

Traveling Waves on Transmission Systems

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Synopsis.—The purpose of this paper is two-fold: First; to present the theory of traveling waves on multi-conductor systems, and second, to compile a brief compendium on the general subject of traveling waves on transmission systems. While the application of the multi-conductor theory is more laborious than that of the single-wire theory, yet it does not involve much greater complication, and it becomes necessary to go to the more general theory when mutual effects are important, as in the study of ground wires, or when discontinuities exist in paralleled circuits carrying traveling

waves. The origin, shape, and general characteristics of traveling waves are discussed. The equivalent circuits of terminal equipment and the corresponding reflections and refractions from such junctions are given for a large number of cases. The methods of computing a multiplicity of successive reflections by means of lattices are described. The effect of line losses in equalizing the subsidence of traveling waves and on their attenuation and distortion is also discussed.

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ORIGIN OF TRAVELING WAVES

SURGES on transmission lines owe their origin to four different causes; induced from lightning discharges, direct lightning stroke, arcing grounds, and switching.

The maximum potential at the point of origin, and the crest of induced traveling waves are respectively:

$$V = \alpha G h$$

$$V' = \alpha' G h$$

where h is the height of the line conductor, G the field gradient, and α and α' factors depending on the law of cloud discharge and the distribution of bound charge.¹ For an instantaneous cloud discharge (an impossible assumption) $\alpha = 1.0$ and $\alpha' = 0.5$. (Fig. 1) As the time of cloud discharge increases both α and α' decrease, and rapidly approach equality; so that for a cloud discharge slower than 10 microseconds they are practically equal. The equation for α' based on the assumption of an exponential law of cloud discharge is:

$$\alpha' = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{3x}{t}} \right)$$

where x is the length of the bound charge in thousands of feet, and t is the time of cloud discharge in microseconds. The length of the wave is:

$$L = x + t$$

and the front of the wave is x or t depending upon which is the smaller. It is evident that induced strokes become harmless for long periods of cloud discharge, and that high potential induced strokes are possible only with very short waves. For the accepted maximum value of $G = 100$ kv/ft., an average line height of $h = 60$ ft., a 3,000-ft. rectangular bound charge, and 10 microseconds for the cloud discharge, the maximum induced traveling wave that can occur on the line is:

$$V' = \alpha' G h = 0.30 \times 100 \times 60 = 1,800 \text{ kv.}$$

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1. For references see Bibliography.

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and this wave has a total length of only 13 microseconds. Had the time of cloud discharge been 30 microseconds then the induced voltage would have been only

$$V' = 0.13 \times 100 \times 60 = 780 \text{ kv.}$$

The induced voltages decrease in importance as the line insulation is increased, and the proportion of outages due to direct strokes increases. The induced voltages can be roughly halved by the use of one or more ground wires.

The most feasible way of correlating the direct versus

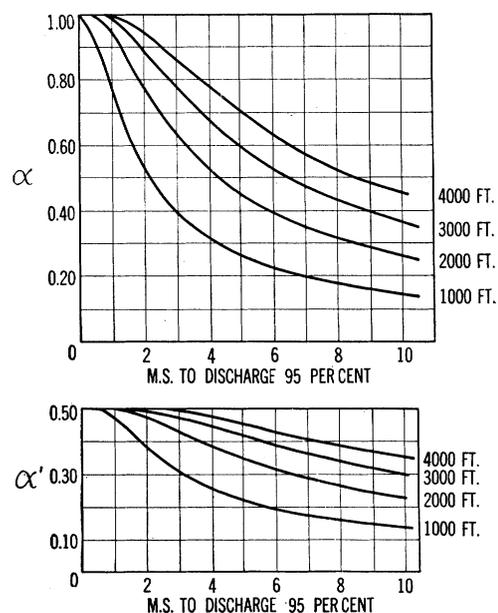


FIG. 1—REDUCTION FACTORS FOR INDUCED LIGHTNING POTENTIALS

induced stroke arguments is through the simple theoretical relationships between the traveling waves originating from these two causes. It was found in a previous investigation¹ that the law of cloud discharge has a greater effect on the shape of the traveling wave than the distribution of bound charge, and therefore that the assumption of a rectangular bound charge may be made without involving any marked departure from the true shape of the traveling wave. Then the determination of the wave shape reduces to the problem

of finding the law of cloud discharge. If the wave measured by the cathode-ray oscillograph station was due to a direct stroke, then the shape of the current wave in the lightning bolt is known. But if Q is the charge on the cloud, this current is

$$i = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial t} = Q_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(t)$$

where Q_0 is the total charge at the beginning of cloud discharge, and $F(t)$ is the law of cloud discharge. Therefore

$$F(t) = \frac{1}{Q_0} \int_0^t i dt$$

The actual numerical values of Q_0 and i are unimportant. All that is necessary is to arbitrarily choose

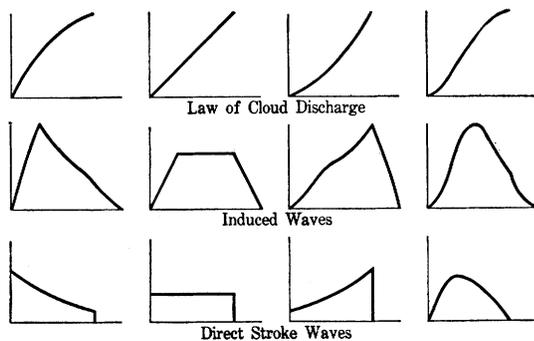


FIG. 2—INDUCED AND DIRECT STROKE WAVES CORRESPONDING TO DIFFERENT LAWS OF CLOUD DISCHARGE

Q_0 of such value that $F(t)$ reaches a final value of unity at the completion of cloud discharge. And the cloud discharge is complete when i has ceased. Suppose that the direct stroke wave has the typical shape, Fig. 3D,

$$i = I (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-bt})$$

Then the law of cloud discharge is

$$F(t) = \frac{I}{Q_0} \int_0^t (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-bt}) dt$$

$$= \frac{I}{Q_0} \left\{ \frac{1 - \epsilon^{-at}}{a} - \frac{1 - \epsilon^{-bt}}{b} \right\}$$

In Fig. 2 are shown a few simple direct stroke waves, and the corresponding laws of cloud discharge and induced waves. Thus if a cathode-ray oscillogram is definitely known to be that of either a direct or induced stroke, then the character of the other may be derived. Of course the length and shape of the bound charge distribution will influence the shape of the induced traveling wave, but not nearly to the same extent as the law of cloud discharge. The above expressions follow from the premise that the electrostatic field of the cloud collapses *uniformly*. Possibly there is considerable departure from this assumption. Nevertheless, the above equations do correlate the two types of lightning waves as near as our present knowledge of the mechanism of cloud discharge will permit.

The third cause of abnormal voltage oscillations on a transmission line is arcing grounds.⁷ Theoretically, voltages as high as $7\frac{1}{2}$ times normal line-to-neutral voltage are possible. But many assumptions underlie the present theories of arcing grounds. When the results arrived at by theory are judiciously shaded to compensate for the assumptions introduced to simplify the analysis, it is doubtful if an arcing ground can actually cause a voltage in excess of 5 times normal line-to-neutral voltage on an isolated neutral system. Arcing ground surges are oscillatory in nature, and consist of a normal frequency oscillation which gradually builds up to several times normal, and a superimposed high frequency oscillation, whose frequency depends chiefly upon the length of line between the station and the arcing ground.

Switching surges exhibit the same class of characteristics as arcing grounds, although they are more irregular in shape. Their proper consideration is outside the scope of this paper.

SHAPES AND SPECIFICATIONS OF TRAVELING WAVES

The principal shapes of most natural waves are included in Fig. 3, that is, may be represented by the difference of two exponentials, but of course actual waves are usually serrated by minor irregularities.

As far as mathematical simplicity is concerned the

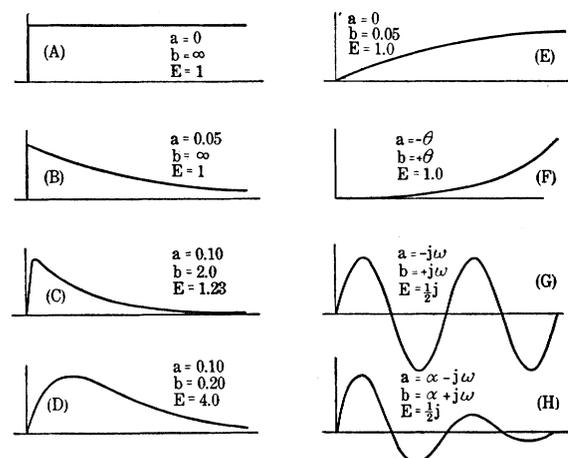


FIG. 3—EMPIRICAL WAVE SHAPES GIVEN BY $e = E(\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-bt})$.

most simple wave to calculate the effects of, is the infinite rectangular, shown in Fig. 3A. Also, as a rule, such a wave is the most dangerous to terminal equipment, and therefore calculations based on it are apt to err on the side of safety. Still other reasons that have favored its use in analysis are that it is by far the easiest to study pictorially, and that until recently the actual shapes of lightning surges were not known. However, during the past few years a great many cathode-ray oscillograms of natural lightning waves have been obtained under many different conditions, so that fairly definite information as to their general shape and characteristics is available. It is therefore essential that calculations be made with these characteristic

lightning waves, in order that the influence of the fronts, tails, and lengths of the waves may be evaluated.

Three different methods for calculating waves of arbitrary shape are given in the following:

1. Express in operational notation, combine with the function representing the reflection or refraction operator, and solve the resulting operational equations.
2. Consider the wave as made up of a series of

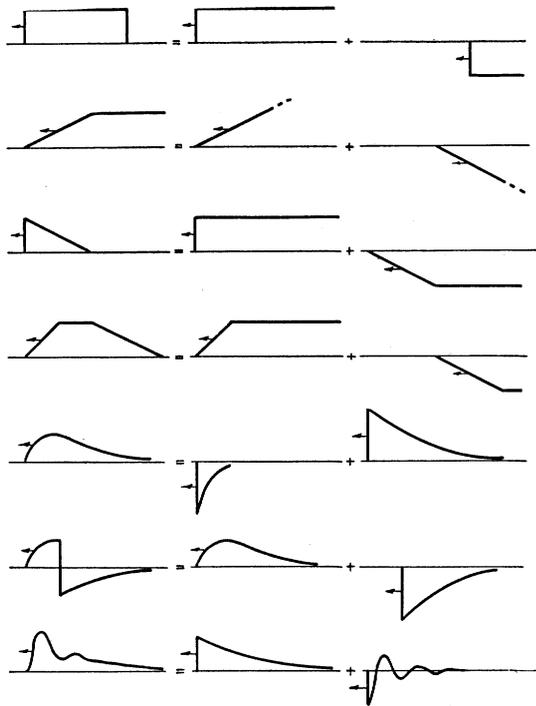


FIG. 4—COMPOUNDING OF SIMPLE WAVES TO OBTAIN COMPLEX WAVES

infinite rectangular waves, and add up the solutions corresponding to each component rectangular wave. This superposition may be done graphically as shown in Fig. 5 or mathematically by means of Duhamel's theorem.

3. Express the wave as the sum of a number of functions for which the individual solutions are known or can be found, and add these solutions. Fig. 4 illustrates a few simple examples.

Which of these methods to use is entirely a matter of convenience in any specific case, each method having certain advantages and limitations. The difficulty usually encountered with the first method is that it complicates the operational equations so that a solution either cannot be obtained at all, or else only by the most laborious and complex process. As a rule, in dealing with the behavior of traveling waves at a transition point, it will be found that the reflection (or other) operator acting on the simple unit function (an infinite rectangular wave) is just about as complicated a proposition as can be handled with engineering expedience, and that any further complications in the operational equations are prohibitive of a solution. The application of Duhamel's theorem suffers from

substantially the same defects, except that the trouble with it is in making a difficult integration. It is

$$f(t) = E(o) \cdot \phi(t) + \int_0^t \phi(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} E(t - \tau) d\tau$$

where

$\phi(t)$ = solution corresponding to unit function

$E(t)$ = applied wave of arbitrary shape

$f(t)$ = solution corresponding to $E(t)$

The graphical representation of a wave of arbitrary shape as a set of rectangular components, is of course only an approximation, but in a great many cases of engineering importance it is quite sufficient, and has the advantage of simplicity. In any event it can always be made as accurate as required, merely by subdividing the wave into a sufficiently large number of small rectangular components. In many cases the incident wave may be so complicated as to defy analytic expression, and then a graphical break-up into rectangular components is the only way out of the difficulty.

The third method, that of representing the wave as a sum of functions for which the solutions are known, is very powerful and practicable. There are a few simple functions for which the response of a network can usually be computed with reasonable ease, and by compounding such functions almost any desired wave shape can be reproduced to a good approximation.

These elementary waves are:

- a. Infinite rectangular
- b. Simple exponential
- c. Uniformly rising front
- d. Damped sinusoid
- e. Difference of two exponentials

As a matter of fact, by a suitable choice of the parameters in the difference of two exponentials, all

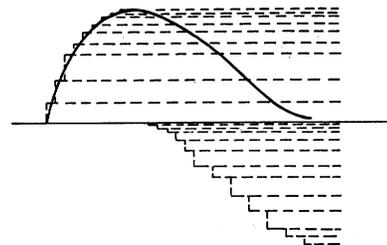


FIG. 5—APPROXIMATION BY RECTANGULAR COMPONENTS

of these elementary waves may be considered as special cases of *e*, as illustrated in Fig. 3. It so happens that the solution corresponding to

$$e_1 = E_1 \epsilon^{-at}$$

is easily effected by means of Heaviside's shifting theorem.

$$f(p) \epsilon^{-at} = \epsilon^{-at} f(p - a)$$

and in many cases with no greater mathematical difficulty than attends with the unit function alone.

The references should be consulted for more details concerning the specification of traveling waves.^{1,2,6}

ATTENUATION OF TRAVELING WAVES

It is usually justifiable to calculate traveling waves on the assumption of no losses, and then to compensate for the attenuation by an exponential decrement factor, arrived at experimentally.

Corona is the chief factor in causing attenuation and distortion. It levels off the top and elongates the wave, but its effect varies with the weather and other conditions, so that there is no such thing as a definite attenuation on a given line.

The effect of the line losses on traveling waves are three-fold: (1), the waves of voltage and current are attenuated, (2), the shapes are distorted with time, (3), the current and voltage waves depart from exact similarity, so that they are no longer connected by the simple linear proportionality factors called the surge impedances.

Fig. 8 shows the effect of attenuation in the charging of an open-ended line from an infinite voltage source. Without losses, the cycle of oscillations repeats indefinitely, but when line losses are present the oscillations gradually diminish until the line eventually reaches a steady state condition. However, a distortionless line can never become fully charged to the terminal potential, throughout its length, for the distortionless feature requires the presence of both leakage conductance and series resistance. The flow of current in the leakage conductance results in a progressive voltage drop along the line. Therefore, the ultimate level charging of a line requires that there be no leakage currents. Referring to Fig. 8, which has been drawn for a linear rather than exponential attenuation, the voltage at various instances of time for an attenuation $(1 - \alpha)$ per trip is

Sending end	Units of time	Receiving end
1	0	0
1	1	α
$1 + \alpha^2$	2	2α
1	3	$2\alpha - \alpha^3$
$1 - \alpha^4$	4	$2\alpha - 2\alpha^3$
1	5	$2\alpha - 2\alpha^3 + \alpha^5$
$1 + \alpha^6$	6	$2\alpha - 2\alpha^3 + 2\alpha^5$
1	7	$2\alpha - 2\alpha^3 + 2\alpha^5 - \alpha^7$
$1 - \alpha^8$	8	$2\alpha - 2\alpha^3 + 2\alpha^5 - 2\alpha^7$
etc.		etc.

The voltage at the receiving end after $4n$ units of time is

$$\begin{aligned}
 e &= 2(\alpha - \alpha^3 + \alpha^5 - \alpha^7 + \dots) \\
 &= 2(\alpha - \alpha^3)(1 + \alpha^4 + \alpha^8 + \dots) \\
 &= 2(\alpha)(1 - \alpha^2) \sum_0^n \alpha^{4r} = 2\alpha \frac{1 - \alpha^{4(n+1)}}{1 - \alpha^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

After an infinite number of oscillations

$$e = \frac{2\alpha}{1 + \alpha^2}$$

Thus if the attenuation is $(1 - \alpha) = 0.5$ as in Fig. 8, and

the line is distortionless, the open end of the line finally stabilizes at a voltage of

$$e = \frac{2 \times 0.5}{1 + 0.25} = 0.8$$

GENERAL PROPERTIES OF FREE TRAVELING WAVES

In Appendix I the general differential equations for potentials and currents of a multi-conductor transmission line, (Fig. 6), are formulated. Each conductor, (Fig. 7), is assumed to have its own resistance to ground

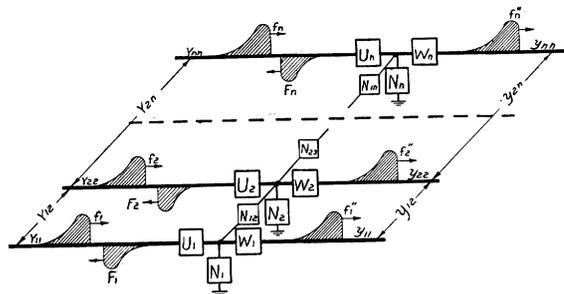


FIG. 6—GENERAL MULTI-CONDUCTOR SYSTEM

and to each of the other conductors, self and mutual inductance between all wires, and leakage conductance from each wire to earth and to all the other wires. For an n -wire system there results a set of n simultaneous partial differential equations of the second order in both the time and distance derivatives. When these n equations are solved for any potential there results a linear partial differential equation with constant coefficients of the $2n$ order in both the time and distance derivatives. This general differential equation is given as a determinate whose formal expansion, according to algebraic rules, yields the polynomial form. The

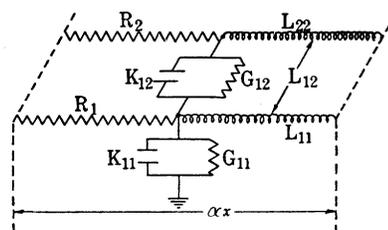


FIG. 7—CIRCUIT CONSTANTS OF MUTUALLY COUPLED CIRCUITS

differential equation and its coefficients is identical for the potential on any wire of the n -wire system; but the boundary conditions, and therefore the integration constants of the solution, may be different for each wire. The general linear partial differential equation with constant coefficients has a formal solution, but it has not been included in this paper (see "Treatise on Differential Equations" by Forsyth). But the solutions are given corresponding to the following special cases:

- The No-Loss Line*
- The Completely Transposed Line*
- Solution for Alternating Currents*

For instance, in the case of two conductors

$$z_{12} = \frac{y_{21}}{\begin{vmatrix} y_{11} & y_{21} \\ y_{12} & y_{22} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-y_{21}}{y_{11}y_{22} - y_{12}y_{21}}$$

$$z_{11} = \frac{y_{22}}{\begin{vmatrix} y_{11} & y_{21} \\ y_{12} & y_{22} \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{y_{22}}{y_{11}y_{22} - y_{12}y_{21}}$$

TRAVELING WAVES ON A SINGLE-CONDUCTOR CIRCUIT

In the majority of problems dealing with traveling waves, it is sufficient to make the calculations on the

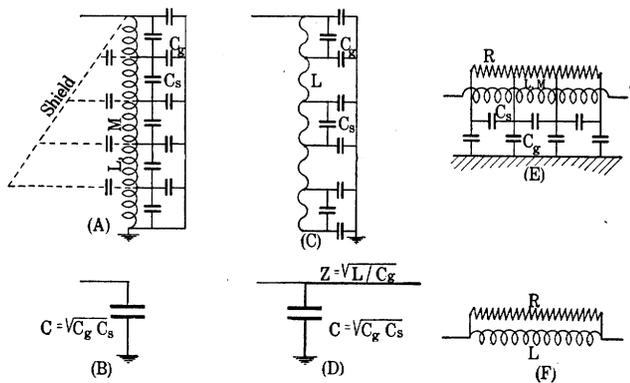


FIG. 9—EQUIVALENT CIRCUITS OF TERMINAL APPARATUS TO LIGHTNING SURGES

- (A) Transformer, ideal
- (B) Transformer, approx.
- (C) Rotating machine, ideal
- (D) Rotating machine, approx.
- (E) Reactor with shunt resistor, ideal
- (F) Reactor with shunt resistor, approx.

basis of a single-wire circuit. The return part of the circuit may be either a second conductor or the ground.

When the single-circuit theory is applicable, the potential and current waves are proportional to each other by the surge impedance of the circuit;

$$e(x - vt) = Zi(x - vt) \text{ for forward moving waves}$$

$$e(x + vt) = -Zi(x + vt) \text{ for backward moving waves}$$

where

$$Z = \sqrt{L/C} = \text{surge impedance in ohms}$$

$$Y = 1/Z = \text{surge admittance in mhos}$$

$$L = \text{inductance in henrys}$$

$$C = \text{capacitance in farads}$$

It is to be noticed that for waves traveling in the positive or forward direction that e and i have the same sign; but that for waves traveling in the reverse or negative direction they have opposite signs. However, it is immaterial which direction along the line be chosen as positive or forward; provided that the positive sense be strictly adhered to throughout the calculations.

The reflection and refraction operators, by equations (18) and (19) of Appendix II are respectively

$$\frac{Z_o - Z}{Z_o + Z} \text{ and } \left(\frac{1}{1 + N(W + z)} \right) \left(\frac{2z}{Z_o + Z} \right)$$

where Z_o is the total impedance, expressed in operational form, at the transition point as viewed from the approaching incident wave, z is the surge impedance of

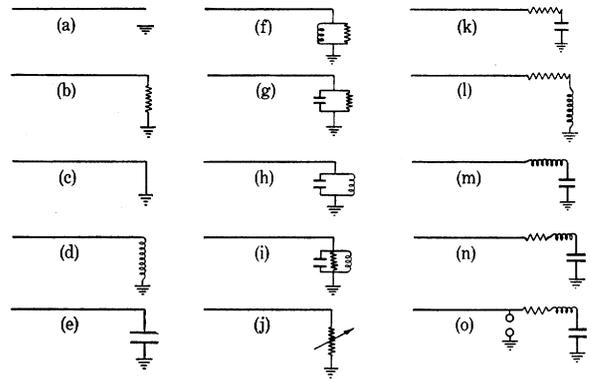


FIG. 10—TERMINAL CONDITIONS ON SINGLE-CONDUCTOR CIRCUITS

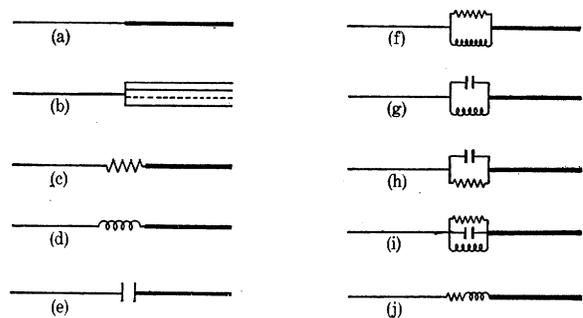


FIG. 11—JUNCTIONS BETWEEN SINGLE-CONDUCTOR CIRCUITS

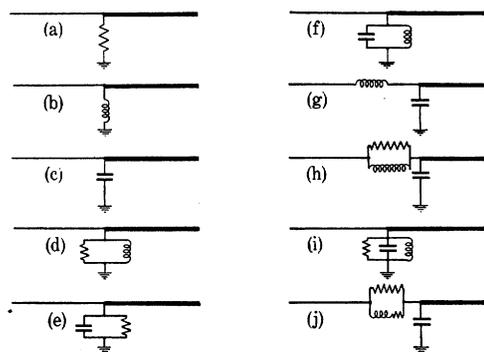


FIG. 12—JUNCTIONS BETWEEN SINGLE-CONDUCTOR CIRCUITS

the line, and N and W are impedances having the same meaning as in Fig. 6. When these operators are applied to any incident wave e , expressed as a function of time t counted from the instant that e arrives at the transition point, they derive the reflected and transmitted waves e' and e'' respectively.

The solutions and graphs of most of the thirty-five

circuits shown in Figs. 10, 11, and 12 have been given in previous papers but the equations will be repeated here for ready reference. By a fortunate coincidence, nearly all of these circuits are included by two general equations, through an adjustment of the coefficients thereof. Therefore, all that is necessary here is to give these equations, and a table with the proper coefficients for each case. The equations are

$$A \left[\frac{a + \alpha}{a - \beta} \epsilon^{-at} - \frac{\alpha + \beta}{a - \beta} \epsilon^{-\beta t} \right] E \quad (1)$$

$$A \left[\frac{\omega_o^2 - 2 a \alpha + a^2}{\omega_o^2 - 2 a \beta + a^2} \epsilon^{-at} + \frac{2 (\alpha - \beta) \epsilon^{-\beta t}}{\omega (\omega_o^2 - 2 a \beta + a^2)} \right]$$

$$\left\{ (\omega_o^2 - a \beta) \sin \omega t + a \omega \cos \omega t \right\} E \quad (2)$$

$$\omega_o^2 = 1/LC \text{ and } \omega^2 = (\omega_o^2 - \beta^2), e = E \epsilon^{-at}$$

In the following tables the reflected wave e' and the transmitted wave e'' are given. In all cases the total voltage at the transition point is

$$e_o = e + e'$$

The reflected and transmitted current waves are respectively

$$i' = - \frac{e'}{z_1} \text{ and } i'' = \frac{e''}{z_2}$$

and the total current at the transition point is

$$i_o = i + i'$$

TABLE I

Fig.	Equation	α	β	A
10-a (1)*	$e' = e$			
10-b (1)	$e' = \frac{R - Z}{R + Z} e$			
10-c (1)	$e' = -e$			
10-d (1)	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{Z}{L}$	$\frac{Z}{L}$	1
10-e (1)	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{1}{CZ}$	$\frac{1}{CZ}$	-1
10-f (1)	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{ZR}{L(R - Z)}$	$\frac{ZR}{L(R + Z)}$	$\frac{R - Z}{R + Z}$
10-g (1)	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{R - Z}{ZRC}$	$\frac{R + Z}{ZRC}$	-1
10-h (1)	$e' = (II.)$	$-\frac{1}{2CZ}$	$\frac{1}{2CZ}$	-1
10-i (1)	$e' = (II.)$	$\frac{Z - R}{2RCZ}$	$\frac{Z + R}{2RCZ}$	-1
10-j (10)	$e' = e - z i_o$			
10-k (6)	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{1}{C(Z - R)}$	$\frac{1}{C(Z + R)}$	$\frac{R - Z}{R + Z}$
10-l	$e' = (I.)$	$\frac{Z - R}{L}$	$\frac{Z + R}{L}$	1
10-m (5)	$e' = (II.)$	$\frac{-Z}{2L}$	$\frac{Z}{2L}$	1
10-n (5) (6)	$e' = (II.)$	$\frac{R - Z}{2L}$	$\frac{R + Z}{2L}$	1
10-o (5)	Same as 10-n before gap sparkover Same as 10-c after sparkover			

*See Bibliography references.

TABLE II

Fig.	Equation	α	β	A
11-a (1)	$e' = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1} e$ $e'' = \frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1} e$			
11-b (1)	$e' = \frac{1 - Z_1 Y_0}{1 + Z_1 Y_0} e$ $e'' = \frac{2}{1 + Z_1 Y_0} e$	$Y_0 =$ total admittance of all outgoing lines in parallel		
11-c (1)	$e' = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1 + R}{Z_2 + Z_1 + R} e$ $e'' = \frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1 + R} e$			
11-d (1)	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{a - \beta} (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-\beta t})$	$\frac{Z_1 - Z_2}{L}$ "	$\frac{Z_1 + Z_2}{L}$ "	1
11-e	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = (I.)$	$\frac{1}{C(Z_1 - Z_2)}$ 0	$\frac{1}{C(Z_1 + Z_2)}$ $\frac{1}{C(Z_1 + Z_2)}$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$ $\frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1}$
11-f	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = (I.)$	$\frac{R(Z_1 - Z_2)}{L(R - Z_1 + Z_2)}$ $-\frac{R Z_2}{L(R + Z_2)}$	$\frac{R(Z_1 + Z_2)}{L(R + Z_1 + Z_2)}$ $\frac{R(Z_1 + Z_2)}{L(R + Z_1 + Z_2)}$	$\frac{R + Z_2 - Z_1}{R + Z_2 + Z_1}$ $\frac{2(Z_2 + R)}{R + Z_2 + Z_1}$
11-g	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = (II.)$	$\frac{1}{2 C(Z_2 - Z_1)}$ 0	$\frac{1}{2 C(Z_2 - Z_1)}$ $\frac{1}{2 C(Z_2 + Z_1)}$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$ $\frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1}$
11-h	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = (I.)$	$\frac{R - Z_1 + Z_2}{R C(Z_1 - Z_2)}$ $-\frac{1}{R C}$	$\frac{R + Z_1 + Z_2}{R C(Z_1 + Z_2)}$ $\frac{R + Z_1 + Z_2}{R C(Z_1 + Z_2)}$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$ $\frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1}$
11-i (1)	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = (II.)$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1 + R}{2 R C(Z_2 - Z_1)}$ $\frac{1}{2 R C}$	$\frac{Z_2 + Z_1 + R}{2 R C(Z_2 + Z_1)}$ $\frac{Z_2 + Z_1 + R}{2 R C(Z_2 + Z_1)}$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$ $\frac{2 Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_1}$
11-j	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = \frac{-2 Z_2}{L(a - \beta)} (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-\beta t})$	$\frac{Z_1 - Z_2 - R}{L}$	$\frac{Z_1 + Z_2 + R}{L}$ $\frac{Z_1 + Z_2 + R}{L}$	1

TRAVELING WAVES ON MULTI-CONDUCTOR CIRCUITS

Equations (9) and (10) of Appendix II are the two general equations which must be satisfied by the incident, reflected, and transmitted waves on all wires at the transition points of the general system represented in Fig. 6. Therefore the solution of these simultaneous equations yields the reflected and transmitted waves in terms of the incident waves and the circuit constants

of the lines and the transition points. These equations are considerably simplified when the networks N_{12} , N_{23} , etc., connecting the different lines at the junctions are equal to zero. In that case they become

$$(1 + N_r U_r) [Y_{r1} (e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn} (e_n - e_n')] - N_r (e_r + e_r') = (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'')$$

$$(e_r + e_r') - U_r [Y_{r1} (e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn} (e_n - e_n')] = e_r'' + W_r (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + Y_{rn} e_n'')$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11} (e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12} (e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11} e_1'' \\ Y_{21} (e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22} (e_2 - e_2') &= 0 \\ (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\ (e_2 + e_2') &= e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

where n is the total number of conductors of the system, and r is any particular conductor. Each of the above equations must be written for each r so as to provide the necessary $2n$ simultaneous equations from which the $2n$ unknowns ($e_1', \dots, e_n', e_1'', \dots, e_n''$) can be found. A few examples will be given to illustrate the use of these equations. In the interests of brevity, the illustrations are for a two-wire and ground circuit.

The solution of these simultaneous equations gives

$$e_1' = \frac{z_{11} - Z_{11}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_2' = e_2 - \frac{2Z_{12}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2z_{11}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

Fig. 13a. One of two lines suddenly terminates.

$$N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0$$

$$y_{11} = 1/z_{11}, y_{22} = y_{12} = 0$$

Substituting these values in the general equation there where is

$$Z_{11} = \frac{Y_{22}}{Y_{11} Y_{22} - Y_{12}^2}$$

TABLE III

Fig.	Equation	α	β	A
12-a	$e' = \frac{Z_2 R - Z_1 R - Z_1 Z_2}{Z_2 R + Z_1 R + Z_1 Z_2}$ $e'' = \frac{2 Z_2 R}{Z_2 R + Z_1 R + Z_1 Z_2}$			
12-b (1)	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{a - \beta} \frac{E}{\alpha} (a \epsilon^{-at} - \beta \epsilon^{-\beta t})$	$\frac{Z_1 Z_2}{L (Z_2 - Z_1)}$	$\frac{Z_1 Z_2}{L (Z_2 + Z_1)}$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_2 + Z_1}$
12-c (1)	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = E \frac{\alpha + \beta}{a - \beta} (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-\beta t})$	$\frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{Z_1 Z_2 C}$ "	$\frac{Z_2 + Z_1}{Z_1 Z_2 C}$ "	-1
12-d	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = e + e'$	$\frac{R Z_1 Z_2}{L (R Z_2 - R Z_1 - Z_1 Z_2)}$	$\frac{R Z_1 Z_2}{L (R Z_2 + R Z_1 + Z_1 Z_2)}$	β/α
12-e	$e' = (I.)$ $e'' = -E \frac{\alpha + \beta}{a - \beta} (\epsilon^{-at} - \epsilon^{-\beta t})$	$\frac{R Z_2 - R Z_1 - Z_1 Z_2}{Z_1 Z_2 R C}$	$\frac{R Z_2 + R Z_1 + Z_1 Z_2}{Z_1 Z_2 R C}$	-1
12-f	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = e + e'$	$\frac{Z_1 - Z_2}{2 Z_1 Z_2 C}$	$\frac{Z_1 + Z_2}{2 Z_1 Z_2 C}$	-1
12-i (1)	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = e + e'$	$\frac{Z_1 R - Z_2 R + Z_1 Z_2}{2 Z_1 Z_2 R C}$	$\frac{Z_1 R + Z_2 R + Z_1 Z_2}{2 Z_1 Z_2 R C}$	-1
12-g (2)	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = (II.)$	See reference	See reference	See reference
12-h (2)	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = (II.)$	See reference	See reference	See reference
12-j (2)	$e' = (II.)$ $e'' = (II.)$	See reference	See reference	See reference

$$Z_{12} = \frac{-Y_{12}}{Y_{11}Y_{22} - Y_{12}^2}$$

If e_2 was induced on line No. 2 by e_1 on line No. 1 then

$$e_2 = \frac{Z_{12}}{Z_{11}} e_1$$

Or conversely, if e_1 was induced by e_2 , then

$$e_1 = \frac{Z_{12}}{Z_{22}} e_2$$

If, as would likely be the case, the line to the right is simply a continuation of No. 1 wire, then

$$z_{11} = Z_{11}$$

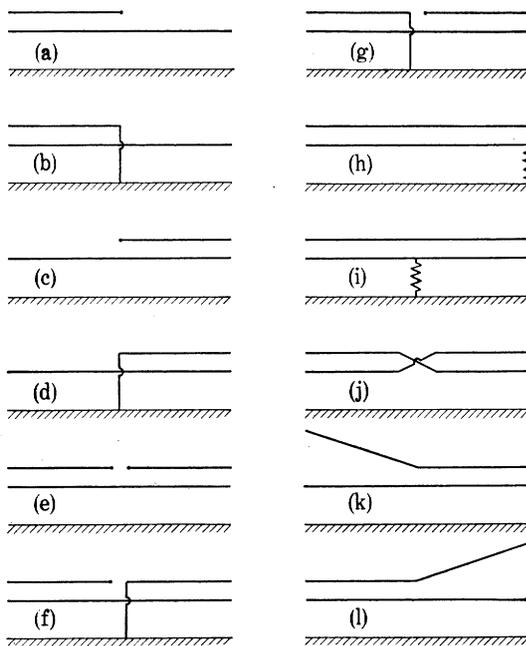


FIG. 13—TRANSITION POINTS OF A DOUBLE CIRCUIT

and the equations become

$$e_1' = 0$$

$$e_2' = e_2 - \frac{Z_{12}}{Z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_1'' = e_1$$

that is, there is no reflection on line No. 1, and the full wave is transmitted. In this case, had e_2 been induced by e_1 there would be no reflection on No. 2 conductor either.

Fig. 13b. One of two lines is terminated and grounded.

$$N_1 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0, \quad N_2 = \infty$$

$$y_{11} = 1/z_{11}, \quad y_{22} = y_{12} = 0$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11} e_1'' \\ (e_2 + e_2') &= 0 \\ (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\ e_2 + e_2' &= e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Solving these simultaneous equations there is

$$e_1' = \frac{Y_{11} - y_{11}}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} e_1 + \frac{2 Y_{12}}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} e_2$$

$$e_2' = -e_2$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2 Y_{11} e_1}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} + \frac{2 Y_{12}}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} e_2$$

Fig. 13c. Isolated conductor introduced.

$$N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0$$

$$Y_{11} = 1/Z_{11}, \quad Y_{12} = Y_{22} = 0$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') &= y_{11} e_1'' + y_{12} e_2'' \\ 0 &= y_{21} e_1'' + y_{22} e_2'' \\ (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\ e_2 + e_2' &= e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Therefore

$$e_1' = \frac{z_{11} - Z_{11}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2 z_{11}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_2'' = \frac{z_{12}}{z_{11}} e_1'' = \frac{2 z_{12}}{z_{11} + Z_{11}} e_1$$

Thus if No. 1 is a through conductor, so that $z_{11} = Z_{11}$, there is no reflection.

Fig. 13d. Grounded conductor introduced.

$$N_1 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0, \quad N_2 = \infty$$

$$Y_{11} = 1/Z_{11}, \quad Y_{12} = Y_{22} = 0$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') &= y_{11} e_1'' + y_{12} e_2'' \\ e_2 + e_2' &= 0 \\ (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\ e_2 + e_2' &= e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Therefore

$$e_1' = \frac{Y_{11} - y_{11}}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2 Y_{11}}{Y_{11} + y_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_2'' = 0$$

Fig. 13e. Break in one conductor.

$$N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = 0, \quad W_2 = \infty$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11} e_1'' + y_{12} e_2'' \\ Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{21} e_1'' + y_{22} e_2'' \\ (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\ 0 &= y_{21} e_1'' + y_{22} e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Therefore, taking

$$Y_{11} = y_{11}, \quad Y_{22} = y_{22}, \quad \text{and } Y_{12} = Y_{21} = y_{12} = y_{21}$$

$$e_1' = 0$$

$$e_2' = e_2 - \frac{z_{12}}{z_{11}} e_1$$

$$e_1'' = e_1$$

$$e_2'' = \frac{z_{12}}{z_{11}} e_1$$

Fig. 13f. Broken line—far section grounded.

$$\begin{aligned}
 U_1 = W_1 = W_2 = N_1 = 0, \quad U_2 = N_2 = \infty \\
 \left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11}e_1'' + y_{12}e_2'' \\
 Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= 0 \\
 (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\
 Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= 0
 \end{aligned} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, since $e_2'' = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{1 - Z_{11} y_{11}}{1 + Z_{11} y_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_2' &= e_2 + \frac{2 Z_{12} y_{11}}{1 + Z_{11} y_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_1'' &= \frac{2}{1 + Z_{11} y_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_2'' &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 13g. Broken line—near section grounded.

$$\begin{aligned}
 U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = N_1 = 0, \quad W_2 = N_2 = \infty \\
 \left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11}e_1'' + y_{12}e_2'' \\
 e_2 + e_2' &= 0 \\
 e_1 + e_1' &= e_1'' \\
 0 &= y_{21}e_1'' + y_{22}e_2''
 \end{aligned} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{z_{11} Y_{11} - 1}{z_{11} Y_{11} + 1} e_1 + \frac{2 Y_{12} z_{11}}{z_{11} Y_{11} + 1} e_2 \\
 e_2' &= -e_2 \\
 e_1'' &= \frac{2 z_{11}}{z_{11} Y_{11} + 1} (Y_{11} e_1 + Y_{12} e_2) \\
 e_2'' &= \frac{z_{12}}{z_{11}} e_1'' = \frac{2 z_{12}}{z_{11} Y_{11} + 1} (Y_{11} e_1 + Y_{12} e_2)
 \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 13h. One line grounded through a resistor at end of line.

$$\begin{aligned}
 U_1 = U_2 = N_2 = 0, \quad N_1 = 1/R, \quad y_{11} = y_{22} = y_{22} = 0 \\
 \left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') - (e_1 + e_1')/R &= 0 \\
 Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= 0
 \end{aligned} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{R - Z_{11}}{R + Z_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_2' &= e_2 - \frac{2 Z_{12}}{R + Z_{11}} e_1
 \end{aligned}$$

If $R = Z_{11}$, then $e_1' = 0$ and there is no reflected wave on No. 1 wire. However, a wave

$$e_2' = e_2 - \frac{Z_{12}}{Z_{11}} e_1$$

is reflected on No. 2 wire.

Fig. 13i. Resistance ground on one wire.

$$U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = N_2 = 0, \quad N_1 = 1/R$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11}e_1'' + y_{12}e_2'' + (e_1 + e_1')/R \\
 Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{21}e_1'' + y_{22}e_2'' \\
 e_1 + e_1' &= e_1'' \\
 e_2 + e_2' &= e_2''
 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{-Z_{11}}{2R + Z_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_2' &= \frac{-Z_{12}}{2R + Z_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_1'' &= \frac{2R}{2R + Z_{11}} e_1 \\
 e_2'' &= e_2 - \frac{Z_{12}}{2R + Z_{11}} e_1
 \end{aligned}$$

These equations are of importance in connection with the theory of ground wires.³

Fig. 13j. Transposition of a line.

$$\begin{aligned}
 N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0 \\
 y_{11} = Y_{22}, y_{22} = Y_{11}, y_{12} = y_{21} = Y_{12} = Y_{21} \\
 \left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11}e_1'' + y_{12}e_2'' \\
 Y_{21}(e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{21}e_1'' + y_{22}e_2'' \\
 e_1 + e_1' &= e_1'' \\
 e_2 + e_2' &= e_2''
 \end{aligned} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{(Y_{11} - Y_{22})}{(Y_{11} + Y_{22})^2 - 4 Y_{12}^2} [(Y_{11} + Y_{22}) e_1 + 2 Y_{12} e_2] \\
 e_2' &= \frac{-(Y_{11} - Y_{22})}{(Y_{11} + Y_{22})^2 - 4 Y_{12}^2} [2 Y_{12} e_1 + (Y_{11} + Y_{22}) e_2] \\
 e_1'' &= e_1' + e_1 \\
 e_2'' &= e_2' + e_2
 \end{aligned}$$

If the two conductors are in the same horizontal plane so that $Y_{11} = Y_{22}$, then there are no reflections.

If the two incident waves are alike, that is $e_1 = e_2 = e$ then

$$e_1' = -e_2' = \frac{(Y_{11} - Y_{22}) e}{Y_{11} + Y_{22} - 2 Y_{12}}$$

Fig. 13k. Line entering a section parallel to another line.

$$\begin{aligned}
 N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0 \\
 Y_{12} = 0, \quad Z_{11} = z_{11}, \quad Z_{22} = z_{22} \\
 \left. \begin{aligned}
 Y_{11}(e_1 - e_1') &= y_{11}e_1'' + y_{12}e_2'' \\
 Y_{22}(e_2 - e_2') &= y_{21}e_1'' + y_{22}e_2'' \\
 (e_1 + e_1') &= e_1'' \\
 e_2 + e_2' &= e_2''
 \end{aligned} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 e_1' &= \frac{[(Y_{11} - y_{11})(Y_{22} + y_{22}) + y_{12}^2] e_1 + 2 y_{12} Y_{22} e_2}{(Y_{11} + y_{11})(Y_{22} + y_{22}) - y_{12}^2} \\
 e_2' &= \frac{[(Y_{11} + y_{11})(Y_{22} - y_{22}) + y_{12}^2] e_2 - 2 y_{12} Y_{11} e_1}{(Y_{11} + y_{11})(Y_{22} + y_{22}) - y_{12}^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2 Y_{11} (Y_{22} + y_{22}) e_1 - 2 y_{12} Y_{22} e_2}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - y_{12}^2}$$

$$e_2'' = \frac{2 Y_{22} (Y_{11} + y_{11}) e_2 - 2 y_{12} Y_{11} e_1}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - y_{12}^2}$$

In a case of this kind it is highly improbable that both e_1 and e_2 would exist simultaneously, so that the equation could be simplified to that extent.

Fig. 13l. Line leaving a section parallel to another line.

$$N_1 = N_2 = U_1 = U_2 = W_1 = W_2 = 0$$

$$y_{12} = 0, \quad Z_{11} = z_{11}, \quad Z_{22} = z_{22}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Y_{11} (e_1 - e_1') + Y_{12} (e_2 - e_2') &= y_{11} e_1'' \\ Y_{21} (e_1 - e_1') + Y_{22} (e_2 - e_2') &= y_{22} e_2'' \\ e_1 + e_1' &= e_1'' \\ e_2 + e_2' &= e_2'' \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Therefore

$$e_1' = \frac{[(Y_{11} - y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2] e_1 + 2 Y_{12} y_{22} e_2}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2}$$

$$e_2' = \frac{[(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} - y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2] e_2 + 2 Y_{12} y_{11} e_1}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2}$$

$$e_1'' = \frac{2 [Y_{11} (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2] e_1 + 2 Y_{12} y_{22} e_2}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2}$$

$$e_2'' = \frac{2 [Y_{22} (Y_{11} + y_{11}) - Y_{12}^2] e_2 + 2 Y_{12} y_{11} e_1}{(Y_{11} + y_{11}) (Y_{22} + y_{22}) - Y_{12}^2}$$

SUCCESSIVE REFLECTIONS

There are many important problems, such as in the theory of ground wires,³ the effect of short lengths of cable,¹¹ trunk lines tapped at short intervals, etc.,⁴ where it is necessary to consider a number of successive reflections of traveling waves. Sometimes it is exceedingly difficult to keep track of the multiplicity of these reflections. A lattice has therefore been devised which shows at a glance the position and direction of motion of every incident, reflected and refracted wave on the system at every instant of time. In addition, this lattice provides the means for calculating the shape of all reflected and transmitted waves and gives a complete history of their past experience. Even the effects of attenuation and wave distortion can be entered on the lattice, if the defining functions are known.

The principle of the reflection lattice is illustrated in Fig. 14. Three junctions, Nos. 1, 2, and 3 placed at uneven intervals along the line are shown. These junctions may consist of any combinations of impedances in series with the line or shunted to ground. The circuits between junctions may be either overhead lines or cables; having in general, different surge impedances, velocities of wave propagation, and attenuation factors. To construct the lattice, lay off the junctions to scale at intervals equal to the times of

passage of the wave on each section between junctions. Now choose a suitable vertical time scale, shown in Fig. 14 at the left of the lattice, and draw in the diagonals. At the top of the lattice, at any convenient place centered on the junctions, place indicators with the reflection and refraction operators marked on them. In the notation of this paper these indicators are shown as little double-headed arrows marked as follows:

- a = reflection operator for waves approaching from the left.
 - a' = reflection operator for waves approaching from the right.
 - b = refraction operator for waves approaching from the left.
 - b' = refraction operator for waves approaching from the right.
 - β, α = attenuation factors for section between junctions
- It is understood, of course, that these operators are

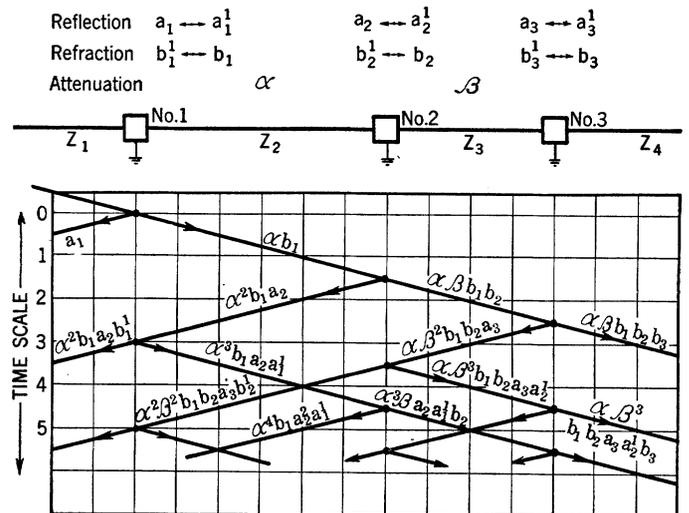


FIG. 14—LATTICE FOR COMPUTING SUCCESSIVE REFLECTIONS

operational expressions involving the impedance functions of the junctions, and no restrictions are placed on their generality. Now, starting at the origin of the initial incident wave at the top of the lattice, obtain the reflected and refracted wave at each junction by applying the operators of that junction to the incident wave arriving there, and proceed until the lattice has been completed. It will be observed that:

1. All waves travel downhill.
2. The position of any wave at any time is determined from the vertical time scale at the left of the lattice.
3. The total potential at any point at any instant of time is the superposition of all the waves which have arrived at that point up until that instant of time, displaced in position from each other by intervals equal to the instants of their time of arrival.
4. The previous history of any wave is easily traced,

and space derivatives. Solving these n simultaneous equations for any e , there results a determinate of which the numerator is zero on account of having a column of zeros. In order, therefore, that a solution other than zero can exist, it is necessary that the denominator also be zero (on the assumption that the indeterminate so formed will evaluate to a finite value). Therefore, there must be

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} J_{12} & \dots & J_{1n} \\ J_{21} A_{22} & \dots & J_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ J_{n1} J_{n2} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{vmatrix} e = 0 \tag{10}$$

Now, dropping subscripts

$$Z Y = (R + p L)(G + p K) = L K p^2 + (L G + R K)p + R G \tag{11}$$

so that ultimately, the expansion of (10) will lead to a polynomial of degree n in $(\partial^2/\partial x^2)$ and degree n in $p^2 = \partial^2/\partial t^2$. The solution of this partial differential equation is the most general solution for a system of parallel conductors.

There are three conditions under which equation (10) may be considerably simplified in obtaining a solution. These are I, *The No-Loss Line*, II, *The Completely Transposed Line*, and III, *The Alternating Current Solution*.

Case I. *The No-Loss Line*. The solution for this case has been given in a recent paper,³ and will not be repeated here. However, the following discussion of the energy relationships was not included in the previous paper.

Consider a system of n potential and current waves $(e_1 \dots e_n, i_1 \dots i_n)$. From electrostatics (see "Electricity and Magnetism" by J. H. Jeans, page 94) and equations (1) of Appendix I of this paper, the total energy residing in the electrostatic field is

$$\begin{aligned} W_e &= \frac{1}{2} \int (Q_1 e_1 + Q_2 e_2 + \dots + Q_n e_n) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (K_{11} e_1^2 + K_{12} e_2 e_1 + \dots + K_{1n} e_n e_1) dx \\ &\dots \dots \dots \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \int (K_{n1} e_1 e_n + K_{n2} e_2 e_n + \dots + K_{nn} e_n^2) dx \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

where the integration is to extend over the lengths of the waves.

The electromagnetic energy (Jeans page 443) by equations (2) of Appendix I is

$$\begin{aligned} W_r &= \frac{1}{2} \int (\phi_1 i_1 + \phi_2 i_2 + \dots + \phi_n i_n) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (L_{11} i_1^2 + L_{12} i_2 i_1 + \dots + L_{1n} i_n i_1) dx \\ &\dots \dots \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \int (L_{n1} i_1 i_n + L_{n2} i_2 i_n + \dots + L_{nn} i_n^2) dx \tag{13}$$

The total energy of the waves is (considering only the waves moving in one direction, and calling the current waves i)

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int (e_1 i_1 + e_2 i_2 + \dots + e_n i_n) dt \\ &= \int (z_{11} i_1^2 + z_{12} i_2 i_1 + \dots + z_{1n} i_n i_1) dt \\ &\dots \dots \dots \\ &+ \int (z_{n1} i_1 i_n + z_{n2} i_2 i_n + \dots + z_{nn} i_n^2) dt \\ &= \int (y_{11} e_1^2 + y_{12} e_2 e_1 + \dots + y_{1n} e_n e_1) dt \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

$$+ \int (y_{n1} e_1 e_n + y_{n2} e_2 e_n + \dots + y_{nn} e_n^2) dt$$

But for free traveling waves on overhead lines,³

$$z = c L \tag{15}$$

and

$$dx = v dt = c dt \tag{16}$$

Therefore, equation (14) may be written

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int (L_{11} i_1^2 + L_{12} i_2 i_1 + \dots + L_{1n} i_n i_1) dx \\ &\dots \dots \dots \\ &+ \int (L_{n1} i_1 i_n + L_{n2} i_2 i_n + \dots + L_{nn} i_n^2) dx \\ &= 2 W_i \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

thus proving that the energy of the system is divided equally between the electrostatic and magnetic fields for free waves traveling in one direction. While waves moving in opposite directions are passing through each other the total energy is not equally divided, but may be distributed in any proportion between the two fields. This is also true at a transition point, where the incident waves give rise to reflected waves. In such cases the energies must be computed from equations (12) and (13) and added to find the total. Equation (14) applies only to waves moving in the same direction, and while it serves to determine the total energy by computing the energies in each system of oppositely moving waves and adding them, it does not hold for resultant potentials and currents.

Case II. *The Completely Transposed Line*. If all n conductors are completely transposed with respect to each other and to the ground, and if the conductors have the same resistance, then in effect

$$\begin{aligned} L_{rr} &= L, & K_{rr} &= K, & G_{rr} &= G \\ L_{rs} &= L', & K_{rs} &= K', & G_{rs} &= G' \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{rr} Y_{rr} &= (R + p L)(G + p K) = Z Y \\ Z_{rr} Y_{rs} &= (R + p L)(G' + p K') = Z Y' \\ Z_{rs} Y_{rr} &= p L'(G + p K) = Z' Y \\ Z_{rs} Y_{rs} &= p L'(G' + p K') = Z' Y' \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_{rs} &= Z_{1r} Y_{1s} + Z_{2r} Y_{2s} + \dots + Z_{rr} Y_{rs} \\ &+ \dots + Z_{sr} Y_{ss} + \dots + Z_{nr} Y_{ns} \\ &= Z Y' + Z' Y + (n - 2) Z' Y' = J \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_{rr} &= Z_{1r} Y_{1r} + Z_{2r} Y_{2r} + \dots + Z_{rr} Y_{rr} \\ &+ \dots + Z_{nr} Y_{nr} \\ &= Z Y + (n - 1) Z' Y' \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

Collecting terms

$$(a_1 A + a_2 B + \dots + a_n N) + (b_1 A + b_2 B + \dots + b_n N) x + \dots = 0 \tag{36}$$

But by the method of indeterminate coefficients, each term of this power series in x must individually equal zero, so that there are the simultaneous equations

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_1 A + a_2 B + \dots + a_n N &= 0 \\ b_1 A + b_2 B + \dots + b_n N &= 0 \\ c_1 A + c_2 B + \dots + c_n N &= 0 \\ &\text{etc.} \end{aligned} \right\} \tag{37}$$

Since the coefficients ($a, b, c \dots$) are entirely arbitrary, the solution of these equations leads to a determinate of which the denominator is finite and the numerator is zero (by virtue of a column of zeros), and therefore

$$A = B = \dots = N = 0 \tag{38}$$

Thus in any equation of type (34) the individual coefficients are separately equal to zero.

Returning now to the equations of type (33), and considering all n of these equations, there is

$$\left. \begin{aligned} (\dot{J}_{11} - \lambda_r^2) \dot{C}_{1r} + \dot{J}_{12} \dot{C}_{2r} + \dots + \dot{J}_{1n} \dot{C}_{nr} &= 0 \\ \dot{J}_{21} \dot{C}_{1r} + (\dot{J}_{22} - \lambda_r^2) \dot{C}_{2r} + \dots + \dot{J}_{2n} \dot{C}_{nr} &= 0 \\ \dots &\dots \\ \dot{J}_{n1} \dot{C}_{1r} + \dot{J}_{n2} \dot{C}_{2r} + \dots + (\dot{J}_{nn} - \lambda_r^2) \dot{C}_{nr} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \tag{39}$$

and exactly the same relationships hold between the \dot{C}' coefficients. Now in order that (39) may be satisfied by values of the \dot{C}' s other than zero, the denominator of the determinate must be equal to zero, that is

$$\begin{vmatrix} (\dot{J}_{11} - \lambda_r^2) & \dot{J}_{12} & \dots & \dot{J}_{1n} \\ \dot{J}_{21} & (\dot{J}_{22} - \lambda_r^2) & \dots & \dot{J}_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dot{J}_{n1} & \dot{J}_{n2} & \dots & (\dot{J}_{nn} - \lambda_r^2) \end{vmatrix} = 0 \tag{40}$$

Therefore, if (40) holds, there are $(n - 1)$ independent relationships between the \dot{C}' s in equation (39), so that any $(n - 1)$ of them may be eliminated. But since there are n values of r , there will remain n integration constants that must be determined from the terminal conditions. Likewise, there will remain n arbitrary integration constants among the \dot{C}' coefficients.

Thus, the n -wire transmission system has associated with it n propagation constants (λ_r) and $2n$ integration constants \dot{C}_r and \dot{C}'_r .

If the line is completely transposed, then by equation (22) there are only two independent roots to the differential equations, and therefore only four integration constants.

If the line is a completely transposed three-wire line, there is, by equations (22), (18), and (20)

$$\left[(Z - Z') (Y - Y') - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right]^2 \left[(Z + 2Z') (Y + 2Y') - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right] \dot{E} = 0 \tag{41}$$

Therefore the propagation constants are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lambda_1^2 &= (Z - Z') (Y - Y') \\ \lambda_2^2 &= (Z + 2Z') (Y + 2Y') \end{aligned} \right\} \tag{42}$$

But (λ_2^2) does not satisfy (40), so that there are no $r = 2$ constants. However, (λ_1^2) does satisfy (40) and therefore the solution for a completely transposed three-wire line is

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{E}_1 &= \dot{C}_{11} \epsilon^{\lambda_1 x} + \dot{C}'_{11} \epsilon^{-\lambda_1 x} \\ \dot{E}_2 &= \dot{C}_{21} \epsilon^{\lambda_1 x} + \dot{C}'_{21} \epsilon^{-\lambda_1 x} \\ \dot{E}_3 &= \dot{C}_{31} \epsilon^{\lambda_1 x} + \dot{C}'_{31} \epsilon^{-\lambda_1 x} \end{aligned} \right\} \tag{43}$$

If for the complex number (λ_1) there be substituted

$$\lambda_1 = \alpha + j\beta \tag{44}$$

then equations (44) may be expressed in any of the following familiar forms

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{E} &= A \epsilon^{\lambda x} + B \epsilon^{-\lambda x} \\ &= A \epsilon^{\alpha x} (\cos \beta x + j \sin \beta x) + B \epsilon^{-\alpha x} (\cos \beta x - j \sin \beta x) \\ &= (A + B) \cosh \lambda x + (A - B) \sinh \lambda x \\ &= (A + B) (\cosh \alpha x \cdot \cos \beta x + j \sinh \alpha x \cdot \sin \beta x) \\ &\quad + (A - B) (\sinh \alpha x \cdot \cos \beta x + j \cosh \alpha x \cdot \sin \beta x) \end{aligned} \tag{45}$$

This is the so-called vector solution. The actual potential as function of x and t is

$$\begin{aligned} e &= \text{imaginary part of } \dot{E} \epsilon^{j\omega t} \\ &= \text{imaginary part of } (A \epsilon^{\lambda x} + B \epsilon^{-\lambda x}) \epsilon^{j\omega t} \end{aligned} \tag{46}$$

It is worth noticing from (42) that λ_1 is in terms of the so-called "constants to neutral" used in practical transmission line calculations. For if

- h = geometric mean height above ground
- s = geometric mean spacing between conductors
- r = radius of conductors

then

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= R + j \left(\frac{1}{2} + 2 \log \frac{2h}{r} \right) 10^{-9} \\ Z' &= +j \left(2 \log \frac{2h}{s} \right) 10^{-9} \\ (Z - Z') &= R + j \left(\frac{1}{2} + 2 \log \frac{s}{r} \right) 10^{-9} \text{ ohms} \\ (Y - Y') &= (G - G') + \frac{j}{\left(18 \log \frac{s}{r} \right) 10^{11}} \text{ mhos} \end{aligned}$$

Appendix II

BEHAVIOR OF WAVES AT A TRANSITION POINT

In a previous paper³ equations were given for the reflected and transmitted waves on an n -wire transmission system similar to that shown in Fig. 6, but lacking the mutual connecting admittances, N_{12}, N_{13} , etc. In this appendix these admittances are included in the analysis, and the more general equations obtained. The application of these general equations is illustrated

in the paper by a number of practical examples which have come up from time to time in the investigation of artificial lightning surges. Even the complicated circuit of Fig. 6 will not serve for every conceivable case, but it hardly seems profitable to generalize any further. If a particular transition point cannot be made a special case of Fig. 6, it will probably be as easy to solve it directly as to reduce it from anything more general. In any event, the procedure followed in setting up the equations and solving them is the same regardless of how complex the transition points may be.

Referring to Fig. 6 let

- $Y_{11}, Y_{22}, \dots, Y_{nn}$ = self surge admittances of lines on the left
- $Y_{12}, Y_{13}, \text{etc.}$ = mutual surge admittances of lines on the left
- $y_{11}, y_{22}, \dots, y_{nn}$ = self surge admittances of lines on the right
- $y_{12}, y_{13}, \text{etc.}$ = mutual surge admittances of lines on the right
- U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n = series impedance network on the left
- W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n = series impedance network on the right
- N_1, N_2, \dots, N_n = admittances to ground
- $N_{12}, N_{23}, \text{etc.}$ = admittances from junction to junction
- e, i = potential and current incident waves
- e', i' = potential and current reflected waves
- e'', i'' = potential and current transmitted waves

When the incident waves arrive at the transition points, they give rise to reflected and transmitted waves which satisfy the general equations of the transmission line, and are in accord with Kirchhoff's laws and the conditions of current and voltage continuity at the junctions.

The total potential at the junction of any incoming line r is the sum of the incident and reflected waves on that line

$$(e_r + e_r') \tag{1}$$

and the total current is³

$$(i_r + i_r') = Y_{r1}(e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn}(e_n - e_n') \tag{2}$$

The potential across the admittance N_r is

$$E_r = (e_r + e_r') - U_r(i_r + i_r') \tag{3}$$

and the current through N_r therefore is

$$I_r = N_r E_r \tag{4}$$

The current transmitted to the outgoing line is

$$i_r'' = y_{r1} e_1'' + y_{r2} e_2'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'' \tag{5}$$

and the current transferred to the other junction is

$$I_r' = N_{1r}(E_r - E_1) + N_{2r}(E_r - E_2) + \dots + N_{nr}(E_r - E_n) \tag{6}$$

The condition of current continuity is

$$i_r + i_r' = i_r'' + I_r + I_r' \tag{7}$$

The potential wave transmitted to the outgoing line is

$$e_r'' = E_r - W_r i_r'' \tag{8}$$

Substituting (2), (3), (4), (5) and (6) in (7) and rearranging, there is

$$\begin{aligned} & [Y_{r1} + Y_{r1} U_r (N_r + N_{1r} + \dots + N_{nr}) - Y_{11} N_{1r} U_1 \\ & \quad - \dots - Y_{n1} N_{nr} U_n] (e_1 - e_1') \\ & \quad + [Y_{rn} + Y_{rn} U_r (N_r + N_{1r} + \dots + N_{nr}) - Y_{1n} N_{1r} U_1 \\ & \quad \quad - \dots - Y_{nn} N_{nr} U_n] (e_n - e_n') \\ & \quad + N_{1r} (e_1 + e_1') + \dots + N_{nr} (e_n + e_n') \\ & \quad - (N_r + N_{1r} + \dots + N_{nr}) (e_r + e_r') \\ & = (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'') \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Substituting (2), (3), (4), (5) and (6) in (8) and rearranging, there is

$$(e_r + e_r') - U_r [Y_{r1}(e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn}(e_n - e_n')] = e_r'' + W_r (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'') \tag{10}$$

For an n -wire system n equations of type (9) and n equations of type (10) can be written, and these $2n$ simultaneous equations suffice for the determination of the $2n$ unknowns ($e_1' \dots e_n', e_1'' \dots e_n''$). The other quantities may then be found from equations (1) to (8). These equations are therefore sufficient to completely formulate the behavior of the incident, reflected, and transmitted waves at a general transition point. Some simplifications and examples are given below.

Mutual Connecting Networks Removed. Suppose that $N_{12}, N_{23}, \text{etc.}$, are all zero. Then equations (9) and (10) reduce to

$$(1 + N_r U_r) [Y_{r1}(e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn}(e_n - e_n')] - N_r (e_r + e_r') = (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'') \tag{11}$$

$$(e_r + e_r') - U_r [Y_{r1}(e_1 - e_1') + \dots + Y_{rn}(e_n - e_n')] = e_r'' + W_r (y_{r1} e_1'' + \dots + y_{rn} e_n'') \tag{12}$$

These are the general equations derived in a previous paper.³

Single Wire Line. In this case only e_1, e_1' and e_1'' exist, and equations (11) and (12) become

$$(1 + N_1 U_1) Y_{11} (e_1 - e_1') - N_1 (e_1 + e_1') = y_{11} e_1'' \tag{13}$$

$$- U_1 Y_{11} (e_1 - e_1') + (e_1 + e_1') = (1 + W_1 y_{11}) e_1'' \tag{14}$$

Solving these two simultaneous equations for the reflected and transmitted waves, substituting $Z_{11} = 1/Y_{11}$ and $z_{11} = 1/y_{11}$, and dropping subscripts, there is

$$e' = \frac{(z + W)(1 + NU) + U - Z - ZN(z + W)}{(z + W)(1 + NU) + U + Z + ZN(z + W)} e \tag{15}$$

$$e'' = \frac{2z}{(z + W)(1 + NU) + U + Z + ZN(z + W)} e \tag{16}$$

The conventional traveling wave theory is based on a single-wire line and is expressed by the above equations. In terms of the total impedance at the transition point,

$$Z_o = U + \frac{1}{\left(N + \frac{1}{W+z}\right)} = \frac{U + (1 + N U)(W+z)}{1 + N(W+z)} \tag{17}$$

the above equations take the more familiar form

$$e' = \frac{Z_o - Z}{Z_o + Z} e \tag{18}$$

$$e'' = \frac{1}{1 + N(W+z)} \frac{2z}{Z_o + Z} e \tag{19}$$

Equations and curves of a great many combinations have been worked out as special cases of these expressions. Those shown in Figs. 10, 11, and 12 are in the readily accessible literature. It will be noticed that many of the combinations illustrated are special cases of the more complicated circuits, merely by substituting limiting values (zero or infinite) for the constants R , L , C , and Z as required. Moreover, each of these cases is of practical importance in the study of high-voltage surges.

Energy Relationships at the Junctions. The energy of a free traveling wave is given by equations (12) to (17) of Appendix I. During the time that the incident waves are at the junction a redistribution of energy is taking place. The division of energy during this transition period furnishes a valid check on the reflection, refraction, and transfer operators, and is of interest on its own account. At any time t , counting from the instant when the system of incident waves ($e_1 \dots e_n$) arrive at the junction, there is

$$\int_0^\infty (e_1 i_1 + \dots + e_n i_n) dt = \text{energy remaining in the incident waves} \tag{21}$$

$$- \int_0^t (e_1' i_1' + \dots + e_n' i_n') dt = \text{energy in the reflected waves} \tag{22}$$

$$\int_0^t (e_1'' i_1'' + \dots + e_n'' i_n'') dt = \text{energy in the transmitted waves} \tag{23}$$

$$\int_0^t (E_1 I_1 + \dots + E_n I_n) dt = \text{energy absorbed by the networks } (N_1 \dots N_n) \tag{24}$$

$$\int_0^t [(e_1 + e_1' - E_1)(i_1' + i_1) + \dots + (e_n + e_n' - E_n)(i_n' + i_n)] dt$$

$$= \text{energy absorbed by the networks } (U_1 \dots U_n) \tag{25}$$

$$\int_0^t [(E_1 - e_1'') i_1'' + \dots + (E_n - e_n'') i_n''] dt = \text{energy absorbed by the networks } (W_1 \dots W_n) \tag{26}$$

$$\int_0^t \sum_1^n \sum_s (E_r - E_s) \cdot N_{rs} (E_r - E_s) dt = \text{energy absorbed in connecting networks } N_{rs} \tag{27}$$

The \sum_s summation in (27) ranges from $s = 1$ to $s = n$, excepting $s = r$.

Equating the sum of these energies to the energy in the original incident waves, by the conservation of energy,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty \sum_1^n e_r i_r dt &= \int_0^\infty \sum_1^n e_r i_r dt - \int_0^t \sum_1^n e_r' i_r' dt \\ &+ \int_0^t \sum_1^n e_r'' i_r'' dt + \int_0^t \sum_1^n E_r I_r dt \\ &+ \int_0^t \sum_1^n (e_r + e_r' - E_r)(i_r + i_r') dt \\ &+ \int_0^t \sum_1^n (E_r - e_r'') i_r'' dt \\ &+ \int_0^t \sum_1^n \sum_s (E_r - E_s) \cdot N_{rs} (E_r - E_s) dt \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

Combining the first term on the right with the term on the left, according to the rule

$$\int_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty = \int_0^t \tag{29}$$

and discarding the integrals, there is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{r=1}^n [e_r i_r + e_r' i_r' - e_r'' i_r'' - E_r I_r - (e_r + e_r' - E_r)(i_r + i_r') \\ - (E_r - e_r'') i_r'' - \sum_s (E_r - E_s) \cdot N_{rs} (E_r - E_s)] = 0 \end{aligned} \tag{30}$$

The currents and voltages at a transition as determined by the reflection, refraction, and transfer operators, must satisfy equation (30).

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Discussion

For discussion of this paper see page 557.
