



# Standard Test Methods for DC Resistance or Conductance of Insulating Materials<sup>1</sup>

This standard is issued under the fixed designation D257; the number immediately following the designation indicates the year of original adoption or, in the case of revision, the year of last revision. A number in parentheses indicates the year of last reapproval. A superscript epsilon ( $\epsilon$ ) indicates an editorial change since the last revision or reapproval.

*This standard has been approved for use by agencies of the Department of Defense.*

## 1. Scope\*

1.1 These test methods cover direct-current procedures for the measurement of dc insulation resistance, volume resistance, and surface resistance. From such measurements and the geometric dimensions of specimen and electrodes, both volume and surface resistivity of electrical insulating materials can be calculated, as well as the corresponding conductances and conductivities.

1.2 These test methods are not suitable for use in measuring the electrical resistance/conductance of moderately conductive materials. Use Test Method D4496 to evaluate such materials.

1.3 This standard describes several general alternative methodologies for measuring resistance (or conductance). Specific materials can be tested most appropriately by using standard ASTM test methods applicable to the specific material that define both voltage stress limits and finite electrification times as well as specimen configuration and electrode geometry. These individual specific test methodologies would be better able to define the precision and bias for the determination.

1.4 The procedures appear in the following sections:

Test Method or Procedure	Section
Calculation	13
Choice of Apparatus and Test Method	7
Cleaning Solid Specimens	10.1
Conditioning of Specimens	11
Effective Area of Guarded Electrode	Appendix X2
Electrode Systems	6
Factors Affecting Insulation Resistance or Conductance Measurements	Appendix X1
Humidity Control	11.2
Liquid Specimens and Cells	9.4
Precision and Bias	15
Procedure for the Measurement of Resistance or Conductance	12
Referenced Documents	2
Report	14
Sampling	8
Significance and Use	5
Specimen Mounting	10

Summary of Test Methods	4
Terminology	3
Test Specimens for Insulation, Volume, and Surface Resistance or Conductance Determination	9
Typical Measurement Methods	Appendix X3

1.5 *This standard does not purport to address all of the safety concerns, if any, associated with its use. It is the responsibility of the user of this standard to establish appropriate safety and health practices and determine the applicability of regulatory limitations prior to use.*

## 2. Referenced Documents

### 2.1 ASTM Standards:<sup>2</sup>

- D150 Test Methods for AC Loss Characteristics and Permittivity (Dielectric Constant) of Solid Electrical Insulation
- D374 Test Methods for Thickness of Solid Electrical Insulation
- D1169 Test Method for Specific Resistance (Resistivity) of Electrical Insulating Liquids
- D1711 Terminology Relating to Electrical Insulation
- D4496 Test Method for D-C Resistance or Conductance of Moderately Conductive Materials
- D5032 Practice for Maintaining Constant Relative Humidity by Means of Aqueous Glycerin Solutions
- D6054 Practice for Conditioning Electrical Insulating Materials for Testing
- E104 Practice for Maintaining Constant Relative Humidity by Means of Aqueous Solutions

## 3. Terminology

3.1 *Definitions*—The following definitions are taken from Terminology D1711 and apply to the terms used in the text of this standard.

3.1.1 *conductance, insulation, n*—the ratio of the total volume and surface current between two electrodes (on or in a specimen) to the dc voltage applied to the two electrodes.

3.1.1.1 *Discussion*—Insulation conductance is the reciprocal of insulation resistance.

<sup>1</sup> These test methods are under the jurisdiction of ASTM Committee D09 on Electrical and Electronic Insulating Materials and are the direct responsibility of Subcommittee D09.12 on Electrical Tests.

Current edition approved May 15, 2007. Published June 2007. Originally approved in 1925. Last previous edition approved in 2005 as D257 – 99(2005). DOI: 10.1520/D0257-07.

<sup>2</sup> For referenced ASTM standards, visit the ASTM website, www.astm.org, or contact ASTM Customer Service at service@astm.org. For *Annual Book of ASTM Standards* volume information, refer to the standard's Document Summary page on the ASTM website.

\*A Summary of Changes section appears at the end of this standard.

3.1.2 *conductance, surface,  $n$* —the ratio of the current between two electrodes (on the surface of a specimen) to the dc voltage applied to the electrodes.

3.1.2.1 *Discussion*—(Some volume conductance is unavoidably included in the actual measurement.) Surface conductance is the reciprocal of surface resistance.

3.1.3 *conductance, volume,  $n$* —the ratio of the current in the volume of a specimen between two electrodes (on or in the specimen) to the dc voltage applied to the two electrodes.

3.1.3.1 *Discussion*—Volume conductance is the reciprocal of volume resistance.

3.1.4 *conductivity, surface,  $n$* —the surface conductance multiplied by that ratio of specimen surface dimensions (distance between electrodes divided by the width of electrodes defining the current path) which transforms the measured conductance to that obtained if the electrodes had formed the opposite sides of a square.

3.1.4.1 *Discussion*—Surface conductivity is expressed in siemens. It is popularly expressed as siemens/square (the size of the square is immaterial). Surface conductivity is the reciprocal of surface resistivity.

3.1.5 *conductivity, volume,  $n$* —the volume conductance multiplied by that ratio of specimen volume dimensions (distance between electrodes divided by the cross-sectional area of the electrodes) which transforms the measured conductance to that conductance obtained if the electrodes had formed the opposite sides of a unit cube.

3.1.5.1 *Discussion*—Volume conductivity is usually expressed in siemens/centimetre or in siemens/metre and is the reciprocal of volume resistivity.

3.1.6 *moderately conductive, adj*—describes a solid material having a volume resistivity between 1 and 10 000 000  $\Omega$ -cm.

3.1.7 *resistance, insulation, ( $R_i$ ),  $n$* —the ratio of the dc voltage applied to two electrodes (on or in a specimen) to the total volume and surface current between them.

3.1.7.1 *Discussion*—Insulation resistance is the reciprocal of insulation conductance.

3.1.8 *resistance, surface, ( $R_s$ ),  $n$* —the ratio of the dc voltage applied to two electrodes (on the surface of a specimen) to the current between them.

3.1.8.1 *Discussion*—(Some volume resistance is unavoidably included in the actual measurement.) Surface resistance is the reciprocal of surface conductance.

3.1.9 *resistance, volume, ( $R_v$ ),  $n$* —the ratio of the dc voltage applied to two electrodes (on or in a specimen) to the current in the volume of the specimen between the electrodes.

3.1.9.1 *Discussion*—Volume resistance is the reciprocal of volume conductance.

3.1.10 *resistivity, surface, ( $\rho_s$ ),  $n$* —the surface resistance multiplied by that ratio of specimen surface dimensions (width of electrodes defining the current path divided by the distance between electrodes) which transforms the measured resistance to that obtained if the electrodes had formed the opposite sides of a square.

3.1.10.1 *Discussion*—Surface resistivity is expressed in ohms. It is popularly expressed also as ohms/square (the size of the square is immaterial). Surface resistivity is the reciprocal of surface conductivity.

3.1.11 *resistivity, volume, ( $\rho_v$ ),  $n$* —the volume resistance multiplied by that ratio of specimen volume dimensions (cross-sectional area of the specimen between the electrodes divided by the distance between electrodes) which transforms the measured resistance to that resistance obtained if the electrodes had formed the opposite sides of a unit cube.

3.1.11.1 *Discussion*—Volume resistivity is usually expressed in ohm-centimetres (preferred) or in ohm-metres. Volume resistivity is the reciprocal of volume conductivity.

## 4. Summary of Test Methods

4.1 The resistance or conductance of a material specimen or of a capacitor is determined from a measurement of current or of voltage drop under specified conditions. By using the appropriate electrode systems, surface and volume resistance or conductance may be measured separately. The resistivity or conductivity can then be calculated when the required specimen and electrode dimensions are known.

## 5. Significance and Use

5.1 Insulating materials are used to isolate components of an electrical system from each other and from ground, as well as to provide mechanical support for the components. For this purpose, it is generally desirable to have the insulation resistance as high as possible, consistent with acceptable mechanical, chemical, and heat-resisting properties. Since insulation resistance or conductance combines both volume and surface resistance or conductance, its measured value is most useful when the test specimen and electrodes have the same form as is required in actual use. Surface resistance or conductance changes rapidly with humidity, while volume resistance or conductance changes slowly although the final change may eventually be greater.

5.2 Resistivity or conductivity may be used to predict, indirectly, the low-frequency dielectric breakdown and dissipation factor properties of some materials. Resistivity or conductivity is often used as an indirect measure of: moisture content, degree of cure, mechanical continuity, or deterioration of various types. The usefulness of these indirect measurements is dependent on the degree of correlation established by supporting theoretical or experimental investigations. A decrease of surface resistance may result either in an increase of the dielectric breakdown voltage because the electric field intensity is reduced, or a decrease of the dielectric breakdown voltage because the area under stress is increased.

5.3 All the dielectric resistances or conductances depend on the length of time of electrification and on the value of applied voltage (in addition to the usual environmental variables). These must be known and reported to make the measured value of resistance or conductance meaningful. Within the electrical insulation materials industry, the adjective “apparent” is generally applied to resistivity values obtained under conditions of arbitrarily selected electrification time. See X1.4.

5.4 Volume resistivity or conductivity can be calculated from resistance and dimensional data for use as an aid in

designing an insulator for a specific application. The change of resistivity or conductivity with temperature and humidity may be great (1, 2, 3, 4),<sup>3</sup> and must be known when designing for operating conditions. Volume resistivity or conductivity determinations are often used in checking the uniformity of an insulating material, either with regard to processing or to detect conductive impurities that affect the quality of the material and that may not be readily detectable by other methods.

5.5 Volume resistivities above  $10^{21} \Omega\text{-cm}$  ( $10^{19} \Omega\text{-m}$ ), calculated from data obtained on specimens tested under usual laboratory conditions, are of doubtful validity, considering the limitations of commonly used measuring equipment.

5.6 Surface resistance or conductance cannot be measured accurately, only approximated, because some degree of volume resistance or conductance is always involved in the measurement. The measured value is also affected by the surface contamination. Surface contamination, and its rate of accumulation, is affected by many factors including electrostatic charging and interfacial tension. These, in turn, may affect the surface resistivity. Surface resistivity or conductivity can be considered to be related to material properties when contamination is involved but is not a material property of electrical insulation material in the usual sense.

## 6. Electrode Systems

6.1 The electrodes for insulating materials should be of a material that is readily applied, allows intimate contact with the specimen surface, and introduces no appreciable error because of electrode resistance or contamination of the specimen (5). The electrode material should be corrosion-resistant under the conditions of test. For tests of fabricated specimens such as feed-through bushings, cables, etc., the electrodes employed are a part of the specimen or its mounting. Measurements of insulation resistance or conductance, then, include the contaminating effects of electrode or mounting materials and are generally related to the performance of the specimen in actual use.

6.1.1 *Binding-Post and Taper-Pin Electrodes*, Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, provide a means of applying voltage to rigid insulating materials to permit an evaluation of their resistive or conductive properties. These electrodes simulate to some degree the actual conditions of use, such as binding posts on instrument panels and terminal strips. In the case of laminated insulating materials having high-resin-content surfaces, somewhat lower insulation resistance values may be obtained with taper-pin than with binding posts, due to more intimate contact with the body of the insulating material. Resistance or conductance values obtained are highly influenced by the individual contact between each pin and the dielectric material, the surface roughness of the pins, and the smoothness of the hole in the dielectric material. Reproducibility of results on different specimens is difficult to obtain.

<sup>3</sup> The boldface numbers in parentheses refer to the list of references appended to these test methods.

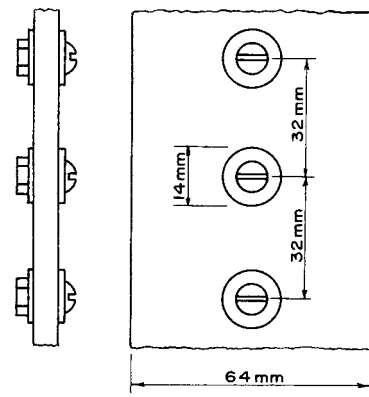
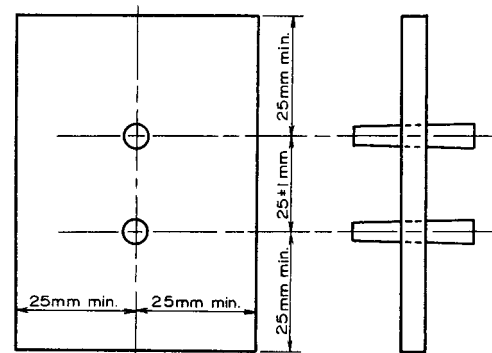
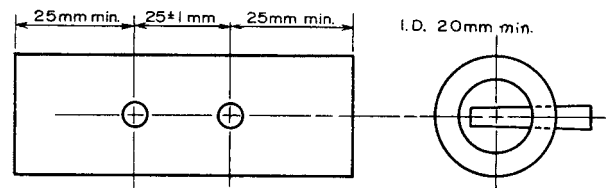


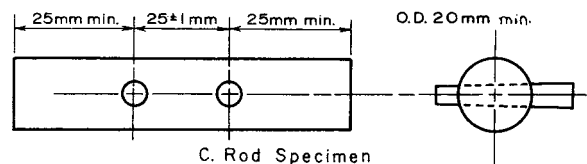
FIG. 1 Binding-Post Electrodes for Flat, Solid Specimens



A. Plate Specimen



B. Tube Specimen



C. Rod Specimen

Use Pratt & Whitney No.3 Taper Pins

FIG. 2 Taper-Pin Electrodes

6.1.2 *Metal Bars* in the arrangement of Fig. 3 were primarily devised to evaluate the insulation resistance or conductance of flexible tapes and thin, solid specimens as a fairly simple and convenient means of electrical quality control. This arrangement is somewhat more satisfactory for obtaining approximate values of surface resistance or conductance when the width of the insulating material is much greater than its thickness.

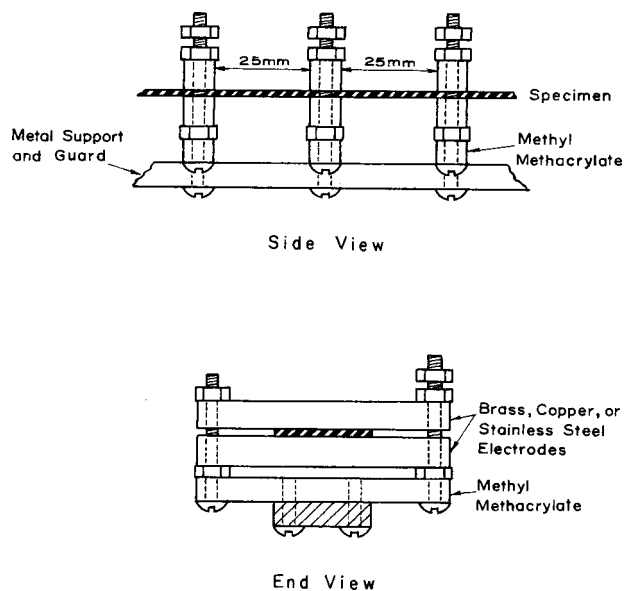


FIG. 3 Strip Electrodes for Tapes and Flat, Solid Specimens

6.1.3 *Silver Paint*, Fig. 4, Fig. 5, and Fig. 6, is available commercially with a high conductivity, either air-drying or low-temperature-baking varieties, which are sufficiently porous to permit diffusion of moisture through them and thereby allow the test specimen to be conditioned after the application of the electrodes. This is a particularly useful feature in studying resistance-humidity effects, as well as change with temperature. However, before conductive paint is used as an electrode material, it should be established that the solvent in the paint does not attack the material so as to change its

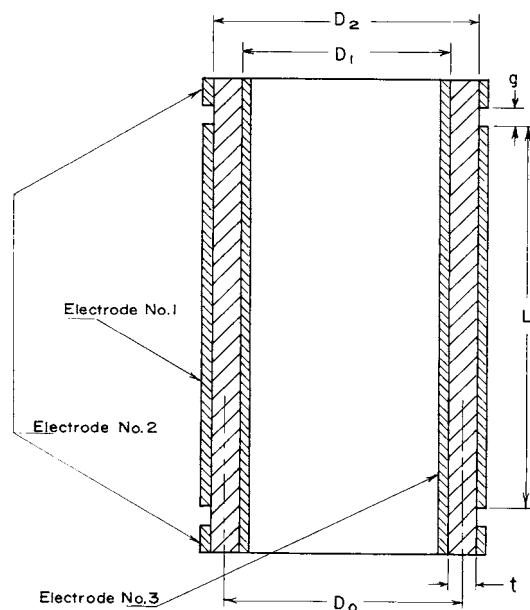


FIG. 5 Tubular Specimen for Measuring Volume and Surface Resistances or Conductances

electrical properties. Reasonably smooth edges of guard electrodes may be obtained with a fine-bristle brush. However, for circular electrodes, sharper edges can be obtained by the use of a ruling compass and silver paint for drawing the outline circles of the electrodes and filling in the enclosed areas by brush. A narrow strip of masking tape may be used, provided the pressure-sensitive adhesive used does not contaminate the surface of the specimen. Clamp-on masks also may be used if the electrode paint is sprayed on.

6.1.4 *Sprayed Metal*, Fig. 4, Fig. 5, and Fig. 6, may be used if satisfactory adhesion to the test specimen can be obtained. Thin sprayed electrodes may have certain advantages in that they are ready for use as soon as applied. They may be sufficiently porous to allow the specimen to be conditioned, but this should be verified. Narrow strips of masking tape or clamp-on masks must be used to produce a gap between the guarded and the guard electrodes. Use a tape that is known not to contaminate the gap surface.

6.1.5 *Evaporated Metal* may be used under the same conditions given in 6.1.4.

6.1.6 *Metal Foil*, Fig. 4, may be applied to specimen surfaces as electrodes. The usual thickness of metal foil used for resistance or conductance studies of dielectrics ranges from 6 to 80  $\mu\text{m}$ . Lead or tin foil is in most common use, and is usually attached to the test specimen by a minimum quantity of petrolatum, silicone grease, oil, or other suitable material, as an adhesive. Such electrodes shall be applied under a smoothing pressure sufficient to eliminate all wrinkles, and to work excess adhesive toward the edge of the foil where it can be wiped off with a cleansing tissue. One very effective method is to use a hard narrow roller (10 to 15 mm wide), and to roll outward on the surface until no visible imprint can be made on the foil with the roller. This technique can be used satisfactorily only on specimens that have very flat surfaces. With care, the adhesive film can be reduced to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . As this film is in series with the

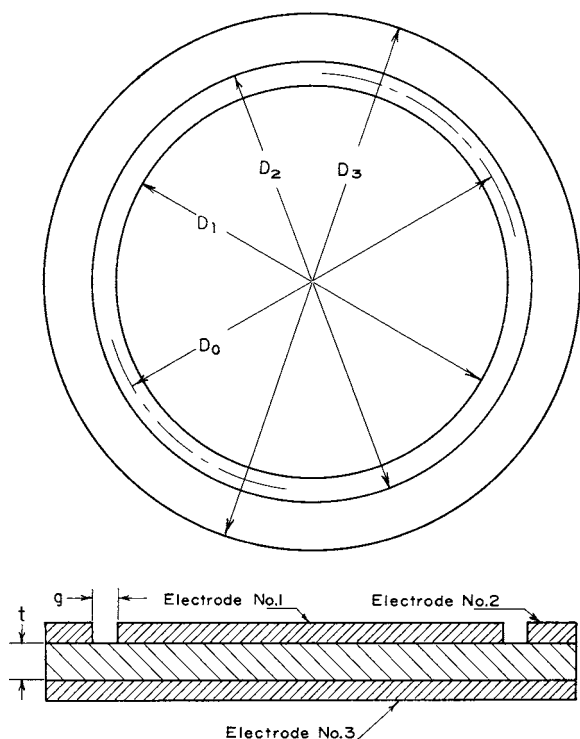
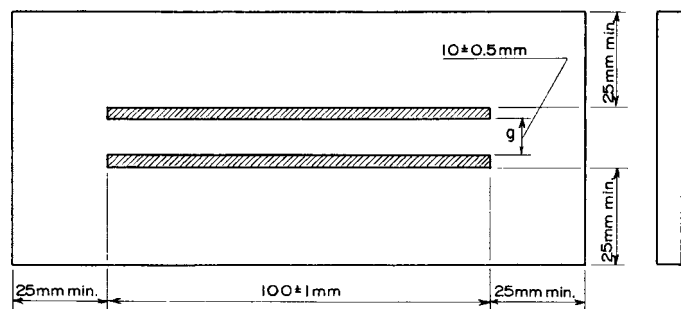
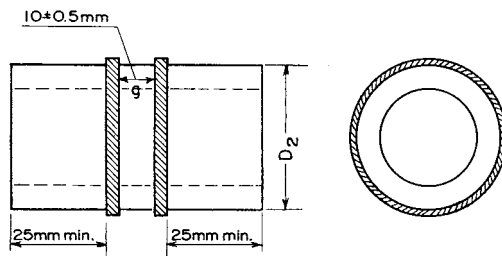


FIG. 4 Flat Specimen for Measuring Volume and Surface Resistances or Conductances



A - Plate Specimen



B - Tube or Rod Specimen

FIG. 6 Conducting-Paint Electrodes

specimen, it will always cause the measured resistance to be too high. This error may become excessive for the lower-resistivity specimens of thickness less than 250  $\mu\text{m}$ . Also the hard roller can force sharp particles into or through thin films (50  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Foil electrodes are not porous and will not allow the test specimen to condition after the electrodes have been applied. The adhesive may lose its effectiveness at elevated temperatures necessitating the use of flat metal back-up plates under pressure. It is possible, with the aid of a suitable cutting device, to cut a proper width strip from one electrode to form a guarded and guard electrode. Such a three-terminal specimen normally cannot be used for surface resistance or conductance measurements because of the grease remaining on the gap surface. It may be very difficult to clean the entire gap surface without disturbing the adjacent edges of the electrode.

6.1.7 *Colloidal Graphite*, Fig. 4, dispersed in water or other suitable vehicle, may be brushed on nonporous, sheet insulating materials to form an air-drying electrode. Masking tapes or clamp-on masks may be used (6.1.4). This electrode material is recommended only if all of the following conditions are met:

6.1.7.1 The material to be tested must accept a graphite coating that will not flake before testing,

6.1.7.2 The material being tested must not absorb water readily, and

6.1.7.3 Conditioning must be in a dry atmosphere (Procedure B, Practice D6054), and measurements made in this same atmosphere.

6.1.8 Liquid metal electrodes give satisfactory results and may prove to be the best method to achieving the contact to the specimen necessary for effective resistance measurements. The liquid metal forming the upper electrodes should be confined by stainless steel rings, each of which should have its lower rim

reduced to a sharp edge by beveling on the side away from the liquid metal. Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 show two possible electrode arrangements.

6.1.9 *Flat Metal Plates*, Fig. 4, (preferably guarded) may be used for testing flexible and compressible materials, both at room temperature and at elevated temperatures. They may be circular or rectangular (for tapes). To ensure intimate contact with the specimen, considerable pressure is usually required.

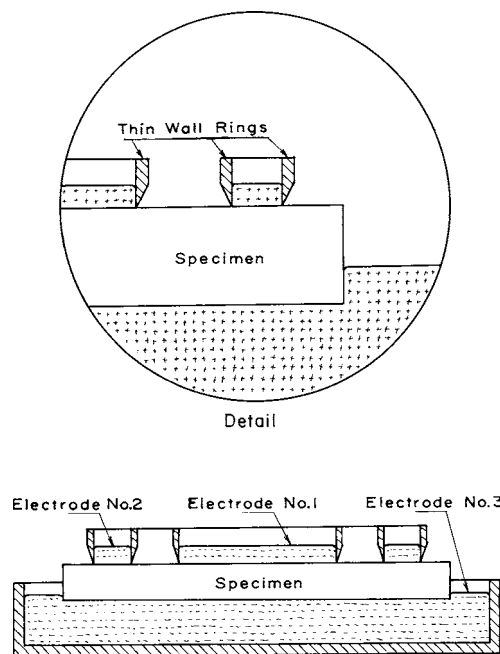


FIG. 7 Liquid Metal Electrodes for Flat, Solid Specimens

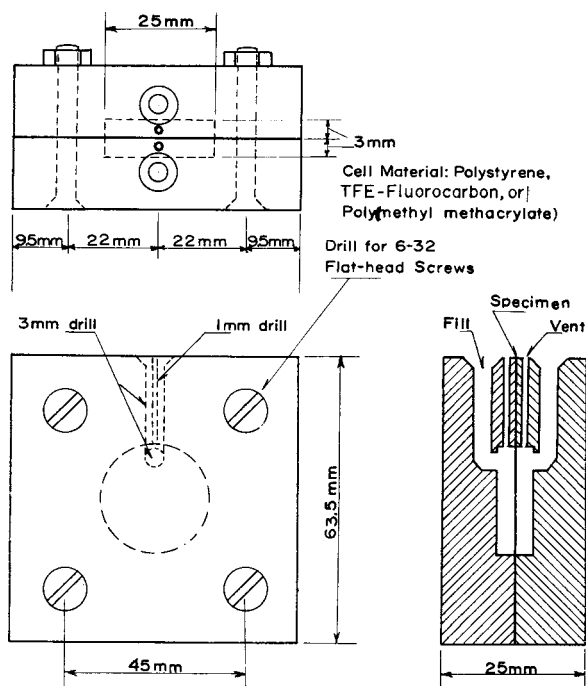


FIG. 8 Liquid Metal Cell for Thin Sheet Material

Pressures of 140 to 700 kPa have been found satisfactory (see material specifications).

6.1.9.1 A variation of flat metal plate electrode systems is found in certain cell designs used to measure greases or filling compounds. Such cells are preassembled and the material to be tested is either added to the cell between fixed electrodes or the electrodes are forced into the material to a predetermined electrode spacing. Because the configuration of the electrodes in these cells is such that the effective electrode area and the distance between them is difficult to measure, each cell constant,  $K$ , (equivalent to the  $A/t$  factor from Table 1) can be derived from the following equation:

$$K = 3.6 \pi C = 11.3 C \quad (1)$$

where:

$K$  has units of centimetres, and

$C$  has units of picofarads and is the capacitance of the electrode system with air as the dielectric. See Test Methods D150 for methods of measurement for  $C$ .

6.1.10 *Conducting Rubber* has been used as electrode material, as in Fig. 4, and has the advantage that it can quickly and easily be applied and removed from the specimen. As the electrodes are applied only during the time of measurement, they do not interfere with the conditioning of the specimen. The conductive-rubber material must be backed by proper plates and be soft enough so that effective contact with the specimen is obtained when a reasonable pressure is applied.

NOTE 1—There is evidence that values of conductivity obtained using conductive-rubber electrodes are always smaller (20 to 70 %) than values obtained with tinfoil electrodes (6). When only order-of-magnitude accuracies are required, and these contact errors can be neglected, a properly designed set of conductive-rubber electrodes can provide a rapid means for making conductivity and resistivity determinations.

6.1.11 *Water* is widely employed as one electrode in testing insulation on wires and cables. Both ends of the specimen must

be out of the water and of such length that leakage along the insulation is negligible. Refer to specific wire and cable test methods for the necessity to use guard at each end of a specimen. For standardization it is desirable to add sodium chloride to the water so as to produce a sodium chloride concentration of 1.0 to 1.1 % NaCl to ensure adequate conductivity. Measurements at temperatures up to about 100 °C have been reported as feasible.

## 7. Choice of Apparatus and Test Method

7.1 *Power Supply*—A source of very steady direct voltage is required (see X1.7.3). Batteries or other stable direct voltage supplies have been proven suitable for use.

7.2 *Guard Circuit*—Whether measuring resistance of an insulating material with two electrodes (no guard) or with a three-terminal system (two electrodes plus guard), consider how the electrical connections are made between the test instrument and the test specimen. If the test specimen is at some distance from the test instrument, or the test specimen is tested under humid conditions, or if a relatively high ( $10^{10}$  to  $10^{15}$  ohms) specimen resistance is expected, spurious resistance paths can easily exist between the test instrument and test specimen. A guard circuit is necessary to minimize interference from these spurious paths (see also X1.9).

7.2.1 *With Guard Electrode*—Use coaxial cable, with the core lead to the guarded electrode and the shield to the guard electrode, to make adequate guarded connections between the test equipment and test specimen. Coaxial cable (again with the shield tied back to the guard) for the unguarded lead is not mandatory here (or in 7.2.2), although its use provides some reduction in background noise (see also Fig. 9).

7.2.2 *Without Guard Electrode*—Use coaxial cable, with the core lead to one electrode and the shield terminated about 1 cm from the end of the core lead (see also Fig. 10).

7.3 *Direct Measurements*—The current through a specimen at a fixed voltage is measured using any equipment that has the required sensitivity and accuracy ( $\pm 10$  % is usually adequate). Current-measuring devices available include electrometers, d-c amplifiers with indicating meters, and galvanometers. Typical methods and circuits are given in Appendix X3. When the measuring device scale is calibrated to read ohms directly no calculations are required for resistance measurements.

7.4 *Comparison Methods*—A Wheatstone-bridge circuit may be used to compare the resistance of the specimen with that of a standard resistor (see Appendix X3).

### 7.5 Precision and Bias Considerations:

7.5.1 *General*—As a guide in the choice of apparatus, the pertinent considerations are summarized in Table 2, but it is not implied that the examples enumerated are the only ones applicable. This table is not intended to indicate the limits of sensitivity and error of the various methods *per se*, but rather is intended to indicate limits that are distinctly possible with modern apparatus. In any case, such limits can be achieved or exceeded only through careful selection and combination of the apparatus employed. It must be emphasized, however, that the errors considered are those of instrumentation only. Errors such as those discussed in Appendix X1 are an entirely different matter. In this latter connection, the last column of Table 2 lists the resistance that is shunted by the insulation resistance

**TABLE 1 Calculation of Resistivity or Conductivity<sup>A</sup>**

Type of Electrodes or Specimen	Volume Resistivity, Ω-cm	Volume Conductivity, S/cm	Effective Area of Measuring Electrode
	$\rho_v = \frac{A}{t} R_v$	$\gamma_v = \frac{t}{A} G_v$	
Circular (Fig. 4)	$\rho_v = \frac{A}{t} R_v$	$\gamma_v = \frac{t}{A} G_v$	$A = \frac{\pi(D_1 + g)^2}{4}$
Rectangular	$\rho_v = \frac{A}{t} R_v$	$\gamma_v = \frac{t}{A} G_v$	$A = (a + g)(b + g)$
Square	$\rho_v = \frac{A}{t} R_v$	$\gamma_v = \frac{t}{A} G_v$	$A = (a + g)^2$
Tubes (Fig. 5)	$\rho_v = \frac{A}{t} R_v$	$\gamma_v = \frac{t}{A} G_v$	$A = \pi D_o(L + g)$
Cables	$\rho_v = \frac{2\pi L R_v}{\ln \frac{D_2}{D_1}}$	$\gamma_v = \frac{\ln \frac{D_2}{D_1}}{2\pi L R_v}$	
	Surface Resistivity, Ω (per square)	Surface Conductivity, S (per square)	Effective Perimeter of Guarded Electrode
	$\rho_s = \frac{P}{g} R_s$	$\gamma_s = \frac{g}{P} G_s$	
Circular (Fig. 4)	$\rho_s = \frac{P}{g} R_s$	$\gamma_s = \frac{g}{P} G_s$	$P = \pi D_o$
Rectangular	$\rho_s = \frac{P}{g} R_s$	$\gamma_s = \frac{g}{P} G_s$	$P = 2(a + b + 2g)$
Square	$\rho_s = \frac{P}{g} R_s$	$\gamma_s = \frac{g}{P} G_s$	$P = 4(a + g)$
Tubes (Figs. 5 and 6)	$\rho_s = \frac{P}{g} R_s$	$\gamma_s = \frac{g}{P} G_s$	$P = 2\pi D_2$

**Nomenclature:**

*A* = the effective area of the measuring electrode for the particular arrangement employed,  
*P* = the effective perimeter of the guarded electrode for the particular arrangement employed,  
*R<sub>v</sub>* = measured volume resistance in ohms,  
*G<sub>v</sub>* = measured volume conductance in siemens,  
*R<sub>s</sub>* = measured surface resistance in ohms,  
*G<sub>s</sub>* = measured surface conductance in siemens,  
*t* = average thickness of the specimen,  
*D<sub>o</sub>*, *D<sub>1</sub>*, *D<sub>2</sub>*, *g*, *L* = dimensions indicated in Fig. 4 and Fig. 6 (see Appendix X2 for correction to *g*),  
*a*, *b*, = lengths of the sides of rectangular electrodes, and  
 ln = natural logarithm.

<sup>A</sup>All dimensions are in centimetres.

between the guarded electrode and the guard system for the various methods. In general, the lower such resistance, the less probability of error from undue shunting.

NOTE 2—No matter what measurement method is employed, the highest precisions are achieved only with careful evaluation of all sources of error. It is possible either to set up any of these methods from the component parts, or to acquire a completely integrated apparatus. In general, the methods using high-sensitivity galvanometers require a more permanent installation than those using indicating meters or recorders. The methods using indicating devices such as voltmeters, galvanometers, d-c amplifiers, and electrometers require the minimum of manual adjustment and are easy to read but the operator is required to make the reading at a particular time. The Wheatstone bridge (Fig. X1.4) and the potentiometer method (Fig. X1.2 (b)) require the undivided attention of the operator in keeping a balance, but allow the setting at a particular time to be read at leisure.

### 7.5.2 Direct Measurements:

7.5.2.1 *Galvanometer-Voltmeter*—The maximum percentage error in the measurement of resistance by the

galvanometer-voltmeter method is the sum of the percentage errors of galvanometer indication, galvanometer readability, and voltmeter indication. As an example: a galvanometer having a sensitivity of 500 pA/scale division will be deflected 25 divisions with 500 V applied to a resistance of 40 GΩ (conductance of 25 pS). If the deflection can be read to the nearest 0.5 division, and the calibration error (including Ayrton Shunt error) is ±2 % of the observed value, the resultant galvanometer error will not exceed ±4 %. If the voltmeter has an error of ±2 % of full scale, this resistance can be measured with a maximum error of ±6 % when the voltmeter reads full scale, and ±10 % when it reads one-third full scale. The desirability of readings near full scale are readily apparent.

7.5.2.2 *Voltmeter-Ammeter*—The maximum percentage error in the computed value is the sum of the percentage errors in the voltages, *V<sub>x</sub>* and *V<sub>s</sub>*, and the resistance, *R<sub>s</sub>*. The errors in *V<sub>s</sub>* and *R<sub>s</sub>* are generally dependent more on the characteristics

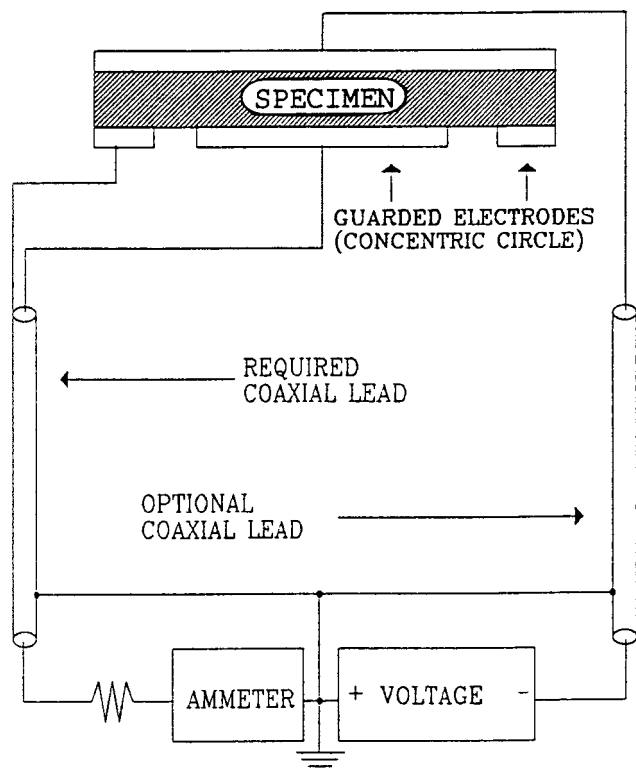


FIG. 9 Connections to Guarded Electrode for Volume and Surface Resistivity Measurements (Volume Resistance hook-up shown)

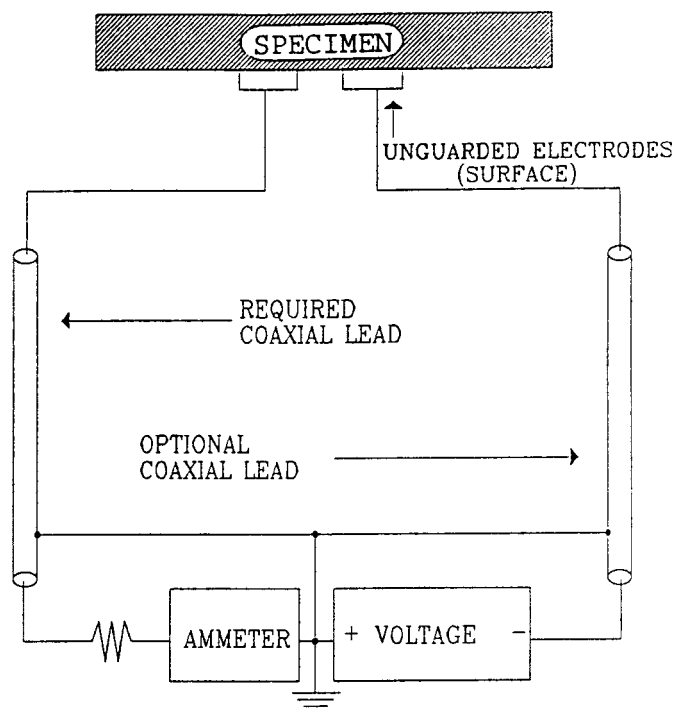


FIG. 10 Connections to Unguarded Electrodes for Volume and Surface Resistivity Measurements (Surface Resistance Hook-Up Shown)

of the apparatus used than on the particular method. The most significant factors that determine the errors in  $V_s$  are indicator errors, amplifier zero drift, and amplifier gain stability. With

modern, well-designed amplifiers or electrometers, gain stability is usually not a matter of concern. With existing techniques, the zero drift of direct voltage amplifiers or electrometers cannot be eliminated but it can be made slow enough to be relatively insignificant for these measurements. The zero drift is virtually nonexistent for carefully designed converter-type amplifiers. Consequently, the null method of Fig. X1.2 (b) is theoretically less subject to error than those methods employing an indicating instrument, provided, however, that the potentiometer voltage is accurately known. The error in  $R_s$  is to some extent dependent on the amplifier sensitivity. For measurement of a given current, the higher the amplifier sensitivity, the greater likelihood that lower valued, highly precise wire-wound standard resistors can be used. Such amplifiers can be obtained. Standard resistances of 100 G $\Omega$  known to  $\pm 2\%$ , are available. If 10-mV input to the amplifier or electrometer gives full-scale deflection with an error not greater than 2% of full scale, with 500 V applied, a resistance of 5000 T $\Omega$  can be measured with a maximum error of 6% when the voltmeter reads full scale, and 10% when it reads  $\frac{1}{3}$  scale.

7.5.2.3 Comparison-Galvanometer—The maximum percentage error in the computed resistance or conductance is given by the sum of the percentage errors in  $R_s$ , the galvanometer deflections or amplifier readings, and the assumption that the current sensitivities are independent of the deflections. The latter assumption is correct to well within  $\pm 2\%$  over the useful range (above  $\frac{1}{10}$  full-scale deflection) of a good, modern galvanometer (probably  $\frac{1}{3}$  scale deflection for a dc current amplifier). The error in  $R_s$  depends on the type of resistor used, but resistances of 1 M $\Omega$  with a limit of error as low as 0.1% are available. With a galvanometer or d-c current amplifier having a sensitivity of 10 nA for full-scale deflection, 500 V applied to a resistance of 5 T $\Omega$  will produce a 1% deflection. At this voltage, with the preceding noted standard resistor, and with  $F_s = 10^3$ ,  $d_s$  would be about half of full-scale deflection, with a readability error not more than  $\pm 1\%$ . If  $d_x$  is approximately  $\frac{1}{4}$  of full-scale deflection, the readability error would not exceed  $\pm 4\%$ , and a resistance of the order of 200 G $\Omega$  could be measured with a maximum error of  $\pm 5\frac{1}{2}\%$ .

7.5.2.4 Voltage Rate-of-Change—The accuracy of the measurement is directly proportional to the accuracy of the measurement of applied voltage and time rate of change of the electrometer reading. The length of time that the electrometer switch is open and the scale used should be such that the time can be measured accurately and a full-scale reading obtained. Under these conditions, the accuracy will be comparable with that of the other methods of measuring current.

7.5.2.5 Comparison Bridge—When the detector has adequate sensitivity, the maximum percentage error in the computer resistance is the sum of the percentage errors in the arms, A, B, and N. With a detector sensitivity of 1 mV/scale division, 500 V applied to the bridge, and  $R_N = 1$  G $\Omega$ , a resistance of 1000 T $\Omega$  will produce a detector deflection of one scale division. Assuming negligible errors in  $R_A$  and  $R_B$ , with  $R_N = 1$  G $\Omega$  known to within  $\pm 2\%$  and with the bridge balanced to one detector-scale division, a resistance of 100 T $\Omega$  can be measured with a maximum error of  $\pm 6\%$ .



**TABLE 2 Apparatus and Conditions for Use**

Method	Reference		Maximum Ohms Detectable at 500 V	Maximum Ohms Measurable to $\pm 6\%$ at 500 V	Type of Measurement	Ohms Shunted by Insulation Resistance from Guard to Guarded Electrode
	Section	Figure				
Voltmeter-ammeter (galvanometer)	X3.1	Fig. X1.1	$10^{12}$	$10^{11}$	deflection	10 to $10^5$
Comparison (galvanometer)	X3.4	Fig. X1.3	$10^{12}$	$10^{11}$	deflection	10 to $10^5$
Voltmeter-ammeter (dc amplification, electrometer)	X3.2	Fig. X1.2(a)	$10^{15}$	$10^{13}$	deflection	$10^2$ to $10^9$
		(Position 1)			deflection	$10^2$ to $10^3$
		Fig. X1.2(a)			deflection	$10^3$ to $10^{11}$
		(Position 2)			null	0 (effective)
		Fig. X1.2(b)				
Comparison (Wheatstone bridge)	X3.5	Fig. X1.4	$10^{15}$	$10^{14}$	null	$10^5$ to $10^6$
Voltage rate-of-change	X3.3	Fig. X3.1	$\sim 100 \text{ M}\Omega \cdot \text{F}$		deflection	unguarded
Megohmmeter (typical)	commercial instruments		$10^{15}$	$10^{14}$	direct-reading	$10^4$ to $10^{10}$

7.6 Several manufacturers are available that can supply the necessary components or dedicated systems that will meet the requirements of this methodology. Reference the equipment database for a listing of companies who have provided information regarding their instrument offerings.

## 8. Sampling

8.1 Refer to applicable materials specifications for sampling instructions.

## 9. Test Specimens

### 9.1 Insulation Resistance or Conductance Determination:

9.1.1 The measurement is of greatest value when the specimen has the form, electrodes, and mounting required in actual use. Bushings, cables, and capacitors are typical examples for which the test electrodes are a part of the specimen and its normal mounting means.

9.1.2 For solid materials, the test specimen may be of any practical form. The specimen forms most commonly used are flat plates, tapes, rods, and tubes. The electrode arrangements of Fig. 2 may be used for flat plates, rods, or rigid tubes whose inner diameter is about 20 mm or more. The electrode arrangement of Fig. 3 may be used for strips of sheet material or for flexible tape. For rigid strip specimens the metal support may not be required. The electrode arrangements of Fig. 6 may be used for flat plates, rods, or tubes. Comparison of materials when using different electrode arrangements is frequently inconclusive and should be avoided.

### 9.2 Volume Resistance or Conductance Determination:

9.2.1 The test specimen may have any practical form that allows the use of a third electrode, when necessary, to guard against error from surface effects. Test specimens may be in the form of flat plates, tapes, or tubes. Fig. 4, Fig. 7, and Fig. 8 illustrate the application and arrangement of electrodes for plate or sheet specimens. Fig. 5 is a diametral cross section of three electrodes applied to a tubular specimen, in which electrode No. 1 is the guarded electrode; electrode No. 2 is a guard electrode consisting of a ring at each end of electrode No. 1, the two rings being electrically connected; and electrode No. 3 is the unguarded electrode (7, 8). For those materials that have negligible surface leakage and are being examined for volume resistance only, omit the use of guard rings. Convenient and generally suitable dimensions applicable to Fig. 4 in

the case of test specimens that are 3 mm in thickness are as follows:  $D_3 = 100$  mm,  $D_2 = 88$  mm, and  $D_1 = 76$  mm, or alternatively,  $D_3 = 50$  mm,  $D_2 = 38$  mm, and  $D_1 = 25$  mm. For a given sensitivity, the larger specimen allows more accurate measurements on materials of higher resistivity.

9.2.2 Measure the average thickness of the specimens in accordance with one of the methods in Test Methods D374 pertaining to the material being tested. The actual points of measurement shall be uniformly distributed over the area to be covered by the measuring electrodes.

9.2.3 It is not necessary that the electrodes have the circular symmetry shown in Fig. 4 although this is generally convenient. The guarded electrode (No. 1) may be circular, square, or rectangular, allowing ready computation of the guarded electrode effective area for volume resistivity or conductivity determination when such is desired. The diameter of a circular electrode, the side of a square, or the shortest side of a rectangular electrode, should be at least four times the specimen thickness. The gap width should be great enough so that the surface leakage between electrodes No. 1 and No. 2 does not cause an error in the measurement (this is particularly important for high-input-impedance instruments, such as electrometers). If the gap is made equal to twice the specimen thickness, as suggested in 9.3.3, so that the specimen can be used also for surface resistance or conductance determinations, the effective area of electrode No. 1 can be taken, usually with sufficient accuracy, as extending to the center of the gap. If, under special conditions, it becomes desirable to determine a more accurate value for the effective area of electrode No. 1, the correction for the gap width can be obtained from Appendix X2. Electrode No. 3 may have any shape provided that it extends at all points beyond the inner edge of electrode No. 2 by at least twice the specimen thickness.

9.2.4 For tubular specimens, electrode No. 1 should encircle the outside of the specimen and its axial length should be at least four times the specimen wall thickness. Considerations regarding the gap width are the same as those given in 9.2.3. Electrode No. 2 consists of an encircling electrode at each end of the tube, the two parts being electrically connected by external means. The axial length of each of these parts should be at least twice the wall thickness of the specimen. Electrode No. 3 must cover the inside surface of the specimen for an axial length extending beyond the outside gap edges by at least twice

the wall thickness. The tubular specimen (Fig. 5) may take the form of an insulated wire or cable. If the length of electrode is more than 100 times the thickness of the insulation, the effects of the ends of the guarded electrode become negligible, and careful spacing of the guard electrodes is not required. Thus, the gap between electrodes No. 1 and No. 2 may be several centimetres to permit sufficient surface resistance between these electrodes when water is used as electrode No. 1. In this case, no correction is made for the gap width.

### 9.3 Surface Resistance or Conductance Determination:

9.3.1 The test specimen may be of any practical form consistent with the particular objective, such as flat plates, tapes, or tubes.

9.3.2 The arrangements of Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 were devised for those cases where the volume resistance is known to be high relative to that of the surface (2). However, the combination of molded and machined surfaces makes the result obtained generally inconclusive for rigid strip specimens. The arrangement of Fig. 3 is somewhat more satisfactory when applied to specimens for which the width is much greater than the thickness, the cut edge effect thus tending to become relatively small. Hence, this arrangement is more suitable for testing thin specimens such as tape, than for testing relatively thicker specimens. The arrangements of Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 should never be used for surface resistance or conductance determinations without due considerations of the limitations noted previously.

9.3.3 The three electrode arrangements of Fig. 4, Fig. 6, and Fig. 7 may be used for purposes of material comparison. The resistance or conductance of the surface gap between electrodes No. 1 and No. 2 is determined directly by using electrode No. 1 as the guarded electrode, electrode No. 3 as the guard electrode, and electrode No. 2 as the unguarded electrode (7, 8). The resistance or conductance so determined is actually the resultant of the surface resistance or conductance between electrodes No. 1 and No. 2 in parallel with some volume resistance or conductance between the same two electrodes. For this arrangement the surface gap width,  $g$ , should be approximately twice the specimen thickness,  $t$ , except for thin specimens, where  $g$  may be much greater than twice the material thickness.

9.3.4 Special techniques and electrode dimensions may be required for very thin specimens having such a low volume resistivity that the resultant low resistance between the guarded electrode and the guard system would cause excessive error.

9.4 *Liquid Insulation Resistance*—The sampling of liquid insulating materials, the test cells employed, and the methods of cleaning the cells shall be in accordance with Test Method D1169.

## 10. Specimen Mounting

10.1 In mounting the specimens for measurements, it is important that no conductive paths exist between the electrodes or between the measuring electrodes and ground, significantly affecting the reading of the measuring instrument (9). Avoid handling insulating surfaces with bare fingers by wearing acetate rayon gloves. For referee tests of volume resistance or conductance, clean the surfaces with a suitable solvent before conditioning. When surface resistance is to be measured,

mutually agree whether or not the surfaces should be cleaned. If cleaning is required, record details of any surface cleaning.

## 11. Conditioning

11.1 Condition the specimens in accordance with Practice D6054.

11.2 Circulating-air environmental chambers or the methods described in Practices E104 or D5032 are useful for controlling the relative humidity.

## 12. Procedure

12.1 *Insulation Resistance or Conductance*—Properly mount the specimen in the test chamber. If the test chamber and the conditioning chamber are the same (recommended procedure), the specimens should be mounted before the conditioning is started. Make the measurement with a suitable device having the required sensitivity and accuracy (see Appendix X3). Unless otherwise specified, use 60 s as the time of electrification and  $500 \pm 5$  V as the applied voltage.

12.2 *Volume Resistivity or Conductivity*—Measure and record the dimensions of the electrodes and width of guard gap,  $g$ . Calculate the effective area of the electrode. Make the resistance measurement with a suitable device having the required sensitivity and accuracy. Unless otherwise specified, use 60 s as the time of electrification, and  $500 \pm 5$  V as the applied direct voltage.

### 12.3 Surface Resistance or Conductance:

12.3.1 Measure the electrode dimensions and the distance between the electrodes,  $g$ . Measure the surface resistance or conductance between electrodes No. 1 and 2 with a suitable device having the required sensitivity and accuracy. Unless otherwise specified, use 60 s for the time of electrification, and apply a direct voltage of  $500 \pm 5$  V.

12.3.2 When the electrode arrangement of Fig. 3 is used,  $P$  is taken as the perimeter of the cross section of the specimen. For thin specimens, such as tapes, this perimeter effectively reduces to twice the specimen width.

12.3.3 When the electrode arrangements of Fig. 6 are used, and if the volume resistance is known to be very high compared to the surface resistance (such as moisture contaminating the surface of a good insulation material),  $P$  is taken to be two times the length of the electrode or two times the circumference of the cylinder.

## 13. Calculation

13.1 Calculate the volume resistivity,  $\rho_v$ , and the volume conductivity,  $\gamma_v$ , using the equations in Table 1.

13.2 Calculate the surface resistivity,  $\rho_s$ , and the surface conductivity,  $\gamma_s$ , using the equations in Table 1.

## 14. Report

14.1 Report all of the following information:

14.1.1 A description and identification of the material (name, grade, color, manufacturer, etc.),

14.1.2 Shape and dimensions of the test specimen,

14.1.3 Type and dimensions of electrodes,

14.1.4 Conditioning of the specimen (cleaning, predrying, hours at humidity and temperature, etc.).

14.1.5 Test conditions (specimen temperature, relative humidity, etc., at time of measurement),

14.1.6 Method of measurement (see [Appendix X3](#)),

14.1.7 Applied voltage,

14.1.8 Time of electrification of measurement,

14.1.9 Measured values of the appropriate resistances in ohms or conductances in siemens,

14.1.10 Computed values when required, of volume resistivity in ohm-centimetres, volume conductivity in siemens per centimetre, surface resistivity in ohms (per square), or surface conductivity in siemens (per square), and

14.1.11 Statement as to whether the reported values are “apparent” or “steady-state.”

14.1.11.1 A “steady-state” value is obtained only if the variation in the magnitude of the electric current in a circuit remains within  $\pm 5\%$  during the latter 75 % of the specific electrification time used for testing. Tests made under any other circumstances are to be considered as “apparent.”

## 15. Precision and Bias

15.1 Precision and bias are inherently affected by the choice of method, apparatus, and specimen. For analysis and details see Sections 7 and 9, and particularly 7.5.1-7.5.2.5.

## 16. Keywords

16.1 DC resistance; insulation resistance; surface resistance; surface resistivity; volume resistance; volume resistivity

# APPENDIXES

## (Nonmandatory Information)

### X1. FACTORS AFFECTING INSULATION RESISTANCE OR CONDUCTANCE MEASUREMENTS

**X1.1 Inherent Variation in Materials**—Because of the variability of the resistance of a given specimen under similar test conditions and the nonuniformity of the same material from specimen to specimen, determinations are usually not reproducible to closer than 10 % and often are even more widely divergent (a range of values from 10 to 1 may be obtained under apparently identical conditions).

**X1.2 Temperature**—The resistance of electrical insulating materials is known to change with temperature, and the variation often can be represented by a function of the form: **(18)**

$$R = Be^{m/T} \quad (\text{X1.1})$$

where:

$R$  = resistance (or resistivity) of an insulating material or system,

$B$  = proportionality constant,

$m$  = activation constant, and

$T$  = absolute temperature in kelvin (K).

This equation is a simplified form of the Arrhenius equation relating the activation energy of a chemical reaction to the absolute temperature; and the Boltzmann principle, a general law dealing with the statistical distribution of energy among large numbers of minute particles subject to thermal agitation. The activation constant,  $m$ , has a value that is characteristic of a particular energy absorption process. Several such processes may exist within the material, each with a different effective temperature range, so that several values of  $m$  would be needed to fully characterize the material. These values of  $m$  can be determined experimentally by plotting the natural logarithm of resistance against the reciprocal of the absolute temperature. The desired values of  $m$  are obtained from such a plot by measuring the slopes of the straight-line sections of the plot. This derives from (Eq X1.1), for it follows that by taking the natural logarithm of both sides:

$$\ln R = \ln B + m \frac{1}{T} \quad (\text{X1.2})$$

The change in resistance (or resistivity) corresponding to a change in absolute temperature from  $T_1$  to  $T_2$ , based on Eq X1.1, and expressed in logarithmic form, is:

$$\ln (R_2/R_1) = m \left( \frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right) = m \left( \frac{\Delta T}{T_1 T_2} \right) \quad (\text{X1.3})$$

These equations are valid over a temperature range only if the material does not undergo a transition within this temperature range. Extrapolations are seldom safe since transitions are seldom obvious or predictable. As a corollary, deviation of a plot of the logarithm of  $R$  against  $1/T$  from a straight line is evidence that a transition is occurring. Furthermore, in making comparisons between materials, it is essential that measurements be made over the entire range of interest for all materials.

**NOTE X1.1**—The resistance of an electrical insulating material may be affected by the time of temperature exposure. Therefore, equivalent temperature conditioning periods are essential for comparative measurements.

**NOTE X1.2**—If the insulating material shows signs of deterioration after conditioning at elevated temperatures, this information must be included with the test data.

**X1.3 Temperature and Humidity**—The insulation resistance of solid dielectric materials decreases both with increasing temperature as described in X1.2 and with increasing humidity (**1, 2, 3, 4**). Volume resistance is particularly sensitive to temperature changes, while surface resistance changes widely and very rapidly with humidity changes (**2, 3**). In both cases the change is exponential. For some materials a change from 25 to 100 °C may change insulation resistance or conductance by a factor of 100 000, often due to the combined effects of temperature and moisture content change; the effect of temperature change alone is usually much smaller. A change from 25 to 90 % relative humidity may change insulation

resistance or conductance by as much as a factor of 1 000 000 or more. Insulation resistance or conductance is a function of both the volume and surface resistance or conductance of the specimen, and surface resistance changes almost instantaneously with change of relative humidity. It is, therefore, absolutely essential to maintain both temperature and relative humidity within close limits during the conditioning period and to make the insulation resistance or conductance measurements in the specified conditioning environment. Another point not to be overlooked is that at relative humidities above 90 %, surface condensation may result from inadvertent fluctuations in humidity or temperature produced by the conditioning system. This problem can be avoided by the use of equivalent absolute humidity at a slightly higher temperature, as equilibrium moisture content remains nearly the same for a small temperature change. In determining the effect of humidity on volume resistance or conductance, extended periods of conditioning are required, since the absorption of water into the body of the dielectric is a relatively slow process (10). Some specimens require months to come to equilibrium. When such long periods of conditioning are prohibitive, use of thinner specimens or comparative measurements near equilibrium may be reasonable alternatives, but the details must be included in the test report.

**X1.4 Time of Electrification**—Measurement of a dielectric material is not fundamentally different from that of a conductor except that an additional parameter, time of electrification, (and in some cases the voltage gradient) is involved. The relationship between the applied voltage and the current is involved in both cases. For dielectric materials, the standard resistance placed in series with the unknown resistance must have a relatively low value, so that essentially full voltage will be applied across the unknown resistance. When a potential difference is applied to a specimen, the current through it generally decreases asymptotically toward a limiting value which may be less than 0.01 of the current observed at the end of 1 min (9, 11). This decrease of current with time is due to dielectric absorption (interfacial polarization, volume charge, etc.) and the sweep of mobile ions to the electrodes. In general, the relation of current and time is of the form  $I(t) = At^{-m}$ , after the initial charge is completed and until the true leakage current becomes a significant factor (12, 13). In this relation  $A$  is a constant, numerically the current at unit time, and  $m$  usually, but not always, has a value between 0 and 1. Depending upon the characteristics of the specimen material, the time required for the current to decrease to within 1 % of this minimum value may be from a few seconds to many hours. Thus, in order to ensure that measurements on a given material will be comparable, it is necessary to specify the time of electrification. The conventional arbitrary time of electrification has been 1 min. For some materials, misleading conclusions may be drawn from the test results obtained at this arbitrary time. A resistance-time or conductance-time curve should be obtained under the conditions of test for a given material as a basis for selection of a suitable time of electrification, which must be specified in the test method for that material, or such curves should be used for comparative purposes. Occasionally, a material will be found for which the current increases with

time. In this case either the time curves must be used or a special study undertaken, and arbitrary decisions made as to the time of electrification.

#### X1.5 *Magnitude of Voltage:*

**X1.5.1** Both volume and surface resistance or conductance of a specimen may be voltage-sensitive (4). In that case, it is necessary that the same voltage gradient be used if measurements on similar specimens are to be comparable. Also, the applied voltage should be within at least 5 % of the specified voltage. This is a separate requirement from that given in X1.7.3, which discusses voltage regulation and stability where appreciable specimen capacitance is involved.

**X1.5.2** Commonly specified test voltages to be applied to the complete specimen are 100, 250, 500, 1000, 2500, 5000, 10 000 and 15 000 V. Of these, the most frequently used are 100 and 500 V. The higher voltages are used either to study the voltage-resistance or voltage-conductance characteristics of materials (to make tests at or near the operating voltage gradients), or to increase the sensitivity of measurement.

**X1.5.3** Specimen resistance or conductance of some materials may, depending upon the moisture content, be affected by the polarity of the applied voltage. This effect, caused by electrolysis or ionic migration, or both, particularly in the presence of nonuniform fields, may be particularly noticeable in insulation configurations such as those found in cables where the test-voltage gradient is greater at the inner conductor than at the outer surface. Where electrolysis or ionic migration does exist in specimens, the electrical resistance will be lower when the smaller test electrode is made negative with respect to the larger. In such cases, the polarity of the applied voltage shall be specified according to the requirements of the specimen under test.

#### X1.6 *Contour of Specimen:*

**X1.6.1** The measured value of the insulation resistance or conductance of a specimen results from the composite effect of its volume and surface resistances or conductances. Since the relative values of the components vary from material to material, comparison of different materials by the use of the electrode systems of Fig. 1, Fig. 2, and Fig. 3 is generally inconclusive. There is no assurance that, if material A has a higher insulation resistance than material B as measured by the use of one of these electrode systems, it will also have a higher resistance than B in the application for which it is intended.

**X1.6.2** It is possible to devise specimen and electrode configurations suitable for the separate evaluation of the volume resistance or conductance and the approximate surface resistance or conductance of the same specimen. In general, this requires at least three electrodes so arranged that one may select electrode pairs for which the resistance or conductance measured is primarily that of either a volume current path or a surface current path, not both (7).

#### X1.7 *Deficiencies in the Measuring Circuit:*

**X1.7.1** The insulation resistance of many solid dielectric specimens is extremely high at standard laboratory conditions, approaching or exceeding the maximum measurable limits

given in Table 2. Unless extreme care is taken with the insulation of the measuring circuit, the values obtained are more a measure of apparatus limitations than of the material itself. Thus errors in the measurement of the specimen may arise from undue shunting of the specimen, reference resistors, or the current-measuring device, by leakage resistances or conductances of unknown, and possibly variable, magnitude.

X1.7.2 Electrolytic, contact, or thermal emf's may exist in the measuring circuit itself; or spurious emf's may be caused by leakage from external sources. Thermal emf's are normally insignificant except in the low resistance circuit of a galvanometer and shunt. When thermal emf's are present, random drifts in the galvanometer zero occur. Slow drifts due to air currents may be troublesome. Electrolytic emf's are usually associated with moist specimens and dissimilar metals, but emf's of 20 mV or more can be obtained in the guard circuit of a high-resistance detector when pieces of the same metal are in contact with moist specimens. If a voltage is applied between the guard and the guarded electrodes a polarization emf may remain after the voltage is removed. True contact emf's can be detected only with an electrometer and are not a source of error. The term "spurious emf" is sometimes applied to electrolytic emf's. To ensure the absence of spurious emf's of whatever origin, the deflection of the detecting device should be observed before the application of voltage to the specimen and after the voltage has been removed. If the two deflections are the same, or nearly the same, a correction can be made to the measured resistance or conductance, provided the correction is small. If the deflections differ widely, or approach the deflection of the measurement, it will be necessary to find and eliminate the source of the spurious emf (5). Capacitance changes in the connecting shielded cables can cause serious difficulties.

X1.7.3 Where appreciable specimen capacitance is involved, both the regulation and transient stability of the applied voltage should be such that resistance or conductance measurements can be made to prescribed accuracy. Short-time transients, as well as relatively long-time drifts in the applied voltage may cause spurious capacitive charge and discharge currents which can significantly affect the accuracy of measurement. In the case of current-measuring methods particularly, this can be a serious problem. The current in the measuring instrument due to a voltage transient is  $I_0 = C_x dV/dt$ . The amplitude and rate of pointer excursions depend upon the following factors:

- X1.7.3.1 The capacitance of the specimen,
- X1.7.3.2 The magnitude of the current being measured,
- X1.7.3.3 The magnitude and duration of the incoming voltage transient, and its rate of change,
- X1.7.3.4 The ability of the stabilizing circuit used to provide a constant voltage with incoming transients of various characteristics, and
- X1.7.3.5 The time-constant of the complete test circuit as compared to the period and damping of the current-measuring instrument.

X1.7.4 Changes of range of a current-measuring instrument may introduce a current transient. When  $R_m$  [Lt]  $R_x$  and  $C_m$  [Lt]  $C_x$ , the equation of this transient is

$$I = (V_0 / R_x)[I - e^{-t/R_m C_x}] \tag{X1.4}$$

where:

- $V_0$  = applied voltage,
- $R_x$  = apparent resistance of the specimen,
- $R_m$  = effective input resistance of the measuring instrument,
- $C_x$  = capacitance of the specimen at 1000 Hz,
- $C_m$  = input capacitance of the measuring instrument, and
- $t$  = time after  $R_m$  is switched into the circuit.

For not more than 5 % error due to this transient,

$$R_m C_x \leq t/3 \tag{X1.5}$$

Microammeters employing feedback are usually free of this source of error as the actual input resistance is divided, effectively, by the amount of feedback, usually at least by 1000.

X1.8 *Residual Charge*—In X1.4 it was pointed out that the current continues for a long time after the application of a potential difference to the electrodes. Conversely, current will continue for a long time after the electrodes of a charged specimen are connected together. It should be established that the test specimen is completely discharged before attempting the first measurement, a repeat measurement, a measurement of volume resistance following a measurement of surface resistance, or a measurement with reversed voltage (9). The time of discharge before making a measurement should be at least four times any previous charging time. The specimen electrodes should be connected together until the measurement is to be made to prevent any build-up of charge from the surroundings.

X1.9 *Guarding*:

X1.9.1 Guarding depends on interposing, in all critical insulated paths, guard conductors which intercept all stray currents that might otherwise cause errors. The guard conductors are connected together, constituting the guard system and forming, with the measuring terminals, a three-terminal network. When suitable connections are made, stray currents from spurious external voltages are shunted away from the measuring circuit by the guard system.

X1.9.2 Proper use of the guard system for the methods involving current measurement is illustrated in Figs. X1.1-X1.3, inclusive, where the guard system is shown connected to the junction of the voltage source and current-measuring instrument or standard resistor. In Fig. X1.4 for the Wheatstone-bridge method, the guard system is shown connected to the junction of the two lower-valued-resistance arms. In all cases, to be effective, guarding must be complete, and must include any controls operated by the observer in making the measurement. The guard system is generally maintained at

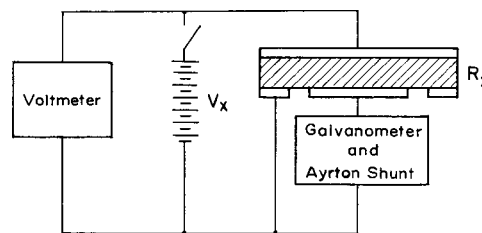
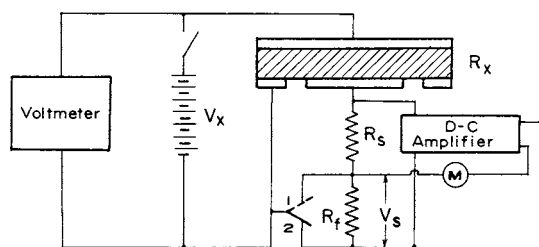
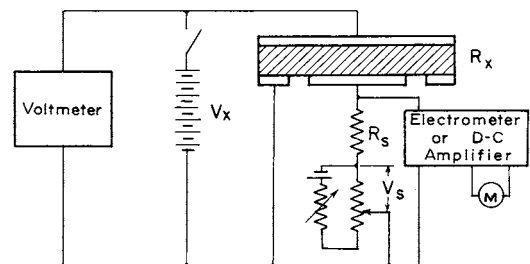


FIG. X1.1 Voltmeter-Ammeter Method Using a Galvanometer



(a) Normal Use of Amplifier and Indicating Meter



(b) Amplifier and Indicating Meter as Null Detector

FIG. X1.2 Voltmeter-Ammeter Method Using DC Amplification

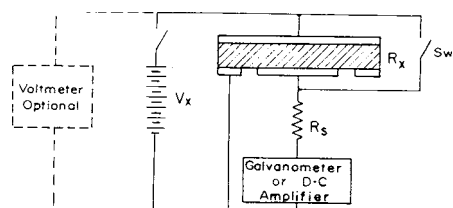


FIG. X1.3 Comparison Method Using a Galvanometer

## X2. EFFECTIVE AREA OF GUARDED ELECTRODE

X2.1 *General*—Calculation of volume resistivity from the measured volume resistance involves the quantity  $A$ , the effective area of the guarded electrode. Depending on the material properties and the electrode configuration,  $A$  differs from the actual area of the guarded electrode for either, or both, of the following reasons.

X2.1.1 Fringing of the lines of current in the region of the electrode edges may effectively increase the electrode dimensions.

X2.1.2 If plane electrodes are not parallel, or if tubular electrodes are not coaxial, the current density in the specimen will not be uniform, and an error may result. This error is usually small and may be ignored.

### X2.2 Fringing:

X2.2.1 If the specimen material is homogeneous and isotropic, fringing effectively extends the guarded electrode edge by an amount (14, 19):

$$(g/2) - \delta \tag{X2.1}$$

where:

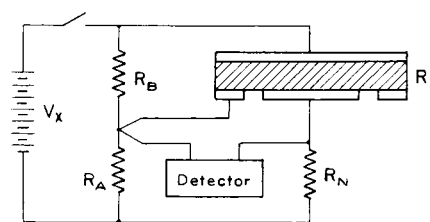


FIG. X1.4 Comparison Method Using a Wheatstone Bridge

a potential close to that of the guarded terminal, but insulated from it. This is because, among other things, the resistance of many insulating materials is voltage-dependent. Otherwise, the direct resistances or conductances of a three-terminal network are independent of the electrode potentials. It is usual to ground the guard system and hence one side of the voltage source and current-measuring device. This places both terminals of the specimen above ground. Sometimes, one terminal of the specimen is permanently grounded. The current-measuring device usually is then connected to this terminal, requiring that the voltage source be well insulated from ground.

X1.9.3 Errors in current measurements may result from the fact that the current-measuring device is shunted by the resistance or conductance between the guarded terminal and the guard system. This resistance should be at least 10 to 100 times the input resistance of the current measuring device. In some bridge techniques, the guard and measuring terminals are brought to nearly the same potentials, but a standard resistor in the bridge is shunted between the unguarded terminal and the guard system. This resistance should be at least 1000 times that of the reference resistor.

$$\delta = t\{(2/\pi) \ln \cosh [(\pi/4)(g/t)]\}, \tag{X2.2}$$

and  $g$  and  $t$  are the dimensions indicated in Fig. 4 and Fig. 6. The correction may also be written

$$g[1 - (2\delta/g)] = Bg \tag{X2.3}$$

where  $B$  is the fraction of the gap width to be added to the diameter of circular electrodes or to the dimensions of rectangular or cylindrical electrodes.

X2.2.2 Laminated materials, however, are somewhat anisotropic after volume absorption of moisture. Volume resistivity parallel to the laminations is then lower than that in the perpendicular direction, and the fringing effect is increased. With such moist laminates,  $\delta$  approaches zero, and the guarded electrode effectively extends to the center of the gap between guarded and unguarded electrodes (14).

X2.2.3 The fraction of the gap width  $g$  to be added to the diameter of circular electrodes or to the electrode dimensions of rectangular or cylindrical electrodes,  $B$ , AS DETERMINED BY THE PRECEDING EQUATION FOR  $\delta$ , IS AS FOLLOWS:

<i>g/t</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>g/t</i>	<i>B</i>
0.1	0.96	1.0	0.64
0.2	0.92	1.2	0.59
0.3	0.88	1.5	0.51
0.4	0.85	2.0	0.41
0.5	0.81	2.5	0.34
0.6	0.77	3.0	0.29
0.8	0.71		

NOTE X2.1—The symbol “ln” designates logarithm to the base  $e = 2.718$ . ... When  $g$  is approximately equal to  $2t$ ,  $\delta$  is determined with sufficient approximation by the equation:

$$\delta = 0.586t \quad (X2.4)$$

NOTE X2.2—For tests on thin films when  $t \ll g$ , or when a guard electrode is not used and one electrode extends beyond the other by a distance which is large compared with  $t$ ,  $0.883t$  should be added to the diameter of circular electrodes or to the dimensions of rectangular electrodes.

NOTE X2.3—During the transition between complete dryness and subsequent relatively uniform volume distribution of moisture, a laminate is neither homogeneous nor isotropic. Volume resistivity is of questionable significance during this transition and accurate equations are neither possible nor justified, calculations within an order of magnitude being more than sufficient.

### X3. TYPICAL MEASUREMENT METHODS

#### X3.1 Voltmeter-Ammeter Method Using a Galvanometer:

X3.1.1 A dc voltmeter and a galvanometer with a suitable shunt are connected to the voltage source and to the test specimen as shown in Fig. X1.1. The applied voltage is measured by a dc voltmeter, having a range and accuracy that will give minimum error in voltage indication. In no case shall a voltmeter be used that has an error greater than  $\pm 2\%$  of full scale, nor a range such that the deflection is less than one third of full scale (for a pivot-type instrument). The current is measured by a galvanometer having a high current sensitivity (a scale length of 0.5 m is assumed, as shorter scale lengths will lead to proportionately higher errors) and provided with a precision Ayrton universal shunt for so adjusting its deflection that the readability error does not, in general, exceed  $\pm 2\%$  of the observed value. The galvanometer should be calibrated to within  $\pm 2\%$ . Current can be read directly if the galvanometer is provided with an additional suitable fixed shunt.

X3.1.2 The unknown resistance,  $R_x$ , or conductance,  $G_x$ , is calculated as follows:

$$R_x = 1/G_x = V_x/I_x = V_x/KdF \quad (X3.1)$$

where:

$K$  = galvanometer sensitivity, in amperes per scale division,

$d$  = deflection in scale divisions,

$F$  = ratio of the total current,  $I_x$ , to the galvanometer current, and

$V_x$  = applied voltage.

#### X3.2 Voltmeter-Ammeter Method Using DC Amplification or Electrometer:

X3.2.1 The voltmeter-ammeter method can be extended to measure higher resistances by using dc amplification or an electrometer to increase the sensitivity of the current measuring device (6, 15, 16). Generally, but not necessarily, this is achieved only with some sacrifice in precision, depending on the apparatus used. The dc voltmeter and the dc amplifier or electrometer are connected to the voltage source and the specimen as illustrated in Fig. X1.2. The applied voltage is measured by a dc voltmeter having the same characteristics as prescribed in X3.1.1. The current is measured in terms of the voltage drop across a standard resistance,  $R_s$ .

X3.2.2 In the circuit shown in Fig. X1.2(a) the specimen current,  $I_x$ , produces across the standard resistance,  $R_s$ , a

voltage drop which is amplified by the dc amplifier, and read on an indicating meter or galvanometer. The net gain of the amplifier usually is stabilized by means of a feedback resistance,  $R_f$ , from the output of the amplifier. The indicating meter can be calibrated to read directly in terms of the feedback voltage,  $V_f$ , which is determined from the known value of the resistance of  $R_f$ , and the feedback current passing through it. When the amplifier has sufficient intrinsic gain, the feedback voltage,  $V_s$ , differs from the voltage,  $I_x R_s$ , by a negligible amount. As shown in Fig. X1.2(a) the return lead from the voltage source,  $V_x$ , can be connected to either end of the feedback resistor,  $R_f$ . With the connection made to the junction of  $R_s$  and  $R_f$  (switch in dotted position 1), the entire resistance of  $R_s$  is placed in the measuring circuit and any alternating voltage appearing across the specimen resistance is amplified only as much as the direct voltage  $I_x R_s$ , across  $R_s$ . With the connection made to the other end of  $R_f$  (switch position 2), the apparent resistance placed in the measuring circuit is  $R_s$  times the ratio of the degenerated gain to the intrinsic gain of the amplifier; any alternating voltage appearing across the specimen resistance is then amplified by the intrinsic amplifier gain.

X3.2.3 In the circuit shown in Fig. X1.2(b), the specimen current,  $I_x$ , produces a voltage drop across the standard resistance,  $R_s$ , which may or may not be balanced out by adjustment of an opposing voltage,  $V_s$ , from a calibrated potentiometer. If no opposing voltage is used, the voltage drop across the standard resistance,  $R_s$ , is amplified by the dc amplifier or electrometer and read on an indicating meter or galvanometer. This produces a voltage drop between the measuring electrode and the guard electrode which may cause an error in the current measurement unless the resistance between the measuring electrode and the guard electrode is at least 10 to 100 times that of  $R_s$ . If an opposing voltage,  $V_s$ , is used, the dc amplifier or electrometer serves only as a very sensitive, high-resistance null detector. The return lead from the voltage source,  $V_x$ , is connected as shown, to include the potentiometer in the measuring circuit. When connections are made in this manner, no resistance is placed in the measuring circuit at balance and thus no voltage drop appears between the measuring electrode and the guard electrode. However, a steeply increasing fraction of  $R_s$  is included in the measuring circuit, as the potentiometer is moved off balance. Any alternating voltage appearing across the specimen resistance is amplified by the net amplifier gain. The amplifier may be either

a direct voltage amplifier or an alternating voltage amplifier provided with input and output converters. Induced alternating voltages across the specimen often are sufficiently troublesome that a resistance-capacitance filter preceding the amplifier is required. The input resistance of this filter should be at least 100 times greater than the effect resistance that is placed in the measurement circuit by resistance  $R_s$ .

X3.2.4 The resistance  $R_x$ , or the conductance,  $G_x$ , is calculated as follows:

$$R_x = 1/G_x = V_x/I_x = (V_x/V_s)R_s \quad (X3.2)$$

where:

- $V_x$  = applied voltage,
- $I_x$  = specimen current,
- $R_s$  = standard resistance, and
- $V_s$  = voltage drop across  $R_s$ , indicated by the amplifier output meter, the electrometer or the calibrated potentiometer.

### X3.3 Voltage Rate-of-Change Method:

X3.3.1 If the specimen capacitance is relatively large, or capacitors are to be measured, the apparent resistance,  $R_x$ , can be determined from the charging voltage,  $V_0$ , the specimen capacitance value,  $C_0$  (capacitance of  $C_x$  at 1000 Hz), and the rate-of-change of voltage,  $dV/dt$ , using the circuit of Fig. X3.1 (17). To make a measurement the specimen is charged by closing  $S_2$ , with the electrometer shorting switch  $S_1$  closed. When  $S_1$  is subsequently opened, the voltage across the specimen will fall because the leakage and absorption currents must then be supplied by the capacitance  $C_0$  rather than by  $V_0$ . The drop in voltage across the specimen will be shown by the electrometer. If a recorder is connected to the output of the electrometer, the rate of change of voltage,  $dV/dt$ , can be read from the recorder trace at any desired time after  $S_2$  is closed (60 s usually specified). Alternatively, the voltage,  $\Delta V$ , appearing on the electrometer in a time,  $\Delta t$ , can be used. Since this gives an average of the rate-of-change of voltage during  $\Delta t$ , the time  $\Delta t$  should be centered at the specified electrification time (time since closing  $S_2$ ).

X3.3.2 If the input resistance of the electrometer is greater than the apparent specimen resistance and the input capacitance is 0.01 or less of that of the specimen, the apparent resistance at the time at which  $dV/dt$  or  $\Delta V/\Delta t$  is determined is

$$R_x = V_0/I_x = V_0 dt/C_0 dV_m \text{ or } V_0 \Delta t/C_0 \Delta V_m \quad (X3.3)$$

depending on whether or not a recorder is used. When the electrometer input resistance or capacitance cannot be ignored or when  $V_m$  is more than a small fraction of  $V_0$  the complete equation should be used.

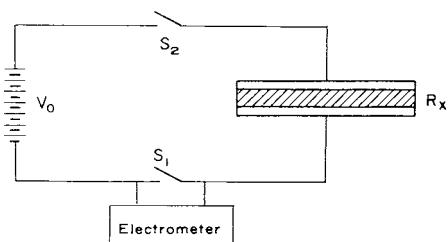


FIG. X3.1 Voltage Rate-of-Change Method

$$R_s = \{V_0 [(R_x + R_m)/R_m] V_m\} / (C_0 + C_m) dV_m/dt \quad (X3.4)$$

where:

- $C_0$  = capacitance of  $C_x$  at 1000 Hz,
- $R_m$  = input resistance of the electrometer,
- $C_m$  = input capacitance of the electrometer,
- $V_0$  = applied voltage, and
- $V_m$  = electrometer reading = voltage decrease on  $C_x$ .

### X3.4 Comparison Method Using a Galvanometer or DC Amplifier (1):

X3.4.1 A standard resistance,  $R_s$ , and a galvanometer or dc amplifier are connected to the voltage source and to the test specimen as shown in Fig. X3.1. The galvanometer and its associated Ayrton shunt is the same as described in X3.1.1. An amplifier of equivalent direct current sensitivity with an appropriate indicator may be used in place of the galvanometer. It is convenient, but not necessary, and not desirable if batteries are used as the voltage source (unless a high-input resistance voltmeter is used), to connect a voltmeter across the source for a continuous check of its voltage. The switch is provided for shorting the unknown resistance in the process of measurement. Sometimes provision is made to short either the unknown or standard resistance but not both at the same time.

X3.4.2 In general, it is preferable to leave the standard resistance in the circuit at all times to prevent damage to the current measuring instrument in case of specimen failure. With the shunt set to the least sensitive position and with the switch open, the voltage is applied. The Ayrton shunt is then adjusted to give as near maximum scale reading as possible. At the end of the electrification time the deflection,  $d_x$ , and the shunt ratio,  $F_x$ , are noted. The shunt is then set to the least sensitive position and the switch is closed to short the unknown resistance. Again the shunt is adjusted to give as near maximum scale reading as possible and the galvanometer or meter deflection,  $d_s$ , and the shunt ratio,  $F_s$ , are noted. It is assumed that the current sensitivities of the galvanometer or amplifier are equal for nearly equal deflections  $d_x$  and  $d_s$ .

X3.4.3 The unknown resistance,  $R_x$ , or conductance,  $G_x$ , is calculated as follows:

$$R = 1/G_x = R_s [(d_s F_s / d_x F_x) - 1] \quad (X3.5)$$

where:

- $F_x$  and  $F_s$  = ratios of the total current to the galvanometer or dc amplifier with  $R_x$  in the circuit, and shorted, respectively.

X3.4.4 In case  $R_s$  is shorted when  $R_x$  is in the circuit or the ratio of  $F_s$  to  $F_x$  is greater than 100, the value of  $R_x$  or  $G_x$  is computed as follows:

$$R_x = 1/G_x = R (d_s F_s / d_x F_x) \quad (X3.6)$$

### X3.5 Comparison Methods Using a Wheatstone Bridge (2):

X3.5.1 The test specimen is connected into one arm of a Wheatstone bridge as shown in Fig. X1.4. The three known arms shall be of as high resistance as practicable, limited by the errors inherent in such resistors. Usually, the lowest resistance,  $R_A$ , is used for convenient balance adjustment, with either  $R_B$  or



$R_N$  being changed in decade steps. The detector shall be a dc amplifier, with an input resistance high compared to any of these arms.

X3.5.2 The unknown resistance,  $R_x$ , or conductance,  $G_x$ , is calculated as follows:

$$R_x = 1/G_x = R_B R_N / R_A \quad (\text{X3.7})$$

where  $R_A$ ,  $R_B$ , and  $R_N$  are as shown in Fig. X1.4. When arm A is a rheostat, its dial can be calibrated to read directly in megohms after multiplying by the factor  $R_B R_N$  which for convenience can be varied in decade steps.

X3.6 *Recordings*—It is possible to record continuously against time the values of the unknown resistance or the corresponding value of current at a known voltage. Generally, this is accomplished by an adaptation of the voltmeter-ammeter method, using dc amplification (X3.2). The zero drift of direct coupled dc amplifiers, while slow enough for the measurements of X3.2, may be too fast for continuous recording. This problem can be resolved by periodic checks of the zero, or by using an ac amplifier with input and output converter. The indicating meter of Fig. X1.2(a) can be replaced by a recording milliammeter or millivoltmeter as appropriate for the amplifier used. The recorder may be either the deflection type or the null-balance type, the latter usually having a smaller error. Null-balance-type recorders also can be employed to perform the function of automatically adjusting the potentiometer shown in Fig. X1.2(b) and thereby indicating and recording the

quantity under measurement. The characteristics of amplifier, recorder balancing mechanism, and potentiometer can be made such as to constitute a well integrated, stable, electromechanical, feedback system of high sensitivity and low error. Such systems also can be arranged with the potentiometer fed from the same source of stable voltage as the specimen, thereby eliminating the voltmeter error, and allowing a sensitivity and precision comparable with those of the Wheatstone-Bridge Method (X3.5).

X3.7 *Direct-Reading Instruments*—There are available, and in general use, instruments that indicate resistance directly, by a determination of the ratio of voltage and current in bridge methods or related modes. Some units incorporate various advanced features and refinements such as digital readout. Most direct reading instruments are self-contained, portable, and comprise a stable dc power supply with multi-test voltage capability, a null detector or an indicator, and all relevant auxiliaries. Measurement accuracies vary somewhat with type of equipment and range of resistances covered; for the more elaborate instruments accuracies are comparable to those obtained with the voltmeter-ammeter method using a galvanometer (X3.1). The direct-reading instruments do not necessarily supplant any of the other typical measurement methods described in this Appendix, but do offer simplicity and convenience for both routine and investigative resistance measurements.

## REFERENCES

- (1) Curtis, H. L., "Insulating Properties of Solid Dielectric," *Bulletin*, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Vol II, 1915, Scientific Paper No. 234, pp. 369–417.
- (2) Field, R. F., "How Humidity Affects Insulation, Part I, D-C Phenomena," *General Radio Experimenter*, Vol 20, Nos. 2 and 3, July–August 1945.
- (3) Field, R. F., "The Formation of Ionized Water Films on Dielectrics Under Conditions of High Humidity," *Journal of Applied Physics*, Vol 5, May 1946.
- (4) Herou, R., and LaCoste, R., "Sur La Mésure Des Resistivités et L'Etude de Conditionnement des Isolantes en Feuilles," Report IEC 15-GT<sub>2</sub>(France) April 4, 1963.
- (5) Thompson, B. H., and Mathes, K. N., "Electrolytic Corrosion—Methods of Evaluating Materials Used in Tropical Service," *Transactions*, American Institute of Electrical Engineers, Vol 64, June 1945, p. 287.
- (6) Scott, A. H., "Anomalous Conductance Behavior in Polymers," Report of the 1965 Conference on Electrical Insulation, NRC-NAS.
- (7) Amey, W. G., and Hamberger, F., Jr., "A Method for Evaluating the Surface and Volume Resistance Characteristics of Solid Dielectric Materials," *Proceedings*, American Society for Testing and Materials, Vol 49, 1949, pp. 1079–1091.
- (8) Witt, R. K., Chapman, J. J., and Raskin, B. L., "Measuring of Surface and Volume Resistance," *Modern Plastics*, Vol 24, No. 8, April 1947, p. 152.
- (9) Scott, A. H., "Insulation Resistance Measurements," Fourth Electrical Insulation Conference, Washington, DC, February 19–22, 1962.
- (10) Kline, G. M., Martin, A. R., and Crouse, W. A., "Sorption of Water by Plastics," *Proceedings*, American Society for Testing and Materials, Vol 40, 1940, pp. 1273–1282.
- (11) Greenfield, E. W., "Insulation Resistance Measurements," *Electrical Engineering*, Vol 66, July 1947, pp. 698–703.
- (12) Cole, K. S., and Cole, R. H., "Dispersion and Absorption in Dielectrics, II Direct Current Characteristics," *Journal of Chemical Physics*, Vol 10, 1942.
- (13) Field, R. F., "Interpretation of Current-Time Curves as Applied to Insulation Testing," AIEE Boston District Meeting, April 19–20, 1944.
- (14) Lauritzen, J. I., "The Effective Area of a Guarded Electrode," *Annual Report*, Conference on Electrical Insulation. NAS-NRC Publication 1141, 1963.
- (15) Turner, E. F., Brancato, E. L., and Price, W., "The Measurement of Insulation Conductivity," *NRL Report 5060*, Naval Research Laboratory, Feb. 25, 1958.
- (16) Dorcas, D. S., and Scott, R. N., "Instrumentation for Measuring the D-C Conductivity of Very High Resistivity Materials," *Review of Scientific Instruments*, Vol 35, No. 9, September 1964.
- (17) Endicott, H. S., "Insulation Resistance, Absorption, and Their Measurement," *Annual Report*, Conference on Electrical Insulation, NAS-NRC Publication, 1958.
- (18) Occhini, E., and Maschio, G., "Electrical Characteristics of Oil-Impregnated Paper as Insulation for HV-DC Cables," *IEEE Transactions on Power Apparatus and Systems*, Vol PAS-86, No. 3, March 1967.
- (19) Endicott, H. S., "Guard-Gap Correction for Guarded-Electrode Measurements and Exact Equations for the Two-Fluid Method of Measuring Permittivity and Loss," *Journal of Testing and Evaluation*, Vol 4, No. 3, May 1976, pp. 188–195.

## SUMMARY OF CHANGES

Committee D09 has identified the location of selected changes to these test methods since the last issue, D257 – 99(2005), that may impact the use of these test methods. (Approved May 15, 2007)

- (1) Revised the text throughout.
- (2) Renumbered Figure 7B as **Fig. 8** and renumbered subsequent figures.

*ASTM International takes no position respecting the validity of any patent rights asserted in connection with any item mentioned in this standard. Users of this standard are expressly advised that determination of the validity of any such patent rights, and the risk of infringement of such rights, are entirely their own responsibility.*

*This standard is subject to revision at any time by the responsible technical committee and must be reviewed every five years and if not revised, either reapproved or withdrawn. Your comments are invited either for revision of this standard or for additional standards and should be addressed to ASTM International Headquarters. Your comments will receive careful consideration at a meeting of the responsible technical committee, which you may attend. If you feel that your comments have not received a fair hearing you should make your views known to the ASTM Committee on Standards, at the address shown below.*

*This standard is copyrighted by ASTM International, 100 Barr Harbor Drive, PO Box C700, West Conshohocken, PA 19428-2959, United States. Individual reprints (single or multiple copies) of this standard may be obtained by contacting ASTM at the above address or at 610-832-9585 (phone), 610-832-9555 (fax), or [service@astm.org](mailto:service@astm.org) (e-mail); or through the ASTM website ([www.astm.org](http://www.astm.org)).*