

**NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY**



**Faculty of Engineering**

**Department of Electrical and Electronic  
Engineering**

**ILLUMINATION PROJECT**

**Graduation Project**

**EE 400**

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## ABSTRACT

As whole world is trying to save energy for future or for coming rainy days, so world is going toward finding out the to protect the electrical installation we have and use alternative resources the practical part about layout the faculty of engineering, hold three floors each of them has three distribution boxes except the ground floor has four of distributions. There are many different technologies used in circuit breakers and they do not always fall into distinct categories. The following types are common used in our plan domestic, commercial and light industrial applications for low voltage (less than 1000V) use. MCB - Miniature Circuit Breaker - rated current not more than 100A. Trip characteristics normally not adjustable. Thermal or thermal-magnetic operation.

Breakers illustrated above are in this category. MCCB - Moulded Case Circuit Breaker - rated current up to 1000A. Thermal or thermal-magnetic operation. Trip current may be adjustable. When choosing a cable one of the most important factors is the temperature attained by its insulation; if the temperature is allowed to exceed the upper design value, premature failure is likely. In addition, corrosion of the sheaths or enclosures may result. For example, P.V.C. becomes hard and brittle at low temperatures, and if a cable insulated with it is installed at temperatures below 5°C it may well become damaged. The earthing conductor is commonly called the earthing lead. It joins the installation earthing terminal to the earth electrode or to the earth terminal provided by the Electricity Supply Company, but great care must be taken when doing so to ensure that there will be no problems with corrosion or with electrolytic action where they come into contact with other metals. Later on advantages and disadvantages are discussed briefly in this project.

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## INTRODUCTION

These regulations (commonly called the I.E.E. Regulations) have been devised by the wiring committee of the Institution of Electrical Engineers to "ensure safety in the utilization of electricity in and about buildings". The I.E.E. Regulations are of considerable assistance to electricians as they largely cover the requirements of the Electricity Supply Regulations. The I.E.E. Regulations consist of two parts: part 1 contains "requirements for safety" and part 2 contains "means of securing compliance with part 1".

It should be noted that the I.E.E. Regulations are not legally binding but are generally accepted as an efficient standard by Electrical Boards, contractors and industrial and domestic consumers. However, Electrical Boards may have their own particular rules which must be obeyed particular industries have their own regulations for example, coal mines and cinemas these special regulations have the force of law.

Generally, if an installation complies with the I.E.E. Regulations it complies both with the Factory Acts and with the Electricity Supply Regulations since the I.E.E. Regulations are based on the requirements of these statutory regulations.

My project contains two parts, the First part is the practical part about layout the faculty of engineering and the second part is the theoretical part which contains four chapters and the main idea of each chapter are as follows:

The first chapter about cables, conduit and trunking - A cable type is determined by the specifications of the system installed, basic electronic principles, and environment and regulatory agencies. These various criteria dictate the type of conductor(s), gauge of wire, type of insulation, twisted or cabled construction, type of jacket and if any shielding is required. A basic understanding of cable construction should be helpful in selecting and installing the proper cable for a particular system.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

# **ELECTRICAL INSTALLATION SPECIFICATIONS**

### **1.1 Over View**

The General Technical Specifications for Buildings published by the European and American standards with the latest editions shall govern this Contract together with the modifications and amendments as specified in this Document.

### **1.2 General Specifications**

All works, Materials Manufacturing, fabricating, testing and commissioning shall be governed by latest conditions of the following standards:

- 1- The general technical specification
- 2- National Codes
- 3- 16th Edition of IEE
- 4- British Standard
- 5- IEC Recommendation

In case of any conflicts arising between this Specification and Standard/Codes, the Contractor shall refer the matter to the Engineer and for Clarifications.

The Contractor shall submit a complete set of Shop Drawings for Engineer's approval prior one month to commencing the work at least. The Contractor shall submit a logical schedule of work for the project activities to the Engineer for approval, beside, the Contractor shall submit weekly, monthly, progress report.

The Contractor shall obtain the Engineer's written approval for all materials, equipment, accessories ...etc., prior to the procurement of any material, submittals shall be early stages, supplying of materials to the site shall be coordinated with the engineer and to his approval.

The Contractor shall submit for approval all drawings, diagrams, catalogues, dimensions, samples and any other information that may be required by the Engineer. Location of some electrical fixtures may be modified to suit the site conditions and/or to comply with safety measures. No claims will be accepted in such cases.

Testing and commissioning is an essential part of this Contract. The Contractor shall provide the testing instruments required. All tests shall be conducted and witnessed by the Engineer and the results shall be certified and signed by the Contractor and the Engineer. Original copies of testing certificates shall be kept with the Engineer.

The Contractor shall submit one complete set of transparent as-built drawings, CD disc and three blue print sets to the Engineer along with all manuals, wiring diagrams, operating instructions, maintenance instructions, list of recommended spare parts for two years and vendors names and addresses. All documents of this contract are complementary to each other and should be read as whole.

### **1.3 Materials and Testing**

The whole of the Works shall be executed with the materials indicated in the subsequent clauses of this Specifications. Where the names of manufacturers are stated, together with a detailed specification of their products.

Where such exists, the equipment shall comply with the requirements of the appropriate current standards as mentioned in item 1-2 and shall be of the best of their respective kinds, free from all flaws and defects.

### **1.4 Labour Restrictions**

The Contractor shall employ none but workmen skilled in their respective trades and must not employ unskilled laborers in lieu of skilled workmen

### **1.5 Conduits**

Only the following types of conduits and related fittings and accessories shall be used for the installation covered by this specification.

### **1.5.1 Rigid Non-Metallic Conduits (U/PVC)**

Rigid non-metallic conduits including sleeves and elbows shall comply with BS6099, PART 2, SECT.2.21, 1982.

### **1.5.2 Rigid Metallic Conduit**

Rigid metal conduit including sleeves and elbows shall comply with BS4568.

### **1.5.3 Flexible Non-Metallic Conduit**

Flexible non-metallic conduit shall be suitable for installation in conjunction with rigid non-metallic conduits by the use of the same fittings and connectors .

### **1.5.4 Flexible Metal Conduit**

Flexible metal conduit shall comply with NEC-Article 350. Conduit shall be suitable for installation in conjunction with rigid metal conduit, by the use of the same fittings and connectors. A separate conduit and wiring system is to be provided for each installation, i.e. lighting, general purpose sockets, power, telephone, etc.

Draw wires shall be left in all conduit runs for other services .Conduits shall not be run than 0.15m to any steam or hot water pipes and shall be run underneath such pipes rather than over them. The conduits shall not be run closer than 0.05m to any telephone, bell or other signaling .All joints in PVC conduits, shall be cemented with a waterproof adhesive.

Where conduits cross a building expansion joint due allowance shall be made in the design or the run with an approved expansion joint .All circular PVC boxes shall be provided with steel insert clips to provide additional support for lighting fittings .

Flexible metal conduits, watertight where required, shall be provided between the conduit system and electrical motors or other apparatus subject to vibration. They shall be

complete with brass double female adaptors and shall be soldered to either end of all flexible conduits and connected to solid conduit entries using smooth bore male brass bushes.

Earth continuity through flexible conduits shall be provided by a separate earth continuity conductor .Minimum size of conduits shall be 20 mm. diameter, unless otherwise indicated or approved.

Conduits shall not cross pipe shafts, or vent duct openings. Riser conduits shall be supported at each floor level by approved clamp hangers.

All conduit and accessories shall be produced of the same manufacturer. Conduits and accessories installed (concealed) shall be of heavy gauge U-PVC conduits and shall comply with BS 4607; Class A.

Conduits shall have capacities as listed in the following table 1.1, unless stated other wise. In any case the space factor shall never exceed 40%. Pull boxes shall be located at convenient intervals at accessible positions.

Table 1.1: Conductor Conduit Size.

| <u>Size mm<sup>2</sup></u> | <u>20</u> | <u>25</u> | <u>32</u> | <u>38</u> | <u>50</u> |
|----------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1.5                        | 7         | 12        | 20        | --        | --        |
| 2.5                        | 4         | 8         | 12        | --        | --        |
| 4.0                        | 3         | 6         | 10        | --        | --        |
| 6.0                        | 3         | 5         | 8         | --        | --        |
| 10.0                       | --        | 3         | 6         | 8         | --        |
| 16.0                       | --        | --        | 3         | 4         | 5         |
| 25.0                       | --        | --        | --        | 4         | 6         |
| 35.0                       | --        | --        | --        | 4         | 6         |
| 50.0                       | --        | --        | --        | --        | 4         |

## **1.6 Pull and Junction Boxes**

Pull and junction boxes shall be suitable for use in conjunction with the selected raceway systems.

### **1.6.1 Outlet Boxes**

For concealed installation, outlet boxes shall be plastic, fastened with amply sized screws. For exposed installation, outlet boxes shall be either sheet metal or heavy-duty plastic, mounted exposed and rigidly connected to the conduit system by suitable bushings. Comply with BS 5733.

### **1.6.2 Terminations**

Terminations in junction boxes, floor boxes, distribution boxes and outlet boxes shall be of the screwed type.

## **1.7 Wires and Cables**

Wires and cables shall be fabricated of stranded copper conductors in accordance with BS6004, 1984. The insulation of all wires and cables shall be rated for at least 70 deg. C for polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and 90 deg. D for thermoplastic (PE) cables. The identification by color for conductors in multicore wires and cables shall comply with IEC 446. XLPE cables shall comply with IEC 502 as shown on Drawings or schedules. Fire resistance insulation complying with UL1424-105 °C; especially for fire alarm systems.

### **1.7.1 Wires for Power, Lighting and Controls.**

Wires are single-core insulated or multicore insulated and sheathed conductors which are used only for light-duty indoor applications. The conductor insulation and the sheath shall be polyvinyl chloride. All cables buried in the ground shall incorporate armor.

The cables installed in positions which may be exposed to direct sunlight shall be of a type resistant to damage by ultra-violet light or shall be suitably covered to protect from ultra-violet light. All cable conductor shall be fitted with a correctly sized cable socket or thimble and a means of identification. The cable sockets may be of the sweated or crimped

compression types. The cables connected in parallel shall be of the same type, cross sectional area, length and disposition and be arranged so as to carry substantially equal load currents .

### **1.7.2 L.V. Main Cables**

L.V. Main Cables shall be 4 core; 600/1000 volts grade PVC insulation, single steel wire armoured. The conductors shall be circular standard copper. The armouring of L.V. main cables shall not be used as the sole circuit protective conductor (CPC). The sizes of protective conductor shall be calculated in accordance with Tables 54E and F of IEE Regulations or equal. L.V. cables if to be buried direct in the ground. They shall be buried to a depth of 70 cm. in trenches which have been cleared of all rocks and rubble and into which a 5 cm. sand layer shall be placed across the full width and along the entire length of the trench. The cables shall be laid on this sand bed and covered with a further 10 cm. layer of sand before the trench is backfilled and compacted. Concrete tiles shall be placed on the top of the second layer of sand as shown on the Drawing with suitable material.

Where L.V. cables cross sidewalks or road, they shall be drawn into heavy gauge PVC conduit of 15cm.  $\phi$ . Concrete layer of thickness 10 cm. shall cover this UPVC conduit. In addition a warning PVC tape shall be laid in the cable trench during the backfilling process so that the cable marker strip is 15 cm., beneath the finished compacted surface of the trench. Where L.V. cables are installed in a concrete trench, these cables shall be fixed to the base and sides of the trench by means of using cable cleats at intervals not exceeding 900 mm, between centers of adjacent fixings. The cable separation between adjacent cables shall not be less than double the diameter of the cable.

#### **1.7.2.1 Wires for Communication**

Wires for communication are single-core or multicore insulated and sheathed conductors which are used only for light-duty indoor applications .

#### **1.7.2.2 Communication Cables**

Communication cables are multicore insulated, shielded and sheathed tinned copper conductor cables for indoor and outdoor installation in conduits, ducts or for direct burial .



## **1.8 Switches**

Switches shall be mounted with the operating handle in upward position when in the "ON" position. Switches used on lighting branch circuits shall be quick make, quick break, with silver alloy contacts, rocker, operated with quick operating mechanism rated at 10 amperes 250 volts AC or higher capacity as required by the circuit controlled in accordance with the Specifications. Switches shall be single, three or four way flush mounted type and shall be waterproofed where required. Switches shall be to BS 3676 : 1989. Type MK or approved equal

## **1.9 stair switches**

For stairs I used sensor switches, there is many types of sensor switches like TSM 1S, TSM1E and TSEN1. In this project I used the last one TSEN1 because not so much

## **1.10 Power Outlets**

The switch socket outlets shall be as indicated on the drawings, all in accordance with BS1363 and BS546 as appropriate. These outlets shall be of the same manufacturer throughout the installation. To different between the normal power supply receptacles from the essential & or the computer receptacles. Each system receptacles shall be distinctively colored or marked for identification.

## **1.11 Socket Outlets**

Socket outlets shall be of the standard, 3-pin, single phase, with or without switch, flush mounted type of moulded plastic designed to fit with the appropriate plates as specified.

- Waterproof socket outlet without switch shall be used in washing room and kitchens.
- Single phase socket outlets shall be 13A, 230 volts, earthed, shuttered type.

Switches for electric water heater shall be flush 20 amp. DP switches with pilot lamp and marked (Water Heater).

### **1.12 Water Proof Receptacles**

It shall be seal splash proof, switched and with pilot light. The dust and waterproofing shall be IP54 when plug is inserted in receptacle. Receptacle shall be semi-flush with wall.

### **1.13 Industrial Places**

These receptacles shall be industrial type as shown on the Drawings, and shall be designed for AC230V to 660V. Receptacles shall be three, four or five-pole. The enclosure shall be plastic, splash proof or made watertight.

### **1.14 Telephone System**

Telephone cabinet (TC) shall be provided as shown on the Drawings for adequate number of extensions, for the distribution of wires or cables between the main distribution frame and the extension outlets.

Telephone outlets shall be flush mounting type. These shall be of the same make and plate finish of the adjacent socket outlets.

### **1.15 Main and Sub main Distribution Boards**

The (MDB) shall be fabricated, tested and commissioned in compliance with Electrical power Authority requirements and Engineer's approval. Free standing cubicle panel board consisting of 2mm thick steel sheet hammer painted, gray color with lockable hinged doors, locks and switches, rubber gaskets, dust proof to IP54. Sufficient holes for glands in removable rigid steel sheet gland plate to be provided.

The structure of the main sub main electrical panel boards shall be form two. All panel boards must include proper floor attachment facilities, and terminal panels in the top section and bottom section, in accordance with the location of the cable output.

The internal wiring shall be laid in proper PVC trunking, identified at both ends by PVC numbers. If flexible cables used inside the panel, then the cables of be soldered prior to

being compressed into lugs. The lugs to be of tinned copper compression type. Bolted lugs are NOT allowed.

All bus bars and live terminals inside any electrical panel shall be isolated and not accessible by any means to ensure safe and normal cooperation of the panel. Bus bars ratings shall exceed 1.5 times the main circuit breaker rating of the panel.

### **1.16 Bus-Bars**

The panel boards will contain bus-bars for phases R,S,T neutral and ground, without paint. These bus-bars shall be made of copper, with lead coated and their cross-section must be compatible, thermally and mechanically, with the short-circuit currents specified in the plans, and in any case not less than 60KA on 415v. For 1 section. All panels shall have sufficient space for ventilation and maintenance purposes plus extra room to allow for the possibility of adding 25% of the installed circuit breakers. A separate cubicle shall be incorporated in the switchboard for accommodation of the Supply Authority's Metering Equipment. It shall meet the Supply Authority requirement and approval. In the main Switchboard the following facilities to BS89, shall be included : three Ammeters, one Voltmeter with Voltmeter selector switch, one Power factor meter, three Color coded pilot lamps, & M.R.C. fuses for voltage circuit protection. The MDB, for each building shall be provided with protection moulded case circuit breakers. Full schematic and control drawings shall be kept in a pocket at the inner side of the front door for maintenance. Engraved metal or PVC labels to be fixed at the mimic diagram to identify the components of the panel. Fixing Devices for free standing, supports, earthing... etc. shall be installed.

All cables and conduits connections to panels shall be firmly and securely connected mechanically and electrically by using proper glands, male pushes, femals pushes, locknut, by soldering or compression type lugs, clamps, supports ... etc., bolted lugs and NOT allowed . Contactors, when used, shall be protected by circuit breakers. Contactor rating shall be not less than 125% of its relative circuit breaker rating unless otherwise specified.

## **1.17 Distribution Boards**

Distribution Panel Boards feeding lights, socket outlets and other appliances shall be totally enclosed, dust protected and vermin proofed. The enclosure of these Panel Boards shall be of robust sheet steel construction cabinet, fully rust proofed and stove enameled. The Panel Board shall be robust sheet steel construction cabinet, fully rust proofed and stove enameled. The Panel Board shall contain an on load isolator and miniature circuit breakers or the size and number specified in Drawings and a neutral connector block of ample size to ensure that a separate way is available on the connector block for the neutral conductor of each circuit. The construction of the enclosure of those distribution boards shall be executed in a way such that to operate the miniature circuit breakers, it is necessary to open the hinged door and to ensure access to the interior components and to the internal wiring, it is necessary to dismantle and remove a separate barrier within the enclosure. Miniature circuit breakers shall have a breaking capacity of 6000 amps. All miniature circuit breakers shall be equipped with thermal overload trips to operate at 125% rated current and instantaneous magnetic trips.

### **1.17.1 Circuit Breakers**

Protective devices as shown shall be of the moulded case type up to an capacity of 630A. Trip-free circuit breakers shall be used with thermal and magnetic over current tripping devices for each line. Adjustable thermal tripping devices shall be adjustable from approx. 70% to full load rating . The magnetic tripping devices to be of the adjustable type .Circuit breakers with an capacity of 1000A and above shall be equipped with a motor-operated closing mechanism. All circuit breakers shall indicate clearly whether they are open or closed and shall have an interrupting rating not less than the maximum available short-circuit current at the supply terminals. The moulded case circuit breakers providing complete circuit over current protection by having inverse time and instantaneous tripping characteristics and where applicable, be current limiting. Circuit breakers shall be operated by a toggle type handle and shall have a quick made over current switching mechanism that is mechanically trip free. Circuit breakers 150 ampere and below shall be thermal magnetic trip with inverse time current characteristics.

### **1.17.2 Miniature Circuit Breakers**

Miniature circuit breakers shall be of the narrow type and shall be for manual operation with trip-free release. Miniature circuit breakers shall be equipped with the thermal over current and a magnetic short-circuit tripping element .

The interrupting capacity of miniature circuit breakers shall not be less than 6AK off (230 V AC). Miniature circuit breakers shall have tripping characteristics in accordance with IEC 898 and IEC 947-2. Residual current circuit breakers shall comply with BS4293 .

### **1.17.3 Air Circuit Breaker (ACB)**

The incoming supply shall terminate at the main air break circuit breakers on the switchboard. The air break circuit breaker shall comply with BS4752 VED0660 for use on a 380 volts 3 phase 50 Hz wire system .The bus bar sectionalizer shall be the same type (ACB) .The circuit breaker shall be horizontally isolated, horizontal draw-out pattern, air break type. The circuit breaker closing mechanism shall be motorized. The operating mechanism shall have a mechanical ON/OFF indicator and a manual trip device fitted with means for locking, test terminal blocks, healthy trip lamp (coloured white) as associated pushbuttons, set of auxiliary switches, supply available lamp, cable boxes complete with glands of suitable size fore the accommodation of the incoming and out going cables entering from below. Auxiliary contacts for the indication of breaker state. Slow closing of the circuit breaker to facilitate maintenance and contact adjustment shall be provided .The incoming ACB's sectionalizer ACB shall be interlocked so as the sectionalize can only be made on when one of the incomers is off .

The air circuit breaker shall include sufficient auxiliary contacts and mechanical interlocking mechanisms to facilitate the possible future addition of a second supply feed so that full electrical and mechanical safety interlocking of all feed circuits can conveniently be arranged. A relay shall be incorporated for over current and earth fault protection at the incoming air circuit breaker.

### **1.18 Power Factor Correction**

Supply, install, test and commission power factor correction equipment automatically controlled multi-stage static bank type 200 / 400 V. Capable of correcting the power factor to 0.9 lagging all loads conditions.

The equipment's shall comply with BS 1650 suitable for operation on 440 volt 3 phase 4 wire connection 50 HZ. Supply shall be Generally As Follows:

- Enclosure
- Steel cubicle type extendable modular form of construction to IP 44.

Multiple units of static capacitors manufactured from impregnated metalized paper and plastic film, having self healing capacity, each unit shall be fitted with:

- Over pressure device
- Thermal protection device
- Discharge resistor

On load pattern for closing and breaking the supply, the operating handle shall be interlocked with cubicle door to prevent access while the isolator closed.

Multistage automatic type with two spare stages for the addition of future banks. Digital reading type, display of power factor.

- Cos  $\phi$
- Voltage
- Current
- Temperature control

With harmonic overload protection. Resonance control(Protection from resonance) and automatic C/K controller.

Supply install test and commission power factor correction equipment automatic controlled multi-stage static bank type capable of correction the power factor to a minimum of 0.9 under all load conditions suitable to operate on 440 V 3PHASE 50HZ . Capacitor shall be multiple units of static type.

## **1.19 Earthing System**

For AC protective earthing, the TN-S system in accordance with IEC 364-3 shall be used for all electrical installations within the scope of these specifications.

### **1.20.1 TN-S SYSTEM:**

The TN-S system has only one point which is directly connected to earth. This point shall be at the service entrance which is the main distribution board. From that point, the neutral and the protective earth conductors must be separated and not be mixed together at any point of the secondary distribution system.

### **1.20.2 Earthing Rods**

Earthing rods shall be made of copper welded steel rods approx. 18mm diameter. Rods shall be equipped with a connection flange for the connection. Conductors of copper conductor up to 70mm<sup>2</sup>. Minimum length of rods shall be 105. If more than one rod is provided for one earthing system, the distance between two rods shall be at least twice the length of one rod .

### **1.20.3 Earthing Copper Plates**

Earthing copper plates shall be approximately 5mm high and 500mm wide or equal area. Plates shall be placed vertical, upper corner of the plate shall be at least 1m below ground level. If more than one copper plate is being installed for one system, the distance between two plates shall be at least 3m.

### **1.20.4 Earthing Service Manholes**

If an earthing system includes only one earthing rod or plate, this rod or plate shall be provided with a service manhole. If an earthing system includes more than one earthing rod or plate, these rods or plates shall be connected to one main central earthing rod or plate which shall be provided with a service manhole. Soil conditioning agents: Marconite concrete shall be used as a backfill for earth electrode in rocky area.

## **1.21 Lightning Protection**

The building shall be fitted with a complete lightning protection system in accordance with these specifications and relevant drawings. The system shall meet BS6651, NFPA 780, and VDE0185. The system shall consist of a grid of copper tape in the high part of roof, air terminal spikes, down running earth conductors and earth pits and rods as in the drawings. The metallic bodies and objects on the roof, e.g. water tank, chillers, etc... Shall have suitable and solid electrical connection to the roof grid via the same kind of copper tape. Joints between two or more copper tapes shall be done by means of suitable chrome plated steel connecting blocks to form, to all intents and purposes, a solid electrical joint. The grid shall be fixed to the roof by means of steel cramps at 1 m intervals. Sharp curvatures in the tape shall be avoided and should have a radius of no less than 25 cm.

The air terminal spikes shall be blunt air rods with all accessories as air terminal. The terminals shall have a suitable base fixing them solidly to the inside wall of roof parapets and other suitable places on the roof. The terminals shall have suitable solid electrical joints to the roof grid. The down running conductors shall have suitable and solid electrical joints to the roof grid and to the earthing rods inside earth pits. They will run down a non-metallic non-flameable conduit embedded in the concrete walls of the building. No other cable, wire or tape shall be allowed to run down this conduit. Earth rods shall be copper clad steel rods and shall have suitable means of electrical connection at the top. No electrical cables water, fuel and gas pipes shall be within 3 m of the rods.



## HISTORICAL REVIEW OF WIRING REGULATIONS

The history of the development of non-legal and statutory rules and regulations for the wiring of buildings is no less interesting than that of wiring systems and accessories. When electrical energy received a utilization impetus from the invention of the incandescent lamp, many set themselves up as electricians or electrical wiremen. Others were gas plumbers who indulged in the installation of electrics as a matter of normal course. This was all very well: the contracting industry had to get started in some way, however ragged. But with so many amateurs troubles were bound to multiply. And they did. It was not long before arc lamps, sparking commutators, and badly insulated conductors contributed to fires. It was the insurance companies which gave their attention to the fire risk inherent in the electrical installations of the 1880s. Foremost among these was the Phoenix Assurance Co., whose engineer, Mr. Heapy, was told to investigate the situation and draw up a report on his findings.

The result was the phoenix Rules of 1882. The Rules were produced just a few months after those of the American Board of Fire Underwriters who are credited with the issue of the first wiring rules in the world.

The phoenix Rules were however, the better set and went through many editions before revision was thought necessary. That these Rules contributed to a better Standard of wiring, and introduced a high factor of safety in the electrical wiring and equipment of buildings, was indicated by a report in 1892 which showed the high incidence of electrical fires in the USA and the comparative freedom from fires of electrical origin in Britain.

Three months after the issue of the Phoenix Rules for wiring in 1882, the Society of Telegraph Engineers and Electricians (now the Institution of Electrical Engineers) issued the first edition of Rules and Regulations for the Prevention of Fire Risks arising from Electric Lighting. These rules were drawn up by a committee of eighteen men which included some of the famous names of the day: Lord Kelvin, Siemens and Crompton. The Rules, however, were subjected to some criticism. Compared with the phoenix Rules they left much to be desired. But the Society was working on the basis of laying down a set of principles rather than, as Heapy did, drawing up a guide or 'Code of Practice'. A second edition of the Society's Rules was issued in 1888. The third edition as issued in 1897 and entitled General Rules recommended for wiring for the supply of Electrical Energy.

The rules have since been revised at fairly regular intervals as new developments and the results of experience can be written in for the considered attention of all those concerned with the electrical equipment of buildings. Basically the regulations were intended to act as a guide for electricians and others to provide a degree of safety in the use of electricity by inexperienced persons such as householders. The regulations were, and still are, not legal; that is, they cannot be enforced by the law of the land. Despite this apparent loophole, the regulations are accepted as a guide to the practice of installation work which will ensure, at the very least, a minimum Standard of work. The Institution of Electrical Engineers (IEE) was not alone in the insistence of good standards in electrical installation work. In 1905, the Electrical Trades Union, through the London District Committee, in a letter to the Phoenix Assurance Co., said '.... They view with alarm the large extent to which bad work is now being carried out by electric light contractors ... As the carrying out of bad work is attended by fires and other risks, besides injuring the Trade, they respectfully ask you to ... uphold a higher Standard work'.

The legislation embodied in the factory and workshop acts of 1901 and 1907 had a considerable influence on wiring practice. In the latter Act it was recognized for the first time that the generation, distribution and use of electricity in industrial premises could be dangerous. To control electricity in factories and other premises a draft set of Regulations was later to be incorporated into statutory requirements.

While the IEE and the statutory regulations were making their positions stronger, the British Standards Institution brought out, and is still issuing, Codes of Practice to provide what are regarded as guides to good, practice. The position of the Statutory Regulations in this country is that they form the primary requirements which must by law be satisfied. The IEE Regulations and codes of practice indicate supplementary requirements. However, it is accepted that if an installation is carried out in accordance with the IEE Wiring Regulations, then it generally fulfils the requirements of the Electricity Supply Regulations. This means that a supply authority can insist upon all electrical work to be carried out to the standard of the IEE Regulations, but cannot insist on a standard which is in excess of the IEE requirements.

### **CHAPTER – 3**

## **EFFICIENT LIGHTING AND LIGHT POLLUTION**

Undoubtedly, a significant amount of energy is wasted in many street lighting installations, but the reasons for this wasted energy are not always the same. Some of these installations might have light levels well above those recommended by organizations such as the Illuminating Engineering Society of North America (IESNA); others might be using lighting when in fact none is needed. Selection of ineffective and inefficient luminaries can also create glare, wasted uplight and light trespass in yet other installations. And sometimes, even light levels that are too low can result in wasted energy and light, because if such lighting is not sufficient for the tasks it is supposed to illuminate, users would be no worse off if the lighting were simply removed!

Different communities can have different objectives with respect to street lighting. Lighting can be installed primarily for the safety and visibility of drivers. This is certainly among the primary considerations set forth in recommendations of the IESNA for roadway lighting. It can also be installed to create a sense of security among neighbors. Or it can be installed near a playground, for example, for the safety of neighborhood children using the facilities at night. In many downtown urban areas, lighting is seen as an aesthetic element that can help attract shoppers and diners to area stores and restaurants.

All of these objectives can and should be met by communities while at the same time providing cost effective energy improvements, and using equipment that minimizes wasted light, light pollution, glare and trespass. Yet there is a dearth of useful, practical tools for street lighting decision-makers to help them not only in identifying and clarifying their objectives for street lighting, but also in selecting the lamps, luminaries and poles, as well as their layout, that will best meet those objectives while minimizing light pollution.

The state of Connecticut passed legislation (Public Act No. 01-134) that sets limits on outdoor lighting that uses state or municipal funds to install or replace permanent outdoor luminaries for roadway lighting. The law requires that the illuminance resulting from a luminary must be equal to the minimum illuminance adequate for the intended purpose of the lighting. The law also requires that any luminary with a rated output of more than 1800 lumens that is installed or replaced on a municipal or a state road must be a full cutoff luminary. The definition of full cutoff in the text of the act is "a luminaire that allows no direct light emissions above a horizontal plane through the luminaries' lowest light-emitting part."

### 3.1 WHAT IS LIGHT POLLUTION?

Light pollution is an unwanted consequence of outdoor lighting and includes such effects as sky glow, light trespass, and glare. Sky glow is the brightening of the sky due to outdoor lighting and is usually objected to because it inhibits one's ability to see and appreciate the stars. A large amount of light and energy is wasted as a result of outdoor lighting. This fact is illustrated in Figure 1. Light trespass is light falling where it is not wanted or needed. Light from a streetlight or a neighbor's floodlight that illuminates your bedroom at night is an example. Glare is excessive brightness causing discomfort or visual disability and a good example is an unshielded luminary where the lamp can be directly seen.

Concerns about light pollution and light trespass are growing throughout Connecticut. State and local legislation exists regarding how much light can be emitted by luminaries in the upward direction, or onto adjacent properties. Be sure your designer is aware of and understands them. In some areas, some light emitted in the upward direction might be acceptable, e.g., in a downtown, where low wattage sources are used on relatively shorter poles, and where it is desired to have some light on adjacent building surfaces to highlight architectural features or reduce shadows in pedestrian areas. However, it is probably always a waste of light and electricity to use luminaries that emit a large amount of light directly upward into the night sky, especially in suburban and rural areas where amateur astronomers might wish to view the stars.

The IESNA (1999) has developed a classification system for the distribution of light from outdoor lighting luminaries. The cutoff classification system limits the amount of light emitted directly above the horizontal and, in addition, limits the amount of light emitted between  $80^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$  from nadir. Angles referenced by the IESNA cutoff classifications are illustrated in Figure 1.

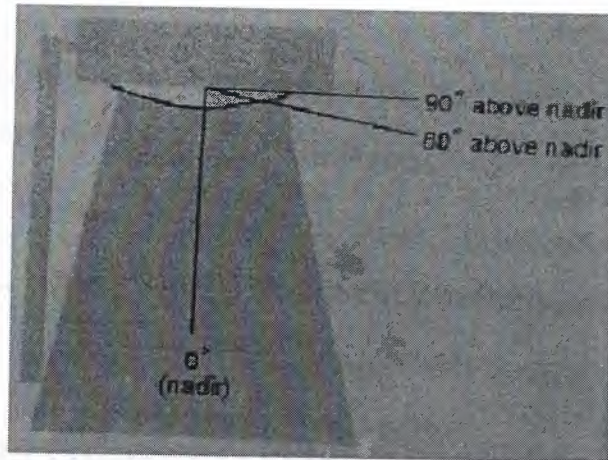


Figure 1: Angles referenced by the IESNA Cutoff Classifications.

The two most stringent classifications are cutoff and full cutoff luminaries. Full cutoff luminaries emit no light upward and tend to emit very little at angles near horizontal.

Cutoff luminaries may emit some light upward and also tend to emit little light near horizontal. The semicutoff classification is the least stringent and usually permits more light upward and at angles near the horizontal. However, it is possible for a semicutoff luminaire to generate no upward light, if it exceeds certain limits for light near horizontal angles. This could lead to increased glare but might be suitable for environments when vertical illumination is desired for recognition of people or other vertically oriented objects. In general, municipalities should consider using full cutoff luminaries if they will accomplish the required objectives and goals. Less restrictive categories should be considered only when the required objectives cannot otherwise be met.

The term "full cutoff luminary" is defined in Connecticut's Public Act No. 01-134 as "a luminary that allows no direct light emissions above a horizontal plane through the luminaries lowest light-emitting part." This definition varies from the IESNA definition found in RP-33-99 which defines the distribution of a full cutoff luminary as "a luminary light distribution where zero candela intensity occurs at an angle of 90° above nadir, and at all greater angles from nadir. Additionally, the candela per 1000 lamp lumens does not numerically exceed 100 (10 percent) at a vertical angle of 80° above nadir. This applies to all lateral angles around the luminary."

The IESNA is aware of the confusion and inconsistencies with the cutoff classifications. In 2002, a new IESNA committee was chartered to address the issues.

In addition to legislation requiring a certain type of luminary, there are a number of other ways that have been proposed (limiting to certain types might or might not actually limit it) to limit light pollution. Some examples to reduce light pollution include installing lighting only where it is needed, avoiding over lighting by choosing minimum light levels that will fulfill the lighting objectives, and installing appropriate controls such as motion sensors and timers or photo sensors that turn lighting off when it is not needed.

### **3.2 REASONS FOR LIGHTING - IS LIGHTING REALLY NEEDED?**

The topic of light pollution has received a lot of attention in the media of late. The Connecticut law requiring full cutoff luminaries is a result of this new public awareness of, and concern about, outdoor lighting. This coverage on light pollution often lacks discussion about why municipalities, businesses, or individuals choose to light in the first place. Although no one would agree that we should cause light pollution and waste energy, the question must be asked, why choose electric lighting? The easiest way to avoid light pollution is to eliminate lighting altogether. In short, we light our outdoor-nighttime environment to meet certain societal goals. These include increasing safety and security, enhancing economic development, highlighting historic areas or landmarks of cities or towns, and sending messages.

### **3.3 SAFETY**

While headlights on cars provide forward lighting for the driver, street lighting illuminates the roadway showing the driver changes in direction up ahead, obstacles in the way, and the roadway surface conditions. Street lighting lights more than just the road; walkways and adjacent areas to the road also benefit. Pedestrians, cyclists, children playing in the front yard, and other non-motorists are more readily seen with street lighting. The IESNA (1999 and 2000) has recommendations for lighting that illuminates intersections allowing oncoming drivers to see other vehicles, as well as pedestrians and cyclists. Street lighting helps to mitigate headlight glare as well.

### **3.4 SECURITY**

While there is controversy about whether electric lighting improves security (Painter, 2001, Boyce 1990, Tien 1979), there is no question that one feels safer walking or driving on well-lit streets and in well-lit parking lots. Boyce (1990) found that an illuminance of 1 -3 foot-candles provides the appearance of good security. Security may be thought of as freedom from worry in regard to the security of people and property. The purpose of security lighting is to deter the intruder, aid law-abiding citizens in recognizing danger, and to help law enforcement in the identification process after a crime has occurred. An intruder may be deterred if the criminal is easily seen at a distance and the victim is likely to be prepared. Brightness of the neighborhood, uniformity of the brightness of the area, and whether there is lighting outside of the area lit by security lighting are three factors that influence deterrence. In order for security lighting to be effective, minimum light levels that achieve the objectives of brightness and uniformity must be met (Boyce 2000, Rombauts 1989, Boyce 1990).

### **3.5 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

Exterior lighting has a significant impact on economic development (IESNA 2000). Lighting may draw people to a downtown area or a shopping area by making the shops and restaurants inviting. People may spend more time in a downtown area or shopping district if the lighting is inviting and there is a feeling of security (Boyce 2000).

The appearance of a space (during nighttime as well as daytime) is an important consideration for many areas, especially in historic areas where the lighting system not only illuminates roadways and sidewalks, but can also help draw attention to architecture and other aesthetic features such as parks, statues and other public areas. The appearance of the luminary itself is often selected to harmonize with its surroundings. In addition, factors such as color appearance might be important. Leslie (1996) found that one's ability to identify colors is reduced with high pressure sodium illumination at light levels below 1 foot-candle, while metal halide, fluorescent and incandescent lamps provide good color identification even at one-tenth this light level. This could be important for identifying one's parked car, for example.

### **3.6 AESTHETICS**

Finally, lighting sends a message. "Look here", "Walk down this street", "Don't walk down this street", "Come and window shop". Lighting conveys information to people. Lighting enhances historic areas or landmarks and helps to promote an image of the city or town. Indeed there are many valid reasons where lighting is not only needed, but required. However, as in most things in life, understanding how much is enough is important. Awareness is the key to balancing the need for lighting while minimizing light pollution and increasing energy efficiency. Understanding the reason for lighting and the many different ways lighting may be achieved is important in order to balance the need for lighting with its control to minimize light pollution.

Retail establishments use lighting to entice people to enter their property. All too often, the lighting level is much higher than necessary and the luminaries produce significant glare. An alternative approach to over lighting and glaring fixture choices may be to create ambience and sparkle by using shielded fixtures which allow for some sparkle, lighting to appropriate light levels, and possibly using targeted lighting. One study on gas station canopy lighting showed that the number of cars entering the gas station increased when cutoff fixtures with some sparkle were installed.

### **3.7 LIGHTING CONSIDERATIONS**

Before any decisions about lighting are made, the objectives of the community must be considered. Depending on the situation, sometimes lighting is not necessary. It is important to explore the options to meet the objectives of why lighting is being considered. Some questions to consider include:

- Does the street in question need lighting?
- Are there other ways to accomplish the goals without installing lighting? Once lighting is deemed necessary to achieve the community objectives, these issues should be considered:
  - Are minimum lighting levels being used to accomplish the objectives?
  - Will the lighting installation minimize light pollution?
  - Are efficient technologies being used?
  - Have lighting controls such as motion sensors, timers, or photosensors been considered?



- Is a lighting curfew or a time period when the lighting is shut off or dimmed appropriate?
- Are full cutoff luminaires being used?

### **3.7.1 Good Lighting Practice:**

Many installations of lighting on roadways fail short of recommendations by organizations such as the IESNA. Of course, vehicles are equipped with headlights designed to illuminate the roadway surface, but additional lighting can assist in making adjacent people and objects more visible. Reduced light levels and increased non-uniformities can result in dark areas and shadows that could make it difficult to see pedestrians and other objects along the road. When safety issues are of prime importance, consult the recommendations of the IESNA. These recommendations form the basis for what is considered to be "good practice" in street and roadway lighting.

Once the decision is made to embark on a street lighting project, carrying it through requires care and attention in order to avoid unwanted equipment costs, complaints about poor visibility, glare\* unnecessary-use of energy, and excessive maintenance costs. Once you've identified who will be designing your street lighting installation in order to meet your objectives, be sure to ask them the following questions. The answers you receive will help you understand whether your designer understands what you want to accomplish, as well as how to most efficiently accomplish your objectives. Your designer can be any one of the following:

- In-house engineering staff
- Manufacturers, or manufacturers' distributors
- Electric utility specialists
- Contractor

Regardless of who will ultimately design your street lighting installation, these issues will help to open the lines of communication that are important to a successful efficient street lighting project.

## **3.8 PLANNING**

Before developing recommendations for the lighting installation, be sure that the designer knows what you want to achieve and what the characteristics of the project site are.

### **3.8.1 Understanding Objectives:**

Be certain that the designer is aware of the issues outlined in this document. Beware of bold promises to reduce crime or improve safety. Share the white paper, checklist, and design patterns, along with the resources listed at the end of this section with the designer.

### **3.8.2 Awareness of Existing Conditions:**

Be sure the designer has an accurate understanding of the area in question. Do they understand the traffic density, posted and typical driving speeds and accident history of the location? Is pedestrian traffic heavy throughout the day or only at certain times of the day (such as the start and end of the work day)? What types of buildings are found in the area—residences, offices, neighborhood businesses, schools, restaurants? All will have special considerations for lighting and different hours of active use.— What is the crime history of the area? *Is the* location perceived as safe or unsafe? There are procedures given by the IESNA (199, 2000) for determining whether and how much lighting is appropriate for a location.

## **3.9 LIGHTING CRITERIA**

Municipal officials will probably not be familiar with each of the issues that make a lighting installation successful. The role of the designer is to address the issues such as those listed below.

### **3.9.1 Use Efficient Technologies:**

There is not one single best technology for street lighting, but your designer should be aware of the relative benefits and drawbacks of different types of lamps and luminaries. Are efficient light sources and ballasts planned? Mercury vapor lamps are found in many older street lighting installations but these lamps are relatively inefficient and should not be used in any new or retrofit installations. Almost all lamps used in street lighting require a ballast to

provide the proper voltage and current to the lamp; these will also use some energy and impact the overall energy use. Are efficient ballasts going to be used? Finally, even the most efficient lamp and ballast can be made very inefficient by using luminaries that trap light inside. A luminary that emits less than half of the light generated by the lamp and ballast should be avoided.

### **3.9.2 Use Appropriate Pole Heights:**

In different locations, different pole heights can be appropriate for the desired appearance and required lighting. The "cobra head" type of luminary seen on many streets and roadways is often found on a 30-to-35 foot pole. Architectural or decorative types of luminaries might have a scale that requires shorter pole heights. At the same time, the use of high-wattage, very efficient light sources on lower poles could possibly lead to unwanted glare. These factors must be balanced. When existing utility poles are used, careful attention to luminary selection is important so that it is suitable for the pole heights.

### **3.9.3 Use Appropriate Pole Spacings;**

The height of street lighting poles will impact how uniform the light levels are in the street and surrounding area. Visibility can sometimes be reduced if lighter and darker areas have large differences in light level ask whether the combination of luminaries and pole heights will result in sufficient uniformity. This issue can be especially important in a retrofit installation where existing pole mounting locations are going to be used with no additional pole mountings, or, as described above, when existing utility poles are to be used. Changes in luminary type and pole height can also impact the uniformity.

## **3.10 MAINTENANCE**

### **3.10.1 Maintenance of Lighting Installation:**

Some luminaries have easy mechanisms for opening, removing lamps and ballasts, and cleaning. Find out if special tools or equipment will be needed for revamping. Understand the warranties of the components in the system, and who should be contacted if a given component does not meet warranty.

### **3.10.2 Life of Components:**

The environment in which a street lighting installation is located might have additional requirements for street lighting equipment. Some lamps have very stable light output over a long period of time; others become "dimmer" over a period of a few years. Is the area prone to flooding, pollution or other possible environmental factors? If so, the selection of equipment that will work throughout a range of conditions and with gasketed or watertight enclosures to prevent failure will be important. Other luminaries are available with heavy-duty, vandal-proof housings and lenses to deter destruction of these systems. Different pole materials also have different properties that might lend some materials to be more attractive in certain areas.

### **3.10.3 Companion Documents:**

Companion documents were developed to go along with this white paper. They include a checklist and design patterns. The design checklist helps decision makers think about their street lighting objectives. The design guide provides illustrative examples of specific types of typical street lighting designs and present alternative options. It is a tool to identify approaches to meet the design objectives with efficient street lighting.

## **CHAPTER – 4**

### **RULES OF THE PROJECT**

At drawing the electrical installation projects the current lines have to be 0.4 mm - 0.5 mm the low current lines have to be 0.2 mm - 0.3 mm the armatures , switches , sockets, etc ... and the symbols of electrical devices have to be draw with 0.2 mm

We have to use writing template or number template when writing to Project

The power calculating and the electrical installation Project have to be suitable to the rules of "TURK STANDARTLARI BAYINDIRLIK BAKANLIGI ELEKTRIK TEKNİK ŞARTNAMESİ". At the drawing electrical installation Project the high of the electrical switches and electrical sockets, wall lamps and signal buttons. From ground are important.

At the practice:

| <u>Devices :</u>    | <u>High from ground:</u> |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Switches _____      | 150 cm                   |
| Sockets _____       | 40 cm                    |
| Wall lamps _____    | 190 cm                   |
| Conduit boxes _____ | 220 cm                   |
| Fuse box line _____ | 200 cm                   |

Are putted higher from the ground? The devices have to put 30 cm far from door case and have to put 50 cm. far from window case. And in modern buildings the switches have to put 100 cm - 110 cm higher from

The ground in ground floor the sockets have to put as higher as like the switches just in case the water flood.

Nowadays improved cable channel and connecting devices with sockets have to put shorter then 40 cm high on the ground and wail.

In floor plans, power line plans lines and at the outlet the number of cable, crosscut and models with pipe model and its sizes are showed.

The power lines and the electric cable lines have to be numerated and this numbers are repeated a long the power lines and electric cable lines , the power lines are showed square , the electric cable lines are showed by circle.

At the electrical installation Project specially the column and the chimney etc... The architectural detailed have to state.

At the wet ground (toilets and bathroom) using the conduit box, switches, and the sockets are not permutated. The conduit box, switches and the sockets have to put to outside this place.

When we want to put a socket inside of the bathroom it is useful to use a special water leak proof socket

The electric meter have to put a place where without damp , without dust , harmful heating changing weather like this and have to put a place that the competent can find and make control easily without asking the person who live.

In houses every subscriber can put the electric meter outside the own door, over the wall in the well hole, inside the covered parts or a ground where well weather coming dry and suitable places

The electric meter can putt to the first enter in the places like shops, bureau, Office, etc... Where the manager to see fit

By the practice in the apartments the electric meter are putted to the ground floor in the electric meter panel.

The electric meter which has to be putted the dusted places and open area must putt the electric meter panel which made from galvanized iron.

The illumination line and socket line have to separate electric cable lines have to be *numbered according to the exit and secondary panel (the numbers putted in circle).*

The illumination and socket cable lines are protected by the circuit breaker. The short circuit current of the circuit breakers has to be at least 3 KA. The voltage loss has to calculate for the longest and the highest line. We can not draw a line surrounding of chimneys or columns at the Project. The switches, sockets, have to be put to a different place from chimneys and columns.

We can not put on joist or columns or near the joist or columns switches or sockets.

The electrical meter have to put to an enter of well hole in a box which have to be made from galvanization sheet.

At drawing the electrical installation projects and at the practise the lamp lines and the socket lines have to be different.

It can be connecting to the lamp line at most nine (9) lamps for the socket line it can be connecting at most seven (7) sockets.

But only the washing machine, dishwasher, and oven must have a along line and the power are different from the others.

| <u>Electrical device</u> | <u>Power</u> |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| Washing machine _____    | 2.5 kW       |
| Dish washer _____        | 2.5 kW       |
| Oven _____               | 2.0 kW       |

By calculating the power we have to suitable this rule.

- As much as to eight (8) kW \_\_\_\_\_ 60 %
- For the rest of power \_\_\_\_\_ 40 %

By the practice we can use Bergman pipe under the plaster and on the plaster. But the plastic pipe can use only under the plaster.

## CHAPTER – 5

### THE PROCESS ROW FOR THE ILLUMINATION DRAWING PROJECTS

With the helping the architectural plan and using plan 1/50 or 1/100 measure is drawn. If the using plan is not drawn, the information about the using purpose are taken from the owner of the goods oven , washing machine , dishwasher refrigerator places and where the socket, putted are important especially houses.

The places of the second table is has to be pointed. The second table has to be putted near the hole in the enter of the house and near the enter door.

In houses there have to be at least 2 illumination electrical cables lines to take place. So the of illumination armature types and power of armatures and types of switches are shown when the illumination electric cable number are shown, nine (9) illumination putted can be connected to the area illuminated electric cable

According to the instructions 2 separate socket cable have to be putted kitchen for dishwasher and electrical oven, 1 separate socket cable line has to be putted in bathroom for the washing machine. Maximum seven (7) socket outlet can be connected to the one socket line. So the number of the illumination and socket electrical cable and outlet number and the power of the table are shown.

The places of the illumination switches, sockets, calling buttons are pointed the place where the door is opened or closed. The figures are downed and conduit box places are pointed.

At the drawing the electrical cables, the electrical cable lines not to be putted in chimney and around the chimney.

The illumination buttons in the well hole can be putted as possible as the near house door.

## CHAPTER – 6



## THE CONTROL OF VOLTAGE LOSS

The electrical devices work at the practice of determined voltage level.

We have calculated the control of the voltage loss because of that the voltage loss would not be bigger from the determined values at the instructions.

The voltage loss in the Electrical illumination circuits and in the Electrical sockets circuits is 1.5% of the voltage phase.

One phase voltage is 220 V in the Turkey. Therefore the biggest voltage loss is 3.3 V

### 6.1 THE CONTROL OF ONE PHASE VOLTAGE:

If we know the current :  $U = 2 * L * I * \cos \emptyset / X * S$

If we know the power :  $U = 2 * L * N / X * S * U$

Or :  $\% e = 2 * 100 * L * N / X * S * U^2$

The phase voltage is 220 V. for copper  $X = 56$  and  $2 * 100$  is the fixed value and if we calculate the value for this number its:

$200 / X * U^2 = 200 / 56 * 220^2 = 74 * 10^6$  can find  $74 * 10^6$  is equal

to  $\% e = 0.0074 * L * N \text{ kw/s}$

### 6.2 THE CONTROL OF THREE PHASE VOLTAGE:

If we know the Current :  $U = 1.73 * L * \cos \emptyset / X * S$

If we know the Power :  $U = L * N / X * S * U$

Or :  $\% e = 100 * L * N / K * S * U^2$

The three phase voltage is 380 V for copper  $X = 56$  and 100 numbers fixed values and if we calculate the value for that number.

$100 / X * U^2 = 100 / 56 * 380^2 = 124 * 10^{-7}$  and we can use  $123 * 10^{-7}$

$124 * 10^{-7}$  is equal to  $\% e = 0.0124 * L * N \text{ kw/s}$

$$\% e = 0.0123 * L * N \text{ kw/s}$$

## CHAPTER – 7

### LIGHTING

Lighting plays a most important role in many buildings, not only for functional purposes (simply supplying light) but to enhance the environment and surroundings. Modern offices, shops, factories, shopping malls, department stores, main roads, football stadium, swimming pools - all these show not only the imagination of architects and lighting engineers but the skills of the practicing electrician in the installation of luminaries.

Many sources of light are available today with continual improvements in lighting efficiency and colour of light.

Lm : This is a unit of luminous flux or (amount of light) emitted from a source.

Luminous efficiency : This denotes the amount of light produced by a source for the energy used; therefore the luminous efficacy is stated in 'lumens per watt' (lm/W).

A number of types of lamps are used today: filament, fluorescent, mercury vapour, sodium vapour, metal Halide, neon. All these have specific advantages and applications.

## **7.1 FLAMENT LAMPS:**

Almost all filament lamps for general lighting service are made to last an average of at least 1000 hours. This does not imply that every individual lamp will do so, but that the short-life ones will be balanced by the long-life ones; with British lamps "the precision and uniformity of manufacture now ensures that the spread of life is small, most individual lamps in service lasting more or just less than 1000 hours when used as they are intended to be used.

In general, vacuum lamps, which are mainly of the tubular and fancy shapes, can be used in any position without affecting their performance. The ordinary pear-shaped; gas filled lamps are designed to be used in the cap-up position in which little or no blackening of the bulb becomes apparent in late life. The smaller sizes, up to 150 W, \*may be mounted horizontally or upside-down, but as the lamp ages in these positions (the bulb becomes blackened immediately above the filament and absorbs some of the light. Also vibration may have a more serious effect on lamp life in these positions Over the 150 W size, burning in the wrong position leads to serious shortening of life.

### **7.1.1 Coiled - Coil lamps:**

By double coiling of the filament in a lamp of given wattage a longer and thicker filament can be employed, and additional light output is obtained from the greater surface area of the coil, which is maintained at the same temperature thus avoiding sacrificing life. The extra light obtained varies from 20 % in the 40 W size to 10 % in the 100 W size.

### **7.1.2 Effect of voltage variation:**

Filament lamps are very sensitive to voltage variation. A 5% over-voltage halves lamp life due to over-running of the filament. A 5% under-voltage prolongs lamp life but leads to the lamp giving much less than its proper light output while still consuming nearly its rated wattage. The rated lamp voltage should correspond with the supply voltage. Complaints of short lamp life very often arise directly from the fact that mains voltage is on the high side of the declared value, possibly because the complainant happens to live near a substation

### **7.1.3 Bulb finish:**

In general, the most appropriate use for clear bulbs is in wattages of 200 and above in fittings where accurate control of light is required. Clear lamps afford a view of the intensely bright filament and are very glaring, besides giving rise to hard and sharp shadows. In domestic sizes, from 150 W downwards, the pearl lamp which gives equal light output is greatly to be preferred on account of the softness of the light produced. Even better in this respect are silica lamps; these are pearl lamps with an interior coating of silica powder which completely diffuses the light so that the whole bulb surface appears equally bright, with a loss of 5% of light compared with pearl or clear lamps. Silica lamps are available in sizes from 40 - 200 W. Double life lamps compromise slightly in lumen output to provide a rated life of 2,000 hours.

### **7.1.4 Reflector lamps:**

For display purposes reflector lamps are available in sizes of 25 W to 150W. They have an internally mirrored bulb of parabolic section with the filament at its focus, and a lightly or

strongly diffusing front glass, so that the beam of light emitted is either wide or fairly narrow according to type. The pressed-glass (PAR) type of reflector lamp gives a good light output with longer life than a blown glass lamp. Since it is made of borosilicate glass, it can be used out-of-doors without protection.

### **7.1.5 Tungsten halogen lamps:**

The life of an incandescent lamp depends on the rate of evaporation of the filament, which is partly a function of its temperature and partly of the pressure exerted on it by the gas filling. Increasing the pressure slows the rate of evaporation and allows the filament to be run at a higher temperature thus producing more light for the same life.

If a smaller bulb is used, the gas pressure can be increased, but blackening of the bulb by tungsten atoms carried from the filament to it by the gas rapidly reduces light output. The addition of a very small quantity of a haline, iodine or bromine, to the gas filling overcomes this difficulty, as near the bulb wall at a temperature of about 300°C this combines with the free tungsten atoms to form a gas. The tungsten and the haline separate again when the gas is carried back to the filament by convection currents, so that the haline is freed the cycle.

Tungsten halogen lamps have a longer life, give more light and are much smaller than their conventional equivalents, and since there is no bulb blackening, maintain their colour throughout their lives. Mains-voltage lamps of the tubular type should be operated within 5 degrees of the horizontal. A 1000W tungsten halogen lamp gives 21 000 lm and has a life of 2000 hours. These lamps have all but replaced the largest sizes of g.I.s. lamps for floodlighting, etc. They are used extensively in the automotive industry. They are also making inroads into shop display and similar areas in the form of 1 v. (12 V.) Single - ended dichroic lamps.

## **7.2 DISCHARGE LAMPS:**

Under normal circumstances, an electric current cannot flow through a gas. However, if electrodes are fused into the ends of a glass tube, and the tube is slowly pumped free of air,

current does pass through at a certain low pressure. A faint red luminous column can be seen in the tube, proceeding from the positive electrode; at the negative electrode a weak glow is also just visible. Very little visible radiation is obtainable. But when the tube is filled with certain gases, definite luminous effects can be obtained. One important aspect of the gas discharge is the 'negative resistance characteristic'. This means that when the temperature of the material (in this case the gas) rises, its resistance decreases - which is the opposite of what occurs with an 'ohmic' resistance material such as copper. When a current passes through the gas, the temperature increases and its resistance decreases. This decrease in resistance causes a rise in the current strength which, if not limited or controlled in some way, will eventually cause a short circuit to take place. Thus, for all gas discharge lamps there is always a resistor, choke coil (or inductor) or leak transformer for limiting the circuit current. Though the gas-discharge lamp was known in the early days of electrical engineering, it was not until the 1930s that this type of lamp came onto the market in commercial quantities. There are two main types of electric discharge lamp:

- Cold cathode
- Hot cathode

### **7.2.1 Cold Cathode Lamp:**

The cold-cathode lamp uses a high voltage (about 3.5 kV) for its operation. For general lighting purposes they are familiar as fluorescent tubes about 25mm in diameter, either straight, curved or bent to take a certain form. The power consumption is generally about 8 W per 30 cm; the current taken is in milliamps. The electrodes of these lamps are not preheated. A more familiar type of cold-cathode lamp is the neon lamp used for sign and display lighting. Here the gas is neon which gives a reddish light when the electric discharge takes place in the tubes. Neon lamps are also available in very small sizes in the form of 'pygmy' lamps and as indicating lights on wiring accessories (switches and socket-outlets). This type of lamp operates on mains voltage. Neon signs operate on the high voltage produced by transformers.

### **7.2.2 Hot-Cathode Lamp:**

The hot-cathode lamp is more common. In it, the electrodes are heated and it operates generally on a low or medium voltage. Some types of lamp have an auxiliary electrode for starting.

The most familiar type of discharge lamp is the fluorescent lamp. It consists of a glass tube filled with mercury vapour at a low pressure. The electrodes are located at the ends of the tube. When the lamp is switched on, an arc discharge excites a barely visible radiation, the greater part of which consists of ultra-violet radiation. The interior wall of the tube is coated with a fluorescent powder which consists of ultra-violet rays into visible radiation or light. The type of light (that is the colour range) is determined by the composition of the fluorescent powder. To assist starting the mercury vapour is mixed with a small quantity of argon gas. The light produced by the fluorescent lamp varies from 45 to 55lm/W. The colours available from the fluorescent lamp include a near daylight and a colour-corrected light for use where colours (of wool, paints, etc.) must be seen correctly. The practical application of this type of lamp includes the lighting of shops, domestic premises, factories, streets, ships, transport (buses), tunnels and coal-mines.

The auxiliary equipment associated with the fluorescent circuit includes:

- The choke, which supplies a high initial voltage on starting (caused by the interruption of the inductive circuit), and also limits the current in the lamp when the lamp is operating.
- The starter,
- The capacitor, which is fitted to correct or improve the power factor by neutralizing the inductive effect of the choke.

The so-called 'switch less' start fluorescent lamp does not require to be preheated. The lamp lights almost at once when the circuit switch is closed. An auto-transformer is used instead of a starting switch.

### **7.2.3 Mercury and Metal Halide Lamps:**

The mercury spectrum has four well-defined lines in the visible area and two in the invisible ultra violet region. This U.V. radiation is used to excite fluorescence in certain

phosphors, by which means some of the missing colours can be restored to the spectrum. The proportion of visible light to U.V. increases as the vapour pressure in the discharge tube so that colour correction is less effective in a high-pressure mercury lamp than in a low-pressure (fluorescent) tube.

High pressure mercury lamps are designed MBF and the outer bulb is coated with a fluorescent powder. MBF lamps are now commonly used in offices, shops and in door situations where previously they were considered unsuitable. Better colour rendering lamps have recently been introduced MBF de-luxe or MBF-DL lamps and are at presents lightly more expensive than ordinary MBF lamps.

A more fundamental solution to the problem of colour rendering is to add the halides of various metals to mercury in the discharge tube. In metal halide lamps (designed MBI) the number of spectral lines is so much increased that a virtually, continuous emission of light is achieved, and colour rendering is thus much improved. The addition of fluorescent powders to the outer jacket (MBIF) still further improves the colour rendering properties of the lamp, which is similar to that of a de luxe natural W fluorescent tube.

Metal halide lamps are also made in a compact linear form for floodlighting (MBIL) in which case the enclosed floodlighting projector takes the place of the outer jacket and in a very compact form (CSI) with a short arc length which is used for projectors, and encapsulated in a pressed glass reflector, for long range floodlighting of sports arenas, etc. In addition, single-ended low wattage (typically 150 W) metal halide lamps (MBI-T) have been developed offering excellent colour rendering for display lighting, floodlighting and up lighting of commercial interiors.

No attempt should ever be made to keep an MB and MBF lamp in operation if the outer bulb becomes accidentally broken, for in these types the inner discharge tube of quartz does not absorb potentially dangerous radiations which are normally blocked by the outer glass bulb.

#### **7.2.4 Sodium Lamps:**



Low pressure sodium lamps give light which is virtually monochromatic; that is, they emit yellow light at one wavelength only, all other colours of light being absent. Thus white and yellow objects look yellow, and other colours appear in varying shades of grey and black.

However, they have a very efficacy and are widely used for streets where the primary aim is to provide light for visibility at minimum cost; also for floodlighting where a yellow light is acceptable or preferred.

The discharge U-tube is contained within a vacuum glass jacket which conserves the heat and enables the metallic sodium in the tube to become sufficiently vaporized. The arc is initially struck in neon, giving a characteristic red glow; the sodium then becomes vaporised and takes over the discharge.

Sometimes leakage transformers are used to provide the relatively high voltage required for starting, and the lower voltage required as the lamp runs up to full brightness a process taking up to about 15 minutes. Modern practice is to use electronic ignitors to start the lamp which then continues to operate on conventional choke ballast. A power-factor correction capacitor should be used on the mains side of the transformer primary.

A linear sodium lamp (SLI/H) with an efficacy of 150lm/W is available and in the past was used for motorway lighting. The outer tube is similar to that of a fluorescent lamp and has an internal coating of indium to conserve heat in the arc. Mainly because of its size the SLI/H lamp has been replaced with the bigger versions of SOX lamps as described above.

Metallic sodium may burn if brought into contact with moisture, therefore care is necessary when disposing of discarded sodium lamps; a sound plan is to break the lamps in a bucket in the open and pour water on them, then after a short while the residue can be disposed of in the ordinary way. The normal life of all sodium lamps has recently been increased to 4 000 hours with an objective average of 6 000 hours.

### **7.2.5 High-Pressure Sodium Lamps:**

In this type of lamp, the vapour pressure in the discharge tube is raised resulting in a widening of the spectral distribution of the light, with consequent improvement in its colour-rendering qualities. Although still biased towards the yellow, the light is quite acceptable for most general lighting purposes and allows colours to be readily distinguished. The luminous

efficacy of these lamps is high, in the region of 100lm per watt, and they consequently find a considerable application in industrial situations, for street lighting in city centers and for floodlighting.

Three types of lamp are available; elliptical type (SON) in which the outer bulb is coated with a fine diffusing powder, intended for general lighting; a single-ended cylindrical type with a clear glass outer bulb, used for flood-lighting, (SON.T); and a double-ended tubular lamp (SON.ID) also designed for floodlighting and dimensioned so that it can be used in linear parabolic reflectors designed for tungsten halogen lamps, this type must always be used in an enclosed fitting.

The critical feature of the SON lamp is the discharge tube. This is made of sintered aluminum oxide to withstand the chemical action of hot ionized sodium vapour, a material that is very difficult to work. Recent research in this country has resulted in improved methods of sealing the electrodes into the tubes, leading to the reduction of lower lamp ratings, down to 50 W, much extending the usefulness of the lamps.

Most types of lamps require from of starting device which can take the form of an external electric pulse ignitor or an internal starter. At least one manufacturer offers a range of EPS lamps with internal starters and another range that can be used as direct replacements for MBF lamps of similar rating. They may require small changes in respect of ballast tapping, values of p.f. correction capacitor and upgrading of the wiring insulation to withstand the starting pulse voltage. Lamps with internal starters may take up to 20 minutes to restart where lamps with electronic ignition allow hot restart in about 1 minute.

Considerable research is being made into the efficacy and colour rendering properties of these lamps and improvements continue to be introduced.

Recent developments have led to the introduction of SON deluxe or DL lamps. At the expense of some efficacy and a small reduction in life far better colour rendering has been obtained. They are increasingly being used in offices and shops as well as for industrial applications

### **7.3 ULTRA - VIOLET LAMPS:**

The invisible ultra-violet portion of the spectrum extends for an appreciable distance beyond the limit of the visible spectrum. The part of the, U.V. spectrum which is near the visible spectrum is referred to as the near U.V. region. The next portion is known as the

middle U.V. region and the third portion as the far U.V. region. 'Near' U.V. rays are used for exciting fluorescence on the stage, in discos, etc.

'Middle' U.V. rays are those which are most effective in therapeutics. 'Far' U.V. Frays are applied chiefly in the destruction of germs, though they also have other applications in biology and medicine, and to excite the phosphors in fluorescent tubes.

Apart from their use in the lamps themselves fluorescent phosphors are used in paints and dyes to produce brighter colours than can be obtained by normal reflection of light from a coloured surface. These paints and dyes can be excited by the use of fluorescent tubes coated with phosphors that emit near ultra violet to reinforce that from the discharge. They may be made of clear glass in which case some of the visible radiation from the arc is also visible, or of black 'Woods' glass which absorbs almost all of it. When more powerful and concentrated sources of U.V. are required, as for example, on stage, 125W and 175W MB lamps with 'Woods' glass outer envelopes are used.

Since the 'black' light excites fluorescence in the vitreous humour of the human eye, it becomes a little difficult to see clearly, and objects are seen through a slight haze. The effect is quite harmless and disappears as soon as the observer's eyes are no longer irradiated.

Although long wave U.V. is harmless, that which occurs at about 3000nm is not, and it can cause severe burning of the skin and 'snow blindness'. Wavelengths in this region, which are present in all mercury discharge, are completely absorbed by the ordinary soda lime glass of which the outer bulbs of high pressure lamps and fluorescent tubes are made, but they can penetrate quartz glass. A germicidal tube is made in the 30W size and various types of high pressure mercury discharge lamps are made for scientific purposes. It cannot to be too strongly emphasised that these short-wave sources of light should not be looked at with the naked eye. Ordinary glass spectacles (although not always those with plastics lenses) afford sufficient protection.

Note that if the outer jacket of an MBF or MBI lamp is accidentally broken, the discharge tube may continue to function for a considerable time.

## CHAPTER – 8

### SWITCHES, SOCKETS AND BUTTONS

#### 8.1 SWITCHES:

Different type of switches can use on the electrical equipment of apartment, switches have to be made suitable to TS – 41

Switch is equipment that it can on and off the electrical energy of an electrical circuit. The current can not be lower from 10 Ampere for using by 250

V. Electric circuit.

Switches are in three (4) groups

1 - Single key

2 - Commutator

3 - vaevien

4 - Button

### **8.1.1 Single Key:**

This switch can on and off a lamp or lamps only from one place. These switches are use usually in kitchen, toilets, room etc...

### **8.1.2 Commutator:**

This switch can on and off two different lamp or lamps from one place at the same time or different time.

These switches are used usually for a wall lamp, drawing room.

### **8.1.3 Vaevien:**

This switch can on and off a lamp or lamps of the same time from different place. These switches are used usually in the balcony which has two doors or in the room which have two doors.

### **8.1.4 Well hole switches:**

These switches can on and off the lamp or lamps more than two (2) different place at the same time.

These switches are used at the stair.

## 8.2 SOCKET:

Sockets are very important in our life because we need sockets in our home or in our work. To operate electrical devices sockets that we use have to be made to TS \_ 40

Sockets are in two groups for a safety.

- 1 - Normal sockets
- 2 - Ground sockets

## 8.3 BUTTONS:

Buttons are used for a door bell. When we push to the buttons then it is operate when we stop to the push button then it stops.

At the electrical Project we have to fit to the rules of "BAYINDIRLIK BAKANLIGI ELEKTRIK TESISATI SARTNAMESI"

At the practice;

|                             |        |
|-----------------------------|--------|
| The switches from ground    | 150 cm |
| The sockets from ground     | 40 cm  |
| The wall lamp from ground   | 190 cm |
| The conduit box from ground | 220 cm |
| The fuse box from ground    | 200 cm |

## CHAPTER - 9

### CONDUCTORS AND CABLES

A 'conductor' in electrical work means a material which will allow the free passage of an electric current along it and which presents very little resistance to the current. If the conducting material has an extremely low resistance (for instance copper conductor) there will be only a slight warming effect when the conductor carries a current. If the conductor material has a significant resistance (for instance, iron wire) then the conductor will slow the effects of the electric current passing through it, usually in the form of an appreciable rise in temperature to produce a heating effect.

A 'cable' is defined as a length of insulated conductor (solid or stranded), or of two or more such conductors, each provided with its own insulation, which are laid up together. The conductor, so far as a cable is concerned, is the conducting portion, consisting of a single wire or of a group of wires in contact with each other.

The practical electrician will meet two common conductor materials Extensively in his work: copper and aluminium.

As a conductor of electricity, copper has been used since the early days of the electrical industry because it has so many good properties, it can cope with onerous conditions. It has a high resistance to atmospheric corrosion. It can be jointed without any special provision to prevent electrolytic action. It is tough, slow to tarnish, and is easily worked. For purposes of electrical conductivity, copper is made with a very high degree of purity (at least 99.9 per cent). In this condition it is only slightly inferior to silver.

Aluminium is now being used in cables at an increasing rate. Although reduced cost is the main incentive to use aluminium in most applications, certain other advantages are claimed for this metal. For instance, because aluminium is pliable, it has been used in solid-core cables. Aluminium was used as a conductor material for overhead lines about seventy years ago, and in an insulated form for buried cables at the turn of the century. The popularity of aluminium increased rapidly just after the Second World War, and has now a definite place in electrical work of all kinds.

## **9.1 CONDUCTORS:**

Conductors as found in electrical work are most commonly in the form of wire or bars and rods. There are other variations, of course, such as machined sections for particular

electrical devices (e.g. contactor contacts). Generally, wire has a flexible property and is used in cables. Bars and rods, being more rigid, are used as busbars and earth electrodes. In special form, aluminium is used for solid-core cables.

Wire for electrical cables is made from wire-bars. Each bar is heated and passed through a series of grooved rollers until it finally emerges in the form of a round rod. The rod is then passed through a series of lubricated dies until the final diameter of wire is obtained. Wires of the sizes generally used for cables are hard in temper when drawn and so are annealed at various stages during the transition from wire-bar to small diameter wire. Annealing involves placing coils of the wire in furnaces for a period until the metal becomes soft or ductile again.

Copper wires are often tinned. This process was first used in order to prevent the deterioration of the rubber insulation used on the early cables. Tin is normally applied by passing the copper wire through a bath containing molten tin. With the increasing use of plastic materials for cable insulation there was a tendency to use untinned wires. But now many manufacturers tin the wires as an aid in soldering operations. Untinned copper wires are, however, quite common. Aluminium wires need no further process after the final drawing and annealing.

All copper cables and some aluminium cables have conductors which are made up from a number of wires.

These conductors are two basic types:

- Stranded
- Bunched

The latter type is used mainly for the smaller sizes of flexible cable and cord. The solid-core conductor (in the small sizes) is merely one single wire.

Most stranded conductors are built up on a single central conductor. Surrounding this conductor are layers of wires in a numerical progression of 6 in the first layer, 12 in the second layer, 18 in the third layer and so on. The number of wires contained in most common conductors is to be found in the progression 7, 19, 37, 61, 127.

Stranded conductors containing more than one layer of wires are made in such a way that the direction of lay of the wires in each layer is of the reverse hand to those of adjacent layers. The flexibility of these layered conductors is good in the smaller sizes (E.g. 61/2.25 mm).

When the maximum amount of flexibility is required the 'bunching' method is used. The essential difference of this method from 'stranding' is that all the wires forming the conductor are given the same direction of lay. A further improvement in flexibility is obtained by the use of small-diameter wires, instead of the heavier gauges as used in stranded cables.

When more than one core is to be enclosed within a single sheath, oval and sector-shaped conductors are often used.

It is of interest to note that when working out the dc resistance of stranded conductors, allowance must be made for the fact that, apart from the central wire, the individual strands in a stranded conductor follow a helical path - and so are slightly longer than the cable itself. The average figure is 2 per cent. This means that if a stranded conductor is 100 m long, only the centre strand is this length. The other wires surrounding it will be anything up to 106 m in length.

Because aluminium is very malleable, many of the heavier cables using this material as the conductor have solid cores, rather than stranded. A saving in cost is claimed for the solid-core aluminium conductor cable.

Conductors for overhead lines are often strengthened by a central steel core which takes the weight of the copper conductors between the poles or pylons. Copper and aluminium are used for overhead lines.

Conductor sizes are indicated by their cross sectional area (csa). Smaller sizes tend to be single strand conductors; larger sizes are stranded. Cable sizes are standardized, starting at 1 mm<sup>2</sup>, and then increasing to 1.5, 2.5, 4, 6, 10, 16, 25 and 35 mm<sup>2</sup>. As cable sizes increase in csa the gaps between them also increase. The large sizes of armoured mains cable from 25 mm<sup>2</sup> tend to have shaped stranded conductors.

## **9.2 INSULATORS:**

Many materials are used for the insulation of cable conductors. The basic function of any cable insulation is to confine the electric current to a definite path; that is, to the



conductor only. Thus, insulating materials chosen for this duty must be Efficient and able to withstand the stress of the working voltage of the supply system to which the cable is connected. The following are some of the more common materials used for cable insulation:

### **9.2.1 Rubber:**

This was one of the most common insulating materials until it was largely replaced by PVC. In old wiring systems it is found in its 'vulcanised form', which is I rubber with about 5 per cent sulphur. It is flexible, impervious to water but suffers (it hardens and become brittle) when exposed to a temperature above 55°C. Because the feulphur content in the rubber attacks copper, the wires are always tinned. About the only application for rubber as insulation material for conductors nowadays is in domestic flexibles used for hand appliances such as electric irons. The working temperature is 60°C.

### **9.2.2 85°C rubber:**

This material is a synthetic rubber designed for working temperatures up to 85°C. It is in its flexible cord format used for hot situations such as immersion heaters and night storage heaters where the heat from elements can travel into the flexible -conductors. As a sheathing material it is susceptible to oil and grease and thus such flexibles are sheathed with chloro-sulphonated polyethylene (C.S.P.). This type of sheath is known as HOFr. Often used for heavy-duty applications, it is found in its larger csa sizes feeding exterior equipment such as mobile cranes and conveyors.

### **9.2.3 Silicone rubber:**

This material is sometimes designated 150°C. Insulation and can operate in a continuous temperature up to that level. Applications of this fire-resistant cable include the wiring fire alarm, security and emergency lighting circuits where there is a need for these circuit to function in fire conditions. It is also useful when connections have to be made to terminals in enclosures in which heat might be considerable, such as in enclosed lamp fittings and heaters.

#### **9.2.4 PVC:**

This material is polyvinyl chloride and is now the most common insulating material used for cables and flexibles at low voltages. Its insulating properties are actually less than those for rubber. However it is impervious to water and oil and can be self-coloured without impairing its insulation resistance qualities. The maximum working temperature is 70°C, above which the PVC will tend to become plastic and melt. If PVC is exposed to a continuous temperature of around 115°C it will produce a corrosive substance which will attack copper and brass terminals. At low temperatures, around 0°C, the PVC tends to become brittle and it is not recommended for PVC cables to be installed in freezing conditions. Apart from its use as conductor insulation, it is used as a sheathing material. Its most common form is in the cables used for domestic wiring and for domestic flexibles.

#### **9.2.5 Paper:**

Paper has been used as an insulating material from the very early days of the electrical industry. The paper however, is impregnated to increase its insulating qualities and to prevent its being impaired by moisture. Paper-insulated cables, usually of the large csa sizes, are terminated in cable boxes sealed with resin or compound, to prevent ingress of moisture. The cables are sheathed with lead and armoured with steel or aluminium wire or tape. Such cables are mainly used for large loads at high voltages.

#### **9.2.6 Mineral Insulation:**

This is composed of magnesium oxide powder and is used in the type of cable known as MIMS with the sheath usually made from copper. It was originally developed to withstand both fire and explosion, but is now used for more general applications. The cable is non-ageing and can be operated with sheath temperatures of up to 250°C. Because the magnesium oxide is hygroscopic (it absorbs moisture) the cable ends must always be sealed. The temperature limits of the seals depend on the cable's application.

#### **9.2.7 Glass Insulation:**

This material is very heat-resistant and is used for temperatures as high as 180°C. As glass-fibre, the insulation takes the form of impregnated glass-fibre lappings, with

impregnated glass-fibre braiding. This insulation is found commonly in the internal wiring of electric cookers or other appliances where the cable must be impervious to moisture, resistant to heat and be tough and flexible.

### **9.3 CABLES:**

The range of types of cables used in electrical work is very wide: from heavy lead-sheathed and armoured paper-insulated cables to the domestic flexible cable used to connect a hair-drier to the supply. Lead, tough-rubber, PVC and other types of sheathed cables used for domestic and industrial wiring are generally placed under the heading of power cables. There are, however, other insulated copper conductors (they are sometimes aluminium) which, though by definition are termed cables, are sometimes not regarded as such. Into this category fall those rubber and PVC insulated conductors drawn into some form of conduit or trunking for domestic and factory wiring, and similar conductors employed for the wiring of electrical equipment. In addition, there are the various types of insulated flexible conductors including those used for portable appliances and pendant fittings.

The main group of cables is 'flexible cables', so termed to indicate that they consist of one or more cores, each containing a group of wires, the diameters of the wires and the construction of the cables being such that they afford flexibility.

#### **9.3.1 Single-core:**

These are natural or tinned copper wires. The insulating materials include butyl-rubber (known also as 85 °C rubber insulated cables), silicone-rubber (150 °C, EP-rubber) (Ethylene propylene), and the more familiar PVC. The synthetic rubbers are provided with braiding and are self-coloured. The IEE Regulations recognize these insulating materials for twin-and multi-core flexible cables rather than for use as single conductors in conduit or trunking wiring systems. But they are available from cable manufacturers for specific installation requirements. Sizes vary from 1.00 to 36 mm<sup>2</sup> (PVC) and 50 mm (synthetic rubbers).

#### **9.3.2 Two-core:**

Two-core or 'twin' cables are flat or circular. The insulation and sheathing materials are those used for single-core cables. The circular cables require cotton filler threads to gain the circular shape. Flat cables have their two cores laid side by side.

### **9.3.3 Three-core:**

These cables are the same in all respects to single and two-core cables except, of course, they carry three cores.

### **9.3.4 Composite cables:**

Composite cables are those which, in addition to carrying the current-carrying Circuit conductors, also contain a circuit-protective conductor.

To summarize, the following groups of cable types and applications are to be found in electrical work, and the electrician, at one time or another during his career, may be asked to install them.

### **9.3.5 Wiring Cables:**

Switchboard wiring: domestic and workshop flexible cables and cords. Mainly copper conductors.

### **9.3.6 Power Cables:**

Heavy cables, generally lead-sheathed and armoured; control cables for electrical equipment. Both copper and aluminium conductors.

### **9.3.7 Mining Cables:**

In this field cables are used for trailing cables to supply equipment; shot-firing cables; roadway lighting; lift-shaft wiring; signalling, telephone and control cables. Adequate protection and fireproofing are features of cables for this application field.

### **9.3.8 Ship-wiring Cables:**

These cables are generally lead-sheathed and armoured, and mineral-insulated, metal-sheathed. Cable must comply with Lloyd's Rules and Regulations, and with admiralty requirements.

### **9.3.9 Overhead Cables:**

Bare, lightly-insulated and insulated conductors of copper, copper-cadmium and aluminium generally, sometimes with steel core for added strength. For overhead distribution cables are PVC and in most cases comply with British Telecom Requirements

### **9.3.10 Communications Cables:**

This group includes television down-leads and radio-relay cables; radio frequency cables; telephone cables.

### **9.3.11 Welding Cables:**

These are flexible cables and heavy cords with either copper or aluminium conductors.

### **9.3.12 Electric-sign Cables:**

PVC and rubber insulated cables for high-voltage discharge lamps (neon, etc.).

### **9.3.13 Equipment Wires:**

Special wires for use with instruments often insulated with special materials such as silicone, rubber and irradiated polythene.

### **9.3.14 Appliance-wiring Cables:**

This group includes high-temperature cables for electric radiators, cookers and so on. Insulation used includes nylon, asbestos and varnished cambric.

### **9.3.15 Heating Cables:**

Cables for floor-warming, road-heating, soil-warming, ceiling-heating and similar applications.

### **9.3.16 Flexible Cords:**

A flexible cord is defined as a flexible cable in which the csa of each conductor does not exceed 4 mm<sup>2</sup>. The most common types of flexible cords are used in domestic and light industrial work. The diameter of each strand or wire varies from 0.21 to 0.31 mm. Flexible cords come in many sizes and types; for convenience they are grouped as follows:

### **9.3.17 Twin-twisted:**

These consist of two single insulated stranded conductors twisted together to form a two-core cable. Insulation used is vulcanised rubber and PVC. Colour identification in red and black is often provided. The rubber is protected by a braiding of cotton, glazed-cotton, rayon-braiding and artificial silk. The PVC insulated conductors are not provided with additional protection.

### **9.3.18 Three-core (twisted):**

Generally as twin-twisted cords but with a third conductor coloured green, for Earthing lighting fittings.

### **9.3.19 Twin-circular:**

This flexible cord consists of two conductors twisted together with cotton filler threads, coloured brown and blue, and enclosed within a protective braiding of cotton or nylon. For industrial applications, the protection is through rubber or PVC.

### **9.3.20 Three-core (circular):**

Generally as twin-core circular except that the third conductor is coloured green and yellow for earthing purposes.



### **9.3.21 Four-core (circular):**

Generally as twin-core circular. Colours are brown and blue.

### **9.3.22 Parallel-twin:**

These are two stranded conductors laid together in parallel and insulated to form a uniform cable with rubber or PVC

### **9.3.23 Twin-core (flat):**

This consists of two stranded conductors insulated with rubber, coloured red and black, laid side and braided with artificial silk.

### **9.3.24 Flexible Cables:**

These cables are made with stranded conductors, the diameters being 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 and 0.6 mm. They are generally used for trailing cables and similar applications where heavy currents up to 630 an are to be carried, for instance, to welding plant.

## EARTHING

The purpose of earthing is to ensure that no person operating an electrical installation can receive an electric shock which could cause injury or a fatality. In simple terms, 'earthing' involves the connection of all metalwork associated with the electrical installation with protective conductors ( CPCs ) which are terminated at a common point, the main earth terminal. This terminal is further connected to a proven earth connection which can be the supply authority's wire-armoured supply cable, an over head line conductor or an earth electrode driven directly into the soil. The availability of one or other of these connections depends on the type of electrical system used to supply electricity.

Apart from the 'exposed conductive parts' found in an installation, there is other metalwork which has nothing to do with the electrical installation but which could become live in the event of a fault to earth. This metalwork is known as 'extraneous conductive parts' and includes hot and cold water pipes, radiators, structural steelwork, metal-topped sink units and metallic ducting used for ventilation. These parts are connected by means of,

- (a) Main bonding conductors and
- (b) supplementary bonding conductors.

The former are used to bond together metallic services at their point of entry into a building. The latter are used to bond together metallic pipes and the like within the installation. These bonding conductors are also taken to the installation's main earth terminal. Thus all metalwork in a building is at earth potential.

Once all CPCs and bonding conductors are taken to the main earth terminal, the building is known as an 'equipotential zone' and acts as a kind of safety cage in which persons can be reasonably assured of being safe from serious electric shock. Any electrical equipment taken outside the equipotential zone, such as an electric lawnmower, must be fed from a socket-outlet which incorporates a residual current device (RCD). The word equipotential simply means that every single piece of metal in the building is at earth potential.



The earthing of all metalwork does not complete the protection against electric shock offered to the consumer. Overcurrent devices are required to operate within either 6.5 second or 4 second if a fault to earth occurs. And the use of RCDs also offers further protection in situations when an earth fault may not produce sufficient current to operate overcurrent protective devices.

Even before the days of electricity supply on a commercial scale, the soil has been used as a conductor for electrical currents. In early telegraphy systems the earth was used as a return conductor. The early scientists discovered that charges of Electricity could be dissipated by connecting a charged body to general mass of earth by fusing suitable electrodes, of which the earliest form was a metal plate (the earth plate). But the earth has many failings as a conductor. This is because the resistance of soils varies with their composition. When completely dry, most soils and rocks are non-conductors of electricity. The exceptions to this are of course, where metallic minerals are present to form conducting paths. Sands, loams and rocks can therefore be regarded as non-conductors; but when water or moisture is present; their resistivity drops to such a low value that they become conductors though very poor ones. This means that the resistivity drops to such a low poor ones. This means that the resistivity of a soil is determined by the quantity of water present in it and on the resistivity of the water itself, it also means that conduction through the soil is in effect conduction through the water, and so is of an electrolytic nature.

For all that the earth is an inefficient conductor, it is widely used in electrical work. There are three main functions of earthing:

- To maintain the potential of any part of a system at a definite value respect to earth.
- To allow current to flow to earth in the event of fault, so that the protective gear will operate to isolate the faulty circuit.
- To make sure that, in the event of a fault, apparatus normally 'dead' cannot reach a dangerous potential with respect to earth.

IEE Regulation 130 - 04 states that where metalwork, other than current-ferrying conductors, is liable to become charged with electricity in such a manner as to Create a danger if the insulation of a conductor should become defective, or if a defect Should occur in any apparatus (I) the metalwork shall be earthed in such a manner as will ensure immediate electrical discharge without danger.

The basic reason for earthing is to prevent or to minimize the risk of shock to human beings. If an earth fault occurs in an installation it means that a live conductor has come into contact with metal-work to cause the metalwork to become live that is, to reach the same potential or voltage as the live conductor. Any person touching the metalwork, and who is standing on a non insulating floor, will receive an electric shock as the result of the current flowing through the body to earth. If however, the metalwork is connected to the general mass of earth through a low resistance path, the circuit now becomes a parallel branch circuit with:

- A. the human body as one branch with a resistance of, say, 10 000 ohms; and,
- B. the CPC fault path as the other branch with a resistance of 1 ohm or less

The result of properly earthed metalwork is that by far the greater proportion of fault-current will flow through the low-resistance path, so limiting the amount of current is really heavy ( as in a direct short circuit) then a fuse will blow or a protective device will operate. However an earth fault current may flow with a value not sufficient to blow a fuse yet more than enough to cause over heating at say, a loose connection to start a fire.

### **Regulations:**

The main basic requirements are:

- The complete insulation of all parts of an electrical system. This involves the use of apparatus of 'all-insulated\*' construction, which means that the insulation which encloses the apparatus is durable and substantially continuous.
- The use of appliances with double insulation conforming to the British Standard Specifications.
- The earthing of exposed metal parts
- The isolation of metalwork in such a manner that it is not liable to come into contact with any live parts or with earthed metalwork.

The basic requirements for good earthing are that the earthing arrangements of the consumer's installation are such that the occurrence of a fault of negligible impedance from a phase or non earthed conductor to adjacent exposed metal, a current corresponding to three

times the fuse rating or 1.5 times the setting of an overcurrent circuit breaker can flow, so that the faulty circuit is made dead. The earthing arrangement should be such that the maximum sustained voltage developed under fault conditions between exposed metal required to be earthed and the consumer's earth terminal should not exceed 50 V.

The IEE Regulations detail the metalwork found in premises, called 'extraneous conductive parts' which are required to be connected to the installations main earthing terminal. Bathroom and showers are also covered.

The CPC is the conductor which bonds all metalwork required to be earthed, if it is a separate conductor (insulated and green coloured green) it must be at least  $1/1.13$  ( $C_{sa} = 1.00 \text{ mm}^2$ ) and need not be greater than  $70 \text{ mm}^2$ . Note that conduit and trunking may be used as the sole CPC except in agricultural installations.

Where metal conduit is used as a CPC, a high standard of workmanship in Installation is essential. Joints must be really sound. Slackness in the joints may result in deterioration in, and even complete loss of, continuity. For outdoor installations and where otherwise subjected to atmospheric corrosion, screwed conduit installations, the liberal use of locknuts is recommended. Joints in all conduit systems should be painted overall after assembly. In mixed installations (e.g. aluminium-alloy conduit with steel fittings, or steel conduit with aluminium-alloy or zinc-base-alloy fittings) the following are sound recommendations to ensure the electrical continuity of joints.

All threads in aluminium or zinc alloys should be cut using a suitable lubricant. A protective material (e.g. petroleum jelly) should be applied to the threads in all materials when the joint are made up. All joints should be made tight. The use of locknuts is advised. In addition, it is recommended to apply bituminized paint to the outside of all joints after assembly. In damp conditions, electrolytic corrosion is liable to cur at contacts between dissimilar metals. To avoid this, all earthing clamps and fittings in contact with aluminium-base-alloy tubing should be of an alloy or finish hich is known from experience to be suitable. Copper or alloys with a high copper content, are particularly liable to cause corrosion when in contact with aluminium-base alloys. For this reason, brass fixing screws or saddles should not be used with conduit of fittings of aluminium base alloys. Periodical tests should be made to ensure that electrical continuity is satisfactorily maintained. Flexible conduits should not be used as a CPC. Where flexible tubing force part of an earthed metal conduit system, a separate copper-alloy CPC should be installed with the tubing and connected to it at each end.

The earth-conductor lead should be of a minimum size: 6 mm<sup>2</sup>, except 2.5 mm<sup>2</sup> is accepted for connection to an earth-leakage circuit-breaker. It must also be protected against mechanical damage and corrosion, and not less than half the largest size of the conductor to be protected, but need normally exceed 70 mm

There are a number of methods used to achieve the earthing of an installation:

- 1- Connection to the metal sheath and armouring of a supply authority underground supply cable
- 2- Connection to the continuous earth wire (CEW) provided by a supply authority where the distribution of energy is by overhead lines.
- 3- Connection to an earth electrode sunk in the ground for the purpose.
- 4- Installation of a protective-multiple earthing system.
- 5- Installation of automatic fault protection.

One disadvantage in using a mains water-pipe is that sections of the pipe may be placed by sections of non-conducting material (PVC or asbestos), which makes the pipe an inconsistent earth electrode. The provision of a cable sheath as an earthing connection is very common nowadays. Usually, however, it is accepted that if, for any reason, the earthing is subsequently proved ineffective, the supply authority except in those areas which have extremely high values of soil resistivity (e.g. peat and rock). The CEW is sometimes called an aerial earth. Connection to an earth electrode sunk in the ground is the most common means of earthing. The earth electrode can be any one of the following forms

**a ) Pipe:** Generally a 200 mm diameter cast-iron pipe, 2 m long and buried in a coke-filled pot. This type requires a certain amount of excavation; iron is, of course, prone to corrosion, particularly if the coke has high sulphur content.

**b ) Plate:** Plate electrodes are normally of cast-iron, buried vertically with the centre about 1 m below the surface. Copper plates may also be used. Plate electrodes

Provide a large surface area and used mainly where the ground is shallow (where the resistivity is low near the surface but increases rapidly with depth). Again, excavation is required. Care is needed to protect the earth-electrode connection (to the earthing lead) from corrosion.

## APPENDIX

**c ) Strip:** Copper strip is most useful in shallow soil overlying rock. The strip should be buried to a depth of not less than 50 cm.

**d ) Rods:** Rod electrodes are very economical and require no excavation for their installation. Because buried length is more important than diameter, the extensible, small-diameter copper rod has many advantages. It can, for instance, be driven into the ground so that the soil contact with the rod is close and definite. Extensible rods are of standard lengths and made from hard-drawn copper. They have a hardened steel tip and I steel driving cap. Sometimes the copper rod has a steel rod running through its centre for strength while it is being driven into rocky soil. Ribbed earth rods have wide vertical ribs to give a high degree of mechanical stiffness, so that they are not easily bent or deflected when driven into the ground.

Because the method used to connect the earthing lead to the earth electrode is important, all clamps and clips must conform to the requirements of the IEE Regulations.

The PME method gives protection against earth-fault conditions and uses the neutral of the incoming supply as the earth point or terminal. In this system of earthing, all protected metalwork is connected, by means of the installation CPCs, to the neutral-service conductor at the supply-intake position. By doing this, line-to-earth faults are converted into line-to-neutral faults. The reason for this is to ensure that sufficient current will flow under fault conditions to blow a fuse or trip an overload circuit-breaker, so isolating the faulty circuit from the supply.

Residual-current ELCBs are now only recognized by the Regulations. The basic principle of operation depends upon more current flowing into the live side of the primary winding than leaves by the neutral or other return (earth) conductor. The essential part of the residual-current ELCB is a transformer with opposed windings carrying the incoming and outgoing current. In a healthy circuit, where the values of current in the windings are equal, the magnetic effects cancel each other out. However, a fault will cause an out-of-balance condition and create a magnetic effect in the transformer core which links with the turns of a small secondary winding. An emf is induced in this winding. The secondary winding is permanently connected to the trip coil of the circuit-breaker.

### BEDROOM #1

Dimensions: 4,1 x 4,55 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 18,62 / ((4,55 + 4,1) * 2) \quad k = 1,07$$

$$n = 0,36 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (50 * 18,62) / (0,8 * 0,36) \quad \Phi_t = 3232,63 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L$  = TC-EL-N 23 Watt 1500 lumen lamp

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 3232,63 / 1500 \quad N = 2,15 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = 2 * 1500 * 0,36 * 0,8 \quad E = 48,6 \text{ lux}$$

Using 2 lamps for this room

### BEDROOM #2

Dimensions: 3,6 x 3,2 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 11,24 / ((3,6 + 3,2) * 2) \quad k = 0,826$$

$$n = 0,31 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (50 * 11,24) / (0,8 * 0,36) \quad \Phi_t = 2266,12 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L$  = A-65 150 Watt 2200 lumen lamp

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 2266,12 / 2200 \quad N = 1.03 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = 1 * 2200 * 0,31 * 0,8 \quad E = 48,54 \text{ lux}$$

1 lamp is enough for this room

### BEDROOM #3

Dimensions: 3,1 x 4,15 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 12,57 / ((4,55 + 4,1)*2) \quad k = 0,866$$

take the interpolation =>  $n = Y_2 + ((X_2 - X_1) / (X_3 - X_1)) * (Y_3 - Y_1)$

$$n = 0,8 + (0,06 / 0,2) * 0,05 \quad n = 0,325 \quad m = 0,8 \text{ Dirt factor}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (50 * 12,57) / (0,8 * 0,325) \quad \Phi_t = 2417,3 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L = \text{TC-EL-N 23 Watt 1500 lumen lamp}$

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 2417,3 / 1500 \quad N = 1,6 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (2 * 1500 * 0,325 * 0,8) / 12,57 \quad E = 48,6 \text{ lux}$$

Using 2 lamps for this room

### KITCHEN

Dimensions: 3,4 x 4,7 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 16 / ((3,4 + 4,7)*2) \quad k = 0,99$$

$$n = 0,36 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0,8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (125 * 16) / (0,8 * 0,36) \quad \Phi_t = 6944,4 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L = \text{A-65 150 Watt 2200 lumen lamp}$

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 6944,4 / 2200 \quad N = 3,15 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 4 * 2200 * 0,36 * 0,8) / S \quad E = 54,6 \text{ lux}$$

4 lamps is enough for this room

## GUEST ROOM

Dimensions: 3,7 x 3,75 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 13,9 / ((3,7+3,75)*2) \quad k = 0,93$$

$$\text{take the interpolation} \Rightarrow n = Y_2 + ((X_2 - X_1) / (X_3 - X_1)) * (Y_3 - Y_1)$$

$$n = 0,31 + (0,13 / 0,2) * 0,05 \quad n = 0,324 \quad m = 0,8 \text{ Dirt factor}$$

$$\phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \phi_t = (50 * 13,9) / (0,8 * 0,324) \quad \phi_t = 2681 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\phi_L$  = TC-EL-N 23 Watt 1500 lumen lamp

$$N = \phi_t / \phi_L \quad N = 2681,32 / 1500 \quad N = 1,78 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (2 * 1500 * 0,324 * 0,8) / 13,9 \quad E = 54,2 \text{ lux}$$

Using 2 lamps for this room

## SALOON

Dimensions :4,9 x 3,65 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b)*H) \quad k = 17,9 / ((4,9 + 3,65)*2) \quad k = 1,04$$

$$n = 0,36 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0,8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \phi_t = (125 * 17,9) / (0,8 * 0,36) \quad \phi_t = 3107,6 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\phi_L$  = TC-EL-N 23 Watt 2200 lumen lamp

$$N = \phi_t / \phi_L \quad N = 3107,6 / 1500 \quad N = 2,07 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 2 * 1500 * 0,36 * 0,8) / 17,9 \quad E = 53,6$$

2 lamps is enough for this room

## ENTRANCE



Dimensions: 3,1 x 1,8 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b) * H) \quad k = 5,58 / ((3,1 + 1,8) * 2) \quad k = 0,6$$

$$n = 0,24 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (50 * 5,58) / (0,8 * 0,24) \quad \Phi_t = 1453,125 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L$  = TC-EL-N 23 Watt 1500 lumen lamp

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 1453,125 / 1500 \quad N = 0,9 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 1500 * 0,26 * 0,8) / 5,58 \quad E = 54 \text{ lux}$$

1 lamp is enough for this room

## WC

Dimensions: 1,1 x 2,4 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b) * H) \quad k = 2,63 / ((1,1 + 2,4) * 2) \quad k = 0,375$$

$$n = 0,15 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\Phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \Phi_t = (50 * 2,63) / (0,8 * 0,15) \quad \Phi_t = 1095,83 \text{ lumen.}$$

$\Phi_L$  = TC-EL-N 20 Watt 1200 lumen lamp

$$N = \Phi_t / \Phi_L \quad N = 1095,83 / 1200 \quad N = 0,8 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \Phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 1500 * 0,15 * 0,8) / 2,63 \quad E = 51 \text{ lux}$$

1 lamp is enough for this room

## BATHROOM

Dimensions : 2 x 2,5 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b) * H) \quad k = 4,53 / ((2 + 2,25) * 2) \quad k = 0,53$$

$$n = 0,21 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \phi_t = (50 * 4,53) / (0,8 * 0,21) \quad \phi_t = 1348,21 \text{ lumen.}$$

$$\phi_L = A \text{ 65 150 Watt 2200 lumen lamp}$$

$$N = \phi_t / \phi_L \quad N = 1348,21 / 1500 \quad N = 0,9 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 2 * 1500 * 0,36 * 0,8) / 17,9 \quad E = 53,6$$

1 lamps is enough for this room

## CORRIDOR

Dimensions : 1,3 x 5,65 x 3 meters

$$H = h_1 - (h_2 + h_3) \quad H = 3 - (0,8 + 0,2) = 2 \text{ meters.}$$

$$k = S / ((a+b) * H) \quad k = 7,35 / ((1,3 + 5,65) * 2) \quad k = 0,52$$

$$n = 0,21 \quad \text{..Choosing from the table...} \quad m = 0.8 \text{ Dirt Factor.}$$

$$\phi_t = (E * S) / (m * n) \quad \phi_t = (50 * 7,35) / (0,8 * 0,21) \quad \phi_t = 2187,5 \text{ lumen.}$$

$$\phi_L = A \text{ 65 150 Watt 2200 lumen lamp}$$

$$N = \phi_t / \phi_L \quad N = 2187,5 / 2200 \quad N = 0,9 \text{ lamps}$$

$$E = (N * \phi_L * m * n * z) / S \quad E = (1 * 2 * 1500 * 0,36 * 0,8) / 17,9 \quad E = 53,6$$

1 lamps is enough for this room

## CONCLUSION

It is important to choose the proper materials or elements in building installation and project. (The materials, such as fuse, socket, switch, cable, and conduit are used). In what condition and where they are used are investigated.

If electrical installation does not wire properly, then it can cause the fire or it can damage whole cables in the building. Therefore, electrician should be careful while drowning the electrical installation project. The project must be suitable for Turkish standard.

The Electrical Installation Project bases on how installation should be; what is paid attention in drowning the project and how it should be drowned. (The materials used by electrician in grounding).

It is better to choose proper materials used in grounding by electrician and they should be convenient for Turkish standard institute.

This project helps us to obtain information about calculation how we make according to what rules and the importance of grounding for human life, and we get detail information on the characteristics of materials which are used in buildings.

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