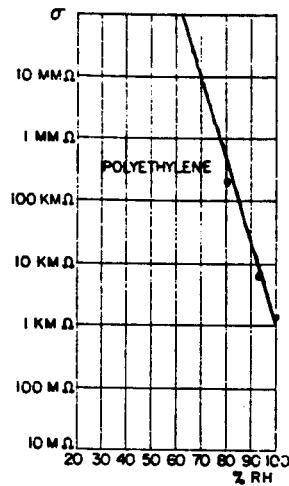


figure 3.3.4.1: Surface resistivity of PE  
(1 KMΩ =  $10^3 \cdot 10^6 \Omega$ , etc.).

### 3.3.5. Water absorption

Several figures of water absorption in (natural) PE are found in literature (weight percentages):

|                                |           |
|--------------------------------|-----------|
| [27]: in 24 h                  | < 0.01 %  |
| [28]: in 30 days               | 0.095 %   |
| [29]: in 24 h, 1/8 inch thick: |           |
| LDPE                           | < 0.015 % |
| MDPE                           | < 0.01 %  |
| HDPE                           | < 0.01 %  |

No comments are given on these figures.

### 3.3.6. Outdoor behaviour

Clabburn et al.[23] described the adverse effects on PE properties because of long term outdoor exposure. The contributing factors to these adverse effects are:

1. weather:
  - UV component of sunlight
  - atmospheric oxygen
  - moisture: rain, dew, etc.
2. pollution:
  - natural: sand, dust, salt, etc.
  - industrial: ash, gaseous wastes, etc.
3. thermal effects
4. mechanical effects

ad 1: UV light can break several different types of chemical bonds and thus cause chain scission in a polymer. Scission results in degradation of the polymer which may be recognized as loss of both mechanical and electrical properties such as strength, elongation, track resistance and the like. Free radicals are created also by UV light. In the presence of oxygen the formation of free radicals can lead to an auto-catalytic reaction by the generation of several further types of radicals i.e. a chain reaction of degrading ra-



dicals is initiated. Moisture can enhance this effect. An other effect of moisture is that the freezing of water in surface imperfections can cause cracks. The tendency towards oxidation can be largely prevented[18] by the incorporation of antioxidants into the polymer. Gilroy[30] found that the use of carbon black of over 1 % and of particle size of less than 35  $\mu\text{m}$  has been found to be adequate to protect PE for over 38 years outdoor exposure.

ad 2: The main kinds of pollution that attack the polymer are: ozone and oxides of sulphur and nitrogen. The reaction of PE with ozone can proceed very rapidly at 60 C with gross chain scission. In the presence of UV light and sulphur dioxide PE gets crosslinked. Exposure to nitrogen dioxide results in incorporation of nitro groups into the backbone. This can cause a decrease of tracking resistance as shown in table 3.3.6.1.

| Polymer                  | ITV, in KV |
|--------------------------|------------|
| Polyethylene             | 3.0        |
| Nitrated Polyethylene I  | 2.75       |
| Nitrated Polyethylene II | 2.25       |

|                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
| Nitrated polyethylene I  | contained one nitro group per 430 carbon atoms |
| Nitrated polyethylene II | contained one nitro group per 220 carbon atoms |

table 3.3.6.1: Nitration of PE.

ad 3 and 4: High, low and suddenly changing temperatures can be expected. Problems can arise from the fact that different components of the cable have different coefficients of linear expansion, for example:

|         |                                    |
|---------|------------------------------------|
| PE      | $2.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ K}^{-1}$ |
| aramide | $-2 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$  |

The consequence is that stresses will be present between PE and aramid. The stresses and strains may open and close micro cracks on the surface of the polymer. Moisture and solid pollutants become trapped in surface cracks. The trapped matter enhances tracking. These effects will clearly be accelerated by additional stresses resulting from wind, snow and ice loadings.

## 4. Model calculations

All computer calculations reported of in this chapter were performed on the B7900 system of the Technical University Eindhoven in the programming language Algol 60. The text of the "POTCALC" program (paragraph 4.1) is given in Appendix B.

### 4.1. Potential distribution perpendicular to the HV lines

#### 4.1.1. Calculation method

For line-charges it is possible to calculate analytically the electric field. If the diameters of the conductors are small compared to the distances involved, then each conductor can be represented by one line charge.

The three phase sinusoidal system is represented by complex voltages as shown in figure 4.1.1. If  $U$  is the systems phase-phase voltage, then

$$\begin{aligned}V_R &= \sqrt{3}U/3 \\V_S &= -\sqrt{3}U/6 - jU/2 \\V_T &= -\sqrt{3}U/6 + jU/2\end{aligned}$$

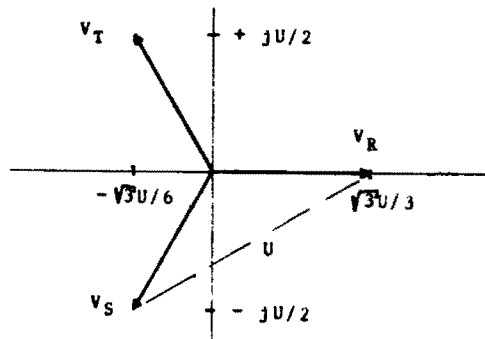


figure 4.1.1.1: Three phase sinusoidal system.

In the following, calculations are made using the effective voltages and the method of reference [1].

$V_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ) are the known voltages of the conductors

$$[V] = [VR] + j[VI] \qquad [Q] = [QR] + j[QI]$$

$$[QR] = [P]^{-1}[VR] \qquad [QI] = [P]^{-1}[VI]$$

and  $Q_i$  are the line charges calculated out of the voltages.

The elements of the matrix P are:

$$P_{ii} = -\frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon} \ln \left[ \frac{d_i}{4y_i} \right]$$

$$P_{ij} = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon} \ln \left[ \frac{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i + y_j)^2} \right]$$

where

$y_i$  (m) height of conductor  $i$  above ground

$d_i$  (m) diameter of conductor  $i$

$(x_i, y_i), (x_j, y_j)$  (m) are the coordinates of the conductors  $i$  and  $j$

and  $y > 0$

It is convenient to consider a bundle of conductors as one single conductor having an equivalent diameter given by [1, 2]

$$d_{eq} = D \left[ \frac{md}{D} \right]^{1/m}$$

where  $D$  is the bundle diameter,  $m$  is the number of subconductors, and  $d$  is the diameter of the subconductors.

The voltage in a point  $(x, y)$ , somewhere in the conductor field can be derived from the superposition of the contributions of the individual conductors:

$$V(x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Q_i}{4\pi\epsilon} \ln \left[ \frac{(x_i - x)^2 + (y_i - y)^2}{(x_i - x)^2 + (y_i + y)^2} \right]$$

In the same way the electric field strength is calculated

$$E_x = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Q_i}{2\pi\epsilon} \left[ \frac{x - x_i}{(x-x_i)^2 + (y-y_i)^2} - \frac{x - x_i}{(x-x_i)^2 + (y+y_i)^2} \right]$$

$$E_y = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{Q_i}{2\pi\epsilon} \left[ \frac{y - y_i}{(x-x_i)^2 + (y-y_i)^2} - \frac{y + y_i}{(x-x_i)^2 + (y+y_i)^2} \right]$$

The complete set of capacitances,  $C_{ij}$ , of the system is:

$$C_{i1} = \sum_{j=1}^n K_{ij} \text{ capacitance between conductor } i \text{ and earth}$$

$$C_{ij} = C_{ji} = -K_{ij} \text{ capacitance between conductors } i \text{ and } j$$

$$[K] = [P]^{-1}$$

#### 4.1.2. Calculations on practical towers

Equipotential-lines were calculated for two PNEM (Noord Brabant Electricity Company) towers (one for 150 kV and one for 380 kV) and one (380 kV) EZH (South-Holland Electricity Company) tower. Results are shown in figures 4.1.2.1 to 4.1.2.3. For the EZH-tower there are three different phase distributions in use. They all give the same potential distributions.

Conductor diameters were calculated from the cross-section areas with

$$d = 2F\sqrt{(A/\pi)} \quad \text{where} \quad F = 1.15$$

The factor  $F$  was introduced because a phase or ground conductor is composed of twisted steel and aluminum wires.  $F$  was obtained by relating calculated diameters with real diameters given in a list of German standard conductors[4]. The standard deviation in  $F$  is ( $N = 8$ ) 0.007.

The figures 4.1.2.1 to 4.1.2.3 show the situations in the middle between two towers, so the sag (different for phase

conductors and earth wires) is taken into account. When an optical fibre cable with a slightly conducting sheath is suspended between the wires, the capacitances between cable and phase conductors, and between cable and ground will result in a cable potential which depends on the values of the capacitances. A typical set of capacitances is given in table 4.1.2.1. It is assumed that the sag of the cable is the same as the sag of the phase wires.

|                 | capacitance (pF/m) |        |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------|
|                 | sag                | no sag |
| phase-cable: RC | 2.09               | 2.14   |
| SC              | 1.89               | 1.94   |
| TC              | 1.84               | 1.88   |
| cable-ground    | 1.48               | 1.34   |

table 4.1.2.1: Capacitances in tower 170 (cable in position (x = -8.53, y = 33.3), see figure 4.1.2.2).

The maximum radial electric field strength at the suspension spirals is calculated near the tower (no sag), without taking the influence of the tower into account. At the spiral-end this field strength will be enhanced. The enhancement factor can be determined in the measurements by calculating the electric field strength at the discharge onset voltage, and relating this value to the electric field strength needed for (corona) discharges, i.e. about 30 kV/cm.

Figure 4.2.1.1 shows a type of tower in which 8.5 km of optical fibre cable is suspended. The cable is suspended in position (0,12.75) which results in a potential of 15.6 kV. From the figure it can be seen that (±8.5,12.9) is a better position to suspend the cable because the potential there is 1.51 kV. The maximum radial electric field strength at suspension spiral is 1.57 kV/cm in (0,12.75).

Figure 4.1.2.2 shows a clear minimum in the potential distribution. This minimum is located in position (-8.53,33.3) and has a potential of 7.03 kV. The maximum radial electric field strength at the suspension spiral in this position is 0.89 kV/cm. This configuration, see also table 4.1.2.1, is used for the calculations in paragraph 4.2.

In the tower shown in figure 4.1.2.3 the suspension of an optical fibre cable is planned. There were three possible suspension positions, (0,28.35) and (±4.08,49.4). From the

figure it is clear for the reason of cable potential, position (0,28.35) with a potential of 3.43 kV has to be chosen. The maximum radial electric field strength at the suspension spiral in this position is 0.27 kV/cm.

tower type = 163PNEM112.540-1  
 d<sub>eq</sub>(phase) = 3.61 cm  
 d(ground) = 1.17 cm  
 U = 150 kV

EQUIPOTENTIAL LINES FOR V= 0.5.1.2.5.10.15.20.25.30.40.60.80 % OF 86.6 KV(PH-OR)

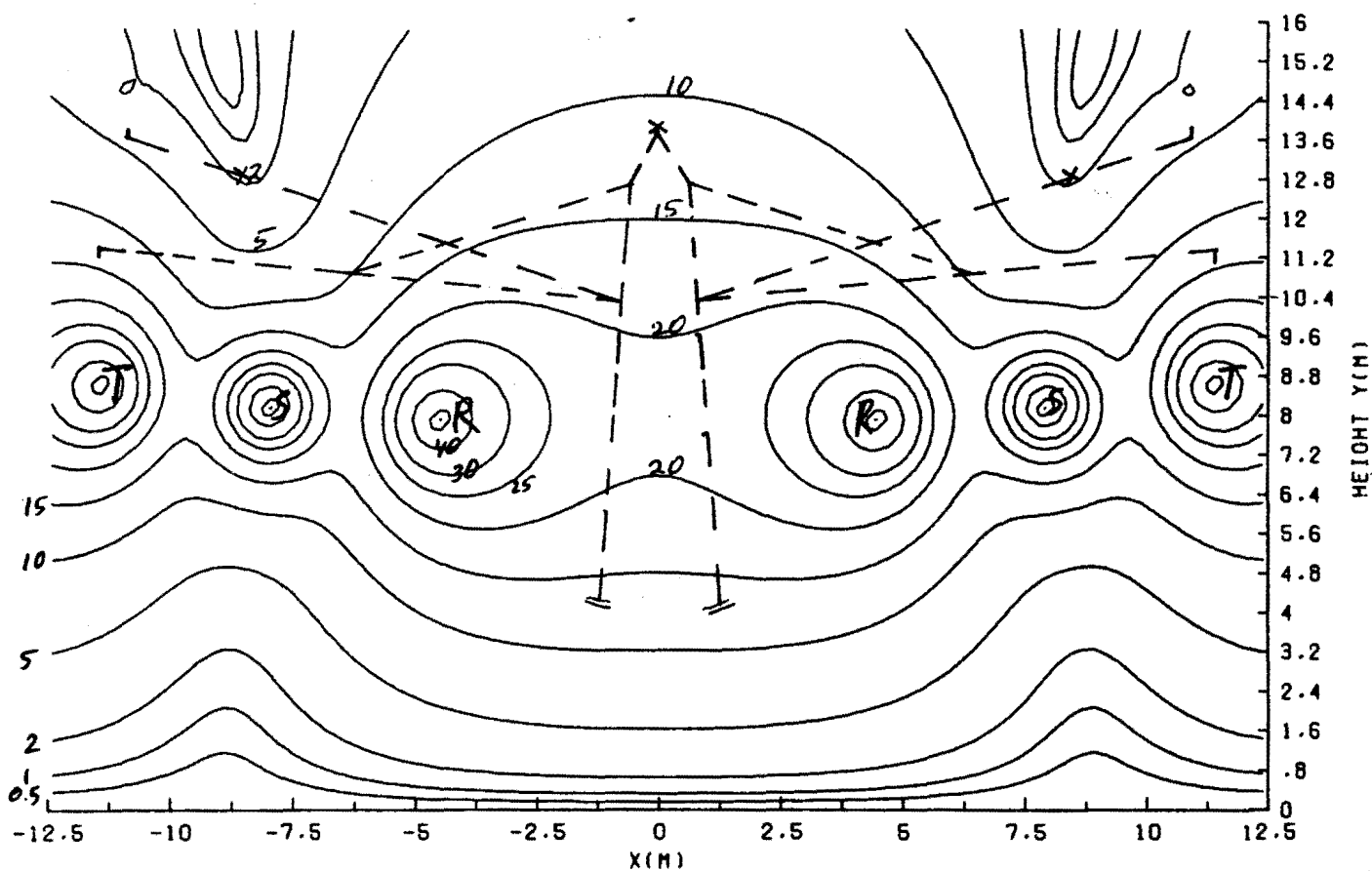


figure 4.1.2.1.

tower type = 170PNEM43.686  
 d<sub>eq</sub>(Phase) = 26.15 cm  
 d(ground) = 2.05 cm  
 U = 380 kV

EQUIPOTENTIAL LINES FOR V= 0.5.1.2.5.10.15.20.25.30.40.60.90 % OF 219.4 KV(PH-GR)

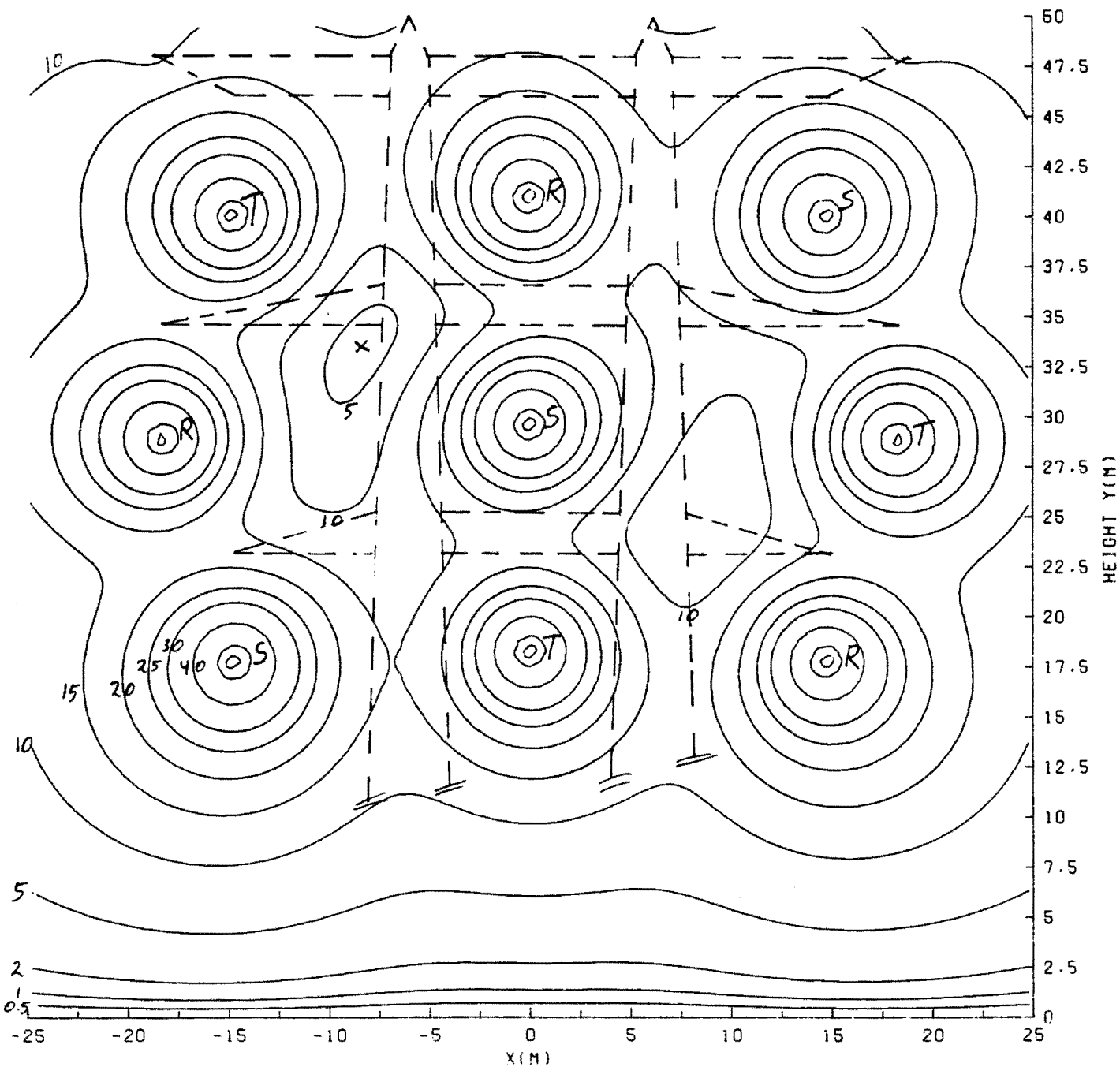


figure 4.1.2.2.



tower type = EZH/FD/432  
 $d_{eq}(\text{phase}) = 39.3 \text{ cm}$   
 $d(\text{ground}) = 2.18 \text{ cm}$   
 $U = 380 \text{ kV}$

EQUIPOTENTIAL LINES FOR  $V = 0.1.0.5.1.2.5.10.15.20.25.30.40.60.80.95 \%$  OF 219.4 KV(PH-GR)

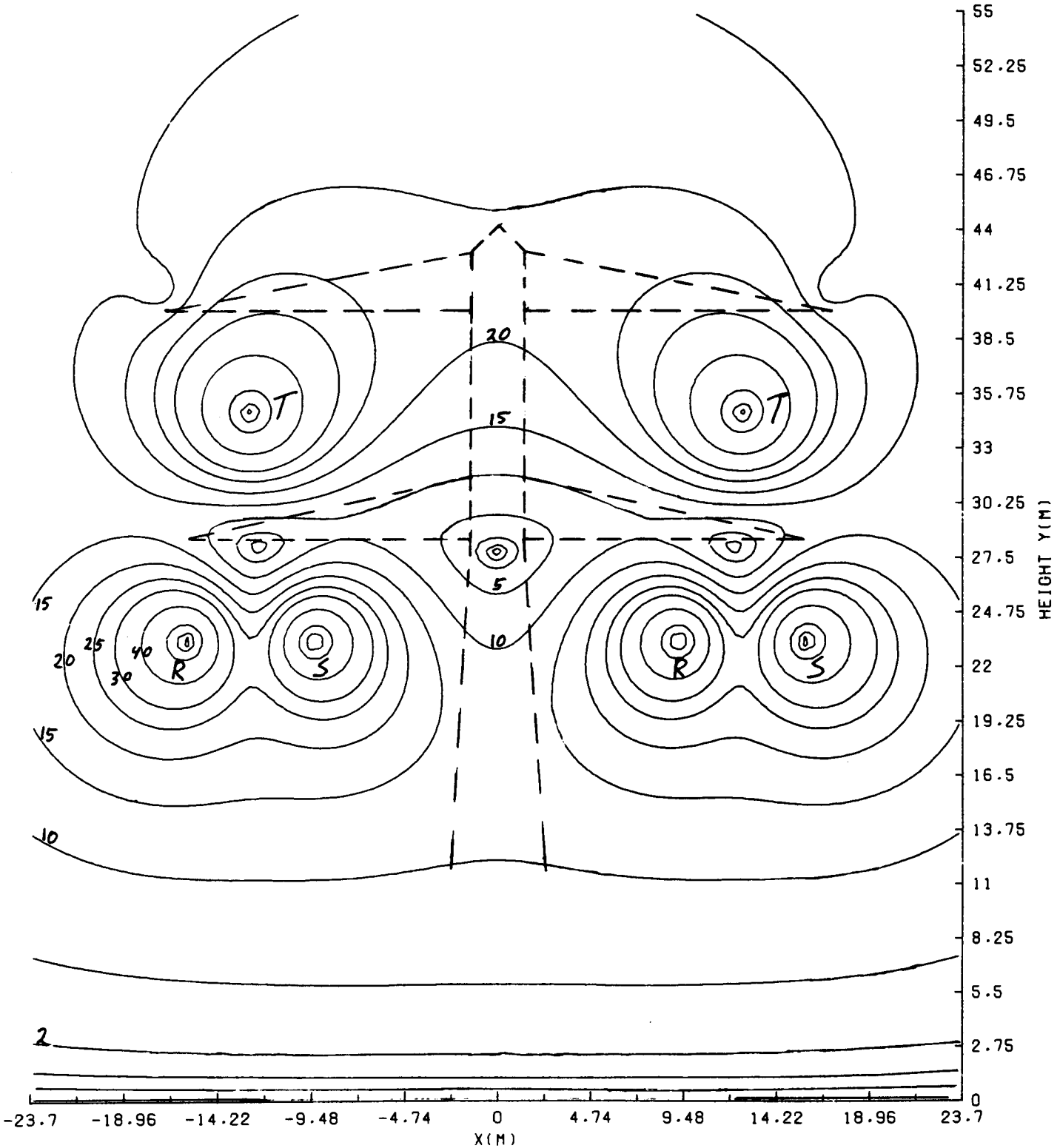


figure 4.1.2.3.

## 4.2. Voltage distribution along the optical fibre cable.

### 4.2.1. Calculation method.

The optical fibre cable is suspended parallel to the phase conductors. In the calculations these phase conductors are considered to be "ideal" voltage sources, i.e. with negligible output impedance. The system of  $m$  phase conductors (figure 4.2.1.1) can be replaced by one Thevenin equivalent voltage source, calculated as follows ( $c$  in F/m)

$$c_s = c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + \dots + c_m$$

$$V_s = (c_1 V_1 + c_2 V_2 + \dots + c_m V_m) / c_s$$

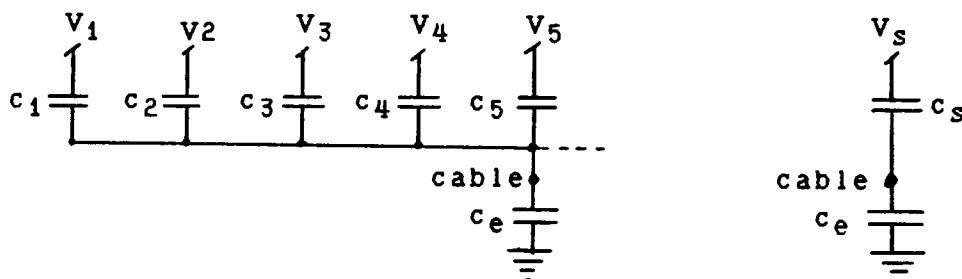


figure 4.2.1.1.

A small piece,  $\Delta x$ , of the cable can be replaced by

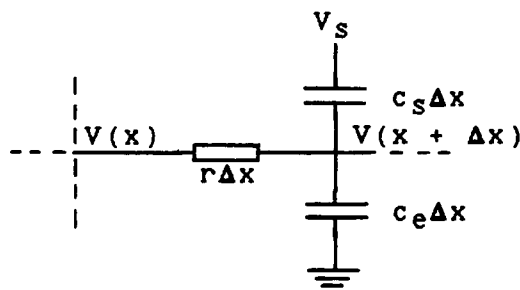


figure 4.2.1.2.

where  $r[\Omega/m]$  and  $c_s, c_e[F/m]$ . This leads to the following differential equations ( $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ )

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = -rI$$

$$\frac{\partial I}{\partial x} = c_s \frac{\partial V_s}{\partial t} - (c_e + c_s) \frac{\partial V}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x^2} = -rc_s \frac{\partial V_s}{\partial t} + r(c_e + c_s) \frac{\partial V}{\partial t}$$

When the excitation is sinusoidal and  $c_s$ ,  $c_e$  and  $r$  are constant then the differential equations become

$$\frac{dV}{dx} = -rI$$

$$\frac{dI}{dx} = j\omega c_s V_s - j\omega(c_e + c_s)V$$

$$\frac{d^2V}{dx^2} - j\omega r(c_e + c_s)V = -j\omega r c_s V_s$$

and have a solution

$$\begin{aligned} V(x) &= Ae^{\gamma x} + Be^{-\gamma x} + V_p \\ I(x) &= -AZ^{-1}e^{\gamma x} + BZ^{-1}e^{-\gamma x} \\ E(x) &= rI(x) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$V_p = \frac{c_s V_s}{c_s + c_e}$$

$$Z = \sqrt{\left[ \frac{r}{j\omega(c_s + c_e)} \right]}$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{[j\omega r(c_s + c_e)]}$$

This model is similar to the transmission line model of Thomson (Lord Kelvin).

The cable is grounded at each suspension tower and the system is assumed to be symmetric around  $x=L$  (figure 4.2.1.3), so

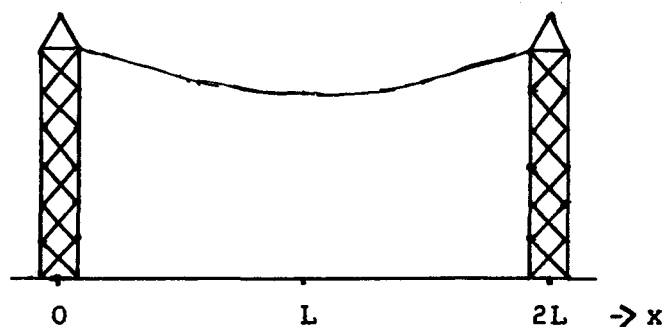


figure 4.2.1.3.

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(0) &= 0 \\
 V(2L) &= 0 \\
 I(L) &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Because of the symmetry, calculations are performed for  $0 < x < L$ .

So far  $r$  and  $c_e$  were assumed independent on  $x$ . In order to extend the model to  $x$ -dependent impedances the cable-half is divided into  $n$  pieces of variable length, with resistance and capacitance values  $r_i[\Omega/m]$  and  $c_{ei}[F/m]$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_0 &= 0, & x_n &= L \\
 0 &< x < x_1 & \gamma_1, Z_1, V_{p1}, A_1, B_1 \\
 x_{i-1} &< x < x_i & \gamma_i, Z_i, V_{pi}, A_i, B_i \\
 x_{n-1} &< x < L & \gamma_n, Z_n, V_{pn}, A_n, B_n
 \end{aligned}$$

Now for each section the solution is represented by constants  $A_i, B_i, V_{pi}, Z_i, \gamma_i$ , where  $P_i, Z_i$  and  $\gamma_i$  follow directly from the impedance values and the source voltage.  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  have to be calculated from the boundary conditions of each section:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_i(x_i) &= V_{i+1}(x_i) \\
 I_i(x_i) &= I_{i+1}(x_i)
 \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_i e^{\gamma_i x_i} + B_i e^{-\gamma_i x_i} + V_{pi} &= A_{i+1} e^{\gamma_{i+1} x_i} + B_{i+1} e^{-\gamma_{i+1} x_i} + V_{pi+1} \\
 \frac{A_i}{Z_i} e^{\gamma_i x_i} + \frac{B_i}{Z_i} e^{-\gamma_i x_i} &= \frac{A_{i+1}}{Z_{i+1}} e^{\gamma_{i+1} x_i} + \frac{B_{i+1}}{Z_{i+1}} e^{-\gamma_{i+1} x_i}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{for } i = 1 \dots n-1$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(0) &= 0 \\
 I(L) &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

This results in a set of  $2n$  equations for the determination of  $A_1 \dots A_n$  and  $B_1 \dots B_n$ .

The grounded tower influences the electric field nearby and changes the cable-earth capacitance. The cable is suspended to the tower with a 2 m Al/St spiral. So the point where the cable is grounded is about 2 m away from the tower. With help of reference [6] it is possible to calculate the capacitance between an infinite surface and a rod of length  $l$

perpendicular to that surface. The distance between rod and surface is assumed to be negligibly small. To calculate the capacitance per unit of length, the derivate to the length  $l$  is taken. The result is

$$\frac{dC}{dl} = \frac{2\pi\epsilon \left[ \ln \frac{2l}{d\sqrt{3}} - 1 \right]}{\left[ \ln \frac{2l}{d\sqrt{3}} \right]^2}$$

This capacitance gives the absolute maximum of the tower influence. For practical situations, i.e. a frame-work tower, the real influence of the tower is approximated to be half of this limit value. Then the total capacitance from cable to earth is for  $x=0$  at 2 m from the tower

$$x = 0 \quad c'_e \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{dC}{dl} (l=2) + c_e = 4.5 \text{ pF/m} + c_e$$

#### 4.2.2. Results.

In paragraph 4.1 a preferable place is given for suspending the optical fibre cable in PNEM tower 170,43.686 (380 kV). The cable-phase and the cable-ground capacitances of this system are:

$$\begin{aligned} c_{RC} &= 2.09 \text{ pF/m} \\ c_{SC} &= 1.89 \text{ pF/m} \\ c_{TC} &= 1.84 \text{ pF/m} \\ c_e &= 1.48 \text{ pF/m} \end{aligned}$$

which results in

$$\begin{aligned} V_s &= 8.62 + j(-1.86) \text{ KV} \\ c_s &= 5.82 \text{ pF/m} \end{aligned}$$

These capacitances result in a cable potential of  $V_p = 7.03$  kV when there is no current flowing on the cable. Knowing the span-length to be 400 m ( $L = 200$  m), calculations can be made for different values of  $r$ . Three typical shapes of the voltage distribution can be distinguished,

which are also valid for other systems. They are shown in figure 4.2.2.1.

1.  $\text{Re}(\gamma L) \ll 2.15$
2.  $\text{Re}(\gamma L) = 2.15$
3.  $\text{Re}(\gamma L) \gg 2.15$

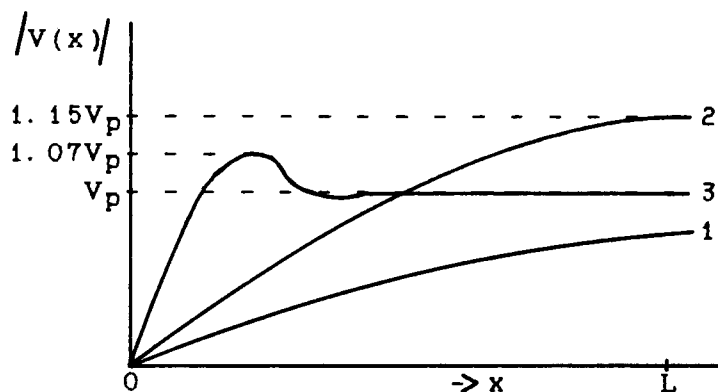


figure 4.2.2.1.

Figures 4.2.2.2 to 4.2.2.3 show some examples of calculation results on tower 170PNEM43.686 for  $r$  having values of  $10^3$ ,  $10^5$  and  $10^7 \Omega/m$ , respectively. A longitudinal cable resistance of  $10^5 \Omega/m$  can originate from either a surface resistivity of  $4800 \Omega$  or a volume resistivity of  $0.066 \Omega cm$  of the sheath, assuming the cable has a diameter of 15.4 mm and the sheath is 1.5 mm thick.

It is also possible to show, with this calculation method, how tracking occurs. Suppose the cable is wet with a relatively high conductivity. If a small piece of the cable is dry and therefore bad conducting, a high electrical field strength in this dry zone will occur. Figure 4.2.2.5 and 4.2.2.6 show two possible situations.

Because of the calculation method that is used, the situations described in figure 4.2.2.5 and 4.2.2.6 are assumed to be symmetric around  $x=L$ . In both figures the resistance of the cable is  $10^5 \Omega/m$ . The 2 mm dry spot at  $x=30$  has a resistance of  $10^7 \Omega/m$  in figure 4.2.2.5 and  $10^9 \Omega/m$  in figure 4.2.2.6. This results in an electric field strength at  $x=30$  of 0.08 kV/cm in figure 4.2.2.5 and 7 kV/cm in figure 4.2.2.6.

For controlling the voltage along the cable it could be possible to apply a better conducting layer inside the outer sheath of the cable. Because of the grounding through the capacitance layer-spiral the voltage and field strength could be reduced depending on the conductivity of the layer. To calculate the voltage distribution in this situation the

model described in paragraph 4.2.1 has to be changed because the (more or less) conducting part of the cable is now not grounded directly at  $x=0$  (tower), so  $V(x=0) \neq 0$ . Assuming an infinite HV line with many towers, the system can be assumed symmetric around each tower. Then the boundary conditions are:

$$\begin{aligned} I(x=0) = 0 &\equiv E(x=0) = 0 \\ I(x=L) = 0 &\equiv E(x=L) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The results of this calculation are shown in figures 4.2.2.7 and 4.2.2.8, where the cable has a resistance of  $10^5 \Omega/\text{m}$  and  $10^7 \Omega/\text{m}$  respectively. From figure 4.2.2.7 we see that the voltage at  $0 < x < 2$  is in the order of 2.5 kV. This results in a high electric field strength (20 kV/cm) between the conducting layer and the spiral because the insulating jacket is only 1.5 mm thick. A calculation with the finite element method would show the problems that can arise at the end of the spiral in this situation.

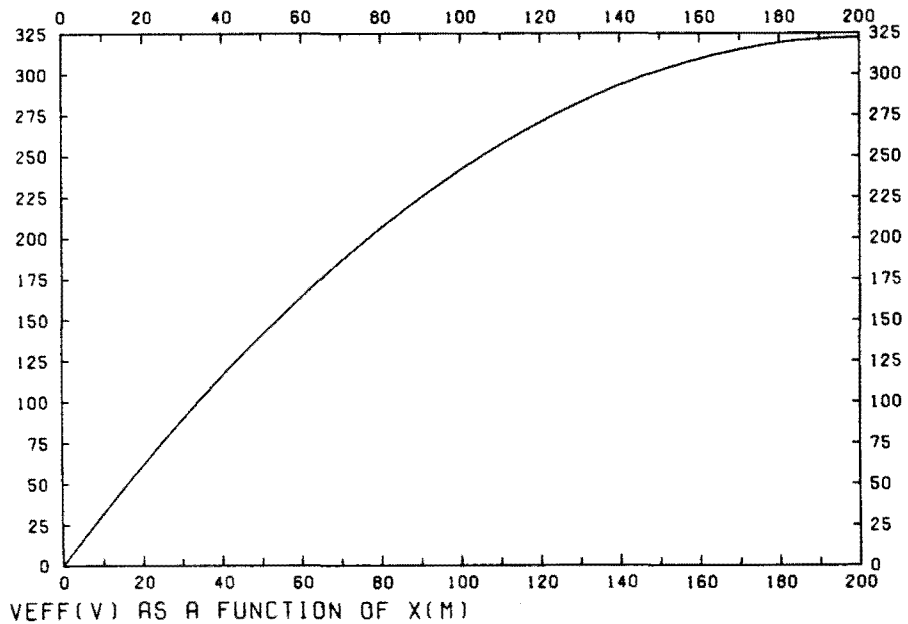


figure 4. 2. 2. 2:  $r = 10^3 \Omega/\text{m}$ ;  
 $E_{\text{max}} = E(x=0) = 3.22 \text{ V/m}$ .

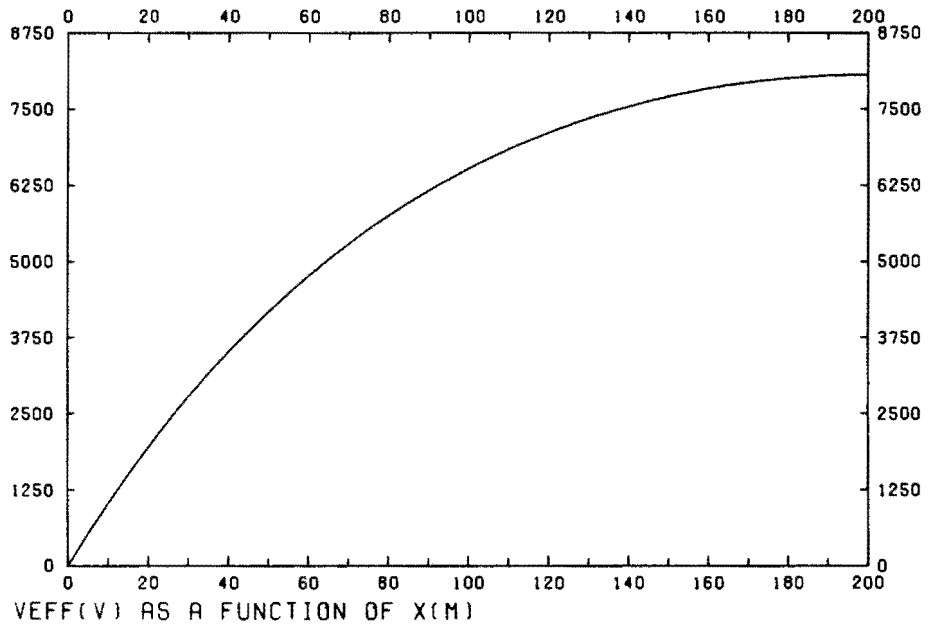


figure 4.2.2.3:  $r = 10^5 \Omega/m$ ;  
 $E_{max} = E(x=0) = 107 \text{ V/m}$ .

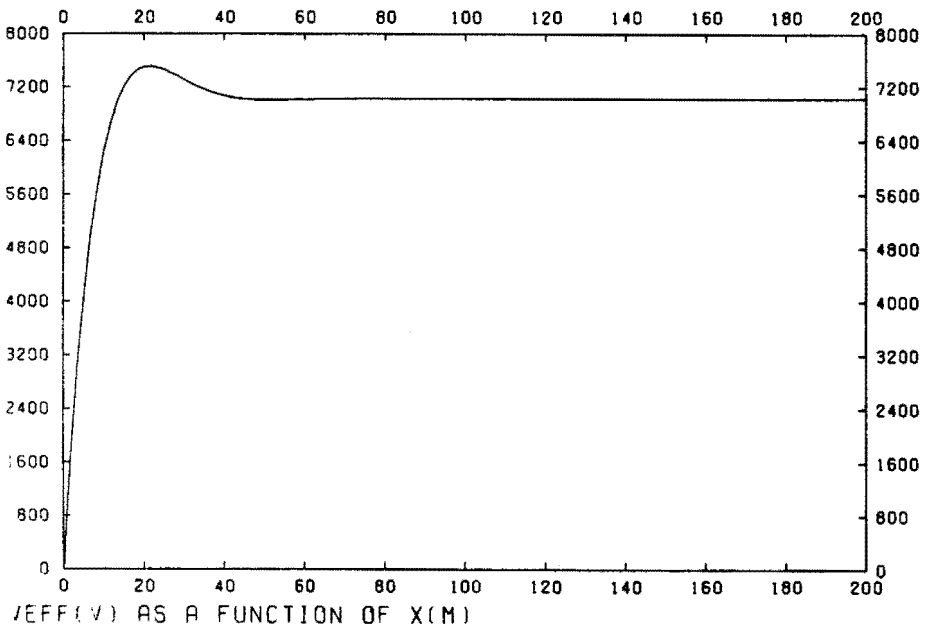


figure 4.2.2.4:  $r = 10^7 \Omega/m$ ;  
 $E_{max} = E(x=0) = 1065 \text{ V/m}$ .



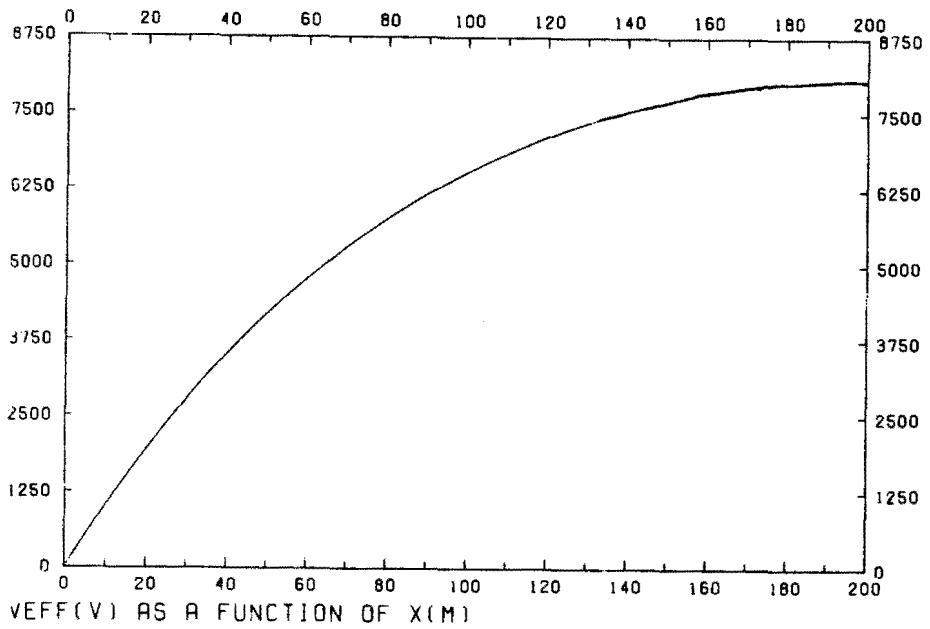


figure 4.2.2.5: Tracking,  $r = 10^5 \Omega/m$  ( $10^7 \Omega/m$  at  $x=30$ );  
 $E_{max} = E(x=30) = 0.08 \text{ kV/cm}$ .

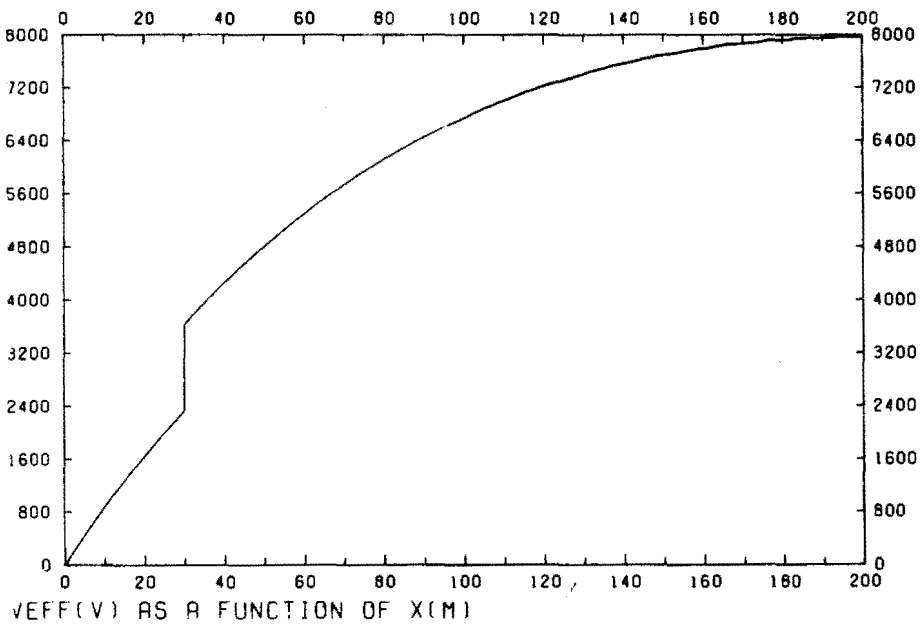


figure 4.2.2.6: Tracking,  $r = 10^5 \Omega/m$  ( $10^9 \Omega/m$  at  $x=30$ );  
 $E_{max} = E(x=30) = 7 \text{ kV/cm}$ .

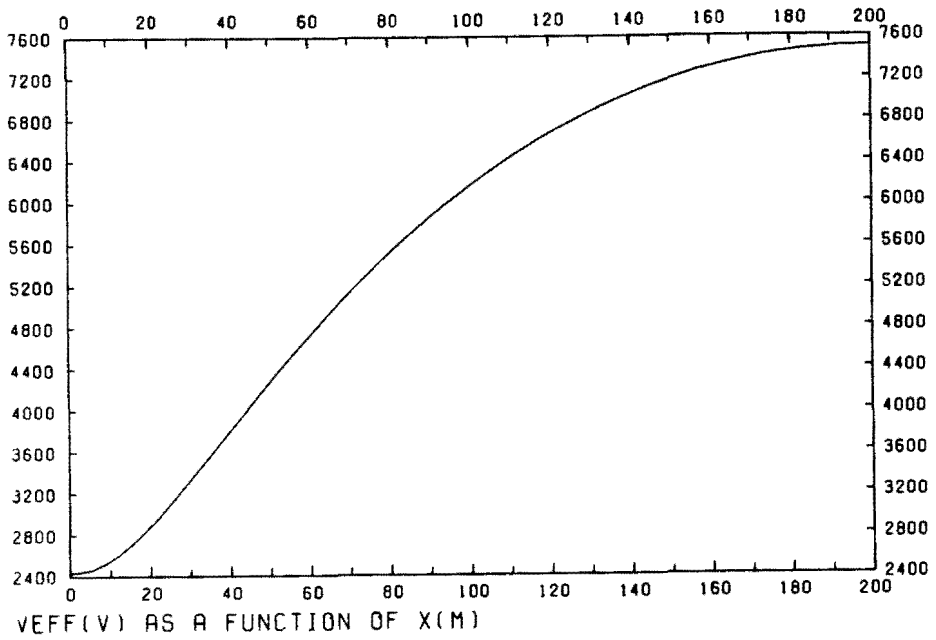


figure 4.2.2.7:  $r = 10^5 \Omega/m$ ;  
 $E_{max} = E(x=2) = 78 \text{ V/m}$ .

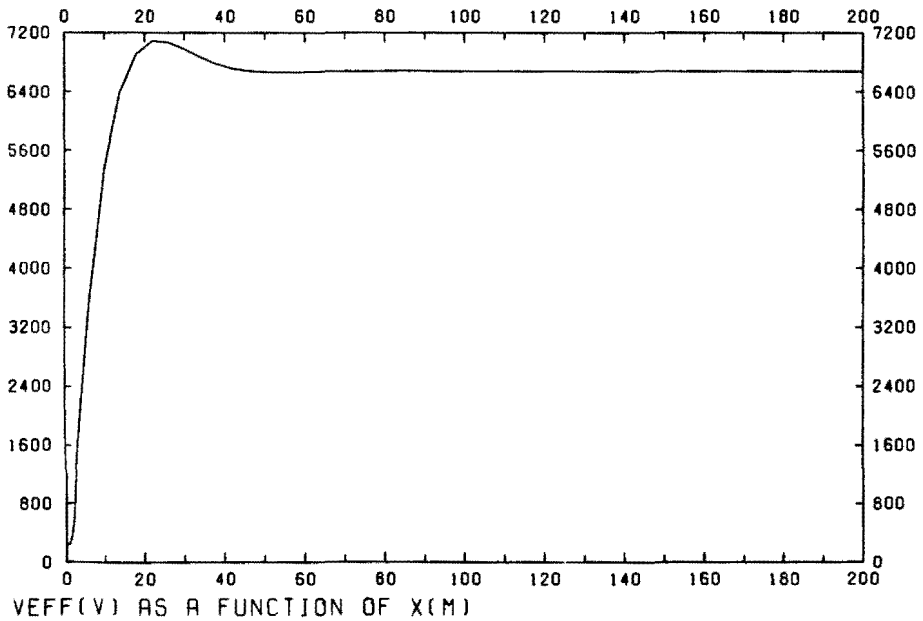


figure 4.2.2.8:  $r = 10^7 \Omega/m$ ;  
 $E_{max} = E(x=2) = 908 \text{ V/m}$ .

#### 4.3. FEM calculations

In order to illustrate the effect of field enhancement by the spiral-end, electric field strength calculations were performed using the Finite-Element-Method (FEM) [5,7]. The computer program that was used presumes a coaxial geometry. Because the optical fibre cable in the HV system may be assumed coaxial only very close to the cable, the calculation can only illustrate the effects at the end of the spiral.

Figure 1 shows the original situation and figure 2 shows a spiral-end which is shielded with a ring. The effect of the shielding can be evaluated by measuring the distance to the first equipotential line.

The cable is assumed to have the relative dielectric constant of PE, i.e.  $\epsilon_r=2.3$ .

In both figures the grounded spiral shows triangles that are generated by the plotting program when the potential is very low. These triangles are the same as those generated as the computational mesh.

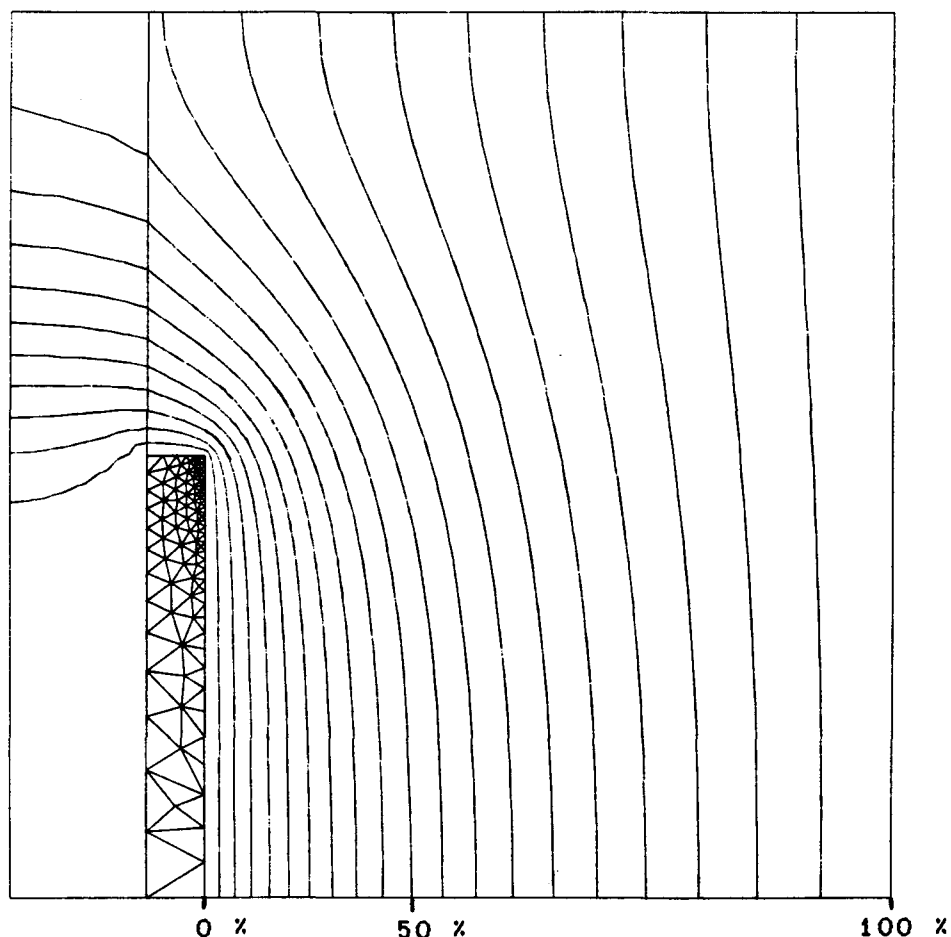


figure 4.3.1: Original spiral-end; equipotential lines at 5 % intervals.

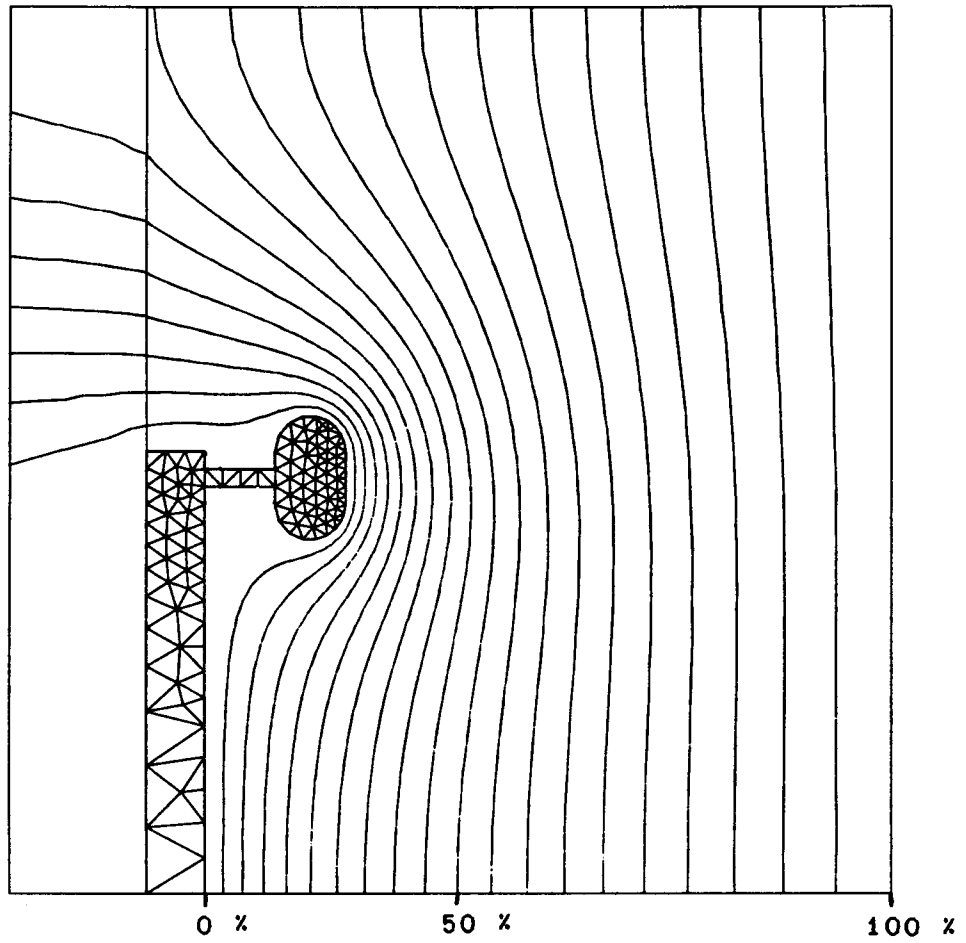


figure 4.3.2: Shielded spiral-end; equipotential lines at 5% intervals.

## 5. Material property measurements

The material property measurements were performed on the following materials:

1. HDPE (DGDS 3420); sheath material of PNEM-cable
2. Megolon Si; copolymer filled with  $Al(OH)_3$
3. 80%/20% mix of 2/1
4. 60%/40% mix of 2/1
5. LDPE (ALK 9211)
6. HDPE (Vest 5042)

### 5.1. Surface resistance

In this paragraph only the results of the surface resistance measurements are given. The complete report is given in appendix A.

| specimen | surface resistivity $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ ) |
|----------|---|
| 2        | $1.2 \cdot 10^9$                          |
| 5        | $1.7 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 3        | $2.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 4        | $5.1 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 1        | $1.9 \cdot 10^{11}$                       |
| 6        | $8.7 \cdot 10^{11}$                       |

table 5.1.1: Surface resistivities.

The results of the measurements on material nr. 2 are given in figure 5.1.1 as a function of the relative humidity.

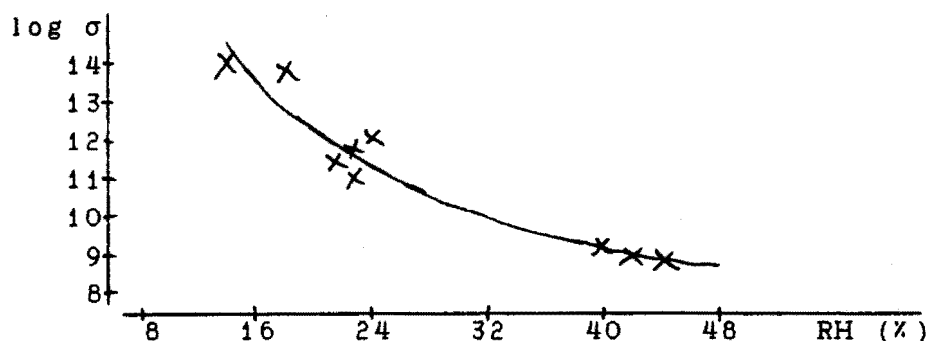


figure 5.1.1: Surface resistivity as a function of relative humidity.

Table 5.1.2 gives the the results of measurements performed elsewhere on UV aged samples. Resistivity was measured immediately after conditioning (>24 hours) at 100 % RH and 23 °C.

No information was given on the accuracy and the reproducibility of these measurements. Ageing usually results in a decrease of surface resistivity. The aged sample of material nr. 1 has a higher surface resistivity than the new one, this could not be explained.

| specimen | $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ , new) | $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ , aged) |
|----------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1        | $2.0 \cdot 10^{13}$        | $9.9 \cdot 10^{13}$         |
| 2        | $3.5 \cdot 10^{10}$        | $6.7 \cdot 10^6$            |

table 5.1.2: Resistivity of aged samples.

## 5.2. Tracking resistance

Tracking resistance was measured by KEMA on the materials 2 to 5. These tests were done in accordance with IEC publication 112 [1]. For all 5 materials the comparative tracking index (CTI) was determined in 3 tests using test solution B. This solution has a resistivity of 170  $\Omega$ cm and is more aggressive than the other solution, A (395  $\Omega$ cm). The CTI is defined as: the numerical value of the maximum voltage in volts at which a material withstands 50 drops without tracking. Failure is detected when a current of 0.5 A or more has persisted for 2 seconds. Tracking may occur during this test when voltage is applied between a defined electrode arrangement (figure 5.2.1) on the surface of a material and drops of electrolyte are applied between them at defined intervals of time (2 drops per minute). The number of drops needed to cause failure increases with the reduction of the applied voltage and, below a critical value, tracking ceases to occur. Figure 5.2.1 shows the measuring set up of IEC 112.

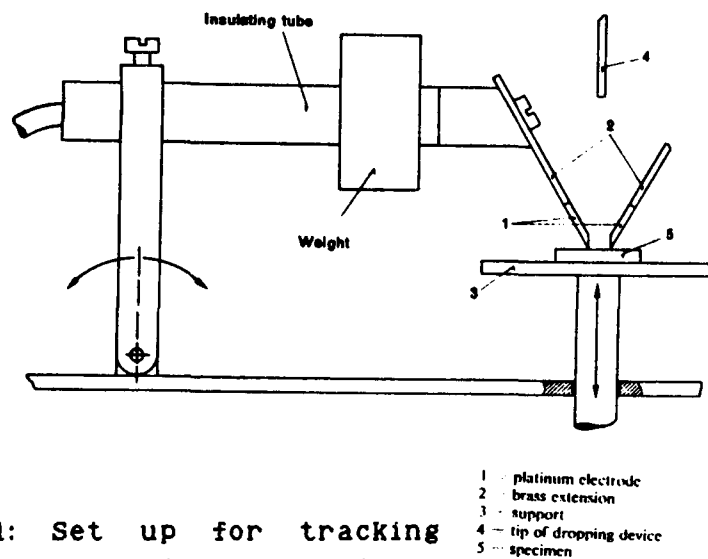
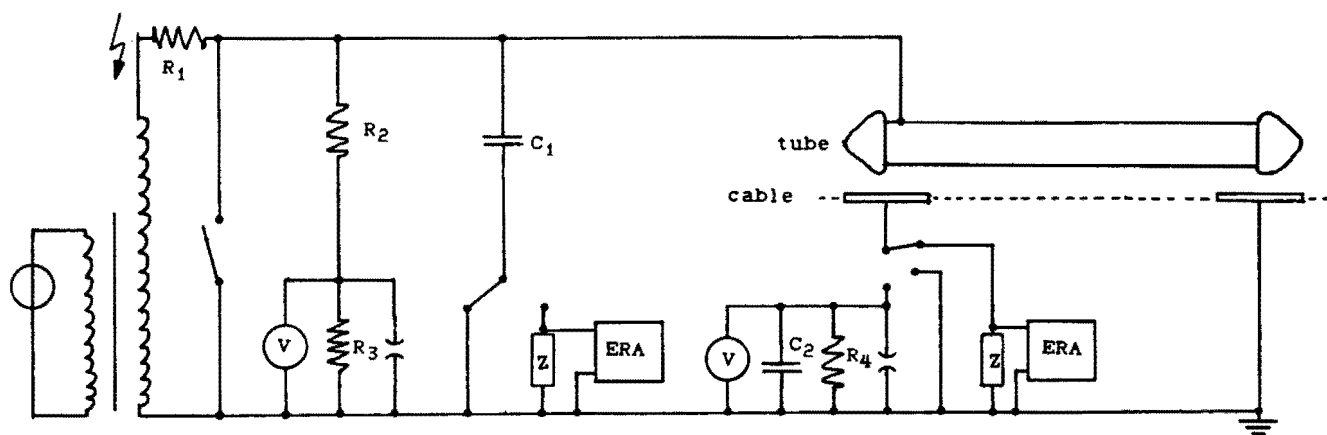


figure 5.2.1: Set up for tracking resistance tests.

All five materials withstood the test three times at 600 V,  
so they can be qualified with: CTI 600 M.

## 6. System property measurements

Building a laboratory setup with similar capacitance values as in paragraph 4.2.2 is not practicle because of the large distances required. It is possible, however, to built a setup in a laboratory with higher capacitances, that induces the same potential on the cable as in practical situations, using a lower source voltage. For this a brass tube of 8 cm diameter was used. The complete measuring set-up is displayed in figure 6.1 and 6.2. The lenght of the cable between the spirals (2L) is 2.17 m.



|                              |                            |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| $R_1 = 25 \text{ k}\Omega$   | $C_1 = 99 \text{ pF}$      |
| $R_2 = 1100 \text{ M}\Omega$ | $C_2 = 47 \text{ nF}$      |
| $R_3 = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$   | Z: ERA measuring impedance |
| $R_4 = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$   |                            |

figure 6. 1: Measuring circuit.

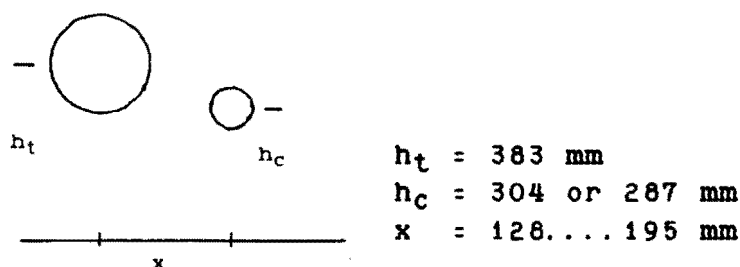


figure 6. 2: Cable arrangement.

For the detection and analysis of the discharges an ERA Model 3 discharge detector was used together with a multi channel analyser. The system without cable was found to be free of discharges until 50 kV. The sensitivity of the discharge measurement is determined by the presence of internal and external noise. High sensitivity (0.3 pC apparant



charge) is possible when the ERA is connected to the spiral. When the ERA is connected to  $C_1$ , however, the whole HV circuit acts as an antenna and therefore the sensitivity is limited to about 10 pC.

The capacitances of the system in figure 6.2 were calculated with the method given in paragraph 4.1.1. They are

$$\begin{aligned} c_{te} &= 15.2 \text{ pF/m (tube to earth)} \\ c_{tc} &= 6.9 \text{ pF/m (tube to cable)} \\ c_{ce} &= 8.0 \text{ pF/m (cable to earth)} \end{aligned}$$

when

$$\begin{aligned} h_t &= 382 \text{ mm} \\ h_c &= 304 \text{ mm} \\ x &= 162 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

The solution that is used for wetting the cable consists of 1 g  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  and 4 ml T-pol (wetting agent) in 1 l distilled water. The resistivity of this solution is  $400 \pm 30 \text{ } \Omega\text{cm}$ . This solution resembles the ones used in the IEC tracking tests (IEC 112 and IEC 587).

### 6.1. Current.

The current to one spiral was measured in order to compare it with the calculations of paragraph 4.2. The calculated current, related to the source voltage, as a function of the cable resistance is given in figure 6.1.1.

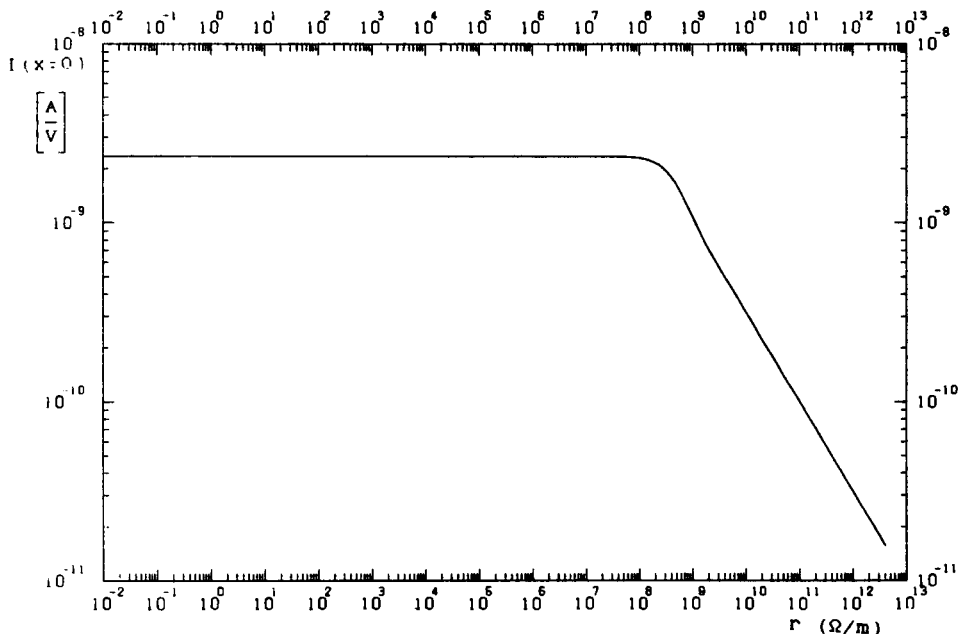


figure 6.1.1: Calculated current.

The measured current also contains a capacitive current from the source to the spiral. So this current should be measured and subtracted from the other measurements. For this the cable was grounded close to the spiral-end (at a distance of about 5 mm). The measured currents are:

correction current  $1.08 \cdot 10^{-9}$  A/V  
 dry cable  $1.26 \cdot 10^{-9}$  A/V  
 wetted cable  $3.2 \cdot 10^{-9}$  A/V

Thus the corrected values are:

dry cable  $1.8 \cdot 10^{-10}$  A/V  
 wetted cable  $2.1 \cdot 10^{-9}$  A/V

The current on the wetted cable is in accordance with figure 6.1.1 for  $r < 2 \cdot 10^8$   $\Omega/m$ . The current on the dry cable indicates that  $r \approx 3 \cdot 10^{10}$   $\Omega/m$ , which value is too low for a clean dry cable, see paragraph 5.1. An explanation for this can be found in the used model. At high values of  $r$  the longitudinal capacitance of the cable is probably more important than the resistance, whereas this capacitance is not included in the model. More experimental information may be derived from experiments at different frequencies.

## 6.2. Corona

The purpose of the corona measurements was to determine the corona onset voltage in different system configurations. From the corona onset voltages the maximum electric field strenght on the spiral can be calculated compared to the values given in paragraph 4.1.2. The different system configurations were obtained by changing  $h_c$  and  $x$  within the margins given in figure 6.2.

The current pulses resulting from the discharges were measured between the spiral and ground, see figure 6.1. In each measurement, before recognizable[2] corona discharges started, other discharges, with a similar magnitude, occurred. These could not be recognized. Corona discharge pulses are spread symmetrically around the positive voltage peaks. Table 6.2.1 gives the results of these measurements.

| $h_c$<br>mm | $x$<br>mm | $V_1$<br>kV | $E_1$<br>kV/cm | $V_2$<br>kV | $E_2$<br>kV/cm |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|
| 304         | 151       | 25.0        | 3.94           | 29.5        | 4.65           |
| 304         | 128       | 24.5        | 4.39           | 27.5        | 4.93           |
| 304         | 162       | 28.8        | 4.29           | 31.5        | 4.69           |
| 287         | 195       | 31.0        | 3.77           | 41.0        | 4.99           |
| 287         | 179       | 37.5        | 4.89           | 40.0        | 5.22           |
| 287         | 153       | 34.3        | 5.04           | 35.8        | 5.26           |

$V_1$ : discharge onset tube voltage

$E_1$ : maximum electric field strenght on spiral at  $V_1$

$V_2$ : corona onset tube voltage

$E_2$ : maximum electric field strenght on spiral at  $V_2$

table 6.2.1: Corona onset.

Knowing the discharge field strength to be about 30 kV/cm,

the field strength enhancement factor related to the values  $E_1$  of table 6.2.1 is about 7. Here the axial electric field strength is not taken into account, which is realistic for  $r$  values up to about  $10^{12} \Omega/m$ .

The field strength enhancement factor of the the spiral-end is not constant over the complete circumference. Also the condition of the surrounding air influences the onset voltage.

A typical discharge pattern of corona is shown in figure 6.2.1. The following values apply to this figure:

- time ( duration of measurement ) = 200 s
- tube voltage = 41 kV
- $h_c = 287$  mm
- $x = 195$  mm

The peak at the end of the scale ( $N = 6497$ ) contains all discharges larger than 185 pC.

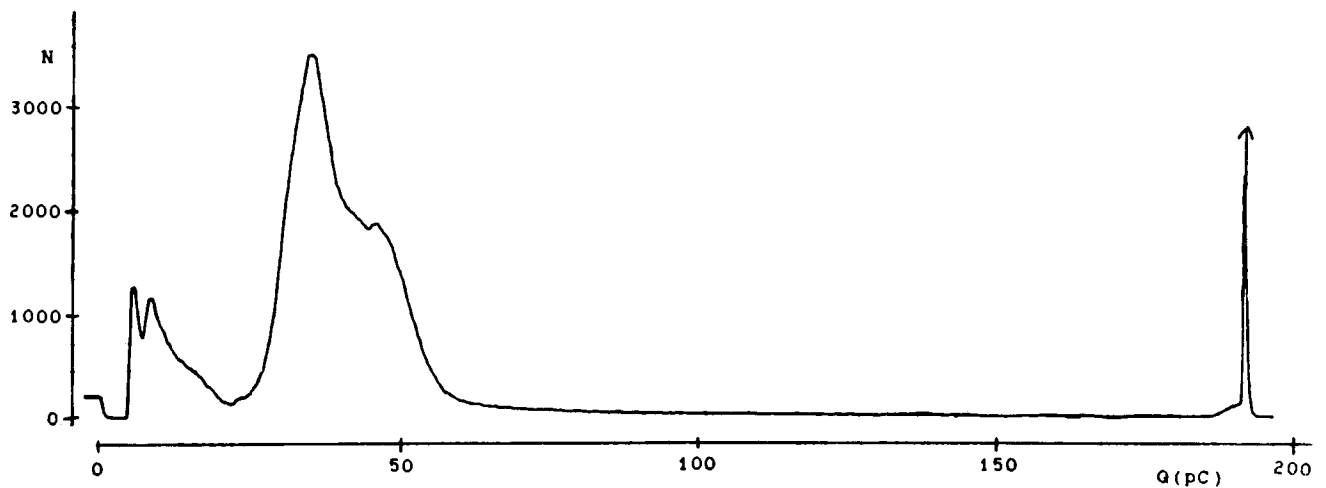


figure 6.2.1: Corona discharge pattern.

Shielding the spiral-ends would increase the corona onset voltage significantly; as can be seen in paragraph 4.3. Figure 6.2.2 shows the (copper) rings that were used for the shielding.

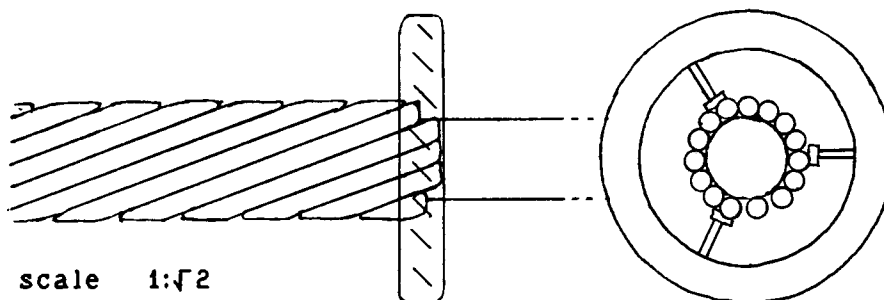


figure 6.2.2: Shielding ring.

After applying the rings it was not always possible to raise the voltage high enough for corona onset. The maximum vol-

tage was determined by the flashover probability between tube and spiral. In practice such a situation is not realistic because of the larger distances and smaller conductor sizes involved.

Occasionally corona pulses were observed, with shielding ring mounted. This resulted in a typical discharge pattern as in figure 6.2.3.

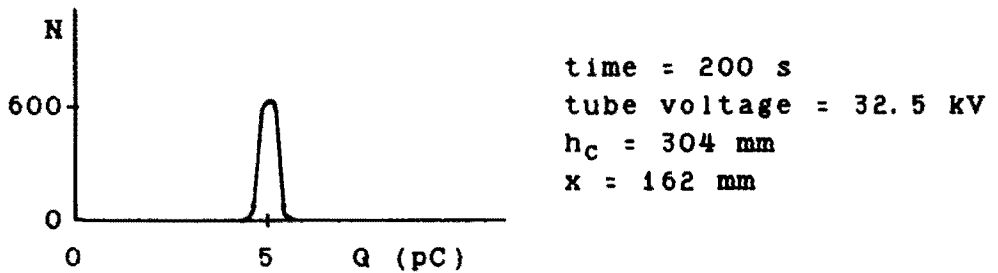


figure 6.2.3: Corona on ring.

Although the measured (or apparant) charge may be smaller than the actual charge involved, discharge magnitudes of a few pC are considered harmless.

### 6.3. Insulated suspension

Insulated suspension was achieved by disconnecting one spiral from ground. The other one was grounded and shielded. Discharges were measured at the low voltage side of capacitor C<sub>1</sub> (figure 6.1). Discharges started at 30 kV and were recognized[2] as discharges from a floating metal object. Figure 6.3.1 shows a discharge pattern for this situation with

time = 200 s  
tube voltage = 40 kV  
h<sub>C</sub> = 287 mm  
x = 153 mm

Because of the different kind of discharge measurement, the amplification of the ERA had to be increased. This resulted in more noise. Therefore a bigger part of the lower side of the scale is suppressed.

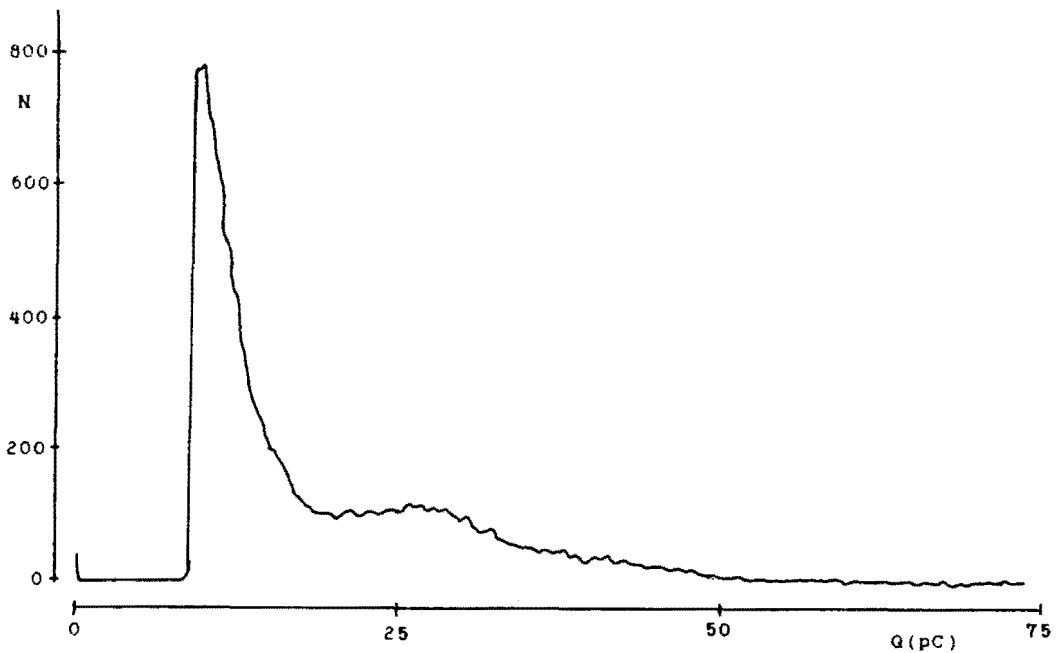


figure 6.3.1: Insulated suspension.

#### 6.4. Tracking

Tracking discharges can be measured after checking that all other discharges are excluded by the shielding of the spiral-ends. Because the solution that is applied on the cable evaporated quickly, tracking could be observed for periods of only one to three minutes. The tracking discharges produced more sound than the corona discharges. The current pulses resulting from the discharges were measured between the spiral and ground, see figure 6.1.

Figure 6.4.1 shows tracking discharge patterns for two voltages.

continuous line:  $V_{\text{tube}} = 41 \text{ kV}$

dashed line:  $V_{\text{tube}} = 23 \text{ kV}$

time = 1000 s

$h_c = 287 \text{ mm}$

$x = 195 \text{ mm}$

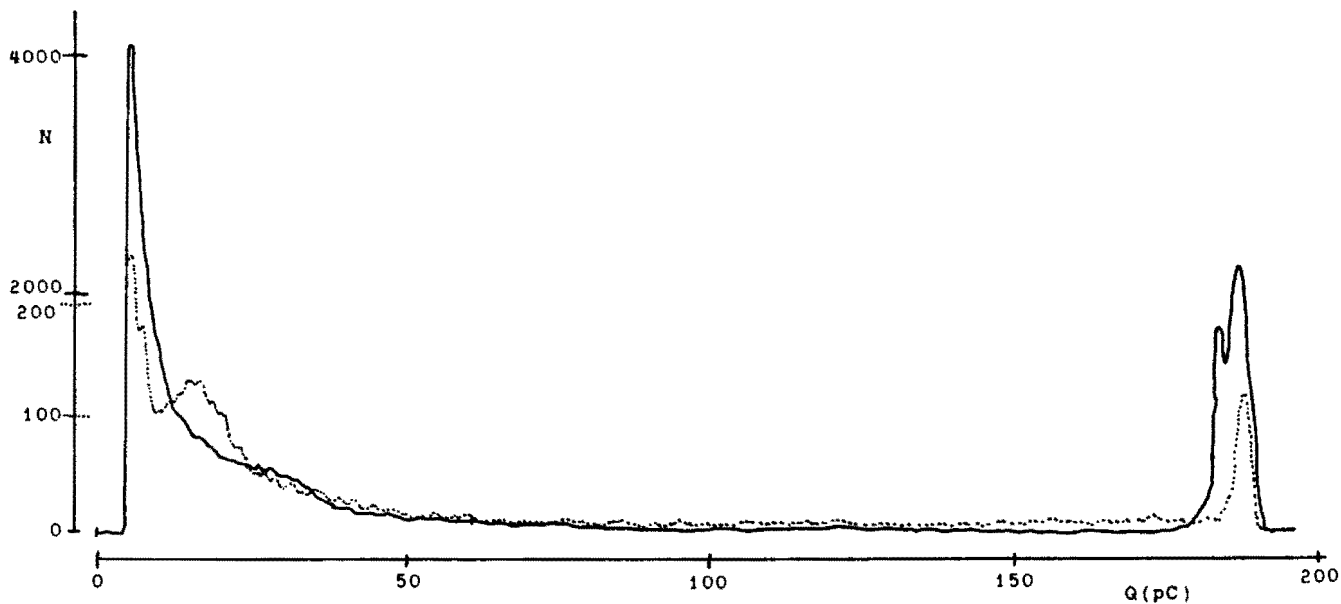


figure 6.4.1: Tracking discharge pattern.

In both plots, the peaks at the end of the scale contain all discharges that are larger than 185 pC. Discharges started 200 s after applying voltage. Small discharges followed the large ones. After 400 s the discharges extinguished.

## 7. Discussion

Three electrical phenomena contribute to the ageing of an optical fibre cable:

1. corona
2. arcing/tracking
3. high currents in wet aramide strength members

ad 1. Corona can occur on the end of the suspension spiral and on the cable. Corona at the cable's surface may occur when it is conducting, and contains protruding irregularities on the surface. Whether corona occurs depends on the electric field strength on the spiral. Corona can be prevented either by choosing a suspension position with low electric field strength, or by shielding the spiral-end. The maximum unperturbed electric field strength at the spiral that can be tolerated is about 3 kV/cm. At this field strength the field enhancement of the spiral-end will not cause discharges. Shielding the spiral-end can not prevent corona on the cable surface. From the corona measurements it is not clear where the discharges take place, at a spot close to the cable, or at the outer side of the spiral. The latter will have less influence on the cable.

ad 2. Arcs resulting in tracks can also occur when the potential of the cable is low. Material properties influence the process in two ways:

- material properties have an influence on the occurrence of tracking
- material properties influence the possible damage when tracking occurs

The contributing material properties for the tracking phenomenon are:

- electrical conductivity of cable
- tracking resistance of the sheath material

A reduction of the occurrence of tracking can be obtained by reducing the axial electric field strength on the cable. The most important method for this is the choice of a low potential suspension position. Other methods are: reducing the resistivity of the cable sheath, applying a more conducting layer underneath the cable sheath and insulated suspension.

Reducing the cable resistivity from  $10^9 \Omega/m$  to  $10^7 \Omega/m$  reduces the axial field strength with about a factor 10 (the maximum axial electric field strength is approximately proportional to  $\sqrt{r}$ ). Adding a large amount of carbon black to the sheath material will reduce the resistivity, but will also reduce the tracking resistance and some important mechanical properties. The aluminum hydroxide filled polymer

that was tested in paragraph 7.1 has a lower surface resistivity than HDPE. However, because the reduction is small and because this material's other properties are inferior, it is not considered as an alternative.

The second method, the addition of a layer with a higher conductivity underneath the cable sheath, can give rise to the problems already described in paragraph 4.2, i.e. a high radial electric field strength depending on the resistivity of the layer. When properly designed however these fields are harmless.

The axial field strength reduction obtained with insulated suspension is about a factor 10.

The damage caused by tracking can be decreased by choosing a more tracking resistant sheath material. The IEC 112 test method is not severe enough for the comparison of new sheath materials with the original, see paragraph 7.1. A better test method is the "inclined-plane tracking" test method (ASTM D2303, IEC 587).

ad 3. The maximum power dissipation in/on the cable at the tower,  $p(x=0)$ , is always smaller than 1 W/m, so no damage is expected. The sudden grounding of the wet (conducting) cable could result in higher current impulses. No calculations were made on this subject but it is expected that the impulses are damped by the capacitances involved.

Tracking discharges show a larger charge, but appear at a lower rate, than corona discharges. Therefore from the measurements it can not be concluded that tracking is more important for the deterioration of the cable than corona. However, in literature tracking is seen as the most important problem for metal free optical fibre cables. Comparing the tracking with the corona measurement results, it can be seen that in practical tracking situations (i.e. continuous wetting and drying) larger discharges are present than with corona. Because tracking produces irregularities on the cable surface, subsequent tracking will often take place on the same spots.

Possible electrical failure situations that can damage the cable are:

- cable touches phase wire
- impulse voltages (resulting from switching or lightning) on phase or ground wire
- lightning strike on cable

In situations where the cable has a high resistance the first gives the same results as given in figure 4.2.4/1 where  $V_p$  is now the phase voltage.

The impulse voltages have components of high frequency and therefore the parameter  $\gamma$  will be higher.



Resuming, proposals for modifications and further research are:

1. Installation of a part of an optical fibre cable with correctly dimensioned insulators (about 20 kV) in about 5 successive towers makes it possible to compare both types of installation after a few years of service.
2. Shielding rings should be mounted on the spiral-ends not only when the radial field strength can be high, because failure situations may result in a much higher field strength.
3. A more conductive jacket which has high tracking resistance offers many advantages, but is not yet available. More research is needed therefore.
4. Applying a conductive layer underneath the jacket separates the requirements for conductivity and tracking resistance, but can result in high radial electric field strength. An optimal value for the resistivity should be found.

## 8. Conclusions

The calculation of the potential distribution perpendicular to the optical fibre cable is possible using the line charge simulation method. These calculations can give information about the choice of a suspension position, radial electric field strength's and capacitances between wires, cable and ground.

The calculation of the potential distribution along the cable is only usefull for cable resistivities that are not too high. Measurements indicated that the model that is used is not accurate for high resistivities ( $10^{10}$   $\Omega/m$  or higher).

The measurement of high surface resistivities is difficult. The method used in this report was accurate enough for the comparison of the different materials.

In laboratory experiments it was possible to visualize and measure corona and tracking discharges separately.

Tracking was found to be the most serious electrical mechanism that can deteriorate the optical fibre cable. Corona can also cause damage to the cable surface, close to the end of the suspension spiral.

Tracking can be reduced by choosing a low potential suspension place, increasing the conductivity of the sheath, applying a conductive layer underneath the sheath and by insulated suspension. The choice of a tracking resistant sheath material reduces the damage caused by the arcs on the cable surface.

Corona at the spiral-ends can be prevented by choosing a suspension place where the radial electric field strength on the spiral is low, and by shielding the spiral-ends.

## 9. References

### Chapter 1.

1. Brüggendieck, S. et al.  
25 KM OPTICAL AERIAL CABLE LINK ON 110 KV OVERHEAD LINE.  
CIGRE, 1984, 35-09
2. Haag, H. G. and P. E. Zamzow  
LUFTKABEL MIT LICHTWELLENLEITERN.  
etz, Vol. 106(1985), No. 4, p. 154-160
3. OPTICAL FIBRE CABLE FOR AERIAL APPLICATION IN HIGH VOLTAGE NETWORKS.  
brochure, NKF Telecommunication Cable Systems, Waddinxveen, Holland, 1986.
4. IEEE, 83 WM 025-4  
FIBER OPTIC APPLICATIONS IN ELECTRICAL SUBSTATIONS.  
IEEE Microwave Radio Subcommittee & Research Subcommittee of the Power System Communication Committee

### Chapter 2.

1. ASTM D1711-79a  
STANDARD DEFINITIONS OF TERMS RELATING TO ELECTRICAL INSULATION.  
1980 Annual book of ASTM standards, part 39
2. Kuffel, E. and W. S. Zaengl  
HIGH VOLTAGE ENGINEERING.  
Oxford: Pergamon, 1984

### Chapter 3.

1. Brüggendieck, S. et al.  
25 KM OPTICAL AERIAL CABLE LINK ON 110 KV OVERHEAD LINE.  
CIGRE, 1984, 35-09
2. Chandler, R. L. J. et al.  
STRESS CORROSION FAILURE OF COMPOSITE LONG ROD INSULATORS.  
Fourth Int. Symp. HV Eng., Athens, 1983, 23.09
3. Cojan, M. et al.  
POLYMERIC TRANSMISSION INSULATORS: THEIR APPLICATION IN FRANCE, ITALY AND U. K.  
CIGRE, 1980, 22-10
4. El-Arabaty, A. et al.  
AGEING OF HV EPOXY RESIN INSULATORS UNDER SERVICE CONDITIONS AND ITS EFFECTS ON THEIR ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS.  
Third Int. Symp. HV Eng., Milan, 1979, 23.01
5. Cortina, R. et al.  
DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES TO EVALUATE THE PERFORMANCE OF POLYMERIC INSULATORS.

- Fourth Int. Symp. HV Eng., Athens, 1983, 22.12
6. Weihe, H. et al.  
FIELD EXPERIENCE AND TESTING OF NEW INSULATOR TYPES IN SOUTH AFRICA.  
CIGRE, 1980, 22-03
  7. SERVICE EXPERIENCE WITH THE GERMAN COMPOSITE LONG ROD INSULATOR WITH SILICONE-RUBBER SHEDS.  
CIGRE, 1980, 22-11
  8. El-Arabaty, A. et al.  
EFFECTS OF INSULATOR SHAPE DIMENSIONS AND MATERIAL ON ITS FLASHOVER CHARACTERISTICS.  
Fourth Int. Symp. HV Eng., Athens, 1983, 46.04
  9. Steinort, E.  
SURFACE DEFECTS OF FILLED EPOXY RESINS CAUSED BY IRRADIATION AND PARTIAL DISCHARGE STRESS.  
Third Int. Symp. HV Eng., Milan, 1979, 23.08
  10. Kärner, H. et al.  
TRACKING AND EROSION OF POLYMERIC INSULATING MATERIALS FOR OUTDOOR APPLICATION.  
Third Int. Symp. HV Eng., Milan, 1979, 23.09
  11. El-Arabaty, A. et al.  
MEASUREMENT OF TEMPERATURE OF HIGH-VOLTAGE POLLUTED INSULATORS USING INFRA-RED TECHNIQUES.  
Third Int. Symp. HV Eng., Milan, 1979, 54.02
  12. Kind, D. and H. Kärner  
HOCHSPANNUNGS-ISOLIERTECHNIK.  
Braunschweig/Wiesbaden: Vieweg, 1982.
  13. Müller, B.  
BEHAVIOUR OF ORGANIC INDOOR INSULATION UNDER ELECTRICAL AND CLIMATIC STRESSES.  
Fourth Int. Symp. HV Eng., Athens, 1983, 46.06
  14. OPTICAL FIBRE CABLE FOR AERIAL APPLICATION IN HIGH VOLTAGE NETWORKS.  
brochure, NKF Telecommunication Cable Systems, Waddinxveen, Holland, 1986.
  15. Blahma, J. et al.  
LICHTWELLENLEITER-EINSATZ IN DER ENERGIEVERSORGUNG.  
etz, Vol. 106(1985), No. 4, p. 174-177
  16. private communication at NKF.
  17. Haag, H.G. and P.E. Zamzow  
LUFTKABEL MIT LICHTWELLENLEITERN.  
etz, Vol. 106(1985), No. 4, p. 154-160
  18. Mark, H.F. (editor)  
ENCYCLOPEDIA OF POLYMER SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
Vol. 6, p. 275 - 313  
Interscience Publishers, New York, 1967
  19. ASTM D495-73  
HIGH-VOLTAGE, LOW-CURRENT, DRY ARC RESISTANCE OF SOLID ELECTRICAL INSULATION.

- 1980 Annual book of ASTM standards, part 39
20. Parr, D. J. and R. M. Scarisbrick  
PERFORMANCE OF SYNTHETIC INSULATING MATERIALS UNDER POLLUTED CONDITIONS.  
Proc. IEE, Vol. 112(1965), No. 8, p. 1625 - 1632
  21. IEC Publication 112, Third edition, 1979  
METHOD FOR DETERMINING THE COMPARATIVE AND THE PROOF TRACKING INDICES OF SOLID INSULATING MATERIALS UNDER MOIST CONDITIONS.
  22. ASTM D2132-68(1979)  
DUST-AND-FOG TRACKING AND EROSION RESISTANCE OF ELECTRICAL INSULATING MATERIALS.  
1980 Annual book of ASTM standards, Part 39
  23. Clabburn R. J. T. et al.  
THE OUTDOOR PERFORMANCE OF PLASTIC MATERIALS USED AS CABLE ACCESSORIES.  
IEEE Trans. on PAS, Vol. PAS-92(1973), p. 1833 - 1842
  24. ASTM D2303-73(1979)  
LIQUID-CONTAMINANT, INCLINED-PLANE TRACKING AND EROSION OF INSULATING MATERIALS. (equivalent to IEC 587)  
1980 Annual book of ASTM standards, Part 39
  25. McNicoll, Y. et al.  
CONTACT ANGLE MEASUREMENTS IN POLYETHYLENE AND HIGH-VOLTAGE EXTRUDED CABLES.  
IEEE Conf. Rec. of 1983 Interfacial phenomena in practical insulating systems, Gaithersburg, Sept. 19-20, 1983, p. D1
  26. Field, R. F.  
THE FORMATION OF IONISED WATER FILMS ON DIELECTRICS UNDER CONDITIONS OF HIGH HUMIDITY.  
Journal of Applied Physics, Vol. 17(1946), p. 318-325
  27. Licari, J. J.  
PLASTIC COATINGS FOR ELECTRONICS  
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970
  28. Nagofis, I. M.  
PLASTICS INSULATING MATERIALS  
Princeton: P. Van Nostrand, 1966
  29. Gross, S. (editor)  
MODERN PLASTIC ENCYCLOPEDIA  
New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971
  30. Gilroy, H. M.  
POLYOFIN LONGITIVITY FOR TELEPHONE SERVICE.  
ANTEC 1985, p. 258 - 260
  31. Stimper, K. and W. H. Middendorf  
MECHANISMS OF DETERIORATION OF ELECTRICAL INSULATION SURFACES.  
IEEE Trans. on El. Ins., Vol. EI-19(1984), No. 4, p. 314 - 320
  32. IEC Publication 93, second edition, 1980

METHODS OF TEST FOR VOLUME RESISTIVITY AND SURFACE RESISTIVITY OF SOLID ELECTRICAL INSULATING MATERIALS.

33. IEC Publication 587, second edition, 1984  
TEST METHODS FOR EVALUATING RESISTANCE TO TRACKING AND EROSION OF ELECTRICAL INSULATING MATERIALS USED UNDER SEVERE AMBIENT CONDITIONS.
34. Lewis, J. et al.  
PRE-BREAKDOWN AND BREAKDOWN PHENOMENA ALONG PMMA SURFACES IN VACUUM AND NITROGEN GAS STRESSED BY 60 HZ VOLTAGES.  
IEEE Trans. on El. Ins., Vol. EI-19(1984), No. 6
35. Kuffel, E. and W. S. Zaengl  
HIGH VOLTAGE ENGINEERING.  
Oxford: Pergamon, 1984
36. Barlett, et al.  
THE DEVELOPMENT OF OPTICAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM ELECTRICITY SUPPLY INDUSTRY.  
9th Int. Conf. on Electricity Distribution: CIRED 1987, Liège, Belgium, d. 12.1
37. FIBER OPTIC AERIAL CABLES IN HIGH-VOLTAGE-LINES.  
Siemens report, NK 8506 E LWL 1

Chapter 4.

1. Zaffanella, L. E. and D. W. Deno  
ELECTROSTATIC AND ELECTROMAGNETIC EFFECTS OF ULTRA HIGH VOLTAGE TRANSMISSION LINES.  
EPRI EL-802, Project 566, Final Report, June 1978  
Palo Alto, Ca.: Electric Power Research Institute
2. Hochrainer, A.  
SYMMETRISCHE KOMPONENTEN IN DREHSTROMSYSTEMEN.  
Berlin: Springer, 1957
4. Flosdorff, R. and G. Hilgarth  
ELEKTRISCHE ENERGIEVERTEILUNG.  
Stuttgart: B. G. Teubner, 1973
5. Koelman, J. M. V. A.  
FINITE ELEMENTS IN ELECTRIC FIELD PROBLEMS.  
Group EHO, Dept. of Electrical Engineering, Eindhoven University of Technology, 1983  
stageverslag EH. 83. S. 181
6. Kuepfmueller, K.  
EINFUEHRUNG IN DIE THEORETISCHE ELEKTROTECHNIK.  
Berlin: Springer, 1984
7. Kuffel, E. and W. S. Zaengl  
HIGH VOLTAGE ENGINEERING.  
Oxford: Pergamon, 1984

Chapter 6.

1. IEC Publication 112, Third edition, 1979  
METHOD FOR DETERMINING THE COMPARATIVE AND THE PROOF

TRACKING INDICES OF SOLID INSULATING MATERIALS UNDER  
MOIST CONDITIONS.

2. RECOGNITION OF DISCHARGES.

CIGRE, Electra No. 11, 1969, Working Group 21.03

## Appendix A: Surface resistance measurements

### 1. Introduction

From model and literature study it was found that surface resistance is an important material property[A1]. For this reason the surface resistance of 6 different materials has been measured. These materials are:

1. HDPE (DGDS 3420); sheath material of PNEM-cable
2. Megolon S1; copolymer filled with  $Al(OH)_3$ , expected to have a lower surface resistance than PE
3. 80%/20% mix of 2/1
4. 60%/40% mix of 2/1
5. LDPE (ALK 9211)
6. HDPE (Vest 5042)

At NKF some measurements were done on aged samples of the specimens 1 and 2.

The measurements were performed with help of IEC standard 93[A2].

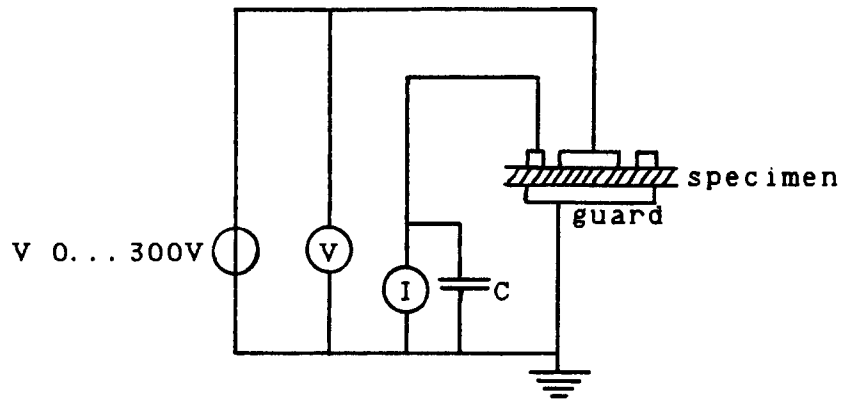
Surface resistance cannot be measured accurately, only approximately, because more or less volume conductance is nearly always involved in the measurement. The measured value depends to a large extent on the contamination of the surface of the specimen at the time of measurement. However, the dielectric constant (e.g. polarisation) of the specimen influences the deposition of contaminants, and their conductive capabilities are effected by the surface characteristics of the specimen. Thus the surface resistivity is not a bulk material property, but can be considered to be related to material properties when contamination is involved.

Surface resistance, especially when high, often changes in an erratic manner, and in general depends strongly on the time that the voltage is applied to the specimen; this time is called electrification time.

### 2. Measuring method

Resistance was measured by measuring simultaneously the direct voltage applied to the unknown resistance and the current through it (voltmeter-ammeter method). The measuring circuit is shown in figure 1.

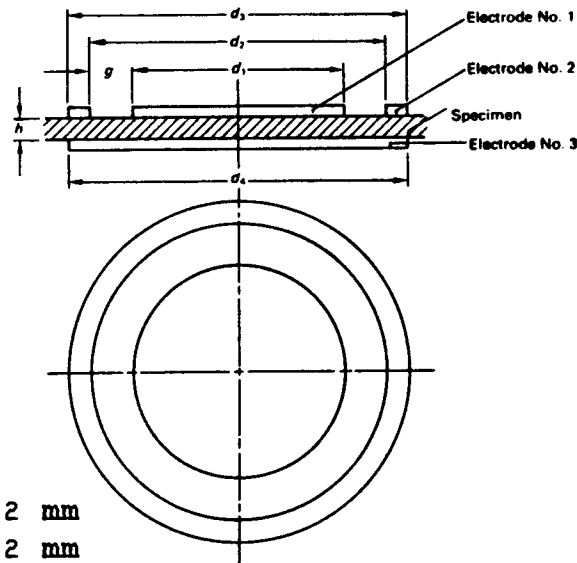




apparatus:

- DC source: EH911 PS53
- Voltmeter: Keithley 177 microvolt DMM
- Ammeter: Keithley 610C solid state electrometer
- Dewpoint: Endress + Hauser, hydrolog WMY 170
- Temperature: mercury thermometer
- wires: extra teflon insulated
- C: 1...100 nF

figure 1: Measuring circuit.



with  $d_1 = 50 \pm 0.2$  mm  
 $d_2 = 60 \pm 0.2$  mm  
 $d_3 = 70 \pm 3$  mm  
 $d_4 = 70 \pm 3$  mm

All specimen were  $3 \pm 0.3$  mm thick

figure 2: Electrodes.

Before attaching the electrodes the specimen were cleaned with dry, dustfree, cleaning tissue paper and not touched anymore.

The electrodes were attached by sticking a plastic mould on

the specimen and painting silver paint on it. When the paint was dry, the mould was pulled off, leaving no traces behind. This method of electrode attaching gave very accurate electrode sizes for all specimen, see figure 2. During the measurement the specimen was placed on a clean teflon structure, see figure 3.

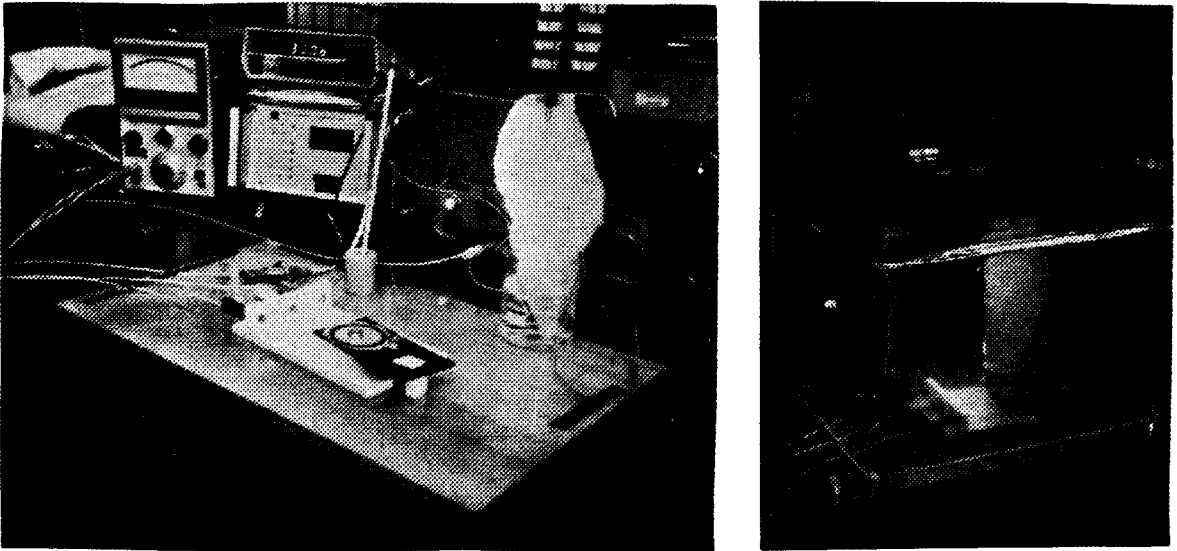


figure 3: Measurement set-up.

The capacitance applied to the input receptical of the ammeter damped out several kinds of low frequency oscillations, most of them resulted from moving things in the neighbourhood of the wires. A changing capacitance is created then, giving rise to a displacement current,  $d(CV)/dt$ .

Simultaneously with current and voltage the characteristics of the surrounding air were measured, i.e. temperature and dew point. Normal and moistened climate was used. The moist climate was created by placing a glass cap over the specimen and a container with water. In the water some filtrating paper accelerated the evaporation. Because of changes in the outside temperature and humidity, relative air humidities (RH) were measured from 14% to 47%.

The measurements at NKF were done with a "megohm" meter with electrodes of slightly different sizes. The samples were aged by intense UV light comparable with 6.5 years of middle European sunlight.

### 3. Results

The surface resistivity is calculated with the following formula:

$$\sigma = R_x \frac{\pi(d_1+g)}{g} \tag{3.1}$$

where:

$\sigma$  is the surface resistivity (not to be interpreted as conductivity) in ohms, or  $\Omega\text{m/m}$

$R_x$  is the measured (surface) resistance

$\pi(d_1+g)$  is the effective perimeter in metres of the guarded electrode

$g$  is the distance in metres between the electrodes

The results of the complete set of measurements are given in table 5. In that table the parameter  $\theta$  gives an indication about the relation resistivity/voltage. The parameter is defined as:

$$\theta = \frac{R_{75\text{ V}}}{R_{300\text{ V}}} \tag{3.2}$$

The logarithmic mean values at RH = 43 $\pm$ 2 % are given in table 2. Only resistivities measured at long enough electrification times are used for this table. The electrification times until steady state current are given in table 1.

| specimen | time (min.) for steady state ( $\pm$ %) current |
|----------|---|
| 1        | --  |
| 2        | 30  |
| 3        | 40  |
| 4        | 100   |
| 5        | 100   |
| 6        | 180   |

table 1: Electrification times until steady state current.

| specimen | surface resistivity $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ ) |
|----------|---|
| 2        | $1.2 \cdot 10^9$                          |
| 5        | $1.7 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 3        | $2.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 4        | $5.1 \cdot 10^{10}$                       |
| 1        | $1.9 \cdot 10^{11}$                       |
| 6        | $8.7 \cdot 10^{11}$                       |

table 2: Surface resistivities.

The results of the measurements on specimen nr. 2 are given in figure 4 as a function of the relative humidity.

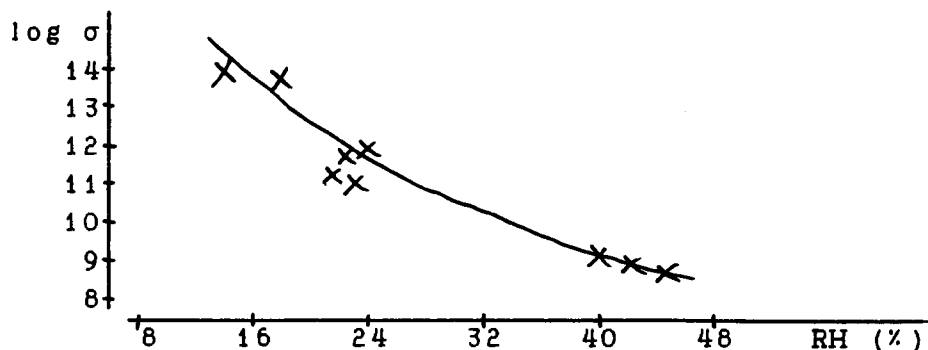


figure 4: Surface resistivity as a function of relative humidity.

The measurements done at NKF are reported in table 5. Resistivity was measured immediately after conditioning (>24 hours) at 100 % RH and 23 °C.

No information was given on the accuracy and the reproducibility of these measurements. Ageing usually results in a decrease of surface resistivity. The aged sample of material nr. 1 has a higher surface resistivity than the new one, this could not be explained.

| specimen | $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ , new) | $\sigma$ ( $\Omega$ , aged) |
|----------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1        | $2.0 \cdot 10^{13}$        | $9.9 \cdot 10^{13}$         |
| 2        | $3.5 \cdot 10^{10}$        | $6.7 \cdot 10^6$            |

table 5: NKF measurements.

#### 4. Reproducibility and accuracy

The error sources are:

1. error in voltage
2. error in current
3. error in dew point
4. error in temperature
5. error in electrode sizes
6. contact potential
7. contact resistance
8. leakage current
9. time of electrification

ad 1. The maximum relative error in the voltage measurement is 1 %.

ad 2. The maximum relative error in the current measurement is 2 %.

ad 3. The maximum absolute error in the dew point is 1

degree.

ad 4. The error of the thermometer is not known; it could be read with an accuracy of 0.2 degree.

ad 5. The width of all moulds was measured on 6 places spread over the circumference. In table 1 the results for each specimen are given.

| specimen | $g = \langle d_1 - d_2 \rangle$ (mm) | $\mu$ (mm) |             |
|----------|--------------------------------------|------------|-------------|
| 1 S      | 5.43                                 | 0.07       |             |
| 2 A      | 5.27                                 | 0.10       |             |
| 2 S      | 5.38                                 | 0.12       |             |
| 3 S      | 5.37                                 | 0.11       | A = aquadag |
| 4 S      | 5.49                                 | 0.09       | S = silver  |
| 5 S      | 5.46                                 | 0.13       | paint       |
| 6 S      | 5.39                                 | 0.09       |             |

table 3: Mould sizes.

ad 6. To check the contact potential, current was measured with different ammeter-settings resulting in different voltages across the ammeter. An eventually present contact potential was found to be smaller than 0.01 V and therefore could not influence the measurement.

this way.

ad 7. It is very difficult to check the measurement for contact resistance. Norman[A3] states that contact resistance varies with the resistivity of the sample, the type of contact, the applied voltage and the mechanical pressure. The influence of the type of contact could be checked by attaching also an aquadag (graphite) electrode on the specimen 1 and 2. The measurements with the aquadag electrodes did not differ from the measurements with silver paint electrodes.

ad 8. Leakage current was minimized by using extra insulated wires and a guarding electrode on the specimen, see figure 2. The effect of leakage current was checked by measuring the resistance of the complete circuit without specimen. This resistance was higher than  $10^{14} \Omega$ . The highest measured resistance was  $9 \cdot 10^{12} \Omega$ .

ad 9. The influence of the electrification time was examined by recording the current at constant voltage as a function of time. In that way the time for a steady state value of the current could be determined.

From the above described error sources no over-all accuracy of the measurements can be concluded. IEC standard 93[A2] prescribes an accuracy of the measuring device of 10 % for resistances below  $10^{12} \Omega$ , and 20 % for higher values. The accuracy of the measuring device can be determined from

the points 1, 2, 5, and 8 with help of equation 3.1.

| $R_x(\Omega)$       | rel. error |
|---------------------|------------|
| $10^{12} - 10^{13}$ | 15 %       |
| $10^{11} - 10^{12}$ | 7 %        |
| $< 10^{11}$         | 6 %        |

table 4: Measuring device error.

Because of the variability (spread) of the resistance of a given specimen with test conditions determinations are[A2] usually not reproducible to closer than  $\pm 10$  % and are often even more widely divergent (a range of values of 10 to 1 may be obtained under apparently identical conditions).

The reader can get an idea of the reproducibility of the measurements on one specimen by looking at the complete set in appendix 1.

With help of point 3 and 4 the error in the relative humidity can be determined. This leads to a relative error of 8 %.

#### 5. References

- A1. FIBER OPTIC AERIAL CABLES IN HIGH-VOLTAGE-LINES.  
Siemens Report, NK 8506 E LWL 1
- A2. IEC Publication 93, second edition, 1980  
METHODS OF TEST FOR VOLUME RESISTIVITY AND SURFACE RESISTIVITY OF SOLID ELECTRICAL INSULATING MATERIALS.
- A3. Norman, R. H.  
CONDUCTIVE RUBBERS AND PLASTICS.  
London: Applied Science Publishers, 1970

| Specimen | Meas. Nr. | $\sigma(300 \text{ V})$<br>$\Omega$ | temp.<br>$^{\circ}\text{C}$ | D. P.<br>$^{\circ}\text{C}$ | RH<br>%      | $\theta$ |
|----------|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|----------|
| 1        | 14        | $1.1 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 23.5                        | 10                          | 43           | 1.47 *   |
| 1        | 15        | $1.0 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 21.5                        | 8                           | 42           | 5.00     |
| 1        | 16        | $4.5 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 22.5                        | 9                           | 43           | 3.84 *   |
| 1        | 17        | $4.3 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 22.6                        | 9                           | 43           | 3.63 *   |
| 1        | 20        | $4.6 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 23.2                        | 9                           | 40           | 4.29     |
| 1        | 21        | $1.3 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 20.5                        | 7/8                         | 43           | 5.35 *   |
| 1        | 22        | $1.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 21.2                        | 9                           | 46           | 1.45 **  |
| 1        | 54        | $1.0 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 21.0                        | 8                           | 44           | 2.39 *   |
| 1        | 55        | $1.7 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 22.1                        | 10                          | 47           | 4.17     |
| 2        | 1         | $2.1 \cdot 10^{09}$                 | 23.8                        | 9                           | 39           | 1.06     |
| 2        | 3         | $1.5 \cdot 10^{09}$                 | 22.2                        | 8                           | 40           | 1.03     |
| 2        | 8         | $8.4 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 24.0                        | 1                           | 22           | 1.60     |
| 2        | 9         | $3.9 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 21.1                        | -2                          | 22           | 1.45     |
| 2        | 24        | $6.1 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 22.1                        | 0/1                         | 24           | 1.74     |
| 2        | 25        | $1.5 \cdot 10^{09}$                 | 18.9                        | 6                           | 41           | 1.16     |
| 2        | 26        | $1.2 \cdot 10^{09}$                 | 20.4                        | 7                           | 42           | 1.06 *   |
| 2        | 27        | $1.2 \cdot 10^{09}$                 | 20.9                        | 8                           | 43           | 1.06 *   |
| 2        | 28        | $7.8 \cdot 10^{08}$                 | 21.8                        | 9                           | 44           | 1.10 **  |
| 2        | 29        | $7.1 \cdot 10^{08}$                 | 22.0                        | 9                           | 44           | 1.09 **  |
| 2        | 52        | $4.3 \cdot 10^{13}$                 | 20.2                        | -5                          | 18           | ----     |
| 2        | 53        | $9.3 \cdot 10^{13}$                 |                             |                             | $\approx 14$ | ----     |
| 2A       | 5         | $8.6 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 23.9                        | 1                           | 22           | 1.60     |
| 2A       | 12        | $3.4 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 21.5                        | -2                          | 21           | 1.39     |
| 3        | 41        | $5.5 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.0                        | 7                           | 43           | 1.10 *   |
| 3        | 42        | $4.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.1                        | 7                           | 43           | 1.10 *   |
| 3        | 43        | $2.2 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 19.5                        | 7                           | 44           | 1.10 *   |
| 3        | 44        | $1.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.1                        | 7                           | 43           | 0.92 *   |
| 3        | 42A       | $1.7 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.5                        | 7                           | 42           | 0.99     |
| 3        | 45        | $2.0 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 21.0                        | 8                           | 43           | 0.95 *   |
| 3        | 46        | $1.4 \cdot 10^{13}$                 | 20.5                        | -3/-2                       | 22           | ----     |
| 3        | 56        | $2.3 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 22.8                        | 10                          | 44           | 0.91 *   |
| 4        | 47        | $2.8 \cdot 10^{14}$                 | 20.6                        | -3                          | 21           | ----     |
| 4        | 48        | $5.1 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.4                        | 8                           | 45           | 1.09 *   |
| 4        | 49        | $5.6 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.1                        | 8                           | 46           | 1.06     |
| 5        | 31        | $1.2 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 20.2                        | 8                           | 46           | 2.27 **  |
| 5        | 34        | $1.7 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 21.5                        | 9                           | 45           | 1.65 *   |
| 5        | 36        | $1.8 \cdot 10^{10}$                 | 21.5                        | 9                           | 45           | 1.67 *   |
| 5        | 37        | $4.6 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 20.2                        | 6                           | 39           | 2.36     |
| 5        | 38        | $3.9 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 20.0                        | 7                           | 43           | 1.52 **  |
| 5        | 39        | $1.3 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 18.6                        | 6                           | 44           | 2.50     |
| 5        | 40        | $1.9 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 18.9                        | 6                           | 43           | 2.06     |
| 6        | 50        | $8.7 \cdot 10^{11}$                 | 21.1                        | 8/9                         | 45           | 2.60 *   |
| 6        | 51        | $1.3 \cdot 10^{12}$                 | 20.0                        | 8                           | 46           | 1.69     |

\* measurement used for table 2.

\*\* condensed water on surface.

table 5: Complete set of measurements.

## Appendix B

POTCALC/13I

DATE &amp; TIME PRINTED: THURSDAY, APRIL 16, 1987 @ 13:43:24.

```

100   BEGIN
200   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/DECLARATION ON APPL"
300   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/NEWOBJECT ON APPL"
400   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/CONTOUR1 ON APPL"
500   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/POLYGON ON APPL"
600   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/STRAIGHTLINEPIECE ON APPL"
700   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/MAPANDDRAWOBJECT1 ON APPL"
800   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/CLEAROBJECT ON APPL"
900   $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/AXISCOMPLETE ON APPL"
1000  $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/COMMENTTEXT ON APPL"
1100  $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/COMMENTNNUMBER ON APPL"
1200  $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/DRAWOBJECT ON APPL"
1300  $ INCLUDE "PLOTTER/ALGOL/DISPOSEOBJECT ON APPL"
1400  $ INCLUDE "NUMLIB/ALGOL/DECLARATION ON APPL"
1500  $ INCLUDE "NUMLIB/ALGOL/DEC ON APPL"
1600  $ INCLUDE "NUMLIB/ALGOL/DECINV ON APPL"
1700  $ INCLUDE "NUMLIB/ALGOL/AMAALV ON APPL"
1800  FILE IN(KIND=REMOTE), OUT(KIND=REMOTE);
1900  % THIS VERSION OF THE POTCALC PROGRAM IS MADE FOR INTERACTIVE USE
2000  % THE FILES THAT ARE USED ARE: IN(REMOTE), OUT(REMOTE),
2100  % PR(PRINTER), PLOT(PREVIEWER)
2200
2300  %-----***** START INPUT
2400
2500  INTEGER N;
2600  WRITE(OUT,<"NUMBER OF WIRES (HV-LINES + GROUND WIRES)">);
2700  READ(IN,/,N);
2800
2900  BEGIN
3000  REAL ARRAY L[1:N,1:3], VLR,VLI,QR,QI[1:N], P[1:N,1:N];
3100  REAL F1,F2,EPS, VM;
3200  INTEGER I,J,Q;
3300  STRING PHASE;
3400  WRITE(OUT,<"CHOOSE: PHASE (R,S,T,O) INPUT = 1, VOLTAGE",
3500  " (COMPLEX) INPUT = 2">);
3600  READ(IN,/,Q);
3700  IF Q=1 THEN
3800  BEGIN
3900  REAL PHV;
4000  WRITE(OUT,<"GIVE PHASE VOLTAGE (KV)">);
4100  READ(IN,/,PHV);
4200  WRITE(OUT,<"SPECIFY EACH WIRE: DIAM.(M), X(M), Y(M), PHASE",
4300  "(R,S,T,O)">);
4400  FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
4500  BEGIN
4600  READ(IN,/,L[I,1],L[I,2],L[I,3],PHASE);
4700  IF PHASE="R" THEN BEGIN VLR[I]:=-PHV; VLI[I]:=0; END;
4800  IF PHASE="S" THEN BEGIN VLR[I]:=-1*PHV/2;
4900  VLI[I]:=-1*PHV*SQRT(3)/2; END;
5000  IF PHASE="T" THEN BEGIN VLR[I]:=-1*PHV/2;
5100  VLI[I]:=-PHV*SQRT(3)/2; END;
5200  IF PHASE="O" THEN VLI[I]:=-VLR[I]:=0;
5300  END;
5400  END;
5500  IF Q=2 THEN
5600  BEGIN
5700  WRITE(OUT,<"SPECIFY EACH WIRE: DIAM.(M), X(M), Y(M),"
5800  " VR(KV), VI(KV)">);

```



```

5900         FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO READ(IN,/,L[I,1],L[I,2],L[I,3],
6000                                         VLR[I],VLI[I]);
6100     END;
6200
6300 %-----***** END INPUT / START CALCULATIONS
6400
6500     EPS:=1000*8.8543@-12;           % BECAUSE: V(KV) AND Q(C)
6600     F1:=1/(4*EPS*ARCSIN(1));
6700     F2:=F1/2;
6800     FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
6900         BEGIN
7000             FOR J:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
7100                 IF I=J THEN P[I,I]:=F1*LN(4*L[I,3]/L[I,1])
7200                 ELSE
7300                     P[I,J]:=-F2*LN(((L[I,2]-L[J,2])**2+(L[I,3]-L[J,3])**2)/
7400                                     ((L[I,2]-L[J,2])**2+(L[I,3]+L[J,3])**2));
7500             END;
7600
7700     BEGIN
7800     % DETERMINING THE LINE-CHARGES
7900     %
8000     INTEGER ARRAY PP[1:N]; REAL CA; BOOLEAN SINGULAR;
8100     DEC(1,N,P,PP,SINGULAR,CA);
8200     IF SINGULAR THEN WRITE(OUT,<"SINGULAR=TRUE">);
8300     WRITE(OUT,<"CA=" ,E8.1>,CA);
8400     DECINV(1,N,P,PP);
8500     AMAALV(1,N,P,VLR,QR);
8600     AMAALV(1,N,P,VLI,QI);
8700     END;
8800
8900     BEGIN
9000     % DETERMINING THE MAXIMUM VOLTAGE VM
9100     %
9200     REAL V1;
9300     I:=1; VM:=0;
9400     WHILE I<=N DO
9500         BEGIN
9600             V1:=SQRT(VLR[I]**2+VLI[I]**2);
9700             IF V1>VM THEN VM:=V1;
9800             I:=I+1;
9900         END;
10000    END;
10100    WRITE(OUT,<"QR[1:N] AND QI[1:N] ARE KNOWN NOW">);
10200
10300 %-----***** END CALCULATIONS / START OUTPUT
10400
10500     BEGIN
10600     % OUTPUT PROGRAMM:
10700     %   OUTPUT 1: COMPLEX VOLTAGE IN ANY POINT X,Y IS GIVEN
10800     %             ON THE TERMINAL
10900     %   OUTPUT 2: COMPLETE SET OF CAPACITANCES, LINE-GROUND
11000     %             AND LINE-LINE, IS GIVEN ON PAPER
11100     %   OUTPUT 3: FIELD STRENGHT CALCULATION IN POINT X,Y
11200     %   OUTPUT 4: AN ARRAY IS FILLED WITH VOLTAGES IN AREA
11300     %             -XMAX:XMAX,0:YMAX AND PRINTED
11400     %   OUTPUT 5: EQUIPOTENTIAL LINES ARE DRAWN IN AREA
11500     %             -XMAX:XMAX,0:YMAX BY ELECTROSTATIC PLOTTER
11600     %
11700     INTEGER OUTPUT, Q;
11800     REAL X,Y, VRXY, VIXY, VXY;
11900     STRING TONA;
12000

```



```

18300          WRITE(OUT,<"VI(X,Y)=",E10.3," KV">,VIXY);
18400          WRITE(OUT,<"V(X,Y) =",E10.3," KV">,VXY);
18500          WRITE(OUT,</", "MORE POINTS? YES=11, NO=5">);
18600          READ(IN,/,A);
18700          END;
18800      END;
18900
19000      IF OUTPUT=2 THEN      % OUTPUT 22222222222222222222222222222222
19100      BEGIN
19200          FILE PR(KIND=PRINTER);
19300          REAL ARRAY C[1:N,1:N];
19400          INTEGER II;
19500          FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
19600              FOR J:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
19700                  BEGIN
19800                      IF I=J THEN
19900                          BEGIN
20000                              C[I,I]:=0;
20100                              FOR II:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
20200                                  C[I,II]:=C[I,II]+P[I,II]*1@-3;
20300                              END
20400                              ELSE C[I,J]:=-P[I,J]*1@-3;
20500                          END;
20600          WRITE(PR,<"TOWER = ",A20>,TONA);
20700          WRITE(PR,<"WIRES:">);
20800          WRITE(PR,<X2,"X(M)",X5,"Y(M)",X4,"DIAM(M)",X9,
20900              "VOLTAGE">);
21000          FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
21100              WRITE(PR,<F6.2,F9.2,F11.5,F11.3," +J(",F8.3,")KV">,
21200                  L[I,2],L[I,3],L[I,1],VLR[I],VLI[I]);
21300          WRITE(PR,</", "CAPACITANCES OF ",A20," ARE (F/M):" ,/>,
21400              TONA);
21500          FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
21600              IF N>9 THEN WRITE(PR,*/,N,C[I,*])
21700                  ELSE WRITE(PR,<*E14.5>,N,C[I,*]);
21800          WRITE(OUT,<"USE: ^U$SERVICE/BACKUP ON APPL^ TO PRINT">);
21900      END;
22000
22100
22200      IF OUTPUT=3 THEN      % OUTPUT 33333333333333333333333333333333
22300      BEGIN
22400          INTEGER CALCTYPE, CN;
22500          REAL ARRAY E[1:2];
22600
22700          PROCEDURE EFIELD(X,Y,EA);
22800              %
22900              % THIS PROCEDURE CALCULATES THE ABSOLUTE VALUES
23000              % OF THE COMPLEX EL. FIELD STRENGTH IN (X,Y);
23100              % DELIVERED IN EX AND EY
23200              VALUE X,Y; REAL X,Y; REAL ARRAY EA[*];
23300              BEGIN
23400                  COMPLEX ARRAY E[1:2];
23500                  E[1]:=E[2]:=COMPLEX(0,0);
23600                  FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
23700                      BEGIN
23800                          COMPLEX F;
23900                          F:=250*COMPLEX(QR[I],QI[I])/(EPS*ARCSIN(1));
24000                          E[1]:=E[1]+F*(X-L[I,2])/(((X-L[I,2])**2)+
24100                              ((Y-L[I,3])**2))
24200                              -F*(X-L[I,2])/(((X-L[I,2])**2)+
24300                              ((Y+L[I,3])**2));
24400                          E[2]:=E[2]+F*(Y-L[I,3])/(((X-L[I,2])**2)+

```

```

24500                                     ((Y-L[I,3])**2))
24600                                     -F*(Y+L[I,3])/(((X-L[I,2])**2)+
24700                                     ((Y+L[I,3])**2));
24800                                     END;
24900                                     EA[1]:=CABS(E[1]);
25000                                     EA[2]:=CABS(E[2]);
25100                                     END;
25200
25300 WRITE(OUT,<"CHOOSE: FIELD STRENGHT CALCULATION ",
25400         "IN POINT = 1">);
25500 WRITE (OUT,<X8,"MAX. FIELD ON CONDUCTOR = 2">);
25600 READ (IN,/,CALCTYPE);
25700 IF CALCTYPE=1 THEN
25800     BEGIN
25900         WRITE(OUT,<"GIVE: X, Y">);
26000         READ(IN,/,X,Y);
26100         EFIELD(X,Y,E);
26200         WRITE(OUT,<"EX=",E10.3," V/M'",E[1]);
26300         WRITE(OUT,<"EY=",E10.3," V/M'",E[2]);
26400         WRITE(OUT,<"E/=",E10.3," V/M'",SQRT(E[1]**2+
26500             E[2]**2));
26600     END;
26700 IF CALCTYPE=2 THEN
26800     %
26900     % EMAX ON CONDUCTOR CN IS DETERMINED WITH THE
27000     % METHOD OF THE GOLDEN CUT
27100     %
27200     BEGIN
27300     REAL A, B, T, T2, Z, ZA, F, FA, AN;
27400     A:=1@-5; B:=360; T:=1.618; T2:=1.618**2;
27500     Z:=A/T+B*(1-1/T); ZA:=A/T2+B*(1-1/T2);
27600     WRITE(OUT,<"GIVE INPUT SEQUENCE NUMBER OF CONDUCTOR">);
27700     READ(IN,/,CN);
27800     WHILE ABS((Z-ZA)/ZA)>1@-7 DO
27900         BEGIN
28000             AN:=ARCSIN(1)*4*Z/360;
28100             X:=L[CN,2]+L[CN,1]*COS(AN)/2;
28200             Y:=L[CN,3]+L[CN,1]*SIN(AN)/2;
28300             EFIELD(X,Y,E);
28400             F:=SQRT(E[1]**2+E[2]**2);
28500             AN:=ARCSIN(1)*4*ZA/360;
28600             X:=L[CN,2]+L[CN,1]*COS(AN)/2;
28700             Y:=L[CN,3]+L[CN,1]*SIN(AN)/2;
28800             EFIELD(X,Y,E);
28900             FA:=SQRT(E[1]**2+E[2]**2);
29000             IF FA<F THEN
29100                 BEGIN
29200                     B:=ZA; ZA:=Z;
29300                     Z:=A/T+B*(1-1/T);
29400                 END
29500             ELSE
29600                 BEGIN
29700                     A:=Z; Z:=ZA;
29800                     ZA:=A/T2+B*(1-1/T2);
29900                 END;
30000             END;
30100             AN:=ARCSIN(1)*4*Z/360;
30200             X:=L[CN,2]+L[CN,1]*COS(AN)/2;
30300             Y:=L[CN,3]+L[CN,1]*SIN(AN)/2;
30400             EFIELD(X,Y,E);
30500             WRITE(OUT,<"EMAX ON CONDUCTOR",I3," IS",E12.4," V/M'",
30600                 CN,SQRT(E[1]**2+E[2]**2));

```



```

36900 FOR I:=0 STEP 1 UNTIL M DO
37000 YA[I]:=-I*SF;
37100 FOR I:=0 STEP 1 UNTIL 80 DO
37200 FOR J:=0 STEP 1 UNTIL M DO
37300 BEGIN
37400 VRI(XA[I],YA[J],VRXY,VIXY);
37500 VA[I,J]:=-SQRT(VRXY**2+VIXY**2)/VM;
37600 END;
37700 Q1:=11;
37800 NEWOBJECT(OBJ);
37900 FOR I:=0 STEP 1 UNTIL 80 DO
38000 BEGIN
38100 FOR J:=0 STEP 1 UNTIL M DO
38200 BEGIN
38300 XB[I,J]:=-XA[I];
38400 YB[I,J]:=-YA[J];
38500 END;
38600 END;
38700 FOR FO:=0.001,.005,.01,.02,.05,.1,.15,
38800 .2,.25,.3,.4,.6,.8,0.95 DO
38900 BEGIN
39000 CONTOUR1(FO,0,80,0,M,XB,YB,VA,1,NPARTS,NPOINTS,
39100 PKIND,XISO,YISO);
39200 FOR PART:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL NPARTS DO
39300 BEGIN
39400 POLYGON(OBJ,I,1,NPOINTS[PART],XISO[PART,I],
39500 YISO[PART,I],1);
39600 IF PKIND[PART]=1 THEN
39700 STRAIGHTLINEPIECE(OBJ,XISO[PART,
39800 NPOINTS[PART]],YISO[PART,
39900 NPOINTS[PART]],XISO[PART,
40000 1],YISO[PART,1],1);
40100 END;
40200 END;
40300 MAPANDDRAWOBJECT1(PLOT,OBJ,2,2,8.5*YM/XM+2,19,
40400 -1*XM,0,XM,0,XM,YM,2,19,2,2,
40500 8.5*YM/XM+2,2);
40600 CLEAROBJECT(OBJ);
40700 AXISCOMPLETE(OBJ,2,2,2,19,20,1,XM,-1*XM,TRUE,
40800 FALSE,.2,"X(M)");
40900 AXISCOMPLETE(OBJ,2,2,8.5*YM/XM+2,2,20,0,0,YM,
41000 FALSE,FALSE,.2,"HEIGHT Y(M)");
41100 STR2:="EQUIPOTENTIAL LINES FOR V= 0.1,0.5,1,2,5,10,15,";
41200 STR3:="20,25,30,40,60,80,95 % OF KV(PH-GR)";
41300 STR1:=STR2 CAT STR3;
41400 COMMENTTEXT(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3,19,-90,.2,0,STR1);
41500 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3,4.6,-90,.2,0,
41600 "F6.1",VM);
41700 COMMENTTEXT(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2)*.4,19,-90,.2,
41800 0,"WIRES:");
41900 STR2:="TOWER = ";
42000 STR1:=STR2 CAT TONA;
42100 COMMENTTEXT(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+3)*.4,19,-90,.2,
42200 0,STR1);
42300 FOR I:=1 STEP 1 UNTIL N DO
42400 BEGIN
42500 STR1:="V( , )= +J( )KV";
42600 STR2:="",DIAM.= CM";
42700 STR3:=STR1 CAT STR2;
42800 COMMENTTEXT(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4,19,-90,.2,
42900 0,STR3);
43000 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ,8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4,18.6,

```

```

43100          -90, .2, 0, "F6.2", L[I, 2]);
43200 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ, 8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4, 17.2,
43300          -90, .2, 0, "F6.2", L[I, 3]);
43400 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ, 8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4, 15.6,
43500          -90, .2, 0, "F7.2", VLR[I]);
43600 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ, 8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4, 13.6,
43700          -90, .2, 0, "F7.2", VLI[I]);
43800 COMMENTNNUMBER(OBJ, 8.5*YM/XM+3+(N+2-I)*.4, 10.0,
43900          -90, .2, 0, "F7.2", L[I, 1]*100);
44000          END;
44100          DRAWOBJECT(PLOT, OBJ, 0, 0, 8.5*YM/XM+4+(N+2)*.4, 20);
44200          DISPOSEOBJECT(OBJ);
44300          WRITE(OUT, <"PLOT IS READY">);
44400          END;
44500          END;
44600
44700          WRITE(OUT, <"ANOTHER OUTPUT? (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), 0 = STOP ">);
44800          READ(IN, /, OUTPUT);
44900          END;
45000          END;
45100          END;
45200          END.

```