

LECTURE NOTES
ON
GENERATION, TRANSMISSION DISTRIBUTION (Part II)
BRANCH- ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
4th Semester



Department of Electrical Engineering

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CHAPTER3

OVERHEAD LINES:

Types of supports, size and spacing of conductor:

Main Components of Overhead Lines:

An overhead line may be used to transmit or distribute electric power. The successful operation of an overhead line depends to a great extent upon the mechanical design of the line. While constructing an overhead line, it should be ensured that mechanical strength of the line is such so as to provide against the most *probable* weather conditions. In general, the main components of an overhead line are:

- **Conductors** which carry electric power from the sending end station to the receiving end station.
- **Supports** which may be poles or towers and keep the conductors at a suitable level above the ground.
- **Insulators** which are attached to supports and insulate the conductors from the ground.
- **Cross arms** which provide support to theinsulators.
- **Miscellaneous items** such as phase plates, danger plates, lightning arrestors, anti-climbing wires etc.

Conductor Materials:

The conductor is one of the important items as most of the capital outlay is invested for it. Therefore, proper choice of material and size of the conductor is of considerable importance. The conductor material used for transmission and distribution of electric power should have the following properties :

- high electricalconductivity.
- high tensile strength in order to withstand mechanical stresses.
- low cost so that it can be used for longdistances.
- low specific gravity so that weight per unit volume is small.

All above requirements are not found in a single material. Therefore, while selecting a conductor material for a particular case, a compromise is made between the cost and the required electrical and mechanical properties.

Commonly used conductor materials. The most commonly used conductor materials for over-head lines are *copper*, *aluminium*, *steel-cored aluminium*, *galvanised steel* and *cadmium copper*. The choice of a particular material will depend upon the cost, the required electrical and mechanical properties and the local conditions.

1. Copper. Copper is an ideal material for overhead lines owing to its high electrical conductivity and greater tensile strength. It is always used in the hard-drawn form as stranded conductor. Copper has high current density *i.e.*, the current carrying capacity of copper per unit of X-sectional area is quite large. This leads to two advantages. Firstly, smaller X-sectional area of conductor is required and secondly, the area offered by the conductor to wind loads is reduced.

Moreover, this metal is quite homogeneous, durable and has high scrapvalue.

2. Aluminium. Aluminium is cheap and light as compared to copper but it has much smaller conductivity and tensile strength. The relative comparison of the two materials is briefed below: The conductivity of aluminium is 60% that of copper. The smaller conductivity of aluminium means that for any particular transmission efficiency, the X-sectional area of conductor must be larger in aluminium than in copper. For the same resistance, the diameter of aluminium conductor is about 1·26 times the diameter of copperconductor.

- The specific gravity of aluminium (2·71 gm/cc) is lower than that of copper (8·9 gm/cc). Therefore, an aluminium conductor has almost one-half the weight of equivalent copper conductor. For this reason, the supporting structures for aluminium need not be made so strong as that of copper conductor.
- Aluminium conductor being light, is liable to greater swings and hence larger cross-arms are required.
- Due to lower tensile strength and higher co-efficient of linear expansion of aluminium, the sag is greater in aluminiumconductors.

3. Steel cored aluminium. Due to low tensile strength, aluminium conductors produce greater sag. This prohibits their use for larger spans and makes them unsuitable for long distance transmis- sion. In order to increase the tensile strength, the aluminium conductor is reinforced with a coreofgalvanised steel wires. The compositeconductor thus obtained is known as *steel cored aluminium* and is abbreviated as A.C.S.R. (aluminium conductor steel reinforced).

Steel-cored aluminium conductor consists of central core of galvanised steel wires surrounded by a number of aluminium strands. Usually, diameter of both steel and aluminium wires is the same. The X-section of the two metals are generally in the ratio of 1 : 6 but can be modified to 1 : 4 in order to get more tensile strength for the conductor. Fig. 8.1 shows steel cored aluminium conductor having one steel wire surrounded by six wires of aluminium. The result of this composite conductor is that steel core takes greater percentage of mechanical strength while aluminium strands carry the bulk of current. The steel cored aluminium conductors have the following advantages :

- The reinforcement with steel increases the tensile strength but at the same time keeps the composite conductor light. Therefore, steel cored aluminium conductors will produce smaller sag and hence longer spans can be used.
- Due to smaller sag with steel cored aluminium conductors, towers of smaller heights can be used.

4. Galvanised steel. Steel has very high tensile strength. Therefore, galvanised steelconductors can be used for extremely long spans or for short line sections exposed to abnormally high stresses due to climatic conditions. They have been found very suitable in rural areas where cheap- ness is the main consideration. Due to poor conductivity and high resistance of steel, such conductors are not suitable for transmitting large power over a long distance. However, they can be used to advantage for transmitting a small power over a small distance where the size of the copper conductor desirable from economic considerations would be too small and thus unsuitable for use because of poor mechanical strength.

5. Cadmium copper. The conductor material now being employed in certain cases is copper alloyed with cadmium. An addition of 1% or 2% cadmium to copper increases the tensile strength by about 50% and the conductivity is only reduced by 15% below that of pure copper. Therefore, cadmium copper conductor can be useful for exceptionally long spans. However, due to high cost

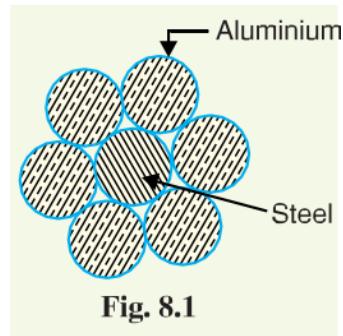


Fig. 8.1

of cadmium, such conductors will be economical only for lines of small X-section i.e., where the cost of conductor material is comparatively small compared with the cost of supports.

Line Supports:

The supporting structures for overhead line conductors are various types of poles and towers called *line supports*. In general, the line supports should have the following properties :

- High mechanical strength to withstand the weight of conductors and wind loads etc.
- Light in weight without the loss of mechanical strength.
- Cheap in cost and economical to maintain.
- Longer life.
- Easy accessibility of conductors for maintenance.

The line supports used for transmission and distribution of electric power are of various types including *wooden poles*, *steel poles*, *R.C.C. poles* and *lattice steel towers*. The choice of supporting structure for a particular case depends upon the line span, X-sectional area, line voltage, cost and local conditions.

1. Wooden poles. These are made of seasoned wood (sal or chir) and are suitable for lines of moderate X-sectional area and of relatively shorter spans, say upto 50 metres. Such supports are cheap, easily available, provide insulating properties and, therefore, are widely used for distribution purposes in rural areas as an economical proposition. The wooden poles generally tend to rot below the ground level, causing foundation failure. In order to prevent this, the portion of the pole below the ground level is impregnated with preservative compounds like *creosote oil*.

The main objections to wooden supports are : (i) tendency to rot below the ground level
(ii) comparatively smaller life (20-25 years) (iii) cannot be used for voltages higher than 20 kV
(iv) less mechanical strength and (v) require periodical inspection.

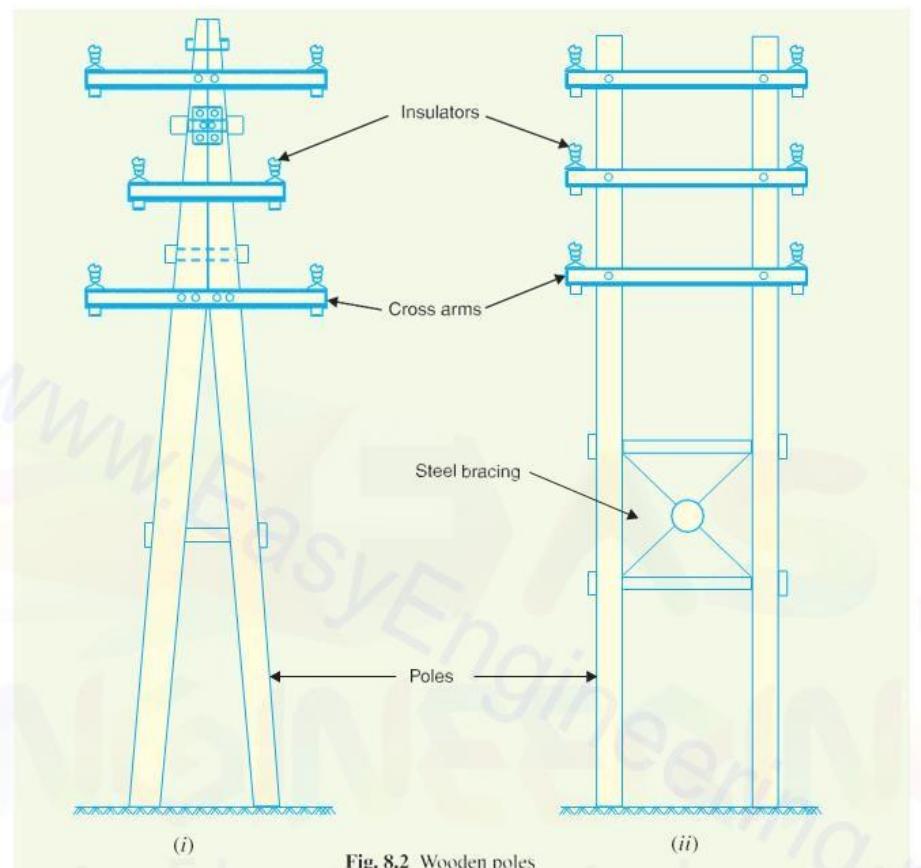


Fig. 8.2 Wooden poles

2. Steel poles. The steel poles are often used as a substitute for wooden poles. They possess greater mechanical strength, longer life and permit longer spans to be used. Such poles are generally used for distribution purposes in the cities. This type of supports need to be galvanised or painted in order to prolong its life.

3. RCC poles. The reinforced concrete poles have become very popular as line supports in recent years. They have greater mechanical strength, longer life and permit longer spans than steel poles. Moreover, they give good outlook, require little maintenance and have good insulating properties. Fig. 8.3 shows R.C.C. poles for single and double circuit. The holes in the poles facilitate the climbing of poles and at the same time reduce the weight of line supports.

The main difficulty with the use of these poles is the high cost of transport owing to their heavy weight. Therefore, such poles are often manufactured at the site in order to avoid heavy cost of transportation.

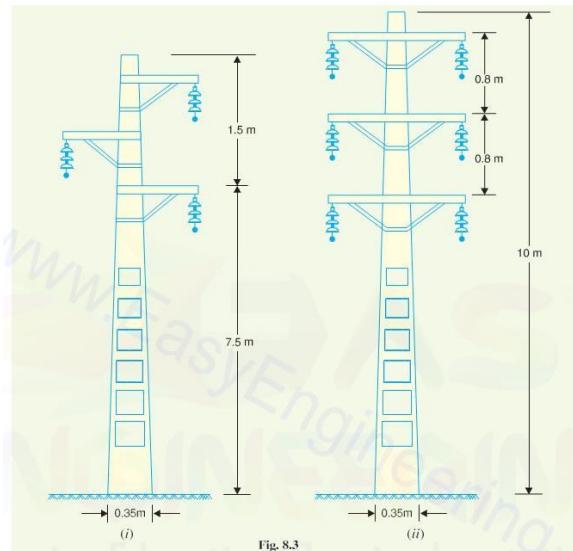
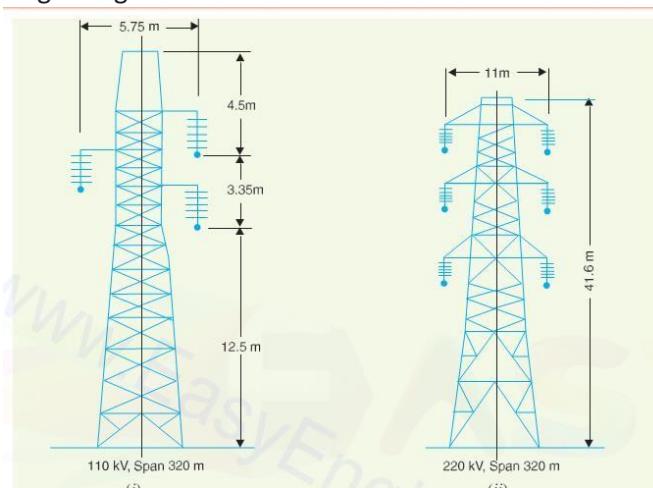


Fig. 8.3

4. Steel towers. In practice, wooden, steel and reinforced concrete poles are used for distribution purposes at low voltages, say upto 11 kV. However, for long distance transmission at higher voltage, steel towers are invariably employed. Steel towers have greater mechanical strength, longer life, can withstand most severe climatic conditions and permit the use of longer spans. The risk of interrupted service due to broken or punctured insulation is considerably reduced owing to longer spans. Tower footings are usually grounded by driving rods into the earth. This minimises the lightning troubles as each tower acts as a lightning conductor.



Insulators:

The overhead line conductors should be supported on the poles or towers in such a way that currents from conductors do not flow to earth through supports *i.e.*, line conductors must be properly insulated from supports. This is achieved by securing line conductors to supports with the help of *insulators*. The insulators provide necessary insulation between line conductors and supports and thus prevent any leakage current from conductors to earth. In general, the insulators should have the following desirable properties :

- High mechanical strength in order to withstand conductor load, wind load etc.
- High electrical resistance of insulator material in order to avoid leakage currents to earth.
- High relative permittivity of insulator material in order that dielectric strength is high.
- The insulator material should be non-porous, free from impurities and cracks otherwise the permittivity will be lowered.
- High ratio of puncture strength to flashover.

Types of Insulators:

The successful operation of an overhead line depends to a considerable extent upon the proper selection of insulators. There are several types of insulators but the most commonly used are pin type, suspension type, strain insulator and shackle insulator.

1 Pin type insulators. The part section of a pin type insulator is shown. As the name suggests, the pin type insulator is secured to the cross-arm on the pole. There is a groove on the upper end of the insulator for housing the conductor. The conductor passes through this groove and is bound by the annealed wire of the same material as the conductor.

Pin type insulators are used for transmission and distribution of electric power at voltages upto 33 kV. Beyond operating voltage of 33 kV, the pin type insulators become too bulky and hence uneconomical.

Causes of insulator failure.

Insulators are required to withstand both mechanical and electrical stresses. The latter type is primarily due to line voltage and may cause the breakdown of the insulator. The electrical breakdown of the insulator can occur either by *flash-over* or *puncture*. In flash-over, an arc occurs between the line conductor and insulator pin (*i.e.*, earth) and the discharge jumps across the *air gaps, following shortest distance. Fig. 8.6 shows the arcing distance (*i.e.* $a + b + c$) for the insulator. In case of flash-over, the insulator will continue to act in its proper capacity unless extreme heat produced by the arc destroys the insulator.

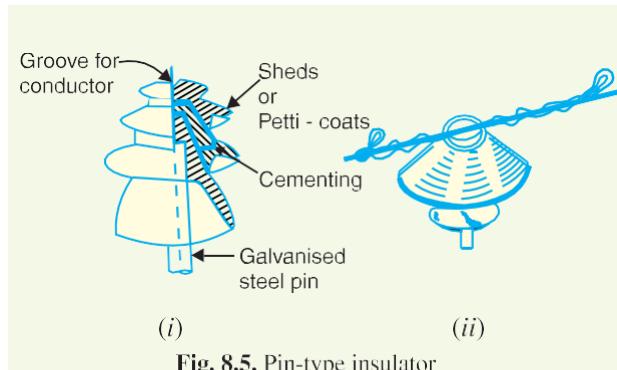


Fig. 8.5. Pin-type insulator

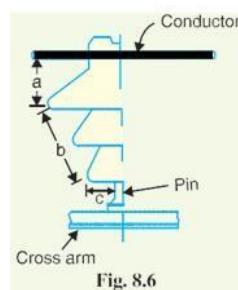


Fig. 8.6

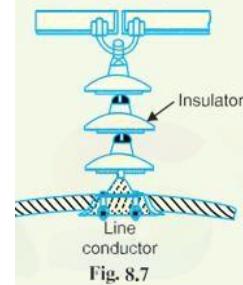


Fig. 8.7

In case of puncture, the discharge occurs from conductor to pin through the body of the insulator. When such breakdown is involved, the insulator is permanently destroyed due to excessive heat. In practice, sufficient thickness of porcelain is provided in the insulator to avoid puncture by the line voltage. The ratio of puncture strength to flash-over voltage is known as safety factor i.e.

$$\text{Safety factor of insulator} = \frac{\text{Puncture strength}}{\text{Flash - over voltage}}$$

2 Suspension type insulators. The cost of pin type insulator increases rapidly as the working voltage is increased. Therefore, this type of insulator is not economical beyond 33 kV. For high voltages (>33 kV), it is a usual practice to use suspension type insulators. It consists of a number of porcelain discs connected in series by metal links in the form of a string. The conductor is suspended at the bottom end of this string while the other end of the string is secured to the cross-arm of the tower. Each unit or disc is designed for low voltage, say 11 kV. The number of discs in series would obviously depend upon the working voltage. For instance, if the working voltage is 66 kV, then six discs in series will be provided on the string.

Advantages

- Suspension type insulators are cheaper than pin type insulators for voltages beyond 33 kV.
- Each unit or disc of suspension type insulator is designed for low voltage, usually 11 kV. Depending upon the working voltage, the desired number of discs can be connected in series.
- If anyone disc is damaged, the whole string does not become useless because the damaged disc can be replaced by the sound one.
- The suspension arrangement provides greater flexibility to the line. The connection at the cross arm is such that insulator string is free to swing in any direction and can take up the position where mechanical stresses are minimum.
- In case of increased demand on the transmission line, it is found more satisfactory to supply the greater demand by raising the line voltage than to provide another set of conductors. The additional insulation required for the raised voltage can be easily obtained in the suspension arrangement by adding the desired number of discs.
- The suspension type insulators are generally used with steel towers. As the conductors run below the earthed cross-arm of the tower, therefore, this arrangement provides partial protection from lightning.

3. Strain insulators. When there is a dead end of the line or there is corner or sharp curve, the line is subjected to greater tension. In order to relieve the line of excessive tension, strain insulators are used. For low voltage lines (< 11 kV), shackle insulators are used as strain insulators. However, for high voltage transmission lines, strain insulator consists of an assembly of suspension insulators as shown in Fig. 8.8. The discs of strain insulators are used in the vertical plane. When the tension in lines is exceedingly high, as at long river spans, two or more strings are used in parallel.

4. Shackle insulators. In early days, the shackle insulators were used as strain insulators. But now a days, they are frequently used for low voltage distribution lines. Such insulators can be used either in a horizontal position or in a vertical position. They can be directly fixed to the pole with a bolt or to the cross arm. Fig. 8.9 shows a shackle insulator fixed to the pole. The conductor in the groove is fixed with a soft bindingwire.

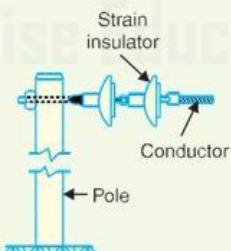


Fig. 8.8. Strain insulator.

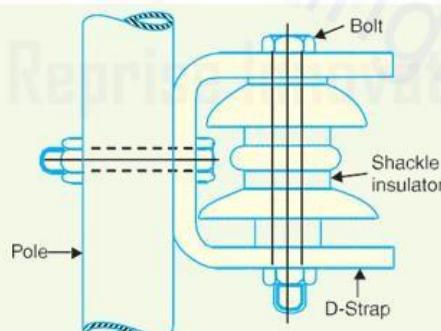


Fig. 8.9

Sag In Overhead Lines

While erecting an overhead line, it is very important that conductors are under safe tension. If the conductors are too much stretched between supports in a bid to save conductor material, the stress in the conductor may reach unsafe value and in certain cases the conductor may break due to excessive tension. In order to permit safe tension in the conductors, they are not fully stretched but are allowed to have a dip or sag.

The difference in level between points of supports and the lowest point on the conductor is called sag.

Fig. 8.23. (i) shows a conductor suspended between two equilevel supports A and B . The conductor is not fully stretched but is allowed to have a dip. The lowest point on the conductor is O and the sag is S . The following points may be noted :



Fig. 8.23

- (i) When the conductor is suspended between two supports at the same level, it takes the shape of catenary. However, if the sag is very small compared with the span, then sag-span curve is like a parabola.
- (ii) The tension at any point on the conductor acts tangentially. Thus tension T_O at the lowest point O acts horizontally as shown in Fig. 8.23. (ii).
- (iii) The horizontal component of tension is constant throughout the length of the wire.
- (iv) The tension at supports is approximately equal to the horizontal tension acting at any point on the wire. Thus if T is the tension at the support B , then $T = T_O$.

Conductor sag and tension. This is an important consideration in the mechanical design of overhead lines. The conductor sag should be kept to a minimum in order to reduce the conductor material required and to avoid extra pole height for sufficient clearance above ground level. It is also desirable that tension in the conductor should be low to avoid the mechanical failure of conductor and to permit the use of less strong supports. However, low conductor tension and minimum sag are not possible. It is because low sag means a tight wire and high tension, whereas a low tension means a loose wire and increased sag. Therefore, in actual practice, a compromise is made between the two.

Calculation of Sag

In an overhead line, the sag should be so adjusted that tension in the conductors is within safe limits. The tension is governed by conductor weight, effects of wind, ice loading and temperature variations. It is a standard practice to keep conductor tension less than 50% of its ultimate tensile strength i.e., minimum factor of safety in respect of conductor tension should be 2. We shall now calculate sag and tension of a conductor when (i) supports are at equal levels and (ii) supports are at unequal levels.

(i) When supports are at equal levels. Consider a conductor between two equilevel supports A and B with O as the lowest point as shown in Fig. 8.24. It can be proved that lowest point will be at the mid-span.

Let

I = Length of span

w = Weight per unit length of conductor

T = Tension in the conductor.

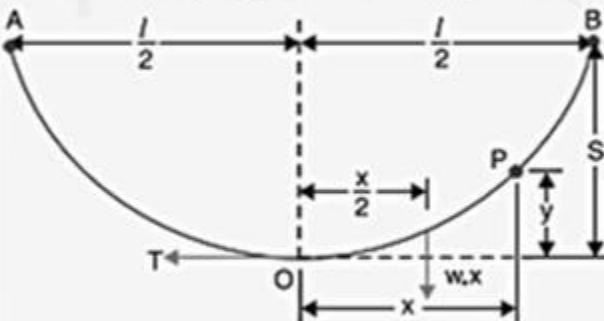


Fig. 8.24

Consider a point P on the conductor. Taking the lowest point O as the origin, let the co-ordinates of point P be x and y . Assuming that the curvature is so small that curved length is equal to its horizontal projection (i.e., $OP = x$), the two forces acting on the portion OP of the conductor are :

- The weight wx of conductor acting at a distance $x/2$ from O.
- The tension T acting at O.

Equating the moments of above two forces about point O , we get,

$$Ty = wx \times \frac{x}{2}$$

or $y = \frac{wx^2}{2T}$

The maximum dip (sag) is represented by the value of y at either of the supports A and B .

At support A , $x = l/2$ and $y = S$

$$\therefore \text{Sag, } S = \frac{w(l/2)^2}{2T} = \frac{wl^2}{8T}$$

(ii) When supports are at unequal levels. In hilly areas, we generally come across conductors suspended between supports at unequal levels. Fig. 8.25 shows a conductor suspended between two supports A and B which are at different levels. The lowest point on the conductor is O .

Let

l = Span length

h = Difference in levels between two supports

x_1 = Distance of support at lower level (i.e., A) from O

x_2 = Distance of support at higher level (i.e. B) from O

T = Tension in the conductor

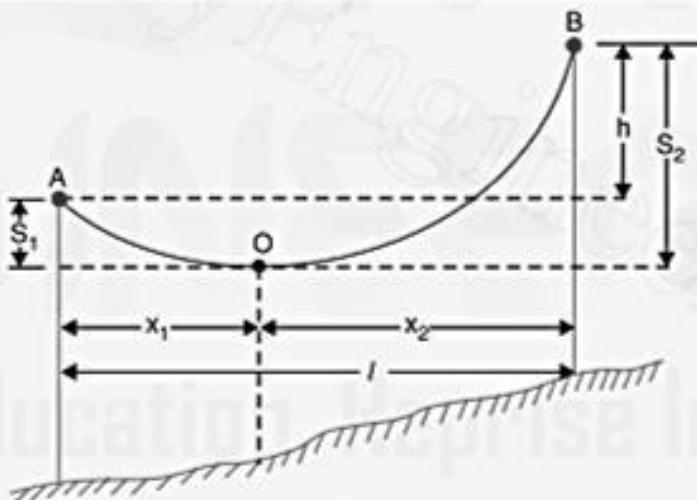


Fig. 8.25

If w is the weight per unit length of the conductor, then,

$$\text{Sag } S_1 = \frac{wx_1^2}{2T}$$

$$\text{and } \text{Sag } S_2 = \frac{wx_2^2}{2T}$$

Also $x_1 + x_2 = l$

... (i)

Now $S_2 - S_1 = \frac{w}{2T} [x_2^2 - x_1^2] = \frac{w}{2T} (x_2 + x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$

$\therefore S_2 - S_1 = \frac{wl}{2T} (x_2 - x_1) \quad [\because x_1 + x_2 = l]$

But $S_2 - S_1 = h$

$\therefore h = \frac{wl}{2T} (x_2 - x_1)$

or $x_2 - x_1 = \frac{2Th}{wl} \quad \dots(ii)$

Solving exps. (i) and (ii), we get,

$$x_1 = \frac{l}{2} - \frac{Th}{wl}$$

$$x_2 = \frac{l}{2} + \frac{Th}{wl}$$

Having found x_1 and x_2 , values of S_1 and S_2 can be easily calculated.

Effect of wind and ice loading. The above formulae for sag are true only in still air and at normal temperature when the conductor is acted by its weight only. However, in actual practice, a conductor may have ice coating and simultaneously subjected to wind pressure. The weight of ice acts vertically downwards i.e., in the same direction as the weight of conductor. The force due to the wind is assumed to act horizontally i.e., at right angle to the projected surface of the conductor. Hence, the total force on the conductor is the vector sum of horizontal and vertical forces as shown in Fig. 8.26 (iii).

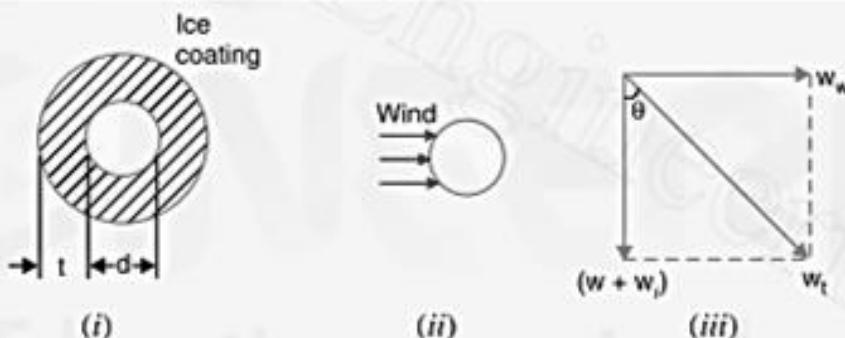


Fig. 8.26

Total weight of conductor per unit length is

$$w_t = \sqrt{(w + w_i)^2 + (w_w)^2}$$

where

w = weight of conductor per unit length

= conductor material density \times volume per unit length

w_i = weight of ice per unit length

= density of ice \times volume of ice per unit length

= density of ice $\times \frac{\pi}{4} [(d + 2t)^2 - d^2] \times 1$

= density of ice $\times \pi t (d + t)^*$

w_w = wind force per unit length

= wind pressure per unit area \times projected area per unit length

= wind pressure $\times [(d + 2t) \times 1]$

When the conductor has wind and ice loading also, the following points may be noted :

- (i) The conductor sets itself in a plane at an angle θ to the vertical where

$$\tan \theta = \frac{w_w}{w + w_i}$$

- (ii) The sag in the conductor is given by :

$$S = \frac{w_t l^2}{2T}$$

Hence S represents the slant sag in a direction making an angle θ to the vertical. If no specific mention is made in the problem, then slant sag is calculated by using the above formula.

- (iii) The vertical sag = $S \cos \theta$

Example A 132 kV transmission line has the following data :

Wt. of conductor = 680 kg/km ; Length of span = 260 m

Ultimate strength = 3100 kg ; Safety factor = 2

Calculate the height above ground at which the conductor should be supported. Ground clearance required is 10 metres.

Solution.

Wt. of conductor/metre run, $w = 680/1000 = 0.68$ kg

Working tension, $T = \frac{\text{Ultimate strength}}{\text{Safety factor}} = \frac{3100}{2} = 1550$ kg

Span length, $l = 260$ m

$$\therefore \text{Sag} = \frac{w l^2}{8T} = \frac{0.68 \times (260)^2}{8 \times 1550} = 3.7 \text{ m}$$

∴ Conductor should be supported at a height of $10 + 3.7 = 13.7$ m

Example A transmission line has a span of 150 m between level supports. The conductor has a cross-sectional area of 2 cm^2 . The tension in the conductor is 2000 kg. If the specific gravity of the conductor material is 9.9 gm/cm^3 and wind pressure is 1.5 kg/m length, calculate the sag. What is the vertical sag?

Solution.

Span length, $l = 150$ m; Working tension, $T = 2000$ kg

Wind force/m length of conductor, $w_w = 1.5$ kg

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Wt. of conductor/m length, } w &= \text{Sp. Gravity} \times \text{Volume of 1 m conductor} \\ &= 9.9 \times 2 \times 100 = 1980 \text{ gm} = 1.98 \text{ kg} \end{aligned}$$

Total weight of 1 m length of conductor is

$$w_t = \sqrt{w^2 + w_w^2} = \sqrt{(1.98)^2 + (1.5)^2} = 2.48 \text{ kg}$$

$$\therefore \text{Sag, } S = \frac{w_t l^2}{8T} = \frac{2.48 \times (150)^2}{8 \times 2000} = 3.48 \text{ m}$$

This is the value of slant sag in a direction making an angle θ with the vertical. Referring to Fig. 8.27, the value of θ is given by ;

$$\tan \theta = w_w/w = 1.5/1.98 = 0.76$$

$$\therefore \theta = \tan^{-1} 0.76 = 37.23^\circ$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Vertical sag} &= S \cos \theta \\ &= 3.48 \times \cos 37.23^\circ = 2.77 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

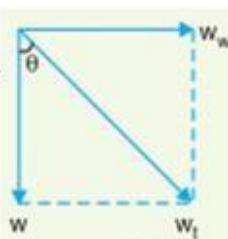


Fig. 8.27

Example A transmission line has a span of 200 metres between level supports. The conductor has a cross-sectional area of 1.29 cm^2 , weighs 1170 kg/km and has a breaking stress of 4218 kg/cm^2 . Calculate the sag for a safety factor of 5, allowing a wind pressure of $122 \text{ kg per square metre of projected area}$. What is the vertical sag?

Solution.

$$\text{Span length, } l = 200 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Wt. of conductor/m length, } w = 1170/1000 = 1.17 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Working tension, } *T = 4218 \times 1.29/5 = 1088 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Diameter of conductor, } d = \sqrt{\frac{4 \times \text{area}}{\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{4 \times 1.29}{\pi}} = 1.28 \text{ cm}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Wind force/m length, } w_w &= \text{Pressure} \times \text{projected area in m}^2 \\ &= (122) \times (1.28 \times 10^{-2} \times 1) = 1.56 \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$

Total weight of conductor per metre length is

$$w_t = \sqrt{w^2 + w_w^2} = \sqrt{(1.17)^2 + (1.56)^2} = 1.95 \text{ kg}$$

$$\therefore \text{Slant sag, } S = \frac{w_t l^2}{8T} = \frac{1.95 \times (200)^2}{8 \times 1088} = 8.96 \text{ m}$$

The slant sag makes an angle θ with the vertical where value of θ is given by :

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(w_w/w) = \tan^{-1}(1.56/1.17) = 53.13^\circ$$

$$\therefore \text{Vertical sag} = S \cos \theta = 8.96 \times \cos 53.13^\circ = 5.37 \text{ m}$$

Example A transmission line has a span of 275 m between level supports. The conductor has an effective diameter of 1.96 cm and weighs 0.865 kg/m. Its ultimate strength is 8060 kg. If the conductor has ice coating of radial thickness 1.27 cm and is subjected to a wind pressure of 3.9 gm/cm^2 of projected area, calculate sag for a safety factor of 2. Weight of 1 c.c. of ice is 0.91 gm.

Solution.

$$\text{Span length, } l = 275 \text{ m ; Wt. of conductor/m length, } w = 0.865 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Conductor diameter, } d = 1.96 \text{ cm ; Ice coating thickness, } t = 1.27 \text{ cm}$$

$$\text{Working tension, } T = 8060/2 = 4030 \text{ kg}$$

Volume of ice per metre (i.e., 100 cm) length of conductor

$$\begin{aligned}&= \pi t (d+t) \times 100 \text{ cm}^3 \\ &= \pi \times 1.27 \times (1.96 + 1.27) \times 100 = 1288 \text{ cm}^3\end{aligned}$$

Weight of ice per metre length of conductor is

$$w_i = 0.91 \times 1288 = 1172 \text{ gm} = 1.172 \text{ kg}$$

Wind force/m length of conductor is

$$\begin{aligned}w_w &= [\text{Pressure}] \times [(d+2t) \times 100] \\ &= [3.9] \times (1.96 + 2 \times 1.27) \times 100 \text{ gm} = 1755 \text{ gm} = 1.755 \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$

Total weight of conductor per metre length of conductor is

$$\begin{aligned}w_t &= \sqrt{(w + w_i)^2 + (w_w)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(0.865 + 1.172)^2 + (1.755)^2} = 2.688 \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Sag} = \frac{w_t l^2}{8T} = \frac{2.688 \times (275)^2}{8 \times 4030} = 6.3 \text{ m}$$

Example A transmission line has a span of 214 metres between level supports. The conductors have a cross-sectional area of 3.225 cm^2 . Calculate the factor of safety under the following conditions :

Vertical sag = 2.35 m ;

Wind pressure = 1.5 kg/m run

Breaking stress = 2540 kg/cm^2 ;

Wt. of conductor = 1.125 kg/m run

Solution.

Here, $l = 214 \text{ m}$; $w = 1.125 \text{ kg}$; $w_w = 1.5 \text{ kg}$

Total weight of one metre length of conductor is

$$w_t = \sqrt{w^2 + w_w^2} = \sqrt{(1.125)^2 + (1.5)^2} = 1.875 \text{ kg}$$

If f is the factor of safety, then,

$$\text{Working tension, } T = \frac{\text{Breaking stress} \times \text{conductor area}}{\text{safety factor}} = 2540 \times 3.225/f = 8191/f \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Slant Sag, } S = \frac{\text{Vertical sag}}{* \cos \theta} = \frac{2.35 \times 1.875}{1.125} = 3.92 \text{ m}$$

Now

$$S = \frac{w_t l^2}{8T}$$

or

$$T = \frac{w_t l^2}{8S}$$

$$\therefore \frac{8191}{f} = \frac{1.875 \times (214)^2}{8 \times 3.92}$$

$$\text{or Safety factor, } f = \frac{8191 \times 8 \times 3.92}{1.875 \times (214)^2} = 3$$

Example An overhead line has a span of 150 m between level supports. The conductor has a cross-sectional area of 2 cm^2 . The ultimate strength is 5000 kg/cm^2 and safety factor is 5. The specific gravity of the material is 8.9 gm/cc . The wind pressure is 1.5 kg/m . Calculate the height of the conductor above the ground level at which it should be supported if a minimum clearance of 7 m is to be left between the ground and the conductor.

Solution.

Span length, $l = 150 \text{ m}$; Wind force/m run, $w_w = 1.5 \text{ kg}$

Wt. of conductor/m run, $w = \text{conductor area} \times 100 \text{ cm} \times \text{sp. gravity}$
 $= 2 \times 100 \times 8.9 = 1780 \text{ gm} = 1.78 \text{ kg}$

Working tension, $T = 5000 \times 2/5 = 2000 \text{ kg}$

Total weight of one metre length of conductor is

$$w_t = \sqrt{w^2 + w_w^2} = \sqrt{(1.78)^2 + (1.5)^2} = 2.33 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Slant sag, } S = \frac{w_t l^2}{8T} = \frac{2.33 \times (150)^2}{8 \times 2000} = 3.28 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Vertical sag} = S \cos \theta = 3.28 \times w/w_t = 3.28 \times 1.78/2.33 = 2.5 \text{ m}$$

Conductor should be supported at a height of $7 + 2.5 = 9.5 \text{ m}$

Example The towers of height 30 m and 90 m respectively support a transmission line conductor at water crossing. The horizontal distance between the towers is 500 m. If the tension in the conductor is 1600 kg, find the minimum clearance of the conductor and water and clearance mid-way between the supports. Weight of conductor is 1.5 kg/m. Bases of the towers can be considered to be at water level.

Solution. Fig. 8.28 shows the conductor suspended between two supports *A* and *B* at different levels with *O* as the lowest point on the conductor.

Here, $l = 500 \text{ m}$; $w = 1.5 \text{ kg/m}$; $T = 1600 \text{ kg}$.

Difference in levels between supports, $h = 90 - 30 = 60 \text{ m}$. Let the lowest point *O* of the conductor be at a distance x_1 from the support at lower level (*i.e.*, support *A*) and at a distance x_2 from the support at higher level (*i.e.*, support *B*).

$$\text{Obviously, } x_1 + x_2 = 500 \text{ m} \quad \dots(i)$$

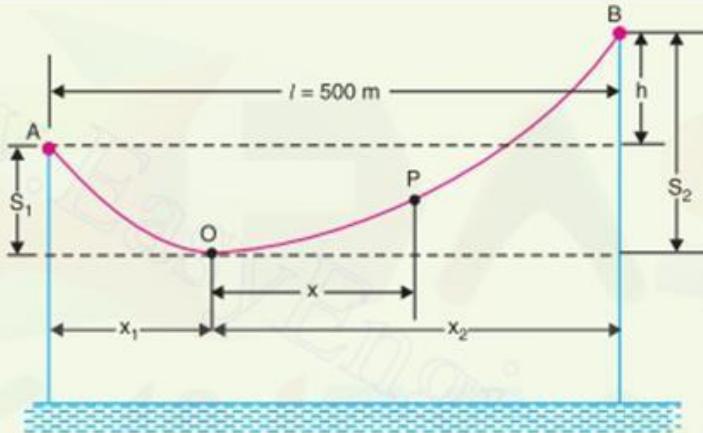


Fig. 8.28

$$\text{Now Sag } S_1 = \frac{w x_1^2}{2T} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Sag } S_2 = \frac{w x_2^2}{2T}$$

$$\therefore h = S_2 - S_1 = \frac{w x_2^2}{2T} - \frac{w x_1^2}{2T}$$

$$\text{or} \quad 60 = \frac{w}{2T} (x_2 + x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\therefore x_2 - x_1 = \frac{60 \times 2 \times 1600}{1.5 \times 500} = 256 \text{ m} \quad \dots(ii)$$

Solving exps. (i) and (ii), we get, $x_1 = 122 \text{ m}$; $x_2 = 378 \text{ m}$

$$\text{Now, } S_1 = \frac{w x_1^2}{2T} = \frac{1.5 \times (122)^2}{2 \times 1600} = 7 \text{ m}$$

Clearance of the lowest point *O* from water level

$$= 30 - 7 = 23 \text{ m}$$

Let the mid-point *P* be at a distance *x* from the lowest point *O*.

$$\text{Clearly, } x = 250 - x_1 = 250 - 122 = 128 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Sag at mid-point } P, \quad S_{mid} = \frac{w x^2}{2T} = \frac{1.5 \times (128)^2}{2 \times 1600} = 7.68 \text{ m}$$

Clearance of mid-point P from water level

$$= 23 + 7.68 = 30.68 \text{ m}$$

Example An overhead transmission line conductor having a parabolic configuration weighs $1.925 \text{ kg per metre of length}$. The area of X-section of the conductor is 2.2 cm^2 and the ultimate strength is 8000 kg/cm^2 . The supports are 600 m apart having 15 m difference of levels. Calculate the sag from the taller of the two supports which must be allowed so that the factor of safety shall be 5. Assume that ice load is $1 \text{ kg per metre run}$ and there is no wind pressure.

Solution. Fig. 8.29, shows the conductor suspended between two supports at A and B at different levels with O as the lowest point on the conductor.

Here,

$$l = 600 \text{ m}; w_i = 1 \text{ kg}; h = 15 \text{ m}$$

$$w = 1.925 \text{ kg}; T = 8000 \times 2.2/5 = 3520 \text{ kg}$$

Total weight of 1 m length of conductor is

$$w_t = w + w_i = 1.925 + 1 = 2.925 \text{ kg}$$

Let the lowest point O of the conductor be at a distance x_1 from the support at lower level (i.e., A) and at a distance x_2 from the support at higher level (i.e., B).

Clearly,

$$x_1 + x_2 = 600 \text{ m} \quad \dots(i)$$

Now,

$$h = S_2 - S_1 = \frac{w_t x_2^2}{2T} - \frac{w_t x_1^2}{2T}$$

or

$$15 = \frac{w_t}{2T} (x_2 + x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$$

∴

$$x_2 - x_1 = \frac{2 \times 15 \times 3520}{2.925 \times 600} = 60 \text{ m} \quad \dots(ii)$$

Solving exps. (i) and (ii), we have, $x_1 = 270 \text{ m}$ and $x_2 = 330 \text{ m}$

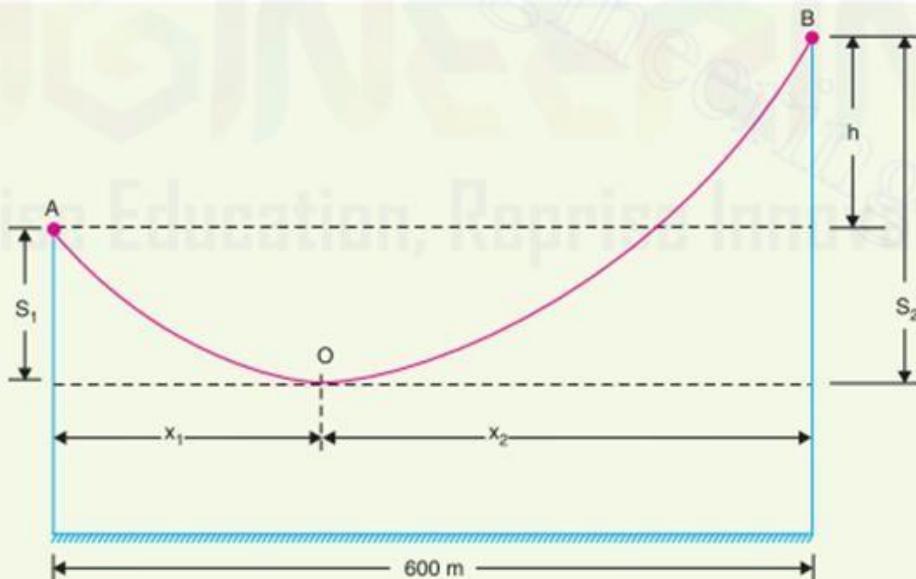


Fig. 8.29

Sag from the taller of the two towers is

$$S_2 = \frac{w_t x_2^2}{2T} = \frac{2.925 \times (330)^2}{2 \times 3520} = 45.24 \text{ m}$$

Example An overhead transmission line at a river crossing is supported from two towers at heights of 40 m and 90 m above water level, the horizontal distance between the towers being 400 m. If the maximum allowable tension is 2000 kg, find the clearance between the conductor and water at a point mid-way between the towers. Weight of conductor is 1 kg/m.

Solution. Fig. 8.30 shows the whole arrangement.

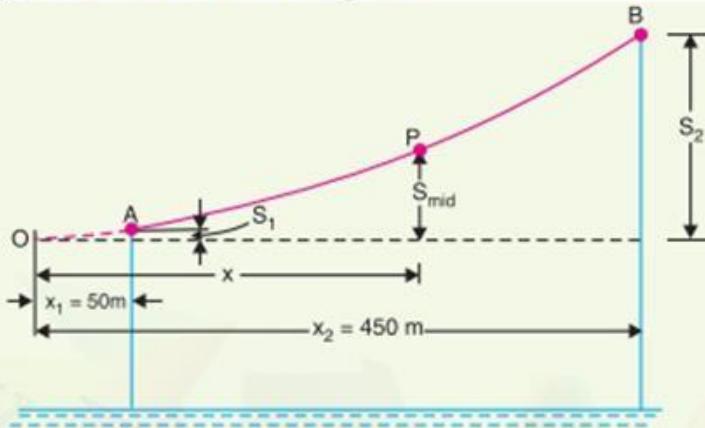


Fig. 8.30

Here,

$$h = 90 - 40 = 50 \text{ m}; \quad l = 400 \text{ m}$$

$$T = 2000 \text{ kg}; \quad w = 1 \text{ kg/m}$$

Obviously,

$$x_1 + x_2 = 400 \text{ m} \quad \dots(i)$$

Now

$$h = S_2 - S_1 = \frac{wx_2^2}{2T} - \frac{wx_1^2}{2T}$$

or

$$50 = \frac{w}{2T} (x_2 + x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$$

∴

$$x_2 - x_1 = \frac{50 \times 2 \times 2000}{400} = 500 \text{ m} \quad \dots(ii)$$

Solving exps. (i) and (ii), we get, $x_2 = 450 \text{ m}$ and $x_1 = -50 \text{ m}$

Now x_2 is the distance of higher support B from the lowest point O on the conductor, whereas x_1 is that of lower support A. As the span is 400 m, therefore, point A lies on the same side of O as B (see Fig. 8.30).

Horizontal distance of mid-point P from lowest point O is

$$x = \text{Distance of } A \text{ from } O + 400/2 = 50 + 200 = 250 \text{ m}$$

$$\therefore \text{Sag at point } P, \quad S_{\text{mid}} = \frac{wx^2}{2T} = \frac{1 \times (250)^2}{2 \times 2000} = 15.6 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Now} \quad \text{Sag } S_2 = \frac{wx_2^2}{2T} = \frac{1 \times (450)^2}{2 \times 2000} = 50.6 \text{ m}$$

Height of point B above mid-point P

$$= S_2 - S_{\text{mid}} = 50.6 - 15.6 = 35 \text{ m}$$

∴ Clearance of mid-point P above water level

$$= 90 - 35 = 55 \text{ m}$$