

Modeling and rapid simulation of the propagation and multiple branching of electrical discharges in gaseous atmospheres

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Abstract The trajectories and branching of electrical discharges through gaseous atmospheres, such as lightning and coronal emissions from high-voltage electromachinery, are of interest in a variety of applications. Multiple branches can evolve in an initially poor atmospheric conductor when a strong electrical discharge builds up, then propagates through the atmosphere by *dielectric breakdown*. Multiple branches can be generated in gases because of the disordered character of the media at the microscale, with an overall influence occurring from the ambient electric fields. In this paper, we develop a sufficiently flexible computational model to describe discharge trajectory and branching. The framework allows analysts to rapidly simulate thousands of electrical discharge scenarios, in order to statistically explore the dependency of the overall system behavior on the relevant physical parameters.

Keywords Electrical discharge · Atmospheres · Propagation · Branching

1 Electrical discharges in gaseous atmospheres

The trajectory and branching of an electrical discharge in a gaseous atmosphere is of interest to industry and the natural sciences (Figs. 1, 2). Relevant, wide ranging, applications are (1) lightning, (2) end-coronal insulation protection in high-voltage electromachinery, such as industrial-scale

generators and (3) controlled electrical ignition in internal combustion engines. The most common naturally occurring electrical discharge in a gas is lightning. It is believed that ice formation within a cloud causes positive and negative charge separation, producing a potential difference between the Earth and the lower cloud portion, leading to a possible electrical discharge. One school of thought proposes that a discharge will occur due to electrostatic induction, under the assumption that charge separation occurs in conjunction with strong updrafts that carry supercooled water droplets upwards, which then collide with ice crystals to form “graupel”, which is a soft ice-water mixture. This results in negative charged graupel and positive charged ice crystals. Updrafts drive the less heavy ice crystals upwards, causing the upper portion of the cloud to attain a positive charge, while gravity causes the heavier negatively charged graupel to fall to lower portions of the cloud, building up a negative charge. The process of charge separation and accumulation continues until the electrical potential becomes strong enough to initiate a lightning discharge.¹ Another school of thought asserts that droplets of ice and rain become electrically polarized as they fall through the Earth’s natural electric field and the colliding ice particles become charged by electrostatic induction. There are many other influencing factors cited in the literature, such as humidity, pressure, solar induced activity, gamma ray bursts (leading to ionization of air molecules), volcanic dust, intense forest fires, etc. Detailed discussions can be found in Rakov and Uman [1], Demirkol et al. [2], Uman [3], Fishman et al. [4], Inan et al. [5] and Inan and Inan [6]. The physics of lightning is virtually identical to

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¹ Lightning travels between 2×10^5 – 10^6 m/s with an average current between 100 and 200 amperes and a peak of 1000–2000 amperes. For comparison purposes, a light bulb operates at one ampere, while a typical electrical socket operates at 15 amperes.



Fig. 1 Pictures of various discharge scenarios from natural causes (lightning). Photos available courtesy of the public domain site <https://pixabay.com/en/lightning-storm-weather-sky-399853/> and <https://pixabay.com/en/ashes-thunderstorm-electricity-500447/>

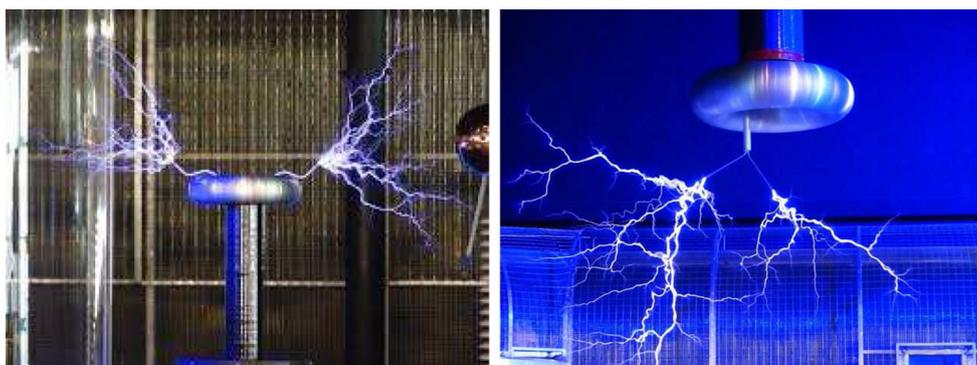


Fig. 2 Pictures of various discharge scenarios from Tesla coils. Photo available courtesy of the public domain site <https://pixabay.com/en/flash-tesla-coil-experiment-113310/> and <https://pixabay.com/en/flash-tesla-coil-experiment-113302/>

electrical discharges in high-voltage electromachinery. The understanding of discharge trajectories is critical to end-corona insulation (protection) systems, in order to mitigate harmful electrical discharges. See for example, Staubach et al. [7–10], Mcdermid [11], Merouchi et al. [12, 13], Schmerling et al. [14], Weida et al. [15], Day et al. [16], Kogan et al. [17], Liu and Xu [18], Taylor [19], Krcpal and Kuerov [20], Sumereder et al. [21], Hudon and Rehder [22], Abdel-Salam and Shamloul [23], Litinsky et al. [24], Guastavino et al. [25], Ou and Techaumnat [26], Bouhaouche et al. [27], Nazir and Phung [28], Zohdi [29–33]. Another related application is the development of precisely-controlled electrical ignition systems for ultra lean fuels such as ethanol (see Azevedo et al. [34] and Schwartz [35]). Recent advancements in the real time adjustment controls for in-situ ignition systems is becoming viable. Such approaches are important for further development of next-generation Compression Ignition Direct Injection (CIDI) and Homogeneous Charge Compression Ignition (HCCI) engines. Such systems can lead to improved efficiency by igniting ultra lean fuels at low temperatures, where standard compression engines are limited and misfiring can occur. We refer the interested reader to Ikeda et al. [36, 37], Leipold et al. [38], Phelps [39], Aleiferis et al. [40], Johansson [41], Kogoma [42], Phuoc [43, 44], Morsy et al.

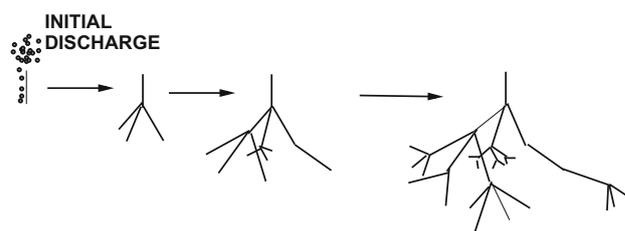


Fig. 3 Growth of branches from an initial discharge branch

[45, 46], Ma et al. [47, 48], Mohamed et al. [49], Weinberg and Wilson [50], Dale et al. [51], Ronney [52], Beduneau et al. [53], Chen and Lewis [54], Kim et al. [55], Ombrello and Ju [56], Mintousov et al. [57], Korolev and Matveev [58], Esakov et al. [59], Linkenheil et al. [60, 61], Kawahara et al. [62], Mehresh et al. [63], Bogin et al. [64] and Prager et al. [65]. A further understanding of what influences the propagation of electrical discharges in all of the mentioned applications is important.

To a large degree, the discharge trajectory propagation is influenced by microscale events that transpire at the discharge front, where a charge buildup occurs and then “plows” through the gas, producing many branches, due to the disordered random nature of such media. The branching pathways

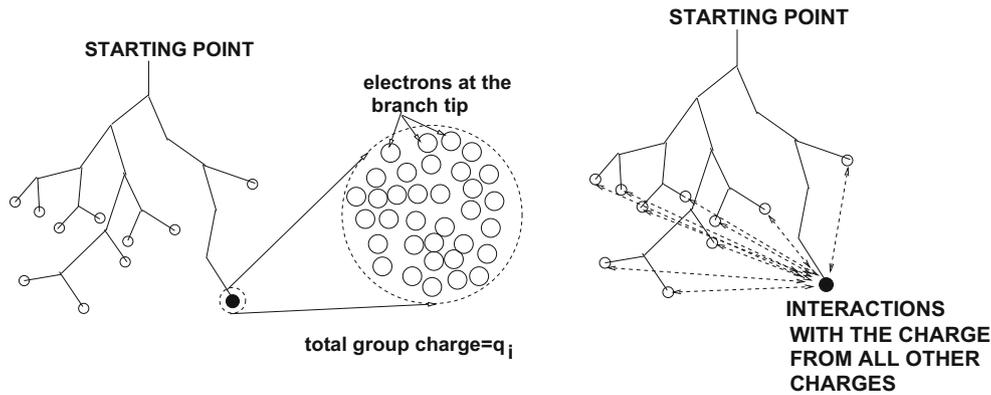


Fig. 4 Interaction of a branch endpoint with all others at an instant in time. All other charges also experience interactions with all other endpoints in a similar manner, as well as with external sources

that the discharge may take are in part determined by *dielectric breakdown* whereby, for sufficiently strong electrical fields, an initially poorly conducting gaseous medium can become an extremely good conductor. The process initiates from a sufficiently strong charge build-up which can accelerate free electrons that are present in a gas until they attain high enough energies to dislodge other electrons in initially neutral gas molecules. The process then repeats itself in a chain-reaction-like manner that results in the evolution of multiple pathways (branches). The investigation of dielectric breakdown dates back at least to Townsend [66], with detailed discussions found in, for example, Inan and Inan [6]. *In this work we do not focus on the discharge origin, but concentrate on developing a sufficiently flexible computational model to describe discharge trajectory and branching* (Fig. 3).

2 Governing equations

We consider an instant in time t when $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$ branch endpoints exist, each containing a charge q_i with a mass m_i . The dynamics of the endpoint of each branch, where each charge has built up, is governed by the basic equation of electrodynamics (Fig. 4)²

$$m_i \dot{v}_i = q_i \left(\mathbf{E}^{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i) + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N \mathbf{E}_j(\mathbf{r}_i) \right), \tag{2.1}$$

where \mathbf{r}_i is the location of the branch endpoint, v_i is the velocity of the discharge and $\mathbf{E}^{ext}(\mathbf{r}_i)$ is the external ambient electric field of the environment acting at the point \mathbf{r}_i and $\mathbf{E}_j(\mathbf{r}_i)$ is the electric field induced by branch tip j on branch tip i . We assume that the mass and charge of each

branch is concentrated at the endpoint where the build up occurs via dielectric breakdown, and that any other induced electric fields are due to the charges in the other branches and external sources (power sources, Earth, etc), all of which will be superposed to produce the righthand side of Eq. 2.1.

3 Electric fields due to surrounding branches

Consider an electric field generated by the j th branch (Fig. 4), where the entire charge of that branch is aggregated as a point source at the end of the branch (during dielectric breakdown buildup phase), governed by Gauss’ law (A and V being the surface area and volume encompassing the charge):

$$\underbrace{\int_A \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA}_{= \epsilon E 4\pi ||\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j||^2} = \int_V Q dV = q_j, \tag{3.1}$$

where \mathbf{D} is the electric field flux, ϵ is the atmospheric electric permittivity, \mathbf{E} is the electric field ($||\mathbf{E}|| = E$), Q is the charge per unit volume, q_j is the total charge in the j th branch, leading to

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q_j}{4\pi\epsilon ||\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j||^2} \mathbf{n}_j, \tag{3.2}$$

where \mathbf{n}_j is the normal-outward unit vector and $||\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_j||$ is the distance from the j th branch point source to any point in the system (\mathbf{r}). Branch-to-branch interaction has a tendency, because of the like charges in branches, to spread out the branches.

4 Trajectory cone

We refer to the branches that will grow from the tip of a branch as “subbranches”. The forward momentum of the

² We ignore magnetic fields.

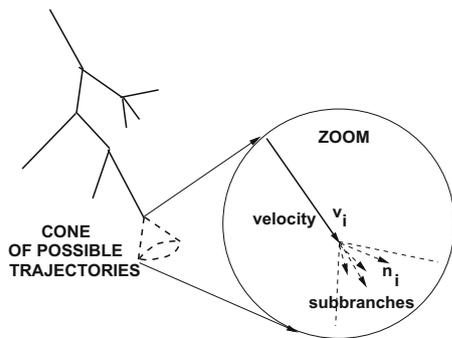


Fig. 5 Cone of feasible subbranch trajectories

charge (Eq. 2.1) in a branch biases the directions of the subbranches that are feasible at a tip. In order to take this into account, we adopt the following cone-like constraint (Fig. 5):

$$\frac{v_i}{\|v_i\|} \cdot n_i \geq tol, \tag{4.1}$$

where $\frac{v_i}{\|v_i\|}$ is the previous direction of the branch, n_i is a possible direction of a subbranch, and $-1 \leq tol \leq 1$. A high positive value of “tol” indicates that the new branch direction is highly aligned with the previous main branch direction, while negative values indicate the branch could move backwards.

Remark Algorithmically, the number of subbranches that arise at a tip is determined by multiplying the charge by a random number between 0 and 1. A random path is also generated, within the feasible cone of trajectories, and the charge is assigned to that random path. This produces one subbranch. The process is then repeated for the remainder of that charge charge in that tip (producing more subbranches) until the charge remaining is depleted. This is done at each tip.

5 Algorithm

The algorithm is as follows (after setting the initial total discharge):

1. For each branch, the compute electric field from external sources and other surrounding branches.
2. For each branch, compute discharge “subbranches” by creating a random set of subbranches at the branch tip and distributing the branch charge among them, within the feasible trajectory cone.
3. For each branch, compute the trajectory of each new subbranch (velocity and position) by numerically solving Equation 2.1:

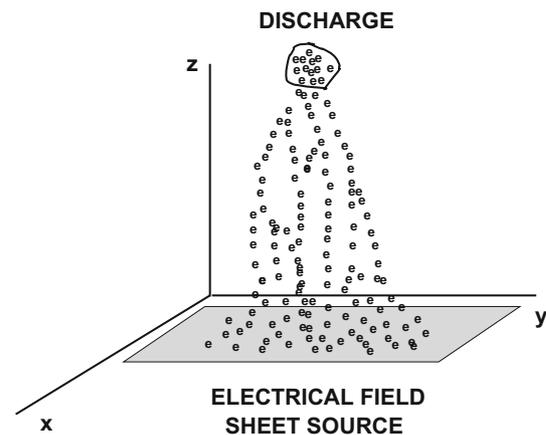


Fig. 6 Example of a sheet-source term

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{v}_k &\approx \frac{v_k(t + \Delta t) - v_k(t)}{\Delta t} \\ &= \frac{q_k}{m_k} \left(E^{ext}(t) + \sum_{j=1, j \neq k}^N E_j(r_k(t)) \right), \end{aligned} \tag{5.1}$$

yielding the following update formula

$$\begin{aligned} v_k(t + \Delta t) &= v_k(t) + \frac{q_k \Delta t}{m_k} \\ &\times \left(E^{ext}(t) + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N E_j(r_k(t)) \right), \end{aligned} \tag{5.2}$$

and for the position, $\dot{r}_k = v_k$, we have

$$r_k(t + \Delta t) = r_k(t) + \Delta t v_k(t). \tag{5.3}$$

4. Increment time forward and repeat the procedure.

Remark 1 To the knowledge of the author, there are no such models of this phenomena in the literature, which has extensively been studied in the preparation of this publication.

Remark 2 It the upcoming simulations, the simulations were run with extremely time-steps, then repeatedly re-run with even finer time steps until there were negligible changes between refinements. The time-step size threshold that met this criteria, for all of the simulations, was adopted. Therefore, the simulations can be essentially free of numerical error. Because of the relatively simple structure of the equations, the simulations were all run of a Mac Powerbook Laptop in a matter of seconds, thus making the model ideal for parameter studies.

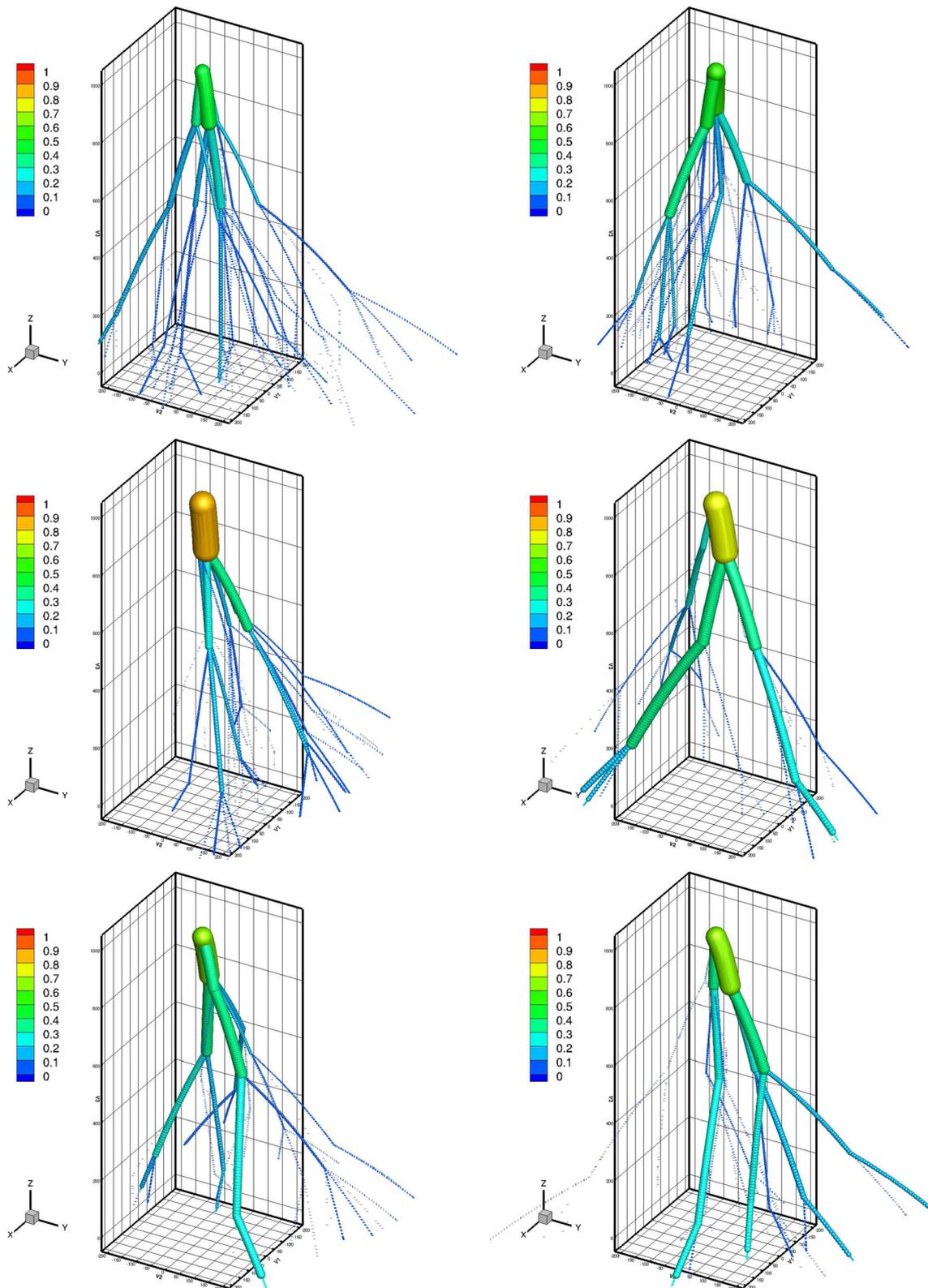


Fig. 7 Six different realizations of branches for a discharge of $q_D = -10^{-3}$ C and flat surface charge of $q_A = 10^{-1}$ C. The *color scale* indicates the magnitude of the charge relative to the original total discharge magnitude, as well as the charge-size-dependent spherical markers. (Color figure online)

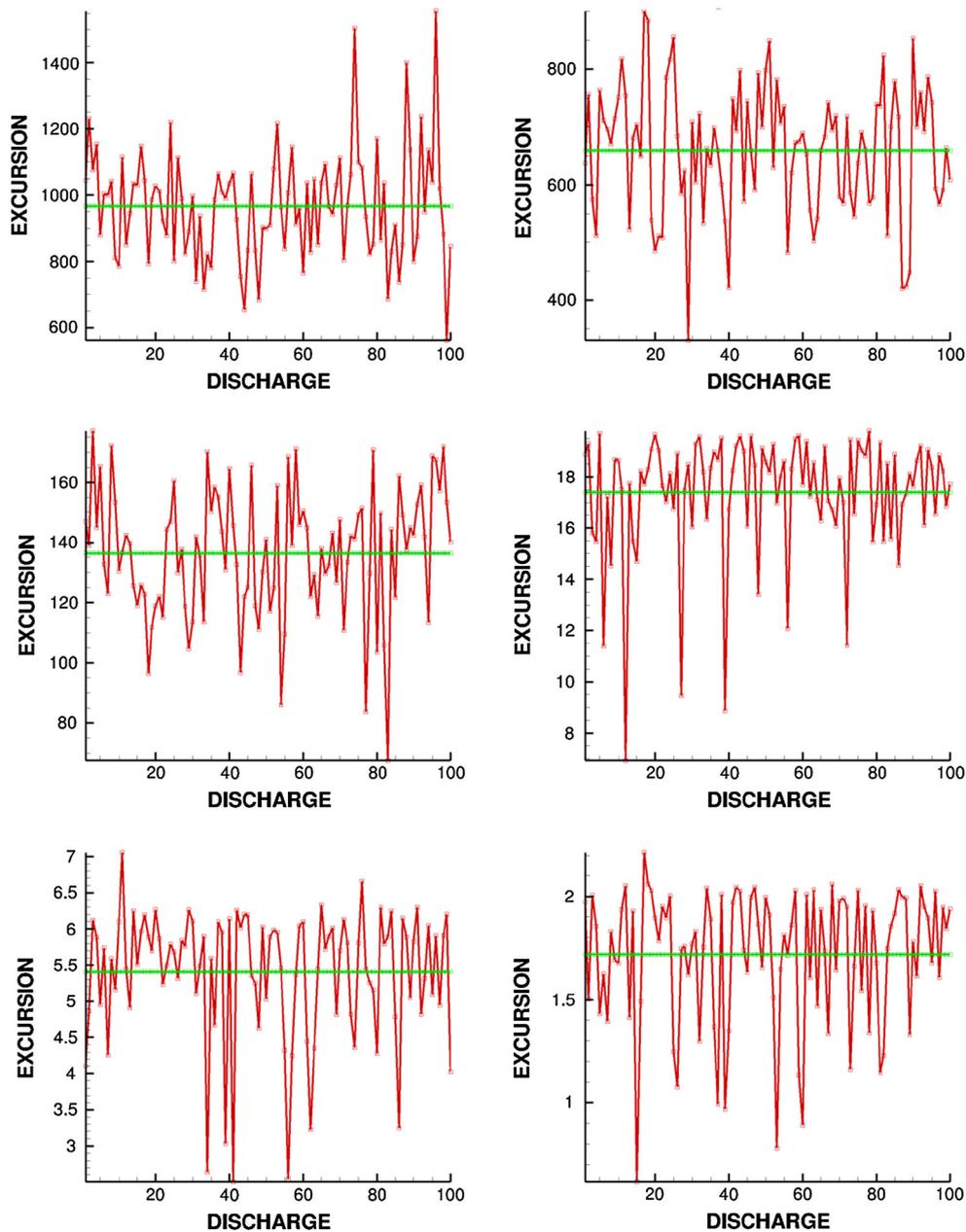


Fig. 8 Maximum excursion from z-axis (\mathcal{R}) for 100 discharges (random pathway realizations) with the sheet charge varied: $q_A = 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1, 10, 10^2, 10^3$ C and $q_D = -10^{-3}$ C. The horizontal line is the average. The initial discharge is the same for all of the scenarios

6 Model problem: discharge interaction with an external charged infinite sheet source

As a model problem, we employ a simple external electric field. Accordingly, consider an external electric field generated by infinite flat sheet source, governed by Gauss’ law (Fig. 6):

$$\underbrace{\int_A \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA}_{= \epsilon E 2A} = \int_V Q dV = \int_A Q_A dA = q_A A, \quad (6.1)$$

where q_A is the charge per unit surface area, leading to

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q_A}{2\epsilon} \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{E}^{ext}, \quad (6.2)$$

where \mathbf{n} is the normal-outward unit vector from the flat plane.³

³ All electric fields ($(\mathbf{E}^{ext}(t) + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N \mathbf{E}_j(\mathbf{r}_i(t)))$) are superposed to produce the righthand side “load” in Eq. 2.1.

6.1 Parameter selection

As an example, for a parameter set (below), 100 realizations were simulated, with the same starting conditions, but different feasible random pathways. *The system parameters were chosen for illustration purposes, and were not intended to simulate a specific natural or industrial scenario:*⁴

- The starting location of the discharge: $\mathbf{r}(t = 0) = (0, 0, 10^3)$ m,
- The external field location for a flat sheet: $\mathbf{r}_E = (0, 0, 0)$ m as in Fig. 7,
- Initial total system discharge: $q_D = -10^{-3}$ C.
- Sheet charge, varied: $q_A = 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, 1, 10, 10^2, 10^3$ C or in nondimensional form $\frac{q_A}{|q_D|} = 10, 10^2, 10^3, 10^4, 10^5, 10^6$.
- The initial velocity of the discharge: $\mathbf{v}(t = 0) = (0, 0, -2 \times 10^5)$ m/s.
- The permittivity of the atmosphere: $\epsilon = 1.00059 \times \epsilon_o$, where $\epsilon_o = 8.8541878176 \times 10^{-12}$ F/m.
- The time-step size: $\Delta t = \frac{0.1}{\|\mathbf{v}(t=0)\|}$.
- The cone tolerance (for Eq. 4.1): $tol = 0.85$.

6.2 Discharge statistics

The frames in Fig. 7 illustrate the variation in branching for $N = 100$ random realizations, for each level of q_A . A relevant quantity is the radius of the circle (\mathcal{R}) that encompasses all of the branch strikes on the flat surface ($z = 0$). Specifically, we define the excursion (\mathcal{R}) away from the z-axis via

$$\mathcal{R} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max \sqrt{r_x^2 + r_y^2}, \tag{6.3}$$

where r_x and r_y are the maximum deviations in the x and y directions from the vertical (z axis). Statistically, the results in Fig. 8 can be described by computing the average (\mathcal{A})

$$\mathcal{A} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{R}_i \tag{6.4}$$

and standard deviation (\mathcal{S})

$$\mathcal{S} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\mathcal{R}_i - \mathcal{A})^2}. \tag{6.5}$$

Table 1 provides information on the excursion’s dependence on the flat source charge magnitude. Clearly, the

⁴ We set the number of potential chances to branch along a pathway to 20. The total discharge mass was set to $m_D = 10^{-2}$ kg which represents all of the system mass (the charged electronic gas).

Table 1 The statistics as a function of q_A for $q_D = -10^{-3}$ C

Surface charge: q_A	Ratio: $\frac{q_A}{ q_D }$	Mean: \mathcal{A}	SD: \mathcal{S}
10^{-2}	10	967.755	165.052
10^{-1}	10^2	658.985	111.670
1	10^3	136.393	21.226
10	10^4	17.394	2.352
10^2	10^5	5.406	0.891
10^3	10^6	1.719	0.326

excursion decreases with the strength of the flat source electric field, which is dictated by q_A (see Figs. 7, 8). As the external (attractive) electric field increases, the magnitude of stochastic nature of the branching diminishes. For this model problem, this occurs for a ratio approximately $q_A/|q_D| \approx 10^3 \text{ m}^{-2}$. Of course, for other system settings, this threshold would be different. All simulations were run on a standard laptop with a code written by the author.

7 Summary

In summary, a simple computational model and simulation framework was developed to describe the propagation and branching of electrical discharges in gaseous atmospheres. The framework allows analysts to rapidly simulate thousands of electrical discharge scenarios, in order to explore which parameters significantly affect the system behavior. The model is easy to encode and allows analysts to conduct numerous statistical sensitivity studies. As indicated, the algorithm is based physically on *dielectric breakdown*. Essentially, the charges at a branch tip build up and then plow through the atmosphere, resulting in multiple new pathways. In the case of natural atmospheric discharges (lightning), Earth-generated electrical field distributions can be found in Volland [67], Markson [68], MacGorman and Rust [69], Uman [70] and Rakov and Uman [1]. Measurements of local variations in relevant atmospheric property data can be found in, for example, Bering et al. [71], Holzworth et al. [72], Pinto et al. [73], Hu et al. [74]. Also, of course, there are many industrially relevant machinery-generated external electric fields possible, such as:

- **An electric field due to charged external point source** (Fig. 9), which is governed by Gauss’ law:

$$\underbrace{\int_A \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA}_{= \epsilon E 4\pi \|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\|^2} = \int_V Q dV = q_p \Rightarrow \mathbf{E} = \frac{q_p}{4\pi\epsilon \|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\|^2} \mathbf{n}, \tag{7.1}$$

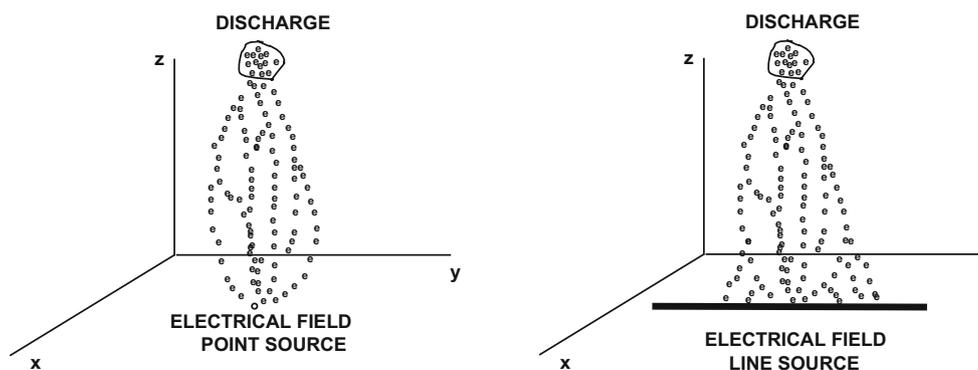


Fig. 9 *Left* Example of a point-source term. *Right* Example of a line-source term

where q_p is the charge at a point, \mathbf{n} is the normal-outward unit vector and $\|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\|$ is the distance from the point source.

- **An electric field due to a charged external conductive wire source** (Fig. 9), idealized by an (extremely thin cylinder) source, governed by Gauss' law:

$$\underbrace{\int_A \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA}_{=\epsilon E 2\pi \|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\| L} = \int_V Q dV = \int_L Q_L dL = q_L L$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} = \frac{q_L}{2\pi\epsilon \|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\|} \mathbf{n}, \quad (7.2)$$

where q_L is the charge per unit length, \mathbf{n} is the radially-outward (to the cylinder) unit vector and $\|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_o\|$ the radial distance from the line source.

Of course one can generate more complex fields for other structures numerically, for example using Finite Difference Time Domain Methods or Finite Element Methods. Generally speaking, the specific directions subbranches of the local branching pathways are somewhat random, due to the interaction with the surrounding gaseous atmosphere, with influence coming from the ambient electrical field of the environment. More detailed simulation of ion and electron flows, taking into account all of the charged species which comprise a branch, would require billions or trillions of interacting degrees of freedom, which is computationally intractable for practical use. Thus, so-called multiscale approaches, which utilize simplified models, such as the model presented in this paper, for the bulk of the calculations, but detailed models for ion and electron interaction and dielectric breakdown models at the branch front tip are a viable way forward. Large-scale particle interaction models have been extensively studied, other types of particulate systems, in Onate et al. [75–77], Rojek et al. [78], Carbonell et al. [79], Labra and Onate [80], Leonardi et al. [81], Cante et al. [82], Rojek [83], Bolintineanu et al. [84], Avci and Wriggers [85] and Zohdi

[29–33, 86–93] and is a topic of current investigation by the author.

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