

National Library of Canada

Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0N4 Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington Ottawa (Ontario) K1A 0N4

Your life - Votre rélérence

Our file Notre reference

AVIS

The quality of this microform is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

NOTICE

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Reproduction in full or in part of this microform is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30, and subsequent amendments. La qualité de cette microforme dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

La reproduction, même partielle, de cette microforme est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30, et ses amendements subséquents.

Canada

University of Alberta

Development of a Laboratory Protocol to Predict

the Electrostatic Propensity of Clothing Systems

by Jose Alberto Gonzalez

C



Master of Science

in

Clothing and Textiles

Department of Human Ecology

Edmonton, Alberta

Spring 1995



National Library of Canada

Acquisitions and Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0N4 Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington Ottawa (Ontario) K1A 0N4

Your file Votre rélérence

Our file Notre référence

THE AUTHOR HAS GRANTED AN IRREVOCABLE NON-EXCLUSIVE LICENCE ALLOWING THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA TO REPRODUCE, LOAN, DISTRIBUTE OR SELL COPIES OF HIS/HER THESIS BY ANY MEANS AND IN ANY FORM OR FORMAT, MAKING THIS THESIS AVAILABLE TO INTERESTED PERSONS. L'AUTEUR A ACCORDE UNE LICENCE IRREVOCABLE ET NON EXCLUSIVE PERMETTANT A LA BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA DE REPRODUIRE, PRETER, DISTRIBUER OU VENDRE DES COPIES DE SA THESE DE QUELQUE MANIERE ET SOUS QUELQUE FORME QUE CE SOIT POUR METTRE DES EXEMPLAIRES DE CETTE THESE A LA DISPOSITION DES PERSONNE INTERESSEES.

THE AUTHOR RETAINS OWNERSHIP OF THE COPYRIGHT IN HIS/HER THESIS. NEITHER THE THESIS NOR SUBSTANTIAL EXTRACTS FROM IT MAY BE PRINTED OR OTHERWISE REPRODUCED WITHOUT HIS/HER PERMISSION.

ISBN 0-612-01609-9

L'AUTEUR CONSERVE LA PROPRIETE DU DROIT D'AUTEUR QUI PROTEGE SA THESE. NI LA THESE NI DES EXTRAITS SUBSTANTIELS DE CELLE-CI NE DOIVENT ETRE IMPRIMES OU AUTREMENT REPRODUITS SANS SON AUTORISATION.



University of Alberta

Library Release Form

Name of Autho Jose Alberto Gonzalez

Title of Thesis: Development of a Laboratory Protocol to Predict the Electrostatic Propensity of Clothing Systems

Degree: Master of Science

Year this Degree Granted: 1995

Permission is hereby granted to the University of Alberta Library to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves all other publication and other rights in association with the copyright in the thesis, and except as hereinbefore provided, neither the thesis nor any substantial portion thereof may be printed or otherwise reproduced in any material form whatever without the author's prior written permission.

(signed)

¹ PERMANENT ADDRESS 3289 - 142 Avenue Edmonton, Alberta T5Y 1H9

Date: December 22, 1994

University of Alberta

Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to the Faculty of Graduate studies and Research for acceptance, athesis entitled Development of a Laboratory Protocol to Predict the Electrostatic Propensity of Clothing Systems submitted by Jose Alberto Gonzalez in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Clothing and Textiles.

DR. E. CROWN (Supervisor)

Peter Smy

DR. P.R. SMY

DR. N KEN

DATE: Momber 28/14

TO MY WIFE CRISTY, AND OUR CHILDREN LUIS, LAURA AND ANDRES. TO MY PARENTS FRANCISCO AND ALBERTINA, MY SISTERS YENI AND ALMA, MY BROTHERS GUILLERMO AND FRANCISCO

ABSTRACT

An accurate and general method to measure the electrostatic propensity of textile systems has been an elusive goal for many years. Numerous small-scale techniques have been tried, but unsuccessfully for some conditions. One of the most serious difficulties is a poor relationship between measurements taken by such methods and the values of electrostatic discharges from garment systems in real-life situations.

This thesis describes a study to develop a laboratory protocol to measure the electrostatic properties of clothing systems. Three small-scale test methods, both existing and new, were evaluated and compared in order to choose the method or set of methods that could best assess the electrostatic propensity of protective garment systems to be worn by workers in hazardous environments under dry conditions.

Several one- and two-layer fabric systems that included non-FR 100% cotton, as well as protective fabrics of 100% aramid/carbon, aramid/PBI, aramid/FR viscose, and FR cotton were tested. Experiments were conducted at 20% relative humidity and room temperature.

Results showed a trend where antistatic fabrics could be charged to lower discharge potentials and showed lower decay times than regular fabrics of either synthetic or cellulose fibres. These discharge potentials and decay times were compared with data from human-bc uy experiments. Significant coefficients of determination (R²) of up to .97 were found when results from different test methods were combined and regressed on human-body data.

It seems, therefore, that measuring peak discharge potentials and charge decay times from charged fabric systems using a battery of test methods can be sufficient to assess with high accuracy the static behavior of garment systems in real-life conditions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to express a special gratefulness to Dr. Betty Crown, the Chairperson, Department of Human Ecology for her generosity, and patience throughout the study.

Special thanks are also extended to Dr. Syed Rizvi and Dr. Peter Smy, Department of Electrical Engineering for providing professional assistance, expert advice and, principally, friendship. To Dr. Nancy Kerr, Department of Human Ecology for her generous and invaluable help that made this work possible.

Special appreciation is expressed to the Staff of the Department of Human Ecology, specially Elaine Bitner, Crystal Dawley and Diana Parsons for easing the work of this research.

Last but not least, the author would like to thank the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC), and Heritage Research Grant Program of Alberta Occupational Health and Safety for funding this research. Without their financial assistance this project would have been impossible.

CONTENT

	PAGE No.
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
Background	2
Electrostatics on Textiles	2
Antistatic Solutions	2
Statement of the Problem	3
Justification and Purpose	3
Specific Objectives	5
Statement of Null Hypotheses	5
Delimitations and Limitations of the Study	6
Definitions of Terms	6
Chapter 2 Review of Literature	9
Principles Related to Static Electricity	9
Principles of Electrostatics	9
Charge Generation	10
Charge Dissipation	11
Hazards from Electrostatics	11
Evaluation of Hazards Created by ESD	11
Minimum Ignition Energy (MIE)	13
Measurements of Static Electricity in Textiles	13
Human Body Experiments	13
Small Scale Tests	14
Field Intensity	15
Electrical Resistivity	16
Charge Decay Rate	16
Other Measurement Techniques	17
Summary	17

Chapter 3 Methods 18 Research Design 18 Procedures 18 Conditioning 11 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Charge Decay Time 26 Charge Decay Time 26 Correlation between Potential 26 Correlation between Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36<		dî	PAGE No.	
Research Design 18 Procedures 18 Procedures 18 Conditioning 18 Measurements of Dependent Variables 11 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 11 Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 11 Date Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Peak Discharge Potential Charge Decay Time 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 33 Charge Decay Time 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Objective 1 43 O	Chapter 3 -	Methods	18	
Procedures 18 Pabric Sampling 18 Conditioning 18 Measurements of Dependent Variables 21 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypoutnesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential Charge Decay Time 28 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 3 45 <t< td=""><td>Onaptor O</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></t<>	Onaptor O			
Fabric Sampling 18 Conditioning 18 Measurements of Dependent Variables 21 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hyp-uhesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 32 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Smäll-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Research Design	18	
Fabric Sampling 18 Conditioning 18 Measurements of Dependent Variables 21 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hyp-uhesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 32 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Smäll-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Conditioning Conditioning Measurements of Dependent Variables Test No. 2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) Test No. 3 (Cederal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) Data Collection 3 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results Unilayer Specimens Peak Discharge Potential Charge Decay Time Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 8 Correlation between Potential Correlation between Potential Correlation between Potential Correlation between Potential Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data Building a Testing Model 3 Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 4 Objective 1 4 Objective 3 Chapter 4 Cesting 4 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data Dobjective 4 4 Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 4 Cesting Model 3 Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 5		Procedures		
Measurements of Dependent Variables 21 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.2 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Correlation between Potential 26 Correlation between Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Charge Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Charge Decay Time 39 Ecorrelation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Charge Decay Time 39 Building a Testing Model 39 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4		Fabric Sampling		
Measurements of Dependent Variables 21 Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 <t< td=""><td></td><td>Conditioning</td><td></td><td></td></t<>		Conditioning		
Test No. 1 (UA ESD Test System) 21 Test No. 2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No. 3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 1 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			21	
Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Peak Discharge Potential Charge Decay Time 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 33 Charge Decay Time 33 Correlation between Smäll-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			21	
Standard 191A, method 5931) 21 Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 4 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4		Test No 2 (modified Federal Test Me	thod	
Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) 4 Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Charge Decay Time 26 Correlation between Potential 26 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Smill-Scale and 40 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			21	
Standard 191A, method 5931)				
Data Collection 4 Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Smail-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Statistical Analysis: Hypothesis Testing 24 Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential 33 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Data Collection		
Summary 25 Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential 33 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Outline Analysis Hyperin Tosting	24	
Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Statistical Analysis. Hypothesis resulty	<i>6</i> , 1	
Chapter 4 Results 26 Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Summon (25	
Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Summary		
Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Unilayer Specimens 26 Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Charge Decay Time 36 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Smiall-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46	Chapter 4	Results	26	
Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46	Chapter 4.			
Peak Discharge Potential 26 Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Unilaver Specimens	26	
Charge Decay Time 28 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 31 Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 36 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			26	
Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 5 Discussion Objective 1 Objective 3 Objective 4 Objective 4 Charge Decay Time Correlation between Potential and Decay Time Correlation between Potential and Decay Time Seale and Human-Body data Building a Testing Model Human-Body data Building a Testing Model Human-Body data Chapter 5 Discussion Chapter 5 Discu			28	
Multilayer Specimens 33 Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Correlation between Potential and Decay Time		
Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Peak Discharge Potential 33 Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and 39 Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Multilaver Specimens	33	
Charge Decay Time 36 Correlation between Potential and Decay Time 38 Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			33	
Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Correlation between Small-Scale and Human-Body data Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Charge Decay Time		
Human-Body data 39 Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Building a Testing Model 40 Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46			30	
Chapter 5 Discussion 43 Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4		-		
Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Building a Testing Model	40	
Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46				
Objective 1 43 Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Dissussion	43	
Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46	Chapter 5.	- Discussion	-0	
Objective 2 44 Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Objective 1	43	
Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Objective		
Objective 3 45 Objective 4 46		Objective 2	44	
Objective 4 46				
Objective 4 46		Objective 3	45	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		Objective 4	46	
Objective 5 47		•		
		Objective 5	47	
Objective 6 48		Objective 6	48	

Chapter 6 Conclusions and Recommendations	PAGE No. 52
Summary	52
Conclusions	52
Recommendations Recommendations for Industry Recommendations for Further Research	53 53 54
Bibliography	55
Appendix A	60
Appendix A1: Sampling Diagram	61
Appendix A2: Test No.1 Testing Procedure	62
Appendix A3: Testing Procedure for Test No.2	63
Appendix A4: Data Collection Form	64
Appendix B	65
Appendix B1: ANOVA of Unilayer Specimens Peak Poter and Decay Time	ntial 66
Appendix B2: ANOVA of Test No.1 Peak Potential	67
Appendix B3: ANOVA of Test No.2 Peak Potential and D Time (unilayer specimens)	ecay 68
Appendix B4: ANOVA of Test No.3 Peak Potential and D Time (unilayer specimens)	ecay 69
Appendix B5: ANOVA of Multilayer Specimens Peak Pote and Decay Time	ential 71
Appendix B6: ANOVA of Test No.1 Peak Potential	73
Appendix B7: ANOVA of Test No.2 Peak Potential and D Time (multilayer specimens)	ecay 74
Appendix B8: ANOVA of Test No.3 Peak Potential and D Time (multilayer specimens)	lecay 75
Appendix B9: Multiple Regression for Test Battery 1	77

	PAGE Appendix B10: Multiple Regression for Test Battery 2	No. 78
Appendix C	;	79
	Appendix C1: Regression Analysis of Discharge Energies from the UA ESD Test System and Human-Body Experiment	80
	Appendix C2: Linear Relationship between Test Battery 2 and Human-Body Experiment	81
	Appendix C3: Linear Relationship between UA ESD Test System (multilayer specimens) and Human-Body Experiment	82
	Appendix C4: Histogram of Standardized Residuals for Test Battery 1	83
	Appendix C5: Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals for Test Battery 1	84
	Appendix C6: Plot of Normal Probability of Standardized Residuals for Test Battery 1	85
	Appendix C7: Histogram of Standardized Residuals for Test Battery 2	86
	Appendix C8: Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals for Test Battery 1	87

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.	Experimental Design	PAGE No. 19
Table 2.	Fabrics Used in the Experiment	20
Table 3.	Analysis of variance: Mean Peak Potentials and Decay Times by Test Method and Fabric for Unilayer Specimens	es 29
Table 4.	Correlation (R) of Peak Potentials among Test Methods: Unilayer Specimens	32
Table 5	Correlation (R) of Decay Times among Test Methods	32
Table 6.	Correlation (R) between Peak Potential and Decay Time from different Test Methods	32
Table 7.	Analysis of variance: Mean Peak Potentials and Decay Tim by Test Method & Fabric System for Multilayer Specimens	es 35
Table 8.	Correlation (R) of Peak Potentials among Test Methods: Multilayer Specimens	38
Table 9.	Correlation (R) of Decay Times among Test Methods	39
Table 10.	Correlation (R) between Peak Potential and Decay Time from different Test Methods	39
Table 11.	Correlations between Human-Body Discharge Potentials and both Peak Potentials and Decay Times measured by Small-Scale Tests	40
Table 12.	Coefficients of Determination (R sq.) among Different Labo Test Methods and Human-Body Data	ratory 41
Table 13.	Mean Coefficients of variation (CV%) in Peak Potential and Decay Time for Different Test Methods	j 46

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.	The UA ESD Test System	PAGE No. 22
Figure 2.	The Friction Charge Decay Test	23
Figure 3.	Peak Discharge Potentials for Unilayer Fabrics by Test Method	27
Figure 4.	Charge Decay Times for Unilayer Fabrics by Test Method	30
Figure 5.	Peak Discharge Potentials for Multilayer Fabric System by Test Method	34
Figure 6.	Charge Decay Times for Multilayer Fabrics by Test Method	37
Figure 7.	Linear Relationship between Test Battery 1 and Human-Bo Experiment	dy 49

Chapter 1 Introduction

Static electricity has long been cited by investigators as a possible cause of accidental or premature ignition of flammable or explosive liquids, vapors, gases, and solids. Many cases have been documented (Scott, 1981) in which the energy generated on a charged object reaches the level at which the resistance of the air-gap between the object and a conductor at a lower potential breaks down, producing a spark.

Some of the well known undesirable effects include clinging of charged clothing together or to the body as well as dust attraction to charged materials, thereby causing soiling of clothing in places like department stcres. Often people experience shocks when, after walking over a carpet, they touch a metal light switch; or when after sliding off a car seat, they touch the car body. The resulting shock is caused by the discharge of several thousand volts in the form of a spark to the conductor (Roth, 1990).

In the electronic and other high-tech industries, there can be damage to or malfunctioning of equipment when a static-sensitive component comes into contact with a person or a material with a static build-up. The electrostatic field on a charged person or material can destroy a component by an induction mechanism (Matisoit, 1986; Roth, 1990). The most serious effect of an electrostatic discharge is its ability to ignite flammable gases, vapors, or powders at work sites, resulting in fires and explosions and the possible loss of human life (Wilson, 1977). These hazards associated with static propensity are a safety and financial concern to the industrial world. Therefore, they have generated the need for improved methods to predict the electrostatic tendency of textile systems.

At the present time, there is no generally accepted method to measure electrostatic properties of textile systems that can reliably and accurately predict the static propensity of protective garment systems which comprise combinations of different garments, worn by workers in hazardous environments, especially in low humidity conditions. Numerous measurement techniques have been tried, but problems remain with all of these methods. One of the most serious difficulties is a poor relationship between measurements taken by such methods and the real-life values of electrostatic discharges from a charged clothed human body. Also, these methods normally measure the electrostatic characteristics of a surface of an insulator which does not represent the real phenomenon of a charged capacitor being discharged by a grounded object, as the human-body static discharge is.

Background

The term "electrostatic" or "static electricity" refers to the phenomenon associated with the build up of electrical charges generated, for example, by contact and/or rubbing of two objects. Static electricity is generated by unbalancing the molecular configuration of relatively non-conductive materials.

The word "electricity" comes from "electron" (amber in Greek) and it was Thales of Miletus (640-548 BC) who first observed this specific property. It was termed "electrical" in 1600 by William Gilbert who is said to have begun the scientific study of electricity and magnetism.

Our current ideas on the nature of electricity stem from the knowledge of atomic structure and the existence of tiny indivisible particles of both kinds of electricity. The existence of these positive and negative electrical particles is inherent in the structure of matter, and they possess a mass and a quantity of electrical charge.

Electrostatics on Textiles

Many years ago the problems arising from static charges were relatively small with natural fibres in high humidity environments, but these problems became recognized as serious when synthetic fibres of a hydrophobic nature were introduced. Even natural fibres like wool and cotton, when completely dry, are very poor conductors, but their conductivity increases in high humidity atmospheres, because they absorb substantial amounts of moisture (of the order of 10%, calculated on the weight of the fibre). On the other hand, many manufactured fibres absorb little or no moisture and remain pocr conductors in atmospheres of more than 60% relative humidity (Datyner, 1983).

Antistatic Solutions

Some finishes have been developed that attempt to decrease static build-up by one or more of three basic methods: (1) by increasing the material's conductivity, whereby the charged electrons move to the air or are grounded, (2) by increasing absorption of water by the finish, providing a conductive surface on the fabric that carries away the static charge, and (3) by neutralizing negative and positive charges. These finishes, however, tend to have limited effectiveness, largely because they are gradually lost during the final stages of fabric processing or care of finished products, and/or they do not work properly under cold and dry conditions. More successful reduction in static build-up of synthetics is achieved through the modification of the polymer prior to extrusion. Such modification, which is permanent, incorporates in the fibre structure compounds such as cationic polyelectrolytes containing polyethylene oxide segments, that increase the moisture absorbency which, in turn, increases conductivity.

Another approach is to use special high-performance antistatic fibres. Metal, metallized, and bi-component fibres containing metal or carbon are among those used. A small quantity of these fibres is blended with conventional synthetic fibres. Being more conductive, these fibre blends serve to dissipate static charges mainly to the air, or to ensure that no accumulation can occur.

Statement of the Problem

At present, there is not a single small-scale laboratory method that can accurately predict the electrostatic propensity of protective garment systems to be worn by workers in hazardous environments. Existing methods measure only the static characteristics of surface insulators, such as discharge potential and decay rate. The values of these variables differ greatly from an electrostatic discharge from a clothed human body because the mechanisms of charging and discharging in each case are different. Charge build-up depends on the conductivity of the material (Hayek and Chromey, 1951), and the resistivity and decay rate of the textile surface (Ramer and Richards, 1968; Chubb, 1988), while discharging depends on the capacitance and resistance of the charged object as well as the geometry of the grounding device (Greason, 1992; Berkey, Pratt and Williams, 1988).

Justification and Purpose

There is general concern about the electrostatic phenomenon on textile surfaces. Many accidents involving static discharges from charged textiles have been reported. It is very simple to generate such a condition: if a jacket is removed quickly, or if a lab coat is rubbed briskly against a chair, if the materials involved are dissimilar, and if the relative humidity is sufficiently low, then a charge large enough to induce a sparking potential can occur. Actually, the discharge will likely be from the wearer due to the fact that the static charge is induced onto the individual wearing the charged garment. Friction, dissimilar surfaces, and low relative humidity are conditions tending to favor the production of high static charge. A resulting spark can ignite flammable substances or most certainly destroy static sensitive electronic devices. This electrostatic propensity is a serious hazard in hospital operating rooms, and in the oil, military, chemical, electronic, and other high-tech industries.

The major determinants of sparking potential are humidity, the fabrics/substances involved, and the degree of friction involved (Wilson, 1977). In cold regions like Alberta, the absolute humidity level declines extremely with very cold temperatures, so the electrostatic threat can be more significant than in warmer regions. People who work outdoors in extremely cold conditions may be required to wear thermal protective clothing when working in unsafe circumstances. It has been shown that clothing made of thermal protective fabrics such as aramids or flame retardant cotton may generate enough energy to ignite a fuel vapor-air mixture (Osei-Ntiri, 1992).

By walking over a non-conducting floor covering, the body potential can be raised to over 10 kilovolts (kV) (Roth, 1990), but the charge involved is only approximately 1 microcoulomb (mC) (Greason, 'i 992). On discharge, less than 10 milijoules (mJ) is released, which is only a thousandth of the amount regarded as harmful (Wandel, Gutschik & Carl, 1972). Although a spark produced as a result of a body voltage of 1.25 V (0.2 mJ) is considered insufficient to ignite a gasoline-air mixture (Lewis and von Elbe, 1951), recent research has found values for threshold energy as low as 26 mJ for incendive sparks (Rizvi and Smy,1992).

Some people believe that 100% cotton garments are less prone to static electricity than fabrics such as aramids. This belief is based on its high moisture regain at high relative humidity, and on the mid-position of cotton in the triboelectric series, which ranks different materials according to charge polarity generated when they, in pairs, are rubbed against each other and separated (frictional separation). The amount of static generation depends not only on the atmospheric conditions but also on the substance being rubbed against, as well as the degree of rubbing (Klein and Kaswell, 1990). At 20% relative humidity, aramid fabrics have a slightly lower apparent surface resistivity than regular cotton or FR cotton fabrics. At 50% relative humidity, the cotton products have somewhat lower values. The decrease of resistivity with an increase in humidity is greater for cotton than for fabrics made of most synthetic fibres (Red Kap Industries report, 1990).

Today, in most jurisdictions including Alberta, there is no definite policy regarding electrostatics in clothing nor is there any prevalent, accepted industry-wide standard. Such standards are needed for proper evaluation and description of protective garments, but little

progress in the field has been made to date. The determination of appropriate policy regarding protective clothing is essentially left to each firm. As a result, there is a lack of control of electrostatic phenomenon, and its subsequent elimination.

The present study was planned to overcome the lack of relationship between smallscale tests and real-life static discharges by developing a laboratory protocol that can accurately and reliably assess the electrostatic propensity of protective clothing systems that workers wear in hazardous environments under cold and dry conditions. Existing and new methods were compared and evaluated in order to choose the method or set of methods that can best assess the electrostatic behavior.

Specific Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

- develop new methods for the measurement of the electrostatic characteristics of fabric systems;
- a) measure peak discharge potential of static discharges from fabric systems following new and known methods at low humidity, and b) determine differences in potential among the various fabric systems;
- 3. a) measure the charge decay time for the surface charge on fabric systems at low humidity, and b) determine differences in decay time among the various fabric systems;
- compare and evaluate different small-scale laboratory methods for the prediction of the electrostatic propensity of protective fabric systems at low humidity;
- determine the relationship between charge decay time and peak discharge potential of different protective fabric systems as measured by small-scale tests; and
- determine the relationship between data from small-scale tests (multilayer specimens) and that from human-body experiments.

Statement of Null Hypotheses

To meet objectives 2, 3, 5, and 6, the following null hypotheses were tested:

Ho₁. There will be no significant difference in peak discharge potential measured by small-scale laboratory tests among different fabric systems.

- Ho₂. There will be no significant difference in charge decay time among different fabric systems.
- Ho₃. There will be no significant correlation between peak discharge potential, and the charge decay time obtained by small-scale laboratory tests.
- Ho₄. There will be no significant correlation between peak discharge potential and charge decay time measured by small-scale laboratory tests (multilayer specimens) and those obtained in human-body experiments.

Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The delimitations established for the research were:

- 1. The composition of fabric systems was restricted to protective fabrics made of aramid/cart...), FR cotton, aramid/PBI, and aramid/FR viscose fibres. The control fabric was 100% cotton.
- 3. Experiments were conducted only at 20 \pm 2% relative humidity and 22 \pm 2°C.
- 4. The charge decay cut-off levels were at 10%, and 50% of the charge initially applied.

A limitation that affected the present study was the availability of only limited data from human-body experiments obtained during another phase of the larger project. Only one human activity, a clothed human body sliding off a car seat, was considered for the analysis and comparison.

Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of the present research, the following definitions applied:

<u>Static Electricity</u>: "Static electricity connotes the phenomena of attraction and repulsion observed between electrically-charged bodies differentiated from the effect of 'dynamic electricity' which is utilized in the generation of power or energy when it passes through a system".

(Crugnola and Robinson, 1959, p.2)

<u>Electrostatic Propensity</u>: The capacity of a non-conducting material to acquire and hold an electrical charge by induction (via corona discharge) or by triboelectric means (rubbing with another material).

(ASTM D4238-90, p.399)

Electrostatic Discharge (ESD): ESD is a transfer of static charges between bodies at different potentials caused by direct contact or induced by an electrostatic field.

<u>Triboelectrification</u>: the generation of a static charge between two materials by rubbing them together.

<u>Static Charge (q)</u>: If an object exerts an electrical force on another object, it is said to be charged. The force exerted is dependent on the amount of the charge; that is, a static charge is considered an amount or quantity of electricity. If a body is electrically neutral, the resultant charge is zero. The unit of static charge, Coulomb (C), corresponds to a charge of 6.25×10^{18} electrons.

Potential (V): The potential difference dV between two points in a dielectric field is defined as:

$$dV = V_f - V_i = -W_{if}/q_0$$

where qo is a test charge on which work (W_{if}) is done by the field, V_f is the final potential, and V_i is the initial potential.

The SI unit of potential is the Volt (V) where 1 V = 1 Joule/Coulomb. (Hallidav-Resnick, 1988, p.608)

<u>Capacitance (C)</u>: is the ratio of the charge on one electrode to the potential difference between the electrodes. The SI unit of capacitance is the Farad (F). Generally, the capacitance of a capacitor is evaluated by (1) assuming charge q to have been placed on the plates, (2) finding the electric field E due to this charge, (3) evaluating the potential difference V, and (4) calculating C from equation:

C (Farads)= q (Coulombs)/V (Volts)

(Halliday-Resnick, 1988, p.632)

Potential Energy (U): The potential energy of a charged capacitor, given by

$$U = q^2/2C = CV^2/2$$

is the work required to charge it. This energy is conveniently thought of as stored in the electric field E associated with the capacitor. By extension, the stored energy can be associated with an electric field generally, no matter what is its origin. The SI unit of potential energy is the Joule (J).

(Halliday-Resnick, 1988, p.632)

<u>Electrostatic decay half-life</u>: The time in seconds for the maximum voltage induced on a textile to be reduced to one-half of the maximum voltage (50% cut off level) by the various decay mechanisms: conduction and ionization of the air.

(ASTM D4238-90, p.399)

In the research, a charge dissipation to one tenth (10% cut off level) of the maximum voltage induced on a textile was considered, too.

Electric Current (I): An electric current I in a conductor is defined by:

I = dq/dt

Here, dq is the amount of (positive) charge that passes in time dt through a hypothetical surface that cuts across the conductor. The direction of electric current is the direction in which positive charge carriers would move. The SI unit of electric current is the Ampere (A) which is equal to 1 Coulomb/second.

(Halliday-Resnick, 1988, p.655)

<u>Resistance (R)</u>: The resistance R between any two equipotential surfaces of a conductor is defined from:

R = V/I

The SI unit of resistance is the ohm where 1 ohm = 1 volt/ampere

(Serway, 1990, p.746)

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Principles Related to Static Electricity

Principles of Electrostatics

Although magnetism was known in China as early as around 2000 B.C., and electric and magnetic phenomena were observed by Greeks as early as 700 B.C., it was not until the late part of the 18th century and the early part of the 19th century that scientists established the bases for electrostatic knowledge (Serway, 1990). In 1733 Charles F. Du Fay observed two kinds of electricity, which were subsequently named positive and negative by Lichtenberg in 1778. In 1785, Charles Coulomb established the fundamental law of electric force (F_E) between two stationary, charged particles. The entire subject of electrostatics is based upon this one force law (Cheston, 1964). During the nineteenth century, a number of machines were made in which electrostatic charges were multiplied by induction and accumulated. The machines could be described as mechanized versions of Volta's electric charge-storage device and a Leyden jar (Bowers, 1982).

In 1909, Robert Millikan discovered that electric charge always occurs as some integral multiple of some fundamental unit of charge, e. The charge is said to be quantized, that is, electric charge exists as discrete "packets". This elementary charge can be positive or negative and its value is 1.60219×10^{-19} Coulombs (Serway, 1990).

Electrostatic charges are invariably produced at the interface between two dissimilar materials when they are brought into firm contact with each other. These charges may comprise electrons, ions, and charged particles of the bulk materials -or any combination of these (Wilson, 1987). Henry (1953) reported that when these two surfaces are separated, either with or without obvious rubbing, charged particles are found to have crossed the boundary, with the usual result that the two surfaces have gained equal and opposite charges. Materials differ in their propensity to lose some of their electrons when in contact with another material (Crow, 1991). Wilson (1987) called this phenomenon "work function" which is defined as the energy required to cause the removal of an electron from a material. When two bodies make contact, that which has the lower work function loses electrons to that with the higher work function.

For materials which are poor conductors of electricity as are most textiles and polymers, the causes of contact charging are very complex. Experiments with certain well cleaned polymers under carefully controlled conditions, however have shown that, as with good conductors, the charging is largely electronic in nature. However, in practice, the surfaces of textiles are usually contaminated with additives, finishes, dirt and moisture in all of which resides an abundance of ions (Henry, 1971).

Charge Generation

Considerable research has been done on the charge generation characteristics of textiles used in clothing. The static charge which is involved in a spark phenomenon is often generated on the clothing or footwear of the individual and induced onto the skin. Hence, the charging characteristics of clothing and shoes play a critical role in determining the possibility to produce a spark which could ignite flammable gases (Berkey et al, 1988).

Static electricity is generated when almost any pair of surfaces is separated. The amount of charge transferred from one surface to another depends on the relative affinities of the materials for a charge of given polarity (Sello & Stevens, 1984). Shaw and Jex (1951) stated that the static electrification between two insulators of the same material is caused by asymmetric friction or temperature difference. But Shirai (1984) determined that the electric charge of two sheets of polyester depended on their thickness ather than their asymmetric friction or temperature difference.

A separation of charges may occur between two surfaces when they are rubbed "asymmetrically". When one surface is rough and the other smooth, the two surfaces become charged as if they were made of different materials (Henry, 1953).

Although rubbing is not necessary for charge generation, it usually increases the amount of charge produced. "Triboelectrification" is the term that applies when an electrical charge is generated on a body by frictional forces and is probably the major mechanism for the generation of electrostatic charge in textile materials (Wilson and Cavanaugh, 1972).

Charges may also be generated between a non-conductor and a conductor by induction. Consider a negatively charged rubber rod (non-conductor) brought near a neutral (uncharged) conducting sphere insulated from ground. The region of the sphere nearest the negatively charged rod will obtain an excess of positive charge, while the region of the sphere is grounded, some of the electrons will be conducted to earth. When the grounding connection is removed, the sphere will contain an excess of induced positive charge (Haase, 1977).

A third type of charging can occur between two conductors, one of which is initially charged. In this case a charge transfer takes place at the time of contact, and results in new body potentials after separation (Greason, 1992).

Charge Dissipation

A charged human body is a primary cause of electrostatic discharges (ESD). The charging process for the human body involves both triboelectrification and induction processes (Roth, 1990). Consider the case where a person, wearing insulating shoes, walks across another insulating surface, such as a carpet. The bottom of the shoe sole and the surface of the carpet become charged due to triboelectrification. Since the human body can be modeled as a neutral conductor, insulated from ground by the footwear worn, the charges trapped on the footwear cause a polarization of charge on the human body. A charge equal and opposite in polarity to the trapped charge, moves to the human feet, leaving a charge distributed over the body. If the person new touches a grounded conductor, a charge flow will take place to balance the polarized charge. The effective electrical equivalent circuit of the charge source, the discharge path and the charge sink, determines the dynamic characteristics of the ESD (Boxleitner, 1989).

Some interesting observations can be made from this simple model. If a human body, wearing charged soles, is discharged as described, its potential would again rise if the shoes were removed. A similar problem would occur if a human body, wearing a charged garment, were discharged and then the garment were subsequently removed. These examples demonstrate that zero potential on a conductor does not necessarily imply a neutral condition (Greason, 1992).

In all the cases described above, the static charging current is very low so that the total charge a human body can accumulate is normally only of the order of a few microcoulombs. The voltage relative to the earth potential depends on the capacitance, since the following relation holds:

ପ୍ଲ = VC

where the human body capacitance is also very small and therefore requires little charge to cause a rise in potential of several thousand volts, depending on the environmental conditions (Roth, 1990).

Hazards from Electrostatics

Evaluation of Hazards Created by ESD

Static electricity manifests its destructive nature mainly through electrostatic discharges. The electrostatic build-up on people or materials, particularly non-conductive materials (textiles), can be significant in the dry cold conditions of Canada's Arctic. The

average individual walking across a non-conductive floor or sliding off a car seat can generate discharge potentials from 3 to 7 kV (Matisoff, 1986; Sclater, 1990), or depending on the environment (e.g. low relative humidity), the voltage can rise to 15 kV or more (Sclater, 1990). The ability of many fabrics to hold on to a static charge is a function of the relative humidity of the environment (Sereda and Feldman, 1955; Ramer and Richards, 1968).

The main danger of ESD, or sparks, is their incendiary properties. They usually pose no electrical danger to human beings because the voltages and charges generated are too small. Depending on the individual, the human body has a threshold for shock of over 3 kV (Sclater, 1990). However, a discharge spark of less than 50 V can cause damage to ESDsensitive electronic devices (McAteer, 1987; Sclater, 1990). The energy dissipated in the spark as heat also provides the source for ignition of flammable gases (Tolson, 1980).

Spark discharge occurs when the electric field strength exceeds the air breakdown value of 30 kV/cm at atmospheric pressure (Gibson and Lloyd, 1965). This means that the maximum free charge density which can exist on a plane surface is about 34 mC/m² (Ji, Takahashi, Komai and Kobayashi, 1989).

Tolson (1980) reported that the incendivity of a discharge can be estimated once the circumstances of charge accumulation are known. Charge accumulation on a ungrounded conductor (human body or discrete conductive fabric) and charge accumulation on an insulator (synthetic fabrics and plastics) are two very different situations. The former represents by far the greatest risk because it can discharge all the electrostatic energy instantaneously in the form of a spark given by:

$U = CV^2/2 = QV/2 \text{ [joules]}$

In the case of electrically insulating materials (fabric), however, their high surface and volume resistivity impede the flow of charge to the point of discharge and only a fraction of the total charge on the surface is released in the discharge. The above equation can not therefore be used to calculate the energy of the discharge because the charged insulator is not intrinsically an equipotential surface (Löbel, 1987). The character of a discharge from an insulator may be described in terms of the total charge transferred in the discharge and its distribution with space and time. Thus, the incendivity of a discharge depends not only upon the total amount of energy or charge released, but also upon the time distribution of the energy (Glor, 1988). A corona discharge extended in time is less incendive than a short-lived spark of the same total energy (Gibson and Lloyd, 1965).

For the various types of fabrics (non-conducting and conductive) the main electrostatic discharges of concern are the spark energies from brush discharges (Lövstrand,

1981). Brush discharges, unlike the Lichtenberg or propagating brush discharges (which could have incendive energy as high as 75 mJ), are not expected to have energy that exceed about 2 mJ (Owens, 1984; Glor, 1988; Rizvi, Smy, Crown and Osei-Ntiri, 1992).

Minimum Ignition Energy (MIE)

Assessment of the ignition risk from an electrostatic charged body essentially requires comparison of the igniting power of any discharge from the body with the minimum ignition energy of the flammable atmosphere (Gibson & Lloyd, 1965; Glor, 1988; Owens, 1984). According to Bustin and Dukek (1983), saturated hydrocarbon gases and vapors require about 0.25 mJ of stored energy for spark ignition of optimum gas-air mixtures. Wilson (1977/1978) also showed that the minimum ignition energy of coal gas and air is 0.03 mJ, of natural gas and air is 0.3 mJ and fuel vapor and air is 0.20 mJ. Rizvi and Smy (1992) found that the threshold energy, the product of the threshold energy density and the surface area of the discharge, was a far less reliable measurement than the threshold energy density. The minimum energy density thresholds for incendive and non-incendive sparks were found to be 10 J/m^2 and 0.25 J/m², respectively.

Measurements Static Electricity in Textiles

Human Body Experiments

Almost all previous work on human spark scenarios has involved the clothed person, often wearing a pair of insulating shoes, performing common movements such as walking across a carpet, sliding off a seat or removing a garment. Research at institutions such as the Arctic Aeromedical Laboratory (USA), the Quartermaster Research Establishment and Engineering Command (USA) and the Shirley Institute (UK) all investigated the generation and subsequent discharge of static electricity in military or arctic clothing systems and other work wear, using clothed persons as the subjects and conducting the experiment in the laboratory.

The Arctic Aeromedical Laboratory research (Veghte & Millard, 1963) focused specifically on the accumulation of static electricity on Arctic clothing. In the experiment, three different Arctic clothing outfits made mainly from nylon were worn by fifteen different subjects. They walked outside and did some physical exercise. The electrostatic charges on the clothing systems and the capacitance of the subjects were measured. The subjects reentered the laboratory and removed their outer garments and the electrostatic discharges

13

from the body measured. The experiments were conducted at outdoor temperatures ranging from 5°C to -43°C and relative humidity at between 50% and 74%. The research pointed out the dangers of personnel working outside, coming indoors and removing exterior clothing in a warm dry environment, a situation which tends to produce very high electrostatic charges.

Wilson's study (1977/1978) was intended to investigate the charge generation characteristics of clothing in normal use by workers. The objective of this project was to assist in developing a specification which could be used to identify safe fabrics for use when handling flammable materials. The garments were the type worn by military personnel and were made of fabrics such as polyester and linen/polyester coveralls, aramid and cotton flying suits and polyurethane coated nylon foul weather suits. The chair cover materials were lambswool, PVC-coated cotton, leather, and cotton canvas. The subject wearing a garment and a pair of rubber-soled shoes, sat down on a covered chair and slid off it into a standing position. In all cases, the body voltages were discharged to ground via the fingers to produce sparks (corona discharge), which were measured. This work was done at relative humidity in the range of 15 to 80%, at 21°C. The result showed that cotton as well as synthetic fabrics are static prone at low humidity.

Osei-Ntiri (1992) described the characteristics of ESD from the human body wearing thermal protective garment systems and doing two human activities: sliding off a car seat, and walking and removing a garment. The experiments were conducted at very low humidity and room temperature. It was found that garment systems made of antistatic fibres (Aramid/carbon and aramid/stainless steel) generated static charges of less energy than those made of non-antistatic fibres (aramid and FR cotton).

Small-Scale Tests

There are basically two approaches to assessing the electrostatic propensity of textiles: measure either the surface resistivity, or the charge decay rate. Several standard methods, widely used in the industry, have been derived from these two parameters. Examples included AATCC Test Method 84-1987: Electrical resistivity of yarns; AATCC Test Method 76-1987: Electrical resistivity of fabrics; ASTM D 4238-90: Standard Test Method for electrostatic propensity of textiles; Federal Test Method Standard 191A method 5931: Determination of electrostatic decay of fabrics; Federal Test Method Standard No. 101B method 4046: Electrostatic properties of materials; EOS/ESD Standard No. 2: Standard for protection of electrostatic discharge susceptible items: personnel garments (draft August 1987); AATCC Test Method 115-1986: Electrostatic clinging of fabrics: fabric-to-metal test; AATCC Test Method 134-1986: Electrostatic propensity of carpets; ASTM F2350.05: Standard test method for evaluating triboelectric (static) charge generation on protective clothing (draft January 1994).

Much has been written about methods to evaluate the electrostatic properties of textiles but there seems to be little consensus. Hearle in 1957 and Wilson in 1963 reported that the build up of static charge depends upon the electrical resistance. Crugnola and Robinson (1959), McLean (1955), and Teixeira & Edelstein (1954) listed the limitations of this assumption, as follows: 1) inaccurate for a textile fabric, 2) ignores effect of second surface, 3) ignores the effect of a blend, and 4) resistivity can at best furnish only a clue to one mechanism of charge dissipation, namely conduction.

Current standard test methods have not been entirely satisfactory, as discussed in detail by Crow (1991). The ASTM "Standard Test Method for Electrostatic Propensity of Textiles" D4238-90 measures the charge induced onto a rotating specimen by a D.C. current and its subsequent rate of decay. The test method states that inter-laboratory precision has not been established. In AATCC Test Method 76-1987 "Electrical Resistivity of Fabrics", the surface electrical resistivity is determined by means of an electrical resistance meter. This method recommends measurements be done at various humidities because the "accumulation of static electricity generally is greater the lower the relative humidity is".

Field intensity

An electrostatic field exists in the region surrounding an electrically charged object. This charged object, when brought in close proximity to an uncharged object, can induce a charge on the formerly neutral object. This is known as an induced charge. Quantitatively, this induced charge is the voltage gradient between two points at different potentials (Matisoff, 1986). In most situations, it is the electric field from the charge which causes electrostatic effects.

One technique for evaluating the possible sparking hazard is therefore to measure the electric field intensity (kV/cm) at the surface of the charged fabric (Owens, 1984). It has been demonstrated that field intensities less than 5 kV/cm cannot ignite any fuel that has a minimum ignition energy (MIE) greater than 0.15 mJ (Rizvi and Smy, 1992). The equivalent energy of possible sparks from a fabric can also be measured directly by attempting to ignite a gas or vapor that has a known ignition energy (Lövstrand, 1981; Owens, 1984; Glor, 1988).

Electrical resistivity

Measurement of electrical resistivity is a standardized and frequently used technique for the evaluation of electrostatic propensity of fabrics (Coelho, 1985; Löbel, 1987; Morisseau and Lewiner, 1987). The most widely accepted laboratory method used is that of surface resistivity and, occasionally, volume resistivity. The advantages of this kind of measurement over the determination of surface potentials are many. Measurement of electrical resistivity is described as simple and reproducible. Further advantages are the availability of commercial equipment and standardized prescriptions for measurement and testing (Löbel, 1987; Ramer and Richards, 1968). Despite the advantages, the electrical resistance characterizes merely that component of an antistatic property which is responsible for the dissipation of separated charge, in most cases in an incomplete manner. There is a discrepancy in using the resistance measurement: by using a commercial measuring device for high resistance, the result is available not earlier than one second or more after switching on the voltage due to the inertia of the measuring equipment. In practical situations, however, the available discharge time is only milliseconds. That means if the resistance depends upon the time period, it is evident that some inaccuracy is to be expected (Löbel, 1987).

Charge decay rate

Because of the limitations of electrical resistivity measurement as an index of electrostatic propensity of fabrics, measurement of charge decay rate on fabrics is most often the alternative (Ramer and Richards, 1968; Taylor and Elias, 1987; Chubb and Malinverni, 1993). To measure the speed at which a material will dissipate a charge requires a charge decay meter. In using these devices, decay time indicates the ability of the surface to transfer the electrons from a charged body through the work surface to ground. The decay rate varies inversely to the resistivity. Thus the greater the resist/ince, the slower the static charge decay rate (Matisoff, 1986). The amount of electrostatic charge developed on a textile fabric will depend on both the rate of electrostatic charge generation and the simultaneous rate of charge decay. If the latter is great enough, no charge will usually be detectable. For example, a fabric with resistivity of 1.0×10^9 ohms per square, such as natural cotton at 65% relative humidity, has a time constant for leakage of about 0.01 second, so that any charge produced leaks away so rapidly without electrostatic charge effects (Wilson, 1963). On the other hand, a fabric with a resistivity of 1.0×10^3 seconds or 40 minutes

(Wilson, 1963). Any charge produced will, therefore, remain on the fabric for a considerable length of time.

For a fabric to meet the antistatic or static decay requirement of various military and/or National Fire Protection Association (USA) specifications, the potential on the fabric must decay from 5 kV to 500 V (to 10%) within 3 seconds or less (Matisoff, 1986; Owens, 1984).

The Federal Test Standard 101C, method 4046 and the Federal Test Standard 191A, method 5931 are used for measuring the decay rate of an applied high voltage. A number of comments have been made about the interpretation of observations by these methods (Baumgartner & Havermann, 1984; Chubb, 1990). The methods are restricted to "homogeneous" and sheet materials and are not applicable to installed surfaces and "non-homogeneous" materials like textiles (Chubb and Malinverni, 1993).

Other measurement techniques

Matsui, Naito, Okamoto, and Kashiwamura, (1989) reported that static charge (potential) and its decay curve from a manually rubbed fabric could be measured and recorded automatically by a newly developed KB system.

Makwana, Munshi and Jadhav (1991) reported an apparatus which was designed and fabricated to study DC electrical conduction through textile materials. The current through a sample was measured varying applied voltages from 0 to 150 V, and the electrical conductivity was calculated

Summary

The numerous experiments carried out by textile scientists in various institutions, especially the military, confirm that electrostatic discharges will occur when an ungrounded clothed body doing any common activity is placed in specific atmospheric conditions. The experiments also show the impact electrostatic discharges have on our daily lives, from the nuisance of small electric shocks to the catastrophe of fire or explosion of flammable gases or vapors.

Even though science has enabled researchers to understand the concept of electrostatics, the subject of static discharges is still complex and misunderstood. Therefore, knowledge of the possible occurrence and incendivity of discharges which may be generated during particular industrial operations and common human activities is important for the proper assessment of electrostatic propensity.

Chapter 3 Methods Research Design

This research was conducted as an experimental study comprising three test methods on both single layer and multilayer specimens. The independent and dependent variables for each experiment are outlined in Tables 1 and 2. For each test the fabric system, and the fabric direction were varied. When the charge decay rate was measured, the cut-off voltage was also varied. In Test No.3 the polarity of the applied charge was also considered as an independent variable.

In Test 1, the University of Alberta ESD Test System (UA ESD TS) the dependent variables were the discharge potential measured in volts [V], and the discharge energy measured in joules [J]. In Test No.2, the modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931 (MFTMS), and Test No.3 the Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931 (FTMS), the measured variables were the peak discharge potential [V], and the decay time [s].

Procedures

Fabric Sampling

All thermal protective fabrics were purchased from the same supplier. Three linear meters of each fabric were bought. The size of each specimen was 127 mm by 76 mm, as specified by the Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931. Fifteen specimens of warp direction and fifteen specimens of filling direction were obtained from each sample, according to standard sampling procedures (Appendix A1). This provided five specimens for each test.

Conditioning

Each fabric sample was washed in an automatic washer and dried in a drier before cutting the specimens, following CAN/CGSB-4.2 No.58 M90, procedure III. Then, all specimens were conditioned according to CAN/CGSB-4.2 No.2 M88 inside an environmental chamber (4.12 m x 3.23 m x 3.81 m) where the relative humidity was carefully controlled and monitored at 20% relative humidity.

Table 1. Experimental design

. •

TES7		NDEPEND	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	.ES	DEPENDENT
	FABRIC DIRECTION	CUT-OFF LEVEL	POLARITY	FABRIC SYSTEM	VARIABLES
1. UA ESD TEST SYSTEM	Warp Weft	N/A	N/A	Unilayer (Table 2)	Discharge potential and energy
1. UA ESD TEST SYSTEM	Warp Weft	N/A	N/A	Multilayer (Table 2)	Discharge potential and energy
2. Modified Federal Test 191a, Method 5931	Warp Weft	10% 50%	N/A	Unilayer (Table 2)	Peak potential and decay time
2. Modified Federal Test 191a, Method 5931	Warp Weft	10% 50%	N/A	Multilayer (Table 2)	Peak potential and decay time
3. Federal test 191a Method 5931	Warp Weft	10% 50%	Positive Negative	Unilayer (Table 2)	Peak potential and decay time
3. Federal test 191a Method 5931	Warp Weft	10% 50%	Positive Negative	Multilayer (Table 2)	Peak potential and decay time

experiment
n the
used i
Fabrics I
Table 2.

SYSTEM	OUTER	INNER	WEAVE	WEAVE COUNT (W x F)	MASS
CODE	LAYER	LAYER		(yams/cm)	(g/sq.m)
MULT:LAYE	MULT:LAYER FABRIC SYSTEMS	NS A			
6	FR cotton	100% cotton			
8	Aramid/carbon	100% cotton			
03	Aramid/PBI	100% cotton			
8	Aramid/FR viscose	100% cotton			
05	FR cotton	FR cotton			
8	Aramid/carbon	Aramid/carbon			
07	Aramid/PBI	Aramid/carbon			
80	Aramid/FR viscose	Aramid/carbon			
JNILAYER	UNILAYER FABRIC SYSTEMS				
ള	100% cotton		3/1 Twill	37 × 22	210
6	FR cotton		Sateen	35 x 19	320
11	Aramid/carbon		Plain	23 x 21	205
12	Aramid/PBI		Plain	26 x 22	145
13	Aramid/FR viscose		Twill	32 x 21	265

20

The tests were performed inside an Electro-tech Systems model 506 humidity control chamber (91.44 cm x 60.96 cm x 45.72 cm) equipped with a desiccant-pump drying system. The dessicator contained a self-indicating drying agent (anhydrous CaSO4) and was mounted externally on the chamber.

Measurement of Dependent Variables

The discharge potential was measured and recorded by a Tektronix model 2430A digital oscilloscope, and the discharge potential waveform obtained was printed-out by a Hewlett-Packard model 7475A plotter. The decay time was measured and recorded by an Electro-tech Systems model 406C static decay meter. A Simco model A300 static eliminator was used for the elimination of any initial charge in the specimen.

Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System)

The UA ESD test system is a device developed and employed to simulate generation of charge by triboelectrification and measure electrostatic discharges from layered fabric systems (Figure 1). It has the following components: a specimen holder, a rubbing element, a lap counter, a conducting plate, collecting wires, a resistance-capacitor unit, a quick discharge switch, an oscilloscope, and a plotter.

An outer layer of fabric is rubbed by the rubbing element, generating a charge that is transferred onto the inner layer. This inner fabric transfers that generated charge onto a conducting plate. Then, the charge is conducted to, and stored in a capacitor, from where it is discharged through a resistor to an oscilloscope. See Appendix A2 for details of the test procedure.

Test No.2 (Modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A)

The device used in Test No.2 was a modification of the apparatus utilized in the Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931 (Figure 2). An Electro-tech Systems model 406C static decay meter with a Pasco roller were the main components of this device. The test system was able to charge a textile surface by friction with the use of the roller, and measure peak potential and decay time. See Appendix A3 for details of the test procedure.



Figure 1. The UA ESD Test System


Test No.3 (Federal Test Method Standard 191A)

In this test, the Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931 was used. The same static decay meter described in Test No.2 was used. In this case, the specimen was charged by induced positive and negative potentials of 5 kV, as specified by method 5931.

Data Collection

The results obtained were recorded on a specific form for each part of the test (Appendix A4) where the date, the atmospheric conditions, the type of experiment, the fabric system, and the respective results were printed.

The voltage waveform print-out from the plotter was used to calculate transferred charge, discharge energy, peak current, duration of the event, and other parameters of interest, in the case of the UA ESD Test System. The total charge flow (transferred) Q was calculated by integrating the discharge potential V waveform and dividing this by the grounding resistance:

$$Q = i dt = (1/R) V dt$$
 (1)

The total energy was then determined by taking the product of the total charge, from eq.(1), and the potential:

$$E = (1/2) QV$$
 (2)

Statistical Analysis: Hypotheses Testing

The statistical analyses that were performed were as follow:

- Descriptive statistics and box plots. These analyses were used to characterize each fabric group with respect to the dependent variables.
- 2) Multivariate ANOVA, to test hypotheses 1 and 2.
- 3) One-way ANOVA and Duncan's multiple range tests, to determine which fabric groups differ significantly from each other.
- 4) Pearson's correlation coefficient to test hypotheses 3 and 4.
- 5) Multiple linear regression to build a testing model to predict the electrostatic propensity of protective clothing.

The multivariate ANOVA and the One-way ANOVA were used to test the null hypotheses that there were no significant differences among the different fabric combinations in discharge potential, or charge decay time. The correlation coefficient was used to test the null hypothesis that there was no significant correlation between potential

and charge decay time; in addition, it was used to test the null hypothesis that there was no significant corretation between the small-scale test results and those from the human-body experiments. The significance level was set at p \pounds 0.05. These statistical analyses were carried out using commercially available software, SPSS version 6.1.

Summary

This research was conducted as six different experiments. Three test methods were used with both unilayer and multilayer specimens: (i) the study of tribo-electrostatic discharges using the ESD Test System; (ii) the study of charge decay rate from frictional charging using a modified static decay meter; and (iii) the analysis of charge decay rate from induction charging using a static decay meter.

The independent variables considered for the first test method were fabric system and fabric direction. For the second and third tests, the cut-off decay level was added. For the third test method, charge polarity was also added as an independent variable.

The dependent variables were the peak discharge potentials (volts) and energies (joules) for the UA ESD test system, and the peak discharge potentials (volts) and the decay time (seconds) for the other two tests.

Chapter 4 Results

The results obtained from this study are presented in two parts: for unilaye, specimens and for multilayer specimens. For each part, results are analyzed for both dependent variables, peak discharge potential and charge decay time, as well as by null hypotheses.

Unilayer Specimens

Peak Discharge Potential

Ho₁: "There will be no significant differences in peak discharge potential among different fabrics".

Three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Appendix B1) indicated significant main effects of fabric system, test method, and fabric direction as well as both two-way and three-way interaction effects on **peak discharge potential**, indicating that there were significant differences in this parameter among fabrics, but these effects varied somewhat by test method and by fabric direction. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Individual multivariate ANOVA's (Appendices B2, B3, and B4).were then performed on data from each test method. Two-way ANOVA on data from Test No.1 (UA ESD TS) found significant main effects of fabric and fabric direction as well as two-way interaction effects. Three-way ANOVA on Test No.2 (MFTMS) showed significant main effect of fabric only, but two- and three-way interaction effects of fabric, fabric direction, and cut off level. Four-way ANOVA on Test No.3 (FTMS) found significant main effects of fabric, fabric direction, cut off level, and charge polarity, as well as all two-way and most three-way interaction effects; there $w_{f = -2}$ significant three-way interaction among fabric, cut off level, and charge polarity. There $w_{f = -2}$ no four-way interaction effects.

Mean peak potentials for each test method for each unilayer fabric are plotted in Figure 3. Although the three-way ANOVA found interaction effects, these data are plotted for the mean of warp and weft directions for Tests No.1 and No.2, and for the mean of warp, weft, positive and negative applied charge in the case of Test No.3. Although the magnitude





differed, with very few exceptions the same trend in direction was observed for warp and weft, and for positive and negative applied charge.

Results of the one-way ANOVA and Duncan's multiple range test, which are summarized in Table 3, generally suggest that for peak potential, most fabrics differed significantly (p<.05) from each other, but there were some homogeneous subsets in all but Test No.2.

Charge Decay Time

Ho₂: "There will be no significant differences in charge decay time among different fabrics".

Three-way analysis of variance (Appendix B1) found significant main effects of fabric system and test method on **decay time**, as well as two-way interaction effects of test method by fabric system and three-way interaction effects, indicating that there were significant differences in this parameter among fabrics, but the effects differed according to test method. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 significance level. There was no main effect of fabric direction. There were no significant two-way interactions between fabric direction and either test method or fabric.

Separate multivariate ANOVA's were performed on data from each charge decay test. Three-way ANOVA on data from Test No.2 (MFTMS) showed significant main effects of fabric system, fabric direction, and cut off level as well as two- and three-way interaction effects (Appendix B3). Four-way ANOVA on data from Test No.3 (FTMS) found significant main effects of fabric system, fabric direction, cut off level, and charge polarity (Appendix B4). Two-way interactions between fabric system and fabric direction, fabric system and cut off level, and fabric direction and cut off level were significant. Similarly, three-way interactions among fabric system, fabric direction and cut off level, and among fabric direction, cut off level, and among fabric direction, cut off level and charge polarity were significant. There were no four-way interaction effects.

Mean charge decay times for each test method for each unilayer fabric are plotted in Figure 4. Although the multivariate ANOVA's found interaction effects these data are plotted for the mean of warp and weft directions in Test No.2, and for the mean of warp and weft, and positive and negative applied charge in the case of the Test No.3, because the

ric for unilayer specimens.
d fabric
hod an
netř
est r
s by te
times by
d decay
ğ
Is an
ntial
otei
ak p
, Pe
nce
is of variance
of v
/ 3i3
linal
3. A
Table

	FABRIC SYSTEM					TEST METHODS	THODS				
CODE	CONTENTS	1 (UA ES	JA ESD TS)		2 (MFTMS191A)	(S191A)			3 (FTMS191A)	191A)	
		•		10% CL	10% CUT OFF	50% CI	50% CUT OFF	10% CUT OFF	JT OFF	50% CI	50% CUT OFF
						Peak Pote	Peak Potentials (V or kV)	yr kV)			
		KEAN (V)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV) STD.DEV.	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	MEAN (KV) STD.DEV.	REAN (KV)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	STD.DEV.
5	Aramid/PBI	4.07a	06.0	0.93a	0.46	0.98a	0.51	5.85c	0.30	5.45c	0.29
-		8.84b	3.84	1.89b	0.58	1.67b	0.81	5.79c	0.16	5.85d	0.19
13		9.57b	3.86	3.81c	0.85	3.52c	0.47	6.26d	0.19	6.21e	0.11
50		10.67b	3.52	5.27d	0.55	5.54d	0.95	4.99b	0.36	4.34b	0.24
9		25.71c	7.46	6.40e	0.04	6.41e	0.12	4.64a	0.27	4.02a	0.20
						Decay Times (s)	nes (s)				
				MEAN (c)	STD DEV	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.
=	Aramid/carbon			>300e	0.00	>300e	0.00	0.01a	0.00	0.01a	0.00
	Aramid/FR viscose			39.61a	4.80	3.54a	0.73	7.12b	1.35	2.27c	0.62
5 5	Aramid/PBI	NA	~	99.40b	11.44	9.94b	3.05	23.21c	5.36	2.29c	1.20
i g				202.62c	36.83	20.20c	7.85	43.44d	8.92	0.41b	0.27
8 6				469.05d	132.59	29.92d	12.72	47.05e	5.88	0.12a	0.19

a,b,etc. In each column, means with the same letter indicate homogeneous subsets (highest and lowest means are not significantly different) when subjected to Duncan's multiple range test (p<.05).





same trend in direction was observed for each test with very few exceptions, although the magnitude differed.

Results of the one-way analysis of variance and Duncan's multiple range test, which are summarized in Table 3, revealed significant differences among fabrics in all tests, but in Test No.3 at 50% cut off there were some homogeneous subsets. It should be noted that the aramid/carbon fabric showed the slowest charge decay when charged by friction, although it had the fastest charge decay when tested by test No.3, where it was charged by induction.

Correlation between Potential and Decay Time

Ho₃: "There will be no significant correlation between peak discharge potentials and charge decay rates obtained by small-scale laboratory tests".

Pearson's correlation analyses (Tables 4, 5, and 6) were used to test the null hypotheses of no correlation among various tests for peak potential and charge decay time. Three different correlation analyses were performed. One analysis (Table 4) correlated peak notentials obtained by the three tests; a second analysis (Table 5) correlated decay times from two of the tests; and a third analysis (Table 6) correlated peak potentials with decay times among different test methods. Values for both fabric directions and both charge polarities were considered together when applicable.

All correlations in Tables 4 and 5 and all but two in Table 6 were significant at p<.05. From the tables above, it can be seen that peak potentials were more highly correlated among the test methods (Table 4) than were decay times (Table 5). The highest correlation of peak potential was between Test No.2 at 10% and Test No.2 at 50% cut off, confirming the ANOVA results which showed no effects of cut-off levels. Also, high correlations were obtained between Tests No.1 and No.2 at each of 10% and 50% cut off level, as both methods similarly charge the specimen by friction. For decay time (Table 5), the highest correlations between tests No.2 and No.3 were negative, although there was a low but significant positive correlation between the two tests at 10% cut off level.

TEST METHODS	1 (UA ESD) ^a	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^C -10%
2(MFTMS)-10%	.7958			
2(MFTMS)-60%	.7860	.9773		
3(FTMS)-10%	- 7046	7271	7634	
3(FTMS)-50%	6558	6558	7169	7665

Table 4. Correlation (R) of peak potentials among test methods : Unilayer specimens

^a University of Alberta ESD Test System
 ^b Modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931

^c Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931

Table 5.	Correlation	(R) (of decay	times	among	test methods
----------	-------------	-------	----------	-------	-------	--------------

TEST METHODS	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^C -10%
2(MFTMS)-50%	.3275		
3(FTMS)-10%	.4572	5755	
3(FTMS)-50%	8053	5195	2792

Table 6. Correlation (R) between peak potentials and decay times from different test methods.

POTENTIAL	DECAY	TIME TEST METHO		
TEST	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^c -10%	3(FTMS) ^C -50%
METHODS 1 (UA ESD	7988	- 1312	.5661	5135
2(MFTMS)-10%	.5196	3773	.7047	4553
2(MFTMS)-50%	.5170	4031	.7566	4436
3(FTMS)-10%	7762	1596	8856	.6247
3(FTMS)-60%	6701	.3230	9567	.5164

When peak potentials and decay times were correlated with each other (Table 6), peak potentials from tests that charge the specimen by friction (No.1 and 2) showed positive correlation with decay times at 10% cut off level, and negative correlation with decay times at 50% cut off. Peak potentials from Test No.3 (charging by induction) revealed negative correlation with decay times at 10% cut off, and positive correlation at 50% cut off level.

Multilaver Specimens

Peak Discharge Potential

Ho₁: "There will be no significant differences in peak discharge potential among different fabric systems".

Three-way ANOVA (Appendix B5) found significant main effects of fabric system, test method, and fabric direction as well as both two-way and three-way interaction effects on **peak discharge potential**, indicating that there were significant differences in this parameter among fabric systems, but these effects differed to some extent by test method and by fabric direction. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Separate multivariate ANOVA's were also performed on data from each test method. Two-way ANOVA on Test No.1 (UA ESD TS) found significant main effects of fabric system and fabric direction as well as a two-way interaction effects (Appendix B6). Three-way ANOVA of data from Test No.2 (MFTMS) showed significant main effects of fabric system and cut off level only, but two- and three-way interaction effects of fabric system, fabric direction and cut off level (Appendix B7). Four-way ANOVA of data from Test No.3 found significant main effects of fabric system, fabric direction, cut off level, and charge polarity, as well some two-, three- and four-way interaction effects (Appendix B8) All two-way interactions were significant except those between fabric direction and both cut off level, and charge polarity. Also, most of the three-way interactions were significant except for that among fabric system, fabric direction and charge polarity.

Mean peak potentials for each test method and fabric system are plotted in Figure 5. Although the multivariate ANOVA's found interaction effects these data are plotted for the mean of warp and weft directions for Tests No.1 and 2, and for the mean of warp and weft, and positive and negative applied charge in the case of Test No.3. A similar trend in direction was observed for warp and weft, and for positive and negative applied charge with very few exceptions, although the magnitude differed.

Results of the one-way ANOVA and Duncan's multiple range test (Table 7) for peak potential suggest that the fabric systems generally can be grouped according to the outer layer; therefore they have been grouped in that way in Table 7 and in Figure 5.





	FABRIC SYSTEM					TEST METHODS	THODS				
CODE	CONTENTS	1 (UA ES	JA ESD TS)		2 (MFTI	2 (MFTMS191A)			3 (FTMS191A)	S191A)	
	(OUTER - INNER)	•		10% CUT OFF	IT OFF	50% CI	50% CUT OFF	10% CI	10% CUT OFF	50% CI	50% CUT OFF
						Peak Pote	Peak Potentials (V or kV)	or kV)			
		MEAN (V)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (KV)	STD.DEV.
ន	Aramid/PBI-100% cotton	4.03a	1.07	0.91b	0.44	0.82b	0.31	6.00b	0.00	5.97c	0.25
07	Aramid/PBI-Aramid/carbon	4.20a	1.43	0.34a	0.17	0.36a	0.12	6.00b	0.00	5.94c	0.08
02	Aramid/carbon-100% cotton	10.47b	4.75	1.72d	0.72	1.70d	09.0	6.00b	0.00	6.05c	0.13
8	Aramid/carbon-Aramid/carbon	10.72b	6.16	1.36c	0.39	1.20c	0.36	6.00b	0.00	5.95c	0.11
80	Aramid/FR viscose-Aramid/carbon	12.64b	5.58	1.57c,d	0.39	1.29c	0.35	6 .00b	0.00	5.94c	0.09
8	Aramid/FR viscose-100% cotton	13.34b	6.03	4.34e	0.86	3.54e	0.70	6.00b	0.00	6.12c	0.20
5 5	FR cotton-100% cotton	30.83c	6.35	6.25f	0.29	5.92f	0.63	5.12a	0.94	5.13b	0.63
5 5	FR cotton-FR cotton	34.37d	7.95	6.05f	0.42	5.93f	0.67	5.11a	1.00	4.74a	0.82
						Decay Times (s)	nes (s)				
	•			MEAN (a)	STD DFV	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.	MEAN (s)	STD.DEV.
۶	According Aramid/certion			>300e	000	206.95c	97.55	0.008a	0.00	0.006a	0.0
8 8	Aramid/DBI-Aramid/rathon			121.54c	20.92	54.27b	20.57	0.009a	0.00	0.005a	0.01
s e	Aramid/FR viscose-Aramid/carbon			>300e	0.00	74.17b	29.24	0.199a	0.59	0.007a	0.00
3 8	Aramid/carbon-100% cotton	A/A	٩	>300e	00.0	57.81b	12.82	1.489a	1.18	0.007a	0.00
5 8	Aramid/FR viscose-100% cotton			45.86a	5.68	4.20a	0.66	15.191b	6.93	1.939a	0.69
58	Aramid/PBI-100% cotton			86.58b	28.15	11.73a	4.97	17.526b	3.14	0.333a	0.60
9 9 9	FR cotton-FR cotton			233.79d	76.63	13.03a	4.15	42.969c	16.92	10.266b	17.11
5 5	ED cotton-100% cotton			241 18d	62.93	12.13a	5.22	44.559c	16.71	1.454a	0.88

Table 7. Analysis of Variance: Mean potentials and decay times with their standard deviations by fabric system for multilayer specimens.

a,b,etc. In each column, means with the same letter indiacte homogeneous subsets (highest and lowest means are not significantly different) when subjected to Duncan's multiple range test (p<.05).

35

When means were analyzed, Tests No.1 and 2 showed similar trends in grouping systems together. Also, it was observed that non-FR 100% cotton as inner layer yielded lower discharge potentials than aramid/carbon except in combination with aramid/FR viscose as an outer layer.

Charge Decay Time

Ho₃: "There will be no significant differences in charge decay time among different fabric systems".

Four-way analysis of variance found significant main effects of fabric system, test method, fabric direction, and cut off level, on **charge decay time** (Appendix B5). All two-way, three-way and four-way interaction effects were significant except there was no significant three-way interaction effect among fabric direction, test method, and cut off level.

Separate multivariate ANOVA's were then performed on data from each test method. Three-way ANOVA on data from Test No.2 revealed significant main effects of fabric system, fabric direction, and cut off level, and all two-way and three-way interaction effects were significant (Appendix B7). Four-way ANOVA on Test No.3 found significant main effects of fabric system, fabric direction, cut off level, and charge polarity (Appendix B8). Most twoway, three- and four-way interaction effects were significant except there were no two-way interaction effects between fabric direction and charge polarity, or between cut off level and charge polarity.

Mean decay times for each test method and fabric system are plotted in Figure 6. Although the multivariate ANOVA's found interaction effects these data are plotted for the mean of warp and weft directions for Test No.2, and for the mean of warp and weft, and positive and negative applied charge for Test No.3, because a similar trend was found for each test with very few exceptions.

From the one-way ANOVA and Duncan's multiple range test (Table 7), it can be seen that fabric systems could be clustered by the inner layer, those systems with aramid/carbon having lower decay times than those systems with cotton inner layers.



Figure 6. Charge decay times for multilayer fabric systems by test method

Correlation Between Potential and Decay Time

Ho₃: "There will be no significant correlation between peak discharge potentials and charge decay times obtained by small-scale laboratory tests".

Pearson's correlation analyses were performed to test this null hypotheses. Three different correlation analyses were performed. One analysis (Table 8) correlated peak potentials from the five different tests, a second analysis (Table 9) correlated decay times, and a third one (Table 10) correlated peak potentials with decay times for all test methods. Values for both fabric directions and both charge polarities were considered together. All correlations in Tables 8 and 9, and all but two in Table 10 were significant. Thus, null hypothesis 3 was rejected.

As in the case of the unilayer experiments, peak potentials were more highly correlated among the tests than were decay times. The highest correlation of peak potentials (Table 8) was between Test No.2 at 10% and Test No.2 at 50% cut off levels. Also, high correlations were obtained between Test No.1 and Test No.2 at both 10% and 50% cut off, as both methods similarly charge the specimen by friction.

TEST	1 (UA ESD) ^a	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^C -10%
METHODS				. <u></u>
2(MFTMS)-10%	.8943			
2(MFTMS)-50%	.9369	.9618		
3(FTMS)-10%	8665	7812	8708	
3(FTMS)-60%	8847	7200	8305	.8730

Table 8.	Correlation (R) of	peak potentials among test methods: multilayer specime	ns.
----------	--------------------	--	-----

^a University of Alberta ESD Test System

b Modified Federal Test method Standard 191A, method 5931

C Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931

Table 9.	Correlation	(R) of	f decay	times among	j tes	t methods
----------	-------------	--------	---------	-------------	-------	-----------

TEST METHODS	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^c -10%
2(MFTMS)-50%	.5478		
3(FTMS)-10%	0925	5710	
3(FTMS)-50%	.0104	3529	.6748

Table 10. Correlation (R) between peak potentials and decay times from different test methods.

POTENTIAL	DECAY	TIME TEST METHO	DDS	
TEST METHODS	2(MFTMS) ^b -10%	2(MFTMS)-50%	3(FTMS) ^C -10%	3(FTMS) ^C -50%
1 (UA ESD)	.2993	2979	.8407	.7472
2(MFTMS)-10%	.0317	4409	.8428	.6740
2(MFTMS)-50%	.0697	4758	.9252	.7045
3(FTMS)-10%	- 1923	.3577	8846	6377
3(FTMS)-50%	2311	.3015	8318	8035

For decay time (Table 9), the correlation between Tests No.2 and 3 was negative, but was positive between the two cut-off levels for the same test. When potentials and decay times were correlated with each other (Table 10), peak potentials from tests that charge the specimen by friction (Tests No.1 and 2) showed negative correlation with decay times of Test No.2 at 50% cut off; but positive correlations with other decay time measurements. Peak potentials from Test No.3 (charging by induction) revealed positive correlation with decay times of Test No.2 at 50% cut off; but negative correlations with other decay time measurements. Correlations among decay times were up to 43% less than those obtained for peak potentials

Correlation Between Small-Scale and Human-Body Data

Ho₄: "There will be no significant correlation between the peak discharge potentials and charge decay times measured by the small-scale laboratory tests and those potentials obtained in human-body experiments".

To test this null hypothesis Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 11) correlated both peak potentials and decay times from all the tests with human-body discharge potentials. All correlations were significant; therefore null hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Table 11. Correlations between human-body discharge potentials and both peak
potentials and decay times measured by small-scale tests.

TEST	POTENTIAL	DECAY TIME
1 (UA ESD)	.9692	N/A
2(MFTMS)-10%	.8953	.2216
2(MFTMS)-50%	.9462	4183
3(FTMS)-10%	8802	.8716
3(FTMS)-50%	8847	.7544

From Table 11, it seems that peak potentials correlated better than decay times with human-body discharge potentials. The highest correlations are for tests that charge a specimen by friction as happens during the human-body experiment. The highest correlation between a decay time test and the human-body data (R = .87) was for Test No.3 which charges the specimen by induction at 10% cut off.

Building a Testing Model

In order to determine the best laboratory test protocol, various models for predicting the static propensity of clothing systems were developed through multiple linear regression analyses of potential and decay time data obtained from small-scale tests on potential data from human-body experiments. Table 12 shows the coefficients of correlation (R) and determination (R^2) as well as the R^2 adjusted for population. The highest coefficient of determination ($R^2 = .97$) was obtained when both peak potentials and decay times from all three tests were regressed with human-body data (regression #1). An equally high R^2 was obtained when only Test No.1 and Test No.2 at 50% cut-off were included (regressions #2 and #3). Also, peak potentials of Tests No.1 and 2 and decay times from Test No.3 regressed with human-body potentials gave R^2 of .95 (regression #4).

In terms of single tests, the UA ESD Test System, the modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A at 10% and 50% cut off, and the Federal Test Method Standard 191A at 10% and 50% cut off had coefficients of determination of .94, .80, .90, .76, and .57, respectively. (regressions #9, 14, 12, 17, and 18).

REGRESSION No.	TEST METHOD	VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	ADJUSTED R SQUARE
1	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.98	0.97	0.96
	2 (MFTMS)-10%	potential			
	,	decay time			
	2 (MFTMS)-50%	potential			
		decay time			
	3 (FTMS)-10%	potential			
		decay time			
	3 (FTMS)-50%	potential			
		decay time			
2	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.98	0.96	0.96
	2 (MFTMS)-50%	potential			
		decay time			
3	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.98	0.96	0.96
	2 (MFTMS)-50%	decay time			
4	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.98	0.95	0.95
	2 (MFTMS)-10%	potential			
	2 (MFTMS)-50%	potential			
	3 (FTMS)-10%	decay time			
	3 (FTMS)-50%	decay time			
5	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.98	0.95	0.95
	3 (FTMS)-10%	potential			
		decay time			
6	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.97	0.95	0.95
	3 (FTMS)-10%	decay time			
7	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.97	0.95	0.94
ł	2 (MFTMS)-10%	potential	0.37	0.00	0.54
	2 (1411 11410)-1030	decay time			
		ucouy anto			
8	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.97	0.94	0.94
	2 (MFTMS)-10%	decay time			
9	1 (UA ESD TS)	potential	0.97	0.94	0.94
40	0 (METHON CON	Ac - At - I	0.00	0.04	0.04
10	2 (MFTMS)-50%	potential decay time	0.96	0.91	0.91
	3 (FTMS)-10%	potential			
		decay time			

 Table 12. Coefficients of determination R Sq. among different laboratory test methods and human-body data

* R Square adjusted to population

REGRESSION No.	N TEST METHOD	VARIABLE	MULTIPLE R	R SQUARE	ADJUSTED* R SQUARE
11	2 (MFTMS)-50% 3 (FTMS)-10%	potential decay time	0.95	0.90	0.89
12	2 (MFTMS)-50%	potential	0.95	0.90	0.89
13	2 (MFTMS)-10% 3 (FTMS)-10%	potential decay time	0.92	0.85	0.84
14	2 (MFTMS)-10%	potential	0.91	0.80	0.80
15	3 (FTMS)-50%	potential	0.88	0.78	0.78
16	3 (FTMS)-10%	potential	0.88	0.77	0.77
17	3 (FTMS)-10%	decay time	0.87	0.76	0.76
18	3 (FTMS)-50%	decay time	0.75	0.57	0.56
19	2 (MFTMS)-50%	decay time	0.42	0.17	0.16
20	2 (MFTMS)-10%	decay time	0.22	0.05	0.04

 Table 12. Coefficients of determination R Sq. among different laboratory test methods and human-body data (cont.)

* R Square adjusted to population

Chapter 5 Discussion

This research was part of a larger project to study the problem of electrostatic propensity in protective clothing systems. The main purpose was to determine appropriate small-scale laboratory tests to predict the static propensity of protective garment systems.

Known and new test methods were used to meet the main objective of the present research. Tests were conducted using single layer specimens to measure their electrostatic characteristics for further development of mathematical models. Multilayer specimen tests simulated the configuration of clothing systems worn in human body experiments which comprised an earlier project. Thus, data collected in small-scale tests could be compared to those obtained in human-body experiments to find any relationship between small-scale and human-body experiments.

Objective 1

The first objective was to develop new methods for the measurement of the electrostatic characteristics of fabric systems. One device was entirely developed by the researcher, and another one was modified from a standard method. The former was intended to resemble the phenomenon of electrostatic discharges experienced on a clothed human body, measuring potential and energy from those discharges. The latter was to measure peak potential and charge decay rate from a specimen charged by friction.

The University of Alberta ESD Test System (Test No.1) was built and employed to simulate generation of charge by triboelectrification and can measure electrostatic discharges from layered fabric systems. The new device contains the same elements involved in a clothed-human-body electrostatic discharge. An outer fabric is charged by friction which generates a charge that is transferred onto the inner fabric. This inner fabric transfers that generated charge onto a conducting plate. Then, the charge is conducted to, and stored in a capacitor, from which it is discharged through a resistor to the oscilloscope. The 2-layer fabric system represents a garment system comprising both outer and inner garments such as a coverall and shirt. The capacitor and resistor represent the average capacitance and resistance of a human body. The action of the switch represents the instant when a charged human body touches a grounded object resulting in a discharge.

The Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931 and a static decay meter from Electronic-Tech Systems were modified in order to develop Test No.2. A Pasco roller covered with vinyl was added for frictional charging. Since triboelectrification is responsible for most practical static problems (Wilson, 1987), the main goal in building this device was to measure potential and decay time from charges generated by frictional work, charging the outer layer and measuring those charges from the inner layer, as it is the path of charge flow in real life conditions. Test No.3 used the method and device mentioned above without any modification.

Both new methods and devices were successfully tested, as these two tests showed good reliability and accuracy in testing as well as high correlation with human-body discharge potentials.

Objective 2

The second objective was to measure peak discharge potential of static discharges from fabric systems following the new and existing methods and to determine differences in potential among the various fabric systems. This objective was accomplished through the three tests utilized, with both unilayer and multilayer specimens.

Three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tested null hypothesis 1, and found significant differences among fabric systems, both unilayer and multilayer specimens, but those differences were affected by test method and fabric direction. Thus, it can be expected that different test methods yield different peak discharge potentials, and testing both directions (warp and weft) is important to obtaining reliable results.

One-way ANOVA found that peak potentials for different single layer fabrics differed significantly and did not form homogeneous subsets in most cases, suggesting that each fabric could be characterized in terms of peak discharge potential with specific values. The multilayer analysis showed that some fabric systems were not significantly different from each other, with various homogeneous subsets, suggesting that variation of the outer layer in a fabric combination seems to have the greatest effect in the magnitude of the discharge potential, and variation of the inner layer in the system has a lesser effect.

Similar trends in direction of peak potentials among fabric systems were observed in Test No.1 and Test No.2, at both 10% and 50% cut off, testing both unilayer and multilayer specimens, and those were in agreement with the one observed in the human-body

experiment. Thus, it seems that protective fabrics have consistent patterns in terms of discharge potentials when specimens are charged by friction.

Objective 3

The third objective was to measure the charge decay time for the surface charge on fabric systems, and to determine differences in those decay times. The surface charge on successfully achieved.

Three-way ANOVA in the case of unilayer specimens and four-way ANOVA in the case of multilayer specimens tested null hypothesis 2. The first analysis found that fabrics differed significantly but those differences were affected by test method and cut off level. The second analysis showed that fabric systems were different, and those effects were influenced by test method, fabric direction and cut off level. Thus, it can be foreseen that for different test methods and cut off levels charge decay time will differ, and that testing both directions (warp and weft) is important to obtaining reliable results in the case of multilayer specimens.

One-way ANOVA found that charge decay times for various single-layer fabrics were significantly different and in all cases except Test No.3 at 50% cut off, did not form homogeneous subsets, confirming that each fabric could be characterized with specific values in terms of both decay time and peak potential. Although this analysis showed that some multilayer fabric systems were not significantly different, and various homogeneous subsets could be formed, results suggested that variation of both the outer and the inner layer in a fabric system seems to affect greatly the magnitude of the charge decay time.

The differences in decay times for Tests No.2 and 3 could be explained in terms of the type of charging method: triboelectrification of a specimens applies a friction force that removes more valence electrons, and therefore, the specimen takes more time to neutralize any unbalanced electronic configuration. On the other hand, induction charging applies a high potential charge that is supposed to flow across the specimen from an electrode due to its intrinsic conductive characteristics. But this procedure does not ensure reliable charging of any relatively insulating feature, which is where the charge is likely to be retained-(Chubb, 1988).

A phenomenon was observed in Table 6 where correlations between decay times at 10% and 50% cut off levels and both potentials from tribocharging and potentials from induction charging had opposite trends. This could be explained in terms of changes in

decay rates for antistatic and non-actistatic fabrics during the discharge. It seems that nonantistatic fabrics (for example, FR cotton) have faster initial charge dissipation than antistatic fabrics (for example, aramid/PBI), but they take more time to decay to 10% of the applied charge. In the case of potentials from tribocharging, it is expected that antistatic fabrics yield lower potentials and decay times than regular fabrics, as is supported by the positive correlation between potentials and decay times at 10% cut off.

Objective 4

Objective 4 was to compare and evaluate the three test methods used during the research. That comparison and evaluation was achieved in terms of the consistency and accuracy of the results obtained in this study as well as the trends in direction and clustering showed by fabrics and fabric systems in each test method.

Table 13 shows mean coefficients of variation calculated for data from the three test methods. Measurements of peak potential yielded similar coefficients of variations for both unilayer and multilayer specimens, while decay times for unilayer specimens showed lower coefficients of variation than multilayer specimens, except Test No.2 at 10% cut off. This suggests that measuring peak potential for multilayer specimens gives as reliable results as do unilayer specimens. This is not true for decay time measurements which seem to be more accurate for single layered fabrics than for multilayer fabric systems.

TEST METHOD	PEAK P	OTENTIAL	DEC	Y TIME	
	UNILAYER	MULTILAYER	UNILAYER	MULTILAYER	
1 (UA ESD TS).	33.6	37.1	N/A		
2 (MFTMS)-10%	22.5	24.4	14.0	15.1	
2 (MFTMS)-50%	26.9	29.4	20.5	34.9	
3 (FTMS)-10%	3.8	4.5	15.0	64.5	
3 (FTMS)-50%	4.9	5.7	60.8	80.4	

Table 13. Mean coefficients of variation (CV%) in peak potential and decay time for different test methods.

Results and statistical analyses (one-way ANOVA, correlation, and linear regression) on Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) showed that measurements taken by this system are reliable and accurate to some extent. The peak potential results showed high

correlation with potentials measured by the other two tests, and had the highest coefficient of determination (\mathbb{R}^2), as a single test method, when regressed with human-body discharge potentials. It is important to note that discharge energy could be measured and evaluated only with the UA ESD Test System, since this parameter was easily calculated from the discharge waveform obtained by the oscilloscope. Those results were found to have a high relationship with human-body discharge energy and are shown in Appendix C1.

Results and statistical analyses on Test No.2 (modified Federal Standard Test 191A method 5931) showed that peak potential measurements taken by this test were accurate and reliable for both unilayer and multilayer specimens, since they had low variation, and were in agreement with those observed in the humar-body experiment. But decay time measurements had poor correlation with measurements taken by other small-scale tests and with human-body data.

Results and statistical analyses for Test No.3 (Federal Standard Test 191A method 5931) showed poor outcome for peak potential since the method failed to differentiate various fabric systems in terms of this parameter and these results were not in agreement with human-body potentials. Decay time measurements taken at 10% cut off showed somewhat similar trend to those observed for potentials from the other two tests, and yielded a good correlation with data from human-body experiments. The main purpose of this test method is to measure decay time of the induced charges, and usually 10% cut off is recommended.

Objective 5

The fifth objective was to study the relationship between charge decay rate and peak discharge potentials for different fabric systems as measured by small-scale tests. Null hypothesis 3 was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient, and this hypothesis was rejected since most of the correlations were significant.

Correlation of peak potentials among test methods confirmed that potentials from triboelectrification show similar trends. Also, it was confirmed that measurements from tribocharging and induction show opposite trends, suggesting that each charging process uses a different mechanism to generate, build up, and/or transfer a charge. Likewise, poor correlation of decay times among test methods suggested that different charge decay times can be expected when charging the specimen by friction or by induction.

When peak potentials and decay times were correlated, potentials from tests which charge by friction (No.1 and No.2 at both 10% and 50% cut off) have high and positive relationship with decay times from Test No.3 where specimens are charged by induction. This can be explained, since the charging process and subsequent discharge potential of the first two methods depend on the conductivity of the specimen, as does the decay time for Test No.3.

Objective 6

Objective 6 was to study the relationship between data from small-scale tests (multilayer specimens) and that from human-body experiments. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to determine any such relationship. No attempt was made to correlate the experimental data from unilayer small-scale and human-body experiment since the configuration of the specimens and garment systems differed from each other. Multiple linear regression was used to propose a laboratory protocol that can accurately and reliably predict the electrostatic propensity of garment systems.

One of the main concerns was to determine if peak discharge potential or charge decay time, or both, from different test methods could best predict the electrostatic propensity of garment systems, and specifically of protective garments. Correlation analysis showed that potentials from Tests No.1 and 2 and decay times from Test No.3 had the highest correlations with human-body discharge potentials, supporting what was stated previously about the relationship among potential from tribocharging, decay time from induction, and the intrinsic conductive characteristics of a textile surface.

A test protocol was suggested from different testing models built with the help of multiple linear regressions. According to preliminary analysis, a linear relationship was determined for small-scale and human-body data (Figure 7, and Appendices C2 and C3). A test battery was chosen not only because of its high coefficient of determination (R²) but also because it had the best relationship between the small-scale tests and the human-body experiment.





Although combinations of the three methods (potentials and decay times) had the highest coefficients of determination (\mathbb{R}^2) when regressed with human-body potentials they were considered impractical test protocols since they involve the use of three different methods and devices. A combination of peak discharge potential as measured by the UA ESD Test System (Test No.1), and potential and charge decay time as measured by the modified Federal Standard Test 191A Method No.5931 (test No.2 at 50% cut off) was chosen and named Test Battery 1. This protocol was selected because its \mathbb{R}^2 of .96 was the highest among the different models built, both independent variables were significant, the constant (y-intercept) and the two independent variables had high eigenvalues to the same level, and the tolerance of the three independent variables was very small (Appendix B9).

Norusis (1992) stated that if a high proportion of the variance of two or more coefficients is associated with the same eigenvalue, there is evidence for a neardependency among the variables. Also, this author mentioned that if the tolerance of a variable, which is a commonly used measure of collinearity, is small, it is almost a linear combination of the other independent variable(s).

Different plots were obtained to confirm the assumption of linear relationship: standardized residuals vs. standardized predicted values, histogram of standardized residuals, normal probability (P-P plot), and actual vs. predicted values (see Appendixes C4, C5, and C6).

A second test battery chosen because of its high values of R^2 (.95), was the combination of peak potential measured by the UA ESD Test System , and decay time measured by the Federal Standard Test 191A Method 5931 (named Test Battery 2). As in the test battery 1, all the assumptions were validated with the help of the collinearity analysis (tolerance and eigenvalues indexes) and plots (Appendix B10). This protocol could be very practical in real-life conditions because it combines one new method that has proven to be reliable and very valid, and a second method that is well established in the field, easy to operate, and its results are very consistent (See Appendices C7 and C8). Results from the Federal Standard Test 191A lacked linear relationship when individually regressed with those from the human-body; however, when it was combined with Test No.1, it had one of the highest R^2 .

As an individual test method, the UA ESD Test System showed the best relationship compared to the human-body data with coefficients of correlation and determination of .97 and .94, respectively. These high values mean that more than 94% of the human-body discharge potentials can be explained by the results from this test. As mentioned before,

only with this method could the discharge energy be calculated. It has been stated that discharge energy is an important parameter to determine criteria for both incendive and nonincendive sparks due to electrostatic discharges (Owens, 1984; Glor, 1988; and Rizvi et al, 1992). This criterion could be used towards a general standard, based on minimum ignition energies (M.I.E.), for predicting safe wearing of protective clothing under hazardous environments.

The theoretical considerations on which this method is based can be stated as follows:

2-layer system represents a garment system comprising both outer and inner galepents such as a coverall and a shirt, the capacitor and resistor represent the average capacitance and resistance of a human body, and the action of the switch represents the instant when a charged human body touches a grounded object resulting in a discharge.
2) This process could be divided in two parts: the tribo-charging process when the rubbing element charges the outer layer and, consequently, through induction, the inner layer and the capacitor; and the discharge process when the charged capacitor is discharged through the resistor to the ground, as happens in real-life conditions.

3) It seems that during triboelectrification most of the generated charge is transferred to the R/C unit rather than dissipating to the air because the charge will flow to the more conductive route, that is in this case, to the capacitor through the conducting plate and connecting wires. The charge cannot easily leak to the air because electrons travel through it with difficulty as the air has a high electrical resistance. Thus, the charge will leak slowly through the air to ground after charging has stopped (Crow, 1991).

4) It has been established (Serway, 1990) that the charge on the capacitor decays exponentially at a rate characterized by the time constant t of the circuit (t=RC). Thus, it may be hypothesized that the rate of such discharge from a capacitor such as the human body is not related to the intrinsic decay rate of the textile surface, but to the capacitance and resistance of the system.

Chapter 6 Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary

Peak discharge potentials and charge decay times were measured by three different test methods for both unilayer and multilayer specimens. In general, the pattern of results for these methods was predictable on the basis of other studies and the theory of static electricity. The magnitude of charge generation is influenced by such factors as contact pressure, the type of charging, contact area, and fabric combination. However, the magnitude of electrostatic discharges for each fabric system and the relationships among the three methods and the human-body experiment were unknown. Thus, three different laboratory protocol involving different combinations of the three test methods and one single method were proposed. These three test batteries showed high abilities to predict the outcome of human-body experiments.

Conclusions

Some conclusions reached on the basis of this study or confirmed by this investigation can be stated as follow:

1) Anti-static fabrics generate triboelectric discharge potentials and energies which are smaller in magnitude than non-antistatic fabrics.

2) While variation of the outer layer in a fabric system seems to have the greatest effect on the variables measured, variation of the inner layer in the system may have a lesser but significant effect.

3) Based on the results of correlation and line a lagression, it is possible to establish a small-scale laboratory protocol to predict accurately and reliably the electrostatic propensity of garment systems worn by workers in hazardous environments.

4) According to correlation and regression analyses, peak discharge poteratials have stronger relationships with data from the human-body experiment than do charge decay times.

5) It seems that peak discharge potentials from methods based on triboelectric charging mechanisms correlate better with human-body discharge potentials than do those based on high potential induced charging

6) Measurement of charge decay rate from induced charges correlate better with both smallscale and human-body potentials than do those from tribocharging because the former uses the ability of charge to flow across a specimen from an electrode due to its intrinsic conducting characteristics, and the latter depends on the electronic configuration, the removal of valence electrons by a friction force, and the specimen's ability to re-balance its electronic arrangement.

7) As a single test method, the UA ESD Test System showed a very strong relationship with data (potentials and energies) from the human-body experiment. Therefore, the high correlation between this method and human-body data in the present study suggests that measuring discharge potentials and energies from charged the systems using the new device and procedure is sufficient to predict with high accurate the electrostatic propensity of protective clothing systems in real-life conditions.

Recommendations

Recommendations for Industry

Electrostatic discharges from a charged object cannot be completely eliminated but their effects can be minimized and controlled. The recommendations that follow are made on the basis of this study only and must be considered in light of other factors, not included in the present research, in the development of any safety code or industry specification.

Since in most jurisdictions including Alberta, there is no definite policy regarding electrostatics in clothing nor is there any prevalent, accepted industry-wide standard, it is strongly recommended that one of the small-scale laboratory protocols developed in this study be accepted as a standard protocol to predict electrostatic propensity of protective garment systems worn by persons working in hazardous environments under low humidity and temperature.

Moreover, a safety code for wearing protective clothing in explosive environments could be developed from discharge energies obtained from the UA ESD Test System. This safety code would be based on minimum ignition energies for different flammable gas and vapor mixtures.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following are suggestions for further work in this field:

1) The research should be replicated at different humidities to determine if there are significant differences between measurements taken at 20% and those taken at different relative humidity. Special attention should be placed on measurements taken at 0 humidity since it seems that the worst case scenario happens at this level.

2) The incendive characteristics of the spark discharges from both small-scale and humanbody experiments should be investigated and their discharge energies compared to the minimum ignition energies of various flammable gases.

3) Further research should be pursued to develop a mathematical model that could predict the electrostatic propensity of a protective clothing system from measurements on single layers comprising the system. This model should involve four main variables: humidity, temperature, fabric system, and type of physical activity.

54

Bibliography

- AATCC (1990). <u>Electrical resistivity of yarns</u> (Test method 84-1987). Research Triangle Park, NC: American Association of Textile Chemists and Colorists.
- AATCC (1990). <u>Electrical resistivity of fabrics</u> (Test method 76-1987). Research Triangle Park, NC: American Association of Textile Chemists and Colorists.
- AATCC (1990). <u>Electrostatic clinging of fabrics</u> (Test method 115-1986). Research Triangle Park, NC: American Association of Textile Chemists and Colorists.
- AATCC (1990). <u>Electrostatic propensity of carpets</u> (Test method 134-1986). Research Triangle Park, NC: American Association of Textile Chemists and Colorists.
- ASTM (1990). <u>Standard test method for electrostatic propensity of textiles</u> (Test Method D4238-90). Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.
- ASTM (1990). <u>Standard test method for evaluating triboelectric (static) charge generation on</u> <u>protective clothing</u> (Draft No. Z/2282).Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.
- Baumgartner, B. and Havermann, R. (1984). Testing of electrostatic materials by Federal Test Standard 101C method 4046.1. <u>EOS/ESD Symposium</u>, pp. 97.
- Berkey, B. D., Pratt, T., & Williams, G. (1988). Review of literature related to human spark scenarios. <u>Plant/Operations Progress</u>, <u>7(</u>1), 32-36.
- Boxleitner, W. (1989). <u>Electrostatic discharges and electronic equipment</u>. New York: IEEE Press.
- Bowers, B. (1982). A history of electric light and power. Exeter: Short Run Press.
- Bustin, W. M., & Dukek, W. G. (1983). <u>Electrostatic hazards in the petroleum industry</u>. Letchworth: Research Studies Press.
- Cheston, W. B. (1964). <u>Elementary theory of electric and magnetic fields</u> (1st. ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- CGSB (1988). CAN/CGSB-4.2 No.2-M88: <u>Conditioning textile materials for testing</u>. Ottawa, ON: Canadian General Standards Board.
- CGSB (1990). CAN/CGSB-4.2 No.58-M90: <u>Colourfastness and dimensional change in</u> <u>domestic laundering of textiles</u>). Ottawa, ON: Canadian General Standards Board.
- Chubb, J.N. (1988). <u>Measurement of static charge dissipation</u>. London: IOP Publishing Ltd., 73-81.
- Chubb, J.N. (1990). Instrumentation and standards for testing static control materials. JEEE Transactions on Industrial Applications, 26, pp. 1182.

- Chubb, J. N., & Malinverni, P. (1993). Comparative studies on methods of charge decay measurement. Journal of Electrostatics, 30, 273-284.
- Coelho, R. (1985). The electrostatic characterization of insulating materials. <u>Journal of</u> Electrostatics, <u>17</u>, 13-27.
- Crow, R. M. (1991). <u>Static electricity. A literature review</u> (DREO technical note No. 91-28). Ottawa, ON: Defense Research Establishment Ottawa.

Crugnola, A.M. & Robinson, H.M. (1959). <u>Measuring and predicting the generation of static</u> <u>electricity in military clothing</u> (Report No. 110). Natick, MA: Quartermaster Research and Engineering Centre, US Army.

- Datyner, A. (1983). Surfactants in textile processing. New York: Marcel Dekker.
- EOS/ESD (1987). <u>Standard for protection of electrostatic discharge susceptible items:</u> personnel garments (Draft Standard No.2). Rome, NY: Electrical Overstress Society/ Electrostatic Discharge Association.
- Gibson, N., & Harper, D. J. (1987). Parameters for assessing electrostatic risk from non-conductors: A discussion. Journal of Electrostatics, 21,27-35.
- Gibson, N., & Lloyd, F. C. (1965). Incendivity of discharges from electrostatically charged plastics. British Journal of Applied Physics, <u>16</u>, 1619-1631.
- Glor, M. (1988). <u>Electrostatic hazards in powder handling</u>. Letchworth: Research Studies Press.
- Greason, W. D. (1992). Electrostatic discharge: A charge driven phenomenon. <u>Journal of</u> <u>Electrostatics</u>, <u>28</u>, 199-218.
- Haase, H. (1977). <u>Electrostatic hazards: Their evaluation and control</u>. New York: Verlag Chenie-Weinheim.
- Halliday-Resnick (1988). Physics (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- Hayek, M. and Chromey, F.C. (1951). The electrical resistance of textile materials. <u>American</u> Dyestuff Reporter, <u>40</u>, 225-227.
- Hearle, J.W.S. (1953). The electrical resistance on textile materials: The influence of moisture content. The Journal of the Textile Institute, 44, 117-143.
- Henry, P. S. (1953). Survey of generation and dissipation of static electricity. <u>The British</u> Journal of Applied Physics, <u>4</u>(2), 6-11.
- Henry, P. S. (1971). Risks of ignition due to static on outer clothing. <u>Static Electricity</u> <u>Conference Proceedings, The Institute of Physics</u>, <u>40</u>, 212-225.
- Ji, X., Takahashi, Y., Komai, Y., and Kobayashi, S. (1989). Separating discharges on electrified insulating sheet. Journal of Electrostatics, 23, 381-390.

- Lewin, M., & Sello, S. (1984). <u>Handbook of fibre science and technology: Volume II.</u> <u>Functional finishes, part B</u>. New York: Marcel Dekker.
- Löbel, W. (1987). Antistatic mechanism of internally modified synthetics and quality requirements for clothing textiles. <u>Institute of Physics Conference</u>, <u>85</u>(2), 183-186.
- Lövstrand, K. G. (1981). The ignition power of brush discharges: Experiment at work on the critical charge density. Journal of Electrostatics, 10, 161-168.
- Makwana, D.N., Munshi, V.G., & Jadhav, S.B. (1991). Measurement of electrical conductivity of textile materials. <u>The Indian Textile Journal</u>, <u>11</u>, 84-87.
- Matisoff, B. S. (1986). <u>Handbook of electrostatic discharge controls</u>. New York: Van Norstrand Reinhold Co.
- Matsui, M., Naito, H., Okamoto, K. & Kashiwamura, T. (1989). Development of a new evaluation system of frictional static charge. <u>Journal of the Textile Machinery Society of Japan</u>, <u>35</u> (2), 12-23.
- McAteer, O. J. (1987). An overview of the ESD problem. Institute of Physics Conference, 85. 155-164.
- McLean, H.T. (1955). Electrostatic charges on fabrics. American Dyestuff Reporter, 44, 485-489.
- Morisseau, B. S., & Lewiner, J. (1987). New possible measurements for the prevention of electrostatic discharges. <u>Institute of Physics Conference</u>, <u>85</u>, 197-201.
- Norusis, M.J. (1992). <u>SPSS for Windows. Base system user's guide, release 5.0.</u> Chicago: SPSS Inc.
- Osei-Ntiri, K. (1992). <u>Measurement of electrostatic charge on protective clothing in low</u> <u>humidity environment</u>. Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton.
- Owens, J. E. (1984). <u>Hazards of personnel electrification: Nomex vs. No-Mo-Stat</u>. Delaware: E. I. Du Pont De Nemours & Co.
- Philips, D.E. (1982). <u>Testing for electrostatic generation and dissignation</u>. Maryland: Defense Technical Information Centre (DTIC).
- Ramer, E. M., & Richards, H. R. (1968). Correlation of the electrical resistivities of fabrics with their ability to develop and hold electrostatic charges. <u>Textile Research Journal</u>, 38, 28-34.
- Red Kap Industries (1990). Red Kap static control apparel. For use outside the clean room. Nashville, TN: Red Kap Industries.
- Rizvi, S. A. H., & Smy, P. R. (1992). Characteristics of incendive and non-incendive spark discharges from surface of a charged insulator. Journal of Electrostatics, 27. 267-282.

- Rizvi, S.A.H., Smy, P.R., Crown, E.M., & Osei-Ntiri, K. (1991). Characterization of incendive and non-incendive spark discharges from surfaces of charged fabrics in an open hazardous environment. <u>Proceedings of the International Conference on</u> <u>Fibre and Textile Science</u> (pp. 187-190). Ottawe, Ontario.
- Roth, R. (1990). Simulation of electrostatics as discharges. Journal of Electrostatics, 24, 267-220.
- Sclater, N. (1990). <u>Electrostatic discharge protection for electronics</u>. Blue Ridge Summit, PA: TAB Books.
- Scott, R.A. (1981). <u>Static electricity in clothing and textiles</u>. UK: Commonwealth Defense Conference.
- Sereda, P. J., & Feldman, R. F. (1955). Electrostatic charging of fabrics at various humidities. Journal of The Textile Institute, 55, 288-298.
- Serway, R. A. (1990). <u>Physics for scientists and engineers</u> (3rd. ed.). Chicago: Saunders College Publishing.
- Shaw, P. E., & Jex, C. S. (1951). Static electricity on fabrics. <u>The British Journal of Applied</u> Physics, <u>3</u>, 201-205.
- Shirai, M. (1984). Electric charges produced by separating two compressed sheets of polyester. Journal of Electroscutics, 15, 265-268.
- Superintendent of Documents (1969). <u>Electrostatic properties of materials</u> (Federal Test Method Standard No.101B Method 4046). Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Superintendent of Documents (1990). <u>Determination of electrostatic decay of fabrics</u> (Federal Test Method Standard No.191A Method 5931). Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Taylor, D. M., & Elias, J. (1987). A versatile charge decay meter for assessing antistatic materials. <u>Institute of Physics Conference</u>, <u>85</u>, 177-181.
- Teixeira, N.A. & Edelstein, S.M. (1954). Resistivity: One clue to the electrostatic behavior of fabric. <u>American Dyestuff Reporter</u>, <u>43</u>, 195-208.
- Tolson, P. (1980). The stored energy needed to ignite methane by discharges from a charged person. Journal of Electrostatics, 8, 289-293.
- Veghte, J. H., & Millard, W. W. (1963). <u>Accumulation of static electricity on arctic clothing</u> (Report No. AAL-TDR-63-12). Fort Wainwright, AK: Arctic Aeromedical Laboratory.
- Wilson, D. (1963). The electrical resistance of textile materials as a measure of their anti-static properties. Journal of The Textile Institute, 54, 97-105.
- Wilson, L. G., & Cavanaugh, P. (1972). <u>Electrostatic hazards due to clothing</u> (Report No. 665). Ottawa, ON: Defense Research Establishment Ottawa.
Wilson, N. (197778). The risk of fire or explosion due to static charges on textile clothing. Journal of Electrostatics, 4, 67-84.

Wilson, N. (1987). Effect of static electricity on clothing and furnishing. Textiles, 16, 18-23.

APPENDIX A

T	, ,		1	1 .			1			
IDBF		1	1 1 .		111	· WA	TTb		104	108
		1 1	11.		i	<u> </u>			W	<u> </u>
	·		<u>.</u>	\rightarrow	<u> </u>		<u>.</u>			<u>↓</u>
DAF	9BF		:			÷;	i r			l
			<u> </u>					94	9B	+
<u>i + </u>		_	++++	+++	++			- 2e W	IW	1 1
╧╧╧┙┨	94 F	_	++	╉╋	:	1				
			+++	╉┽┼	++	the second s	+-			1
	<u> </u>	++-		+++		1				· II
	+		$\dot{\tau}$	111		!	BN	8B		BF
						1 1	W	W		
			1 1		1	-		<u> </u>		<u></u>
++++++	i - 1		111		1			ļ		A.FI
			1 1						<u>-</u>	<u> </u>
					_ - -	74	78	<u> </u>	 - -	
						<u>:w</u>	Wi			+-+-+
				╶╂╍┼╍┥			┨───┼─		<u> </u>	++++
<u>i </u>	<u>_:_!</u>		<u>785</u>			<u> </u>		<u> </u>		
		; }		╺╺┫╌┿╌		68	╊╼╼┾╸			111
	· !		TAF	╾╉╾╬╾╝	-64 -W	W	╂╍╍┼╸	:	<u> </u>	1; 1
			1 1	╾╂╾┼╾				,		
╶┿╍╈╼╄╼╼┾╼╼				╼╃╍┾╍		┨┼╌╌	· ·		1	
$\frac{1}{1}$				I I			. 1			• •
		- 1		54	56		T	W=	WARF	<u> </u>
	68 F			WI	W	<u> </u>			_ + ÷	
- 1 1	•		1		ļ	1	<u> </u>	F :	FILIO	
1			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		 	<u> </u>	<u> </u>			
58 F	:64 F	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	48	I	+		······		,
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	44	40			÷			1
	<u> </u>		W		1	+				
54 F	<u> </u>		<u>↓</u>		╂───	+	- 1			1
1	P		╂─────	t-i		1	: 1			1
	<u>├</u> , 	3A	3B	1 4	BF	1	· i			1 1
	++	W	W							
	11					1				
					AF	36	5 F		<u>+</u>	
		- 1	I			- 				
. :	24	28	 			- <u>-</u>	A F	28		
	W	WI	 			+	<u>n r</u>			
L	╁───┼		+							
	╉╼╍╍╋	<u> </u>	J					2A	F	IBF
	16	<u> </u>								
	- 10 - Wi			- 1 7	1 1 1					
		┽┾		-+-						IAF
		- ا		-+-			1 .			

Appendix A1. Sampling diagram

Appendix A2. Test No.1 testing procedure

The procedure in Test No.1 (UA ESD Test System) was as follow:

- Place the specimen (unilayer or multilayer) on the conducting plate, and secure it with the grips. Handle the specimen with insulated tongs, wearing gloves.
- 2) Ground the specimen to cancel any initial charge on the surface of the outer fabric as well as the surface of the rubbing element.
- 3) Ground the system by pushing the discharge button.
- 4) Rub outer fabric surface with the rubbing element ten complete laps.
- 5) Press discharge button and monitor the discharge voltage waveform on the oscilloscope screen.
- 6) Print out the voltage waveform with the plotter.
- 7) Using tongs, carefully remove the specimen, and put it back in the conditioning box.
- 8) Repeat steps 1 to 7 for the rest of four specimens.
- Repeat the experiment (steps 1 to 8) for each specimen after the first test with at least 24 hours of re-conditioning.

Appendix A3. Testing procedure for Test No.2

The procedure for Test No.2 (modified Federal Test Method Standard 191A, method 5931) was as follow:

- Mount the specimen on the holders, securing it with the magnetized bars. Do not touch the surface of the specimen with the hands. Use tongs and wear gloves.
- Eliminate any initial charge on the surface of the specimen using the static eliminator.
- 3) Move the roller up to the mark on the frame of the apparatus and make sure that it touches the specimen.
- Press the starting button in the roller and keep rubbing the specimen until the roller stop automatically.
- 5) As the roller stops, move it away from the specimen and press the test button in the static decay meter. Record the maximum accepted voltage that the specimen obtained.
- When the test is finished (i.e. when the decay voltage has reached the selected level of cut-off), record the decay time measured by the meter.
- 7) Remove the specimen from the holders and put it back in the conditioning box.
- 8) Repeat steps 1 to 7 for the rest of four specimens.
- Repeat the experiment (steps 1 to 8) for each specimen with at least 24 hours of reconditioning.

This procedure produced ten readings per fabric system and per fabric direction.

ECTROST	T OF ALL T OF HUN ATIC DIS	BERTA MAN-ECOLO SCHARG ⁷	GT SOJECT		· JC	ATE: DSE A. EST No.	GONZALE
EST DA							·
VIRPOSE							
	- <u></u>						
							······
	<u> </u>						
APPARAT	US:						
ABRIC							
DIRECTI	ON OF	TEST: _	WARP		WE	FT	•
	N SIZE						
NOTE:	Fabric d	condition	ed at •	C and	X RH pi	rior to	testin
NOTE:		condition	ed at •	C and	X RH pi	rior to	testin:
		condition	ed at •	C and		rior to	testin:
RESULTS		eondition	ed at •			rior to	
NO.		eondition	ed at •			rior to	
NO.		condition	ed at •			rior to	
NO.		condition	ed at •			rior to	
NO. 1 2 3			ed at •			rior to	
NO. 1 2 3 4			ed at •				
No. 1 1 2 3 4 5 5			ed at •				
No. 1 1 2 3 4 5 6			ed at •				
No. 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 7			ed at •				
No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8			ed at •				
No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9			ed at •				
No. 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10			ed at •				
No. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 AVG			ed at •				

Appendix A4. Data collection form

APPENDIX B

.

	Ъу	POTENT SYSTEM EXPERIM FABDIR	POTENTIAL (V or kV FABRIC SYSTEM EXPERIMENT TYPE FABRIC DIRECTION	n			
			Sum of		Mean		Sig
		ian	Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
Source of V	ariat	1011	Diagree		•		
Main Réferre	-		5849.603	7	835.658	693.263	.000
Main Effect	3		1149.334	4	287.333	238.372	.000
SYSTEM Experim			4582.403	2	2291.201	1900.785	.000
FABDIR			117.867	1	117.867	97.783	.000
FADDIN							
2-Way Inter	actio	ns	5982.049	14	427.289	354.480	.000
SYSTEM	EXPE		5282.159	8	660.270	547.761	.000
SYSTEM	FABD		49.657	4	12.414	10.299	.000
EXPERIM	FABD		650.233	2	325.116	269.717	.000
3-Way Inter	actic	ns	357.933	8	44.742	37.118	.000
SYSTEM	EXPE	RIM FABL	DIR 357.933	8	44.742	37.118	.000
•••••						240 202	000
Explained			12189.584	29	420.330	348.707	.000
Residual			· 807.616	670	1.205		
Total			12997.201	699	18.594		
700 cases v O cases (.(vere p) pct)	were mis	ssing.				
	ру	DECTIME SYSTEM EXPERIM FABDIR	DECAY TIME (S) FABRIC SYSTEM EXPERIMENT TYPE FABRIC DIRECTION				
			Sum of		Mean		Sig
				DF	Square	F	of F
Source of V	/aria	cion	Squares	<i>D</i> 1		-	
			3233798.453	6	5: 966.409	117.358	.000
Main Effect	5		807074.539	4	2 . 768.635	43.934	.000
SYSTEM			2424072.619	1	24 1072.619	527.832	.000
EXPERIM			2651.295	ī	651.295	.577	.448
FABDIR			20021000	-			
0 Mars Tata		070 F	1662017.535	9	11 568.615	40.211	.000
2-Way Inte:		ERIM	1604575.658	4	40.,43.914	87.347	.000
SYSTEM	FAB		44148.780	4	11, 7.195	2.403	.049
SYSTEM Experim			13293.097	1	1325、.097	2.895	.089
EAFERIM							
3-Way Inte	racti	ons	93612.045	4	23403.011	5.096	.000
SYSTEM	EXP	ERIM FAB		4	23403.011	5.096	.000
0101044							
Explained			4989428.033	19	262601.475	57.180	.000
Residual			2663654.832	580	4592.508		
Total			7653082.865	59 9	12776.432		

600 cases were processed. O cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B1. ANOVA of unilayer specimens peak potential and decay time

• •

:

	POTENT	POTENTIE: (V or kV)
Ъу	SYSTEM	FABRIC SISTEM
	FABDIR	FABRIC DIRECTION

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
ain Effects SYSTEM FABDIR	6132.868 5365.799 767.068	5 4 1	1226.574 1341.450 767.068	154.699 169.188 96.745	.000 .000 .000
Way Interactions SYSTEM FABDIR	390.316 390.316	4 4	97.579 97.579	12.307 12.307	.000 .000
Lxplained	6523.183	9	724.798	91.414	.000
Residual	713.589	90	7.929		
Total	7236.772	99	73.099		

100 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

.

Appendix B2. ANOVA of Test No.1 peak potential (unilayer specimens)

	Ъу	Poten Syster Fabdii Cutofi	f FA R FA	TENTIAL (V or kV) BRIC SYSTEM BRIC DIRECTION T OFF LEVEL	•	·		·
				Sum of		Mean		Sig
Source of V	ariat	ion		Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
					~	142.942	793.200	.000
Main Effect	3			857.654	6 4	214.332	1189.348	.000
SYSTEM				857.328	1	.263	1.458	.229
FABDIR				.263	1	.063	.350	.555
CUTOFF				.005	*			
2-Way Inter	actio	n e		26.665	9	2.963	16.441	.000
SYSTEM	FABD			15.698	4	3.925	21.778	.000
SYSTEM	CUTC			2.050	4	.512	2.844	.026
FABDIR	CUTC			8.917	1	8.917	49.481	.000
				11.580	4	2.895	16.064	.000
3-Way Inter	actic FABE		UTOFF	11.580	4	2,895	16.064	.000
SYSTEM	FABL	UR C	OIOFF	11.000	•			
Explained				895.898	19	47.153	261.654	.000
Residual				32.438	180	.180		
Total				928.336	199	4.665		
200 cases w O cases (.C	by	Were DECTI SYSTE FABDI CUTOF	missir ME DE M F7 R F7	NG. CCAY TIME (S) NBRIC SYSTEM NBRIC DIRECTION TT OFF LEVEL				
								ci a
				Sum of		Mean	F	Sig of F
Source of V	/ariat	ion		Squares	DF	Square	E	
Main Effect				3508971.150	6	584828.525	5489.486	.000
SYSTEM	.3			2377362.167	4	594340.542	5578.770	.000
FABDIR				15342.965	1	15342.965	144.017	.000
CUTOFF				1116266.018	1	1116266.018	10477.817	.000
					•		3466 415	.000
2-Way Inter				1406035.174	9	156226.130	1466.415 320.740	.000
SYSTEM	Fabi			136681.581	4 4	34170.395 309483.466	2904.963	.000
SYSTEM	CUTC			1237933.863	4	31419.730	294.921	.000
FABDIR	CUTO)E.F.		31419.730	1	97375190	20 11004	
3-Way Inter	ractio	ns		164510.949	4	41127.737	386.045	.000
SYSTEM	FAB		UTOFF	164510.949	4	41127.737	386.045	.000
				FATAF17 074	10	267343 014	2509.412	.000
Explained				5079517.274	19 180	267343.014 106.536	2303.312	
Residual				19176.503 5098693.776	199	25621.577		
Total				3090093.170	100	24022.011		

200 cases were processed. O cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B3. ANOVA of Test No.2 peak potential and decay time (unilayer specimens)

.

ЪУ	POTENT SYSTEM FABDIR CUTOFF POLAR	POTENTIAL (V or kV) FABRIC SYSTEM FABRIC DIRECTION CUT OFF LEVEL POLARITY OF CHARGE	•	
	FOTHIC			

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Va	ariation		Sum of Squar es	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effect:	-		221,586	7	31.655	1192.661	.000
SYSTEM	5		208.365	4	52.091	1962.628	.000
FABDIR			.768	1	.768	28.945	.000
CUTOFF			11.059	1	11.059	416.664	.000
POLAR			1.394	1	1.394	52.505	.000
			15.870	15	1.058	39.863	.000
2-Way Inter	actions		1.576	4	.394		.000
SYSTEM	FABDIR		8.448	4	2.112	79.572	.000
SYSTEM	CUTOFF		2.928	4	.732	27.576	.000
SYSTEM	POLAR		1.953	1	1.953	73.583	.000
FABDIR	CUTOFF		.119	1 1	.119		.035
FABDIR	POLAR		.847	ī	.847	31.924	.000
CUTOFF	POLAR		.01/	~			
3-Way Inter	actions		2.460	13	.189	7.130	.000
SYSTEM	FABDIR	CUTOFF	1.460	4	.365	13.753	.000
SYSTEM	FABDIR	POLAR	.558	4	.139	5.251	.000
SYSTEM	CUTOFF	POLAR	.083	4 1	.021	.783	.537
FABDIR	CUTOFF	POLAR	.359	1	.359	13.541	.000
A Mart Tata	actions		.218	4	.055	2.057	.086
4-Way Inter SYSTEM	FABDIR	CUTOFF	.218	4	.055	2.057	.086
POL		001011					
Explained			240.135	39	6.157	231.987	.000
Residual			9.555	360	.027		
Total			249.690	399	.626		

400 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B4. ANOVA of Test No.3 potential & decay time (unilayer specimens). Cont'd...

•

DECTIME	DECAY TIME (S)
by SYSTEM	FABRIC SYSTEM
FABDIR	FABRIC DIRECTION
CUTOFF	CUT OFF LEVEL
POLAR	POLARITY OF CHARGE

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
		88503.386	7	12643.341	2045.556	.000
Main Effects		34288.030	4	8572.008	1386.858	.000
SYSTEM		601.427	1	601.427	97.304	.000
TABDIR		53584.379	1 1		8669.375	.000
CUTOFF		29.550	ī	29.550	4.781	.029
POLAR		29.000	-			
		38446.044	15	2563.070	414.677	.000
2-Way Interactions		1079.244	4	269.811	43.653	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR		36726.185	4	9181.546	1485.475	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFF		24.403	4	6.101	.987	.415
SYSTEM POLAR		594.287	4 1	594.287	96.149	.000
FABDIR CUTOFF		16.459	1	16.459	2.663	.104
FABDIR POLAR		5.466	1 1	3.466	.884	.348
CUTOFF POLAR		5.400	+	01111		
		1088.264	13	83.713	13.544	.000
3-Way Interactions		974.265	4	243.566	39.406	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR	CUTOFF	53.930		13.482	2.181	.071
SYSTEM FABDIR	PULAR		4 4 1	5.298	.857	.490
SYSTEM CUTOFF	POLAR	21.193		38.875	6.290	.013
FABDIR CUTOFF	POLAR	38.875	T	50.075	01200	
		53.658	4	13.415	2,170	.072
4-Way Interactions		53.658	4	13.415	2.170	.072
SYSTEM FABDIR	CUTOFF	23.000	-	101110		
POLAR						
Explained		128091.352	39	3284.394	531.380	.000
Residual		2225.117	360	6.181		
Total		130316.470	399	326.608		

400 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B4 (continued). ANOVA of Test No.3 peak potential & decay time (unilayer specimens)

.

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

:

POTENT by System Experi Fabdif	M FABRIC SYSTEM IM EXPERIMENT TYPE	•	
---	---------------------------------------	---	--

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects SYSTEM	20655.944 4015.589	10 7	2065.594 573.656	1313.379 364.751	.000 .000
EXPERIM FABDIR	16634.137 6.219	2 1	8317.068 6,219	5288.292 3.954	.000 .047
2-Way Interactions	16512.276 15786.487	23 14	717.925	456.483 716.973	.000
SYSTEM EXPERIM SYSTEM FABDIR EXPERIM FABDIR	499.541 226.248	7	71.363	45.375 71.928	.000
3-Way Interactions	2247.585	14	160.542	102.078	.000
SYSTEM EXPERIM FABDIR	2247.585	14 47	160.542 838.634	102.078	.000
Explained	39415.805 1685.969	1072	1.573		
Residual Total	41101.774	1119	36.731		

1120 cases were processed. O cases (.0 pct) were missing.

.

Appendix B5. ANOVA of multilayer specimens peak potential & decay time. Cont'd...

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

ЪУ	DECTIME SYSTEM EXPERIM FABDIR CUTOFF	DECAY TIME (S) FABRIC SYSTEM EXPERIMENT TYPE FABRIC DIRECTION CUT OFF LEVEL
	CUTOFF	CUT OFF LEVEL

.

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

001						
		Sum of		Mean		Sig
Source of Variation		Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
		4421230.423	10	442123.042	5526.119	.000
Main Effects		486503.892	7	69500.556	868.691	.000
SYSTEM		3095275.923	i	3095275.923	38688.014	.000
EXPERIM		10418.066	ī	10418.066	130.216	.000
FABDIR			i	829032.543		.000
CUTOFF		829032.543	Ŧ	029032.343	105021121	
o Mars Tabawagtions		2504766.401	24	104365.267	1304.467	.000
2-Way Interactions SYSTEM EXPERIM		1189358.617	7	169908.374	2123.694	.000
		39318.099	7	5616.871	70.206	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR		245395.761	7	35056.537	438.173	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFF		40637.873	1	40637.873	507.935	.000
EXPERIM FABDIR		984209.704	1 1 1	984209.704	12301.688	.000
EXPERIM CUTOFF			1	5846.347	73.074	.000
FABDIR CUTOFF		5846.347	+	5040.517		
2 Way Internations		444988.333	22	20226.742	252.815	.000
3-Way Interactions SYSTEM EXPERIM	FABDIR	83691.943	7	11955.992	149.439	.000
	CUTOFF	323228.275		46175.468		.000
SYSTEM EXPERIM	CUTOFF	38034.501	ר ר 1	5433.500		.000
SYSTEM FABDIR		33.613	1	33.613	.420	.517
EXPERIM FABDIR	CUTOFF	22.012	-			
A Way Interactions		166509.474	7	23787,068	297.326	.000
4-Way Interactions SYSTEM EXPURIM	FABDIR	166509.474	7	23787.068	297.316	.000
SYSTEM EXPORIM CUTOFF	TABDIN	100007111				
Marca Alexand		7537494.631	63	119642.772	1495.421	.000
Explained		71685.439	896	80.006		
Residual		7609180.069	959	7934.494		
Total		1003100.003				

960 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B5 (continued). ANOVA of multilayer specimens peak potential & decay time

·.

	POTENT	POTENTIAL (V or kV)			
by	SYSTEM	FABRIC SYSTEM		•	
-	FABDIR	FABRIC DIRECTION	•		

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects SYSTEM FABDIR	18409.143 18194.473 214.670	8 7 1	2301.143 2599.210 214.670	212.371 239.879 19.812	.000 .000 .000
2-Way Interactions SYSTEM FABDIR	2682.563 2682.563	ר ד	383.223 383.223	35.367 35.367	.000 .000
Explained	21091.706	15	1406.114	129.769	.000
Residual	1560.310	144	10.835		
Total	22652.016	159	142.466		

160 cases were processed. O cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B6. ANOVA of Test No.1 peak potential (multilayer specimens)

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

POTENT	POTENTIAL (V OT kV)
by System	FABRIC SYSTEM
Fabdir	FABRIC DIRECTION
Cutoff	CUT OFF LEVEL

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	1495.560	9	166.173	1407.356	.000
SYSTEM	1491.571	7	213.082	1804.631	.000
FABDIR	.067	1	.067	.571	.450
CUTOFF	3.922	1	3.922	33.213	.000
2-Way Interactions	38.285	15	2.552	21.616	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR	20.979	7	2.997	25.382	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFF	4.803	7	.686	5.811	.000
FABDIR CUTOFF	12.504	1	12.504	105.897	.000
3-Way Interactions	8.515	ר	1.216	10.302	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR CU	JTOFF 8.515	ל	1.216	10.302	.000
Explained Residual Total	1542.360 34.006 1576.366	31 288 319	49.754 .118 4.942	421.373	.000

.

320 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

DECTIM by System FABDI.: CUTOFF	FABRIC SYSTEM FABRIC DIRECTION
--	-----------------------------------

Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects SYSTEM FABDIR CUTOFF		3444845.097 1610762.655 49963.757 1784118.685	9 7 1 1	382760.566 230108.951 49963.757 1784118.685	2080.484 1250.750 271.577 3:07.525	.000 .000 .000 .000
2-Way Interactions SYSTEM FABDIR SYSTEM CUTOFF FABDIR CUTOFF		651541.203 120259.611 529728.345 1553.247	15 7 7 1	43436.080 17179.944 75675.478 1553.247	236.096 93.381 411.332 8.443	.000 .000 .000 .004
3-Way Interactions SYSTEM FABDIR	CUTOFF	195551.132 195551.132	7 7	27935.876 27935.876	151.845	.000
Explained Residual Total		4291937.432 52985.292 4344922.723	31 288 319	138449.595 183.977 13620.447	752.539	.000

320 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B7. ANOVA of Test I'o.2 potential and decay time (multilayer specimens)

by S E	SYSTEM FABR FABDIR FABR SUTOFF CUT	NTIAL (V or K IC SYSTEM IC DIRECTION OFF LEVEL RITY OF CHARG	•	·		
	EXPERIMENTAL Covariates en	sums of squar tered FIRST	es			
		Sum of		Mean		Sig
Source of Variatio	n	Squares	DF	Square	F	of F
Main Effects		135.949	10	13.595		.000
SYSTEM		116.032	7	16.576		.000
FABDIR		17.729	1	17.729		.000
CUTOFF		.380	1	.380		
POLAR		1.808	1	1.808	24.954	.000
2-Way Interactions	5	52.413	24	2.184		.000
SYSTEM FABDII	R	43.585	7	6.226	85.921	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFI	£	2.866	7	.409	5.649	.000
SYSTEM POLAR		5.548	7	.793	10.936	
FABDIR CUTOFI	F	.044	1 1	.044		
FABDIR POLAR		.002	1	.002	.022	
CUTOFF POLAR		.370	1	.370	5.100	.024
3-Way Interaction:	5	4.847	22	.220	3.040	.000
SYSTEM FABDII		1.904	7	.272	3.754	
SYSTEM FABDI	r polar	.802	7	.115	1.581	.138
SYSTEM CUTOF	F POLAR	1.301	7	.229	3.156	.003
FABDIR CUTOF	E POLAR	1.32	1	.539	7.443	.007
4-Way Interaction:	5	4,305	7	.615	8.488	.000
SYSTEM FABDII POLAR		.305	7	.615	8.488	.000
Explained		197.515	63	3.135	43.263	.000
Residual		41.741	576	.072		
Total		239.256	639	.374		

640 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B8. ANOVA of Test No.3 peak potential & decay time (multilayer specimens). Cont'd...

* * * ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE * * *

DECTIME	DECAY TIME (S)
by SYSTEM	FABRIC SYSTEM
FABDIR	FABRIC DIRECTION
CUTOFF	CUT OFF LEVEL
POLAR	POLARITY OF CHARGE

.

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares Covariates entered FIRST

Source of Variation		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects		96428.306	10	9642.831	712.278	.000
SYSTEM		65099.854	7	9299.979	686.953	.000
FABDIR		1092.182	1 1	1092.182	80.675	.000
CUTOFF		29123.561	1	29123.561	2151.244	.000
POLAR		1112.709	1	1112.709	82.191	.000
2-Way Interactions		49913.182	24	2079.716	153.620	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR		2750.432	7	392.919	29.023	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFF		38895.692	7	5556.527	410.439	.000
SYSTEM POLAR		3925.449	7	560.778	41.423	.000
FABDIR CUTOFF		4326.712	7 1 1	4326.712	319.597	.000
FABDIR POLAR		.099	1	.099	.007	.932
CUTOFF POLAR		14.799	1	14.799	1.093	.296
3-Way Interactions		11311.459	22	514.157	37.979	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR	CUTOFF	8992.843	7	1284.692	94.895	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR	POLAR	578 .4 59	7	96.923	7.159	.000
SYSTEM CUTOFF	POLAR	849.035	7	121.291	8.959	.000
FABDIR CUTOFF	POLAR	791.121	1	791.121	58.437	.000
4-Way Interactions		3530.581	7	504.369	37.256	.000
SYSTEM FABDIR POLAR	CUTOFF	3530.581	7	504.369	37.256	,000
Explained		161183.528	63	2558.469	188.984	.000
Residual		7797.895	576	13.538		
Total		168981.423	639	264.447		

640 cases were processed. 0 cases (.0 pct) were missing.

Appendix B8 (continued). ANOVA of Test No.3 peak potential & decay time (multilayer specimens)

.

**** MULTIFLE REGRESSION **** Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. HBEPOT HUMAN-BODY EXPERIMENT 1 SSE1BP Block Number 1. Method: Enter Rsg F(Eqn) SigF Variable BetaIn .9394 1210.096 .000 Jn: SSE1BP .9692 Variable BetaIn MultR Step 1 .9692 Block Number 2. Method: Enter SSE2B2D SSE2B2P Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 2.. SSE2B2D sse2b2dectime (w+f) 50% cutoff 3.. SSE2B2P sse2b2pot (w+f) 50% cutoff 3.. .97936 Multiple R .95914 R Square Adjusted R Square .95753 Standard Error .67593 Dependent Variable.. HBEPOT HUMAN-BODY EXPERIMENT 1 Equation Number 1 ------ Variables in the Equation -----'T VIF SE B Beta Tolerance В Variable .815640 .093880 10.652 -.114588 .594563 1.682 .127511 .079700 12.547 .022746 10.779 .245171 SSE1BP .001554 -.114588 -3.811 SSE2B2D ~.005921 1.553 .186064 .119842 SSE2B2P .794 .171854 .136369 (Constant) ----- in ------Variable Sig T .0000 SSE1BP SSE2B2D .0003 .1247 SSE2B2P (Constant) .4299 Collinearity Diagnostics Cond Variance Proportions Index Constant SSE1BP SSE2B2D SSE2B2P Number Eigenval .00320 .01463 .00296 2.99979 1.000 .01898 1 .84416 1.885 .00596 .00332 .28419 .00700 .13988 4.631 .04039 .02851 .32573 .01045 .01617 13.619 .93467 .96496 .37545 .97955 .84416 2 3 4

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * * HUMAN-BODY EXPERIMENT 1 HBEPOT Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable ... Block Number 1. Method: Enter SSE1BP Rsq F(Eqn) SigF Variable .9394 1210.096 .000 In: SSE1BP Variable BetaIn MultR Step .9692 .9692 1 SSE3B1D Block Number 2. Method: Enter Variable(s) Entered on Step Number 2.. SSE3B1D sse3b1dectime (w+f+p+n) 10% cutoff .97491 Multiple R .95045 R Square .94916 Adjusted R Square Standard Error .73956 ------ Variables in the Equation -----т VIF Beta Tolerance SE B в Variable .014081 .806426 .293249 3.410 .008552 .193680 .293249 3.410 3.410 17.214 .242402 SSE1BP 4.134 .035356 SSE3B1D -1.178.149540 -.176137 (Constant) ----- in ------Variable Sig T .0000 SSE1BP SSE3B1D .0001 (Constant) .2425 Dependent Variable.. HBEPOT HUMAN-BODY EXPERIMENT 1 Equation Number 1 Collinearity Diagnostics Cond Variance Proportions Number Eigenval Index Constant SSE1BP SSE3B1D
 1.000
 .03569
 .01437
 .02159

 2.682
 .51802
 .00435
 .17817

 6.422
 .44629
 .98127
 .80024
 2.57883 1 .35864 2

3

.06254

Appendix B10. Multiple linear regression for Test Battery 2

APPENDIX C

FABR	FABRICSYSTEM	Small-scale	Small-scale Human-Body Energy	nergy
OUTER	INNER	Energy (uJ)	Observed (Lm)	Predicted (mJ)
Aramid/PB}	100% cotton	0.0026		0.04
Aramid/PBI	Aramid/carbon	0.0029	0.07	0.05
Arami∛carbon	Aramid/carbon	0.0060	0.12	0.10
Aramid/carbon	100% cotton	0.0094	0.24	0.16
Aramid/FR viscose	100% cotton	0.0112	0.78	0.19
Åramid/FR viscose	Aramid/carbon	0.0123	0.77	0.20
FR cotton	100% cotton	0.2093	4.19	3.47
FR cotton	FR cotton	0.2958	4.35	4.91
	ENERGY			
	Regression Output:			
	Std Err of Y Est	0.4632		
	R Squared	0.9368		
	No. of Observations	80.0000		
	Degrees of Freedom	78.0000		
	X Coefficient Std Err of Coef.	16.5984 1.2762		

Appendix C1. Regression analysis of discharge energies from the UA ESD Test System and human-body experiment























Appendix C7. Histogram of standardized residuals for Test Battery 2



