

Abbreviations, nomenclature and symbols

APR	axial power rating	ε	surface property, termed emissivity, $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1$
BJT	bipolar junction transistor	ε_a	apparent emissivity of a channel
CoP	coefficient of performance	ε_o	free space permittivity, 8.854×10^{-12} F/m
CTE	coefficient of thermal expansion	ε_r	relative dielectric constant
CVD	chemical vapour deposition	ε_s	dielectric permittivity $\varepsilon_s = \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_o$
DCB	direct copper bonding	η_f	fin efficiency
EBL	electron beam lithography	η_v	volumetric heat transfer efficiency
EGS	electronic grade polysilicon	θ	contact angle, rad,
GTO	gate turn-off (thyristor)	θ_f	volume figure, dimensionless
IGBT	insulated gate bipolar transistor	λ	thermal conductivity, W/cm.K
LPCVD	low pressure CVD	λ	latent heat, J/kg
MBE	molecular beam epitaxy	λ	wavelength
MCB	miniature circuit breaker	λ_{eff}	effective thermal conductivity for a heat pipe
MFD	magneto-fluid-dynamic	μ_n, μ_p	hole/electron mobility, $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$
MMF	magnetomotive force	$\mu_o \mu_m \mu_{rc}$	permeability of vacuum/air, magnet, recoil
MOSFET	metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistor	ν	absolute fluid kinematic viscosity, Ns/m^2 , Pa
<i>mtbf</i>	mean time between failures	ξ	electric potential, V/m
<i>mttf</i>	mean time to failure	ξ_b	breakdown field, V/m
NTD	neutron transmutation doping	ρ	resistivity, $\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$
PC	permeance coefficient ($B_d / \mu_o H_d$)	ρ_m	density of the heatsink material, kg/m^3
PCM	phase change material	ρ_f	density of working fluid (e.g. air, liquid) medium, (= $1/\nu$ specific volume), kg/m^3
PECVD	plasma enhanced CVD	σ	conductivity, $\Omega^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$
POH	power on hours	σ	Stefen-Boltzmann constant, $5.667 \times 10^{-8} \text{W}/\text{m}^2\text{K}^4$
PSG	phospho-silicate glass	σ	surface tension, N/m
PVD	physical vapour deposition	σ_p	symmetrical standard deviation, cm
PVT	physical vapour transport	τ	period of the switching interval (both on and off), s
RIE	reactive ion etching	τ	thermal time constant, s
s/b	second breakdown	τ_h, τ_e	minority carrier hole/electron lifetime, s
ScD	skeleton cemented diamond	φ	kT/q , thermal voltage, built in potential, V
SCR	silicon controlled rectifier	Φ	zero external bias, built-in, junction potential or scl potential, V
SOA	safe operating area	Φ_b	Schottky barrier height
TEC	thermoelectric cooler	Φ_f	pressure figure, dimensionless parameter
TIM	thermal interface material	ω	rotational (angular) velocity at the perimeter
α	gate threshold temperature dependence coefficient	A	total surface area (of die/outside/heatsink fins and base between fins) involved in the heat transfer, cooling, m^2
α	temperature coefficient of on-state resistance	A_e, A_c	effective evaporator and condenser surface areas
α	thermal coefficient of linear expansion, K^{-1}	A_g, A_m	cross-sectional area of air gap, magnet
α	current transfer ratio	A_x	cross sectional area (fin), m^2
α_o	current transfer ratio in mid current region	b	thickness of the heat sink, mm
α_s	characteristic life (hours)	b_t	base transport factor
β	base-to-collector current amplification factor	B	magnetic flux density (induction)
β_f	forward current gain	B_d	flux density in magnet at operating point on demagnetization curve
β_Q	GTO turn-off gain	B_g	flux density in air gap
β_r	reverse current gain	$(BH)_{max}$	maximum energy product
β_s	shape parameter	B_i	intrinsic flux density (induction) in a magnet
γ	surface tension, N/m	B_r	residual induction in magnet
γ_i	injection efficiency	B_{sat}	saturation flux density
Γ	gamma function	cd	critical line width
δ	on-state duty cycle factor	c_o	specific heat capacity of the cooling fluid at constant pressure, $\text{W}/\text{m}\Delta T$, J/kg.K
$\delta T, \Delta T$	temperature difference between regions of heat transfer, $T_2 - T_1$, K	C	linear rate constant
ΔP	system static pressure loss [1Pascal = $1\text{N}/\text{m}^2$,]	C_a	capacitance per unit area of the gate oxide, ε/t_{ox}
ΔP_{cmax}	maximum capillary pressure difference between the evaporator and condenser		
ΔP_g	hydrostatic pressure drop		
$\Delta P_{liquid}, \Delta P_{vapour}$	viscous pressure drops in liquid and vapour phases		
P_v	velocity pressure, $1/2\rho v^2$		
ΔT	thermal shock temperature		
ΔT	desired air temperature differential (enclosure inlet to discharge ambient air), K		
ΔT_{sa}	average temperature difference between heat sink and ambient air		

C_{ds}	non-linear voltage-dependent drain to the source capacitance
C_{gd}	non-linear voltage-dependent gate to the drain capacitance
C_{gs}	non-linear voltage-dependent gate to the source capacitance
C_f	correction factor for position and surface emissivity of heat-sink orientation
C_{in}	gate input capacitance, approximately $C_{gd} + C_{gs}$, or C_{iss}
C_{iss}	input capacitance
$C_j(V)$	voltage dependant scl capacitance, F
C_{j0}	zero bias junction capacitance, F
C_{ob}	output capacitance, essentially C_{ds}
C_{oss}	common source output capacitance
C_r	basic dynamic load capacity, kg
C_R	correction factor
C_{rss}	reverse transfer capacitance
C_{sf}	fluid surface combination constant
$C_t(V)$	voltage dependant transit capacitance, F
d	diameter, m
d_1	n ⁻ drift region width
di_F/dt	forward current rate of change, A/s
di_{rr}/dt	reverse recovery current rate of change, A/s
dm/dt	mass evaporation rate
dv/dt	anode impressed dv/dt
D	diffusion or diffusivity coefficient, $\mu kT/q = \lambda / \gamma C_p$, m ² /s
D_o	outer diameter of the fan impeller, m
D_H	diameter (hydraulic/bore), mm
D_n, D_p	hole/electron carrier diffusivity
DN_L	speed limit, rpm-mm
E	emf, circuit applied reverse voltage
E_a	activation or threshold energy, eV
E_g	band gap, eV
E_o	diode model on-state voltage source, V
f	friction factor (loss coefficient)
f_s	switching frequency, Hz
$F(t)$	cumulative distribution function, a function of age t
\mathfrak{F}_m	magnetomotive force
g	gap
g_f	gravitational acceleration, m/s ²
g_{fs}	amplification factor, forward <i>transconductance n-channel</i> ,
g_d	output conductance
G	volumetric fluid flow rate, m ³ /s
h	convection/conduction thermal heat transfer coefficient (of surface material) W/m ² K
h_r	radiation heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² K
H	capillary or lifting height, height of the fin, length (of heat sink base), m
HP	impeller input power to rotate
$H(t)$	hazard rate, failure rate or hazard function
H	magnetic field strength, magnetizing force, demagnetizing force
H_c	coercive force
H_{ci}	intrinsic coercive force
H_d	demagnetizing force at operating point of magnet on demagnetization curve
H_g	magnetizing force in air gap
i_R	leakage current, A
i_F	forward current, A
i_{rr}	reverse recovery current
I	current, A
I_b	base current
I_b	reverse voltage breakdown diode current, A
I_{bf}	forward base current
I_{br}	reverse base current
I_c	collector current
I_{ceo}	collector current when $i_b = 0$ for $V_{(BR)ceo}$

I_{cer}	collector current when $R_{be} = R$, for $V_{(BR)cer}$
I_{ces}	collector current when $V_{be} = 0$ for $V_{(BR)ces}$
I_{ceX}	collector current when $V_{eb} = X$, for $V_{(BR)ceX}$
I_d	drain current n-channel
I_{dp}	drain current p-channel
I_{DQ}	positive - negative temperature coefficient boundary
I_{te}	TE current drawn
I_e	emitter current, A
I_{GQ}	reverse gate current, A
I_G, I_g	SCR/triac gate current
I_F	diode (maximum) forward current, A
I_{FMG}	peak forward gate current, A
I_g	gate current, A
I_{GT}, V_{GT}	minimum trigger values
I_G, V_G	dc gate signal
I_{GQ}	GTO minimum negative gate current at anode current I_{GTQ}
I_H	holding current, $I_{Latch} > I_H$
I_K, I_A	SCR cathode/anode/gate current, A
I_L	load current, A
I_{Latch}	anode latching current, $I_{Latch} > I_H$
I_m	maximum current level, A
I_{nom}	nominal current, A
I_o	reverse (saturation) leakage current, A
I_{RG}	negative gate current, A
I_{RM}	peak reverse recovery current, A
I_T	GTO on-state current, A
I_{tail}	storage current level, A
I_{RRM}, I_{DRM}	reverse leakage and forward blocking current, A
I_{TSM}	peak one cycle surge on-state current, A
I_{rms}	rms current, A
I^*t	thermal energy crated rating, A ² s
J	flux – heat, impurities
J_R	reverse recovery W.s/pulse,
$J1, J1, J1$	SCR junctions
k	constant
k	Boltzmann's constant, 1.38×10^{-23} , J/K
k_{exp}	load factor specific to the system, determined experimentally
k_t	leakage coefficient
k_r	loss or reluctance factor
k_D	characteristics dimension of the geometry
k_T	grease temperature factor
K	heat transfer coefficient constant units
K	thermal resistance pu area, cm ² /W
K_g, K_m, K_p, K_{HP}	constants for geometrically and dynamic operation
K_w	wire current constant
ℓ	vertical height in the direction of the airflow
ℓ	thickness of insulation, m
ℓ	distance (thickness)
ℓ	length
ℓ_g, ℓ_m	length of air gap, magnet
ℓ_m	line resolution
L	heat of vaporization per unit mass
L	length (of cold plate), m
L	characteristic passage length of the microchannel
L	fin depth
L	circuit inductance, H
L, W, t	length/width/thickness, m
L_c	effective channel length
L_{eff}	effective length, $\frac{1}{2}(L_{evaporator} + L_{condenser}) + L_{adiabatic}$
L_p	minority carrier diffusion length
L_t	service life, hours

L_w	sound pressure level, dB
$L_2 L_{10}$	life for 98%, 90% survival, second and tenth percentiles
m	breakdown multiplication exponent
m	mass (weight) of object, kg (density x volume)
m_f	mass flow rate of air/fluid through enclosure/heatsink, (equal to $\rho v_f s L$), kg/s
M	voltage dependant avalanche multiplication effect
M_f	merit number (liquid transport factor), W/m^2
n	exponent
n_i	intrinsic carrier concentration, $1.4 \times 10^{10} / \text{cc}$
n_f	number of fins
n_q	airflow quality constant
\bar{n}	index of refraction
N_D, N_A	donor/acceptor concentration, cm^{-3}
N	speed (fan impeller), rps/rpm
N	number of cycles
NA	numerical aperture
N_B	background doping, cm^{-3}
N_c	concentration of the lighter doped region /cc
N_{nom}	nominal speed
Nu	Nusselt number, non-dimensional heat transfer coefficient, $h\delta/k, AR_e^m Pr^n$
p, n	electron/hole concentration, cm^{-3}
p_o, n_o	hole/electron equilibrium carrier concentrations, cm^{-3}
P	mean heat added (or being removed - dissipated) from the object, W, watts
P	heat transport rate
P	equivalent dynamic bearing load, kg
P	pressure
P	permeance (inverse of reluctance)
P_{cold}	amount of heat absorbed at the cold surface of TEC, W
P_c	conduction power loss
P_c	permeance coefficient
P_d	heat load (lost/gained), electrical power dissipated, rate of radiated heat transfer, W
P_D	amount/conducted heat dissipated (in enclosure, transferred to cooling system), W
P_{Dtotal}	total power to be dissipated
P_d	maximum allowable power dissipation, W
P_{ref}	reference pressure
P_{max}	maximum power
P_{hot}	minimum total heat to be rejected by the heat exchanger on the hot side
P_G	drive input device power loss
P_{GM}, P_G	peak and mean gate power
P_f	off-state leakage power loss
P_L	load electrical power dissipation, W
P_{RQ}	storage and fall time power loss
P_s	switching transition power loss
P_{tec}	TEC input dc power
P_{to}	initial heat pumping capacity when ΔT is zero
P_{it}	heat pumping capacity at desired ΔT and heat-pumping capacity is decreased
P_T	power transported by the heat pipe
P_{\square}	fin perimeter, m
PWL	sound power level
q	electron charge, $1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$
Q	pool boiling heat transfer rate
Q_{flow}	heat flow
Q_o	zero bias sci charge, C
Q_R	reverse recovery charge, $Q_1 + Q_2$, C
Q_T	total gate charge
Q_{Σ}	total recovery charge, C
r	radius, m
r_c	effective capillary radius
$r(t_p)$	normalising factor

R	resistance, Ω
R_{be}	models the lateral p-body resistance
$R_{ds(on)}$	on-resistance n/p-channel
R_d	deposition rate
Re	Reynolds number, ratio of inertia forces to viscous forces in the fluid, $V\delta/\nu$
R_g	gate resistance
R_{gint}	internal gate resistance
R_{gext}	external gate resistance
R_l	resistance modelling linear leakage current, Ω
R_L	load resistance, Ω
R_o	diode model series resistance, Ω
R_s	sheet resistance, Ω/square
R_t	thermal resistance of one channel
R_{θ}	thermal resistivity/resistivity
$R_{\theta j-c}$	virtual junction to case thermal resistance, K/W
$R_{\theta j-a}$	total thermal resistance from the virtual junction to the open air (ambient), K/W
$R_{\theta c-s}$	case-to-heat-sink thermal resistance, K/W
$R_{\theta s-a}$	heat-sinking thermal resistance
\mathcal{R}_m	magnet reluctance
s	fin spacing
S	initial dose per unit area at the surface, cm^{-2}
S_f, S_{fm}, S_{fs}	S_{fs} selectivity (mask, substrate)
S_G	grease half-life subtraction factor
S_N	speed half-life subtraction factor
S_P	load half-life subtraction factor
SPL	sound pressure level, decibels, dB(A)
S_r	snap-off and soft recovery diode properties
$S_{\%}$	half-life subtraction factor
$S_{\%s}$	fraction of solids
t	fin/plate thickness
t	time (required to cool down (or heat up) object), s
t_d	delay time
$t_{d off}$	turn-off delay time
$t_{d on}$	turn-on delay
t_{fi}	current fall time
t_{fr}	forward recovery characteristics of time
t_{fv}	voltage fall time
t_p	power pulse width
t_o	time to zero current, s
t_{off}	turn-off time, $t_s + t_{fi}$
t_{on}	turn-on time, $t_d + t_{fi}$
t_{ox}	oxide thickness, m
t_{ri}	current rise time
t_{rr}	reverse recovery time, s
t_{rv}	voltage rise, time
t_s	storage or saturation time
t_i	minority carrier lifetime
t_{fall}	current fall time
T	cycle or integration period
T	absolute temperature, K
T_a	ambient temperature
T_A	is the ambient temperature
T_{brg}	bearing temperature, K
T_c	case temperature, K
T_f	final temperature, $^{\circ}\text{C}$
T_{hot}, T_{cold}	(or T_h and T_c)
T_{in}, T_{out}	fluid (air, water, etc.) inlet and outlet temperatures, K
T_{is}	inside temperature, $^{\circ}\text{C}$
T_j	junction temperature, K
T_j	maximum allowable junction temperature, K
T_{max}	maximum operating temperature or desired cold plate surface temperature, K
T_{mean}	arithmetic mean of T_1 and T_2 , specifically $\frac{1}{2}(T_1 + T_2)$

Boiling- and freezing-point properties

Substance	Boiling Data at 1 atm		Freezing Data		Liquid Properties		
	Normal Boiling Point, °C	Latent Heat of Vaporization, h_{fg} kJ/kg	Freezing Point, °C	Latent Heat of Fusion, h_{if} kJ/kg	Temp., °C	Density, ρ kg/m ³	Specific Heat, C_p kJ/kg · °C
Ammonia	-33.3	1357	-77.7	322.4	-33.3	682	4.43
					-20	665	4.51
					0	639	4.62
					25	603	4.78
Argon	-185.9	161.6	-189.3	28	-185.6	1394	1.14
Benzene	80.2	394	5.5	126	20	879	1.72
Brine (20% sodium chloride by mass)	103.9	—	-17.4	—	20	1150	3.11
<i>n</i> -Butane	-0.5	385.2	-138.5	80.3	-0.5	601	2.31
Carbon dioxide	-78.4*	230.5 (at 0°C)	-56.6	—	0	298	0.59
Ethanol	78.2	838.3	-114.2	109	25	783	2.46
Ethyl alcohol	78.6	855	-156	108	20	789	2.84
Ethylene glycol	198.1	800.1	-10.8	181.1	20	1109	2.84
Glycerine	179.9	974	18.9	200.6	20	1261	2.32
Helium	-268.9	22.8	—	—	-268.9	146.2	22.8
Hydrogen	-252.8	445.7	-259.2	59.5	-252.8	70.7	10.0
Isobutane	-11.7	367.1	-160	105.7	-11.7	593.8	2.28
Kerosene	204-293	251	-24.9	—	20	820	2.00
Mercury	356.7	294.7	-38.9	11.4	25	13560	0.139
Methane	-161.5	510.4	-182.2	58.4	-161.5	423	3.49
					-100	301	5.78
					25	787	2.55
Methanol	64.5	1100	-97.7	99.2	25	809	2.06
Nitrogen	-195.8	198.6	-210	25.3	-195.8	809	2.06
					-160	596	2.97
					20	703	2.10
Octane	124.8	306.3	-57.5	180.7	25	910	1.80
Oil (light)					-183	1141	1.71
Oxygen	-183	212.7	-218.8	13.7	20	640	2.0
Petroleum	—	230-384	—	—	-42.1	581	2.25
Propane	-42.1	427.8	-187.7	80.0	0	529	2.51
					50	449	3.12
Refrigerant-134a	-26.1	216.8	-96.6	—	-50	1443	1.23
					-26.1	1374	1.27
					0	1295	1.34
					25	1207	1.43
Water	100	2257	0.0	333.7	0	1000	4.22
					25	997	4.18
					50	988	4.18
					75	975	4.19
					100	958	4.22

Properties of solid nonmetals

Composition	Melting Point, K	Properties at 300 K					Properties at Various Temperatures (K), k (W/m · K)/ C_p (J/kg · K)					
		ρ kg/m ³	C_p J/kg · K	k W/m · K	$\alpha \times 10^6$ m ² /s	100	200	400	600	800	1000	
Aluminum oxide, sapphire	2323	3970	765	46	15.1	450	82	32.4	18.9	13.0	10.5	
Aluminum oxide, polycrystalline	2323	3970	765	36.0	11.9	133	55	26.4	15.8	10.4	7.85	
Beryllium oxide	2725	3000	1030	272	88.0	—	—	940	1110	1180	1225	
								196	111	70	47	
								1350	1690	1865	1975	
Boron	2573	2500	1105	27.6	9.99	190	52.5	18.7	11.3	8.1	6.3	
								1490	1880	2135	2350	
Boron fiber epoxy (30% vol.) composite	590	2080										
k , to fibers				2.29				2.10	2.23	2.28		
k , \perp to fibers				0.59				0.37	0.49	0.60		
C_p			1122					364	757	1431		
Carbon												
Amorphous	1500	1950	—	1.60	—	0.67	1.18	1.89	2.19	2.37	2.53	
Diamond, type IIa insulator	—	3500	509	2300	—	10,000	4000	1540	—	—	—	
						21	194	853				
Graphite, pyrolytic	2273	2210										
k , to layers				1950				4970	3230	1390	892	
k , \perp to layers				5.70				16.8	9.23	4.09	2.68	
C_p			709					136	411	992	1406	
Graphite fiber epoxy (25% vol.) composite	450	1400										
k , heat flow to fibers				11.1				5.7	8.7	13.0		
k , heat flow \perp to fibers				0.87				0.46	0.68	1.1		
C_p			935					337	642	1216		
Pyroceram, Corning 9606	1623	2600	808	3.98	1.89	5.25	4.78	3.64	3.28	3.08	2.96	
Silicon carbide	3100	3160	675	490	230	—	—	908	1038	1122	1197	
								—	—	—	87	
								880	1050	1135	1195	
Silicon dioxide, crystalline (quartz)	1883	2650										
k , to <i>c</i> -axis				10.4				39	16.4	7.6	5.0	
k , \perp to <i>c</i> -axis				6.21				20.8	9.5	4.70	3.4	
C_p			745					—	—	885	1075	
Silicon dioxide, polycrystalline (fused silica)	1883	2220	745	1.38	0.834	0.69	1.14	1.51	1.75	2.17	2.87	
Silicon nitride	2173	2400	691	16.0	9.65	—	—	905	1040	1105	1155	
								—	—	13.9	11.3	
								—	578	778	937	
Sulfur	392	2070	708	0.206	0.141	0.165	0.185	—	—	—	—	
						403	606					
Thorium dioxide	3573	9110	235	13	6.1			10.2	6.6	4.7	3.68	
								255	274	285	295	
Titanium dioxide, polycrystalline	2133	4157	710	8.4	2.8			7.01	5.02	3.94	3.46	
								805	880	910	930	

Properties of solid metals

Composition	Melting Point, K	Properties at 300 K				Properties at Various Temperatures (K), k(W/m · K)/C _p (J/kg · K)														
		ρ kg/m ³	C _p J/kg · K	k W/m · K	$\alpha \times 10^6$ m ² /s	100	200	400	600	800	1000									
Aluminum:																				
Pure	933	2702	903	237	97.1	302	237	240	231	218										
Alloy 2024-T6 (4.5% Cu, 1.5% Mg, 0.6% Mn)	775	2770	875	177	73.0	65	163	186	186											
Alloy 195, Cast (4.5% Cu)		2790	883	168	68.2	473	787	925	1042											
Beryllium	1550	1850	1825	200	59.2	990	301	161	126	106	90.8									
						203	1114	2191	2604	2823	3018									
Bismuth	545	9780	122	7.86	6.59	16.5	9.69	7.04												
						112	120	127												
Boron	2573	2500	1107	27.0	9.76	190	55.5	16.8	10.6	9.60	9.85									
						128	600	1463	1892	2160	2338									
Cadmium	594	8650	231	96.8	48.4	203	99.3	94.7												
						198	222	242												
Chromium	2118	7160	449	93.7	29.1	159	111	90.9	80.7	71.3	65.4									
						192	384	484	542	581	616									
Cobalt	1769	8862	421	99.2	26.6	167	122	85.4	67.4	58.2	52.1									
						236	379	450	503	550	628									
Copper:																				
Pure	1358	8933	385	401	117	482	413	393	379	366	352									
						252	356	397	417	433	451									
Commercial bronze (90% Cu, 10% Al)	1293	8800	420	52	14		42	52	59											
Phosphor gear bronze (89% Cu, 11% Sn)	1104	8780	355	54	17		785	160	545											
Cartridge brass (70% Cu, 30% Zn)	1188	8530	380	110	33.9	75	95	137	149											
Constantan (55% Cu, 45% Ni)	1493	8920	384	23	6.71	17	19		395	425										
						237	362													
Germanium	1211	5360	322	59.9	34.7	232	96.8	43.2	27.3	19.8	17.4									
						190	290	337	348	357	375									
Gold	1336	19,300	129	317	127	327	323	311	298	284	270									
						109	124	131	135	140	145									
Iridium	2720	22,500	130	147	50.3	172	153	144	138	132	126									
						90	122	133	138	144	153									
Iron:																				
Pure	1810	7870	447	80.2	23.1	134	94.0	69.5	54.7	43.3	32.8									
						216	384	490	574	680	975									
Armco (99.75% pure)		7870	447	72.7	20.7	95.6	80.6	65.7	53.1	42.2	32.3									
						215	384	490	574	680	975									
Carbon steels:																				
Plain carbon (Mn \leq 1%, Si \leq 0.1%)		7854	434	60.5	17.7				56.7	48.0	39.2	30.0								
									487	559	685	1169								

Properties of solid metals (Continued)

Composition	Melting Point, K	Properties at 300 K				Properties at Various Temperatures (K), k(W/m · K)/C _p (J/kg · K)														
		ρ kg/m ³	C _p J/kg · K	k W/m · K	$\alpha \times 10^6$ m ² /s	100	200	400	600	800	1000									
AISI 1010		7832	434	63.9	18.8							58.7	48.8	39.2	31.3					
												487	559	685	1168					
Carbon-silicon (Mn \leq 1%, 0.1% < Si \leq 0.6%)		7817	446	51.9	14.9							49.8	44.0	37.4	29.3					
Carbon-manganese-silicon (1% < Mn \leq 1.65%, 0.1% < Si \leq 0.6%)		8131	434	41.0	11.6							501	582	699	971					
												42.2	39.7	35.0	27.6					
Chromium (low) steels:																				
$\frac{1}{2}$ Cr- $\frac{1}{2}$ Mo-Si (0.18% C, 0.65% Cr, 0.23% Mo, 0.6% Si)		7822	444	37.7	10.9								38.2	36.7	33.3	26.9				
1Cr- $\frac{1}{2}$ Mo (0.16% C, 1% Cr, 0.54% Mo, 0.39% Si)		7858	442	42.3	12.2								492	575	688	969				
												42.0	39.1	34.5	27.4					
1Cr-V (0.2% C, 1.02% Cr, 0.15% V)		7836	443	48.9	14.1								492	575	688	969				
												46.8	42.1	36.3	28.2					
Stainless steels:																				
AISI 302		8055	480	15.1	3.91								17.3	20.0	22.8	25.4				
												512	559	585	606					
AISI 304	1670	7900	477	14.9	3.95							9.2	12.6	16.6	19.8	22.6	25.4			
												272	402	515	557	582	611			
AISI 316		8238	468	13.4	3.48									15.2	18.3	21.3	24.2			
														504	550	576	602			
AISI 347		7978	480	14.2	3.71									15.8	18.9	21.9	24.7			
														513	559	585	606			
Lead	601	11,340	129	35.3	24.1							39.7	36.7	34.0	31.4					
												118	125	132	142					
Magnesium	923	1740	1024	156	87.6							169	159	153	149	146				
												649	934	1074	1170	1267				
Molybdenum	2894	10,240	251	138	53.7							179	143	134	126	118	112			
												141	224	261	275	285	295			
Nickel:																				
Pure	1728	8900	444	90.7	23.0							164	107	80.2	65.6	67.6	71.8			
												232	383	485	592	530	562			
Nichrome (80% Ni, 20% Cr)	1672	8400	420	12	3.4									14	16	21				
														480	525	545				
Inconel X-750 (73% Ni, 15% Cr, 6.7% Fe)	1665	8510	439	11.7	3.1							8.7	10.3	13.5	17.0	20.5	24.0			
Niobium	2741	8570	265	53.7	23.6								55.2	52.6	55.2	58.2	61.3	64.4		
												188	249	274	283	292	301			
Palladium	1827	12,020	244	71.8	24.5								76.5	71.6	73.6	79.7	86.9	94.2		
												168	227	251	261	271	281			
Platinum:																				
Pure	2045	21,450	133	71.6	25.1							77.5	72.6	71.8	73.2	75.6	78.7			
												100	125	136	141	146	152			
Alloy 60Pt-40Rh (60% Pt, 40% Rh)	1800																			

Properties of solid metals (Concluded)

Composition	Melting Point, K	Properties at 300 K				Properties at Various Temperatures (K), k(W/m · K)/C _p (J/kg · K)					
		ρ kg/m ³	C _p J/kg · K	k W/m · K	α × 10 ⁶ m ² /s	100	200	400	600	800	1000
Rhenium	3453	21,100	136	47.9	16.7	58.9	51.0	46.1	44.2	44.1	44.6
Rhodium	2236	12,450	243	150	49.6	186	154	146	136	127	121
						147	220	253	274	293	311
Silicon	1685	2330	712	148	89.2	884	264	98.9	61.9	42.4	31
						259	556	790	867	913	946
Silver	1235	10,500	235	429	174	444	430	425	412	396	379
						187	225	239	250	262	277
Tantalum	3269	16,600	140	57.5	24.7	59.2	57.5	57.8	58.6	59.4	60.2
						110	133	144	146	149	152
Thorium	2023	11,700	118	54.0	39.1	59.8	54.6	54.5	55.8	56.9	56.9
						99	112	124	134	145	156
Tin	505	7310	227	66.6	40.1	85.2	73.3	62.2			
						188	215	243			
Titanium	1953	4500	522	21.9	9.32	30.5	24.5	20.4	19.4	19.7	20.7
						300	465	551	591	633	675
Tungsten	3660	19,300	132	174	68.3	208	186	159	137	125	118
						87	122	137	142	146	148
Uranium	1406	19,070	116	27.6	12.5	21.7	25.1	29.6	34.0	38.8	43.9
						94	108	125	146	176	180
Vanadium	2192	6100	489	30.7	10.3	35.8	31.3	31.3	33.3	35.7	38.2
						258	430	515	540	563	597
Zinc	693	7140	389	116	41.8	117	118	111	103		
						297	367	402	436		
Zirconium	2125	6570	278	22.7	12.4	33.2	25.2	21.6	20.7	21.6	23.7
						205	264	300	332	342	362

Boiling- and freezing-point properties

Substance	Boiling Data at 1 atm		Freezing Data		Liquid Properties		
	Normal Boiling Point, °C	Latent Heat of Vaporization, h _g kJ/kg	Freezing Point, °C	Latent Heat of Fusion, h _f kJ/kg	Temp., °C	Density, ρ kg/m ³	Specific Heat, C _p kJ/kg · °C
Ammonia	-33.3	1357	-77.7	322.4	-33.3	682	4.43
					-20	665	4.51
					0	639	4.62
					25	603	4.78
Argon	-185.9	161.6	-189.3	28	-185.6	1394	1.14
Benzene	80.2	394	5.5	126	20	879	1.72
Brine (20% sodium chloride by mass)	103.9	—	-17.4	—	20	1150	3.11
n-Butane	-0.5	385.2	-138.5	80.3	-0.5	601	2.31
Carbon dioxide	-78.4*	230.5 (at 0°C)	-56.6	—	0	298	0.59
Ethanol	78.2	838.3	-114.2	109	25	783	2.46
Ethyl alcohol	78.6	855	-156	108	20	789	2.84
Ethylene glycol	198.1	800.1	-10.8	181.1	20	1109	2.84
Glycerine	179.9	974	18.9	200.6	20	1261	2.32
Helium	-268.9	22.8	—	—	-268.9	146.2	22.8
Hydrogen	-252.8	445.7	-259.2	59.5	-252.8	70.7	10.0
Isobutane	-11.7	367.1	-160	105.7	-11.7	593.8	2.28
Kerosene	204-293	251	-24.9	—	20	820	2.00
Mercury	356.7	294.7	-38.9	11.4	25	13560	0.139
Methane	-161.5	510.4	-182.2	58.4	-161.5	423	3.49
Methanol	64.5	1100	-97.7	99.2	-100	301	5.78
					25	787	2.55
Nitrogen	-195.8	198.6	-210	25.3	-195.8	809	2.06
					-160	596	2.97
Octane	124.8	306.3	-57.5	180.7	20	703	2.10
Oil (light)					25	910	1.80
Oxygen	-183	212.7	-218.8	13.7	-183	1141	1.71
Petroleum	—	230-384			20	640	2.0
Propane	-42.1	427.8	-187.7	80.0	-42.1	581	2.25
					0	529	2.51
Refrigerant-134a	-26.1	216.8	-96.6	—	50	449	3.12
					-50	1443	1.23
					-26.1	1374	1.27
					0	1295	1.34
Water	100	2257	0.0	333.7	25	1207	1.43
					0	1000	4.22
					25	997	4.18
					50	988	4.18
					75	975	4.19
					100	958	4.22

Degrees of protection

IP codes according to IEC 60529 standard

Degrees of protection are identified by IP followed by two numbers followed by an optional letter, as defined in the table to follow.

FIRST NUMBER PROTECTION AGAINST SOLID BODY PENETRATION		SECOND NUMBER PROTECTION AGAINST LIQUID PENETRATION		ADDITIONAL LETTER ^(*)	DEGREE OF PROTECTION BRIEF DESCRIPTION
IP	Tests	IP	Tests		
0	No protection	0	No protection		
1	$\varnothing 50 \text{ mm}$ Protected against solid bodies greater than 50 mm	1	Protected against water drops falling vertically (condensation)	A	Protected against access with back of hand
2 ⁽¹⁾	$\varnothing 12.5 \text{ mm}$ Protected against solid bodies greater than 12 mm	2	Protected against water drops falling up to 15° from the vertical	B	Protected against access with finger
3	$\varnothing 2.5 \text{ mm}$ Protected against solid bodies greater than 2.5 mm	3	Protected against water showers up to 60° from the vertical	C	Protected against access with tool
4	$\varnothing 1 \text{ mm}$ Protected against solid bodies greater than 1 mm	4	Protected against water splashes from any direction	D	Protected against access with wire
5	Protected against dust (excluding damaging deposits)	5	Protected against water jets from any hosed direction		
6	Total protection against dust	6	Protected against water splashes comparable to heavy seas		
The first two numbers are defined by NF EN 60 529, IEC 529 and DIN 40 050		7	15 cm 1 m Protected against total immersion		

IEC 947 and IEC 947-3 Standards

Selecting contactors according to IEC 947-3 standard

UTILIZATION	CATEGORY	USE	APPLICATION
AC AC20	DC DC20	No-load making and breaking	Disconnecter (device without on-load making and breaking capacity)
AC21	DC21	Resistive loads including moderate overloads.	Switches at installation head or for resistive circuits (heating, lighting, except discharge lamps, etc.).
AC22	DC22	Inductive and resistive mixed loads including moderate overloads.	Switches in secondary circuits or reactive circuits (capacitor banks, discharge lamps, shunt motors, etc.).
AC23	DC23	Loads made of motors or other highly inductive loads.	Switches feeding one or several motors or inductive circuits (electric carriers, brake magnet, series motor, etc.).

Breaking and making capacities

Unlike circuit breakers, where these criteria indicate tripping or short-circuit making characteristics and perhaps requiring device replacement, switch making and breaking capacities correspond to utilization category maximum performance values. In these uses, the switch must still maintain its characteristics, in particular its resistance to leakage current and temperature rise.

	MAKING		BREAKING		N° OF OPERATING CYCLES
	I/I _n	cos φ	I/I _n	cos φ	
AC 21	1.5	0.95	1.5	0.95	5
AC 22	3	0.65	3	0.65	5
AC 23 I _n ≤ 100 A	10	0.45	8	0.45	5
	10	0.35	8	0.35	3
		L/R (ms)		L/R (ms)	
DC 21	1.5	1	1.5	1	5
DC 22	4	2.5	4	2.5	5
DC 23	4	15	4	15	5

Electrical and mechanical endurance

This standard establishes the minimum number of electrical (full load) and mechanical (no-load) operating cycles that must be performed by devices. These characteristics also specify the device's theoretical lifespan during which it must maintain its characteristics, particularly resistance to leakage current and temperature rise. This performance is linked to the device's use and rating. According to anticipated use, two additional application categories are offered:

- category A: frequent operations (in close proximity to the load)
- category B: infrequent operations (at installation head or wiring system).

I _n (A)	≤ 100	≤ 315	≤ 630	≤ 2500	> 2500
N° CYCLES/HOUR	120	120	60	20	10
N° OF OPERATIONS IN CAT. A					
without current	8500	7000	4000	2500	1500
with current	1500	1000	1000	500	500
Total	10000	8000	5000	3000	2000
N° OF OPERATIONS IN CAT. B					
without current	1700	1400	800	500	300
with current	300	200	200	100	100
Total	2000	1600	1000	600	400

Definitions

Conventional thermal current (I_{th}):

Value of the current the disconnect switch can withstand with poles in closed position, in free air for an eight hour duty, without the temperature rise of its various parts exceeding the limits specified by the standards.

Rated insulation voltage (U_i):

Voltage value which designates the unit and to which dielectric tests, clearance and creepage distances are referred.

Rated impulse withstand voltage (U_{imp}):

Peak value of an impulse voltage of prescribed form and polarity which the equipment is capable of withstanding without failure under specified conditions of test and to which the values of the clearances are referred.

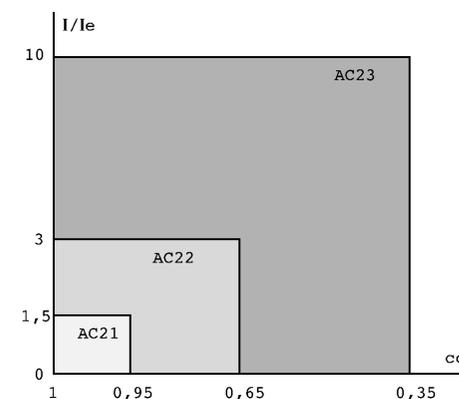
Rated operating current (I_n):

Current value determined by endurance tests (both mechanical and electrical) and by making and breaking capacity tests.

Short circuit characteristics

- short-time withstand current (I_{st}): Allowable rms current for 1 second.
- short circuit making capacity (I_{sc}): peak current value which the device can withstand when closed on a short-circuit.
- conditional short circuit current: the rms current the switch can withstand when associated with a protection device limiting both the current and short circuit duration.
- dynamic withstand: peak current the device can withstand in a closed position.

The characteristic established by this standard is the short-time withstand current (I_{st}) from which minimal dynamic withstand is deduced. This essential withstand value corresponds to what the switch can stand without welding.



Making and breaking capacities

Glossary of terms

Glossary of Wafer Processing terminology [Chapter 1]

Alloying:- The process of forming a low-resistance contact between the aluminium metal and silicon substrate on a metallised semiconductor wafer.

Amorphous Si, a-Si:- non-crystalline thin-film silicon; features no long-range crystallographic order; inferior electrical characteristics as compared to single-crystal and poly Si but cheaper and easier to manufacture; used primarily to fabricate solar cells.

Angstrom, Å:- unit of length commonly used in semiconductor industry, though not recognised as a standard international unit; $1 \text{ Å} = 10^{-10} \text{ m} = 10^{-4} \text{ micrometre} = 0.1 \text{ nm}$.

Annealing:- The process of combining hydrogen with uncommitted atoms at or near the silicon-silicon dioxide interface on a metallised semiconductor wafer.

Ashing:- The process of removal (by volatilization) of organic materials (e.g. photoresist) from the wafer surface using strongly oxidizing ambient; e.g. oxygen plasma ashing.

Backlapping:- The process of mechanically thinning the backside of a finished semiconductor wafer.

Backside metallisation:- The process of depositing a metal layer on the backside of a finished wafer.

Bandgap, energy gap E_g :- forbidden energy levels separating the valence and conduction bands. Electrons are allowed to have energies at these levels.

Barrier metal:- thin layer of metal, e.g. TiN, sandwiched between other metal and semiconductor (or insulator) to prevent potentially harmful interactions between these two, e.g. spiking.

Boat:- 1. a device made of high purity temperature resistant materials such as fused silica, quartz, poly Si, or SiC. designed to hold many semiconductor wafers during thermal or other processes;
2. device designed to simultaneously contain source material during evaporation while at the same time heating the source to its melting point; made of highly conductive, temperature resistant material through which current is passed.

Chip:- The final integrated semiconductor circuit.

Conduction band:- the upper energy band in a semiconductor separated from the valence band by the energy gap; The conduction band is not completely filled with electrons.

Constant-source diffusion:- also known as unlimited-source diffusion or predeposition; concentration of diffusant (dopant) on the surface of the wafer remains constant during the diffusion process, i.e. while some dopant atoms diffuse into the substrate additional dopant atoms are continuously supplied to the surface of the wafer.

Crystal pulling:- The process of forming a crystal ingot; a seed crystal of silicon is attached to a rod and 'pulled' out of a silicon melt to form an ingot.

Czochralski Crystal Growth, CZ:- process utilizing crystal pulling to obtain single-crystal solids; the most common method for obtaining large diameter semiconductor wafers (300mm Si wafers); desired conductivity type and doping level is accomplished by adding dopants to molten material. Wafers used in high-end Si microelectronics are almost uniquely CZ grown.

Czochralski method:- The crystal pulling method used to form crystal ingots.

Chemical vapour deposition:- The process of applying a thin film to a substrate using a controlled chemical reaction.

Deposition:- A general term used to describe the addition of material layers on a semiconductor wafer.

Die:- An individual device or chip cut from a semiconductor wafer.

Diffusion:- A doping process; a high-temperature furnace is used to diffuse an applied layer of dopant into the wafer surface.

Diffusion coefficient, D:- determines rate with which element moves in a given solid by diffusion; depends strongly on temperature; expressed in cm^2/s ; varies between elements by orders of magnitude, e.g. in the case of diffusion in silicon diffusion coefficient for gold, Au, is in the range of $10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ (fast diffusant) while for Sb is in the range of $10^{-17} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$.

Dopant:- element introduced intentionally into a semiconductor to establish either *p*-type or *n*-type conductivity; Common dopants in silicon are: Boron (*p*-type) and phosphorous, arsenic, and antimony (*n*-type).

Doping:- The process of introducing impurity elements (dopants) into a semiconductor wafer to form regions of differing electrical conductivity. The two most common doping processes are diffusion and ion implantation.

Drive in:- high temperature ($>800^\circ\text{C}$) operation performed on semiconductor wafer in an inert ambient; causes motion of dopant atoms in semiconductor in the direction of concentration gradient (diffusion); used to drive dopant atoms deeper into semiconductor.

Electron beam (e-beam) evaporation:- source material is evaporated as a result of highly localized heating by bombardment with high energy electrons; the electron beam is spatially confined and accelerated by electrostatic interactions. The direction and cross-section of the beam can be precisely controlled and rapidly altered to scan the target; evaporated material is very pure; bombardment of metal with electrons is accompanied by generation of low intensity X-rays which may create defects in the oxide present on the surface of the substrate; typically, an anneal is needed to eliminate those defects.

Epi Layer:- The term epitaxial comes from the Greek word meaning 'arranged upon'. In semiconductor technology, it refers to the single crystalline structure of the film. The structure comes about when silicon atoms are deposited on a bare silicon wafer in a CVD reactor. When the chemical reactants are controlled and the system parameters are set correctly, the depositing atoms arrive at the wafer surface with sufficient energy to move around on the surface and orient themselves to the crystal arrangement of the wafer atoms. Thus an epitaxial film deposited on a $\langle 111 \rangle$ -oriented wafer will take on a $\langle 111 \rangle$ orientation.

Epitaxial layer:- layer grown in the course of epitaxy.

Epitaxy:- process by which a thin epitaxial layer of single-crystal material is deposited on single-crystal substrate; epitaxial growth occurs in such way that the crystallographic structure of the substrate is reproduced in the growing material; also crystalline defects of the substrate are reproduced in the growing material. Although crystallographic structure of the substrate is reproduced, doping levels and the conductivity type of a epitaxial layer is controlled independently of the substrate; e.g. the epitaxial layer can be made more pure chemically than the substrate.

Etching:- The process of removing silicon dioxide layers, accomplished by 'wet etching' with chemicals or by 'dry etching' with ionized gases.

Evaporation:- common method used to deposit thin film materials; material to be deposited is heated in vacuum ($10^{-6} - 10^{-7}$ Torr range) until it melts and starts evaporating; this vapour condenses on a cooler substrate inside the evaporation chamber forming smooth and uniform thin films; not suitable for high melting point materials; PVD method of thin film formation.

External, extrinsic gettering:- process in which gettering of contaminants and defects in a semiconductor wafer is accomplished by stressing its back surface (by inducing damage or depositing material featuring different than semiconductor thermal expansion coefficient) and then thermally treating the wafer; contaminants and/or defects are relocated toward back surface and away from the front surface where semiconductor devices can be formed.

Fick's law:- describe diffusion in solids; 1st and 2nd Fick's law; 1st Fick's law describes motion by diffusion of an element in the solid in the direction of the concentration gradient; 2nd Fick's law determines changes of concentration gradient in the course of diffusion (function of time and diffusion coefficient).

Filament evaporation:- thermal evaporation; source material is contacted to the filament (a refractory metal) and melted by high current flowing through the filament; alternatively, a 'boat' which contains material to be evaporated may be made out of refractory metal;

Float-zone Crystal Growth, FZ:- method used to form single crystal semiconductor substrates (alternative to CZ); polycrystalline material is converted into single-crystal by locally melting the plane where a single crystal seed is contacting the polycrystalline material; used to make very pure, high resistance Si wafers; does not allow as large wafers ($< 200\text{mm}$) as CZ does; radial distribution of dopant in FZ wafer is not as uniform as in CZ wafer.

Gettering:- process which moves contaminants and/or defects in a semiconductor away from its top surface into its bulk and traps them there, creating a denuded zone.

HMDS:- Hexamethyldisilazane; improves adhesion of photoresist to the surface of a wafer; especially designed for adhesion of photoresist to SiO_2 ; deposited on wafer surface immediately prior to deposition of resist.

Hydrogenated a-Si:- amorphous silicon (a-Si) containing substantial quantities of hydrogen; hydrogen passivated Si dangling bonds and results in substantially improved electrical properties of a-Si

Ingot:- circular piece of single-crystal semiconductor material resulting from a crystal growth process; an ingot is ready to be shaped and sliced into wafers used to manufacture semiconductor devices.

Intrinsic gettering:- process in which gettering of contaminants and/or defects in a semiconductor is accomplished (without any physical interactions with the wafer) by a series of heat treatments.

Ion implantation:- A doping process; the dopant material is ionized and magnetically accelerated to strike the wafer surface, thereby embedding the dopant into the substrate.

Lapping:- The process of mechanically grinding the surface of a sliced wafer.

Lead frame:- The die attachment surface and lead attachment points that a die or chip is attached to prior to wire bonding and packaging.

limited-source diffusion:- also known as *drive-in*; concentration of diffusant (dopant) on the surface decreases during the diffusion process, i.e. while some dopant atoms diffuse into the substrate no new dopant atoms are supplied to the surface of the wafer.

Metallization:- formation of metal contacts and interconnects in the manufacturing of semiconductor devices.

Metal-semiconductor contact:- key component of any semiconductor device; depending on materials involved in the contact its properties can differ drastically; ohmic contact (linear, symmetric current-voltage characteristic) in the case when work function of metal matches work function of semiconductor (no potential barrier at the interface); rectifying contact (non-linear, highly asymmetric, diode-like current-voltage characteristic) in the case when work function of metal differs from the work function of semiconductor (potential barrier at the interface)- commonly referred to as a Schottky diode.

Minority carriers:- one of two carrier types (electrons of holes) whose equilibrium concentration is lower than that of the other type; holes in *n*-type semiconductors, electrons in *p*-type semiconductors.

***N*-type semiconductor:-** semiconductor in which the concentration of electrons is much higher than the concentration of holes ($p \gg n$); electrons are majority carriers and dominate conductivity.

Ohmic contact:- metal-semiconductor contact with very low resistance independent of applied voltage (may be represented by constant resistance); to form an 'ohmic' contact metal and semiconductor must be selected such that there is no potential barrier formed at the interface (or potential barrier is so thin that charge carriers can readily tunnel through it).

Oxidation:- The process of oxidizing the wafer surface to form a thin layer of silicon dioxide.

Passivation:- The process of applying a final passivating or protective layer of either silicon nitride or silicon dioxide to a wafer.

Photolithography:- The process of creating patterns on a silicon substrate. The main steps of the process include photoresist application, mask alignment, photoexposure, developing, and etching the portions of the substrate that are unprotected by the resist.

Photomask:- A mask that delineates the pattern applied to a substrate during photolithography.

Photoresist:- A photo-sensitive material used in photolithography to transfer pattern from the mask onto the wafer; a liquid deposited on the surface of the wafer as a thin film then solidified by low temperature anneal; in the areas in which photoresist can be reached by UV radiation photochemical reactions change its properties, specifically, solubility in the developer; two types of photoresist:- positive and negative.

Physical Vapour Deposition, PVD:- deposition of thin film occurs through physical transfer of material (e.g. thermal evaporation and sputtering) from the source to the substrate; chemical composition of deposited material is not altered in the process.

Polishing:- process applied to either reduce roughness of the wafer surface or to remove excess material from the surface; typically polishing is a mechanical-chemical process using a chemically reactive slurry.

Polycrystalline silicon:- An amorphous form of silicon with randomly oriented crystals, used to produce silicon ingots.

Polycrystalline material, poly:- many (often) small single-crystal regions are randomly connected to form a solid; size of regions varies depending on the material and the method of its formation. Heavily doped poly Si is commonly used as a gate contact in silicon MOS and CMOS devices.

Predeposition:- semiconductor doping by diffusion; process of thermal oxidation of silicon in the ambient containing dopant atoms; heavily doped oxide formed is acting as a source of dopant during the diffusion.

***P*-type semiconductor:-** semiconductor in which the concentration of holes is much higher than the concentration of electrons ($n \gg p$); holes are majority carriers and dominate conductivity.

Quartz:- single-crystal SiO₂.

Quartzite:- Silica sand used as a raw material to produce metallurgical grade silicon.

Reactive ion etching RIE:- RIE variation of plasma etching that uses physical sputtering and chemically reactive species in which during etching semiconductor wafer is placed on the RF powered electrode; wafer takes on potential which accelerates etching species extracted from plasma toward the etched surface; chemical etching reaction is preferentially taking place in the direction normal to the surface, i.e. etching is more anisotropic than in plasma etching but is less selective; leaves etched surface damaged; the most common etching mode in semiconductor manufacturing, also used to remove metal layers.

Rectifying contact:- metal-semiconductor contact displaying asymmetric current-voltage characteristics, i.e. allowing high current to flow across under the forward bias condition and blocking current off under the reverse bias; this behaviour is controlled by the bias voltage dependent changes of the potential barrier height in the contact region.

Seed crystal:- single crystal material used in crystal growing to set a pattern for the growth of material in which this pattern is reproduced.

Semiconductor:- solid-state material in which (unlike in metals and insulators) (1) large changes in electrical conductivity can be effected by adding very small amounts of impurity elements known as *dopants*, (2) electrical conductivity can be controlled by both negatively charged electrons and positively charged holes and (3) electrical conductivity is sensitive to temperature, illumination, and magnetic field.

Silicon:- A semi-metallic element used to create a wafer.

Silicon dioxide, SiO₂:- silica; native oxide of silicon; the most common insulator in semiconductor device technology; high quality films are obtained by thermal oxidation of silicon; thermal SiO₂ forms smooth, low-defect interface with Si; can be also readily deposited by CVD; Key parameters: energy gap $E_g \sim 8\text{eV}$; dielectric strength $5\text{-}15 \times 10^6 \text{ V/cm}$; dielectric constant $k = 3.9$; density 2.3 g/cm^3 ; refractive index $n = 1.46$; melting point $\sim 1700^\circ\text{C}$; prone to contamination with alkali ions and sensitive to high energy radiation (i.e. X-rays); single crystal SiO₂ is known as *quartz*.

Silicon Nitride, Si₃N₄:- dielectric material with energy gap = 5 eV and density $\sim 3.0 \text{ g/cm}^3$; excellent mask against oxidation of Si and KOH; properties depend on deposition method: dielectric strength $\sim 10^7 \text{ V/cm}$, dielectric constant $k \sim 6\text{-}7$, bulk resistivity $10^{15}\text{-}10^{17} \text{ ohm-cm}$; deposited by CDV.

Silylation:- The process of introducing silicon atoms into the surface of an organic photoresist in order to harden the photoresist.

Single-crystal:- crystalline solid in which atoms are arranged following specific pattern throughout the entire piece of material; in general, single crystal material features superior electronic and photonic properties as compared to polycrystalline and amorphous materials, but is more difficult to fabricate; all high-end semiconductor electronic and photonic materials are fabricated using single-crystal substrates.

Slice orientation:- the angle between the surface of a slice and the growth plane of the crystal. The most common slice orientations are (100), (111) and (110).

Slicing:- term refers to the process of cutting of the single-crystal ingot into wafers; high precision diamond blades are used.

Slurry:- a liquid containing suspended abrasive component; used for lapping, polishing and grinding of solid surfaces; can be chemically active; key element of CMP processes.

Spiking:- uncontrolled penetration of semiconductor substrate by contact metal; problem with Al in contact with silicon; may short ultra-shallow p-n junction underneath the contact.

Sputtering, sputter deposition:- bombardment of a solid (target) by high energy chemically inert ions (e.g. Ar⁺); causes ejection of atoms from the target which are then re-deposited on the surface of a substrate purposely located in the vicinity of the target; common method of Physical Vapour Deposition of metals and oxides.

Sputtering target:- source material during sputter deposition processes; typically a disc inside a vacuum chamber which is exposed to bombarding ions, knocking source atoms loose onto samples.

Sputter yield:- efficiency of the sputtering process (differs for different materials).

Surface damage:- process related disruption of the crystallographic order at the surface of single-crystal semiconductor substrates; typically caused by surface interactions with high energy ions during dry etching and ion implantation.

Staebler - Wronski effect:- degradation of electrical output of hydrogenated amorphous silicon solar cells as a result of prolonged illumination.

Stripping:- process of material removal from the wafer surface; typically implies that removal is not carried out for the patterning purpose, e.g. resist stripping in which case entire resist is removed following lithography and etching.

Target:- source material used during evaporation or deposition; In sputtering, typically in the form of high purity disc. In e-Beam evaporation, typically in the form of a crucible. In thermal evaporation, the source material is typically held in a boat which is heated resistively.

Thermal oxidation, thermal oxide:- growth of oxide on the substrate through oxidation of the surface at elevated temperature; thermal oxidation of silicon results in a very high quality oxide, SiO₂; most other semiconductors do not form device quality thermal oxide, hence, 'thermal oxidation' is almost synonymous with 'thermal oxidation of silicon'.

Valence band:- the lower energy band in a semiconductor that is completely filled with electrons at 0 K; electrons cannot conduct in valence band.

Volume defect:- voids and/or local regions featuring different phase (e.g. precipitates or amorphous phase) in crystalline materials.

Wafer:- thin (thickness depends on wafer diameter, but is typically less than 1 mm), circular slice of single-crystal semiconductor material cut from the ingot of single crystal semiconductor; used in manufacturing of semiconductor devices and integrated circuits; wafer diameter may range from 25 mm to 300 mm.

Wafer bonding:- process in which two semiconductor wafers are bonded to form a single substrate; commonly applied to form SOI substrates; bonding of wafers of different materials, e.g. GaAs on Si, or SiC on Si; is more difficult than bonding of similar materials.

Wafer fabrication:- process in which single crystal semiconductor ingot is fabricated and transformed by cutting, grinding, polishing, and cleaning into a circular wafer with desired diameter and physical properties.

Wafer flat:- flat area on the perimeter of the wafer; location and number of wafer flats contains information on crystal orientation of the wafer and the dopant type (*n*-type or *p*-type).

Work function difference:- defines characteristics of contact between two materials featuring different work function; for conductor-semiconductor contact w.f.d. determines height of potential barrier in the contact plane, and hence, determines whether contact is ohmic or rectifying.

Glossary of Fan Cooling and other Heating and Cooling terminology [Chapters 5, 6]

A-Coil:- A heat exchanger consisting of two diagonal coils that are joined together in a manner that looks like the letter 'A'.
Absorber:- The blackened surface in a collector that absorbs the solar radiation and converts it to heat energy.
Absorptance:- The ratio of solar energy absorbed by a surface to the solar energy striking it.
Active System:- A solar heating or cooling system that requires external mechanical power to move the collected heat.
Air flow volume:- The amount of air the system circulates, expressed in cubic feet per minute, cfm.
Air Handler/Coil Blower:- The part of an air conditioner or heat pump that moves cooled or heated air throughout the ductwork. An air handler is usually a furnace or a blower coil.
Air System:- Solar domestic hot water systems employing air-type collectors. Hot air generated by these collectors is fan forced through an air-to-liquid heat exchanger with the potable water being pumped through the liquid section of the exchanger. The heated water is then circulated through the storage tank in a similar fashion to the liquid collector system. Air does not need to be protected from freezing or boiling, is non-corrosive, and is free. However, air ducts and air handling units require greater space than piping, and air leaks are difficult to detect.
Air-Type Collector:- A collector that uses air as the heat transfer fluid.
Altitude:- The angular distance from the horizon to the sun.
Ambient Temperature:- The temperature of the surrounding air.
Auxiliary Heat:- The extra heat provided by a conventional heating system for periods of cloudiness or intense cold when a solar heating system cannot provide enough.
Azimuth:- The angular distance between true south and the point on the horizon directly below the sun.
Ball bearing:- The most reliable bearing system in fans. Extremely high temperature load, extremely low starting torque at low temperatures, no loss of lubricant.
Blower:- This frequently refers to large radial and axial fans with dimensions that are usually larger than 120x120mm.
Burn-in:- The running in of fans reduces the otherwise unavoidable early failures and thus increases the reliability of a fan. The burn-in process of fans is integrated in the production process so that errors that may occur, immediately result in 'Corrective Action' and do not reach the customer.
BTU:- A British thermal unit is a unit of heat energy. British thermal unit; the amount of heat required to raise or lower the temperature of one pound of water one degree Fahrenheit. The higher the BTU rating, the greater the heating capacity of the system.
BTUh:- British thermal units per hour. 12,000 BTUh equals one ton of cooling.
Calorie:- The quantity of heat needed to raise the temperature of one gram of water one degree Celsius.
Capacity:- The output or producing ability of cooling or heating systems. The ability of a heating or cooling system to heat or cool a given amount of space. For heating, this capacity is usually expressed in British thermal units BTUs. For cooling it is usually given in tons.
CFM:- Abbreviation for cubic feet per minute of air flow, a standard measurement of airflow. This measurement indicates how many cubic feet of air pass by a stationary point in one minute. The higher the number, the more air is being forced through the ductwork by the system.
Check Valve:- A check valve is a mechanical device normally applied to a piping system which allows fluid to flow in only one direction.
Closed Loop:- An underground heat exchanger piping system usually of polyethylene or polybutylene designed to allow the extraction or rejection of heat to the earth by the circulation of fluid within the tubing.
Coefficient of Heat Transmission:- The rate of heat loss in BTU per hour through a square foot interface or other surface when the difference between inner and outer air temperatures is one degree Fahrenheit.
Coefficient of Performance, COP:- Heating capacity divided by electrical energy consumed. (for example, 15 kW output / 4.5 kW input = COP of 3.3) The coefficient of performance of a heating system is the electrical ratio of the heat got out divided by the heat put in.
Collector:- A device that collects solar radiation and converts it to heat.
Collector Efficiency:- The ratio of usable heat energy extracted from a collector to the solar energy striking the cover.
Compressor-Watts:- Compressor electricity consumption.
Compressor:- The heart of an air conditioning or heat pump system. It is the part of the unit that pumps refrigerant in order to meet the cooling requirements of the system. It is the refrigeration component which increases the density, temperature and pressure of entering refrigerant through compression and discharges a hot dense gas.
Condensate:- Vapour that liquefies due to the lowering of its temperature to the saturation point.

Condenser:- The heat rejecting mechanism in a heat pump usually in the form of a refrigerant-to-air coil or a refrigerant-to-water coil. Refrigeration heat exchanger where the refrigerant gives up its heat during condensation from a vapour to a liquid.
Condenser coil:- In an air conditioner, the coil dissipates heat from the refrigerant, changing the refrigerant from vapour to liquid. In a heat pump system, the coil absorbs heat from the outdoors.
Condenser fan:- The fan that circulates air over the air-cooled condenser.
Concentrating Collector:- A device which concentrates the sun's rays on an absorber surface which is significantly smaller than the overall collector area
Conductance:- The rate of heat flow (in BTUs per hour) through an object when a 1°C (1°F) temperature difference is maintained between the sides of the object.
Conduction:- The flow of heat due to temperature variations within a material.
Conductivity:- A measure of the ability of a material to permit conduction of heat flow through it.
Convection:- The motion of fluid such as gas or liquid by which heat may be transported.
Cover Plate:- A sheet of glass or transparent plastic placed above the absorber in a flat plate collector.
Cupro-nickel:- 90% copper / 10% nickel alloy which has high corrosion resistance to water containing salt, sulphur, chlorides and other dissolved minerals.
Damper:- Located in ductwork, this movable plate opens and closes to control and regulate airflow. Dampers can be used to balance airflow in a duct system. They are also used in zoning to regulate airflow to certain regions. Dampers are used to direct air to the areas that need it most.
dB:- A decibel is a unit used to measure the relative intensity of sound.
Degree Day:- The number of degrees that the mean temperature for that day is below 65°F. (for example, mean temperature of 40°F for the day 65-40=25 degree days). A unit that represents a 1°F deviation from some fixed reference point (usually 65°F.) in the mean daily outdoor temperature.
Dehumidifier:- An air cooler that removes moisture from the air.
Delta T:- Difference between LWT and EWT
Desuperheater:- A heat exchanger and pump system which removes a small portion of heat from the compressor discharge gas and typically transfers it to a hot water tank.
Design Heat Load:- The total heat loss from a system under the most severe cold conditions likely to occur.
Design Temperature:- The temperature close to the lowest expected for a location, used to determine the design heat load.
Diffuser:- A grille over an air supply duct having vanes to distribute the discharging air in a specific pattern or direction.
Diffuse Radiation:- Indirect sunlight that is scattered from air molecules, dust and water vapour.
Direct Radiation:- Solar radiation that comes straight from the sun, casting shadows on a clear day.
Downflow:- Air enters at the top or bottom of the unit and is discharged vertically out the bottom.
Downflow furnace:- A furnace that intakes air at its top and discharges air at its bottom.
Drain back system:- The solar heat transfer fluid automatically drains into a tank by gravity. Drain back systems are available in one or two tank configurations. A heat exchanger is necessary, because the tap inlet pressure would prevent draining. The heat transfer fluid in the collector loop may be distilled or tap water if the loop plumbing is copper. If the plumbing is threaded galvanized pipe, inhibitors may be added to prevent corrosion. Most inhibitors are non-potable and require a double wall heat exchanger. The pump used must be sized to overcome a static head.
Drain pan:- This also referred to as a condensate pan. This is a pan used to catch and collect condensate (in residential systems vapour is liquefied on the indoor coil, collected in the drain pan and removed through a drain line).
Dry bulb temperature:- Heat intensity, measured by a dry bulb thermometer.
Dry bulb thermometer:- An instrument that measures air temperature independently of humidity.
DX:- Direct expansion; a system in which heat is transferred by the direct expansion of refrigerant.
Drain down System:- Potable water is circulated from the storage tank through the collector loop. Freeze protection is provided by solenoid valves opening and dumping the water at a preset low temperature.
 Collectors and piping are pitched so that the system can drain down, and are assembled to withstand 100 psi tap water line pressures. Pressure reducing valves are recommended when tap water pressure is greater than the working pressure of the system.
Dual Condenser:- A heat pump system which has the capability to switch, usually automatically, between an air and a water heat exchanger. Full capacity hot air or hot water output is available.
Electronic Air Cleaner:- An electronic device that filters out large particles and bioaerosols in the air.
EMC filter grid:- Protective guard with shield, to highly reduce unwanted emission (or influence) of high frequency radiation. The airflow performance is reduced by approximately 10 to 15%. EMC filter and dust protection filters can be combination parts.
Emittance:- A measure of the propensity of a material to emit thermal radiation.

Energy Efficiency Ratio, EER:- Cooling capacity in BTU/hr divided by electrical energy consumed in watts, in steady state.

Eutectic Salts:- A group of materials that melt at low temperatures, absorbing large quantities of heat.

EAT:- Entering air temperature.

EER:- Energy efficiency ratio.

ELT:- Entering liquid temperature.

EWL:- Entering water or fluid temperature.

Evaporator:- The heat absorbing mechanism or heat exchanger in a heat pump. Refrigerant changes phase from a liquid to a gas in this exchanger, absorbing heat energy from the surrounding media in the process.

Evaporator coil:- The half of an air conditioning system located inside. This is a tubing coil in which a volatile liquid evaporates and absorbs heat. This is where the refrigerant evaporates as it absorbs heat from the internal environment air that passes over the coil.

Evaporator Temperature:- The temperature on evaporator side when Freon is converted from a liquid to a vapour (gas).

Fan:- Any device that creates air currents. Electromechanical component for creating airflow that dissipates air heated by thermal loss in a device. In comparison to convection, the heat output is improved by factor 3. Depending on the design, the airflow can be discharged axially (straight through the fan) or radially (discharged at the side).

Fan accessories:- A term for components that are additionally required for a fan: finger guard, filter grid, EMC guard, connecting cable, etc.

Fan Coil:- A unit that includes a cooling and/or heating coil and a fan to move air through the ductwork. Filters for the circulation air and accessories to introduce outside ventilation air may also be included.

Fan-Watts:- Blower motor electricity consumption.

Filter:- Any device that removes impurities through a straining process.

Filter grid:- Protective grid with a replaceable dust filter that protects the fan and the device against dust collecting quickly in an environment that is subject to a high accumulation of dust. The airflow performance is reduced by approx. 25% by a filter guard.

Finger guard:- Safety device of wire or plastic for protecting against injuries to fingers in large fans or for protecting against damage in small fans. The airflow performance is reduced.

Flue:- Any vent or passageway that carries the products of combustion from a furnace.

Flat Plate Collector:- A solar collection device in which sunlight is converted into heat on a plane surface without the aid of reflecting surfaces to concentrate the rays.

Flow IGPM:- Liquid flow.

Forced Convection:- The transfer of heat by the flow of fluids (such as air or water) driven by fans, blowers or pumps.

Freon:- Trade name for a series of synthetic chemicals or refrigerants used in refrigeration systems. Each refrigerant is designed to change phase at specific temperatures and pressures which will produce the desired cooling effect required for a specific application. The refrigerant absorbs energy as it evaporates and releases energy during condensation.

Full Package:- Self contained heat pump which has an integrated blower and compressor.

Full-Condensing Heat Exchanger:- A heat exchanger with enough surface area to condense all the hot refrigerant gas produced by a heat pump to its liquid state thereby transferring all the heat produced by the unit.

Galvanic Corrosion:- A condition caused as a result of a conducting liquid making contact with two different metals which are not properly isolated physically and/or electrically.

Geothermal Energy:- Heat energy stored in the earth's crust by the absorption of solar energy and by conduction with the earth's hot interior.

Getters:- A column or cartridge containing an active metal which will be sacrificed to protect some other metal in the system against galvanic corrosion.

Glaubers Salt:- Sodium sulphate a eutectic salt that melts at 90°F and absorbs about 104 Btu per pound as it does so.

Gravity Convection:- The natural movement of heat that occurs when a warm fluid rises and a cool fluid sinks under the influence of gravity.

Ground Loop:- A series of heat exchange pipes containing an antifreeze solution which are buried either vertically or horizontally in the earth.

Ground Source:- A heat pump which utilizes the earth as its source of energy.

HAB:- Heating mode: heat absorption capacity from the ground or water
Cooling mode: heat absorption capacity from the inside air (total cooling load)

Headers:- The pipe that runs across the edge of an array of solar collectors, gathering or distributing the heat transfer fluid from, or to the risers in the individual collectors. This insures that equal flow rates and pressure are maintained.

Heat Capacity:- A property of a material denoting its ability to absorb heat.

Heat Exchanger:- A component which transfers heat energy from one medium to another. For example, heat could be transferred, in a geothermal heat pump system, from water-to-air or from water-to-water etc. and vice versa. An area, box or coil where heat flows from the warmer to the colder fluid or surface. The transfer heat from one fluid to another without the fluids coming into direct contact with each other. A device, such as a coiled copper tube immersed in a tank of water, that is used to transfer heat from one fluid to another through a separating wall.

Heat Gain:- Heat added to the conditioned space by infiltration, solar radiation, occupant respiration, lighting, and operating equipment.

Heat Loss:- The rate of heat transfer from a heated space to the external environment.

Heat Pump:- A mechanical-compression cycle refrigeration system that can be reversed to either heat or cool the controlled space. A heat pump is an HVAC unit that heats or cools by moving heat. During the winter, a heat pump draws heat from outdoor air and circulates it through the air ducts. In the summer, it reverses the process and removes heat from the space and releases it outdoors. A mechanical device that transfers heat from one medium to another, thereby cooling the first and warming the second.

Heat sink:- A medium or container to which heat flows. The area or media where heat is deposited.

Heat Source:- A medium or container from which heat flows. The area or media from which heat is removed, for example water, air, etc.

Heat Storage:- A device or medium that absorbs collected solar heat and stores it for use during periods of inclement or cold weather.

Heat Storage Capacity:- The amount of heat which can be stored by a material.

Heating Season:- The period from early fall to late spring (in the northern hemisphere) during which additional heat is needed to maintain an environment.

Hybrid Solar Energy System:- A system that uses both active and passive methods in its operation.

Heat Transfer:- The movement of heat energy from one point to another. The means for such movement are conduction, convection, and radiation.

Humidifier:- A machine that adds water vapour to the air to increase humidity.

Humidity:- The presence of water vapour in the air.

Humidity, absolute:- Weight of water vapour per cubic foot of dry air, expressed as grains of moisture per cubic foot.

Humidity, relative:- The amount of moisture in the air expressed as a percentage of the maximum amount that the air is capable of holding at a specific temperature.

Horizontal Flow:- Air enters at the end or any side of the unit and is discharged horizontally out the other end or any side of the unit.

Humidistat:- An automatic device used to maintain humidity at a fixed or adjustable set point.

Hydrodynamic bearing:- Sintered sleeve bearing systems. The lubrication effect is similar to the typical sintered bearing. Especially treating the shaft and bearing tube can achieve extremely stable lubrication with a lower influence of temperature and wear.

Indirect System:- A solar heating or cooling system in which the solar heat is collected externally and transferred internally using ducts or piping and, usually fans or ducts.

Infrared Radiation:- Electromagnetic radiation from the sun that has wavelengths slightly longer than visible light.

Insolation:- The total amount of solar radiation direct, diffused and reflected-striking a surface exposed to the sky.

Insulation:- A material with high resistance (R-value) to heat flow.

IGPM:- Water flow in Imperial Gallons

kWh - kilowatt hours:- Electrical term - 1 kWh equals the use of 1000 watts for one hour.

kW out:- Heat pump capacity in kW's

Langley:- A measure of solar radiation; equal to one calorie per square centimetre.

Latent:- The load created by moisture in the air, including from outside air infiltration and that from internal sources.

Latent Heat:- A type of heat, which when added to or taken from a substance, does not change the temperature of the substance. Instead, the heat energy enables the substance to change its state.

Liquid Type Collector:- A collector using a liquid as the heat transfer fluid.

Liquid-to-Air Heat Pump:- A heat pump which absorbs heat from a liquid and distributes the energy in the form of hot forced air.

Liquid-to-Liquid heat pump:- A heat pump which absorbs heat from a liquid and distributes the energy in the form of hot water.

LWT:- Leaving water temperature.

LAT:- Leaving air temperature.

LLT:- Leaving liquid temperature.

Mechanical Cooling:- Conventional cooling provided by a compressor operated refrigeration device. Term can be interchanged with 'active cooling'.

Natural Convection:- See *Gravity Convection*.

Nocturnal Cooling:- The cooling of a building or heat storage device by the radiation of excess heat into the night sky.

One-Tank Closed-Loop System:- A conventional DHW tank, usually electrically heated, is converted to a solar DHW storage tank by installing an external heat exchanger coil. The lower electrical element is removed, leaving the uppermost of the usual two elements to provide auxiliary water heating and to achieve good stratification (layering of hotter water over progressively colder water).

Open System:- Some part of the System is open to the atmosphere, or system contains fresh or changeable water or air.

Open Loop:- A system where water is pumped from a water source for use in a heat pump.

Output:- Heat pump capacity in Btu/Ton.

Oversized Evaporator:- A technique of employing a larger than normal evaporator (heat absorption device) in a geothermal heat pump in order to obtain greater heat exchange and thus better performance from the unit.

PSI:- Pounds per square inch.

PSIA:- Pounds per square inch, absolute.

PSIG:- Pounds per square inch gauge.

Package Heat Pump:- A heat pump which has all components (compressor, blower and heat exchangers etc.) in one cabinet.

Passive System:- A solar heating or cooling system that uses no external mechanical power to move the collected solar heat.

Percentage of Possible Sunshine:- The percentage of daytime hours during which there is enough direct solar radiation to cast a shadow.

Photosynthesis:- The conversion of solar energy to chemical energy, by the action of chlorophyll in plants and algae.

Photovoltaic Cells:- Semiconductor devices that convert solar energy into electricity.

Pyranometer:- An instrument for measuring solar radiation.

Radial Fan:- Special shape of a fan where the air is suctioned in axially, turned 90°, radially, and thus discharged vertical to the axis. Also known as a *Turbofan*. The distinguishing features of radial fans are their extremely high compression rigidity, which renders them especially suitable for ventilation of heat sinks and general cooling applications where space is limited.

Radiation:- The flow of energy through open space via electromagnetic waves, such as visible light.

Radiant Panels:- Panels with integral passages for the flow of warm fluids, either air or liquids. Heat from the fluid is conducted through the metal and transferred to the environment by thermal radiation.

Passive Cooling:- A process whereby cold water (less than 10°C) is pumped directly to a finned air coil (much like the radiator of a vehicle) so that when the heat pump fan is operated, cooling and dehumidification are provided without the operation of a compressor driven refrigeration system.

Radiant Floor Heating:- Process of embedding tubing (cross-linked polyethylene, polybutylene, etc.) directly in a concrete floor so that hot water can be pumped through the tubing for the purpose of heating the building via the flooring.

Reflected Radiation:- Sunlight that is reflected from the surrounding environment onto a surface exposed to the sky.

Refrigerant:- A chemical that produces a cooling effect while expanding or vaporizing. Most air conditioning systems contain R-22 refrigerant, which is scheduled to be in production until the year 2020. Its used in approximately 95 percent of air conditioning equipment. A liquid such as Freon is used in cooling devices to absorb heat from surrounding air or liquids as it evaporates. A naturally occurring or man made liquid which absorbs and releases heat energy in a refrigeration device by changing phase from a liquid to a gas and vice versa in response to the influence of a refrigeration compressor.

Refrigerant Charge:- The required amount of refrigerant in a system.

R-410A Refrigerant:- A chlorine-free refrigerant that meets environmental guidelines.

Resistance, or R Value:- The tendency of a material to retard the flow of heat.

Retrofitting:- The application of a solar heating or cooling system to an existing site.

Reversing Heat Pump:- A heat pump in which the condenser and evaporator coils of the unit reverse roles in response to a reverse in the direction of the flow of refrigerant in the machine.

Risers:- The flow channels or pipes that distribute the heat transfer liquid across the face of an absorber.

Scroll Compressor:- A specially designed compressor that works in a circular motion, as opposed to a reciprocating up-and-down piston action.

Seasonal Coefficient of Performance, SCOP:- Is the average CoP over the entire heating period.

Seasonal Efficiency:- The ratio, over an entire heating period, of solar energy collected and used to the solar energy striking the collector.

Seasonal Energy Efficiency Ratio, SEER:- The average cooling efficiency over an entire cooling period.

Self-contained System:- A refrigerating system that can be moved without disconnecting any refrigerant lines; also known as a package unit.

Selective Surface:- A surface that absorbs radiation of one wavelength (e.g., sunlight) but emits little radiation of another wavelength (for example, infrared); used as a coating for absorber plates.

Sensible:- The internal heat gain due to heat conduction, convection, and radiation from the external into the internal, and from appliances.

Sensible Heat:- That heat which, when added to or taken away from a substance, causes a temperature rise or fall.

Sensor:- Any device that reacts to a change in the conditions being measured, permitting the condition to be monitored and controlled.

SEPA:- Acronym for the terms, Silent, Economic, Powerful, Advanced

Setpoint:- The temperature or pressure at which a controller is set with the expectation that this will be a nominal value depending on the range of the controller.

Shading Coefficient:- The ratio of the solar heat gain through a specific glazing system to the total solar heat gain through a single layer of clear double-strength glass.

Simple Payback Factor (heating):- Subtract the installation cost of the least expensive (less efficient) system from the installation cost of the more expensive (more efficient) heating system. This value is the increased cost of installing the more efficient system. Calculate the yearly energy savings by installing the more efficient system. Take the increased cost to install divided by the yearly energy savings and the result is the number of years required for the more efficient system to pay for itself.

Sink Temperature:- This is the temperature of the media (water or air) into which the heat pump must reject its heat.

Sleeve bearing:- Sleeve bearings of porous, sintered iron or bronze alloys are used in fans. The liquid lubricant is stored in the sintered pores and is discharged when the shaft rotates. Due to the hydrodynamic effect, a lubricant cycle is created that only functions freely in a relatively tight temperature range (approximately 0 to 60°C). Due to surface errors, micro-contamination and natural wear during running the fan in and running down, reliability is considerably lower than with ball bearings. Sleeve bearings are frequently used due to their favourable price.

Silencer System:- Carrier Silencer System ensures quiet operation inside and out, typically achieved using quiet motor mounts, a compressor sound blanket, forward swept fan blades, a laminated sound elimination compressor mounting plate, and integrated silencer airflow baffles.

Split System:- Split heat pumps are two part refrigeration systems which have separate evaporator / air handler and compressor / condenser sections. Commonly employed in air-to-air systems where the condenser section is located externally while the evaporator / air handler is located inside the conditioned structure.

Spine Fin Coil:- All-aluminium outdoor coil with a spine fin design which provides greater heat exchanging capabilities (meaning higher efficiencies) and is more resistant to corrosion than traditional copper/aluminium.

Solar Constant:- The average intensity of solar radiation reaching the earth outside the atmosphere; amounting to 1395 W/m².

Solar Radiation (Solar Energy):- Electromagnetic radiation emitted by the sun.

Source Temperature:- This is the temperature of the media (water or air) from which the heat pump extracts its heat.

Specific Heat:- The quantity of heat, in BTU, needed to raise the temperature of one pound of a material 1°F.

Standby Heat Loss:- Heat lost through the storage tank and piping walls.

Sun Path Diagram:- A circular projection of the sky vault, similar to a map, that is used to determine solar positions and to calculate shading.

Thermal Capacity:- The quantity of heat needed to warm a collector to its operating temperature.

Thermal Mass or Thermal Inertia:- The tendency of a structure with large quantities of heavy materials to remain at the same temperature or to fluctuate only slowly; also the overall heat storage capacity of the building.

Thermal Radiation:- Electromagnetic radiation emitted by a warm body.

Thermostat:- A thermostat consists of a series of sensors and relays that monitor and control the functions of a heating and cooling system.

Thermostat:- Monitors temperature and humidity and adjusts heating or cooling system to maintain the desired levels.

Thermistor:- Sensing device which changes its electrical resistance according to temperature. Used in the control system to generate input data on collector and storage temperatures.

Thermosyphoning:- The process that makes water circulate automatically between a warm collector and a cooler storage tank above it. (See *Gravity Convection*).

Tilt Angle:- The angle that a flat plate collector surface forms with the horizontal plane.

Ton (of refrigeration):- The amount of energy it takes to convert 2000 lbs. of water at 32° F to ice at 32° F during a 24 hour period. Calculation: 2000 lbs.H₂O x 144 Btu/lb. = 288,000 Btu's in 24 Hrs. Divide by 24 hrs = 12,000 BTU/hr. Therefore a 'ton' of cooling is a measure of heat energy which is roughly equivalent to 12,000 BTU.

Temperature difference:- Difference between ELT and a LLT.

Trickle Type Collector:- A collector in which the heat transfer liquid flows through metal tubes which are fastened to the absorber plate by solder, clamps or other means. (See *Collector*).

Tube-in-Plate-Absorber:- A metal absorber plate in which the heat transfer fluid flows through passages formed in the plate itself.

Two-stage heating / Two-stage cooling:- Two-stage heating and cooling is considered to be more efficient, because it operates at low speed most of the time. However, when more heating or air conditioning is required, it switches to the next stage for maximum performance.

TX Valve:- A temperature and pressure controlled device for metering refrigerant in a heat pump or other refrigeration device.

U-Factor:- The factor representing resistance to heat flow of various materials.

Ultraviolet Radiation:- Electromagnetic radiation with wavelengths slightly shorter than visible light.

Upflow:- Air enters at the bottom of the unit and is discharged vertically out the top.

Upflow Furnace:- A furnace in which air is drawn in through the sides or bottom and discharged out the top.

Vacuum:- A pressure below atmospheric pressure. A perfect vacuum is 30 inches Mercury (elemental symbol 'Hg').

Ventilator:- A system that exchanges old, recirculated indoor air with fresh, filtered outside air.

Water-to-Water:- A heat pump which extracts heat from water in one area and transfers the heat usually at a higher temperature to another body of water. For example, extracting heat from a 10°C source and using it to heat domestic hot water at 50°C.

Glossary of Thermoelectric terminology [Chapters 6, 28]

Active heat Load:-The amount of heat (in Watts) being generated by the device that is on top of the TE Cooler. Typically, the input power of this device, voltage x current minus the output power.

Alumina:- Ceramics made of aluminium oxide (Al_2O_3). These ceramics are used on most of our standard TECs. A positive of Al_2O_3 is that it is inexpensive and can be designed for snap states instead of dice, which considerably reduces production costs. Negative aspects of this material are its lower thermal conductivity and it is difficult to use in 3 to 6 stage coolers.

Ambient temperature:- Temperature of the air or environment surrounding a thermoelectric cooling system; sometimes called room temperature.

Aspect ratio:- The numerical ratio of the length (height) to cross-sectional area of a thermoelectric element. An element's L/A aspect ratio is inversely proportional to its optimum current.

BeO:- Ceramics made of beryllium oxide. Typically used in multi-stage coolers due to its higher thermal conductivity. The advantages to this material are that it enhances the thermal performance of the TE Cooler as well as makes it easier to assemble because of the high heat conductance. Disadvantages are that it is expensive and can be toxic when its dust is inhaled. The dust comes from dicing and sanding of the material, both of which are performed on a TE Cooler in its final condition. The risks of BeO sometimes prohibit it as an option.

Bismuth Telluride:- A thermoelectric semiconductor material that exhibits optimum performance in a 'room temperature' range. An alloy of bismuth telluride most often is used for thermoelectric cooling applications.

Bismuth Antimony:- A thermoelectric semiconductor material that exhibits optimum performance characteristics at relatively low temperatures.

Burn-in test:- A power cycling test performed by repeatedly powering on and off the TE Cooler for short intervals of time. The test is designed to detect latent manufacturing or material defects that would cause premature failure of the TE Cooler.

Cascaded module (multi-stage module):- A thermoelectric cooler configuration whereby one cooler is stacked on top of another so as to be thermally in series. This arrangement makes it possible to reach lower temperatures than can be achieved with a single-stage cooler.

Ceramic:- A patterned substrate (at least one side) for a TE Cooler. This material conducts heat and insulates electric current. Typically comprised of Al_2O_3 , Al_2N_5 , BeO
Thermal Conductivity (W/in °C) .051, 4.0, 6.5, CTE ($10^{-6}/^{\circ}C$) 7.0, 4.0, 9.0,

Coefficient of performance, COP:- A measure of the efficiency of a thermoelectric cooler, device or system. Mathematically, COP is the total heat transferred through the thermoelectric device divided by the electric input power ($COP = P_c/W$). COP can be stated as COPR (Coefficient of Performance as a Refrigerator) or as COPH (Coefficient of Performance as a Heater).

Cold side of a thermoelectric module:- The side of a cooler that normally is placed in contact with the object being cooled. When the positive and negative cooler leads are connected to the respective positive and negative terminals of a dc power source, the cooler's cold side will absorb heat. Typically, the leads of a TE cooler are attached to the hot side.

Conduction (thermal):- The transfer of heat within a material caused by a temperature difference through the material. The actual material may be a solid, liquid or gas (or a combination) where heat will flow by means of direct contact from a high temperature region to a lower temperature region.

Convection (thermal):- The transfer of heat by air (gas) movement over a surface. Convection is a combined heat transfer process involving conduction, mixing action, and energy storage.

Couple:- A pair of thermoelectric elements consisting of one *n*-type and one *p*-type connected electrically in series and thermally in parallel. Because the input voltage to a single couple is quite low, a number of couples normally are joined together to form a 'cooler'.

Delta-T, ΔT :- The temperature difference between the cold and hot sides of a thermoelectric cooler.

DT_{max} , ΔT_{max} :- The maximum obtainable temperature difference between the cold and hot side of the thermoelectric elements within the module with I_{max} and no heat load applied to the module and the hot-side of the elements within the module being at 300K. Virtually impossible to remove all sources of heat in order to achieve the true DT_{max} . Therefore, the number only serves as a standardized indicator of the cooling capability of a thermoelectric module.

ΔT Test:- Test performed in which the TE Cooler is placed on a temperature controlled base plate (typically 27°C) and powered at I_{max} . A thermocouple is pressed onto the top ceramic using a spring plunger and the cold side temperature as well as voltage is measured.

Efficiency:- For thermoelectric coolers, mathematical efficiency is the heat pumped by a cooler divided by the electrical input power; for thermoelectric generators, efficiency is the electrical output power from the cooler divided by the heat input (Q_c/Q_h). To convert to percent, multiply by 100. See definition of *Coefficient of Performance*.

Figure-of-merit, Z factor:- A measure of the overall performance of a thermoelectric device or material. Material having the highest figure-of-merit also has the highest thermoelectric performance. A good thermoelectric material will have a high Z, high Seebeck coefficient and low thermal conductivity and resistively.

The Z is a direct measure of the cooling performance of a thermoelectric module. $Z = S^2/\rho \times k$ where S is the Seebeck Coefficient, ρ is electrical resistivity and k is the thermal conductivity of the thermoelectric material. Z is temperature dependent though, so, when comparing one module to another, they must be based on the same hot-side temperatures.

Heat load:- The quantity of heat presented to a thermoelectric device that must be absorbed by the device's cold side. The term heat load, when used by itself, tends to be somewhat ambiguous and it is preferable to be more specific. Terms such as active heat load, passive heat load or total heat load are more descriptive and less uncertain as to meaning.

Heat pump:- A general term describing a thermoelectric cooling device, often being used as a synonym for a thermoelectric cooler. In somewhat less common usage, the term heat pump has been applied to a thermoelectric device operating in the heating mode.

Heat pump capacity:- The amount of heat that a thermoelectric device is capable of pumping at a given set of operating parameters. Frequently, this term will be used interchangeably with the expression maximum heat pumping capacity. The two terms are not strictly synonymous, however, because maximum heat pumping capacity specifically defines the maximum amount of heat that a cooler will pump at the maximum rated input current and at a zero temperature differential.

Heat Sink/Cold Sink:- A heat sink is a device that is attached to the hot side of thermoelectric module in order to facilitate the transfer of heat from the hot side of the module to the ambient. A cold sink is attached to the cold of the module to facilitate heat transfer from whatever is being cooled (liquid, gas, solid object) to the cold side of the module. The most common heat sink (or cold sink) is an aluminium plate that has fins attached to it. A fan is used to move ambient air through the heat sink to pick up heat from the module. Another style uses a plate with embedded tubing through which liquid is pump to pick up heat from the module.

Heat transfer coefficient:- A numerical value that describes the degree of coupling that exists between an object and a cooling or heating fluid. The heat transfer coefficient actually is an extremely complex value that encompasses many physical factors.

Hot side of a thermoelectric module:- The face of a thermoelectric cooler that usually is placed in contact with the heat sink. When the positive and negative cooler leads are connected to the respective positive and negative terminals of a dc power source, the cooler's hot side will reject heat. Normally, the wire leads are attached to the hot side ceramic substrate.

I_{max} :- Current which, the maximum ΔT is produced, with the hot side held at 300K. Generally, it is not good to operate a TE cooler at I_{max} because the amount of input power increases significantly without a significant change in ΔT . 70 - 80 % of I_{max} is usually an optimal operating condition.

Interstage temperature:- The temperature between specific stages or levels of a multi-stage or cascade cooler.

Joule heating:- The passage of an electrical current through a conductor or material due to the internal resistance, resulting in Heat

Kinetic viscosity:- The ratio of a fluid's viscosity to its density; typically units are centimetres squared per second and feet squared per second.

Latent heat:- Thermal energy required to cause a change of state of a substance such as changing water into ice or water into steam.

Lead telluride:- A thermoelectric semiconductor that exhibits its optimum performance within a temperature range of 250-450°C. Lead telluride is used most often for thermoelectric power generation applications.

Maximum heat pump capacity, maximum P_c :- The maximum quantity of heat that can be absorbed at the cold face of a thermoelectric cooler when the temperature differential between the cold and hot cooler faces is zero and when the cooler is being operated at its rated optimum current. P_{max} is a significant thermoelectric cooler/device specifications.

Maximum temperature differential, maximum ΔT :- The largest difference that can be obtained between the hot and cold faces of a thermoelectric cooler when heat applied to the cold face is effectively zero. ΔT_{max} or DT_{max} is one of the significant thermoelectric cooler/device specifications.

Metallisation:- The conductive copper pattern printed on the ceramics.

Module:- A thermoelectric cooling component or device fabricated with multiple thermoelectric couples that are connected thermally in parallel and electrically in series.

Multi-stage module (cascade module):- A thermoelectric configuration whereby one TEC is mechanically stacked on top of another in series. This arrangement makes it possible to reach lower temperatures than can be achieved with a single-stage cooler.

Optimum current:- The specific level of electrical current that will produce the greatest heat absorption by the cold side of a thermoelectric cooler. At the optimum current, a thermoelectric cooler will be capable of pumping the maximum quantity of heat; maximum temperature differential (ΔT_{max}) typically occurs at a somewhat lower current level.

Passive heat loads:- The amount of non-active heat (in Watts) being applied on the TE cooler. This includes conductance through wires that extend from the cold side of the TE cooler to the ambient, the convective loads from the surrounding atmosphere (note: convective loads are present in Nitrogen, Argon, and Xenon, but are not present in a vacuum).

Peltier effect:- The phenomenon whereby the passage of an electrical current through a junction consisting of two dissimilar metals results in a cooling effect; when the direction of current flow is reversed heating will occur.

Q_{max} :- The maximum amount of heat (in Watts) that a TE cooler can pump, with the hot-side held at 300K and at I_{max} . This occurs when the ΔT is zero. Only for multi-stage coolers operating near a ΔT_{max} condition.

Seebeck Coefficient:- The Seebeck Coefficient is a measure of the electrical voltage potential that exists in an electrical conductor whose ends are maintained at two different temperatures and current is not flowing. It is an intrinsic property and has units of V/K. Thermocouples used for temperature measurement utilize this principle.

Seebeck effect:- The phenomenon whereby an electrical current will flow in a closed circuit made up of two dissimilar metals when the junctions of the metals are maintained at two different temperatures. A common thermocouple used for temperature measurement utilizes this principle.

Silicon-germanium:- A high temperature thermoelectric semi-conductor material that exhibits its optimum performance within a temperature range of 500-1000°C. Silicon-Germanium material most often is used for special thermoelectric power generation applications that utilize a radioisotope/nuclear heat source.

Single-stage module:- The most common type of thermoelectric cooling module using a single layer of thermoelectric couples connected electrically in series and thermally in parallel. Single-stage coolers will produce a maximum temperature differential of approximately 70°C under a no-load condition.

Specific Heat:- The amount of thermal energy required to raise the temperature of a particular substance by one temperature degree. Units are J/kg/K.

Thermal coefficient of expansion:- A measure of the dimensional change of a material due to a temperature change. Common measurement units include centimetre per centimetre per °C.

Thermal conductance:- The amount of heat a given object will transmit per unit of temperature. Thermal conductance is independent of the physical dimensions, i.e., cross-sectional area and length of the object. Typical units include watts per degree Celsius.

Thermal conductivity:- The amount of heat a material will transmit per unit of temperature based on the material's cross-sectional area and thickness. Thermal conductance multiplied by length and divided by area.

Thermal grease:- A grease-like material used to enhance heat transfer between two surfaces by filling in the microscopic voids caused by surface roughness. Most thermal greases, also known as *Thermal Heat Sink Compound* or *Thermal Joint Compound*, are made from silicone grease loaded with zinc oxide. Non-silicone based compounds are also available which in most cases are superior but more expensive than silicone-based alternatives.

Thermal Interface:- A physical interface between two objects through which heat is conducted. In the case of thermoelectrics, the physical connection the module has with the heat sink/cold sink.

Usually, thermal grease is used between the module and heat sink. Alternatively it might be solder or a thermally conductive pad.

Thermal Resistance:- A measure relating a temperature rise per unit of applied heat. All mediums through which heat is conducted have an associated thermal resistance. Common thermal resistances are heat sink resistance and thermal interface resistance. Thermoelectric coolers perform better with heat sinks having a low thermal resistance.

Thermal shock:- Thermal Shock also is referred to as temperature cycling in some MIL specs. In a thermal shock test, the TE cooler (not powered throughout test) is placed in a hot chamber (for example, 85°C) for a set time (for example, 30 minutes). The part is then transferred to the cold chamber (for example, -40°C) for the same time. This cycle is repeated several times depending on the requirement.

Thermoelectric:- A term used to denote not only the products produced but also the basic scientific principle upon which products are designed.

Thermoelectric generator:- A device that directly converts energy into electrical energy based on the Seebeck Effect. Bismuth telluride-based thermoelectric generators have very low efficiencies (generally not exceeding two or three percent) but may provide useful electrical power in certain applications.

Thermoelectric heat pump:- Another name for a thermoelectric module or thermoelectric cooler. The term Heat Pump has been used by some specifically to denote the use of a thermoelectric module in the heating mode, but this usage is uncommon.

Thermoelectric material:- An alloy of materials that produce thermoelectric properties.

Thermoelectric Module:- A semiconductor-based electronic component that functions as a small heat pump. By applying a low voltage dc power source to a TE module, heat will be moved through the module from one side to the other. Therefore, one side will be cooled while the opposite side will be heated. Consequently, a TE module can be used for both heating and cooling.

Thomson Coefficient:- If the ends of an electrical conductor are held at two different temperatures, a voltage potential is created because there will be a tendency for electrons at the hot end of the conductor to drift towards the cold end of the conductor. When an external current is applied, so that electrical carriers flow from cold end to the hot end, the electrical carriers must absorb heat to maintain equilibrium with the temperature. If the external current was applied from hot to cold, the carriers would release heat to maintain temperature equilibrium. The Thomson Coefficient is a measure of the voltage per difference in temperature, and with the application of an external current is a measure of the heat generated or absorbed per unit temperature difference per unit current.

Usually, the Thomson effect is intrinsic to the material. However, the Thomson effect can also be extrinsically applied to a conductor by varying the material properties along the length of the conductor. This can actually improve the cooling performance as compared to the usual isotropic material. The Thomson effect is really more complex than that described above.

Thomson effect:- The phenomena whereby a reversible evolution or absorption of heat occurs at opposite ends of a conductor having a thermal gradient when an electrical current passes through the conductor.

V_{max} :- The optimum voltage the maximum ΔT is produced, with the hot-side held at 300K.

Glossary of Fuselink terminology (Fuseology) [Chapter 12]

'A' Fuselink (formerly Back-Up Fuselink):- A current limiting fuselink capable of breaking under specified conditions all currents between the lowest current indicated on its operating time-current characteristic and its rated breaking capacity.

Ambient Temperature:- The temperature of the surrounding medium which comes in contact with the fuse. The medium is usually air. Fuse current carrying capacity tests are performed at 25°C and are affected by changes in ambient temperature. A fuse runs hotter as the normal operating current approaches or exceeds its current rating. At room temperature, 25°C, a fuse should last indefinitely if operated at no more than 75% of fuse ampere rating. The fuse ambient temperature may be significantly higher because it is enclosed or mounted near other heat producing components, such as resistors, transformers, etc.

Ampacity:- The current a conductor can carry continuously without exceeding its temperature rating. Ampacity is a function of cable size, insulation type and the conditions of use.

Ampere Rating:- Same as Current Rating or the current carrying capacity of a fuse. The continuous current carrying capability of a fuse under defined conditions. When a fuse is subjected to a current above its ampere rating, it will open the circuit after a predetermined period of time. Continuous load current should not exceed 75% of fuse ampere rating (at 25°C ambient) except fuses that may be specifically loaded to 100% of their ampere rating.

Ampere Squared Seconds, I^2t :- A measure of thermal (heat) energy associated with current flow during fuse clearing. I^2t is equal to $I_{RMS}^2 \times t$, where t is the duration of current flow in seconds. It can be expressed as melting I^2t , arcing I^2t or their sum as Clearing I^2t . Clearing I^2t is the total I^2t passed by a fuse as the fuse clears a fault, with t being equal to the time elapsed from the initiation of the fault to the instant the fault has been cleared. Melting I^2t is the minimum I^2t required to melt the fuse element. ' I ' is the effective let-through RMS current, which is squared, and ' t ' is the time of opening, in seconds.

Arc Quenching Time:- As part of the Operating Time it is the time between the arc starting and the final current zero. Depending on the Melting Time the Arc Quenching Time is typically just a few ms up to a couple of 100 ms.

Arc Voltage:- The highest fuse voltage during the fuse Operating Time. It is supply voltage dependent.

Arcing I^2t :- Value of the I^2t during the arcing time under specified conditions

Arcing Time:- The arcing time is the interval of time between the instant of the initiation of the arc and the instant of final arc extinction. That is the time from when the fuselink has melted until the over current is interrupted, or cleared.

Arcing withstand Time:- Longest time between separation of the melting element and the faultless interruption of the current through the fuse-switch. Typical values are above 100 ms.

Breaking Capacity:- The breaking capacity is the highest value (for ac the rms value of the symmetrical ac component) of prospective current that a fuselink is capable of breaking at a stated voltage under specified conditions of use and behaviour. The rating which defines the fuses ability to safely interrupt and clear short circuits. This rating is much greater than the ampere rating of a fuse. The highest current at rated voltage that an over current protective device is intended to interrupt under specified conditions. During a fault or short circuit condition, a fuse may receive an instantaneous overload current many times greater than its normal operating current. Safe operation requires that the fuse remain intact (no explosion or body rupture) and clear the circuit. Also known as *interrupting rating* or *short circuit rating*.

Breaking Range:- Breaking range is a range of prospective currents within which the breaking capacity of a fuselink is assured.

Class of fuse / fuse class:- Standards have developed basic physical specifications and electrical performance requirements for fuses with voltage ratings that pertain to specific countries. The fuse class refers to the designed interrupting characteristic of the fuse. The following fuse class found in IEC 60269 applies to high speed fuses.

- **aR** - Partial-range interrupting capacity (short-circuit protection only) for the protection of power semiconductors (IEC Utilization category).

Other classes are:

- **gG** (formerly gL) - Full-range interrupting capacity (overload and short-circuit protection) for general applications (IEC Utilization category).
- **gM** - Full-range interrupting capacity (overload and short-circuit protection) for the protection of motor circuits (IEC Utilization category).
- **aM** - Partial-range interrupting capacity (short-circuit protection only) for the protection of motor circuits (IEC Utilization category).
- **gR** - Full-range interrupting capacity (overload and short-circuit protection) for the protection of Power Semiconductors (<100A).
- **gPV** - gPV - Full-range interrupting capacity (overload and short-circuit protection) for the protection of photovoltaic (PV) systems below gR class.
- **gB** - Characteristic of a general purpose fuse-link for protection in mining installations. Fuse with quick-acting Characteristic at short-circuits'
- **gRL** - Characteristic of a general-purpose fuse-link for the protection of semiconductors and their feed lines. New combination protection that supersedes the former additionally used gG fuse-link inside lines.
- **gTr** - Characteristic of a general-purpose fuse-link for overload protection of power transformers as short-circuit protection for low-voltage bus bars. Designed to a discrimination of the high-voltage fuses.

Clearing (total operating) Time:- The total time from the beginning of the over current to the final opening of the circuit at rated voltage by an over current protective device. Clearing time is the total of the melting time and the arcing time.

Continuous current rating:- The current level that causes the fuse to operate in a time of four hours is called the continuous current rating.

Conventional non-Fusing Current I_{nt} :- A value of current specified as that which the fuselink is capable of carrying for a specified time (conventional time) without melting. The conventional time relates to the thermal time constant of the fuselink and varies between one and four hours depending on the current rating.

Conventional Fusing Current I_f :- Current specified as that which causes operation of the fuselink within a specified time (conventional time). The conventional time relates to the thermal time constant of the fuselink and varies between one and four hours depending on the current rating.

Coordination:- The use of over-current protective devices which will isolate only that portion of an electrical system which has been overloaded or faulted.

Current-Limiting Fuselink:- A current-limiting fuse link limits the current to a substantially lower value than the peak value of the prospective current during and by its operation in a specified current range.

Current Limitation:- Fuse operation relating to short circuits only. When a fuse operates in its current limiting range, it will clear a short circuit in less than ½ cycle. Also, it will limit the instantaneous peak let-through current to a value substantially less than that obtainable in the same circuit if that fuse were replaced with a solid conductor of the same impedance.

Current Rating:- The nominal amperage value of the fuse. It is established as a value of current which the fuse can carry, based on a controlled set of test conditions.

Cut-Off Current:- The cut-off or peak let-through current is the maximum instantaneous value reached by the current during the breaking operation of a fuselink when it operates in such a manner as to prevent the current from reaching the otherwise attainable maximum. In case of a short-circuit, the maximum value of the short circuit current. This value is required for the analysis of the dynamic impact of the short-circuit current on the protected equipment.

Cut-off (current) characteristic:- The cut-off (current) characteristic or let-through current characteristic is a curve giving the cut-off current as a function of the prospective current, under specified operating conditions.

Derating:- Term for reducing influences on the Rated Breaking Current of the fuse. The Derating value is multiplied by the Rated Current then divided by the loading current. Typical influencing factors include high surrounding temperature, terminal cross section, installation volume, pulse load, shock load, and over-waves.

Discrimination:- Classification of relevant parameters (Time/Current-Characteristic; Integrals; Operating Times etc.) of two or more overload protection devices to each other. In the case of overloads, only the protection device should react. Sequential fuses with the same characteristic, are selected in the proportion 1:1.6. A fuse with a rated current of 100 A should be downstream of a fuse rated 160 A. For the short-circuit range the comparison of the melting integrals versus the Operating integral of the downstream fuse is important.

Dissipated Power:- When a current passes through a fuse link, a small amount of energy is dissipated due to the fuse links resistance.

Dual Element Fuse:- Often confused with time delay, dual element is a term describing fuse element construction. A fuse having two current responsive elements in series.

Element:- A calibrated conductor inside a fuse which melts when subjected to excessive current. The element is enclosed by the fuse body and may be surrounded by an arc-quenching medium such as silica sand. The element is sometimes referred to as a link.

Fast-Acting Fuse:- Fast-acting fuses have no intentional built in slow-blow and are used in circuits without transient inrush currents. Fast-acting fuses open quickly on overload and short-circuits. This type of fuse is not designed to withstand temporary overload currents.

Fulgurite:- In the context of fuses, the non-conductive, rock like substance that forms during a fuse's short-circuit interruption when the element material vapour fuses with the quartz sand fill.

Fault current:- A current resulting from a fault, a circuit condition in which the current flows through an abnormal, unintended path.

Fusing factor:- The fusing factor is the ratio, greater than unity, of the minimum fusing current to the fuse current rating.

Fuse:- A fuse is a device that by the fusing of one or more of its specially designed and proportioned components, opens the circuit in which it is inserted by breaking the current when this exceeds a given value for a sufficient time. An over-current protective device containing a calibrated current carrying member which melts and opens a circuit under specified over-current conditions. It is common practice to refer to a 'fuselink' as a 'fuse'.

Fuse Element:- Part of the Fuse-Link, which melts when the fuse operates. It consists of perforated metal stripes. The dimension of the perforation reflects the Characteristic and the Rated Current of the Fuse-Link. Depending on the Rated Current the Fuse-Links contain several paralleled Fuse Elements. Typical materials are copper and pure silver.

Fuse initiated opening time:- Time between separating of the melting elements and the faultless interruption of the failure current through the fuse. Typically between 30 and 100 ms.

Fuse Selection Guide:- The fuse must carry the normal circuit load current without nuisance openings. However, when an over-current occurs the fuse must interrupt the over-current, limit the energy let-through, and withstand the voltage across the fuse during arcing. To select a fuse the following must be considered:

Normal operating current (The current rating of a fuse is typically derated 25% for operation at 25°C to avoid nuisance blowing. For example, a fuse with a 10A current rating is not usually recommended for operation at more than 7.5A in a 25°C ambient.)

Overload current and time interval in which the fuse must open.

Application voltage (ac or dc Voltage).

Inrush currents, surge currents, pulses, start-up currents characteristics.

Ambient temperature.

Applicable standards agency requirements, such as UL, CSA, VDE.

Other considerations include: Reduce installation cost, ease of removal, mounting type/form factor, etc.

Fuse Type:- There are three basic types of fuses:

1. Slow Blow/Time Lag/Time Delay fuses
2. Fast acting fuses
3. Very fast acting fuses

A major type of Time Delay fuse is the dual-element fuse. This fuse consists of a short circuit strip, soldered joint and spring connection. During overload conditions, the soldered joint gets hot enough to melt and the spring shears the junction loose. Under short circuit conditions, the short circuit element operates to open the circuit. Slow-blow fuse allows temporary and harmless inrush currents to pass without opening, but is so designed to open on sustained overloads and short circuits. Slow-blow fuses are ideal for circuits with a transient surge or power-on inrush. These circuits include: motors, transformers, incandescent lamps and capacitive loads. This inrush may be many times the circuit's full load amperes. Slow-blow fuses allow close rating of the fuse without nuisance opening. Typically, Slow Blow fuses are rated between 125% to 150% of the circuit's full load amperes.

Fusing Current:- Value of fuse current which will be interrupted within a given time. Valid for general purpose fuse-links. Normally the testing current is about 1.6 times the Rated Current.

Gate:- Limiting values within which the characteristics, for example time-current characteristics, shall be contained.

High Speed Fuses:- Fuses with no intentional time-delay in the overload range and designed to open as quickly as possible in the short circuit range. Often used to protect solid-state devices.

Homogeneous Series of Fuselinks:- A series of fuselinks, within a given size.

I^2t (Joule Integral) :- See *Joule integral*.

I^2t (Ampere Squared Seconds):- A measure of the thermal (heat) energy associated with current flow. I^2t is equal to $I_{RMS}^2 \times t$, where t is the duration of current flow in seconds.

Clearing I^2t is the total I^2t passed by a fuse as the fuse clears a fault, with t being equal to the time elapsed from the initiation of the fault to the instant the fault has been cleared.

Melting I^2t is the minimum I^2t required to melt the fuse element.

I^2t Characteristic:- A curve giving I^2t values (pre-arcing I^2t and/or operating I^2t) as a function of prospective current under specific operating conditions.

Interrupting Rating (Abbreviated IR):- Same as breaking capacity or short circuit rating. The maximum current a fuse can safely interrupt at rated voltage. Some special purpose fuses may also have a *Minimum Interrupting Rating*. This defines the minimum current that a fuse can safely interrupt. Safe operation requires that the fuse remain intact. Interrupting ratings may vary with fuse design and range from 35A ac for some 250V metric size (5 x 20mm) fuses up to 200kA ac for the 600V industrial fuses.

Joule integral:- The I^2t or Joule integral is a measure of the thermal stress or thermal energy let through by the fuse during short circuit interruption. It is the integral of the square of the current over a given time and is expressed in ampere square seconds.

Two values of I^2t are provided for MV-fuse links:

- Pre arcing or melting I^2t - for high short circuit currents - this is practically a constant.
- Operation I^2t - this varies with circuit conditions. Is the I^2t integral extended over the operating time of the fuse.

Let-through current:- The cut-off or let-through current is the maximum instantaneous value of current attained during the breaking operation of a MV-fuse link. This important when the MV-fuse link operates in such that the circuit prospective peak current is not reached.

Let-through current characteristic:- The cut-off (current) characteristic or let-through current characteristic is a curve giving the cut-off current as a function of the prospective current, under specific operating conditions.

Melting Current:- Current during an increase in prospective Short-Circuit Current, at which the Fuse Element melts. This current is usually lower than the Cut-off Current, because this normally increases during the Quenching Time.

Melting Integral:- Current Integral for the Melting time of the fuse. The Melting Integral depends on the size of the Melting Elements and is therefore independent of voltage. The minimum value is normally given, for analysing discrimination.

Melting time:- The length of time required to melt the fuselink during a specified over current. The pre-arcing time or melting time is the interval of time between the beginning of a current large enough to cause a break in the fuse element and the instant when an arc is initiated. The Time/Current-Characteristic provides the virtual Melting Time for different current closing angles. Virtual Melting Time = Melting Integral / failure current.

Minimum Breaking Current:- Smallest failure current at which a back-up fuse can operate at its rated voltage. Values are often between 3 to 4 times Rated Current. The minimum breaking current is a minimum value of prospective current that a link is capable of breaking at a stated voltage under specified conditions.

Non fusing Current:- Defined value of current, at which (under certain circumstances) a fuse-link must not operate within a given time, Conventional Time. For a General Purpose Fuse, this value is normally 1.25 times Rated Current.

Operating time:- The operating time or total clearing time is the sum of the pre-arcing time and the arcing time. Also the summation of Melting Time and Arc Quenching Time of the Fuse. Over a Melting Time of 100ms the Operating Time can generally be equated with the Melting Time. For shorter Melting Times, the Operating Time can be more than double of the Melting Time. Below 5ms, the Operating Time should be calculated via the Operating Integral.

Operating Integral:- Current integral over the operating time of the fuse. Information is particularly valid for melting times less than 5ms, whence the fuse has operated with current limitation. Usually the datasheet value is the highest expect for the given reference voltage. Values at lower service voltage are calculated through the conversion diagram.

Overcurrent:- An over-current is a current exceeding the rated current, normal load current, conductor ampacity or equipment continuous current rating. An over-current can be an overload current, fault current or short circuit current.

Overcurrent Discrimination:- Co-ordination of the relevant characteristics of two or more over-current protective devices such that, on the occurrence of over-currents within specific limits, the device intended to operate within these limits does so, while the others do not.

Overload:- Classified as an overcurrent which exceeds the circuit normal full load current. The operation of conductors or equipment at a current level that will cause damage if allowed to persist. The current does not leave the normal current carrying path of the circuit, that is, it flows from the source, through the conductors, through the load, back through the conductors to the source.

Overload current:- A current resulting from an overload occurring in a normally working electrically circuit, for example an overloaded motor. If there is no protective device operating in a limited time of several seconds, the electrical system would overheat and cable isolation, etc. would melt and cause damage.

Overload Curve of an Fuselink:- A curve showing the time for which a fuselink shall be able to carry the current without deterioration.

Peak Let-Through Current, I_p :- The instantaneous value of peak current let-through by a current limiting fuse, when clearing a fault current of specified magnitude in its current limiting range.

Power Dissipation:- Power dissipation is the power released in a fuse link carrying a stated current under specified conditions of use and behaviour, usually including a constant rms. current until steady temperature conditions are reached.

Pre-Arcing Time:- The pre-arcing time or melting time is the interval between the beginning of a current large enough to cause a break in the fuse element and the instant when an arc is initiated.

Prospective Current of a Circuit (with respect to the fuse):- The prospective current is the current that would flow in a circuit if a fuse situated therein were replaced by a link of negligible impedance. The prospective current is the quantity to which the breaking capacity and characteristics of the fuse are normally referred, for example, I^2t and cut-off current characteristic.

Prospective Short Circuit Current:- The prospective short circuit current is the value of the symmetrical current that would flow if there was no protection in the circuit. The lower the power factor, the higher the peak value of this destructive current.

Rated Breaking Capacity (Low/High Voltage Fuses):- Capacity of a fuse to operate between the lowest and the Rated Breaking Current, which is a certified, effective value. Normally fuses can operate at higher currents. Typical values for Low-Voltage fuses are: 100, 120, 200 or 300 kA and for High-Voltage fuses 20kA to 63 kA. For miniature fuses, it is the current at which a fuse can operate normally under specified conditions at a fixed Voltage.

Rated Current of a Fuselink I_n :- A value of current that the fuselink can carry continuously without deteriorating or without operating under specified standardised conditions, including in free air with a defined cable cross-sections. Often the Rated Current has to be reduced by the Derating-value.

Rated Frequency:- The rated frequency is the frequency for which the fuse link has been designed and to which the values of the other characteristics correspond. Standard values of rated frequency are 50 Hz and 60 Hz.

Rated Insulation Level:- The rated insulation level (of a MV-fuse base) is the voltage values (both power-frequency and impulse) which characterize the insulation of the fuse base with regards to its capability of withstanding the dielectric stresses.

Rated Values:- Rated values, usually stated for HV-fuse links, are

- voltage
- current
- breaking capacity

- frequency

All given for specified operating conditions.

Rated Voltage:- The Rated voltage, V_n , is the maximum value of voltage at which an fuse link can be used, and safely interrupt an over-current. This rated voltage must be higher or equal to the highest voltage of the system in which the fuse link is installed. Effective value of the Operating Voltage of a fuse; normally an alternating voltage, at a frequency between 42 to 62 Hz.

Recovery Voltage:- The recovery voltage is the voltage which appears across the terminals of a fuse after the breaking of the current. This voltage is considered in two successive intervals of time, one during which a transient voltage exists, followed by a second during which the power frequency or the steady-state recovery voltage alone exists.

Selectivity:- A main fuse and a branch fuse are said to be selective if the branch fuse will clear all over-current conditions before the main fuse opens. Selectivity is desirable because it limits outage to that portion of the circuit which has been overloaded or faulted. Also called *selective coordination*.

Short Circuit:- A high value of over-current resulting from a fault of negligible impedance between conductors with difference potential and under normal operating conditions. A short circuit current can be many hundreds or even thousands of times larger than the normal load current.

Short-circuit current:- Overcurrent which exceeds the normal full load current of a circuit by a factor many times.

Short-Circuit Current Rating (SCCR):- The maximum short-circuit current an electrical component can sustain without the occurrence of excessive damage when protected with an overcurrent protective device.

Striker:- A striker is a mechanical device forming part of a fuselink which, when the fuse operates, releases the energy required to cause operation of other apparatus or indicators or to provide interlocking.

Switching voltage:- The switching voltage is the maximum instantaneous value of voltage, which appears across the terminals of a fuse during its operating time. Under short circuit conditions this will often exceed the peak system voltage for a period of time. It is typically two to three times the Rated Voltage.

Take-Over Current:- at operating the Striker Pin: Value of the symmetrical three phase current at which the breaking varies between the fuse and the switch. Below this value the current will be interrupted in the first quenching pole through a fuse and the current in both other poles through the switch. Above the value, the current is interrupted in all 3 poles only through the fuses. Depending on the Rated Voltage of the switch, values are between 600A and 3000A.

Threshold Current:- The symmetrical RMS available current at the threshold of the current limiting range, where the fuse becomes current limiting. This value can be read off of a peak let-through chart where the fuse curve intersects a given line. A threshold ratio is the relationship of the threshold current to the fuse's continuous current rating. This current is used during testing to UL specification.

Time constant:- The inductance in a DC circuit limits the rate of current rise. The time required for the current to reach 63 percent of the final value at rated voltage is the 'time constant', and is referred to in terms of L/R where L is inductance in Henries and R is resistance in Ohms.

Time-current characteristic:- The time-current characteristic is a curve giving the time, for example pre-arcing time (or operating time), as a function of the prospective current and respectively short-circuit currents, under specified operating conditions. The time-current curve is used to achieve co-ordination with the other fuses or devices in the same installation.

Time/Current-Curve:- Curve for calculating the Melting Time of the fuse at designed overload and respectively short-circuit current. The opening time is considered nominal. Time/Current-Curves refer to a temperature between 20°C and 30°C, are given for times between 4ms and 10000s, and are drawn as a family of curves on a double logarithmic grid (opening time in seconds for the fuse for a range of over-currents).

Time Delay Fuse:- A fuse which will carry an over-current of a specified magnitude for a minimum specified (in standards) time without opening. But is so designed to open on sustained overloads and short-circuits.

Total clearing time:- The operating time or total clearing time is the sum of the pre arcing time and the arcing time. Total clearing I^2t , it is the total measure of heat energy developed within a circuit during the fuse's clearing of a fault current. Total clearing I^2t is the sum of the melting I^2t and the arcing I^2t .

Very Fast-Acting Fuses:- Very fast-acting (Current-Limiting) fuses will limit both the magnitude and duration of current flow under short circuit conditions. Because of their high current limiting ability, these fuses are frequently used to protect semiconductor circuits.

Virtual time:- The virtual time is the value of Joule integral divided by the square of the prospective current value. Usually stated for a MV-fuse link, are the values of pre-arcing time and of operating time.

Virtual Melting time:- Standardised value of melting time, which considers currents of types ac or dc and the different current curves and switching angles, and is independent of the current waveform. The Melting Time in the Time/Current-Characteristics is generally given by the Virtual Melting Time. The value is calculated by the Melting integral of the Rated Current. It is the time that it take a DC current equal to I_p to generate the melting I^2t . For high speed fuses, the virtual melting time (t_v) is used and plotted down to 0.1ms. The formula for determining time-current characteristics is:

$$t_v = \int \frac{i^2 dt}{I_p^2}$$

where:

t_v = Virtual pre-arcing time

i^2 = Applied fuse current squared

dt = Change in time

I_p = Prospective short-circuit current

Voltage Rating:- The maximum voltage at which a fuse is designed to operate. The maximum open circuit voltage in which a fuse can be used, yet safely interrupt an overcurrent. Exceeding the voltage rating of a fuse impairs its ability to clear an overload or short circuit safely. Voltage ratings are assumed to be for ac, unless specifically labelled as dc.

Withstand rating:- The maximum current that an unprotected electrical component can sustain for a specified period of time without the occurrence of extensive damage. See short-circuit current rating (SCCR).

Glossary of Varistor terminology [Chapter 12]

AC Standby Power, P_D :- Varistor ac power dissipation measured at rated rms voltage $V_{M(ac)}$.

Capacitance, C :- Capacitance between the two terminals of the varistor measured at C specified frequency and bias.

Clamping Voltage, V_C :- Peak voltage across the varistor measured under conditions of a specified peak VC pulse current and specified waveform. Peak voltage and peak currents are not necessarily coincidental in time.

Dynamic Impedance, Z_X :- measure of small signal impedance at a given operating point as defined by: $Z_X = dV_X / dI_X$

Lifetime Rated Pulse Currents:- Derated values of I_{TM} for impulse durations exceeding that of an 8/20 μ s wave-shape, and for multiple pulses which may be applied over device rated lifetime.

Nominal Varistor Voltage, $V_{N(dc)}$:- Voltage across the varistor measured at a specified pulsed dc current, $I_{N(dc)}$, of specific duration, $I_{N(dc)}$ of specific duration. $I_{N(dc)}$ is specified by the varistor manufacturer.

Nonlinear Exponent, α :- A measure of varistor nonlinearity between two given operating currents, I_1 and I_2 , as described by $I = kV^\alpha$

where k is a device constant, $I_1 \leq I \leq I_2$, and $\alpha_{12} = \log I_2 / I_1 / \log V_2 / V_1$

Overshoot Duration:- The time between the point voltage level (V_C) and the point at which the voltage overshoot has decayed to 50% of its peak. For the purpose of this definition, clamping voltage is defined with an 8/20 μ s current waveform of the same peak current amplitude as the waveform used for this overshoot duration.

Peak Nominal Varistor Voltage, $V_{N(ac)}$:- Voltage across the varistor measured at a specified peak ac current, $I_{N(ac)}$, of specific duration. $I_{N(ac)}$ is specified by the varistor manufacturer.

Rated DC Voltage, $V_{M(dc)}$:- Maximum continuous dc voltage which may be applied.

DC Standby Current, I_D :- Varistor current measured at rated voltage, $V_{M(dc)}$.

Rated Peak Single Pulse Transient Currents, I_{TM} :- Maximum peak current applied for a single 8/20 μ s impulse, with rated line voltage also applied, without causing device failure.

Rated Recurrent Peak Voltage, V_{PM} :- Maximum recurrent peak voltage which may be applied for a specified duty cycle and waveform.

Rated RMS Voltage, $V_{M(ac)}$:- Maximum continuous sinusoidal RMS voltage which may be applied.

Rated Single Pulse Transient Energy, WTM:- Energy which may be dissipated for a single impulse of maximum rated current at a specified wave-shape, with rated RMS voltage or rated dc voltage also applied, without causing device failure.

Rated Transient Average Power Dissipation, $P_{T(av)M}$:- Maximum average power which may be dissipated due to a group of pulses occurring within a specified isolated time period, without causing device failure.

Resistance, R_X :- Static resistance of the varistor at a given operating point as defined by:

$$R_X = V_X / I_X$$

Response Time:- The time between the point at which the wave exceeds the clamping voltage level (V_C) and the peak of the voltage overshoot. For the purpose of this definition, clamping voltage as

defined with an 8/20 μ s current waveform of the same peak current amplitude as the waveform used for this response time.

Varistor Voltage, V_x : Voltage across the varistor measured at a given current, I_x .

Voltage Clamping Ratio, V_C / V_p : A figure of merit measure of the varistor clamping effectiveness as defined by the symbols $V_C / V_{M(ac)}$, $V_C / V_{M(dc)}$.

Voltage Overshoot, V_{ost} : The excess voltage above the clamping voltage of the device for a given current that occurs when current waves of less than 8 μ s virtual front duration are applied. This value may be expressed as a % of the clamping voltage (V_C) for an 8/20 μ s current wave.

Glossary of PTC and NTC Thermistor terminology [Chapter12]

Amorphous: Without crystallization in the ultimate texture of a solid substance. Used to describe the device material structure in the tripped state.

Breakdown voltage: The maximum voltage that a PTC thermistor can support under stipulated time and temperature conditions. The PTC thermistor will breakdown when exceeding this voltage.

Carbon Black: A conductive material used in PTC devices to provide a path for current flow under normal operating conditions.

Conductive Plastic: A plastic material, such as a polymer, containing conductive particles, such as carbon black, that provide a path for current flow.

Current-time characteristic: The current-time characteristic is the relationship at a specified ambient temperature between the current through a thermistor and time, upon application or interruption of voltage to it.

Current, Hold, I_{hold} : The maximum current a PTC device can pass without interruption.

Current, Maximum, I_{max} : The maximum fault current a PTC device can withstand without damage at the rated voltage.

Current Rating: The nominal amperage value marked on the fuse. It is established by the manufacturer as a value of current which the fuse can be loaded to, based on a controlled set of test conditions (see *Rerating*).

Current, Trip, I_{trip} : The minimum current that will switch a device from the low resistance to the high resistance state.

Curie point temperature (Resistance - temperature characteristics): A PTC fuse maintains almost the same resistance, until certain temperature. After this temperature is exceeded, the resistance rises up sharply. This transition point is called the Curie point. The critical temperature is defined to be the Curie point temperature, where the actual resistance value is twice the reference value measured at 25°C.

Derating: Fuses are essentially temperature-sensitive devices. Even small variations from the controlled test conditions can greatly affect the predicted life of a fuse when it is loaded to its nominal value, usually expressed as 100% of rating. The fuse temperature generated by the current passing through the fuse increases or decreases with ambient temperature change.

Dissipation constant: The dissipation constant is the ratio, (W/°C) at a specified ambient temperature, of a change in power dissipation in a thermistor to the resultant body temperature change.

Electrode: A device or material that emits or controls the flow of electricity. Nickel and Copper elements are used in PTC devices to aid even distribution of current across the surface of the device.

Fault Current: The peak current that flows through a device or wire during a short circuit or arc back.

Form Factor: The package that holds the chemical make-up of polymer and carbon. PTCs are packaged in the following forms; radial, axial, surface mount chips, disks, and washers.

Fuse: A current limiting device used for protection of equipment. Typically a wire or chemical compound which breaks a circuit when the current exceeds a rated value.

Fuse Resistance: The resistance of a fuse is usually an insignificant part of the total circuit resistance. Since the resistance of fractional amperage fuses can be several ohms, this fact should be considered when using them in low-voltage circuits. Most fuses are manufactured from materials which have positive temperature coefficients, and therefore, it is common to refer to cold resistance and hot resistance (voltage drop at rated current), with actual operation being somewhere in between. The factory should be consulted if this parameter is critical to the design analysis. Resistance data on all of our fuses is available on request.

Heat capacity, H : The heat capacity of a thermistor is the amount of heat required to increase the body temperature of it by one degree centigrade, 1°C. Heat capacity is a common rating of standard PTC thermistors and is expressed in Joules per cubic centimetre per degree C (J/cm³°C). The heat capacity per unit volume relationship of standard PTC thermistors is approximately 5 J/cm³°C.

Hysteresis: The period between the actual beginning of the signalling of the device to trip and the actual tripping of the device.

Initial current, I_{in} : the current that results instantaneously in the circuit switch when starting to closing.

Initial resistance, $R_{25°C}$: This is the part's resistance value at 25°C which is measured under conditions of 1.0V dc or less, and 10mA or less without self-heating.

Inrush current: Inrush current is the initial surge of current that results when power is first applied to a load having a low starting impedance, such as a discharged capacitor, a cold lamp filament, or a stopped motor's winding.

Inrush current limiter: Specially designed and constructed NTC thermistors may be used as inrush current limiters. Available in a wide range of current handling and zero-power resistance value combinations.

Insulation thermistor: thermistor stipulated insulation resistance and voltage test requirement.

Interrupting Rating: Also known as *breaking capacity* or *short circuit rating*, the interrupting rating is the maximum approved current which the fuse can safely interrupt at rated voltage. During a fault or short circuit condition, a fuse may receive an instantaneous overload current many times greater than its normal operating current. Safe operation requires that the fuse remain intact (no explosion or body rupture) and clear the circuit.

Leakage Current: An undesirable small value of stray current that flows through a device after the device has changed state to a high resistance mode.

Let through Current: The amount of current through a circuit after a device is signalled to trip and the device is at full operation limiting current.

Low category temperature: Minimum ambient temperature at which a PTC thermistor can operate continuously.

Material constant (Beta, β in K): The material constant of a NTC thermistor is a measure of its resistance at one temperature compared to its resistance at a different temperature. Its value may be calculated by the formula shown below and is expressed in degrees Kelvin (K). The reference temperatures used in this formula for determining material constant ratings of thermistors are 298.15K and 348.15K.

Maximum Fault Current: The Interrupting Rating of a fuse must meet or exceed the maximum fault current of the circuit.

Maximum Inrush Current: The maximum current (effective value) through the PTC thermistor under maximum rated voltage. Exceeding this current may result in PTC device damage.

Maximum operating temperature: The maximum operating temperature is the maximum body temperature at which the thermistor will operate for an extended period of time with acceptable stability of its characteristics. This temperature is the result of internal or external heating, or both, and should not exceed the maximum value specified.

Maximum operating voltage, V_{max} : The maximum operating voltage is the maximum rated voltage, either direct current or 50/60 Hz rms alternating current, expressed in volts (Vdc or Vac), that a standard PTC thermistor will continuously withstand for an extended period without affecting its normal characteristics.

Maximum power rating: The maximum power rating of a thermistor is the maximum power which a thermistor will dissipate for an extended period of time with acceptable stability of its characteristics.

Maximum steady-state current, I_{max} : The maximum steady-state current is the rating of the maximum current, normally expressed in amperes (A), allowable to be conducted by an inrush limiting NTC thermistor for an extended period of time.

Maximum surge current: The maximum surge current is the maximum permissible surge current in a circuit and, in conjunction with the maximum peak voltage, determines the minimum required zero-power resistance of the thermistor required to limit it adequately.

Minimum switching current, I_s : The minimum switching current is the minimum amount of current, normally expressed in amperes (A), that, when conducted by a standard PTC thermistor, is required to cause it to switch to its high resistance state.

Negative temperature coefficient (NTC): A NTC thermistor is one in which the zero-power resistance decreases with an increase in temperature.

Non-insulation thermistor: thermistors that do not require an insulation voltage and insulation resistance test.

Non-trip Current: Also called rated current or holding current, or non-operating current, means the current at which PTC thermistor resistance does not exceed the specified value for designated time and temperature conditions.

Overload Current Condition: The current level for which protection is required. Fault conditions may be specified, either in terms of current or, in terms of both current and maximum time the fault can be tolerated before damage occurs. Time-current curves are used to match the fuse characteristic to the circuit needs, noting that the curves are based on average data.

Peak current, $I_{in,p-p}$: Peak-peak value of initial current.

Polymer: A synthetic plastic material consisting of large molecules made up of a linked series of repeated simple monomers. The insulating medium used in PTC devices which maintains the

carbon chains in suspension during over-current while permitting the carbon chains to form during normal operation.

Polymeric Positive Temperature Coefficient (PPTC):- A characteristic of PTC devices that describes a large increase in resistance as the device reaches its trip temperature.

Positive temperature coefficient (PTC):- A PTC thermistor is one in which the zero-power resistance increases with an increase in temperature.

Pulses:- The general term 'pulses' is used in this context to describe the broad category of wave shapes referred to as surge currents, start-up currents, inrush currents, and transients. Electrical pulse conditions can vary considerably from one application to another. Different fuse constructions may not all react the same to a given pulse condition. Electrical pulses produce thermal cycling and possible mechanical fatigue that could affect the life of the fuse. The start-up pulse should be defined and then compared to the time-current curve and I^2t rating for the fuse. Nominal melting I^2t is a measure of the energy required to melt the fusing element and is pressed as Ampere squared seconds, (A^2s).

Recovery time:- The recovery time of a thermistor is the approximate time required for it to cool sufficiently after power is removed and allow it to provide the characteristics required when power is reapplied.

Resistance at maximum current, $R_{I_{max}}$:- The resistance at maximum current is the approximate resistance of an inrush current limiting thermistor, expressed in ohms, when it is conducting its rated maximum steady-state current.

Resistance ratio characteristic:- The resistance ratio characteristic identifies the ratio of the zero-power resistance of a thermistor measured at 25°C to that resistance measured at 125°C.

Resistance-temperature characteristic:- The resistance-temperature characteristic is the relationship between the zero-power resistance of a thermistor and its body temperature.

Resistance, Initial, R_{min} - R_{max} :- The resistance range of the PTC devices, before circuit insertion.

Resistance, Post Trip, $R_{I_{max}}$:- The maximum post-trip resistance one hour after a PTC device has been tripped and power has been removed.

Resistance, Post Reflow, $R_{I_{max}}$:- The maximum resistance one hour after a PTC surface mount device has been reflow soldered.

Restore time:- Time to restore PTC thermistor resistance to twice the zero-power resistance after the power is removed.

Silicon PTC thermistor:- A silicon PTC thermistor is a type PTC thermistor that has an approximately linear resistance-temperature characteristic and a temperature coefficient of resistance of approximately +0.7%/°C. Silicon PTC thermistors are distinguished from standard PTC thermistors.

Stability:- Stability of a thermistor is the ability of a thermistor to retain specified characteristics after being subjected to designated environmental or electrical test conditions.

Standard PTC thermistor:- A standard PTC thermistor is a type of PTC thermistor that has a switch temperature. Standard PTC thermistors are distinguished from silicon PTC thermistors.

Standard Reference Temperature:- The standard reference temperature is the thermistor body temperature at which nominal zero-power resistance is specified, 25°C.

Switch Temperature:- The temperature at which the resistance value of the PTC thermistor increases to twice the zero-power resistance, also called Curie temperature, or reference temperature or transition temperature.

Switching time, t_s :- If V_{max} and I_{max} are known, the PTC thermistor's switch-off behaviour can be described in terms of switching time t_s . This is the time it takes at applied voltage for the current passing through the PTC to be reduced to half of its initial value, at $T_A = 25^\circ C$.

Temperature - wattage characteristics:- The temperature-wattage characteristic of a thermistor is the relationship at a specified ambient temperature between the thermistor temperature and the applied steady state wattage.

Temperature at minimum resistance, T_{min} :- Temperature corresponding to minimum resistance.

Temperature coefficient of resistance, α :- The temperature coefficient of resistance is the ratio at a specified temperature, T , of the rate of change of zero-power resistance with temperature to the zero-power resistance of the thermistor. The temperature coefficient is commonly expressed in percent per degree C ($\%/^\circ C$).

Temperature range under maximum voltage:- Operating ambient temperature range that the PTC thermistor can continuously operate under maximum voltage.

Thermal cooling time constant τ_{th} :- The thermal cooling time constant refers to the time necessary for an unloaded (zero power conditions) thermistor to vary its temperature by 63.2% of the difference between its mean temperature and the ambient temperature.

Equation for temperature change: $T(t_2) = T(t_1) \pm 0.632x(T(t_1) - T_A)$ with $t_2 - t_1 = \tau_{th}$

Thermistor:- A thermistor is a thermally sensitive resistor whose primary function is to exhibit a change in electrical resistance with a change in body temperature.

Trip Current:- Initial current which causes PTC thermistor resistance to leap, also called operating current.

Trip Cycle Life:- A test used to determine the number of trip cycles (at V_{max} and I_{max}) a PTC device will sustain without failure.

Trip Endurance:- A test used to determine the duration of time a PTC device will sustain its maximum rated voltage in the tripped state without failure.

Upper category temperature:- Maximum ambient temperature at which a PTC thermistor can operate continuously.

Zero-power resistance, R_T :- The zero-power resistance is the dc resistance value of a thermistor measured at a specified temperature with a power dissipation by the thermistor low enough that any further decrease in power will result in not more than 0.1% (or 1/10 of the specified measurement tolerance, whichever is smaller) change in resistance.

Zero-power temperature coefficient of resistance, α_T :- The Zero-power temperature coefficient of resistance is the ratio at a specified temperature, T , of the rate of change of zero-power resistance with temperature to the zero-power resistance of the thermistor.

Glossary of FACTS Terminology [Chapter 25]

Flexibility of electric power transmission:- The ability to accommodate changes in the electric transmission system or operating conditions while maintaining steady-state and transient margins.

Flexible ac transmission system, FACTS:- Alternating-current transmission systems incorporating power electronic based and other static controllers to enhance controllability and increase power transfer capability.

FACTS controller:- A power electronic based system and static equipment that provide control of one or more ac transmission system parameters.

Battery-energy-storage system, BESS:- A chemical-based energy-storage system using shunt-connected switching converters to supply or absorb energy to or from an ac system which can be adjusted rapidly.

Interphase power controller, IPC:- A series-connected controller of active and reactive power consisting, in each phase, of inductive and capacitive branches subjected to separately phase-shifted voltages. The active and reactive power can be set independently by adjusting the phase shift and/or the branch impedance using mechanical or electronic switches. In the particular case where the inductive and capacitive impedances form a conjugate pair, each terminal of the IPC is a passive current source dependent on the voltage at the other terminal.

Static condenser, STATCON:- Preferred terminology is static synchronous compensator (SSC or STATCOM).

Static synchronous compensator, SSC or STATCOM:- A static synchronous generator operated as a shunt-connected static VAR compensator whose capacitive or inductive output current can be controlled independent of the ac system voltage.

Static synchronous generator, SSG:- A static, self-commutated switching power converter supplied from an appropriate electric energy source and operated to produce a set of adjustable multiphase output voltages, which may be coupled to an ac power system for the purpose of exchanging independently controllable real and reactive power.

Static synchronous series compensator, SSSC or S3C:- A static synchronous generator operated without an external electric energy source as a series compensator whose output voltage is in quadrature with, and controllable independently of, the line current for the purpose of increasing or decreasing the overall reactive voltage drop across the line and thereby controlling the transmitted electric power. The S3C may include transiently rated energy-storage or energy-absorbing devices to enhance the dynamic behaviour of the power system by additional temporary real power compensation, to increase or decrease momentarily, the overall real (resistive) voltage drop across the line.

Static VAR compensator, SVC:- A shunt-connected static VAR generator or absorber whose output is adjusted to exchange capacitive or inductive current so as to maintain or control specific parameters of the electrical power system (typically bus voltage).

Static VAR generator or absorber, SVG:- A static electrical device, equipment, or system that is capable of drawing controlled capacitive and/or inductive current from an electrical power system and thereby generating or absorbing reactive power. Generally considered to consist of shunt-connected, thyristor-controlled reactor(s) and/or thyristor-switched capacitors.

Static VAR system, SVS:- A combination of different static and mechanically switched VAR compensators whose outputs are coordinated.

Superconducting magnetic energy storage, SMES:- A superconducting electromagnetic-based energy-storage system using shunt-connected switching converters to rapidly exchange energy with an ac system.

- Thyristor-controlled braking resistor, TCBR:-** A shunt-connected, thyristor switched resistor, which is controlled to aid stabilization of a power system or to minimize power acceleration of a generating unit during a disturbance.
- Thyristor-controlled phase-shifting transformer, TCPST:-** A phase-shifting transformer, adjusted by thyristor switches to provide a rapidly variable phase angle.
- Thyristor-controlled reactor, TCR:-** A shunt-connected, thyristor-controlled inductor whose effective reactance is varied in a continuous manner by partial-conduction control of the thyristor valve.
- Thyristor-controlled series capacitor, TCSC:-** A capacitive reactance compensator which consists of a series capacitor bank shunted by a thyristor-controlled reactor in order to provide smoothly variable series capacitive reactance.
- Thyristor-controlled series compensation:-** An inductive reactance compensator which consists of a series reactor shunted by a thyristor-controlled reactor in order to provide a smoothly variable series inductive reactance.
- Thyristor-controlled voltage limiter, TCVL:-** A thyristor-switched metal oxide varistor (MOV) used to limit the voltage across its terminals during transient conditions.
- Thyristor-switched capacitor, TSC:-** A shunt-connected, thyristor-switched capacitor whose effective reactance is varied stepwise by full- or zero-conduction operation of the thyristor valve.
- Thyristor-switched reactor, TSR:-** A shunt-connected, thyristor-switched inductor whose effective reactance is varied stepwise by full- or zero-conduction operation of the thyristor valve.
- Thyristor-switched series capacitor, TSSC:-** A capacitive reactance compensator which consists of a series capacitor bank shunted by a thyristor switched reactor to provide a stepwise control of series capacitive reactance.
- Thyristor-switched series compensation:-** An impedance compensator which is applied in series on an ac transmission system to provide a stepwise control of series reactance.
- Thyristor-switched series reactor, TSSR:-** An inductive reactance compensator which consists of a series reactor shunted by a thyristor-switched reactor in order to provide a stepwise control of series inductive reactance.
- Unified power-flow controller, UPFC:-** A combination of a static synchronous compensator (STATCOM) and a static synchronous series compensator (S3C) which are coupled via a common dc link, to allow bidirectional flow of real power between the series output terminals of the S3C and the shunt output terminals of the STATCOM, and are controlled to provide concurrent real and reactive series line compensation without an external electric energy source. The UPFC, by means of angularly unconstrained series voltage injection, is able to control, concurrently or selectively, the transmission line voltage, impedance, and angle or, alternatively, the real and reactive power flow in the line. The UPFC may also provide independently controllable shunt-reactive compensation.
- VAr compensating system, VCS:-** A combination of different static and rotating VAr compensators whose outputs are coordinated.

Glossary of Fuel Cell terminology [Chapter 27]

- Activation loss:-** See overpotential
- Adsorption:-** Adsorption is a process that occurs when a gas or liquid solute accumulates on the surface of a solid or a liquid (adsorbent), forming a film of molecules or atoms (the adsorbate).
- Alkali anion exchange membrane:-** An alkali anion exchange membrane (AAEM) is a semipermeable membrane generally made from ionomers and designed to conduct anions while being impermeable to gases such as oxygen or hydrogen.
- Alkali:-** A chemical base produces negative ions, the opposite of an acid. Certain types of alkalis (especially potassium hydroxide) are used as fuel cell electrolytes.
- Alkaline Fuel Cell, AFC:-** A type of hydrogen/oxygen fuel cell in which the electrolyte is concentrated KOH (varies between 35 to 85 wt% depending on the intended operating temperature) and hydroxide ions (OH⁻) are transported from the cathode to the anode. Temperature of operation can vary from <120°C to approximately 250°C depending upon electrolyte concentration.
- Anode reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + 4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow 4\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{e}^-$
- Cathode reaction: $\text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow 4\text{OH}^-$
- Overall reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- Anion:-** A negative ion. Alkali, molten carbonate and solid oxide fuel cells are anion-mobile cells - anions migrate through the electrolyte toward the anode.
- Anode:-** One of two electrodes in a fuel cell or battery. In a fuel cell it is where the fuel reacts or oxidizes, and releases electrons, that is, where the chemical reaction produces positive ions. For cells that create potential, it is also the electrode towards which the negative ion flows.

- Beta-alumina solid electrolyte:-** Beta-alumina solid electrolyte (BASE) is a fast ion conductor material used as a membrane in several types of molten salt electrochemical cell.
- Biofuel:-** Biofuel is defined as solid, liquid or gas fuel derived from recently dead biological material and is distinguished from fossil fuels, which are derived from long dead biological material.
- Biogas:-** Biogas is a gas produced by the biological breakdown of organic matter in the absence of oxygen. Biogas originates from biogenic material and is a type of biofuel.
- Biomass:-** All organic substances: plants, wood chips, bales of straw, liquid manure, organic wastes, etc.
- Bipolar plates:-** Electrical conductive plate in a fuel cell stack that acts as an anode for one cell and a cathode for the adjacent cell. The plate may be made of metal or a conductive polymer (which may be a carbon-filled composite). The plate usually incorporates flow channels for the fluid feeds and may also contain conduits for heat transfer.
- Carnot cycle:-** The Carnot cycle is a particular thermodynamic cycle, modelled on the hypothetical Carnot heat engine.
- Catalysis:-** Catalysis is the process in which the rate of a chemical reaction is increased by means of a chemical substance known as a catalyst.
- Catalyst:-** A substance that causes or speeds a chemical reaction, by lowering the amount of energy needed to cause the reaction, without itself being affected. The catalyst lowers the activation energy required, allowing the reaction to proceed more quickly or at a lower temperature. In a fuel cell, there will typically be a catalyst used for the electrodes (to break down hydrogen into electrons and protons). Catalysts are also often used in reforming fuel.
- Catalytic partial oxidation:-** In catalytic partial oxidation (CPOX) the use of a catalyst for partial oxidation reduces the required temperature to around 800°C - 900°C. The choice of reforming technique depends on the sulphur content of the fuel being used. CPOX can be employed if the sulphur content is below 50 ppm. A higher sulphur content would poison the catalyst, so the TPOX procedure is used for such fuels.
- Catalyst loading:-** This is related to the amount of catalyst used in a fuel cell or fuel cell system. It often refers specifically to the mass of catalyst per unit area of an electrode.
- Cathode:-** One of two electrodes in a fuel cell or battery. In a fuel cell, it is where oxygen (usually taken from the air) reduction occurs - electrode where negative ions are produced.
- Cation:-** A positive ion. Phosphoric acid and PEM fuel cells are cation-mobile cells - the cation migrates through the electrolyte toward the cathode.
- Ceramic:-** Ceramics are inorganic non-metallic materials formed by the action of heat.
- Cermet:-** A cermet is a composite material composed of ceramic (cer) and metallic (met) materials.
- Cogeneration:-** Cogeneration (also combined heat and power, CHP) is the use of a heat engine or a power station to simultaneously generate both electricity and useful heat.
- CHP:-** Combined Heat and Power. This is the additional production of electricity from processes which otherwise produce only space heat or domestic hot water (DHW); also known as *cogeneration*.
- Cogeneration:-** The simultaneous use of waste heat from industrial processing, a steam turbine, or a fuel cell to generate electricity. Harnessing otherwise wasted heat boosts the efficiency of power-generating systems.
- Combustion:-** Combustion or burning is a complex sequence of exothermic chemical reactions between a fuel and an oxidant accompanied by the production of heat or both heat and light in the form of either a glow or flames.
- Cryoadsorption storage:-** (Greek kryos: cold, frost.) special type of graphite storage. Carbon is able to adsorb hydrogen. Different qualities of carbon can adsorb higher quantities of hydrogen under certain temperature and pressure conditions than can be stored without the carbon under the same conditions. Temperatures are below 0°C (cryogenic) and above boiling temperature of hydrogen (20K). The pressure levels are above 5 MPa.
- Desulphuriser:-** Some fuels contain sulphur which can be damaging to fuel cell performance. A desulphuriser may therefore be used to remove sulphur from the gas stream entering the fuel cell stack and maintain peak electrical output.
- Diffusion:-** Diffusion is the movement of a chemical, usually under a pressure differential. In fuel cells, diffusion may happen through a palladium membrane to purify hydrogen or through the fuel cell electrodes before splitting of a hydrogen molecule.
- Direct borohydride fuel cell:-** Direct borohydride fuel cell (DBFC) a subcategory of alkaline fuel cells
- Direct carbon fuel cell:-** Direct carbon fuel cell (DCFC), a fuel cell that uses a carbonaceous material as a fuel.
- Direct-ethanol fuel cell:-** Direct-ethanol fuel cell (DEFC) a subcategory of Proton-exchange fuel cells where, the fuel, ethanol, is not reformed, but fed directly to the fuel cell.
- Direct Fuel Cell:-** A type of fuel cell in which a hydrocarbon fuel is fed directly to the fuel cell stack, without requiring an external reformer to generate hydrogen.
- Direct Methanol Fuel Cell, DMFC:-** A type of fuel cell in which the fuel is methanol (CH₃OH), in gaseous or liquid form. The methanol is oxidized directly at the anode with no reformation to hydrogen. The electrolyte is typically a PEM.
- Anode reaction: $2\text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2 + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^-$

Cathode reaction: $12\text{H}^+ + 3\text{O}_2 + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Overall reaction: $2\text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Electrochemical cell:- An electrochemical cell is a device used for generating an electromotive force (voltage) and current from chemical reactions.

Electrode:- An electrical terminal that conducts an electric current into or out of a fuel cell. The electrode is where reaction of a chemical species occurs and electrons are either released or accepted.

Electro-galvanic fuel cell:- Electro-galvanic fuel cell (EGFC) an electrical device used to measure the concentration of oxygen gas in scuba diving and medical equipment.

Electrolyte:- A chemical compound that conducts ions from one electrode to the other inside a fuel cell. The electrolyte does not react with the ions and does not conduct free electrons.

Electrolyser:- In an electrolyser, an electric current splits water into hydrogen and oxygen. Reverse process of the fuel cell.

External reforming:- External reforming occurs where a fuel is reformed to hydrogen - hydrocarbon fuel (methanol, gasoline, natural gas, propane, etc.) prior to entering a fuel cell stack.

Flux:- In the study of transport phenomena (heat transfer, mass transfer and fluid dynamics), flux is defined as the amount that flows through a unit area per unit time.

Formic acid fuel cell:- Formic acid fuel cell (DFAFC), a subcategory of proton-exchange fuel cells where, the fuel, formic acid, is not reformed, but fed directly to the fuel cell.

Fouling:- Fouling is the accumulation of unwanted material on solid surfaces,

Fuel:- A fuel is a chemical which can be used in a fuel cell system to produce electricity. The fuel is typically either hydrogen or something which can produce hydrogen when reformed.

Fuel Cell:- A electrochemical device for generating continuous electricity by the chemical combination a fuel and oxygen or oxidant, without combustion. A fuel cell will continuously produce electricity as long as fuel is supplied to it. Reverse process of electrolyser.

Fuel processor:- A fuel processor is a device that is capable of reforming a fuel to produce a gas stream containing hydrogen and then clean this up to produce a gas flow of sufficiently high quality to be used as the input for a fuel cell stack.

Gibbs free energy:- In thermodynamics, the Gibbs free energy (Gibbs energy or Gibbs function) is a thermodynamic potential which measures the 'useful' or process-initiating work obtainable from an isothermal, isobaric thermodynamic system.

Graphite:- A soft form of the element carbon. It is used as a lubricant, as a moderator in nuclear reactors, and for other products. It does not burn easily or fuse at high temperatures, and is an important material in the construction of phosphoric acid fuel cells. Carbon is able to adsorb hydrogen. The amount of adsorbed hydrogen depends on temperature, pressure and the quality/structure of the carbon used. Carbon structures in the nanometre range (one nanometre corresponds to 10^{-9} meters), e.g. balls, tubes or fibres

Grid-connected:- A grid-connected fuel cell is designed to function when connected to the electrical grid.

Half-reaction:- A half reaction is either the oxidation or reduction reaction component of a redox reaction.

Hydride ion:- Aside from electronegativity, the hydride ion is the simplest possible anion, consisting of two electrons and a proton. See also hydrogen anion

Hydrocarbon:- A chemical compound consisting of hydrogen and carbon formed in a variety of bond structures, such as oil, methane, propane, butane, etc. These are often used as fuels.

Hydrogen:- H_2 . A chemical element consisting of one proton and one electron. Two hydrogen atoms combine with one oxygen atom to form a molecule of water. Hydrogen serves as the fuel for most fuel cells.

Internal reforming:- Some fuel cells operate at sufficiently high temperatures to be able to internally convert a hydrocarbon fuel to hydrogen within the fuel cell stack.

Ion:- An atom that carries a positive or negative charge due to the loss or gain of an electron.

Ion exchange:- Ion exchange is an exchange of ions between two electrolytes or between an electrolyte solution and a complex.

Ionomer:- An ionomer is a polyelectrolyte that comprises copolymers containing both electrically neutral repeating units and a fraction of ionized units

IR Loss (Ohmic Polarization):- Losses created by the resistance to the flow of ions in the electrolyte and resistance to flow of electrons through the electrode and bipolar plate materials. Because both the electrolyte and fuel cell electrodes obey Ohm's law, the ohmic losses can be expressed by the equation $V=IR$

I^2R Loss:- Power loss due to the current I flow through the resistance R of a conductor.

Islanding:- Operation of a separate non-utility power source with or without a portion of an electric utility system- isolated from the remainder of the utility system. When a fuel cell is grid-connected, islanding of the fuel cell is required to allow safe work on the grid.

kWh:- Kilowatt-hour (1,000 watts for one hour). A measure of electric power consumption.

Matrix:- A framework within a fuel cell that supports an electrolyte.

Membrane:- The separating layer in a fuel cell that acts as electrolyte (a ion-exchanger) as well as a barrier film separating the gases in the anode and cathode compartments of the fuel cell.

Metal hydride storage:- Device that can store hydrogen by use of a metal alloy. The hydrogen is soaked into the alloy like into a sponge and fills the spaces in the crystal lattice of the alloy. The storage is filled applying a modest over-pressure and is usually operated in the temperature range of 20-80°C.

MPa:- mega Pascals (SI pressure unit); one MPa is a pressure of 10 atmospheres (10 bars).

Molten Carbonate:- A type of fuel cell electrolyte that contains carbon, oxygen and another element. Solid at room temperature, it must be melted in order to function.

Molten Carbonate Fuel Cell, MCFC:- A type of fuel cell consisting of a molten electrolyte of $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ in which the species CO_3^{2-} is transported from the cathode to the anode. Operating temperatures are typically near 650°C.

Anode reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + 2\text{CO}_3^{2-} \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{CO}_2 + 4\text{e}^-$

Cathode reaction: $\text{O}_2 + 2\text{CO}_2 + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_3^{2-}$

Overall reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Nafion:- A sulphuric acid in a solid polymer form. It is usually the electrolyte of PEM fuel cells.

Nernst equation:- In electrochemistry, the Nernst equation is an equation which can be used (in conjunction with other information) to determine the equilibrium reduction potential of a half-cell in an electrochemical cell.

Outage:- An outage occurs when a fuel cell or other power source which is producing electricity fails.

Overpotential:- In electrochemistry, overpotential is the difference in the electric potential of an electrode with no current through it, at equilibrium, and with a current.

Oxidant:- An oxidizing agent (also called an oxidant or oxidizer) can be defined as either: a chemical compound that readily transfers oxygen atoms, or a substance that gains electrons in a redox chemical reaction. In both cases, the oxidizing agent becomes reduced in the process.

Oxygen:- O_2 . A chemical diatomic element consisting of eight protons, eight neutrons and eight electrons. Two hydrogen atoms combine with one oxygen atom to form a molecule of water.

Phosphoric Acid:- A solution of the elements phosphorus, hydrogen, and oxygen that serves as the electrolyte for one type of fuel cell. Chemically- H_3PO_4 .

Phosphoric Acid Fuel Cell, PAFC:- A type of fuel cell in which the electrolyte consists of concentrated phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) and protons (H^+) are transported from the anode to the cathode. The operating temperature range is generally 160 - 220°C.

Anode reaction: $2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$

Cathode reaction: $\text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Overall reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Photobiological water splitting:- A biological processes that liberates hydrogen or where hydrogen is produced as an intermediate product. For example, photosynthesis use the solar radiation as source of energy, while fermentation processes that take place in the absence of light take advantage of the energy stored in the feedstock (e.g. glucose).

Polymer:- A natural or synthetic compound composed of repeated links of simple molecules.

Potassium Hydroxide:- A solution of the elements potassium, hydrogen, and oxygen that serves as the electrolyte for one type of fuel cell. Chemically- KOH .

Power density:- The power density of an individual fuel cell is the power produced related to the active area or volume of the cell.

Proton Exchange Membrane, PEM:- A polymer sheet that serves as the electrolyte in PEM fuel cell. The film prevents hydrogen and oxygen meeting and also carries protons across to complete the electrical circuit.

Proton Exchange Membrane Fuel Cell, PEMFC:- A type of acid based fuel cell in which the exchange of protons (H^+) from the anode to the cathode is achieved by a solid, aqueous membrane impregnated with an appropriate acid. The electrolyte is a called a proton-exchange membrane (PEM). The fuel cells typically run at low temperatures (<100°C) and pressures (< 5 atm).

Anode reaction: $2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$

Cathode reaction: $\text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Overall reaction: $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Redox:- Redox (shorthand for reduction-oxidation reaction) is any chemical reaction in which atoms have their oxidation number (oxidation state) changed.

Reformate:- Fuel processor output gas stream containing hydrogen, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide. This reformate gas stream will eventually pass to the fuel cell stack, possibly after purification.

Reformer:- A device that extracts pure hydrogen from hydrocarbons which have reacted with water vapour and heat in the presence of a catalyst.

Reforming:- The process of producing a hydrogen-rich gas stream for eventual use in a fuel cell from a feedstock. The thermal or catalytic conversion of a hydrocarbon fuel into more volatile products with higher calorific ratings.

Regenerative Fuel Cells:- A regenerative (or reversible) fuel cell is able to react a fuel and an oxidant to produce electricity and other chemical species or operate in reverse. This allows ready production

of power when it is economically viable. Several fuel cell types in which fuel and, in some types, the oxidant are regenerated from the oxidation product.

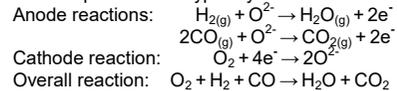
Renewable energy:- Energy sources that do not require the use of limited fossil fuel resources. They include wind power, hydroelectric or geothermal power and photovoltaics. They can often be used to produce hydrogen for use in fuel cells.

Reversible fuel cell:- A reversible, or regenerative, fuel cell is able to react a fuel and an oxidant to produce electricity and other chemical species or operate in reverse, such that the cell may be recharged with a separate power source if desired. Where hydrogen and water are the fuels, water and electricity are produced. When required, water can be electrolysed, and hydrogen and oxygen produced, upon the input of electricity. For example, the hydrogen/oxygen fuel cell may be recharged by providing power for water electrolysis with hydrogen storage. Also called a Regenerative Fuel Cell.

Shift conversion:- The reaction of carbon monoxide CO and water to give hydrogen and carbon dioxide. This provides more hydrogen to create power in the fuel cell and removes carbon monoxide which is detrimental to some types of fuel cell. This process is performed immediately after the reformer and before the preferential oxidizer to reduce CO from approximately 10% down to 0.5% to 0.1% usually through a water gas shift reaction.

Solid Oxide:- A solid combination of oxygen and another element (often zirconium) that serves as the electrolyte for a particular fuel cell.

Solid Oxide Fuel Cell, SOFC:- A type of fuel cell in which the electrolyte is a solid, nonporous metal oxide, typically ZrO₂ doped with Y₂O₃, and O²⁻ is transported from the cathode to the anode. Any carbon monoxide (CO) in the reformat gas is oxidized to carbon dioxide (CO₂) at the anode. Temperatures of operation are typically 800 to 1000°C.



Specific power:- The specific power of a system is the power produced divided by the weight of the system.

Stack:- arrangement of individual fuel cells connected in series within a generating assembly.

Standard Conditions:- The performance of most fuel cells will be quoted under standard conditions in order to allow easy comparison.

Steam reforming:- The catalytic reaction of a hydrocarbon fuel with water to produce hydrogen. More hydrogen is produced for the same amount of fuel than by auto thermal reforming or partial oxidation but heat input is required to maintain the reaction.

Syngas:- Syngas (from synthesis gas) is the name given to a gas mixture that contains varying amounts of carbon monoxide and hydrogen generated by the gasification of a carbon-containing fuel to a gaseous product with a heating value.

Tafel equation:- The Tafel equation relates the rate of an electrochemical reaction to the overpotential.

Unitized regenerative fuel cell:- A unitized regenerative fuel cell (URFC) is a fuel cell based on the proton exchange membrane which can do the electrolysis of water in regenerative mode and function in the other mode as a fuel cell recombining oxygen and hydrogen gas to produce electricity.

Tubular cells:- The two common designs of solid oxide fuel cells are tubular and planar. A tubular system separates the fuel or reformat from the oxidant, inside and outside the tube. Fuel Cells that are formed in cylindrical fashion and allow fuel and oxidant to flow on the inner or outer surfaces of the pipe.

Water-gas shift reaction:- This reaction between carbon monoxide and water produces hydrogen and carbon dioxide. It is therefore used after the fuel has been reformed to provide more hydrogen to power a fuel cell and to remove carbon monoxide which may poison performance.

Glossary of Solar Electric terminology [Chapter 27]

Absorbers:- Dark-coloured objects that soak up heat in thermal solar collectors. In a photovoltaic device, the material that readily absorbs photons to generate charge carriers (free electrons or holes).

Amorphous semiconductor:- A non-crystalline semiconductor material. Easier and cheaper to make than crystalline, but less efficient and slowly degrades over time. Also called thin film.

Amorphous Silicon:- A thin-film, silicon photovoltaic cell having no crystalline structure. Manufactured by depositing doped silicon layers on a substrate. See *single-crystal silicon & polycrystalline silicon*.

Angle of incidence:- Angle between the normal to a surface and the direction of incident radiation; applies to the aperture plane of a solar collector. Most modern solar panels have only minor reductions in power output within plus/minus 15°.

Antireflection coating:- A thin coating of a material, which reduces the light reflection and increases light transmission, applied to a photovoltaic cell surface.

Array:- Any number of photovoltaic modules connected together to provide a single electrical output. Arrays are often designed to produce significant amounts of electricity.

Autonomous system:- A stand-alone PV system that has no back-up generating source. May or may not include storage batteries. Most battery systems are designed for a certain minimum 'days of autonomy' - which means that the batteries can supply sufficient power with no sunlight to charge the batteries. This varies from 3 to 5 days in the sunbelt, to 5 to 10 days elsewhere.

Azimuth:- Angle between the north direction and the projection of the surface normal into the horizontal plane; measured clockwise from north. As applied to the PV array, 180° azimuth.

Band Gap:- In a semiconductor, the energy difference between the highest valence band and the lowest conduction band.

Band Gap Energy, E_g:- The amount of energy (in electron volts) required to free an outer shell electron from its orbit about the nucleus to a free state, and thus promote it from the valence to the conduction level.

Barrier Energy:- The energy given up by an electron in penetrating the cell barrier; a measure of the electrostatic potential of the barrier.

Baseline performance value:- Initial values of I_{sc}, V_{oc}, P_{mp}, I_{mp} measured by the accredited laboratory and corrected to Standard Test Conditions.

Blocking diode:- A diode used to restrict or block reverse current from flowing backward through a module. Alternatively, diode connected in series to a PV string; it protects its modules from a reverse power flow and, thus, against the risk of thermal destruction of solar cells.

Bypass diode:- A diode connected across one or more solar cells in a photovoltaic module such that the diode will conduct if the cell(s) become reverse biased. Alternatively, diode connected anti-parallel across a part of the solar cells of a PV module. It protects these solar cells from thermal destruction in case of total or partial shading, broken cells, or cell string failures of individual solar cells while other cells are exposed to full light.

Cathodic protection:- A method of preventing oxidation (rusting) of exposed metal structures, such as bridges and pipelines, by imposing between the structure and the ground a small electrical voltage that opposes the flow of electrons and that is greater than the voltage present during oxidation.

Cell:- The basic unit of a photovoltaic panel or battery.

Cell barrier:- A very thin region of static electric charge along the interface of the positive and negative layers in a photovoltaic cell. The barrier inhibits the movement of electrons from one layer to the other, so that higher-energy electrons from one side diffuse preferentially through it in one direction, creating a current and thus a voltage across the cell. Also called depletion zone, cell junction, or space charge.

Cell junction:- The area of immediate contact between two layers (positive and negative) of a photovoltaic cell. The junction lies at the centre of the cell barrier or depletion zone.

Chemical Vapour Deposition, CVD:- A method of depositing thin semiconductor films used to make certain types of photovoltaic devices. With this method, a substrate is exposed to one or more vaporized compounds, one or more of which contain desirable constituents. A chemical reaction is initiated, at or near the substrate surface, to produce the desired material that will condense on the substrate.

Cleavage of Lateral Epitaxial Films for Transfer, CLEFT:- A process for making inexpensive Gallium Arsenide (GaAs) photovoltaic cells in which a thin film of GaAs is grown atop a thick, single-crystal GaAs (or other suitable material) substrate and then is cleaved from the substrate and incorporated into a cell, allowing the substrate to be reused to grow more thin-film GaAs.

Combined collector:- A photovoltaic device or module that provides useful heat energy in addition to electricity.

Concentrator:- A PV module that uses optical elements to increase the amount of sunlight incident on a PV cell. Concentrating arrays must track the sun and use only the direct sunlight because the diffuse portion cannot be focused onto the PV cells. Efficiency is increased, but lifespan is usually decreased due to the high heat.

Concentrator (module, array, or collector):- An arrangement of photovoltaic cells that includes optical components such as lenses (Fresnel lens) to direct and concentrate sunlight onto a PV cell of smaller area. Concentrators can increase the power flux of sunlight hundreds of times.

Conduction Band (or conduction level):- An energy band in a semiconductor in which electrons can move freely in a solid, producing a net transport of charge.

Conversion efficiency (cell or module):- The ratio of the electric energy produced by a photovoltaic device (under one-sun conditions) to the energy from sunlight incident upon the cell.

Copper Indium Diselenide, CuInSe₂, or CIS:- A polycrystalline thin-film photovoltaic material (sometimes incorporating gallium (CIGS) and/or sulphur).

Crystalline Silicon:- A type of photovoltaic cell made from a slice of single-crystal silicon or polycrystalline silicon.

Current at maximum power, I_{mp}:- The current at which maximum power is available from a module.

Cycle life:- Number of discharge-charge cycles that a battery can tolerate under specified conditions before it fails to meet specified criteria as to performance (e.g., capacity decreases to 80% of the nominal capacity).

Dangling Bonds:- A chemical bond associated with an atom on the surface layer of a crystal. The bond does not join with another atom of the crystal, but extends in the direction of exterior of the surface.

Dendrite:- A slender threadlike spike of pure crystalline material, such as silicon.

Dendritic Web Technique:- A method for making sheets of polycrystalline silicon in which silicon dendrites are slowly withdrawn from a melt of silicon whereupon a web of silicon forms between the dendrites and solidifies as it rises from the melt and cools.

Depletion Zone:- Same as cell barrier. The term derives from the fact that this microscopically thin region is depleted of charge carriers (free electrons and hole).

Diffuse insolation:- Sunlight received indirectly as a result of scattering due to clouds, fog, haze, dust, or other obstructions in the atmosphere. Opposite of direct insolation.

Direct insolation:- Sunlight falling directly upon a collector. Opposite of diffuse insolation.

Direct Beam Radiation:- Radiation received by direct solar rays. Measured by a pyrheliometer with a solar aperture of 5.7° to transcribe the solar disc.

Distributed systems:- Systems that are installed at or near the location where the electricity is used, as opposed to central systems that supply electricity to grids. A residential

Edge-Defined Film-Fed Growth, EFG:- A method for making sheets of polycrystalline silicon for photovoltaic devices in which molten silicon is drawn upward by capillary action through a mould.

Efficiency:- The ratio of power output of a Photovoltaic cell to the incident power from the sun or simulated sun sources under specified standard insolation conditions.

Electrodeposition:- Electrolytic process where a metal is deposited at the cathode from a solution of its ions.

Energy:- The ability to do work. Stored energy becomes working energy when we use it.

Energy Levels:- The energy represented by an electron in the band model of a substance.

Epitaxial Growth:- The growth of one crystal on the surface of another crystal. The growth of the deposited crystal is oriented by the lattice structure of the original crystal.

EVA:- Ethylene Vinyl Acetate. An encapsulant between the glass cover and the PV cells in PV modules. It is durable, transparent, resistant to corrosion, and flame retardant.

Fill Factor:- The ratio of a photovoltaic cell's actual power to its power if both current and voltage were at their maxima. A key characteristic in evaluating cell performance.

Fixed Tilt Array:- A photovoltaic array set in at a fixed angle with respect to horizontal.

Flat-plate PV:- Refers to a PV array or module that consists of non-concentrating elements. Flat-plate arrays and modules use direct and diffuse sunlight, but if the array is fixed in position, some portion of the direct sunlight is lost because of oblique sun-angles in relation to the array.

Full Sun:- The full sun condition is the amount of power density received at the surface of the earth at noon on a clear day - about 100 mW/cm^2 . Lower levels of sunlight are often expressed as $\frac{1}{2}$ sun or 0.1 sun. A figure of 0.5 sun means that the power density of the sunlight is one-half of that of a full sun.

Fresnel Lens:- An optical device that focuses light like a magnifying glass; concentric rings are faced at slightly different angles so that light falling on any ring is focused to the same point.

Gallium, Ga:- A chemical element, metallic in nature, used in making certain kinds of PV cells and semiconductor devices.

Gallium Arsenide, GaAs:- A crystalline, high-efficiency compound used to make certain types of PV cells and semiconductor material.

Grid-connected (PV system):- A PV system in which the PV array acts like a central generating plant, supplying power to the grid.

Heterojunction:- A region of electrical contact between two different materials.

Hole:- The vacancy where an electron would normally exist in a solid; behaves like a positively charged particle.

Homojunction:- Region between n-layer and p-layer in a single material, photovoltaic cell.

Hot spot:- An undesirable phenomenon of PV device operation whereby one or more cells within a PV module or array act as a resistive load, resulting in local overheating or melting of the cell(s).

Incident light:- Light that shines onto the face of a PV cell or module.

Indium Oxide:- A wide band gap semiconductor that can be heavily doped with tin to make a highly conductive, transparent thin film. Often used as a front contact or one component of a heterojunction PV cell.

Infrared Radiation:- Electromagnetic radiation whose wavelengths lie in the range from 0.75 micrometre to 1000 micrometres; invisible long wavelength radiation (heat) capable of producing a thermal or photovoltaic effect, though less effective than visible light.

Irradiance:- The direct, diffuse, and reflected solar radiation that strikes a surface. Usually expressed in kW/m^2 . Irradiance multiplied by time equals insolation.

Insolation:- Sunlight, direct or diffuse; from 'incident solar radiation'.

Interconnect:- A conductor within a module or other means of connection which provides an electrical interconnection between the PV cells.

I-V curve:- A graphical presentation of the current versus the voltage from a photovoltaic device as the load is increased from the short circuit (no load) condition to the open circuit (maximum voltage) condition. The shape of the curve characterized cell performance.

I-V data:- The relationship between current and voltage of a photovoltaic device in the power-producing quadrant, as a set of ordered pairs of current and voltage readings in a table, or as a curve plotted in a Cartesian coordinate system.

Junction diode:- A semiconductor device with a junction and a built-in potential that passes current better in one direction than the other. All PV cells are junction diodes.

kilowatt-hour, kWh:- One thousand watts acting over a period of 1 hour. The kWh is a unit of energy. $1 \text{ kWh} = 3600 \text{ kJ}$.

Light-induced defects:- Defects, such as dangling bonds, induced in an amorphous silicon semiconductor upon initial exposure to light.

Light trapping:- The trapping of light inside a semiconductor material by refracting and reflecting the light at critical angles; trapped light will travel further in the material, greatly increasing the probability of absorption and hence of producing charge carriers.

Maximum Power Point, MPP:- The point on the current-voltage (I-V) curve of a module under illumination, where the product of current and voltage is maximum. For a typical silicon cell panel, this is about 17 volts for a 36-cell configuration. MPP tracking will typically increase power delivered to the system by 10% to 40%, depending on climate conditions and battery state of charge. For a typical silicon cell, this is at about 0.45 volts.

Maximum power point tracker, MPPT:- A power conditioning unit that automatically operates the PV-generator at its maximum power point under all conditions. An MPPT will typically increase power delivered to the system by 10% to 40%, depending on climate conditions and battery state of charge. You usually get more gain in winter and in colder weather due to the higher panel output. Most MPPT controllers are down converters - from a higher voltage to a lower one.

Microgroove:- A small groove scribed into the surface of a cell which is filled with metal for contacts.

Module:- A number of PV cells connected together, sealed with an encapsulant, and having a standard size and output power; the smallest building block of the power generating part of a PV array. Also called panel.

Monolithic:- Fabricated as a single structure.

Multicrystalline:- Material that is solidified at such a rate that many small crystals (crystallites) form. The atoms within a single crystallite are symmetrically arranged, whereas crystallites are jumbled together. These numerous grain boundaries reduce the device efficiency. A material composed of variously oriented, small individual crystals. (Sometimes referred to as polycrystalline or semicrystalline).

Multijunction device:- A photovoltaic device containing two or more cell junctions, each of which is optimized for a particular part of the solar spectrum, to achieve greater overall efficiency.

n-type semiconductor:- A semiconductor produced by doping an intrinsic semiconductor with an electron-donor impurity (e.g., phosphorus in silicon).

NOCT:- Nominal Operating Cell Temperature. The PV cell temperature at a reference environment defined as 800 W/m^2 irradiance, 20°C ambient air temperature, and 1 m/s wind speed with the cell or module in an electrically open circuit state.

One-axis tracking:- A system capable of rotating about one axis, usually following the sun from East to West.

Open-circuit voltage, V_{oc} :- The maximum possible voltage across a photovoltaic cell or module; the voltage across the cell in sunlight when no current is flowing.

Parallel connection:- A way of joining two or more electricity-producing devices (that is, PV cells or modules) by connecting positive leads together and negative leads together; such a configuration increases the current.

Passive solar home:- A house that uses a room or another part of the building as a solar collector, as opposed to active solar, such as PV.

Peak load; peak demand:- The maximum load, or usage, of electrical power occurring in a given period of time, typically a day.

Peak Sun Hours:- The equivalent number of hours per day when solar irradiance averages $1,000 \text{ W/m}^2$. For example, six peak sun hours means that the energy received during total daylight hours equals the energy that would have been received had the irradiance for 6 hours been $1,000 \text{ W/m}^2$.

Peak Watt:- A unit used to rate the performance of PV cells, modules, or arrays; the maximum nominal output of a photovoltaic device, in watts (W_p) under standardized test conditions, usually $1,000 \text{ W/m}^2$ of sunlight with other conditions, such as temperature specified.

Photon:- A particle of light that acts as an individual unit of energy.

Photovoltaic, PV:- Pertaining to the direct conversion of light into electricity.

Photovoltaic (PV) array:- An interconnected system of PV modules that function as a single electricity-producing unit. The modules are assembled as a discrete structure, with common support or mounting. In smaller systems, an array can consist of a single module.

Photovoltaic (PV) cell:- The smallest semiconductor element within a PV module to perform the immediate conversion of light into electrical energy (dc voltage and current).

Photovoltaic (PV) conversion efficiency:- The ratio of the electric power produced by a photovoltaic device to the power of the sunlight incident on the device.

Photovoltaic (PV) efficiency:- The ratio of electric power produced by a cell at any instant to the power of the sunlight striking the cell. This is typically about 9% to 14% for commercially available cells.

Photovoltaic (PV) generator:- The total of all PV strings of a PV power supply system, which are electrically interconnected.

Photovoltaic (PV) module:- The smallest environmentally protected, essentially planar assembly of PV cells and ancillary parts, such as interconnections, terminals, [and protective devices such as diodes] intended to generate dc power under unconcentrated sunlight. The structural (load carrying) member of a module can either be the top layer (superstrate) or the back layer (substrate).

Photovoltaic (PV) panel:- often used interchangeably with PV module (especially in one-module systems), but more accurately used to refer to a physically connected collection of modules (i.e., a laminate string of modules used to achieve a required voltage and current).

Photovoltaic (PV) peak watt:- Maximum 'rated' output of a cell, module, or system. Typical rating conditions are 1000 watts per square metre of sunlight, 20°C ambient air temperature and 1 m/s wind speed.

Photovoltaic (PV) system:- The set of components for converting sunlight into electricity by the photovoltaic process, including the array and balance of system components.

Photovoltaic-thermal (PVT) system:- A photovoltaic system that, in addition to converting sunlight into electricity, collects the residual heat energy and delivers both heat and electricity in usable form. Also called a total energy system.

Physical Vapour Deposition:- A method of depositing thin semiconductor photovoltaic films. With this method, physical processes, such as thermal evaporation or bombardment of ions, are used to deposit elemental semiconductor material on a substrate.

P-i-n:- A semiconductor photovoltaic (PV) device structure that layers an intrinsic semiconductor between a p-type semiconductor and an n-type semiconductor; this structure is most often used with amorphous silicon PV devices.

Polycrystalline:- See *Multicrystalline*.

Polycrystalline Silicon:- A material used to make photovoltaic cells, which consist of many crystals unlike single-crystal silicon.

PV:- Abbreviation for photovoltaic(s).

Pyronometer:- An instrument for measuring total hemispherical solar irradiance on a flat surface, or 'global' irradiance; thermopile sensors have been generally identified as pyranometers, however, silicon sensors are also referred to as pyranometers.

Pyrheliometer:- An instrument used for measuring direct beam solar irradiance. Uses an aperture of 5.7° to transcribe the solar disc.

Recombination:- The action of a free electron falling back into a hole. Recombination processes are either radiative, where the energy of recombination results in the emission of a photon, or non-radiative, where the energy of recombination is given to a second electron which then relaxes back to its original energy by emitting phonons. Recombination can take place in the bulk of the semiconductor, at the surfaces, in the junction region, at defects, or between interfaces.

Resistive voltage drop:- The voltage developed across a cell by the current flow through the resistance of the cell.

Ribbon (Photovoltaic) Cells:- A type of photovoltaic device made in a continuous process of pulling material from a molten bath of photovoltaic material, such as silicon, to form a thin sheet of material.

Semiconductor:- Any material that has a limited capacity for conducting an electric current. Generally falls between a metal and an insulator in conductivity. Certain semiconductors, including silicon, gallium arsenide, copper indium diselenide, and cadmium telluride, are uniquely suited to the photovoltaic conversion process.

Semicrystalline:- See *'Multicrystalline'*.

Series connection:- A way of joining photovoltaic cells or batteries by connecting positive leads to negative leads; such a configuration increases the voltage.

Series resistance:- Parasitic resistance to current flow in a cell due to mechanisms such as resistance from the bulk of the semiconductor material, metallic contacts, and interconnections.

Short-circuit current, I_{sc} :- The current flowing freely from a photovoltaic cell through an external circuit that has no load or resistance; the maximum current possible.

Silicon, Si:- A chemical element, atomic number 14, semi-metallic in nature, dark gray, an excellent semiconductor material. A common constituent of sand and quartz (as the oxide). Crystallizes in

face-centred cubic lattice like a diamond. The most common semiconductor material used in making photovoltaic devices.

Single-crystal material:- A material that is composed of a single crystal or a few large crystals.

Solar cell:- See *'Photovoltaic cell'*.

Solar constant:- The strength of sunlight; 1353 watts per square metre in space and about 1000 watts per square metre at sea level at the equator at solar noon.

Solar energy:- Electromagnetic energy transmitted from the sun (solar radiation). The amount that reaches the earth is equal to one billionth of total solar energy generated, or the equivalent of about 420 trillion kilowatt-hours.

Solar-grade silicon:- Intermediate-grade silicon used in the manufacture of PV cells. Less expensive than electronic-grade silicon.

Solar noon:- That moment of the day that divides the daylight hours for that day exactly in half. To determine solar noon, calculate the length of the day from the time of sunset and sunrise and divide by two. Solar noon may be quite a bit different from 'clock' noon.

Solar spectrum:- The total distribution of electromagnetic radiation emanating from the sun. The different regions of the solar spectrum are described by their wavelength range. The visible region extends from about 390 to 780 nanometres (a nanometre is one billionth of one metre). About 99 percent of solar radiation is contained in a wavelength region from 300 nm (ultraviolet) to 3,000 nm (near-infrared). The combined radiation in the wavelength region from 280 nm to 4,000 nm is called the broadband, or total, solar radiation.

Solar thermal electric:- Method of producing electricity from solar energy by using focused sunlight to heat a working fluid, which in turn drives a turbogenerator.

Split-spectrum cell:- A compound photovoltaic device in which sunlight is first divided into spectral regions by optical means. Each region is then directed to a different photovoltaic cell optimized for converting that portion of the spectrum into electricity. Such a device achieves significantly greater overall conversion of incident sunlight into electricity. See *'multijunction device'*.

Sputtering:- A process used to apply photovoltaic semiconductor material to a substrate by a physical vapour deposition process where high-energy ions are used to bombard elemental sources of semiconductor material, which eject vapours of atoms that are then deposited in thin layers on a substrate.

Stand-alone (PV system):- An autonomous or hybrid photovoltaic system not connected to a grid. May or may not have storage, but most stand-alone systems require batteries or some other form of storage.

Stand-off mounting:- Technique for mounting a PV array on a sloped roof, which involves mounting the modules a short distance above the pitched roof and tilting them to the optimum angle.

Standard Test Conditions, STC:- Conditions under which a module is typically tested in a laboratory:

- i. Irradiance intensity of 1000 W/square metre;
- ii. AM1.5 solar reference spectrum; and
- iii. A cell (module) temperature of 25°C, plus or minus 2°C.

Substrate:- The physical material upon which a photovoltaic cell is made.

Superstrate:- The covering on the sun side of a PV module, providing protection for the PV materials from impact and environmental degradation while allowing maximum transmission of the appropriate wavelengths of the solar spectrum.

Staebler-Wronski Effect:- The tendency of the sunlight to electricity conversion efficiency of amorphous silicon photovoltaic devices to degrade (drop) upon initial exposure to light.

String:- A number of photovoltaic modules or panels interconnected electrically in series to produce the operating voltage required by the load.

Substrate:- The physical material upon which a photovoltaic cell is applied.

Superstrate:- The covering on the sunny side of a photovoltaic (PV) module, providing protection for the PV materials from impact and environmental degradation while allowing maximum transmission of the appropriate wavelengths of the solar spectrum.

Thermal electric:- Electric energy derived from heat energy, usually by heating a working fluid, which drives a turbogenerator. See *'solar thermal electric'*.

Thermophotovoltaic (TPV) device:- A device that converts secondary thermal radiation, re-emitted by an absorber or heat source, into electricity; The device is designed for maximum efficiency at the wavelength of the secondary radiation.

Thick-crystalline materials:- Semiconductor material, typically measuring from 200-400 microns thick, that is cut from ingots or ribbons.

Thin film:- A layer of semiconductor material, such as copper indium diselenide, cadmium telluride, gallium arsenide, or amorphous silicon, a few microns or less in thickness, used to make photovoltaic cells. Commonly called amorphous.

Thin Film Photovoltaic Module:- A photovoltaic module constructed with sequential layers of thin film semiconductor materials. See *'amorphous silicon'*.

Tilt Angle:- The angle at which a photovoltaic array is set to face the sun relative to a horizontal position. The tilt angle can be set or adjusted to maximize seasonal or annual energy collection.

Total internal reflection:- The trapping of light by refraction and reflection at critical angles inside a semiconductor device so that it cannot escape the device and must eventually be absorbed by the semiconductor.

Tracking array:- PV array that follows the path of the sun to maximize the solar radiation incident on the PV surface. The two most common orientations are:

- i. one axis where the array tracks the sun east to west and
- ii. two-axis tracking where the array points directly at the sun at all times.

Tracking arrays use both the direct and diffuse sunlight. Two-axis tracking arrays capture the maximum possible daily energy. Typically, a single axis tracker will give you 15% to 25% more power per day, and dual axis tracking will add about 5% to that. Depends somewhat on latitude and season.

Two-axis tracking:- A system capable of rotating independently about two axes (e.g., vertical and horizontal) and following the sun for maximum efficiency of the solar array.

Tunnelling:- Quantum mechanical concept whereby an electron is found on the opposite side of an insulating barrier without having passed through or around the barrier.

Ultraviolet:- Electromagnetic radiation in the wavelength range of 4 to 400 nanometres.

Vacuum Evaporation:- The deposition of thin films of semiconductor material by the evaporation of elemental sources in a vacuum.

Valence Band:- The highest energy band in a semiconductor that can be filled with electrons.

Valence Level Energy/Valence State:- Energy content of an electron in orbit about an atomic nucleus. Also called bound state.

Vertical Multijunction (VMJ) Cell:- A compound cell made of different semiconductor materials in layers, one above the other. Sunlight entering the top passes through successive cell barriers, each of which converts a separate portion of the spectrum into electricity, thus achieving greater total conversion efficiency of the incident light. Also called a multiple junction cell. See *multijunction device* and *split-spectrum cell*.

V_{mp} :- Voltage at maximum power. The voltage at which maximum power is available from a photovoltaic module.

V_{oc} :- Open-circuit voltage

Voltage at maximum power, V_{mp} :- The voltage at which maximum power is available from a module.

Wafer:- A thin sheet of semiconductor material made by mechanically sawing it from a single-crystal or multicrystal ingot or casting.

Watt-hour, Wh:- See 'Kilowatt-hour'.

Window:- A wide band gap material chosen for its transparency to light. Generally used as the top layer of a photovoltaic device, the window allows almost all of the light to reach the semiconductor layers beneath.

Work Function:- The energy difference between the Fermi level and vacuum zero. The minimum amount of energy it takes to remove an electron from a substance into the vacuum.

Zenith Angle:- the angle between the direction of interest (of the sun, for example) and the zenith (directly overhead).

Glossary of Electrochemical Battery terminology [Chapter 28]

Absorption:- The retention of Hydrogen by the Misch Metal (Hydrogen-absorbing) alloys of the negative electrode.

Acceleration Factor:- Ratio of calendar life to life on test.

Active Material:- Chemicals that give rise to electro-chemical reactions, and which generate electrical energy in the battery.

Ageing:- Permanent loss of capacity with frequent use or the passage of time due to unwanted irreversible chemical reactions in the cell.

AGM (Absorbed Glass Mat) battery:- A lead acid battery using a micro-glass mat (which also act as a separator) to promote recombination of the gases produced by the charging process.

AGM (Absorbed Glass Mat):- Micro-glass material used to contain the electrolyte and also function as a separator in a valve-regulated lead acid battery.

Alkaline Electrolyte:- An aqueous alkaline solution (such as potassium hydroxide) which provides a medium for the ionic conduction between the positive and negative electrodes of a cell.

Ampere (A):- A unit of electrical current or rate of flow of electrons. One volt across one ohm of resistance causes a current flow of one ampere. One ampere is equal to 6.235×10^{18} electrons per second passing a given point in a circuit.

Ampere hours (Ah):- The unit of measure used for comparing the capacity or energy content of a batteries with the same output voltage. For automotive (Lead Acid) batteries the SAE defines the

Amp-hour capacity as the current delivered for a period of 20 hours until the cell voltage drops to 1.75 V.

Strictly - One Ampere hour is the charge transferred by one amp flowing for one hour. 1Ah = 3600 Coulombs. One C, 1C, means Ah current for 1 hour, $\frac{1}{2}C$ means current of half Ah for 2 hours, etc.

Ampere-Hour Capacity:- The number of ampere-hours that can be delivered by a storage battery under specified conditions as to temperature, rate of discharge and final voltage.

Ampere-Hour Efficiency:- The electrochemical efficiency of a storage battery expressed as the ratio of ampere-hours output to the ampere-hours input required for recharge.

Anode:- An electrode through which current enters any non-metallic conductor. The electrode in an electrochemical cell where oxidation takes place, releasing electrons. During discharge the negative electrode of the cell is the anode. During charge the situation reverses and the positive electrode of the cell is the anode. In order to prevent confusion, the anode is normally defined for its activity during the discharge cycle. In this way the term anode is used for the negative electrode in a cell or battery.

Area-Specific Impedance (ASI):- The impedance of a device relative to the electrode area of the device, defined as the change in cell voltage (V) as a result of a change in cell current divided by the change in cell current (A), all multiplied by the active superficial cell area (cm^2), ohm-cm^2 .

Available Capacity:- The capacity (in Ah) of a device between two state of charge conditions designated as SOC_{MAX} and SOC_{MIN} , as measured using a C/1 constant current discharge rate after the performance of a *Hybrid Pulse Power Characterization* pulse profile at SOC_{MAX} .

Battery:- Two or more electrochemical cells enclosed in a container and electrically inter-connected in an appropriate series/parallel arrangement to provide the required operating voltage and current levels. Under common usage, the term battery also applies to a single cell if it constitutes the entire electrochemical storage system.

Battery Life:- End of Life. The period during which a cell or battery is capable of operating above a specified capacity or efficiency performance level. For example, with lead-acid batteries, end-of-life is generally taken as the point in time when a fully charged cell can deliver only 80% of its rated capacity. Beyond this state of ageing, deterioration and loss of capacity begins to accelerate rapidly. Life may be measured in cycles and/or years, depending on the type of service for which the cell or battery is intended.

Beginning of Life (BOL):- The point in time at which life testing begins. A distinction is made in this manual between the performance of a battery at this point and its initial performance, because some degradation may take place during early testing before the start of life testing. Analysis of the effects of life testing is based on changes from the BOL performance.

Burning Centre:- The centre-to-centre distance between adjacent plates of the same polarity.

C1/1 Rate:- The rate corresponding to completely discharging a fully charged device in exactly one hour. Otherwise, a rate corresponding to the manufacturer's rated capacity (in Ah) for a one-hour constant current discharge. For example, if the battery's rated one-hour capacity is 1 Ah, then the C1/1 constant current rate is 1A. The C1/1 rate is the reference discharge rate for power-assist applications; other applications may have different reference rates, hr⁻¹.

C Rate:- The discharge or charge current in amperes, expressed in multiples of the rated capacity. For example, the C5 rate is the capacity in ampere hours available at the 5-hour discharge rate to a specified end voltage. A discharge of 0.5C5 is a discharge at 50% of the C5 rate.

Cadmium Electrode:- A third electrode in lead-acid battery for separate measurements of the electrode potential of positive and negative plate groups.

Calendar Life (LCAL):- The time required to reach end of life at the reference temperature of 30°C at open-circuit (corresponding to key-off/standby conditions in the vehicle).

Capacity:- The amount of electrical energy that can be supplied by a cell/battery - expressed in Ah, and in specified discharge conditions.

Capacity Test:- A test that discharges the battery at constant current at room temperature to a cutoff voltage of usually 1.75V/cell in the case of a lead-acid battery.

Cathode:- An electrode through which current leaves any non-metallic conductor. The electrode in an electrochemical cell where reduction takes place, gaining electrons. During discharge the positive electrode of the cell is the cathode. During charge the situation reverses and the negative electrode of the cell is the cathode. To prevent confusion the cathode is normally specified for the discharge cycle. As a result, the name cathode is commonly used for the positive electrode of the cell or battery.

Cell:- A cell is the basic electrochemical unit that is used to create electrical energy from stored chemical energy or to store electrical energy in the form of chemical energy. A basic cell consists of two electrodes with an electrolyte between them.

Cell (Primary):- A cell designed to produce electric current through an electrochemical reaction that is not efficiently reversible and hence the cell, when discharged, cannot be efficiently recharged by an electric current.

Cell (Storage):- An electrolytic cell for generation of electric energy, in which the cell after discharge may be restored to a charged condition by an electric current flowing in a direction opposite to the flow of current when the cell discharges.

Cell reversal:- A condition which may occur multi cell series chains in which an over discharge of the battery can cause one or more cells to become completely discharged. The subsequent volt drop across the discharged cell effectively reverses its normal polarity.

Charge acceptance:- quantifies the amount of electric charge which accumulates in a battery.

Charge Efficiency:- The ratio of the output of a cell during discharge to the input of a cell during charge. This ratio can be expressed in Efficiency of Capacity, Nominal Voltage, or Power.

Charge:- The operation which inputs electrical energy to a cell/battery.

Charge equalization:- brings all of the cells in a battery or string to the same state of charge.

Charge Rate:- The current applied to a cell to restore its capacity. The charge rate is usually expressed in terms of the cells C Rate.

Charge retention:- refers to a battery's ability to hold a charge. It diminishes during storage.

Charged and Dry:- A battery assembled with dry, charged plates and no electrolyte.

Charged and Wet:- A fully charged battery containing electrolyte and ready to deliver current.

Charge, state of:- Available or remaining capacity of a battery expressed as a % of the rated capacity.

Cold Cranking Amps:- A performance rating for automobile starting batteries. It is defined as the current that the battery can deliver for 30 seconds and maintain a terminal voltage greater than or equal to 1.20 volts per cell, at -18°C, when the battery is new and fully charged. Starting batteries may also be rated for Cranking Amps, which is the same thing but at a temperature of 0°C.

Constant Current Charge:- A charge that maintains the current at a constant value, regardless of the voltage of the battery or cell. For some types of batteries this may involve two rates, called a starting and a finishing rate. This procedure may damage the battery if performed on a repetitive basis.

Constant Potential Charge or Constant Voltage Charge:- A charge that holds the voltage at the terminals at a constant value, regardless of the current drawn, and the current is limited only by the resistance of the battery and/or the capacity of the charge source.

Copper Contamination:- The formation of copper sulphate on the negative plates, usually caused by unintentional exposure of terminal posts' copper inserts to the electrolyte.

Coulombic Efficiency:- The ratio (expressed as a percentage) between the energy removed from a battery during discharge compared with the energy used during charging to restore the original capacity. Also called Charge Efficiency or Charge Acceptance.

Coup-de-Fouet:- The voltage dip followed by a subsequent voltage recovery that occurs when initially discharging a battery that has been on long-term float operation.

Cut-off Voltage:- A battery management system set voltage that determines when the discharging of a cell/battery should end.

Cycle:- A discharge and its subsequent recharge.

Cycle Life:- The total number of charge/discharge cycles, under specified conditions, before the battery reaches end of life (generally 80% of rated capacity). This is normally take to be the point at which it reaches its cut-off voltage, typically 80% of discharge.

Deep cycle battery - A battery designed to be discharged to below 80% Depth of Discharge. Used in marine, traction and EV applications.

Deep discharge - Discharge of at least 80% of the rated capacity of a battery.

Dendritic growth:- The formation from small crystals in the electrolyte of tree like structures which degrade the performance of the cell.

Depth of discharge DOD:- The ratio of the quantity of electricity or charge removed from a cell on discharge to its rated capacity discharge, expressed as a percent of rated capacity. For example, the removal of 25 ampere-hours from a fully charged 100 ampere-hours rated cell results in a 25% depth of discharge. Under certain conditions, such as discharge rates lower than that used to rate the cell, depth of discharge can exceed 100%.

Discharged:- A storage cell when, as a result of delivering current, in the case of the lead-acid cell, the plates are sulphated, the electrolyte is exhausted, and there is little or no potential difference between the terminals.

Discharge Factor:- A number equivalent to the time in hours during which a battery is discharged at constant current usually expressed as a percentage of the total battery capacity, i.e., C/5 indicates a discharge factor of 5 hours. Related to discharge rate.

Discharge Rate:- Any specified amperage rate at which a battery is discharged.

Efficiency:- The ratio of the output of a rechargeable cell or battery on discharge to the input required to restore it to the initial state of charge.

Electrochemical Cell:- A device containing two conducting electrodes, one positive and the other negative, made of dissimilar materials (usually metals) that are immersed in a chemical solution (electrolyte) that transmits positive ions from the negative to the positive electrode and thus forms an electrical charge. One or more cells constitute a battery.

Electrode:- Positive or negative plate containing materials capable of reacting with electrolyte to produce or accept current. he cell voltage is determined by the voltage difference between the positive and the negative electrode.

Electrode (Electrolyte) potential:- The voltage developed by a single electrode, determined by its propensity to gain or lose electrons. The difference in potential between the electrode and the immediately adjacent electrolyte, expressed in terms of a standard electrode potential difference.

Electrolysis:- Electrochemical reaction that causes the decomposition of a compound.

Electrolyte:- A substance which dissociates into ions (charged particles) when in aqueous solution or molten form and is thus able to conduct electricity. It is the medium which transports the ions carrying the charge between the positive and negative electrodes during the electrochemical reaction in a battery.

End Gravity:- The specific gravity of a lead-acid cell at the end of a prescribed discharge.

End of Life, EOL:- A condition reached when the device under test is no longer capable of meeting the applicable goals.

End of Test, EOT:- The point in time where life testing is halted, either because criteria specified in the test plan are reached, or because it is not possible to continue testing.

Energy density:- The amount of energy stored in a battery. The volumetric energy storage density of a battery, is expressed as the amount of energy stored per unit volume or per unit weight (Wh/L or Wh/kg).

Equalisation:- The process of bringing every cell in a battery chain to the same state of charge (SOC)

Equalizing charge:- Charge applied to a battery which is greater than the normal float charge and is used to completely restore the active materials in the cell, bringing the cell float voltage and the specific gravity of the individual cells back to 'equal' values.

Fauré Plate:- see *Pasted Plate*.

Final Voltage:- The cut-off voltage of a battery. The prescribed voltage reached when the discharge is considered complete. Also known as *end point voltage* or *EPV*. This voltage is almost equivalent to limit of practical use. Typical values:

- 1.0 V per cell for NiCd and NiMH
- 1.75 V per cell for sealed lead acid
- 2.75 V per cell for lithium ion and lithium polymer
- 2.0 V per cell for primary lithium
- 0.9 V per cell for alkaline and carbon zinc

Finishing Rate:- The rate of charge, in amperes, to which charging current is reduced near the end of the charge for some types of batteries to prevent gassing and temperature rise.

Float Plate:- A pasted plate.

Float Charging:- A recharge at a very low rate, accomplished by connection to a bus whose voltage is slightly higher than the open circuit voltage of the battery. A method of maintaining a battery in a charged condition by continuous, long term, constant voltage charging at level sufficient to balance self-discharge.

Flooded Lead Acid cell:- In 'flooded' batteries, the oxygen created at the positive electrode is released from the cell and vented into the atmosphere. Similarly, the hydrogen created at the negative electrode is also vented into the atmosphere. This can cause an explosive atmosphere in an unventilated battery room. Furthermore the venting of the gasses causes a net loss of water from the cell. This lost water needs to be periodically replaced. Flooded batteries must be vented to prevent excess pressure from the build up of these gasses. *Sealed Lead Acid* (SLA) and *Valve Regulated Lead Acid* (VRLA) Cells overcome these problems.

Fuel Cell:- An electrochemical generator in which the reactants are stored externally and may be supplied continuously to a cell.

Gas Recombination:- The process by which oxygen gas generated from the positive plate during the final stage of charge is absorbed into the negative plate, preventing loss of water.

Gassing:- The generation or evolution of a gaseous product at one or both electrodes as a result of the electrochemical action. Gassing commonly results from local action (self discharge) or from the electrolysis of water in the electrolyte during charging. In lead acid batteries *gassing* produces hydrogen and oxygen. Significant gassing occurs when the battery is nearing the fully charged state while recharging or when the battery is on equalizing charge.

Gel cell:- An SLA battery which uses gelled electrolyte, an aqueous electrolyte that has been immobilised by the addition of a gelling agent.

Grid:- A metallic framework in a battery for conducting electric current and supporting the active material.

Half Cell Reaction:- The electrochemical reaction between the electrode and the electrolyte.

Hybrid Pulse Power Characterization (HPPC):- A test whose results are used to calculate pulse power and energy capability under specific operating conditions.

Hydration (Lead):- Reaction between water and lead or lead compounds. Gravities lower than those found in discharged cells are apt to produce hydration, which appears as a white coating on plate groups and separators in a cell. A condition whereby lead dissolves into the electrolyte in a

discharged cell and plates out onto the separator during recharge, resulting in numerous short circuit paths between the positive and negative plates.

Hydrometer:- A tool for testing the specific-gravity of a fluid, such as the electrolyte in a flooded battery. Typically a squeeze-bulb is used to suck up a sample of the fluid, and a float indicates the specific gravity.

Immobilized Electrolyte:- A lead-acid batteries technique where the electrolyte (the acid) is held in place against the plates instead of being a free-flowing liquid. The two most common techniques are gel and glass mat.

Impedance:- The resistive value of a battery to an ac current expressed in ohms (Ω). Generally measured when fully charged, at 1000 Hz.

Intercalation:- This insertion of ions into the crystalline lattice of a host electrode without changing its crystal structure. A reaction where lithium ions are reversibly removed or inserted into a host without a significant structural change to the host.

Internal Pressure:- The pressure within a sealed cell caused by oxygen or hydrogen evolution.

Internal Resistance:- The opposition or resistance to the flow of a direct electric current within a cell or battery; the sum of the ionic and electronic resistance of the cell components. Its value varies with the current, state of charge, temperature, and age. With an extremely heavy load, such as an engine starter, the cell voltage may drop significantly. This voltage drop is due to the internal resistance of the cell. A cell that is partly discharged has a higher internal resistance than a fully charged cell, hence it will have a greater voltage drop under the same load. This change in internal resistance is due to the accumulation of lead sulphate in the plates.

Interstitial:- A space between things closely set, or between the parts, which compose a body; a narrow chink; a crack; a crevice; a hole.

Life in service:- The time required to reach end of life at the nominal conditions of normal usage in the vehicle (30°C and specified cycling conditions).

Life on test, LTEST:- The time required to reach end of life at the test conditions specified for accelerated life testing.

Lithium Cobaltite:- LiCoO_2 Dark blue powder; insoluble in water. The compound exhibits both the fluxing property of lithium oxide and the adherence-promoting property of cobalt oxide. Intercalates lithium ions in battery applications.

Manchex:- A type of Planté cell in which the positive plate is cast with openings provided for the active material, which are buttons of soft-lead ribbon. The active material is corrugated and rolled into spirals, which are forced into the grids by hydraulic pressure.

Memory effect (Voltage Depression):- Reversible, progressive capacity loss in nickel based batteries found in NiCad and to a lesser extent in NiMH batteries. It is caused by a change in crystalline formation from the desirable small size to a large size which occurs when the cell is repeatedly recharged before it is fully discharged.

Metal Hydride, MH:- The negative electrode composed of Misch metal (Hydrogen-storing) alloys.

MF (Maintenance Free Battery):- A VRLA sealed absorbed glass mat (AGM) battery.

Microporous Separator:- A veneer or grooved-type separator made of any material that has many microscopically small pores.

Migration:- The movement of charged ions under the influence of a potential gradient.

Minimum Pulse Power Characterization, MPPC:- A shortened version of the Hybrid Pulse Power Characterization test conducted periodically to measure performance deterioration over time.

Misch Metal (M):- The matrix of the negative electrode composed of Hydrogen-storing alloys.

Nickel Metal Hydride, NiMH: A cell or battery system composed of a Nickel (Ni) positive electrode and a metal hydride (MH) negative electrode.

Negative Plate:- The grid and active material that current flows to from the external circuit when a battery is discharging.

Negative Terminal:- The terminal from which current flows through the external circuit to the positive terminal when the cell discharges.

Nernst equation:- Used by cell designers to calculate the voltage of a chemical cell from the standard electrode potentials, the temperature and to the concentrations of the reactants and products.

Nominal Voltage:- A general value to indicate the voltage of a battery in application.

Open Circuit Voltage:- The voltage of a battery when it is not delivering or receiving power, and has been at rest long enough to reach a steady state (normally, at least 4 hours).

Overcharge:- The forcing of current through a cell after all the active material has been converted to the charged state. In other words, charging continued after 100% state of charge is achieved. The result will be the decomposition of water in the electrolyte into hydrogen and oxygen gas, heat generation, and corrosion of the positive electrode.

Oxygen Recombination:- The process in which oxygen generated at the positive electrode during over-charge reacts with hydrogen at the negative electrode to produce water.

Pasted (Fauré) Plate:- A plate consisting of a grid filled with active material applied as a paste.

Peukert's equation:- A formula that shows how the available capacity of a lead-acid battery changes according to the rate of discharge. The capacity of a battery is expressed in Amp-Hours, but it

turns out that the simple formula of current times hours does not accurately represent the situation. Peukert found that the equation:

$$C = I^n \times t$$

fits the observed behaviour of batteries. 'C' is the theoretical capacity of the battery, I is the current, t is time, and n is the Peukert number, a constant for the given battery. The equation captures the fact that at higher currents, there is less available energy in the battery.

Peukert number:- A value that indicates how well a lead-acid battery performs under heavy currents.

The Peukert number is the exponent in Peukert's equation. A value close to 1 indicates that the battery performs well; the higher the number, the more capacity is lost when the battery is discharged at high currents. The Peukert number of a battery is determined empirically.

Planté Plate:- A formed lead plate of large area, the active material of which is formed directly from a lead substrate.

Polarization:- Change in voltage at terminals when a specified current is flowing; equal to the difference between the actual and the equilibrium (constant open circuit condition) potentials of the plates, exclusive of the internal resistance drop.

Positive Plates:- The grid and active materials of a storage battery from which current flows to the external circuit when the battery is discharging.

Positive Terminal:- The terminal that current flows toward in the external circuit from the negative terminal.

Potassium Hydroxide, KOH:- The electrolyte provides the ion transport mechanism between the electrodes, used in NiMH cells.

Power Density:- The volumetric power density of a battery, expressed in Watts per litre (W/l).

Primary cell:- A cell that is non-rechargeable. A cell or battery that can be discharged only once.

Prismatic cell:- A slim rectangular sealed cell in a metal case. The positive and negative plates are stacked usually in a rectangular shape rather than rolled in a spiral as done in a cylindrical cell.

Rapid Charge:- A rate of charging a cell or battery that results in fully charging a battery to full capacity between 2½ to 6 hours.

Rated Capacity:- Ampere hours Ah of discharge that can be removed from a fully charged cell or battery, at a specific constant discharge rate at a specified temperature and at a specified cut-off voltage.

Recombinant system:- Sealed secondary cells in which gaseous products of the electrochemical charging cycle are made to recombine to recover the active chemicals. A closed cycle system preventing loss of active chemicals. Used in NiCd and SLA batteries.

Resealable Safety Vent:- The resealable vent built into cylindrical and prismatic cells to prevent the build up of high internal pressures.

Reversal:- A change in the normal polarity of a cell or battery.

Safety Vent:- This is a device to release the gas when the internal pressure of the battery exceeds the pre-set value.

Sealed cells:- A cell which remains closed and does not release gas or liquid when operated within the limits of charge and temperature specified by the manufacturer. An essential component in recombinant cells.

Secondary cell:- the process is reversible so that charging and discharging may be repeated over and over.

Sediment:- The sludge or active material shed from plates that drops to the bottom of cells.

Sediment Space:- The portion of a container beneath the element; sediment from the wearing of the plates collects here without short-circuiting.

Self-discharge:- Loss of charge due to local action, without external current flow. The decrease in the state of charge of a cell or a battery, over a period of time during storage or not in use, due to internal electrochemical losses. Self-discharge is defined as the recoverable loss of capacity of a cell or battery. Typical values, at a specified temperature:

1% per day for NiCd

2% per day for NiMH

~0% per day for Lithium Ion and Lithium Polymer

Self Discharge Rate:- the percent of capacity lost on open circuit over a specified period of time.

Separator:- A device or membrane in a storage battery that prevents metallic contact between plates of opposite polarity in a cell. In sealed lead acid batteries it normally is absorbent glass fibre to hold the electrolyte in suspension. The separator is an ion-permeable, electronically non-conductive material or spacer that is placed between the anode and cathode.

Shelf Life:- The duration under specified conditions that at the end a cell or battery can be stored and retain its performance.

SLA Battery:- Sealed Lead Acid battery. In sealed batteries the generated oxygen combines chemically with the lead and then the hydrogen at the negative electrode, and then again with reactive agents in the electrolyte, to recreate water. A recombinant system. The net result is no significant loss of water from the cell.

Spalling:- Shedding of active material, usually from positives, during formation due to incomplete or improper plate curing.

Specific Energy:- The gravimetric energy storage density of a battery, expressed in Watt-hours per kilogram (Wh/kg).

Specific Power:- The specific power for a battery is the gravimetric power density expressed in Watts per kilogram (W/kg).

Sponge Lead (Pb):- A porous mass of lead crystals and the chief material of a full-charged negative plate.

Stable SOC (state of charge) Condition:- For a device at thermal equilibrium, its state of charge under clamped voltage conditions is considered to have reached a stable value when the current declines to less than 1% of its original or limiting value, averaged over at least 5 minutes. (For example, if a device is discharged at a $C_1/1$ rate and then clamped at a final voltage, the SOC would be considered stable when the current declines to 0.01 $C_1/1$ or less.)

Stable Voltage Condition:- For a device at thermal equilibrium, its open circuit voltage (OCV) is considered stable if it is changing at a rate of less than 1% per hour when measured over at least 30 minutes. (Note that a stable voltage condition can also be reached by setting an arbitrary OCV rest interval (e.g., 1 hour), which is long enough to ensure that voltage equilibrium is reached at any SOC and temperature condition of interest. This is much simpler to implement with most battery testers than a rate-of-change criterion. However, it would result in a longer test and in longer rest intervals, which could be undesirable if a device had high self-discharge at the temperature where the test was conducted.)

Standby Service:- An application in which the battery is maintained in a fully charged condition by trickle of float charging.

SOC_{MAX} and SOC_{MIN}:- Two state of charge conditions that are chosen as reference conditions for a given life test program. They could represent the entire anticipated operating range for a given application, although for reference test purposes they are typically limited to the range of SOC values used in the life test matrix. SOC_{MAX} and SOC_{MIN} are represented by (that is, measured as) the corresponding open circuit voltages when the device is in a stable condition (see *Stable SOC Condition and Stable Voltage Condition*.) SOC_{MAX} can be selected as any value less than or equal to the maximum allowable operating voltage for a device. SOC_{MIN} can be any value less than SOC_{MAX} and greater than or equal to the minimum allowable operating voltage, %.

State of Charge:- The amount of electrochemical energy left in a cell or battery. The available ampere hours in a battery at any given time relative to its full charge capacity. This is normally referenced to a constant current discharge at the $C_1/1$ rate. It may also be determined by a voltage obtained from a correlation of capacity to voltage fixed at beginning of life. SOC = (100 – DOD) if the rated capacity is equal to the actual capacity, %.

State-of-health, SOH:- The present fraction of allowable performance deterioration remaining before EOL. (SOH = 100% at beginning of life and 0% at end of life.)

Starved Electrolyte:- A term occasionally applied to a VRLA cell, meaning that the cell contains little or no free electrolyte.

Sulphation:- Growth of lead sulphate crystals in Lead-Acid batteries which inhibits current flow. Refers to the formation of hard lead sulphate crystals in the plates that are difficult, if not impossible, to reconvert to active material. Sulphation is caused by storage at low state of charge.

Stress factors:- External conditions imposed on a battery that accelerates its rate of performance deterioration.

Stratification:- Layering of high specific gravity electrolyte in lower portions of a cell, where it does not circulate normally and is of no use.

Temperature Correction:- In storage cells, specific gravity and charging voltage vary inversely with temperature, while the open circuit voltage varies directly though slightly with temperature.

Thermal Runaway:- A condition in which a cell or battery (especially valve-regulated types) on constant potential charge can destroy itself through internal heat generation being greater than that which can be externally dissipated. Can cause failure through cell dry-out, shortened life, and/or melting of the battery.

Treeing:- Growth of a lead dendrite or filament through a crack or hole in a separator, short-circuiting the cell.

Trickle Charge:- A low-rate continuous charge approximately equal to a battery's internal losses and capable of maintaining the battery in a fully-charged state. Method of charging in which the battery is either continuously or intermittently connected to a constant current charging source to maintain the battery in a fully charged condition. Not recommended for use with AGM batteries.

Tubular Plate:- A plate in which the active material is contained in porous tubes, each tube having a centrally located grid.

Vent:- An opening that permits the escape of gas from a cell or mould.

Venting:- A release of gas either controlled (through a vent) or accidental from a battery cell.

Vent Valve:- A normally closed check valve located in a cell which allows the controlled escape of gases when the internal pressure exceeds its rated value.

Volt Efficiency:- The ratio of the average voltage of a cell or battery during discharge to the average voltage during subsequent recharge.

VRLA (Valve Regulated Lead Acid):- Sealed batteries which feature a safety valve venting system designed to release excessive internal pressure, while maintaining sufficient pressure for recombination of oxygen and hydrogen into water.

Watthour:- A unit of electrical energy or work, equal to one watt acting for one hour.

Watthour Capacity:- The number of watthours a storage battery can deliver under specific conditions of temperature, rate of discharge and final voltage.

Watthour Efficiency:- A storage battery's energy efficiency expressed as ratio of watthour output to the watthours of the recharge.

Wet Shelf Life:- The time a wet secondary cell can be stored before its capacity falls to the point that the cell cannot be easily recharged.

Glossary of Capacitor terminology [Chapter 29]

AC voltage:- The sum of the dc and peak ac voltage applied to the capacitor should not exceed the rated dc voltage, nor should the rms voltage exceed the Corona Start Voltage.

Aerogel Capacitor:- these capacitors use carbon aerogel to attain immense electrode surface area, can attain huge values, up to thousands of farads. EDLCs can be used as replacements for batteries in applications where a high discharge current is required, e.g. in electric vehicles. They can also be recharged hundreds of thousands of times, unlike conventional batteries which last for only a few hundred or thousand recharge cycles. However, capacitor voltage drops faster than battery voltage during discharge, so a dc to dc converter may be used to maintain voltage and to make more of the energy stored in the capacitor usable.

Aluminium Electrolytic Capacitor:- are compact but 'lossy'. A capacitor made up of two aluminium electrodes separated by paper saturated with an electrolyte. The dielectric is the oxide of the anode. They are available in the range of less than 1 μ F to 1,000,000 μ F with working voltages over five hundred volts dc. The dielectric is a thin layer of aluminium oxide. They contain corrosive liquid and can burst if the device is connected backwards. The electrolyte will tend to dry out in the absence of a sufficient rejuvenating voltage, and eventually the capacitor will fail. Bipolar electrolytics contain two capacitors connected in series opposition and are used for coupling ac signals. Poor frequency and temperature characteristics make them unsuited for high-frequency applications.

Capacitance (Capacity):- That property of a system of conductors and dielectrics which permits the storage of electricity when potential difference exists between the conductors. A measure of the energy storage ability of a capacitor, given as $C = k A/d$, where A is the area of the electrodes, d is their separation, and k is a function of the dielectric between the electrodes. The formula yields a result in farads (F), but a farad is so large that the most commonly used values are expressed in microfarads (μ f = 10^{-6} F) or picofarads (pf = 10^{-12} F). Capacitance is always positive.

Capacitive Reactance, X_c:- The opposition to the flow of alternating or pulsating current by a capacitor measured in ohms. The imaginary component of the impedance of a capacitor. The non-heating impedance component of the capacitor when ac flows: $X_c = 1/2\pi fC$.

Capacitor:- An electrical/electronic part that stores electrical charges. In its simplest form it consists of two conducting surfaces separated by a dielectric. A passive circuit element capable of storing electrical energy and releasing it at a predetermined time and at a predetermined rate.

Charge:- The amount of electricity present upon the capacitor's plates. Also, the act of forcing of electrons onto the capacitor's plates. See *Coulomb*.

Corona:- A luminous discharge due to ionization of the gas surrounding a conductor around which exists a voltage gradient exceeding a certain critical value. Any electrically detectable, field intensified ionization that does not result immediately in complete breakdown of the insulation and electrode system in which it occurs. A type of discharge -sometimes visible- in the dielectric of an insulation system caused by an electric field and characterized by the rapid development of an ionized channel which does not completely bridge the electrode. May be continuous or intermittent. Not a materials property, but related to the system, including electrodes. Its incidence can be reduced or avoided through special designs.

Corona Resistance:- The time that insulation will withstand a specified level field-intensified ionization that does not result in the immediate complete breakdown of the insulation.

Creepage:- Electrical leakage on a solid dielectric surface

Critical Voltage (of gas):- The voltage at which a gas ionizes and corona occurs, preliminary to dielectric breakdown of the gas.

Ceramic Capacitor:- This capacitor is so named because it contains a ceramic dielectric. One type of ceramic capacitor uses a hollow ceramic cylinder as both the form on which to construct the capacitor and as the dielectric material. The plates consist of thin films of metal deposited on the ceramic cylinder. The other type of ceramic capacitor is manufactured in the shape of a disk. After leads are attached to each side of the capacitor, the capacitor is completely covered with an insulating moisture-proof coating. Ceramic capacitors usually range in value from 1pF to 0.1 μ F and may be used with voltages as high as 30kV.

Coulomb:- A coulomb is the unit of electric charge. 1 coulomb is the amount of electric charge transported by a current of one ampere in one second. It can also be defined in terms of capacitance and voltage, where one coulomb is defined as one farad of capacitance times one volt of electric potential difference.

Dielectric:- The insulating material between the plates of the capacitor. The material is chosen for its ability to permit electrostatic attraction and repulsion to take place across it. The material will have the property that energy required to establish an electric field is recoverable in whole or in part, as electric energy. In other words, a good dielectric material is a poor conductor of electricity while being an effective supporter of electrostatic fields.

Dielectric Absorption, DA:- That property of an imperfect dielectric whereby there is an accumulation of electric charges within the body of the material when it is placed in an electric field. An apparent 'recovery voltage' measured after the capacitor is discharged and expressed as a percent of the initial charge voltage. DA is due largely to the dipole moment of the dielectric and to lesser degree the migration of free electrons to the surface of the dielectric. A measure of the reluctance of a capacitor's dielectric to discharge completely - usually measured in percent of original charge.

Dielectric Constant:- That property of a dielectric which determines the electrostatic energy stored per unit volume for unit potential gradient.

Dielectric Loss:- The time rate at which electric energy is transformed into heat in a dielectric when it is subjected to a changing electric field.

Dielectric Loss Angle:- The difference between 90° and the dielectric phase angle.

Dielectric Phase Angle:- The angular difference in phase between the sinusoidal alternating potential difference applied to a dielectric and the component of the resulting alternating current having the same period as the potential difference.

Dielectric Power Factor:- The cosine of the dielectric phase angle (or sine of the dielectric loss angle).

Dielectric Strength:- The voltage which an insulating material can withstand before breakdown (puncture) occurs, usually expressed as a voltage gradient (such as volts per mil). The voltage figure used is the average RMS voltage gradient between two electrodes at the time of failure.

Displacement Current:- A current which exists in addition to ordinary conduction current in ac circuits. It is proportional to the rate of change of the electric field.

Disruptive Discharge:- The sudden and large increase in current through an insulation medium due to the complete failure of the medium under the electrostatic stress.

Dissipation Factor, DF, $\tan\delta$:- The tangent of the loss angle of the insulating material. A measure of the deviation from the ideal capacitance value. A measure of the power factor (or losses) of a capacitor, given as $\tan\delta = DF = 2\pi \times fRC \times 100\%$, where R is the equivalent series resistance (ESR) of the capacitor, f is the frequency (Hz.), and C is capacitance (Farads). Dissipation Factor varies with frequency and temperature.

dv/dt:- Change in Voltage divided by Change in Time, usually expressed in Volts per us. Is the maximum allowed change in volts per microsecond at the rated voltage. The maximum voltage rise (or discharge) time a capacitor can withstand being damaged.

EDLC:- Electric Double Layer Capacitor - is a next-generation energy storage device that will be used as an auxiliary power supply and the combined use with photovoltaics equipment and hybrid electric cars. Also known as *supercapacitors* or *ultracapacitors*, have very high capacitance values but low voltage ratings. They use a molecule-thin layer of electrolyte, rather than a manufactured sheet of material, as the dielectric. As the energy stored is inversely proportional to the thickness of the dielectric, these capacitors have an extremely high energy density. The electrodes are made of activated carbon, which has a high surface area per unit volume, further increasing the capacitor's energy density.

Electrolytic Capacitor:- is used where a large amount of capacitance is required. As the name implies, an electrolytic capacitor contains an electrolyte. This electrolyte can be in the form of a liquid (wet electrolytic capacitor). The wet electrolytic capacitor is no longer in popular use due to the care needed to prevent spilling of the electrolyte. A dry electrolytic capacitor consists essentially of two metal plates separated by the electrolyte. In most cases the capacitor is housed in a cylindrical aluminium container which acts as the negative terminal of the capacitor. The positive terminal (or terminals if the capacitor is of the multisection type) is a lug (or lugs) on the bottom end of the container. The capacitance value(s) and the voltage rating of the capacitor are generally printed on the side of the aluminium case

A polarized capacitor exhibiting a high capacitance/volume ratio that consists of two electrodes immersed in an electrolyte, with a chemical film that acts as a dielectric on one or both electrodes. Electrolytic capacitors are made by winding either plain or etched foils on which an oxide has been formed on the surface of one (either anode or cathode) film. The etching of the foil increases the surface area and a considerable increase in capacitance is obtained.

Equivalent Series Resistance, ESR:- A resistive series element of the capacitor model found in both the ac and dc domains. Contributing factors: electrodes, leads, dielectric. This value can change with frequency, time, etc. A measure of the total lossiness of a capacitor which includes the leads, electrodes, dielectric losses, leakage (IR) and most important, the end spray connecting the leads to the metallised film. The lower the ESR the higher the current carrying ability the capacitor will have. It is related and dependant on temperature and frequency and generally when either these factors increase, a reduction in ESR results.

The sum of all the internal resistances of a capacitor measured in ohms. Expressed mathematically as $ESR = DF \times X_c$.

Farad:- A farad is defined as the amount of capacitance for which a potential difference of one volt results in a static charge of one coulomb. It has the base SI representation of $s^4 \cdot A^2 \cdot m^{-2} \cdot kg^{-1}$. Since an ampere is the rate of electrical flow (current) of one coulomb per second, an alternate definition is that a farad is the amount of capacitance that requires one second for a one ampere flow of charge to change the voltage by one volt.

The basic unit of a measure of a capacitor. A capacitor charged to 1 volt with a charge of 1 coulomb would have a capacitance of 1 Farad. 1 μ F = .000001 Farads.

Film Capacitor:- Made from high quality polymer film (usually polycarbonate, polystyrene, polypropylene, polyester (Mylar), and for high quality capacitors polysulphone), and metal foil or a layer of metal deposited on surface. They have good quality and stability, and are suitable for timer circuits and for high frequencies.

Fixed Capacitor:- is constructed in such manner that it possesses a fixed value of capacitance which cannot be adjusted. A fixed capacitor is classified according to the type of material used as its dielectric, such as paper, oil, mica, or electrolyte.

I_{rms} :- The maximum rms ripple current in amps at a given frequency.

I_{peak} :- The maximum peak current in amps at +25°C for non-repetitive pulses or where the pulse time off is sufficient to allow cooling so overheating will not result.

Inductance ESL:- Some series inductance is present in all capacitor, which dominates impedance at very high frequencies. Most significant in aluminium electrolytic capacitors, with values usually less than a few tens of nH.

Insulation:- Material having a high resistance to the flow of electric current, which prevents leakage of current from a conductor.

Insulation Resistance, IR:- The ratio of the applied Voltage to the total current between two electrodes in contact with a specific insulator. A measure of the resistance to a dc current flow through the capacitor under steady state conditions. Values for film and ceramic capacitors are usually expressed in megohm-microfarads for a given design and dielectric. The actual resistance of the capacitor is obtained by dividing the megohm-microfarads by the capacitance.

A measure of the resistance to a dc current flow through the capacitor under steady state conditions. Values for film and ceramic capacitors are usually expressed in megohm-microfarads for a given design and dielectric. The actual resistance of the capacitor is obtained by dividing the megohm-microfarads by the capacitance.

The ratio of the dc voltage applied to the terminals of a capacitor and the resultant leakage current flowing through the dielectric and over its surface after the initial charging current has ceased expressed in megohms or as time constant megohm \times microfarads.

Impedance, Z_c :- The total opposition offered to alternating or pulsating current measured in ohms. Impedance is the vector sum of the resistive and reactive series components of a capacitor expressed mathematically as $Z_c = (ESR^2 + (X_c - X_L)^2)^{1/2}$. Impedance is dominated by the capacitive reactance at low frequencies and by the inductive reactance at high frequencies. At the series resonant frequency $Z = ESR$.

Insulator:- A material of such low electrical conductivity that the flow of current through it can usually be neglected.

Ion, Ionization:- An electrified portion of matter of sub-atomic, atomic, or molecular dimensions such as is formed when a molecule of gas loses an electron (when the gas is stressed electrically beyond the critical voltage) or when a neutral atom or group of atoms in a fluid loses or gains one or more electrons. Ionization is the dissociation of an atom or molecule into positive or negative ions or electrons. Restrictively, the state of an insulator whereby it facilitates the passage of current due to the presence of charged particles usually induced artificially.

Joule (watt second):- Joule = $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Capacitance (Farads)} \times \text{Voltage}^2$. The Joule is a measure of the amount of energy delivered by one Watt of power in one second or 1 million watts of power in one microsecond. The Joule rating of a surge protection device is the amount of energy that it can absorb before it becomes damaged.

Leakage Current:- Measure of the stray direct current flowing through capacitor after dc voltage is impressed on it.
After charging a capacitor to a set voltage, initially, a high current flows which decreases rapidly until a constant small value is reached, the final leakage current. The leakage current value increases both with voltage and temperature. In the case of electrolytic capacitors, after a long storage period, the leakage current value can exceed the rated value and leakage measurement is after a short re-anodization period.

Metallised Capacitor:- A capacitor where a thin layer of metal is vacuum-deposited directly onto the dielectric.

Mica Capacitor:- is made of metal foil plates that are separated by sheets of mica (the dielectric). The whole assembly is encased in moulded plastic. Since the capacitor parts are moulded into a plastic case, corrosion and damage to the plates and dielectric are prevented. Also the moulded plastic case makes the capacitor mechanically stronger. Various types of terminals are used on mica capacitors to connect them into circuits. The terminals are also moulded into the plastic case.

Oil Capacitors (Self Healing):- these are often used in high-power electronic equipment. An oil-filled capacitor is nothing more than a paper capacitor that is immersed in oil. Since oil impregnated paper has a high dielectric constant, it can be used in the production of capacitors having a high capacitance value. Many capacitors will use oil with another dielectric material to prevent arcing between the plates. If arcing should occur between the plates of an oil-filled capacitor, the oil will tend to reseal the hole caused by the arcing. These are referred to as a self healing capacitor.

Overvoltage:- A voltage above the normal operating voltage of a device or circuit. In a dielectric withstand test, capacitors are overvoltage-tested (Hi-potted) at $1.5\times$ or $2\times$ its rated voltage to assure quality.

Partial Discharge:- A partial discharge is an electric discharge that only partially bridges the insulation between conductors when the voltage stress exceeds a critical value. Partial discharges may, or may not, occur adjacent to a conductor. Partial discharge is often referred to as corona but the term corona is preferably reserved for localized discharges in cases around a conductor, bare or insulated, remote from any other solid insulation.

Polychlorinated Biphenyls PCB:- Chemical pollutant formerly used in oil-filled capacitors which have been outlawed since the 1970's and are no longer used in the capacitor and transformer industries.

Permittivity:- Preferred term for dielectric constant.

Polycarbonate Resins:- Polymers derived from the direct reaction between aromatic and aliphatic dihydroxy compounds with phosgene or by the ester exchange reaction with appropriate phosgene derived precursors.

Polyester:- A resin formed by the reaction between a dibasic acid and a dihydroxy alcohol.

Polyethylene:- A thermoplastic material composed of polymers of ethylene.

Polymer:- A compound formed by polymerization which results in the chemical union of monomers or the continued reaction between lower molecular weight polymers.

Polymerize:- To unite chemically two or more monomers or polymers of the same kind to form a molecule with higher molecular weight.

Polypropylene:- A plastic made by the polymerization of high-purity propylene gas in the presence of an organometallic catalyst at relative low pressures and temperatures.

Polystyrene:- A thermoplastic produced by the polymerization of styrene (vinyl benzene).

Pulse Operation:- Capacitors subjected to dc pulses or non-sinusoidal voltages with fast rise or drop times (high dv/dt) will be exposed to high current. This current must be limited to within the maximum peak current allowed. These peak currents refer to an unlimited number of pulses charging or discharging the capacitors.

Rated Capacitance C_R :- The rated capacitance, defined at specific frequency and temperature, for example, 100 Hz and 20°C , is the capacitance of an equivalent circuit having capacitance and resistance series connected.

Rated Voltage V_R :- The rated voltage is the voltage value that can be applied continuously within the operating temperature range of capacitors. When using a capacitor with ac voltage superimposed on a dc voltage, the peak value of ac voltage plus the dc voltage must not exceed the rated voltage.

Ripple Current:- The total amount of alternating and direct current that can be applied to a capacitor under specific conditions without causing a failure. It depends mostly on the allowable temperature rise due to the ESR I^2R heat production. Since ripple current raises the core temperature, it is important in specifying operational life of the component.

Shelf Life:- The voltage free storage life, most important with electrolytic based capacitors. Period based on specified drift in ESR and impedance. At 20°C , the shelf life of a high voltage (>100V) electrolytic capacitor, is as short as two years.

Sparkover:- A disruptive discharge between electrodes of a measuring gap, such as a sphere gap or oil testing gap.

Surface Leakage:- The passing of current over the boundary surfaces of an insulator as distinguished from passage through its volume.

Surge:- A transient variation in the current and/or potential at a point in the circuit.

Surge Voltage, S_V , V_p :- The maximum dc voltage a capacitor can tolerate under any circumstances for a short period of time without suffering any damage. The surge voltage is the maximum overvoltage including dc, peak ac and transients to which the capacitor can be subjected for short periods of time. Typically, not more than 30 seconds in any 5 minute period, at maximum operational temperature, where the charge is held for 30 seconds for 1000 cycles, then the capacitor is allowed to discharge without load for 5 minutes.

SuperCapacitors:- another word for Ultracapacitors - Made from carbon aerogel, carbon nanotubes, or highly porous electrode materials. Extremely high capacity. Can be used in some applications instead of rechargeable batteries.

Tantalum Capacitor:- compact, low-voltage devices up to several hundred μF , these have a lower energy density and are more accurate than aluminium electrolytics. These capacitors are comprised of a permeable tantalum centre section surrounded by tantalum pentoxide. A tantalum wire is inserted into the centre section and then extends axially from the component. There are many advantages of using tantalum capacitors over other types: They have higher volumetric efficiency (CV/cc); They have superior frequency characteristics; They are highly reliable and do not degrade over time. Tantalum capacitors do not lose capacitance like electrolytic capacitors. Unlimited shelf life.

Temperature Coefficient, TC:-The change in capacitance with temperature expressed linearly as parts per million per degree centigrade ($\text{ppm}/^\circ\text{C}$), or as a percent change over a specified temperature range. Most film capacitors are not linear and TC is expressed in percent. The change in capacitance with temperature expressed linearly as parts per million per degree centigrade ($\text{ppm}/^\circ\text{C}$), or as a percent change over a specified temperature range. Most film capacitors are not linear and TC is expressed in percent.

Thermal Conductivity:- Ability of a material to conduct heat.

Transients:- High voltage surges through an electrical system caused by lightning strikes to nearby transformers, overhead lines, or the ground. May also be caused by switching of motors and compressors, as well as by short circuits or utility system switching.

Voltage Sag:- Drop in voltage levels of electrical distribution system which interferes with the operation of electrical and electronic equipment. Commonly called brownout. Results when demand for electricity exceeds capacity of the distribution system.

Volumetric efficiency:- Energy density in μF -volts per cubic centimetre, from: (capacitance) X (working voltage) + (volume). Longer capacitors are more efficient than shorter units, because of volume used by encapsulation and unused dielectric at the capacitor ends (the margins). Cylindrical units have a smaller volume than rectangular units, although rectangular units can be stacked more compactly.

Working voltage, WV_{dc} , WV_{ac} :- The maximum continuous voltage that should be applied to a capacitor. Rated voltages for dc and ac operation are usually not the same. The maximum dc voltage applied to a capacitor for continuous operation at maximum rated temperature.

X Capacitor:- RFI Capacitor used in positions where if failed would not be hazardous to anyone who touches the case of the equipment. The X capacitors are connected across the line conductors. There are three sub-classes of X capacitors: X1, X2 and X3. The most common is X2 sub-class, used for IEC-664 Installation Category II. The X2 capacitors are rated for peak pulse voltage in service of less or equal to 2.5kV.

Y Capacitor:- RFI Capacitor used in positions where if failed could be hazardous to somebody who touches the case of the equipment. The Y capacitors are connected between power lines and chassis/earth. There are four sub-classes of Y capacitors: Y1, Y2, Y3 and Y4. The most common is Y2 sub-class, used across a Basic or Supplementary insulation. The Y2 capacitors are rated for nominal working voltages less or equal to 250Vac and for peak impulse voltage before endurance test of less or equal to 5kV. Because Safety Standards stipulate maximum current towards earth for different applications, the capacitance of Y capacitors must be limited to a certain value depending on the type of equipment in which the capacitor is used.

Glossary of Resistor Terminology [Chapter 30]

Bulk Resistor:- A resistor made by providing ohmic contacts between two points of a homogenous, uniformly doped material.

Chip Resistor:- A small rectangular resistor chip used in hybrid integrated circuits and available in either thick film or thin film construction.

Film Resistor:- A fixed resistor relying on film properties of resistance material rather than bulk properties.

Fixed Resistors:- Resistors that have a specified resistance value that does not change.

Flip Chip Resistor:- Non-encapsulated resistor chip on which bead-type leads terminate on one face to permit 'flip' (face down) mounting of the resistor chip by contact of the leads with interconnective circuitry.

Hot-Spot Temperature:- The maximum temperature measured on the resistor due to both internal heating and the ambient operating temperature.

Insulation Resistance:- The dc resistance measured between all terminals connected together and the case, exterior insulation, or external hardware.

Linearity:- The relationship of actual electrical output to the theoretical output when the theoretical output is a straight-line function.

Maximum Working Voltage:- The maximum specified voltage that may be applied across a resistor.

Metallization:- A film pattern (single or multilayer) of conductive material deposited on a substrate to interconnect electronic components, or the metal film on the bonding area of a substrate which becomes a part of the bond and performs both an electrical and a mechanical function.

Ohm's Law:- The formula used to determine the three basic building blocks of a circuit: volts (V), current in amps (I), resistance in ohms (R); $V = I \times R$.

PPM:- Parts per million. The terminology used when describing the temperature coefficient.

Passive Components:- Components such as capacitors and resistors, which have no gain characteristics.

Power Rating:- The maximum specified power that can be dissipated in a resistor under specified conditions of mounting and environment. The maximum heat a trimmer can dissipate across the resistive element under specified conditions. Specified in units of watts, W, or milliwatts (thousandths of a watt).

Resistance (unit Ohm, Ω):- A specific property of a material depends on its molecular structure, size and temperature and in a circuit, acts to oppose an applied voltage and limit the current flowing into the circuit. Resistance is measured in ohms.

Resistor Element:- A continuous, unbroken length of resistive material without joints, bonds or welds except at the junction of the element and the electrical terminals connected to each end of the element, or at an intermediate point.

Resistor Tolerance:- The permissible deviation of the manufactured resistance value (expressed in percent) from the specified nominal resistance value at standard (or stated) environmental conditions.

SMT/SMD:- Surface-mount technology/surface-mount device.

Stability:- The overall ability of a resistor to maintain its initial resistance value over extended periods of time, when subjected to any combination of environmental conditions and electrical stresses.

Standard Resistance Value:- The resistance value tabulated by a decade chart is specified in the applicable military specification. Resistance values not listed in the chart for the appropriate tolerances are considered as non-standard for that specification.

Temperature Coefficient of Resistance, TCR:- The magnitude of change in resistance due to temperature; usually expressed in percent per degree Celsius or parts per million degree Celsius (ppm/ $^{\circ}$ C).

Tolerance:- Usually applies to the extent from which the actual resistance reading may vary from the rated resistance value when it is actually tested.

Tracking:- The inherent capability of resistors from the same formulation and screened onto the same substrate to exhibit similar performance characteristics (e.g., drift, TCR).

Wirewound Resistor:- A resistor in which the resistance element is a length of high-resistivity wire or ribbon, wound onto an insulating core, then encapsulated in a vitreous enamel, silicone or cement compound.

Zero Ohm Resistors:- Products that look like resistors, but actually have no resistance and instead perform as jumpers.

Glossary of Magnetic terminology [Chapters 31, 32]

Absolute Permeability:- The permeability of a magnetic material expressed in actual physical units, not relative to permeability of free space. The permeability of magnetic materials is rarely expressed in terms of absolute permeability. The usual mode is in terms of relative permeability.

Ageing:- Change in magnetic properties, especially B_r , with time.

Air gap:- A low permeability gap in the flux path of a magnetic circuit. A non-magnetic discontinuity in a ferro-magnetic circuit. Often air, but inclusive of other materials such as paint, aluminium, etc.

Air gap volume V_g :- The useful volume of air or nonmagnetic material between magnetic poles; measured in cubic centimetres.

Amorphous:- Refers to magnetic materials that are metallurgically non-crystalline in nature.

Anisotropic magnet:- A magnet having a preferred direction of magnetic orientation, so that the magnetic characteristics are optimum in one preferred direction.
In manufacturing process, the molecules of magnetic material are aligned by an external magnetic field, a process is also called anisotropy or orientation, to obtain a higher magnetic value in the direction of anisotropic axis. An AlNiCo magnet is oriented in the heat treatment process, all other magnets get anisotropy in the moulding process. Magnetizing direction on an anisotropic magnet can only be along the anisotropic axis. An anisotropic magnet will create a stronger flux and remanence than an isotropic magnet.

Anisotropy:- Having different properties depending on the inspected direction. Magnets which are anisotropic, or have an easy axis of magnetization, have their anisotropy developed by two methods: Shape and Magnetocrystalline.
Material that have a preferred magnetization direction. These materials are typically manufactured in the influence of strong magnetic fields, and can only be magnetized through the preferred axis.

Anneal:- A high-temperature conditioning of magnetic material to relieve the stresses introduced when the material was formed. To prevent oxidation, the anneal is usually performed in a vacuum or inert-gas atmosphere.

Antiferromagnetic:- Materials in which the internal magnetic moments line up antiparallel, resulting in permeabilities slightly greater than unity; unlike paramagnetic substances, these materials exhibit hysteresis and have a Curie Temperature. Examples include manganese oxide, nickel oxide and ferrous sulphide.

Area of the air gap, A_g :- or the cross sectional area of the air gap perpendicular to the flux path, is the average cross sectional area of that portion of the air gap within which the application interaction occurs. Area is measured in sq. cm. in a plane normal to the central flux line of the air gap.

Area of the magnet, A_m :- The cross sectional area of the magnet perpendicular to the central flux line, measured in sq. cm. at any point along its length. In design, A_m is usually considered the area at the neutral section of the magnet.

Barkhausen Effect:- The series of irregular changes in magnetization that occur when a magnetic material is subjected to a change in magnetizing force.

Bonded Magnets:- Consisting of powdered permanent magnet material, usually isotropic ceramic ferrite or neodymium iron-boron, and a polymer binder, typically rubber or epoxy. This magnet material can be moulded into complex shapes.

$B_d / \mu_0 H_d$:- Slope of the operating line, is the ratio of the remnant induction, B_d , to a demagnetizing force, H_d . It is also referred to as the permeance coefficient, shear line, load line and unit permeance.

$B_d H_d$:- Energy product, indicates the energy that a magnetic material can supply to an external magnetic circuit when operating at any point on its demagnetization curve; measured in kiloJoules per cubic metre (kJ/m^3).

BH_{max} Maximum energy product:- The maximum product of $B_d H_d$ which can be obtained on the demagnetization (normal) curve, that is, in the second (fourth) quadrant of the hysteresis loop.

BH Curve:- See Demagnetization Curve.

BH Loop:- A hysteresis loop across four quadrants.

B_g , Magnetic induction in the air gap:- The average value of magnetic induction over the area of the air gap, A_g . Also defined as the magnetic induction measured at a specific point within the air gap; measured Tesla.

B_i (or J), Intrinsic induction:- The contribution of the magnetic material to the total magnetic induction, B . It is the vector difference between magnetic induction in the material and magnetic induction that would exist in a vacuum under the same field, H .

B_m :- Maximum induction.

B_r , Residual induction:- The magnetic induction which corresponds to zero applied field (magnetizing force) in a magnetic material after saturation in a closed circuit; measured in Tesla.

Carbonyl Iron:- A relatively expensive iron powder used in low-permeability, high frequency powdered iron cores.

Ceramic Ferrite:- A relatively inexpensive permanent magnet material with moderate coercivity and low energy product that is composed of strontium or barium oxide and iron oxide.

Closed Circuit:- This exists when the flux path external to a permanent magnet is confined within high permeability materials that compose the magnet circuit.

Closed circuit condition:- A condition that exists when the external flux path of a permanent magnet is confined with high permeability material.

Closed Magnetic Path Cores:- Also known as *shielded cores*, these core geometries are designed to contain all of the magnetic flux generated from an excited winding within the core. Theoretically, leakage flux outside the structure is zero. The most commonly used closed magnetic path geometries are E- cores, toroidal cores, and pot cores.

Coercive Force, H_c :- The demagnetizing force, measured in At/m, necessary to reduce observed induction, B , to zero after the magnet has previously been brought to saturation. It is expressed in At/m.

Coercive force, H_k :- The value of H_{ci} at $0.9B_r$. This value gives an indication of the squareness of the intrinsic curve. The more square the intrinsic curve, the closer the material is to being ideal. H_k values that approach the H_{ci} values are considered extremely good materials.

Coercive force of a material, H_{ci} :- Equal to the demagnetizing force required to reduce residual induction, B_r , to zero in a magnetic field after magnetizing to saturation; measured in At/m. The material characteristic of coercivity is taken as the maximum coercivity - that value of H required to reduce the residual induction to zero after the material has been saturated (fully magnetized).

Coercivity, H_{ci} or iH_c :- The resistance of a magnetic material to demagnetization. It is equal to the value of H where the intrinsic curve intersects the H axis in the second quadrant of the hysteresis loop. It is expressed in At/m.

Common Mode Filter:- EMI filter, which is wound with both conductors of the power source in such a way that noise not common to both conductors is filtered. The desired signal passes through the common mode filter unimpeded.

Control Winding:- The winding on a mag amp or a saturable reactor used to control the amount of magnetic energy the core will absorb before saturating.

Core Loss:- Power lost in a magnetic material when flux density changes. Also called iron losses or excitation losses, mainly consisting of hysteresis and eddy current losses. This loss is proportional to excitation frequency and flux density swing. In bipolar excitation applications, the core loss is proportional to the peak-to-peak flux density. In unipolar excitation applications, the core loss is proportional to the peak flux density.

Core Saturation:- The ability for an inductive element to store energy is limited. Beyond this limit, the permeability of the core drops which causes a drop in inductance. It is standard to identify core saturation when the inductance has dropped 10% from its zero bias inductance level.

Copper Loss:- Magnetics dissipate power and this power loss is due to both copper and core losses. Copper loss is a term that describes both the ac and dc losses in a magnetic winding and is solely due to the resistive properties of the winding. Refer to the winding table in the reference section for specific ohmic values of different wire gauges.

Curie Temperature, T_c :- The transition temperature above which the alloy loses its magnetic properties. It is not the maximum serviceable temperature, which is usually much lower. The temperature at which the parallel alignment of elementary magnetic moments completely disappears, and the material is no longer able to hold magnetization. The ferromagnetic material becomes paramagnetic (weakly magnetic).

Current Density:- The amps per unit of cross-section in the conductor.

DC Bias:- Direct Current (dc) applied to the winding of a core in addition to any time-varying current. Inductance with dc bias is a common specification for powder cores. The inductance decreases or rolls-off gradually and predictably with increasing dc bias.

DC Stress:- Annealing a magnetic material in the presence of a dc magnetic field to enhance magnetic properties.

Demagnetization curve:- The second (or fourth) quadrant of a major hysteresis loop generally describing the behaviour of magnetic characteristics in actual use. Also known as the B - H Curve. That portion of the hysteresis loop which lies between the residual induction point, B_r , and the coercive force point, H_c (normal curve) or H_{ci} (intrinsic curve). Points on this curve are designated by the coordinates B_d and H_d .

Demagnetized:- A material condition where a ringing ac field has reduced the remanent induction to or near zero. A ringing ac field is a continually decreasing sinusoidal field. A pulsed dc field can be used to achieve gross demagnetization, but with much effort and with residual local magnetization.

Dimension ratio $h:D$:- Dimension ratio is the ratio of a magnet's length to its diameter, or the diameter of a disk of equivalent cross sectional area. For simple geometries, such as bars and rods, the dimension ratio is related to the slope of the magnet's operating line. If the magnet is thin but long or has a large outside diameter and is in a closed magnetic circuit, then magnet losses attraction force faster when the temperature is increased.

Diamagnetic Material:- A material with magnetization directed opposite to the magnetizing field, so that the relative permeability is less than one; metallic bismuth is an example.

Dipole (Magnetic):- An arrangement of one or more magnets to form a magnet system that produces a magnetic field with one pair of opposite poles.

Direction of magnetization:- Refers to the 'easy axis' or the axis of choice for the direction of alignment. Most rings are aligned axially so the direction of magnetization is through the axis (or thickness). Other possibilities for rings would include 'across the diameter' and 'radial'.

Distributed Air Gap:- Major feature of powder cores. It is the cumulative effect of many small gaps distributed evenly throughout the core. In a typical MPP core, the number of separate air gaps

results from the use of powder to construct the core and numbers in the millions. The result is minimal fringing flux density compared to a core with one or two air gaps in the magnetic path. (Flux that passes around a discrete air gap and through the sides of a core is fringing. Fringing flux enters the surrounding winding and causes a substantial amount of eddy current loss.)

Domains:- Areas in a magnetic alloy which have the same orientation. The magnetic domains are regions where the atomic moments of atoms cooperate and allow for a common magnetic moment. It is the domains which are rotated and manipulated by an external magnetizing field to create a useful magnet which has a net magnetic moment. In unmagnetized material the domains are un-oriented and cancel each other out. In this condition there is no net external field.

Eddy currents:- Circulating electrical currents that are induced in electrically conductive elements when exposed to changing magnetic fields, creating an opposing force to the magnetic flux. Eddy currents can be harnessed to perform useful work (such as dampening of movement), or may be unwanted consequences of certain designs, which should be accounted for or minimized.

Eddy Current Loss:- Electric fields in close proximity to magnetic flux lines cause currents to flow both in magnetic cores, which are electrically conductive, and in windings. Core loss associated with the electrical resistivity of the magnetic material and induced voltages within the material. Eddy currents are inversely proportional to material resistivity and proportional to rate of change of flux density. Eddy current and hysteresis losses are the two major core loss factors. Eddy current loss becomes dominant in powder cores as the frequency increases.

Electrical Resistivity:- The electrical resistance to current flow in ohms per unit length of the material being evaluated.

Electromagnet:- A magnet, consisting of solenoid with a permeable material such as iron core, which has a magnetic field existing only during the time of current flow through the coil.

Energy Product:- Indicates the energy that a magnetic material can supply to an external magnetic circuit when operating at any point on its demagnetization curve. Calculated as $B_d \times H_d$, and measured in kilojoules per cubic metre (kJ/m^3).

Epoxy Impregnated:- Cut cores are impregnated with an epoxy to make the core rigid. No insulative purpose is intended.

Epstein Test:- A standardized method of evaluating unprocessed thin-gauge alloy for core loss and permeability.

Excitation Current:- The current which produces magnetic energy (or flux) in an inductor.

Faraday's Law:- The law that defines the relationship of the voltage induced across the winding of a core to the flux density within the core.

Ferrimagnetic Material:- An antiparallel alignment of adjacent atomic moments is present as in antiferromagnetic materials, but the moments are not equal. The response to an external magnetic field is therefore large, although smaller than that for a ferromagnetic material. Ferrites are the most important example of this class of material.

Ferrites:- A soft ferrite material that has lower permeability with very low eddy current loss. The common ferrites are nickel-zinc, manganese-zinc and magnesium-zinc ferrite.

Ferromagnetic material:- A material whose permeability is very much larger than 1 (from 60 to several thousands times 1), and which exhibits hysteresis phenomena. A material in which internal magnetic moments spontaneously line up parallel to each other to form domains, resulting in relative permeabilities considerably higher than unity (in practice, 1.1 or more); examples include iron, nickel and cobalt.

Ferromagnetism:- Ferromagnetic materials have atomic fields that align themselves parallel to externally applied fields creating a total magnetic field much greater than the applied field. Ferromagnetic materials have permeabilities much greater than 1. Above the Curie temperature, the ferromagnetic materials become paramagnetic.

Flux:- The condition existing in a medium subjected to a magnetizing force. This quantity is characterized by the fact that an electromotive force is induced in a conductor surrounding the flux at any time the flux changes in magnitude. The MKS unit of flux is the Weber.

Flux Density:- *Magnetic, B* - The conceptual fundamental magnetic force field. Flux means to flow (around a current carrying conductor, for example) and 'density' refers to its use with an enclosed area and Faraday's Law to determine induced voltage. Also called the 'induction field'. From Faraday's Law, the MKSA unit of flux density is a volt-second per square metre per turn or Tesla.

Flux loss:- Refers to the change (loss) in magnetic strength of a magnet, which occurs as a result of temperature stabilization. Also known as *irreversible loss*. Once it occurs, the only way to regain the flux loss is to re-magnetize the magnet. Under normal circumstances, flux loss is limited to a few percent.

Flux meter:- An instrument that measures the change of flux linkage with a search coil or Helmholtz coil. A flux meter is basically a voltage integrator, which is an integrating device totalizing the voltage output with respect to time.

Fringing fields:- Leakage flux particularly associated with edge effects in a magnetic circuit. The field(s) associated with the divergence of the flux from the shortest path between poles in a magnetic circuit. Where flux passes from a high permeability into a lower permeability material, the flux redistributes.

Gauss:- Lines of magnetic flux per square centimetre, cgs unit of flux density, equivalent to lines per square inch in the English system, and Webers per square metre or Tesla in the SI system. One Tesla is equal to one Weber per square centimetre (metre).

Gauss meter:- An instrument that measures the instantaneous value of magnetic induction, B . Its principle of operation is usually based on one of the following: the Hall effect, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), or the rotating coil principle.

Gilbert:- The unit of magneto motive force, F , in the cgs electromagnetic system. MKS equivalent is ampturns, At

Grain Oriented:- Silicon steel or other granular magnetic material that has a preferred direction of magnetization.

Hall Effect Transducer:- A device which produces a voltage output dependent upon an applied dc voltage and an incident magnetic field. The magnitude of the output is a function of the field strength and the angle of incidence with the Hall device.

Hard Ferrite:- Same as ceramic ferrite.

Hard Magnetic Material:- A permanent magnet material that has an intrinsic coercivity greater than or equal to about 24 kA/m. A ferromagnetic material that retains its magnetization when the magnetizing field is removed; a magnetic material with significant coercivity.

H_c , **Coercive Force, or Coercivity:-** Is equal to the demagnetizing field required to reduce the B field in the magnet to zero after the magnet has been fully saturated; measured A/m.

H_{ch} , **Intrinsic Coercive Force, or Intrinsic Coercivity:-** That value of H corresponding to the remnant induction, B_r ; on the demagnetization curve, measured in At/m. Represents the ability of the magnetic materials to resist demagnetization. It is equal to the demagnetizing field that reduces the B field in the magnet to zero (from saturation).

H_d , B_d :- Operating point on demagnetisation curve.

Henry:- A unit of inductance.

H_{mv} , H_{mi} :- That value of H corresponding to the recoil induction, B_{mi} ; measured in At/m. Common symbol for maximum applied magnetizing force.

H_c :- The magnetic field strength at the point of the maximum energy product BH_{max} ; measured in At/m.

H_s :- Net effective magnetizing force, is the minimum magnetizing force required in the material, to magnetize to saturation measured in At/m.

Hysteresis and Hysteresis Loss:- Hysteresis is the tendency of a magnetic material to retain its magnetization. Hysteresis causes the graph of magnetic flux density versus magnetizing force to form a loop rather than a line. The area of the loop represents the difference between energy stored and energy released per unit volume of material per cycle. This difference is called hysteresis loss. It is one of two major loss mechanisms in inductor cores; the other is eddy current loss. Hysteresis loss is measured at low frequency to distinguish it from eddy current loss.

Hysteresis loop:- A closed curve obtained for a material by plotting (usually to rectangular coordinates) corresponding values of magnetic induction, B , for ordinates and magnetizing force, H , for abscissa when the material is passing through a complete cycle between definite limits of either magnetizing force, H , or magnetic induction, B . If the material is not driven to saturation, it is said to be on a minor loop.

Hysteresis Loop, Major:- Of a material is the closed loop obtained when the material is cycled between positive and negative saturation.

Hysteresis, Magnetic:- The property of a magnetic material by virtue of which the magnetic induction for a given magnetizing force depends upon the previous conditions of magnetization.

Induction, B:- The magnetic flux per unit area of a section normal to the direction of flux. Unit - Tesla.

Induced Flux Density:- The flux density generated in a core (or soft magnetic material) by the applied MMF.

Inductance:- Inductance is the ratio of voltage to time rate of change of current. By definition, it has dimensions of volt-seconds per ampere. A volt-second per ampere is called a Henry.

Inductance Factor A_L :- Core constant used to calculate inductance based on the number of winding turns squared. Value is given in millihenries per 1000 turns squared, which is the same as nanohenries per turn squared.
 $L = A_L N^2$ nanohenries

Induction, B:- Magnetic induction, B , is the magnetic field induced by an applied field, H . It is measured as the flux per unit area normal to the direction of the magnetic path.

Induction Curve, Normal:- A graph depicting the relation between normal induction B and magnetizing force H , where B corresponds to the sum of the externally applied field, H , and the magnetic flux from the magnetic material, B_i .

Inductor:- A coil that has significant self inductance, typically many turns of wire and with a permeable core. It is a device that stores and releases electromagnetic energy.

Initial Permeability:- The relative permeability of a magnetic material at a very low flux level.

Insulator, Insulation:- Opposite of conductor, that is, does not conduct an electrical current. In soft magnetic cores, refers to electrical insulation between adjacent laminations, layers of thin gauge tape, or powder particles. Also associated with some of the finishes, which have dielectric capacity, applied to cores.

Intrinsic Coercive Force, H_{ci} , iH_c :- Measured in At/m, this is a measure of the materials inherent ability to resist demagnetization. It is the demagnetization force corresponding to zero intrinsic induction in the magnetic material after saturation. Practical consequences of high H_{ci} values are seen in greater temperature stability for a given class of material, and greater stability in dynamic operating conditions.

Intrinsic coercive force of a material, H_{ci} :- Indicates its resistance to demagnetization. It is equal to the demagnetizing force which reduces the intrinsic induction, B_i , in the material to zero after magnetizing to saturation; measured in At/m. This quantity is used to gage the field required to magnetize a material and its ability to resist demagnetization.

Intrinsic Coercivity:- Same as H_{ci} . Indicates a material's resistance to demagnetization. It is equal to the demagnetizing force which reduces the intrinsic induction, B_i , in the material to zero; measured in At/m. As for coercivity, the maximum value of intrinsic coercivity is obtained after the material has been saturated (fully magnetized).

Intrinsic Demagnetization Curve:- The hysteresis loop corresponding to B versus H where B is the magnetization resulting from only the magnetic material. For the Normal Curve, B corresponds to the sum of the externally applied field and the field of the magnetic material. The second quadrant portion of the hysteresis loop generated when intrinsic induction B_i is plotted against applied field H , which is mathematically related to the normal curve; most often used to determine the effects of demagnetizing (or magnetizing) fields. Also known as the *intrinsic B versus H curve*.

Intrinsic induction, B_i (or J):- The contribution of the magnetic material to the total magnetic induction, B . It is the vector difference between the magnetic induction in the material and the magnetic induction that would exist in a vacuum under the same field strength, H . This relation is expressed by the equation: $B_i = B - H_{em}$ where: B_i = intrinsic induction in Tesla; B = magnetic induction in Tesla; H_{em} = field strength in kA/m.

Irreversible (flux) loss:- Defined as partial demagnetization of the magnet, caused by exposure to high or low temperatures external fields or other factors, such as mechanical shock. Irreversible loss is not definite and is influenced by magnet material, geometric dimension, operating point and its working magnetic circuit. These losses are recoverable by remagnetisation. Magnets can be stabilized against irreversible losses by partial demagnetization induced by temperature cycles or by external magnetic fields. Stabilization results in the loss prior to placing the magnet in the application and the application is designed around the output of the stabilized magnet. Irreversible losses are not recoverable by re-magnetization if due to metallurgical changes if the magnet is exposed to very high temperatures.

Isotropic:- A magnetic material that has the same magnetic properties in all directions. Such a material may be magnetized in any direction since it does not have a preferred alignment direction. Also known as *unoriented material*. Most magnetic materials are anisotropic as cast or powdered: each crystallite has a preferred direction of magnetic orientation. If the particles are not physically oriented during manufacture of the magnet, this results in a random arrangement of the particles and magnetic domains and produces isotropic magnet properties. Conversely, orienting the material during processing results in an anisotropic magnet.

Isotropic Magnet:- A magnet material whose magnetic properties are the same in any direction, and which can therefore be magnetized in any direction without loss of magnetic characteristics.

J:- see B_i *Intrinsic induction*.

J_s :- see B_{is} , *Saturation intrinsic induction*.

Keeper:- A piece (or pieces) of soft iron that is placed on or between the pole faces of a permanent magnet to decrease the reluctance of the air gap and thereby reduce the flux leakage from the magnet. It also makes the magnet less susceptible to demagnetizing influences. A keeper is a high permeability material, typically mild steel, which is installed on a magnet or magnetic assembly to reduce the reluctance of the magnetic circuit. This reduces the overall leakage fields generated by the magnet or magnetic assembly. Keepers are typically installed to help the magnet or magnetic assembly resist demagnetization during handling, transportation, or storage. Keepers are typically found on Alnico magnets and Alnico magnetic assemblies.

Knee (of the demagnetization curve):- The point at which the $B-H$ curve ceases to be linear. All magnet materials, even if their second quadrant curves are straight line at room temperature, develop a knee at some temperature. Alnico 5 exhibits a knee at room temperature. If the operating point of a magnet falls below the knee, small changes in H produce large changes in B , and the magnet will not be able to recover its original flux output without re-magnetization.

Leakage factor, k_f :- Accounts for flux leakage from the magnetic circuit. It is the ratio between the magnetic flux at the magnet neutral section and the average flux present in the air gap. $k_f = (B_m A_m)/(B_g A_g)$

Leakage flux:- The flux, ϕ , whose path is outside the useful or intended magnetic circuit; measured in Weber. That portion of the magnetic flux that is lost through leakage in the magnetic circuit due to saturation or air-gaps, and is therefore unable to be used.

Leakage Inductance:- The inductance associated with the leakage flux of a core coil.

Legg's Equation:- An expression for total core loss at low flux densities. The sum of hysteresis loss, residual loss and eddy current loss. The equation is:

$$R_{ac} / \mu L = a B_{max} f + cf + e f^2$$

where

R_{ac} = effective resistance due to core losses

μ = permeability of the core

L = inductance in henries

a = hysteresis loss coefficient

B_{max} = maximum flux density in Tesla

f = frequency

c = residual loss coefficient

e = eddy current loss coefficient

Length of the air gap, l_g :- The length of the path of the central flux line of the air gap; measured in centimetres. It is important to distinguish between the magnetic length of the gap and the physical length; for magnetic circuit calculations, any nonmagnetic material in the flux path is equivalent to air and contributes to the (magnetic) gap.

Length of the magnet, l_m :-The total length of magnet material traversed in one complete revolution of the centreline of the magnetic circuit; measured in centimetres. The distance between the magnetic poles. (Measured in centimetres when using the cgs system for calculations).

Litz Wire:- A special type of wire that consists of many strands (sometimes hundreds) of magnet wire woven together to form a single conductor. This type of wire offers advantages over single strand at high frequency.

L_m/D Dimension ratio:- The ratio of the length of a magnet to its diameter, or the diameter of a circle of equivalent cross-sectional area. For simple geometries, such as bars and rods, the dimension ratio is related to the slope of the operating line of the magnet, B_g/H_g .

Load line:- Graphically, a line drawn from the origin of the demagnetization curve with a slope of B/H , the intersection of which with the second quadrant $B-H$ curve represents the operating (working) point, H_g , B_g , of the magnet. Graphic representation of permeance. See *permeance coefficient*.

Mag amp (Magnetic Amplifier):- A device that utilizes a square loop core material to provide a series impedance. The impedance is switched off at a predetermined time during a voltage pulse.

Magnet:- Any object that can sustain an external magnetic field.

Magnetic Bias:- A constant magnetic field on which is superimposed a variable, often sinusoidal, perturbation magnetic field in devices like magnetic bearings (Tesla, T).

Magnet Wire:- Copper or aluminium wire with electrical insulating material applied to the surface to prevent continuity between adjacent turns in a winding.

Magnetic Assemblies:- A combination of materials, magnetic and non-magnetic, which form a particular solution. Incorporates a permanent magnet as the flux generator and usually relies on mild steel to conduct the flux to the workface. Allows for better means of mounting-tapped holes, threads, press fits, etc.

Magnetic circuit:- An assembly consisting of some or all of the following: permanent magnets, ferromagnetic conduction elements, air gaps through or around which the magnetic flux path passes.

Magnetic Energy:- The product of the flux density B in a magnetic circuit and the (de)magnetizing force H required to reach that flux density. See *Energy Product*.

Magnetic field strength, H :- (magnetizing or demagnetizing force), The measure of the vector magnetic quantity that determines the ability of an electric current, or a magnetic body, to induce a magnetic field at a given point; measured in At/m.

Magnetic Flux, ϕ :- A contrived but measurable concept that has evolved in an attempt to describe the flow of a magnetic field. The total magnetic induction over a given area. When the magnetic induction, B , is uniformly distributed over an area A , Magnetic Flux = BA . Is a contrived but measurable concept that has evolved in an attempt to describe the flow of a magnetic field. Mathematically, it is the surface integral of the normal component of the magnetic induction, B , over an area, A .

$$\phi = \iint B \cdot dA$$

where:

ϕ = magnetic flux, in Weber

B = magnetic induction, in Tesla

dA = an element of area, in square centimetres

When the magnetic induction, B , is uniformly distributed and is normal to the area, A , the flux, $\phi = BA$.

Magnetic Flux Density, B : A vector quantifying a magnetic field, so that a particle carrying unit charge experiences unit force when travelling with unit velocity in a direction perpendicular to the magnetic field characterized by unit magnetic flux density (Tesla, T).

Magnetizing Force:- The driving force that pushes flux around a magnetic circuit and is given the symbol H . This force is sometimes referred to as mmf, or magneto motive force.

Magnetic induction, B_g :- Magnetic induction at the point of the maximum energy product BH_{max} ; measured in Tesla.

Magnetic Induction in the Air Gap, B_g :- The average value of magnetic induction over the area of the air gap, A_g ; or it is the magnetic induction measured at a specific point within the air gap; (Tesla, T).

Magnetic induction, B :- The magnetic field induced by a field strength, H , at a given point. It is the vector sum, at each point within the substance, of the magnetic field strength and resultant intrinsic induction. Magnetic induction is the flux per unit area normal to the direction of the magnetic path. The flux density within a magnetic material when driven by an external applied field or by its self demagnetizing field, which is the vector sum of the applied field and the intrinsic induction (Tesla, T).

Magnetic Length:- The effective distance between the north and south poles within a magnet, which varies from 0.7 (Alnico) to 1.0 (NdFeB, SmCo, hard ferrite) times the physical length of the magnet.

Magnetic (path) Length:- The physical length of the magnet dimension which corresponds to the direction the magnet is magnetized. This may or may not be the magnet's orientation direction. The length of the closed path that magnetic flux follows around a magnetic circuit. Ampere's Law determines it.

Magnetic Line of Force:- An imaginary line representing a magnetic field, which at every point has the direction of the magnetic flux at that point. Flux is a vector quantity having both magnitude and direction.

Magnetic Losses:- The loss of flux in a magnetic circuit, primarily due to leakage and fringing.

Magnetic Orientation:- The preferred direction of magnetization for an anisotropic magnetic material.

Magnetic saturation:- Of a material exists when an increase in magnetizing force, H , does not cause an increase in the intrinsic magnetic induction, B , of the material.

Magnetic Stabilization:- The act of purposely demagnetizing a magnet with reverse fields or a change in temperature so that no irreversible losses are experienced when the magnet operates under similar conditions in the field.

Magnetic Susceptibility:- The ratio of the magnetization to the applied external field; an indicator of how easily a material is magnetized.

Magnetizing field, H :- An applied magnetic field used to drive another material to a condition of being magnetized. It may be applied by current through a coil of wire or by using permanent magnets to generate the applied field.

Magnetizing Force, H :- The magnetomotive force per unit length at any point in a magnetic circuit. An applied magnetic field used to drive another material to a condition of being magnetized. It may be applied by current through a coil of wire or by using permanent magnets to generate the applied field. Measured in At/m.

Magnetomotive Force, F :- (magnetic potential difference), Analogous to voltage in electrical circuits, this is the magnetic potential difference between any two points. Most commonly produced by a current flowing through a coil of wire where its magnitude is proportional to the current, and to the number of turns.

$$F = NI$$

where I is in amperes and N is the number of turns

The line integral of the field strength, H , between any two points, p_1 and p_2 .

$$F = \int_{p_1}^{p_2} H \, dl$$

F = magneto motive force in At

H = field strength in At/m

dl = an element of length between the two points, in centimetres.

The rationalized unit is the ampere-turn (ni).

Magnetomotive force may also result from a magnetized body.

Magnetostriction:- The expansion and contraction of a magnetic material with changing magnetic flux density. The saturation magnetostriction coefficient has the symbol λ . It is change of length divided by original length (a dimensionless number) and is measured at the saturation flux density. Magnetostriction causes audible noise if the magnetostriction is sufficiently large and the applied field is ac and in the audible frequency range, e.g., 50 or 60 Hz.

Major hysteresis loop:- Material closed loop obtained when the material is cycled between positive and negative saturation. For a magnetic material, the loop generated as intrinsic or magnetic induction (B , or B) is plotted with respect to applied field H when the material is driven from positive saturation to negative saturation and back, showing the lag of induction with respect to applied field.

Manganese-Zinc Ferrites:- A soft magnetic material used in powder cores and characterized by very low eddy current loss. Used for transformer and inductor cores. Compared to nickel-zinc ferrites, they have higher saturation flux density but with greater loss with high frequency current.

Maximum Energy Product, BH_{max} :- The point on the Demagnetization Curve where the product of B and H is a maximum and the required volume of magnet material required to project a given energy into its surroundings is a minimum. Measured in kiloJoules per cubic metre (kJ/m^3).

Maximum Operating Temperature, T_{max} :- The maximum operating temperature, also known as *maximum service* or *working temperature*, is the temperature at which the magnet may be exposed to continuously with no significant long-term instability or structural changes. A proposed magnetic definition is that the hysteresis normal curve is substantially a straight line in the second quadrant up to the T_{max} temperature and becomes curved above T_{max} . Note that this temperature is a function of the operating point of the magnet, and not an absolute value.

Maxwell:- The unit of magnetic flux in the cgs electromagnetic system. One Maxwell is one line of magnetic flux. MKS equivalent is Weber.

Mean Length Turn:- The average length of a single turn in the winding of the device.

Minor Hysteresis Loop:- A hysteresis loop generated within the major hysteresis loop when a magnetic material is not driven to full positive or negative saturation.

MMF:- Magneto-motive force.

MMF Drops:- The portions of a magnetic circuit that 'consume' the applied MMF. Analogous to voltage drop in an electrical circuit.

Mu-metal:- A nickel-iron alloy typically containing more than 65% nickel used for shielding magnetic flux. The name of the material refers to the Greek letter, μ (mu), which is the symbol for magnetic permeability. Mu-metal has a high value of magnetic permeability.

Multifilar Winding:- A winding technique where a single turn consists of two or more stands of magnet wire operating in parallel. This reduces some of the second order effects associated with a single strand of wire. Typical would be a bifilar, trifilar, etc.

Neodymium-Iron-Boron, NdFeB:- A high energy magnetic material composed of three nominal elements and other additives, characterized by a high residual induction and high coercivity. NdFeB has a high magnetic temperature coefficient, which is undesirable for high temperature use.

Net permeability:- The permeability of a magnetic circuit when all materials, air gaps, and applied mmf's are taken into account; it is the same as effective permeability.

Neutral section:- part of a permanent magnet defined by a plane passing through the magnet perpendicular to its central flux line at the point of maximum flux.

Nickel-Zinc Ferrites:- A soft ferrite material that has lower permeability with very low eddy current loss. The other common ferrites are manganese-zinc and magnesium-zinc.

Normal Demagnetization Curve:- The second quadrant portion of the hysteresis loop generated when magnetic induction B is plotted against applied field H , which is mathematically related to the intrinsic curve; used to determine the performance of a magnet in a magnetic circuit. Also known as the *normal B versus H curve*.

North pole:- is the pole of a magnet which, when freely suspended, would point to the north magnetic pole of the earth. The definition of polarity can be a confusing issue, and it is often the best to clarify by using 'north seeking pole' instead of 'north pole' in specifications.

Oersted:- The unit of magnetic field strength, H , in the cgs electromagnetic system. One Oersted equals a magneto motive force of one gilbert per centimetre of flux path. A cgs unit of measure used to describe magnetizing force. The SI systems is Ampere turns per metre, (At/m).

Open circuit condition:- Exists when a magnetized magnet is by itself with no external flux path of high permeability material.

Operating (load) line:- For a given permanent magnet circuit it is a straight line passing through the origin of the demagnetization curve with a slope of negative B_d / H_d . Although the slope is negative, by convention the values are usually referred to in the absolute value of the slope. (Also known as *permeance coefficient line*.)

Operating point:- That point on a demagnetization curve of a permanent magnet defined by the coordinates H_d , B_d or that point within the demagnetization curve defined by the coordinates B_m , H_m .

Orientation direction:- The direction in which an anisotropic magnet should be magnetized in order to achieve optimum magnetic properties. Also known as the *axis*, *easy axis*, or *angle of inclination*.

Oriented (anisotropic) material:- One that has better magnetic properties in a given direction. Material with a preferred direction of magnetization. This type of material should be magnetized only

through this preferred direction. Trying to magnetize through the other directions will result in substantial losses in magnetic properties, and the data provided will not be valid.

Paramagnetic material:- A material having a permeability slightly greater than 1. Sodium, Potassium, Oxygen and the rare earth elements are examples.

Permalloy:- 4-79 Molybdenum Permalloy. A high permeability alloy of 4% molybdenum, 79% nickel, 17% iron used to make tape-wound and laminated cores and other components in a magnetic circuit. See *Mu-Metal*.

Permanent Magnet Material:- Shaped piece of ferromagnetic material, which once having been magnetized, shows definite resistance to external demagnetizing forces, that is, requires a high demagnetizing force to remove the residual magnetism. Varies with temperature, flux density, and frequency of excitation.

Permeability, μ :- The general term used to express various relationships between magnetic induction, B , and the field strength, H . The ratio of flux density β to field intensity H . The ratio of the ability of a material to carry magnetic flux in comparison to air or a vacuum, the permeability of which is, by definition, one.

Permeability, Incremental:- The ratio of change in magnetic flux density to change in magnetic field (magnetizing force).

$$\mu = (1/\mu_0)\Delta B/\Delta H \text{ in MKSA units}$$

$$\mu = \Delta B/\Delta H \text{ in CGS units}$$
The magnetic field variations are small or incremental and can be in addition to a steady (dc) bias field. For magnetic powder core data, permeability is incremental permeability unless otherwise noted. Because of the distributed air gap in powder cores, the initial permeability and incremental permeability, without bias, are essentially the same.

Permeability, Initial:- The limit of incremental permeability as a changing unbiased magnetizing force approaches zero. Because of the distributed gap in powder cores, the initial permeability and incremental permeability without bias are essentially the same.

Permeability, Normal, μ :- The ratio of the normal induction to the corresponding magnetizing force. In the cgs system, the flux density in a vacuum is numerically equal to the magnetizing force and, consequently, the magnetic permeability is numerically equal to the ratio of the flux density to the magnetizing force. Thus:

$$\mu = B/H$$
In a non-isotropic (anisotropic) medium the permeability is a function of the orientation of the medium, since, in general, the magnetizing force and the magnetic flux are not parallel.

Permeability of Free Space μ_0 :- The permeability of a volume occupied by a vacuum. Sometimes called the magnetic constant. Free space permeability is an arbitrary constant used with relative permeability to define the magnetic field (magnetizing force), H , and account for the contribution of a magnetic material to total flux density. In the MKSA system, it has a magnitude of $4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ and dimensions of Henries per metre. In the CGS System, free space permeability has a magnitude of 1 and no dimensions. The MKSA free space permeability was chosen so that the practical units for electrical measurements match the ones used for relating magnetic quantities to voltage and current.

Permeability, Recoil:- The ratio of change in flux density as a function of incremental change in applied field (H) in the vicinity of $H=0$. It has no dimensions.

$$\mu_0\mu_R = B/H \text{ in MKS units.}$$

$$\mu_r = B/H \text{ in CGS units.}$$

Permeameter:- An instrument that can measure, and often record, the magnetic characteristics of a specimen.

Permeance, P :- The reciprocal of the reluctance, R , measured in weber/At. analogous to conductance in electrical circuits. Indicates the ease with which magnetic flux will follow a certain path, which can be approximated by calculations based purely on magnetic circuit geometry.

Permeance Coefficient, P_c :- Ratio of the magnetic induction, B_d , to its self demagnetizing force, H_d . $P_c = B_d / \mu_0 H_d$. This is also known as the '*load line*', '*slope of the operating line*', '*shear line*', or '*operating point of the magnet*', and is useful in estimating the flux output of the magnet in various conditions. As a first order approximation, $B_d/H_d = L_m/L_g$, where L_m is the length of the magnet, and L_g is the length of an air gap that the magnet is subjected to. P_c is therefore a function of the geometry of the magnetic circuit.

Polarity:- The characteristic of a particular pole at a particular location of a permanent magnet. Differentiates the North from the South Pole.

Poles, North and South Magnetic:- The north pole of a magnet, or compass, is attracted toward the north geographic pole of the earth (which is actually, by definition, a magnetic south pole), and the south pole of a magnet is attracted toward the south geographic pole of the earth. The north-seeking pole of a compass or of a magnet is designated by the letter ' N ', and the other pole by the letter ' S '. The N (north) pole of the magnet will attract the S (south) pole of another magnet: unlike poles attract.

Pole pieces:- Ferromagnetic materials placed on magnetic poles used to shape and alter the effect of lines of flux.

Polymer bonded magnets:- Magnet powder is mixed with a polymer such as epoxy to form a carrier matrix. The magnets are moulded by compression, extrusion, or injection into a certain shape. Solidification occurs by curing instead of sintering.

Proximity Effect:- When conductors are close together, particularly in low voltage equipment, a distortion of current density results from the interaction of the magnetic fields of other conductors.

Q:- 2π times the ratio of peak energy stored to energy dissipated during one period of current flow through an inductor. Higher Q can be achieved by lowering the energy dissipation in the core material (lowering the core loss). Eddy current core loss is largely responsible for Q dropping with increased frequency.

Quenching:- A rapid cooling process which follows sintering or solid solutioning.

Rare Earths:- A family of elements in the periodic table having an atomic number from 57 to 71, and including 21 and 39. They are also known as the *lanthanide series*, which includes lanthanum, cerium, praseodymium, neodymium, samarium, europium, gadolinium, terbium, dysprosium, holmium, erbium, thulium, ytterbium, lutetium, scandium, and yttrium.

Rare-Earth Magnet:- A magnet that has any of the rare-earth elements in its composition; typically stronger than other magnet materials, these include neodymium iron boron and samarium cobalt.

Recoil induction, B_{ri} :- The magnetic induction that remains in a magnetic material after magnetizing and conditioning for final use; measured in Tesla.

Recoil induction B_{ri} , is the magnetic induction that remains in a magnetic material after magnetizing and conditioning for final use; measured in Tesla.

Recoil permeability, μ_{ri} :- $\mu_R = \chi + 1$, or permanent permeability, is the average slope of the recoil hysteresis loop, also known as the *minor loop*. Of a permanent magnet is defined by a plane passing through the magnet perpendicular to its central flux line at the point of maximum flux.

Relative Permeability:- The ratio of permeability of a medium to that of a vacuum. In the cgs system, the permeability is equal to 1 in a vacuum by definition. The permeability of air is also for all practical purposes equal to 1 in the cgs system.

Rectangularity Ratio:- See *squareness ratio*.

Reluctance factor, f :- Accounts for the apparent magnetic circuit reluctance. This factor is required due to the treatment of H_i and H_c as constants.

Relative Permeability:- The permeability of a material compared with the permeability of free space. This is what normally is specified as material permeability.

Reluctance:- Analogous to electrical resistance, it is the quantity that determines the magnetic flux, ϕ , resulting from a given magnetomotive force, F .

$$R = F / \phi$$

where: R = reluctance, in At/Weber
 F = magnetomotive force, in At
 ϕ = flux, in webers

Remnant or residual:- The flux density that remains in a magnetic material after an applied magnetic field (magnetizing force) is removed.

Remnant induction, B_{rd} :- Any magnetic induction that remains in a magnetic material after removal of an applied saturating magnetic field, H_s . (B_{rd} is the magnetic induction at any point on the demagnetization curve: measured in Tesla.)

Remanence, B_{rd} :- The magnetic induction that remains in a magnetic circuit after the removal of an applied magnetizing force. If there is an air gap in the circuit, the remanence will be less than the residual induction, B_{ri} .

Residual Flux:- The flux that remains in a core when the applied MMF is returned to a value of zero.

Residual induction (or flux density), B_{ri} :- The magnetic induction corresponding to zero magnetizing force in a magnetic material after saturation in a closed circuit; measured in Tesla. The point at which the hysteresis loop crosses the B axis at zero magnetizing force, and represents the maximum flux output from the given magnet material. By definition, this point occurs at zero air gap, and therefore cannot be seen in practical use of magnet materials.

Return path:- Conduction elements in a magnetic circuit, which provide a low reluctance path for the magnetic flux. Soft magnetic material such as iron or various steels are used to carry or channel the magnetic flux to the gap or working region for interaction with other components. This conductor of magnetic flux is referred to as the return path. It is usually designed to minimize fringing and leakage flux.

Reversible Loss:- A decrease in magnetic induction B of a permanent magnet when subjected to thermal or magnetic demagnetization that is fully recovered (without remagnetisation) when the detrimental conditions are removed. Partial demagnetization of the magnet, caused by exposure to high or low temperatures, can be recovered when the magnet returns to its original temperature. (Tesla, T).

Reversible temperature coefficient:- A measure of the reversible changes in magnetic property, flux, caused by temperature variations. These are spontaneously regained when the temperature is returned to its original point. Magnetic saturation of a material exists when an increase in magnetizing force produces no increase in intrinsic induction. The temperature coefficient is a factor which describes the reversible change in a magnetic property with a change in temperature. The magnetic property spontaneously returns when the temperature is cycled to its original point. Most materials exhibit a non-linear response with temperature. It usually is expressed as the percentage change per unit of temperature.

Samarium Cobalt:- A brittle, high energy magnetic material that is best known for its performance at high temperatures. It comes in two compositions: SmCo_5 and a higher energy $\text{Sm}_2\text{Co}_{17}$.

Saturable Reactor:- Describes the main element of a magnetic amplifier used to control electrical power such as for electrical resistance element heating of furnaces.

Saturation - This is the flux density of maximum material magnetization. Magnetization M is the contribution of a magnetic material to the total flux density.

$$B = \mu_0 (H+M) \text{ in MKSA units.}$$

$$B = H+4\pi M \text{ in CGS units.}$$

Saturation magnetization is the maximum value of magnetization. Also, the term saturation is sometimes used as a reference to the decrease of permeability with increasing magnetizing force. In an inductor, this corresponds to a decrease of inductance with current.

Saturation:- A condition where the increase in applied external field yields no increase in induction. When this condition is met, all of the elementary magnetic moments have the same alignment. This condition is important in permanent magnet alloys and in ferromagnetic alloys. Magnet alloys must always be magnetized to saturation. The magnet may not be used at this level, but before conditioning and stabilization the magnet must always first be magnetized to saturation. Usually saturation should not be exceeded in ferromagnetic alloys which comprise the yoke or return path elements of a magnetic circuit. If ferromagnetic elements are saturated there will be flux leakage in the system and a redesign should be considered.

The condition under which all elementary magnetic moments have become oriented in one direction. A ferromagnetic material is saturated when an increase in the applied magnetizing force produces no increase in induction. Saturation flux densities for steels are in the range of 1.6 to 2 Tesla.

Saturation Flux Density, B_{sat} :- The flux density at which a material saturates.

search coil:- A coiled conductor, usually of known area and number of turns, that is used with a flux meter to measure the change of flux linkage with the coil.

Saturation intrinsic induction, B_{si} , (or J):- The maximum intrinsic induction possible in a material.

Second quadrant curve:- The second quadrant curve is the demagnetization portion of the hysteresis loop created with a permeameter. In a permeameter, magnets are magnetized to saturation in the first quadrant and then demagnetized to plot the second quadrant curve. The second quadrant curve is the intrinsic curve starting at B_r and ending at H_{ci} . From this intrinsic curve, the extrinsic (normal) curve is calculated to derive the line which extends from B_r to H_c .

Self Demagnetizing Field:- A field inside a permanent magnet that is opposed to its own magnetization, which is due to the internal coupling of its poles following the introduction of an air gap in the magnetic circuit (Tesla, T).

Sintered:- A sintered magnet is comprised of a compacted powder which is then subjected to a heat treat operation where the full density and magnetic orientation is achieved. Sintering occurs at elevated temperatures, typically between 1100 and 1200°C.

Sintered Iron:- Powdered iron that has been pressed and sintered into a structural form. This type of material occasionally is used in a magnetic application, but they normally exhibit excessive core losses.

Sintered Magnets:- Magnets that are made from powdered materials that are pressed together, and then heated in an oven to produce desired shapes and magnetic properties.

Skewing Of The Loop:- When air gap is added to the magnetic path, the hysteresis loop is made to lean over (permeability is reduced); it is said to be skewed or sheared.

Skin Effect:- An isolated conductor carrying current will generate a concentric magnetic field. With alternating currents, a magnetizing force will exist, generating eddy currents in the conductor. The direction of these eddy currents is such as to add to the current at the surface of the conductor and subtract from the current in the centre. The effect is to encourage the current to flow near the surface of the conductor. The majority of the current will flow in an equivalent surface skin thickness or penetration depth. At one skin depth in a conductor the current density will have decreased by 1/e, or 36.8%.

Soft Magnetic Material:- Shaped piece of ferromagnetic material that once having been magnetized is easily demagnetized, i.e. requires a slight coercive force to remove the resultant magnetism. A material with low coercivity and high permeability. Generally accepted as having a coercivity of less than 24 kA/m though most soft materials used in inductors have coercivity of under 0.8 kA/m.

Square Loop:- Refers to a hysteresis loop where the difference between B_m and B_r of a material is quite small, resulting in a rectangular appearance of the intrinsic curve.

Stabilization:- Exposure of a magnet to demagnetizing influences expected to be encountered in use in order to prevent irreversible losses during actual operation. Demagnetizing influences can be caused by high or low temperatures, or by external magnetic fields.

Strain Sensitive:- Refers to the fact that the properties of magnetic materials can change if the part is subjected to a physical stress.

Swinging Inductors:- A special type of inductor that exhibits high inductance at low MMF and moderate inductance at high MMF. There are two popular techniques for accomplishing this: putting a common winding on a high permeability and a low-permeability core, and putting a staggered gap into a high-permeability core.

Temperature Coefficient of B_r :- A factor, which describes the reversible change in a magnetic property with change in temperature. Expressed as percent change per unit of temperature.
The magnetic property spontaneously returns when the temperature is cycled to its original point so long as a limit condition is not exceeded. It usually is expressed as the percentage change per unit of temperature over a specified temperature range.
Above (or below) a critical temperature, dependent upon the material and its magnetic characteristics and magnetic circuit, an irreversible loss may take place which is recovered when the magnet is re-saturated.

Temperature Stabilization:- After manufacture, many types of hard and soft magnetic materials can be thermally cycled to make them less sensitive to subsequent temperature extremes.

Tesla:- MKSA (SI) unit for magnetic flux density, defined by Faraday's Law. A Tesla represents a volt-second per square metre per turn. One Tesla is equal to one Weber per square metre. One Tesla equals 10,000 Gauss

T_{max} , T_m , or Maximum service temperature:- The maximum temperature to which the magnet may be exposed with no significant long-range instability or structural changes. A proposed magnetic definition is that the normal hysteresis curve is a straight line in the second quadrant up to the T_{max} temperature; the line begins to show curvature (a 'knee') once T_{max} is exceeded.

Unoriented (isotropic) material:- Material with equal magnetic properties in all directions.

Volume Resistivity:- Volume resistivity is a measure of a magnetic cores ability to impede the flow of current through the material or on its surface. When a core comes in contact with one or more of its terminals, a low core volume resistivity can present some problems. Typically, the higher the cores permeability, the lower the cores volume resistivity.

Weber:- The practical unit of magnetic flux. It is the amount of magnetic flux which, when linked at a uniform rate with a single-turn electric current during an interval of 1 second, will induce in this circuit an electromotive of force of 1 volt. 1 Weber = 10^8 Maxwells.

Glossary of Relay terminology [Chapter 33]

AC-coil:- Relays for direct energization with ac supply, V_{rms} for 50 Hz supply.

Actuation Time:- The time from initial energization to the first closing of open contact or opening of a closed contact, not including any bounce.

Arc:- An electric discharge between mating relay contacts when an energized circuit is interrupted. Plasma current flow between opening relay contacts. An arc is enabled by the electric power of the load circuit (turn off spark) ionizing the gas between the contacts. The stability of the arc depends on various parameters such as contact material, air pressure, contact gap, etc. An arc locally produces high temperature causing contact erosion. In cases of strong erosion, spark suppression becomes necessary.

Arc suppression:- An arc will form as contacts come together and currents flow, and when they break apart. With ac current the condition is seldom a problem in relays, but with high dc loads the arc can be substantial causing contact damage. Arc suppression can be achieved using a blow out magnet.

Armature:- The moving magnetic member of an electromagnetic relay structure.

Bias Magnet:- A steady magnetic field (permanent magnet) applied to the magnetic circuit of a relay or sensor to aid or impede operation of the contacts.

Bifurcated contact:- Twin contact. A forked, or branching of contacting member so formed or arranged, as to provide some degree of independent dual contacting.

Blade:- The cantilever portion of the reed switch contained within the glass envelope.

Bobbin:- A spool, coil form or structure upon which a coil is wound.

Bobbinless Coil (self supporting coil):- A coil formed without the use of a bobbin.

Bounce:- Occurs as a moving contact strikes a fixed contact and 'bounces' before remaining full at rest. Intermittent opening of closed contacts due to mechanical rebound, or mechanical shock or vibration transmitted through the mounting. This has to be minimised, as creates signal noise and contact wear. Intermittent undesirable opening of closed contacts or closing of open contacts.

Bounce, armature:- See *rebound, armature*.

Bounce Time:- The time from the first to the last closing or opening of a relay contact, due to a mechanical shock process in the contact movement. These shock processes are called contact bounce.

Break:- The opening of closed contacts to interrupt an electrical circuit.

Break-Before-Make:- Disconnecting the present circuit before connecting a new circuit. Also known as *Break/Make* or *Form C*.

Break Contact:- Normally closed (NC) contact. The break contact is closed in the release (rest) state of a monostable relay and opens (breaks) when the armature moves to the core (operate state).

Breakdown Voltage:- Voltage at which an arc or break over occurs between the contacts.

Breakdown Voltage, Pre-ionized:- The voltage level at which the voltage breaks down across the contacts, after which, the voltage had been recently broken down across the contacts, creating an ionized state in the glass capsule. Usually the breakdown voltage in the pre-ionized state is a lower value and more repeatable. It is a truer measure of the breakdown voltage level.

Breaking capacity maximum:- Product of the switching current and switching voltage (in W for direct current, in VA for alternating current). Also see '*dc breaking capacity*'.

Bridging:- (1) Normal bridging: The normal make-before-break action of a make-break or D contact combination. In a stepping switch, the coming together momentarily of two adjacent contacts by a wiper shaped for that purpose in the process of moving from one contact to another.
(2) Abnormal bridging: The undesired closing of open contacts caused by a metallic bridge or protrusion developed by arcing, resulting from melting and resolidifying of the contact metal.

Bunching, contact:- The undesired, simultaneous closure of make-and-break contacts during vibration, shock, or acceleration. Also, the simultaneous closure of the contacts of a continuity transfer or bridging contact combination.

Changeover Contact:- (also referred to as a Form C or single pole double throw (SPDT)) Three contact members giving a contact configuration with make and break contact. Changing the switch position opens the closed contact first and then closes the formerly open contact.

Chatter, armature:- The undesired vibration of the armature due to inadequate ac performance or external shock and vibration.

Chatter, Contact:- Externally caused, undesired vibration of mating contacts during which there may or may not be actual physical contact opening. If there is no actual opening but only a change in resistance, it is referred to as dynamic resistance.

Closing Time:- Time between energization of the coil until the moment the contacts of the first current path to be closed actually close.

Coaxial Shield:- An electrostatic shield grounded at both the input and output.

Coil:- That part of a relay which is energised to create a magnetic field that attracts a lever that in turn carries out the switching function. An electromagnetic assembly consisting of one or more windings, usually insulated copper wound over an un-insulated iron core on a bobbin or spool. May be self-supporting, with terminals and any other required parts such as a sleeve or slugs.
1. Concentrically Wound:- A coil with two or more insulated windings wound one over the other.
2. Double Wound:- A coil consisting of two windings wound on the same core.
3. Parallel Wound:- A coil having multiple windings wound simultaneously, with the turns of each winding being contiguous, termed bifilar wound.
4. Sandwich Wound:- A coil consisting of three concentric windings in which the first and third windings are connected series aiding to match the impedance of the second winding. The combination is used to maintain transmission balance.
5. Tandem Wound:- A coil having two or more windings, one behind the other, along the longitudinal axis. Also referred to as a two, three, or four-section coil, etc.

Coil current:- The current (by design) drawn by the coil for generating the magnetic pull force. At the moment of switching the coil ON, the current is higher than in continuous use.

Coil Hi-Pot:- The minimum voltage (potential) which the relay coil terminals will isolate when the relay is properly mounted.

Coil power:- Power consumption of the coil at rated coil voltage and coil resistance, with the coil temperature at 23°C, given as rated typical value.

Coil Operating Range:- Expressed as a multiple of the rated control circuit voltage V_c for the lower and upper limits.

Coil Resistance:- The dc resistance of the energised relay coil measured at 25°C, not including a parallel device for coil suppression.

Coil Suppression Circuit:- Circuit to reduce the inductive switch off voltage peak of the relay coil (EMC protection, switch off voltage peak). Note that most of the circuits reduce the armature release speed, which can decrease the relay lifetime, especially valid for diodes in parallel to the coil. From the various solutions, the use of a Zener diode is particularly suitable.

Coil voltage range:- Voltage range at which the relay displays the operating characteristics. These specified operating characteristics are given for a constant dc supply or sinusoidal ac supply. Other operating conditions (e.g. pulse control, ramp voltage, half wave rectifying, etc.) may lead to characteristics other than specified.

Cold:- An unenergized electrical circuit.

Cold Switching:- Closing the relay contacts before applying voltage and current, plus removing voltage and current before opening the contacts. (Contacts do not make or break current.) Also termed Dry Circuit Switching. Larger currents may be carried through the contacts without damage to the contact area since contacts will not arc when closed or opened. Maximises contact life.

Common Mode Voltage:- A voltage level as measured between one or more lines and ground (common) or a current flowing between one or more lines and ground (ground).

Contact:- Made out of contact material and part of the contact set where the electrical load circuit is opened or closed.

Contact Arrangement:- Relays are typically one of the following arrangements and contact forms:
 single pole single throw (SPST) - Normally Open, NO, NO-double make
 Normally Closed, NC, NC-double break latching
 single pole double throw (SPDT) - latching
 double pole double throw (DPDT)
 four pole double throw (4PDT)

Contact, Auxiliary:- A contact combination used to operate a visual or audible signal to indicate the position of the main contacts, establish interlocking circuits, or hold a relay operated when the original operating circuit is opened.

Contact Bounce:- The intermittent undesirable opening of closed mechanical contacts or closing of open contacts. Internally caused intermittent and undesired opening of closed contacts, or closing of open contacts, of a relay, caused by one or more of the following:
 (1) Impingement of mating contacts;
 (2) Impact of the armature against the coil core on pickup or against the backstop on dropout;
 (3) Momentary hesitation or reversal of the armature motion during the pickup or dropout stroke.
 Contact bounce period depends upon the type of relay and varies from ½ms for small reed relays to 10-20ms for larger solenoid types. Solid-state or mercury wetted contacts (Hg) do not have a contact bounce characteristic.

Contact, Break:- See *contact, normally closed*.

Contact, break-before-make:- A contact combination in which one contact opens its connection to another contact and then closes its connection to a third contact.

Contact, break-make:- See *contact, break-before-make*.

Contact Capacitance:- The capacitance of the relay measured (a) between the open contact, or (b) between contact terminals and ground. Measured at 1 kHz.

Contact Configuration:- Relay switch configuration (make, break or changeover contact). According to the application, various contact configurations are used. Contacts which are moved by the armature system are called → movable contacts, and non moving contacts stationary contacts.

Contact, Double Break:- A contact combination in which contact on a single conductive support simultaneously open electrical circuits connected to two independent contacts. This provides two contact air gaps in series when the contact is open Note: In B combination is terminal is brought out from the movable contact. In the Y combination, it is not.

Contact, Double Make:- A contact combination in which contacts on a single conductive support simultaneously close electrical circuits connected to the contact of two independent contacts, and provides two contact air gaps in series when the contact is open. (Sometimes called *normally open, double-make contact*.) Note: In U combination a terminal is brought out from the movable arm. In the X combination it is not.

Contact, Double Throw:- A contact combination having two positions as in break-make, make-break, and the like.

Contact Erosion:- Material loss at the contact surfaces, for example due to material evaporation by an arc.

Contact Force:- The force which two contact tips (points) exert against each other in the closed position under specified conditions.

Contact Form:- describes the type of contacts used for a given design or applications-
 Form A is a single pole single throw (SPST) normally open (N.O.) switch.
 Form B is a single pole single throw (SPST) normally closed (N.C.) switch.
 Form C is a single pole double throw (SPDT) where a normally closed contact opens before a

normally open contact closes. Changeover contacts.
 Form D is a single pole double throw where the normally open contact closes before normally closed contact opens (continuity transfer).
 Form E is a bistable contact that can exist in either the normally open or normally closed state. Reversing the magnetic field causes the contacts to change their state.

Contact Gap:- The gap between the contact tips (points) under specified conditions, when the contact circuit is open.

Contact Interrupter:- On a stepping relay or switch, a contact combination operated directly by the armature that opens and closes the winding circuit, permitting the device to step itself.

Contact Life:- The maximum number of expected closures before failure. Life is dependent on the switched voltage, current, and power. Failure is usually when the contact resistance exceeds an end of life value. Typical failure mode is non-closure of the contact as opposed to a contact sticking closed.

Contact, Low Level:- Contact that control only the flow of relatively small currents in relatively low-voltage circuits; e.g., alternating currents and voltages encountered in voice or tone circuits, direct currents in the order of microamperes, and voltages below the softening voltages of record for various contact materials (that is, 0.080 volt for gold, 0.25 volt for platinum, etc.) Also defined as contacts switching loads where there is no electrical arc transfer of detectable thermal effect and where only mechanical forces can change the conditions of the contact interface.

Contact, Main:- The primary set of contacts of a relay, usually defined as those having the highest current rating.

Contact, Make:- See *contact, normally open*.

Contact, make-before-break:- See *contact, continuity transfer*.

Contact, make-break:- See *contact, continuity transfer*.

Contact Material:- For relays a variety of contact materials are in use. They operate under a wide range of loads in terms of voltage and current. Inductive loads can cause high switch off voltages and strong arcs, capacitors create inrush current peaks. Arcs and improper coil suppression can reduce the lifetime of a contact. So far, no universal contact material is known, that can be used on all load types with optimum performance. Contact manufacturers, relay developers, and users have established the following criteria to describe a contact:
 • Electrical resistance
 • Resistance to contact erosion
 • Resistance to material transfer
 • Resistance to welding

Contact, Normally Closed:- A contact combination which is closed when the armature is in its unoperated position. A pair of contacts are together at rest making an electrical circuit.

Contact, Normally Open:- A contact combination that is open when the armature is in its unoperated position. A pair of contacts are separated at rest with no electrical connection. (Generally applies to monostable relays.)

Contact, Off:- normal-A form C contact combination on a stepping switch that is in one condition when the relay or stepping switch is in its normal position and in the opposite condition for any other position of the relay or stepping switch; i.e., when not in its reset or home position.

Contact, Operate Time:- Time from initial energization to the first opening of closed contact or first closing of open contact, prior to bounce.

Contact Potential:- A voltage produced between contact terminals due to the temperature gradient across the relay contacts, and the reed-to-terminal junctions of dissimilar metals. (The temperature gradient is typically caused by the power dissipated by the energized coil.) Also known as *contact offset voltage, thermal EMF, and thermal offset*. This is a major consideration when measuring voltages in the microvolt range. There are special low thermal relay contacts available to address this need. Special contacts are not required if the relay is closed for a short period of time where the coil has no time to vary the temperature of the contact or connecting materials (welds or leads).

Contact Rating:- The voltage, current, and power (electrical load-handling) capacities of relay contacts (switching ON and OFF) under specified environmental conditions, with a prescribed number of operations.

Contact, Reed:-
 1. A glass-enclosed, magnetically operated contact using thin, flexible, magnetic conducting strips as the contacting members (forming a reed relay).
 2. Contact assembly, the contact members of which are blades either fully or partly of magnetic material and which are moved directly by a magnetic force.

Contact Release Time:- Time from initial de-energization of the relay coil to the first opening of a closed contact prior to bounce.

Contact Resistance:- The resistance between closed load contacts (after stable contact closure). In vacuum relays, this measurement is typically made at 6V dc with a 1A rms load. In gas-filled relays, 1A at 28V dc is used to measure contact resistance. 'Kelvin' connections should be used to obtain accurate readings. The resistance can be obtained from the ratio of the voltage drop across the relay and the load current (Ohm's law). Surface layers (fritting) can result in non-linear contact resistances and increased voltage.

Contact Seal:- Contact assembly sealed in a compartment separate from the rest of the relay.

Contact Separation:- The distance between mating contacts when the contacts are open.

Contact, Snap Action:- Crisp closure and opening of contacts at or around the operate points where the contact resistance remains constant and stable.

Contact, Stationary:- A member of a contact combination that is not moved directly by the actuating system.

Contact Transfer Time:- Time during which the moving contact first opens from a closed position and first makes with the opposite throw of the contact. It is floating in a non-contacting position prior to bounce and after energizing or de-energizing the coil.

Contact Weld:- A contact failure due to fusing of contacting surfaces to the extent that the contacts fail to separate when intended.

Contact Wipe:- When a contact is making the relative rubbing movement of contact points after they have just touched.

Continuous Current, Carry:- The maximum current that can be carried by the closed contacts of the relay for a sustained time period. This current rating is determined by the relay envelope temperature rise and must be derated at RF frequencies. A glass relay is allowed a 62°C rise, and a ceramic relay a 100°C temperature rise. Current ratings can be increased by external cooling, such as by forced air or heat sinks.

Control Voltage:- Another name for the voltage applied across the coil of a relay and refers to that point where the relay will operate.

Creepage distance:- The closest distance between two conductive parts, measured along the surface of the insulated parts.

Crosstalk:- The electrical coupling between a closed contact circuit and other open or closed contact on the same relay or switch, expressed in decibels down from the signal level.

Current, Carry:- The amount of current that can safely be passed through closed switch contacts.

Current, Inrush:- The surge of current a load may draw at initial turn on and may be many times greater than the steady current draw.

Current Leakage:- Parameter measuring the unwanted leakage of current across open contacts and/or leakage current between the coil and contacts.

Current, maximum rate of rise on state (di/dt):- The maximum non-repetitive rate of current rise the output can withstand without being damaged.

1. With the relay output(s) turned on by the application or removal of the control voltage and/or current.

2. With the relay output(s) driven into break-over with the input at non-operate level.

Current, minimum load, $I_{Tmin(rms)}$:- The minimum current required to maintain the relay in the on-state (nominal load voltage applies). Applies mainly to solid-state relays.

Current, non-repetitive surge, I_{TSM} :- The maximum allowable, non-repetitive, peak, sinusoidal current that may be applied to the output for one full cycle at nominal line frequency. Relay control may be lost during and following the surge until the junction temperature falls below the maximum rated temperature.

Current rated contact:- The current which the contacts are designed to handle for their rated life.

Current, repetitive overload, $I_{TO(rms)}$:- The maximum allowable repetitive rms overload current that may be applied to the output for a specific duration and duty cycle while still maintaining output control. Applies mainly to solid state relays.

Currentless Closure:- Contacts closing with no voltage existing or current flowing at the time of closure.

Cycling:- Minimum number of hours during which a relay may be switched between the off state and the on state at a fixed, specific cycle rate, load current, and case temperature without failure.

De-energize:- To remove power from a relay coil.

Dielectric:- An insulating medium capable of recovering, as electrical energy, all or part of the energy required to establish an electrical field (voltage stress). The field, or voltage stress, is accompanied by displacement or charging currents. A vacuum is the only perfect dielectric.

Dielectric strength, (or Breakdown Voltage) V_{ISO} :- The maximum allowable ac rms voltage (50/60Hz), for one minute, which may be applied between two specified test points such as input-output, input-case, output-case in solid state relays, and between current-carrying and non-current-carrying metal members in electromechanical relays, without a leakage current in excess of 1mA.

Dropout, to drop out:- A monostable relay drops out when it changes from an energized to an un-energized (natural) condition. Not applicable to latching relays.

Dropout, time:- See *time, release*.

Dropout Value:- Measured current, voltage or distance when the contacts open.

Dropout Voltage:- The maximum coil voltage at which an operating relay releases and all normally closed contacts close. The voltage at which a relay (coil) de-energises sufficiently for the operating lever to move back to its rest position. It is normally expressed as a % of the nominal coil voltage. Also known as the *release voltage*.

Dry Circuit Switching:- Switching below specified levels of voltage and current to minimize any physical and electrical changes in the contact junction. Also see *Cold Switching*.

Dry reed relay:- See *relay, reed*.

Dynamic contact resistance:- A change in contact electrical resistance due to a variation in contact pressure on a contacts mechanically closed; occurrence is during non-bounce condition.

Electrical Endurance:- Number of on-load operating cycles (i.e. with current on the main contacts) a contactor can achieve, without failure, varies depending on the utilization category. The lifetime varies with the load, which is usually resistive or inductive loads with suitable spark suppression.

Electrostatic screening:- Screening copper alloy plate between coil and contact to provide electrostatic screening, which minimizes electrostatic coupling between the coil and reed switch in a reed relay.

Energization:- The application of power to a coil winding of a relay to generate a magnetic field to move the armature. With respect to an operating coil winding, use of the word commonly assumes enough power to operate the fully. The energizing value is the product of the coil current and the number of wire turns of the coil.

Expected Mechanical Life:- The minimum number of operations for which a relay can be expected to operate reliably. 'Cold' switching applications approach this figure.

Failure mode:- a relay failure is defined as occurrence of malfunctions, exceeding a specified number:

- malfunction to make
- malfunction to break (contact bridging on a CO contact as a special form of malfunction to break), or as
- insufficient dielectric strength.

Form:- A: Configuration which has one single-pole single-throw normally open (SPST no) contact.

B: Configuration which has one single-pole single-throw normally closed (SPST nc) contact.

C: Contact configuration which has one single pole-double throw (SPDT) contact. (One common point connected to one normally open and one normally closed contact.) Sometimes referred to as a transfer contact.

Freezing, magnetic:- Sticking of the relay armature to the core due to residual magnetism.

Frequency of operation:- Number of operation cycles (opening and closing of contacts) per unit of time.

The switching rate is usually indicated for switching under rated load; unless otherwise stated at ambient temperature 23°C and without any circuitry in parallel to the coil (no coil suppression circuit, e.g. diode). With contact loads considerably below rated load a higher frequency of operation may be admissible. This has to be tested for the specific application.

Fritting:- Electrical breakdown which can occur under special conditions (voltage, current) whenever thin contact films prevent electrical conductivity between closed contacts. Fritting is a process which generates (A-fritting) and/or widens (B-fritting) a conducting current path through such a semi-conducting film on a contact surface. During A-fritting, electrons are injected into the undamaged film. The electron current alters the condition of the film producing a 'conductive channel'. During the following B-fritting, the current widens the channel increasing the conductivity.

Gaging, relay contact:- The setting of relay contact spacing to determine the point in the armature's stroke at which specified contacts function.

Gap, Magnetic:- Nonmagnetic portion of a magnetic circuit.

Gap, contact:- The distance between a pair of mating relay contacts when the contacts are open.

Gap, heel:- A gap or nonmagnetic separation in the magnetic circuit other than between the armature and pole face. Generally, located between the heel piece and pole piece of an ac relay.

Gap, residual:- The thickness of nonmagnetic material in the magnetic circuit between the pole face centre and the nearest point on the armature when the armature is in the fully seated position.

Grass:- See *dynamic contact resistance*.

Hard failure:- Permanent failure of the contact being tested.

Hermetic seal:- Enclosure that is sealed by fusion to ensure a low rate of gas leakage. In a reed switch, a glass-to-metal seal is employed. In the case of a relay, the contacts and coil are sealed.

Hesitation, armature:- Delay or momentary reversal of armature motion in either the pickup or dropout stroke.

Holding Current:- Minimum current required to maintain closed contacts.

Hold value specified:- As the current or voltage on an operated relay is decreased, the value at or above which all relay contacts must restore to their un-operated positions.

Hold Voltage:- The lowest voltage that can be applied without any change in state of the contacts from their energized position. This is just above the maximum drop-out voltage.

Hot:- An energized electrical circuit.

Hot switching:- A circuit design that applies the switched load to the switch contacts at the time of opening and closure.

Housing:- All the relay assembly is enclosed in a housing, enclosing coil contacts, test buttons etc, with pin connections on the underside. The housing may be standard dust proof, flux tight (for soldering connections) or completely washable.

Hysteresis:- The difference between the operate voltage and the release voltage and can be expressed as a percentage of release/operate.

Initial contact resistance:- Contact resistance measured at the time of production/final testing. Prolonged storage and adverse environmental conditions (e.g. gases) can lead to increased resistance values. The effect of electrical cleaning due to sufficient load can bring the contact resistance back to lower levels.

Initial pulse withstand voltage, initial surge voltage resistance:- Amplitude of a voltage impulse of short duration with a specified impulse form (e.g. 1.2/50 μ s) and polarity applied to test insulation paths in a relay, especially where relays are subject to overvoltage situations (e.g. effects of lightning).

Inrush:- Inrush current is the peak current passing across the contacts of a relay when the contact is first made and is dependent on the load being switched. A relay which has contacts rated for a continuous current, the nominal contact current, may be capable of withstanding much higher currents for short periods. Inrush current can form a surge flowing through a relay switching a low impedance source load - typically a highly reactive circuit, or one with a non-linear load characteristic such as a tungsten lamp load. Such abusive load surges are sometimes encountered when reed relays are inadvertently connected to test loads containing undischarged capacitors, or to long transmission lines with appreciable amounts of stored capacitive energy. Excessive inrush currents can cause switch contact welding or premature contact failure.

Insertion cycles:- The symbol A indicates that the insertion and extraction must be done without any load current on the relay/socket contacts. Unless otherwise stated the accessories are designed for max.10 insertion cycles, insertion and extraction without load; A (10).

Insertion loss:- The loss in load power due to the insertion of a component at some point in a transmission system. Generally expressed in decibels as the ratio of power received at the load before insertion of the apparatus to the power received at the load after insertion.

Insulation:- Unless otherwise stated, the insulation characteristics are indicated for the relay component, the design of the application, mounting and wiring also has to provide for required insulation properties. In general, the relays are designed to be used within enclosures; the relay surfaces are not to be accessible for direct contact by the end user. Specific insulation requirements of the equipment and protection against environmental effects need special consideration.

Insulation resistance, R_{ISO} :- The minimum allowable dc resistance between input and output of solid state relays and between contacts and coil for electromechanical and reed relays, at a specified voltage, usually 500V dc.

Isolation:- The value of insulation resistance, dielectric strength, and capacitance measured between the input and outputs, input to case, output to case, and output to output when applicable.

I/O Capacitance:- Capacitance between the input and output terminals or between the coil and contacts.

I/O Isolation Voltage: Voltage value before voltage breakdown occurs. It is the same as breakdown voltage.

Latching:- In relay or switching technology, this refers to the ability to keep the contact status in place even if power is removed from the equipment.

Latching relay:- In a latching relay, after the coil input voltage is disconnected, the contacts remain in the last reached switching position. Latching relays only require a short set respectively reset impulse. To change the state of the contacts, the magnetic field must be reversed. A permanent coil power supply after setting/resetting the relay is neither necessary nor allowed: maximal pulse durations depend on the relay family. Hence the distinguishing characteristic of monostable relays in respect to a fail safe behaviour is the fact that the predefined contact rest position will be reached at break down of the power supply. This behaviour cannot be shown by latching relays due to the bistable working principle they are based on.

Leakage Current:- The rms current conducted by the output circuit of the relay at maximum rated voltage with the contacts open.

Limiting continuous current:- The highest current (effective value for ac loads) a relay can carry under specified conditions without exceeding its specified upper limit temperature. This is not the current that can be switched with any load over the specified lifetime.

Load:- The electrical circuit which is being switched is measured and defined by

1. current in amperes, A
2. voltage in volts, V: dc or ac, and
3. load type (Inductive or resistive current flow when the contact is first made).

A relay is generally limited by the amount of heat that occurs when an electrical current passes across its contacts. This represents the 'load' that a relay can switch and is normally presented as an electrical value. This is usually stated as a contact current in A then a voltage often

standardised at 250Vac/dc followed by a maximum capacity at a resistive load. This is the result of multiplying current by voltage, expressed as VA. It is usually the maximum permissible load at any time including starting and stopping.

Load, curve:- The static force/displacement characteristics of the total spring-load of the relay.

Load Life:- The minimum number of cycles the relay will make, carry, and break the specified load without contact sticking or welding, and without exceeding the electrical specifications of the device. Load life is established using various methods including Weibull probability methods.

Low thermal Relay:- Reed relay designed specifically to switch very low microvolt or nanovolts signals without distorting their signal level.

Magnet, blowout:- A device that establishes a magnetic field in the contact gap to help extinguish the arc by displacing it.

Magnetic interaction:- Mainly relevant to reed relays. The tendency of a relay to be influenced by an external magnetic field. This influence can result in depression or elevation of the pull-in and drop out voltage of the affected relay, possibly causing operation outside its specification. Magnetic interaction can be minimized by alternating the polarity of adjacent relay coils, by magnetic shielding, or by placing two relays at right angles to each other.

Magnetic shield:- Mainly relevant to reed relays. A ferromagnetic material used to minimize magnetic coupling between the relay and external magnetic fields.

Make:- The closure of open contacts to complete an electric circuit.

Make-before-break contacts:- Contact mechanism where Form A contacts (normally open contacts) close before Form B contacts open (normally closed contacts).

Make contacts:- A contact that is open in the rest state and closed in the operating state: referred to as normally open contacts.

Material transfer:- During the switching stages the arc heats up the two contacts differently, depending on the load and polarity. Material is then transferred from the hotter to the cooler electrode. With high dc contact load, a 'pip' is built up, while the other contact loses material, creating a crater.

Maximum coil power:- The highest permissible input power at the reference temperature at which the relay, with continuous energization, heats up to its maximum permissible coil temperature. Unless otherwise stated the data is indicated without contact load.

Maximum carrying current:- The maximum current which after closing or prior to opening, the contacts can safely conduct without being subjected to a temperature rise in excess of the design limit.

Maximum coil temperature:- A general term that refers to the maximum approved coil temperature, measured by change of resistance method. Classifies maximum coil temperatures according to a standard; this standard refers to insulation systems and does not cover individual insulating materials:

- class B - max.130°C
- class F - max.155°C.

Maximum coil voltage U_{max} or V_{max} :- Maximum coil voltage at room temperature, at which the coil reaches the specified upper limit temperature without contact load (maximum continuous thermal load at 23°C).

Maximum energization duration:- Maximum duration a coil may be energized with rated dc voltage; energization beyond the indicated duration will overheat of the coil system and the relay.

Maximum insertion force total:- The force during the insertion of the relay into the socket has to be applied in insertion direction (no tilting) and equally on all connections. The maximum applied force must not exceed the indicated maximum insertion force.

Maximum operate/reset duration:- Maximum duration a bistable coil may be energized with rated dc voltage.

Maximum operate voltage (or must operate voltage):- Voltage at room ambient temperature (RT) a relay must operate at. To guarantee proper function of all relays, the applied coil voltage in the application must be above this specified operating voltage. The actual operate voltage of an individual relay, the maximum operate voltage and the application system value are sometimes all called operate voltage.

Maximum switching power:- Maximum permissible power switched by the relay contacts, i.e. the product of the switching current and switching voltage.

Maximum switching current:- Maximum current that can safely be switching by the contacts.

Maximum switching frequency:- The maximum switching frequency which satisfies the mechanical or electrical life under repeated operations by applying a pulse train at rated voltage to the operating coil.

Maximum switching power:- The maximum power that can be switched by the contacts without causing damage.

Maximum switching voltage:- Maximum voltage that may occur between the switching contacts before closing or after opening the contact. Data given for ac refer to V_{rms} in a mid-point earthed 3-phase supply system.

Mechanical Endurance:- Number of off-load operating cycles (i.e. without current on the main contacts) a contactor can achieve, remaining within the specified characteristics.

Mechanical Life:- This is the number of operations which a relay can be expected to perform while maintaining mechanical integrity. Mechanical life is normally tested with no load or voltage applied to the power contacts and is established using various methods including Weibull analysis.

Mechanical shock, non-operating:- The mechanical shock level (amplitude, duration and wave shape) to which the relay may be subjected without permanent electrical or mechanical damage (during storage or transportation).

Mechanical shock, operating:- That mechanical shock level (amplitude, duration and wave shape) to which the relay may be subjected without permanent electrical or mechanical damage during its operating mode.

Mercury wetted (contact) relay:- A form of reed relay in which the contacts are wetted by a film of mercury (Hg) obtained by a capillary action from a mercury pool encapsulated within the reed switch. Usually has a required operating position (usually vertical) to avoid liquid mercury from shorting the contacts; other types are position insensitive. This type of relay is usually higher power and longer life, but at a higher dollar cost. Another benefit of this type of contact is the repeatability of contact resistance and virtually no contact bounce.

Minimum recommended voltage:- Minimum load voltage to ensure an adequate contact cleaning (see also 'fritting').

Minimum voltage U_{min} or V_{min} :- Minimum coil voltage at RT where a relay is still able to operate.

Minimum release voltage (must release voltage):- Voltage at RT a relay must release at. To guarantee proper function of all relays, the limit in the application must be below this specified release voltage. The release voltage of an individual relay, the guaranteed minimum (must) release voltage and the system value are sometimes all called release voltage.

Minimal operation time:- Shortest control duration to ensure complete closing or opening of a contactor.

Miss, Contact:- Failure of a contact mating pair to close in a specified time or with a contact resistance in excess of a specified maximum value.

NC contact (normally closed) (Form B):- Same as break contact. The break contact is closed in the release (rest) state of a monostable relay and opens (breaks) when the armature moves to the core (operate state).

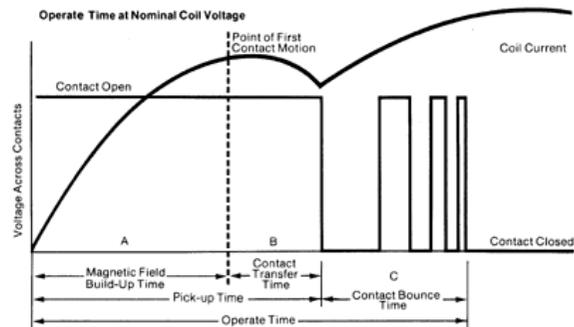
NO contact (normally open) (Form A):- Same as make contact. Contact is open in the release (rest) state of a monostable relay and closes (makes) when the relay coil is energized (operate state).

Nominal coil power:- Power consumed by the coil at nominal voltage and nominal coil resistance, or termed *rated power*.

Nonpickup value, specified:- As the current or voltage on an unoperated relay is increased, the value which must be reached before any contact change occurs.

Nonrelease, specified:- See *operating characteristics, hold value*.

Offstate dv/dt :- The application of both position and negative voltages with maximum specified rate of rise to the output terminals.



Operate:- A relay operates when sequentially it starts, it passes from an initial condition towards the prescribed operated condition, and it switches.

Operating characteristics:- Pickup, non-pickup, hold and dropout, voltage and current.

Operating temperature range:- The ambient temperature range over which an un-mounted relay is specified to operate.

Opening time:- Time from the beginning of state causing breaking until the moment when the contacts of the last current path to be opened are open.

Operate time:- The time in milliseconds between voltage being first applied to the relay coil and final closure of all normally open contacts or the time from energizing the relay coil till the first break of the NC contact. This includes time for the coil to build up its magnetic field (a significant limiting factor) and transfer time of the moveable contact between stationary contacts, and

bounce time after the initial contact make. As the coil resistance depends on the ambient temperature, the operate time varies with the operate voltage and the ambient temperature.

Output Capacitance:- Capacitance across the contacts.

Overdrive:- A term used to indicate use of greater than normal coil current (applied voltage), and usually employed in obtaining well-controlled bounce and fast operate time or pulse response.

Overload current:- Test done to make sure that relays withstand overload conditions, e.g. withstand short circuit conditions until the fuse opens. Relay will carry the specified currents at 23°C (I_{rated} = rated current as given in contact data section for each relay).

Overtravel armature dropout:- The portion of the armature travel that occurs between closure of the normally closed contact(s) and the fully released static position of the armature.

Overtravel armature pickup:- The portion of the armature travel occurring between closure of the normally open contact(s) and the fully operated static position of the armature.

Paschen test:- Test to detect sealing damage to a hermetically seal capsule. In the case of a cracked switch capsule or damaged switch seal, atmospheric oxygen can leak into the switch and eventually oxidize the switch contacts, causing increased contact resistance and possible contact failure. The presence of oxygen causes the breakdown avalanche voltage to increase, due to the ability of the electronegative oxygen to scavenge free electrons. The Paschen test observes the variation and magnitude of the breakdown voltage as a switch is opened, hence used to diagnose the presence of oxygen.

Peak Test Voltage:- The peak ac voltage (at 60 Hz) which can be applied between external high voltage terminals or between the open terminals and ground for up to one minute with no evidence of failure. Peak test voltages must not be exceeded, even for very short pulses.

Pickup Value:- Measure of current or voltage applied to a relay when the contacts just close. Also called the pull-in or must operate value.

Pickup Pulse:- A short, high-level pulse applied to a relay; usually employed to obtain faster operate time.

Pole, double:- A term applied to a contact arrangement to denote that it includes two separate contact combinations, that is, two single-pole contact assemblies.

Pole piece:- The end of an electromagnet, sometimes separable from the main section, and usually shaped so as to distribute the magnetic field in a pattern best suited to the application.

Pole, single:- A term applied to a contact arrangement to denote that all contacts in the arrangement connect in one position or another to a common state.

Pressure, Contact:- Force per unit area on the contacts.

Pull-in Voltage:- The minimum coil voltage required to operate a relay for all normally open contacts to close. The voltage at which a relay (coil) operates and switches. It is normally expressed as a % of the nominal coil voltage. Sometimes known as *threshold voltage*. It is affected by temperature.

Race, relay:- A deficient circuit condition wherein successful operation depends upon a sequence of two or more independent contacts and in which the sequence is not insured by electrical or mechanical interlocking restraints. Ratchet relay. See *relay, stepping*.

Relay:- An electrically controlled mechanical device that opens and closes electrical contacts when a voltage (or current) is applied to a coil. A relay provides isolation of control signals from switched signals.

Rated breaking capacity; Rated making capacity:- Value of rms current a contactor can break or make at a fixed voltage value, within the conditions specified by the standards, depending on the utilization category.

Rated impulse withstand voltage, V_{imp} :- The highest peak value of an impulse voltage of prescribed form 1.2/50, which does not cause breakdown under specified conditions of test.

Rated insulation voltage, V_i :- Voltage value which designates the unit and to which dielectric tests, clearance and creepage distances are referred.

Rated operating current, I_e :- Current value stated by the manufacturer and taking into account the rated operating voltage, V_e , the rated frequency, the rated duty, the utilization category, the electrical contact life and the type of the protective Hammond Enclosure.

Rated operating voltage, V_e :- Voltage value to which utilization characteristics of the contactor are referred, i.e. phase to phase voltage in 3 phase circuits. The voltage which can safely be applied to the relay for sustained periods of time without failure. This voltage rating decreases as ac frequency increases. Rated operating voltages approach peak test voltage only at lower frequencies.

Rating, contact:- The electrical load-handling capability of relay contacts under specified conditions and for a prescribed number of operations.

Rating, short time:- The value of current or voltage that the relay can stand, without injury, for specified short time intervals. (For ac circuits, the rms total value, including the dc component, should be used). The rating recognized the limitations imposed by both thermal and electromagnetic effects.

Rebound, armature:- (1) The return motion or bounce-back toward the unoperated position after the armature strikes the pole face during pickup, referred to as armature pickup rebound; (2) The forward motion or bounce in the direction of the operated position when the armature strikes its backstop on dropout, referred to as armature dropout rebound.

Reed Relay: A relay that uses a glass-enclosed hermetically sealed magnetic reed as the contact members.

Reed Switch or Reed Sensor:- Switch or relay using glass-enclosed magnetic reeds as the contact members which includes mercury-wetted as well as dry contact types.

Relay:- An electric device that is designed to interpret input conditions in a prescribed manner and after specified conditions are met to respond to cause contact operation or similar abrupt change in an associated electric control circuit. Notes: (a) Inputs are usually electric, but may be mechanical, thermal or other quantities. (b) A relay may consist of several units, when responsive to specified inputs, the combination providing the desired performance characteristic.

Relay, alternating current (ac):- A relay designed for operation from an alternating-current source.

Relay, Close Differential:- is a relay having its dropout value specified close to its pickup value.

Relay, Current Sensing:- A relay that functions at a predetermined value of current typically used in telecommunications as a line sense relay.

Relay, direct current (dc):- A relay designed for operation from a direct-current source.

Relay, electrical:- A device designed to produce sudden, predetermined changes in one or more electrical output circuits, when certain conditions are fulfilled in the electrical input circuits controlling the device.

1. The term relay shall be restricted to a relay unit having a single relaying function between its input circuits and its output circuits.
2. The term relay includes all the components which are necessary for its specified operation.
3. The adjective 'electrical' can be deleted when no ambiguity may occur.

Relay, electromechanical:- An electrical relay in which the designed response is developed by the relative movement of mechanical elements under the action of a current in the input circuits.

Relay, latching:- A relay that maintains its contacts in the last position assumed without the need of maintaining coil energization.

1. Magnetic latching- A relay that remains operated, held either by remanent magnetism in the structure or by the influence of a permanent magnet, until reset.
2. Mechanical latching- A relay in which the armature or contacts may be latched mechanically in the operated or unoperated position until reset manually or electrically.

Relay, mercury contact:-

1. Mercury-wetted contact-A form of reed relay in which the reeds and contacts are glass enclosed and are wetted by a film of mercury obtained by capillary action from a mercury pool in the base of a capsule vertically mounted.
2. Mercury contact-A relay mechanism in which mercury establishes contact between electrodes in a sealed capsule.

Relay, over current:- A relay that is specifically designed to operate when its coil voltage reaches or exceeds a predetermined value.

Relay, polarized:- A relay whose operation is dependent upon the polarity of the energizing current.

1. Bistable. A two-position relay that will remain in its last operated position keeping the operated contacts closed after the operating winding is de-energized.
2. Centre-stable. A polarized relay that is operated in one of two energized positions, depending on the polarity of the energizing current, and that returns to a third, off position, when the operating winding is de-energized.
3. Double-biased. See *bistable*.
4. Magnetic latching. See *bistable*.
5. Monostable. A monostable polarized relay is a two-position relay that requires current of a pre-determined polarity for operation and returns to the off position when the operating winding is de-energized or is energized with reversed polarity.
6. Single-biased. See *monostable*.
7. Single-side-stable. See *centre-stable*.
8. Three-position centre-off. See *centre-stable*.
9. Un-biased. See *centre-stable*.

Relay, reed:- A relay using glass-enclosed, hermetically sealed, magnetically actuated reeds as the contact members. No mercury or other wetting material is used. Typical atmosphere inside the glass enclosure is nitrogen.

Relay, RF switching:- A relay designed to switch electrical ac energy frequencies >20kHz.

Relay, solid state (SSR):- A relay with isolated input and output whose functions are achieved by means of electronic components and without moving parts.

Relay, undercurrent:- A relay specifically designed to function when its energizing current falls below a predetermined value. (See *relay, current sensing*.)

Relay, undervoltage:- A relay specifically designed to function when its energizing voltage falls below a predetermined value.

Relay, vacuum:- A relay whose contacts are sealed in a low pressure environment.

Release Time:- The time in milliseconds between removal of power from the relay coil and final closure of all normally closed contacts. This time includes contact bounce.

Resistance, contact:- The electrical resistance of closed contacts measured at the associated terminals.

Resistance, dynamic contact:- Variation in contact resistance due to changes in contact pressure during the period in which contacts are motion, before opening or after closing.

Resistance to shock:- Requirements applicable for instance to vehicles, crane operation or switchgear slide-in module systems. At the quoted permissible 'g' values, contactors must not undergo a change in switching state and O/L relays must not trip.

Resistance to vibration:- Requirements applicable to all the vehicles, vessels and other similar transport systems. At the quoted amplitude and vibration frequency values, the unit must be capable to achieve the required duty.

Resistance, winding:- The total terminal-to-terminal resistance of a winding at a specified temperature.

Self de-energize:- The removal of power from a relay coil by an auxiliary switch or contact within the relay itself. Usually applies to latching relays only.

Self de-energizing switch:- A secondary relay or auxiliary contact usually enclosed within the primary relay which removes power from the primary relay coil after it has transferred position. Usually applies to latching relays only.

Sensitivity:- Pull-in of a reed switch usually expressed in ampere-turns.

Shield, electrostatic:- A conductive metallic sheath surrounding the relay's reed switch, connected to at least one external relay pin, and designed to minimize capacitive coupling between the switch and other relay components, thus reducing high frequency noise pickup. Similar to a coaxial shield, but not necessarily designed to maintain a 50 Ohm RF impedance environment.

Shield, magnetic:- An optional plate or shell constructed of magnetically permeable material like nickel-iron or mu-metal, fitted external to the relay's coil. Its function is to reduce the effects of magnetic interaction between adjacent relays, and to improve the efficiency of the relay coil. A magnetic shell also reduces the influence of external magnetic fields: in security applications. Magnetic shields can be fitted externally, or may be buried inside the relay housing.

Soft failure:- Intermittent, self-recovering failure of a contact.

Static contact resistance:- The dc resistance of closed contacts as measured at their associated contact terminals. Measurement is made after stable contact closure is achieved.

Sticking (contacts):- A reed switch failure mechanism, whereby a closed contact fails to open by a specified time after relay de-energization. Can be sub-classified as hard or soft failures.

Switch, dry reed:- See *contact, reed*.

Switch, stepping:- A class of electromagnetically operated, multi-position switching devices. Their wipers are rotated in steps so that contact is successively made between the wiper tips and contacts that are separated electrically and mounted in a circular arc called a bank.

Switching Capacity:- Switching capacity is the product of switching voltage and switching current. The current which a relay will switch will vary according to the voltage being used. Note that the maximum often includes the value occurring at peaks (see '*inrush*'). A minimum also applies, because contact materials that can withstand high current loads may be poor at making contact at low current loads.

Switching frequency:- Number of operating cycles per hour.

Shock resistance:- The number of gravities (G's), that is the mechanical shock, a relay can sustain when tested by a ½ sine pulse (calibrated impact) for 11 milliseconds without the closed contacts opening or the open contacts closing, or no damage occurs. Failure criteria is contact interruption for more than 10µs.

Short time current permissible:- Value of current which the contactor can withstand in closed position for a short time period and within specified conditions.

Test voltage/dielectric test voltage/dielectric strength:- Voltage applied during dielectric (high voltage) tests between intentionally not electrically connected parts of the relay.

Thermal Offset:- Measured in microvolts is the voltage existing across closed contacts in the absence of any signals.

Thermal resistance:- Relay parameter measured in Kelvin per Watt, which relates the consumed power with the respective temperature increase in the state of thermal equilibrium measured without load and without components in parallel or in line to the coil. Multiplied with its power consumption (at the actual coil temperature) it indicates the temperature rise of the coil above ambient temperature.

Thermoelectric potential:- Voltage at the relay terminals of a closed contact resulting from a temperature difference of the different metal junctions (terminal, spring, contacts, etc.) inside the relay.

Time, actuation:- The time interval from coil energization or de-energization to the functioning of a specified contact; same as time, contact actuation, subdivided as follows:

1. Time, final actuation-The sum of the initial actuation time and the contact bounce intervals following such actuation.
2. Time, initial actuation-The time from coil energization or de-energization to the first closing of a previously open contact or the first opening of a previously closed contact.

Time, bridging:- The time in which all contacts of a continuity transfer combination are electrically connected during the transfer.

Time constant:- Ratio of inductance to the resistance : $L/R = \text{mH}/\text{Ohm}$, ms.

Time, contact bounce:- The time interval from initial actuation of a contact to the end of bounce.

Time, contact stagger:- The time interval between the functioning of contacts on the same relay. (For example, the time difference between the opening of two normally closed contacts on pickup.)

Time, operate:- (1) The time interval from coil energization to the functioning of the last contact to function. Where not otherwise stated, the functioning time of the contact in question is taken as its initial actuation time (that is, it does not include contact bounce time).

(2) For a solid state or hybrid relay in a non-operated state, the time from the application of the pickup voltage to the change of state of the output.

Time, release:- (1) The time interval from coil de-energization to the functioning of the last contact to function. Where not otherwise stated, the functioning time of the contact in question is taken as its initial actuation time (that is, it does not include contact bounce time).

(2) For a solid state or hybrid relay in an operated state, the time from the application of the dropout voltage to the change of state of the output.

Time, seating:- The time interval from coil energization to the seating of the armature.

Time transfer:- The time interval between opening the closed contact and closing the open contact of a break-before-make contact combination.

Type 1 co-ordination:- There has been no discharge of parts beyond the enclosure. Damage to the contactor and the overload relay is acceptable.

Type 2 co-ordination:- No damage to the overload relay or other parts has occurred, except that welding of contactor or starter contacts is permitted, if they are easily separated.

Vibration, Non-operating:- Vibration level and frequency span to which the relay may be subjected without permanent electrical or mechanical damage.

Vibration resistance:- The simple harmonic motion at rated gravities and frequency (G/Hz) that a relay can sustain without uncontrolled opening of closed contacts or closing of open contacts.

Voltage Breakdown:- An undesirable condition of arcing within a relay due to over-voltage.

Voltage, off state:- In solid state relay, the following determine whether the relay will stay off under each load voltage condition:

1. Critical rate of rise of commutation voltage, dv/dt . The maximum value of the rate of rise of principal voltage which will cause switching from the off state to the on state.
2. Maximum off state voltage, $V_{D \text{ max rms}}$. The maximum effective steady state voltage that the output is capable of withstanding when in off state.
3. Maximum rate of rise of off state voltage, dv/dt . The rate of rise of the off-state voltage which the output can withstand without false operation.
4. Minimum off state voltage, $V_{D \text{ min rms}}$. The minimum effective voltage which the relay will switch.
5. Non-repetitive peak voltage, V_{DSM} . The maximum off-state voltage that the output terminals are capable of withstanding without breakover or damage.

Voltage, on state:- In solid state relays, the output terminal wave form at rated current consists of repetitive half-cycles (+and-) of distinctive voltage drops. Each voltage state is necessary for load current conduction and may be specified for specific applications, as follows:

1. Instantaneous on state voltage, V_T . The instantaneous voltage across the output when in the on condition.
2. Maximum RMS on state voltage, $V_{T \text{ RMS}}$. Maximum RMS voltage drop across the relay output at maximum load current $I_{T \text{ RMS}}$.
3. Minimum power factor load, PF_{MIN} . The minimum power factor load the relay will switch and still meet all of its electrical specifications.
4. Peak on state voltage, V_{TM} . The maximum value of V_T excluding $\pm 20^\circ$ of zero crossing of the voltage waveform.

Voltage, rated coil:- The coil voltage at which the relay is intended to operate for the prescribed duty cycle. The use of any coil voltage less than rated may compromise the performance of the relay.

Voltage, reverse polarity:- The maximum allowable reverse voltage which may be applied to the input of a solid state relay without permanent damage.

Winding, non-inductive:- A winding in which the magnetic fields produced by two parts of the winding cancel each other and provide non-inductive resistance.

Wipe, Contact:- Sliding or tangential motion between two mating contact surfaces as they open or close.

Glossary of solenoid terminology [Chapter 33]

Air Gap:- the air space between the armature and the solenoid pole.

Ampere Turns:- the level of magnetic flux determined by the magnitude of the current and the number of copper wire turns in the coil. The absolute value of magnetic flux determined by the number of copper wire turns in the coil and the magnitude of the current. Permissible temperature rise of the coil limits the magnitude of the power input. Heat makes the coil less efficient because it reduces the ampere turns and hence the flux density and the torque or force output

Anchor Plate:- The thin formed sheet metal plate fitted over the mounting studs on the base of rotary solenoids to provide containment for the return spring. It has tabs formed up around the circumference which are used to attach the end of the spring and allow adjustment.

Armature/Plunger:- the moving component found in a solenoid. The part of solenoid which moves, within the magnetic field generated by the coil. Normally separated from the coil by the minimum air gap possible. Armature systems vary, combining flat face and conical shapes to achieve different stroke/force combinations.

Axial Stroke:- the amount of movement the armature travels lengthwise (longitudinal movement).

B-H Curve:- a graphical curve showing the ratio of flux density B to magnetic field intensity, H.

Bobbins:- usually a plastic construction in either nylon or peek (polyetheretherketone) and can be moulded or machined.

Bobbin Wound Coil:- A coil, usually near random wound on a spool which maintains the form and shape of the coil and also provides the coil insulation.

Case/Body:- the outer shell and main component of the solenoid coil housing (can be made from any magnetic material from CRS (cold rolled steel) to 430FR SS (stainless steel)).

Coil:- the copper windings on the hollow core of the solenoid that provide an electrical element through which a current is passed to generate a magnetic field. During the winding process, precision wound coil follows a prescribed pattern in which each turn is laid precisely beside the previous turn. This allows the maximum amount of copper to be wound in the allotted space. A coil with no specific winding pattern is called a random wound coil. In solenoid design, the coil is defined by the specific operating voltage, for a given duty cycle. The more opportunity there is for the coil to remain cool then the greater the number of turns can be wound onto any given single spool. This way a stronger magnetic field is developed to achieve higher operating forces and torques. Similarly the current will be greater for any given voltage, if the duty cycle % is lower. A coil can be over "excited" or over-volted beyond its specified voltage, in which case a stronger magnetic field will be developed, and/or quicker pull in times achieved. But this can only be done for very short periods (ms), otherwise the coil is likely to be permanently damaged.

Coil Arc Suppression:- The use of an electronic protection devices across switch contacts and coils to reduce the arc caused by interrupting the current flow through an inductive device, such as a solenoid. Appropriate coil suppression greatly reduces arcing.

Coil Resistance:- is the property of a coil that impedes the flow of the current when a voltage is applied across the coil.

Coil Resistance Tolerance:- where precision coil windings are used, coil resistance tolerances are $\pm 5\%$ for heavier gauge wire. Coil resistance tolerances are $\pm 10\%$ for finer gauge wire where random winding processes are used.

Coil Voltage:- the voltage at which a coil must be energized if the solenoid is to perform as specified.

Coining:- The process of striking the armature plate or case to form the three ball races on rotary solenoids. This process provides an extremely smooth, mirror-like surface in the ball races

Continuous Duty Coil:- a coil energized on a continuous basis without overheating.

Core:- The soft-magnetic stainless steel part of the solenoid which is moved by magnetic forces (flux generated by the coil).

Core Spring:- Spring which returns the core to the original position when the coil is de-energized.

Core Tube:- Stainless steel tube, closed at one end, which isolates the media in the solenoid from the external solenoid parts.

Cycle Life:- the total life expectancy of a solenoid in terms of cycles (one cycle = movement from a closed position to open and back to a closed position or vice versa).

De-energized:- the solenoid is de-energized when no current is supplied into the coil. This is the standard "fail-safe" mode.

Dielectric:- the resistance between the coil and the case. Minimum dielectric value depends on solenoid type and wire gauge.

Direct-Acting Solenoid:- the solenoid core directly opens and closes an orifice inside the direct acting solenoid.

Drip-Proof:- protection of an enclosed component against falling dirt and/or non-corrosive fluids.

Drop Out Time:- The total time taken for the solenoid to return to its rest position after current is switched off. The drop out time depends on the mass being moved and the influence of any springs.

Dust-Tight:- protection of an enclosed component against environments that contain large amounts of dust.

Duty Cycle:- the duty cycle is the percent of time that a coil is energized during normal operation (ratio of active time to total time). Usually indicates how long the solenoid can be energized with off cycles of specified length without overheating.

Encapsulated Coil:- see Moulded coil.

Energized:- the solenoid is energized when current is supplied into the coil.

Flux Density:- flux density is the number of Webers per square metre in a cross section normal to the direction of the flux. This number is referred to as Tesla and given the symbol B.

Flux Plate:- the steel plate located at the bottom of the coil assembly that helps carry the magnetic flux. The flux plate helps carry magnetic flux. Often also serves as a supporting member for the coil assembly.

Force:- The force is measured in Newtons, N. Once energised, a solenoid will develop a force to start the movement of the plunger. This is defined as the "pull-in force", as the plunger moves the force available will increase until the maximum force is achieved at the end of stroke. This is the "force" of the solenoid which is shown in our technical data. Other forces which are defined in a solenoid include the "holding force" of bi-stable solenoids with the armature in the fully home position, and at the start position. The available force may depend on the mounting position and if a return spring is used. Force output is affected by temperature, the higher temperature (of the coil), the lower the force. The quoted torque or force figures are given at 90% of the rated voltage and with a warm winding. With a cold winding and rated voltage, the value is significantly higher. Rotary solenoid output is defined as available torque. Note: 1 Newton = 0.1Kgf = 0.225 lbf

Frame or Body:- There are different body shapes, or frame types. Some design aspects affect movement, mounting and the available space envelope. The more mass, the greater the force needed, which may in turn determine a "square" design.

Heat Rise:- the rise in temperature as a result of operating the solenoid at predetermined conditions.

Hit and Drop:- see Pulse and Hold.

Holding Force:- the force required to separate the armature from the energized position when it is under power.

Intermittent Duty Coil:- coil which has a specified duty cycle of less than 100%. Energizing this coil continuously would likely result in overheating.

Latching Solenoid:- a latching solenoid uses an electrical pulse to open and close the solenoid but does not need power to keep the solenoid in either of those positions. This low power consumption makes latching solenoids well suited for battery powered applications, as they only need a pulse of power to change their open/closed state.

Life Expectancy:- Life expectancy for solenoids is dependent more on the application than on the design of the solenoid. Temperature, loads, moving positions, frequencies of operations, will all affect the total life expectancy. Typical solenoids have operating lives of 10^7 - 10^8 cycles, with certain heavy duty designs capable of 10^{12} cycles.

Magnetic Flux:- magnetic flux is a quantity of magnetic field passing through a given area.

Magnet Wire:- 100% copper wire covered with a thin insulation (with temperatures capabilities of 130°C, 180°C, 200°C or 220°C) and used in the construction of solenoid, motor and transformer coils.

Magnetic Field Intensity:- the magnetomotive force per unit length in a magnetic circuit. Its representing symbol is *H*.

Manual Override:- a mechanism used to override automated systems to manually control them.

Moulded (Encapsulated) Coil:- The coil is encapsulated in epoxy or other suitable resin.

Operation Frequency:- This is the cycle rate usually per minute or per second made up of on-time and off-time. It has a bearing on the duty cycle and life expectancy.

Peak & Hold:- a technique used to reduce the power consumption of solenoids. A higher current pulse is required to energize a solenoid than is needed to keep the solenoid in an energized position.

Permanent Magnet (PM) latching solenoid:- actuators utilizing permanent magnets in conjunction with the solenoid coil to maintain the position of the armature with no current applied. The permanent magnet generates a small magnetic flux in the magnetic circuit generating an attraction of the armature and the fixed pole piece with no power applied. When a short pulse of electrical current is applied to the coil, the resulting electromagnetic flux generated by the coil can either add to or subtract from the permanent magnet flux depending on the polarity of the applied current.

In applications where the load is acting to extend the armature away from the fixed pole, latching solenoids can maintain the extended or retracted position without consuming continuous power. In applications where there is no load to act on the armature, a spring can be used to hold the armature in the extended position. In either case, a pulse of current is applied to generate magnetic flux to add to the permanent magnet and move the armature to the fixed pole piece. When the current is removed, the armature is held in the "latched" position by the permanent magnet. Conversely, applying a reverse polarity pulse will cancel the flux of the

permanent magnet allowing the load or spring to release the armature and move to the extended position.

Plugnut:- Stationary soft magnetic stainless part, pressed in the closed end of the core tube, installed to improve the magnetic flux of the solenoid coil when energized.

Plunger or Shaft (solenoid core):- The part of the solenoid which moved by the armature, on energization of the coil. It is fitted to the armature.

Pole/Stop:- —the stationary component within the solenoid that attracts the moving armature when the coil is energized.

Pull in Time (Actuation Time):- The time it takes from switch-on to the moment a linear solenoid completes its stroke, or a rotary solenoid has moved through its rotation angle. This includes the coil excitation time. It is sometimes possible to reduce overall pull in time by over-exciting (over volting) the coil for a very short period (ms).

Pulse and Hold (Hit and Drop):- A technique for reducing the power consumption of solenoids. A larger voltage (current flow) is required to energize a solenoid than is needed to keep the solenoid in the energized position.

Residual Magnetism:- the magnetism remaining in effect in magnetic material after the electromagnetic field created by the coil in the solenoid has been removed.

Residual Magnetism (RM) latching solenoid actuators:- operate in much the same way as permanent magnet latching actuators do. While both types of latching solenoid actuators maintain the latched position without electrical power, residual magnetism actuators remain latched without the use of permanent magnets. RM latching actuators offer the same benefits as PM latching actuators by consuming no power, producing no heat and generating no electrical noise while in the latched position. RM latches utilize the inherent "residual magnetism" common to all DC actuators which has been enhanced through special internal design features to provide exceptional latching force without permanent magnets. Latching the RM actuator is accomplished by providing a short pulse of electrical current of either polarity to pull-in and "latch" the armature to the fixed pole piece. Unlatching the actuator is accomplished by applying a pulse of lower current in the opposite polarity of what was used to latch the actuator. Unlike the PM latching actuators which can be manually latched, RM latching actuators cannot be reset after de-latching without applying a pulse of electrical current.

Response Time:- This is the time lapse after energizing (or de-energizing) a solenoid armature/plunger to move from the start to finish position. Response time depends on various factors:

1. Electrical supply: ac or dc.
2. load of the solenoid.
3. Type of operation: direct or pilot operated.
4. Size of the moving parts of the solenoid mechanism.
5. Circuit in which the time is measured.

Retainer clip:- Clip anchoring the coil to the yoke.

Return Springs:- used to return the armature to the starting position once the power is removed. Rotary solenoids have scroll type return springs. Values range from 1 kg.m to 20 kg.m depending on the solenoid size. Tolerance on springs are $\pm 20\%$ of the nominal value. Return springs are used on most solenoids.

Shading Coil Ring:- typically of copper, inserted in the core-side surface of the plugnut to limit core vibration in AC-powered solenoids.

Shading Ring:- a ring of copper or silver inserted in the pole piece (the stop end) of an AC solenoid to minimize the oscillation or "hum" associated with AC solenoids.

Shaft:- In a tubular solenoid, the small diameter portion of the plunger assembly of a push-type tubular solenoid which protrudes through the base or stationary pole face and provides push capability; usually made from #303 stainless steel

Sleeving:- used to insulate the lead wires where they exit the solenoid case. Teflon is used on high temperature coils up to 200°C continuous.

Solenoid:- a solenoid is a device comprised of a coil of wire, the housing and a moveable plunger (armature). When an electrical current is introduced, a magnetic field forms around the coil which draws the plunger in. A solenoid converts electrical energy into mechanical work.

Spring Loaded Plunger:- Indicates that the solenoid has a plunger return spring. Usually a sign that the solenoid may be mounted in any position.

Solenoid Base Sub-assembly:- Assembly of core tube, plugnut, and bonnet.

Solenoid Electromagnetic:- part of a solenoid, comprised of a coil, core tube, core, and enclosure.

Solenoid Construction:- Internal parts in contact with any fluid are made of non-magnetic 300 and magnetic 400 Series stainless steel. In AC constructions, the shading coil is copper, except for solenoids in which silver is used. Generally, no shading coil is used in DC solenoids. The core tube is 300 Series stainless steel and formed by deep drawing.

Solenoid Enclosure:- Housing around the coil for electrical and mechanical protection, as well as protection against environmental hazards.

Tape Wrapped Coil:- A coil where the windings are wrapped with electrical tape as the final insulation layer.

Torque:- Torque is the power output, measured in Newton metres (Nm), of a rotary solenoid. Torque of solenoids is measured at 90% of the rated voltage and with warm windings (see "force"). A rotary solenoid has a set angle of travel, normally 25°, 35°, 45°, 65° or 95°. The highest torque is achieved at the end of the movement. The lower the duty cycle, the greater the opportunity for cooling means the coil can be wound more powerfully, thus the higher the torque for any given size solenoid.

Glossary of resolver and synchro terminology [Chapter 34]

Accuracy (Electrical Error):- Electrical angle, as indicated by the output voltage, minus the mechanical or rotor position angle.

Barcode Display:- A set of simple ON/OFF lamps that indicate the status of a digital output signal from an A/D to R/D converter.

Brushless:- Transferring energy from or to a rotor by means of a circular rotary transformer, spirally wound conductors (hairsprings), flex lead or variable reluctance.

Common Mode Rejection:- Rejection by an input device of large unwanted in-phase input noise without affecting a small out-of-phase signal.

Compensated Resolver:- A synchro with feedback windings in parallel with primary windings.

Control Synchro:- A synchro used to provide and deal with control signals in servo systems where precise angular transmission to a mechanical load is required.

Control Transformer:- A synchro with a three-phase primary winding, usually on the stator, and a one-phase secondary winding. This is a high impedance version of a torque receiver. It is excited by other synchros.

Crossover Errors:- The deviations of all the crossover points (sine output voltage passing from negative to positive) from a master electrical zero of a multispeed synchro or resolver.

Differential:- A synchro with a three-phase primary winding and a three-phase secondary winding. This is an analogue form of mechanical differential.

Differential Resolver:- A hybrid synchro with a three phase rotor winding and a two-phase stator winding. The reverse of a transolver. Can be used bidirectional as a transmitter or control transformer.

Electrical Error:- See Accuracy.

Electrical Zero (EZ):- The rotor angle at which the sine output voltage is at an in-phase null.

End Play:- Total axial motion of the shaft when a specified reversing load is applied along the shaft axis

Excitation:- The RMS voltage and frequency which excites the primary winding.

EZ Coincidence:- The mechanical angle between the fine and course speed electrical zeros of a multispeed unit.

Function Error:- The difference between the in-phase component of one secondary winding voltage and the theoretical value of the secondary voltage. This is expressed as a percentage of the maximum in-phase component of the secondary voltage.

Hairspring:- A spirally wound conductor, used for limited rotation, to transfer energy to or from the rotor. Can be used up to $\pm 165^\circ$.

Input Current:- The current, in amps, flowing through a primary winding when excited at rated voltage and frequency.

Interaxis Error:- The angular deviation of the null positions for all rotor and stator combinations at rotor positions of 90°, 180°, and 270°.

Impedances:-

Z_{po} Primary (rotor) impedance, secondary (stator) open circuit

Z_{ps}: Primary (rotor) impedance, secondary (stator) short circuit, at rated frequency and with a voltage applied to produce the same input current as for Z_{po}.

Z_{so}: Secondary (stator) impedance, primary (rotor) open circuit

Z_{ss}: Secondary (stator) impedance, primary (rotor) short circuit, with rated frequency applied and a voltage applied to produce the same current as for Z_{so}.

Z_{co}: Compensator impedance, secondary(stator) open circuit

Z_{cs}: Compensator impedance, secondary(stator) short circuit

Linear Transformer:- A synchro with one-phase primary and one-phase secondary. Generated output voltage at any given rotor angle within the rated excursion is directly proportional to that angle.

Master EZ:- The multispeed electrical zero closest to the single speed electrical zero.

Mechanical Zero:- The angle at which the rotor and stator are mechanically aligned by markings, pins, slots, etc., usually close to the electrical zero.

Multiple Speed:- A synchro with a coarse and a fine speed winding in the same lamination stack, usually referred to as a multispeed.

Multispeed:- A synchro that produces for one mechanical revolution of the rotor 'N' sine and 'N' cosine waves at the output windings. 'N' is the speed. There are two poles per speed. The name can apply to resolvers or synchros and is commonly used for multiple speed.

Null Voltage:- The residual voltage remaining when the in-phase component is zero. The total null voltage is the sum of the quadrature fundamental null voltage plus the harmonics.

Output Voltage:- The no load voltage at the secondary windings at maximum coupling with rated voltage and frequency applied to the primary winding.

Pancake:- A name given to synchros and resolvers which are flat in appearance. The term is derived from the physical dimensions of these units which typically have a diameter that exceeds the axial length.

Phase Demodulation:- A technique for detecting signals with a large degree of rejection of frequencies outside the single band.

Phase Shift:- The difference between the time phases of the primary and secondary voltages when the output is at maximum coupling.

Primary Winding:- The (rotor) winding which receives power from another component or a power supply.

Radial Play:- Shaft total radial movement, on its own bearings, measured on the shaft at a specified distance from the housing when a specified reversing load is applied radially to the shaft.

R/D Converter:- Resolver to digital converter. This type of device is used to convert the analogue output of a resolver to a digital signal.

Receiver:- A synchro with a line excited rotor within a three-phase stator connected to the corresponding stator leads of a driving torque transmitter.

Resolver:- A synchro with a one-or two-phase primary and a two-phase secondary that creates or receives sine-cosine signals.

RX:- A resolver transmitter.

Scott-T Transformer:- A bilateral transformer device that converts synchro format signals into resolver signals and vice versa; it consists of two interconnected transformers with mathematically related turns ratios.

Secondary Winding:- An output (stator) winding which is inductively coupled to a primary winding.

Sensitivity:- The output voltage at one mechanical degree. Is defined as the maximum output voltage times the sine of 1° degree, and is expressed in mV/deg.

Synchros:- Rotating, transducing devices of various types, used to convert shaft angle position to electrical signals or the reverse. This term generally refers to three-phase devices.

Tangent Errors:- Electrical error (accuracy) of each individual cycle of a multispeed synchro or resolver.

Torque Synchro:- A synchro that transmits or receives angular information while supplying a small amount of motive power.

Transformation Ratio:- The ratio of output voltage to input voltage, usually referred to as TR.

Transmitter:- A synchro with one input phase and three output phases electrically 120° apart. Transmits signals to a receiver proportional to rotor position.

Transolver:- A hybrid synchro with a three-phase stator and a two-phase rotor. Can be used in either direction as a control transmitter or a control transformer.

Variable Reluctance Unit:- A brushless synchro or resolver in which both the input and the output windings are on the stator (the outer element), with none on the rotor. Will always be multispeeds since single speeds are impractical.

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Physical Constants

Angstrom	Å	$10^{-10} \text{ m} = 10^{-1} \text{ nm} = 10^{-4} \mu\text{m}$	
Avogadro's number	N	6.022×10^{23}	atom per mole /mol
Bohr radius	a_0	0.529177 52.9177	Angstrom pm
Boltzmann's constant	k	1.38×10^{-23}	Joule per Kelvin J/K
Electronic charge, eV	q	1.602×10^{-19}	Coulomb C
Free electron rest mass	m_e	9.11×10^{-31}	kilogram kg
Acceleration – gravity	g	9.80665	m/s^2
Permeability of free space	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7}$	Henry per metre H/m
Permittivity of free space	ϵ_0	8.854×10^{-12}	Farad per metre $1/\mu_0 \text{ c}^2$
Planck's constant	h	6.626×10^{-34}	Joule second J s
Proton rest mass	M_p	1.67×10^{-27}	kilogram kg
Speed of light in vacuum	c	2.998×10^8	metre per second m/s
Standard Atmospheric Pressure		$1.01325 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$	Pa or N/m^2
Stefan-Boltzmann constant	σ	5.671	$\text{W}/(\text{m}^2\text{K}^4)$
Thermal voltage @ 300K	V_t	0.02586	kT/q V
Wavelength of 1 eV quantum	λ	1.23977 μm	μm

Silicon Material parameters

Bandgap @ 300K	E_g	1.12	eV
Breakdown field	E_{br}	3×10^7	V/m
Density	ρ	2.33	g/cm^3
Intrinsic concentration @ 300K	n_i	1.0×10^{10}	cm^{-3}
Electron affinity	X	4.05	V
Mobility @ 300K	μ_n	1400	$\text{cm}^2/\text{V-s}$
	μ_p	450	
			electrons holes
Relative dielectric constant	ϵ_s/ϵ_0	11.9	
Thermal conductivity @ 300K	χ	1.5	W/cmK

Metal	resistivity @ 20°C ρ $\mu\Omega \text{ m}$	temperature co-efficient /K
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Copper	0.01724	0.0039
Silver	0.0159	0.0041
Aluminium	0.0280	0.0043
Nichrome	1.080	0.0001
Tin	0.120	0.00046
Tantalum	0.1245	0.0038
Tungsten	0.0565	0.0045

Brass	0.062 – 0.078
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Derived electromagnetic units

Energy	joule	J	$\text{kg m}^2/\text{s}^2$
Charge	coulomb	C	A s
Voltage	volt	V	$\text{J/C} = \text{kg m}^2/(\text{A s}^3)$
Magnetic flux	weber	Wb	$\text{V s} = \text{kg m}^2/(\text{A s}^2)$
Magnetic flux density	tesla	T	$\text{V s/m}^2 = \text{kg}/(\text{A s}^2)$
Magnetic field intensity	amp-turn/metre	A/m	A/m
Resistance	ohm	Ω	$\text{V/A} = \text{kg m}^2/(\text{A}^2 \text{ s}^3)$
Inductance	henry	H	$\text{Vs/A} = \text{kg m}^2/(\text{A}^2 \text{ s}^2)$
Capacitance	farad	F	$\text{C/V} = \text{A}^2 \text{ s}^4/(\text{kg m}^2)$
Power	watt	W	$\text{VA} = \text{J/s} = \text{kg m}^2/\text{s}^3$

INDEX

100% recovery 339
 10-hour capacities 1041
 120° conduction 712
 12-current blocks per cycle 899
 12-pulse bipolar converter 894, 915
 12-pulse converter 901, 902, 976
 12-pulse hvdc transmission 915
 12-pulse monopole converter 894
 12-pulse system 913
 12-pulse transformer/converter 897
 180° conduction 709
 18-pulse characteristics 910
 18-pulse converter 910
 24-hour discharge 1050
 2nd quadrant demagnetisation characteristics 1319
 3rd harmonic injection 922
 4% silicon iron 1302
 50/60Hz line frequency 775
 50/60Hz machine 731
 6-hour rated capacity 1044
 6-pulse converter 901, 902, 913
 6-pulse monopole 894
 8-hour capacities 1041
 8-hour rated capacity 1044

a-b-c coordinates 935, 937
 abnormal charge 1064
 abnormal heating 1096
 abnormal load 1388
 abnormal switching conditions 1371
 above resonance 760
 abrasive cut 1205
 abrupt junction 57, 58, 64
 absolute body temperature 1225
 absolute temperature 22, 133, 1013, 1071, 1098, 1300
 absolute temperature cut-off 1083
 absolute viscosity 185
 absolute voltage limit 108
 absorb heat 1018
 absorb light 1034
 absorb light energy 1030
 absorbed electrolyte batteries 1067
 absorbed electrolyte cell 1049
 absorbed energy rating 408
 absorbed glass mat batteries 1066
 absorbed glass matt cell 1053
 absorbed layers 1356
 absorbed light 1034, 1040
 absorbed photon 1024
 absorbed reactive powers 940
 absorbent glass mat 1048
 absorbent glass mat separator 1048
 absorbing heat 1119
 absorbing material 1034
 absorbing reactive power 942
 absorbing VA terminal end 933
 absorptivity 1026, 1031, 1032, 1064
 ac application 374, 377, 406, 1192, 1359
 ac arc naturally extinguished 1369
 ac back emf + reactive load 581
 ac back emf + resistive load 581
 ac back emf 577, 581
 ac breakers 978
 ac bus 895
 ac capacitor elements 1190
 ac chopper - ac back emf + inductive load 576
 ac chopper - ac back emf + resistive load 576
 ac chopper regulator 600
 ac choppers 600, 958
 ac circuit fuse link derating 389
 ac circuit fuse link design 386
 ac circuit fuse link design I^2t surges 388
 ac circuit operational mechanisms 331
 ac circuit theory 354
 ac circuits 370
 ac circulating current 749
 ac component 460, 476, 716, 968
 ac component harmonic magnitudes 520
 ac conductors current 1246
 ac contactor 1393
 ac control versions 589
 ac controller load 577
 ac controller thyristor electrical ratings 612
 ac controllers dc side - rectified generator output 410
 ac copper winding loss 1243
 ac copper winding loss component 1243
 ac coupling capacitor 814
 ac crowbar 417
 ac current 428, 642, 1186, 1270
 ac current distortion compensation 967
 ac current interruption 1404
 ac cycle half period 440
 ac disturbances 908
 ac electrical power systems 893
 ac equivalent circuit 798, 859
 ac equivalent series resistance 1106
 ac faults 921
 ac filter 751, 895, 917, 918, 921
 ac frequency 488
 ac frequency derating factor 1379
 ac grid 976
 ac grid protection 376
 ac half cycle 441, 465
 ac harmonic filtering circuitry 896
 ac harmonic filters 913
 ac harmonics 503, 924
 ac input 750
 ac input cycle 494
 ac input voltage 487
 ac input voltage magnitude 541
 ac interconnection 917
 ac interruption 1404
 ac line 961, 976
 ac line current 466
 ac line current harmonics 898
 ac line inductors 1236
 ac line reactance 927
 ac line voltage 587, 965
 ac load 567

ac load current 428, 440
 ac load frequency 1165
 ac losses 1305
 ac mains 581, 588, 642
 ac mains failure 750
 ac mains half-a-cycle 289
 ac mains input 775
 ac mains phase synchronisation 751
 ac mains rectified 863
 ac mains supply 575
 ac mains voltage filter 421
 ac mains zero crossing switching 260
 ac microgrid architectural structure 982
 ac mmf 474
 ac motor torque pulsations 582
 ac motors 695
 ac network 909, 913, 973
 ac network faults 927
 ac network voltage 920
 ac output 806
 ac output impedance 789
 ac output shunt capacitance 959
 ac output solid-state relay 567, 587, 588
 ac output SSR 593
 ac output voltage 459, 636
 ac phase inductors 917
 ac phase-controlled thyristor bridge 713
 ac phasor 918
 ac power 457, 695, 981
 ac power applications 1398
 ac power line voltage 1192
 ac power supply voltage 616
 ac power supply frequency 616
 ac power transmission 919
 ac rated contactors 1404
 ac rectifier input 351
 ac rectifiers 427
 ac regulator categories 567
 ac regulator thyristors 568
 ac regulators 639
 ac relay coils 1362
 ac relay core 1362
 ac relays 1365
 ac resistance 1106
 ac resonant cycle 866
 ac resonant oscillation 884
 ac ripple voltage 653, 656
 ac shunt filter 920
 ac side 350, 984
 ac side conducted EMC 913
 ac side current harmonics 976
 ac side filtering 913
 ac side power 918
 ac side tap changers 907
 ac side voltage taps 913
 ac signals superimposed on dc currents 1274
 ac skin effect 927, 1289
 ac solid-state relay 592
 ac source current 450
 ac source energy 503
 ac source impedance 544
 ac square wave 850
 ac square-wave voltage 850
 ac step-down chopper 598
 ac sub-harmonic component 585
 ac supply 427, 515, 543, 577, 588, 598, 645, 942
 ac supply current 643
 ac supply current harmonics 427
 ac supply current reversal 645
 ac supply cycles 437
 ac supply harmonics 503
 ac supply level 435

ac supply magnitude 750
 ac supply negative peak 436
 ac supply neutral 461
 ac supply reference 577
 ac supply short interruption 750
 ac supply source 747
 ac supply voltage 448, 583, 965
 ac supply voltage reversal 427, 503
 ac switch combinations 622
 ac switch gear 978
 ac system 901, 974
 ac system availability 931
 ac system faults stable recovery from faults 909
 ac system reliability 931
 ac system security 931
 ac system stability 931
 ac system three-phase symmetrical short circuit level 895
 ac system voltage 920
 ac terminating stations 928
 ac to ac conversion 636
 ac to ac converters 260, 348, 750
 ac to dc conversion circuits 486
 ac to dc tap changer 597
 ac transmission 977
 ac transmission circuit 909
 ac transmission line 946, 947, 954
 ac transmission system 893, 909
 ac transmission versus dc transmission 978
 ac voltage 624, 924, 1178, 1184, 1187
 ac voltage capability 1178
 ac voltage controllers 958
 ac voltage derating 1186
 ac voltage limitations 1174
 ac voltage notching 548
 ac voltage phasor 918
 ac voltage rating 1184, 1187
 ac voltage regulation 908
 ac voltage regulator – chopper - commutable switches 599
 ac voltage regulator - tapped transformer + rectifier + resistive load 596
 ac voltage regulator 567, 579, 601
 ac voltage regulator - tapped transformer 595
 ac voltage supply 452, 427
 ac voltage supply input 427, 503
 ac voltage sag 909
 ac/dc current interruption 1404
 accelerate corrosion 1053
 accelerated life testing 191
 accelerated MTBF factors 1197
 accelerated service life 109
 accelerated test 1187
 acceleration factors 1166, 1197
 accept electrons 1036
 acceptor 1
 acceptors 58
 accidental electrocution 1405
 accumulate heat 228
 accumulation region 86
 accumulative series connection 1276
 accumulative toxic heavy metal 1032
 accuracy 1274
 ac-dc converter generalised equations 494, 554
 ac-dc-ac back to back converter 737
 ac-dc-ac conversion equipment 928
 ac-fed smps 775
 acid concentration 1098
 acid density 1062
 acid diffusion rate 1062
 acid electrolyte 992, 996, 997, 1070
 acidic electrolyte aggressiveness 1175
 acidic electrolyte fuel cell chemistry 997
 acidic electrolytic fuel cell 997

acid-starved 1049, 1066
 acid-starved condition 1066
 acoustic noise 181
 acoustical noise 625
 activated carbon 1011
 activated carbon electrode material 1114
 activated carbon electrodes 1102
 activated carbon filters 1009
 activated carbon layer 1103
 activated polypyrrole 1102
 activation energy 22, 1197
 activation losses 1012
 activation over-potential 1012
 active + passive combination filtering 976
 active balancing circuit 1111
 active catalyst 992
 active cell balancing 1111
 active cell chemicals 1038
 active charging-current diversion circuit 1111
 active chemicals 1037, 1038
 active cooling 1109
 active damping 977
 active energy recovery 332
 active energy recovery circuits 342
 active energy recovery - series connected devices 347
 active filter 959, 962, 964, 968, 976
 active filter ac-side 968
 active harmonic filters 932
 active heat load 133
 active heat pumps 1120
 active inductive turn-on snubber energy recovery circuit 341
 active integrator 1272
 active integrator operation 1271
 active inverter 959
 active load 756, 758
 active losses 222
 active material 1035-1037, 1044, 1047, 1064, 1075, 1086
 active material depletion 1050, 1061, 1081
 active material loss 1069
 active material retention 1049
 active material shedding 1069
 active metal brazing 238, 239
 active output voltage state 739
 active paste filling 1046
 active platinum catalyst 1001
 active power 539, 759, 901, 902, 927, 959, 971, 973
 active power components 919
 active power control 921
 active power definition 921
 active power filtering 939, 970
 active power flow 919, 961, 970
 active power independent control 920
 active power phasor diagram 919
 active power source 961
 active power transfer 758, 920, 956, 961
 active recovery 326, 340, 353
 active recovery circuit 323, 342
 active recovery into dc supply 340, 342
 active recovery switches 353
 active shunt compensation 966, 968
 active shunt filter 967
 active shunt regulator 964
 active snubber 287, 353
 active surface area 1087
 active switching device 1111
 active tubs 34
 active turn-off snubber 333
 active turn-off snubber energy recovery 333, 345
 active turn-off soft snubber energy recovery 353
 active turn-on and turn-off snubber energy recovery 349
 active turn-on snubber energy recovery 341, 348
 active turn-on snubber inductor energy recovery 326

active vectors 746
 active voltage balancing 1112
 active voltage management methodology 1111
 active volume 1217
 activity coefficient 1098
 actual s/c current 499
 actual system airflow estimate 183
 actuator lever 1374
 actuator pivot 1355
 actuator types 1404
 adaptive VAr compensators 932
 additive external electro-magnetic fields 1281
 additive series connection 1276
 additively connected 1276
 adhesion 14, 34, 41
 adhesive coatings 15
 adiabatic condition 1217
 adiabatic trip event 396
 adiabatic tube section 199
 adjacent parts 1281
 adjacent states 727
 adjustable dc output voltage 645
 adsorbents 1009
 aerodynamic flow 180
 aerodynamic stall 180
 aerospace industry 1391
 affinity laws 184
 ageing 415, 1088, 1094, 1318
 ageing process 1095
 ageing compensation factor 1076
 ageing treatments 1306
 age-related degenerative effects 1094
 AGM - GEL battery comparison 1069
 AGM batteries 1057, 1064, 1065, 1067
 AGM cell 1054
 AGM layer 1048
 Ahr rating 1052, 1073
 air arcs 1388
 air breakdown gradient 1406
 air bubbles 1407
 air coil 921, 1274
 air conditioners 1134
 air core inductor 310, 311, 312, 1252, 1283
 air core inductor design 1255
 air core strip wound inductor 1282
 air coupling 1266
 air density 144, 182, 185, 188
 air exposed relays 1387
 air flow velocity 385
 air gap 1235, 1241, 1249-1253, 1315-1329, 1341, 1345
 air gap area 1325
 air gap energy 1346, 1347
 air gap flux 1270
 air gap flux density 1317, 1325
 air gap force 1348
 air gap force of attraction 1348
 air gap length 1321, 1325, 1329, 1331
 air gap requirements 1251
 air gap volume 1234, 1325, 1326
 air gap volume stored energy 1234
 air insulating properties 1405
 air mass 1040
 air pressure 1211
 air space 1262
 air temperature differential 182
 air volume delivered 186
 air-cooling 214
 air-cored inductor 1257
 air-cored toroidal coil 1271
 aircraft 1370
 airflow 173, 396, 1108, 1363
 airflow estimation 182

airflow high flow forced convection 168
 airflow low flow mixed 168
 airflow natural 168
 airflow quality constant 183
 airflow rate 183
 air-oxide layer 1171
 align 24
 aligners 25
 alignment direction 1308
 alkali electrolyte 992
 alkali metal-ion cell 1039
 alkali metal-ions 1040
 alkali solution 1001
 alkaline batteries 1070
 alkaline cell 1038
 alkaline electrolyser 1008
 alkaline electrolyte 996
 alkaline electrolyte fuel cell chemistry 998
 alkaline fuel cell 999, 1001
 alkaline half-cell reactions 1038
 alkaline manganese battery 1135
 all-organic PV cells 1048
 allotted area 1262
 allowable core loss 1264
 allowable core temperature 1238
 allowable element voltage 1211
 allowable flux swings 1245
 allowable limits 1218
 allowable operating temperature 1112
 allowable power dissipated 1214
 allowable ripple current 1173, 1174
 allowable short-duration 1217
 allowable square power pulse 1218
 allowable temperature extremes 1179
 allowable temperature rise 1223, 1259, 1262, 1265
 allowable temperature rise limit 1265
 allowable voltage bounds 1211
 allowable voltage stress 1203
 allowable working voltage 1225
 alloy catalysts 995
 alloy cores 1236
 alloy grains 1303
 alloy hydrides 1011
 alloy metals 1079
 alloy powder cores 1253
 alloy powder 1236
 alloying 4, 42
 alloying, diffusion 3
 alloys 1305
 Atnico hard magnet material 1305
 Atnico magnets 1302
 alphanumeric data identification stamp 1204
 alternately clamped 725
 alternating component 473
 alternating current 476
 alternating current diode 414
 alternating current maximum rms 1172
 alternating current measurement 1271
 alternating cycle-by-cycle 827
 alternating line currents 478
 alternating magnetic field 1271
 alternating mmf 475
 alternating mmf component 480
 alternating primary current 466, 478
 alternating sinusoidal voltages 494, 554
 alternating zero voltage current loops 683
 alternating zero voltage loop concept 721
 alternating zero voltage loops 698
 alternative current paths 735
 alternative energy source energy properties 990
 alternative energy sources 1035
 alternative energy sources methods 989

alternative energy storage methods 989
 alternative storage techniques 991
 altitude 143
 altitude correction coefficient 1405
 altitude derated 629
 altitude derating 1405
 altitude effects 187
 alumina substrate 1206
 alumina tube 1207
 aluminium anode surface area 1169
 aluminium electrolyte 1171
 aluminium electrolytic capacitor 1101, 1162, 1170, 1175, 1200
 aluminium electrolytic capacitor stress conversion factors 1166
 aluminium foils 1178
 aluminium nitride 144
 aluminium oxide 144
 aluminium oxide and aluminium nitride comparison 231
 aluminium oxide capacitors 1172
 aluminium oxide ceramic substrate 590
 aluminium oxide electrolytic capacitor 1174
 aluminium oxide liquid capacitor service life 1175
 aluminium oxide liquid capacitor service life 1175
 aluminium prismatic case 1088
 aluminium wire 44
 aluminium-clad resistor 1207, 1215
 aluminium-clad wire-wound resistor 1216
 aluminium-housed power wire-wound resistor 1207
 AMB 145, 238, 239
 ambient 1265
 ambient air 1363
 ambient air temperature 1214
 ambient conditions 1074
 ambient environment 222
 ambient humidity variation 1180
 ambient irradiance 1037
 ambient self-heated condition 1228
 ambient temperature 142, 384-407, 629, 1019, 1045, 1062, 1093, 1108-1128, 1166, 1167, 1171-1176, 1182, 1184, 1214-1221, 1228, 1259-1265, 1362, 1392
 ambient temperature correction coefficient 388
 ambient temperature range 401, 1213
 amorphous 9, 13, 47
 amorphous alloys 1311
 amorphous cells 50
 amorphous magnetic metal 1236
 amorphous material 12, 1311, 1237
 amorphous matrix 1311
 amorphous polymers 51
 amorphous ribbons 1309
 amorphous silicon 50, 1025, 1029, 1035, 1050
 amorphous silicon alloys 1032
 amorphous silicon cells 1032, 1036
 amorphous silicon multi-junction p-i-n PV cell 1036
 amorphous silicon multi-junctions 1036
 amorphous silicon p-i-n cell 1029
 amorphous silicon PV cells 1028, 1049
 amorphous silicon thin-film cells 1035
 amorphous state 1236
 amorphous structure 1114
 amorphous wires 1311
 ampacities - rectangular copper busbars 237
 ampcapacity 238
 Ampère turn imbalance 421
 Ampère turns bias 1340
 Ampère turns demagnetising bias 1341
 Ampère-hour rating 1087, 1138
 Ampère's current law 1233, 1249
 Ampère-hour capacity 1074
 Ampère-hour 1041, 1073, 1085, 1137
 Ampère-hour discharged 1052
 Ampère-hours per positive plate 1057
 Ampère's law 1272, 1331, 1325, 1401

Ampère-turns 912, 1363, 1364, 1366, 1367, 1369
 Ampère-turns balance 1266
 Ampère-turns relay coil current 1365
 Ampère-turns transformer action 862
 amplifier saturation 787
 amplitude modulation 736
 amplitude - output harmonics 555
 amplitude permeability 1239, 1241
 amplitude permeability temperature dependence 1240
 ancillary supplies 913
 angular velocity 24
 anion 996, 998, 1036
 anion conducting cell 993
 anion conduction 993
 anion migration 995
 anisotropic 29, 1305, 1312
 anisotropic columnar 1305
 anisotropic etching 27, 31
 anisotropic form 1308, 1314
 anisotropic hard magnetic material 1305, 1306
 anisotropic magnet 1311, 1349
 anisotropic magnetic properties 1306
 anisotropic materials 1315
 anisotropic orientated polycrystalline 222
 anisotropic orientated polycrystalline bismuth telluride 1119
 anisotropic properties 1311
 anisotropic structure ferrites 1311
 anisotropic wet etching 34
 anisotropy 31
 anisotropy constant strain dependence 1302
 anisotropy field 1301
 annealing 3, 12, 13, 38, 42, 50, 51, 1029, 1236
 anode 92, 991-994, 999, 1005, 1036, 1037, 1085
 anode carbon sheet 999
 anode catalyst 1002
 anode current 128, 291
 anode double layer capacitances 1103
 anode electrode 1037
 anode electrode passivation 1075
 anode forward blocking *I-V* characteristics 362
 anode fuel 1008
 anode fuel crossover 1012
 anode fuel impurities 1007
 anode graphite 1040
 anode half-cell reaction 1001
 anode initial *di/dt* 297
 anode passivation interface layer 1087
 anode potential 544
 anode reaction 999, 1002, 1135
 anode reaction rate 1012
 anode terminal 1170
 anode theoretical gravimetric capacity 1085
 anode voltage turn-off 130
 anode-collector turn-off waveforms 297
 anode-side fuel alternatives 1007
 anode-side fuel cases 1004
 anode-side fuel cells 1007
 anode-side fuels 1007
 anodic process 1037
 anodically generated layer 1171
 anodised aluminium housing 1207
 anodised black 143
 anodized 168
 antiferromagnetic material 1292, 1300
 antiferromagnetism 1298, 1300
 antiferromagnetism pure elements 1297
 antifreeze 193
 anti-islanding capability 981
 anti-islanding conditions 983
 anti-parallel alignment 1300, 1301
 anti-parallel conducted diode 261, 353
 anti-parallel connected phase control thyristors 948

anti-parallel diode 260, 575, 870, 872, 880, 883
 anti-parallel fast recovery diodes 766
 anti-parallel freewheel diodes 857
 anti-phase current harmonics 973
 anti-phase current injection 964
 anti-phase voltage 968
 anti-phase voltage harmonics 973
 anti-phased sinusoidal voltages 861
 anti-reflection coating 1027, 1030, 1032, 1040, 1050
 anti-tracking epoxy resin coating 1206
 apparent ac resistance 457, 1281
 apparent emissivity 143
 apparent load impedance 779
 apparent load resistance 781-785, 831
 apparent permeability 1241
 apparent power 465, 467, 473, 496, 539, 541, 571, 640
 apparent supply power 430, 540
 apparent transmission line length 947
 application life requirements 1109
 application operational voltage 401
 applied capacitor voltage 1181
 applied changing field 1299
 applied *dv/dt* 95
 applied electric field 1190
 applied field 1190, 1299, 1307, 1310, 1321, 1328, 1332, 1346
 applied field intensity 1321
 applied field strength 1239
 applied field strength magnitude 1239
 applied magnetic field 1291, 1292, 1299, 1302
 applied reverse electric field 1190
 applied voltage 384, 395, 407, 1109, 1189, 1368
 APR 202
 aqueous acid 1011
 aqueous alkaline solution 24, 1001, 1008
 aqueous electrolytes 1039, 1103
 arc blow out 1388
 arc chutes 1369
 arc control mechanical structure 1399
 arc destruction 1359
 arc diffusion 1399
 arc discharge mode 412
 arc divider 1375
 arc duration 1369
 arc energy 380, 1399, 1404
 arc erosion 1357
 arc erosion resistance 1358
 arc extinction 1399
 arc extinction rapid recovery 1399
 arc furnaces 1404
 arc ionized material 1387
 arc management 1391
 arc path lengthen 1369
 arc quenching 1361, 1382
 arc region 411
 arc self-extinguish 1168
 arc chute 1375
 arc suppression 400, 1359, 1369
 arc voltage 1402
 arc voltage mode 411
 arcing burn off 1359
 arcing characteristics 380
 arcing current 1361
 arcing erosion 1399
 arcing i^2t 383
 arcing process 383
 arcing time 380
 arcing voltage 1361
 arcing voltage maximum 391
 arc PVD 18
 area effect 1169
 area - heat-sink 140
 area swept 1348

argon 51
 armature 1368
 armature blade 1391
 armature motion 1360, 1365
 armature movement 1361, 1362
 armature rebound 1361
 armature resistance 429, 668
 armature seal 1362
 aromatic based membranes 1019
 array parallel PV cell connection 1042
 array series PV cell connection 1042
 arrays 1036
 Arrhenius' equation 22
 Arrhenius' law 1166
 as-cast ingot 1308
 ASCR 96
 ashing step 35
 a-spots 1356
 assembled unit 1198
 asymmetrical bridge 771
 asymmetrical bridge conducting devices 761
 asymmetrical charging rates 1114
 asymmetrical converter firing 898
 asymmetrical currents 419
 asymmetrical discharging rates 1114
 asymmetrical firing 902
 asymmetrical half bridge converter 808
 asymmetrical half H-bridge 676, 680
 asymmetrical half H-bridge chopper 676
 asymmetrical half H-bridge dc-dc chopper 681
 asymmetrical *I-V* characteristics 404
 asymmetrical modulation 723, 724, 725
 asymmetrical phase control alignment 928
 asymmetrical SCR 96
 asymmetrical silicon-controlled rectifier 96
 asymmetrical half H-bridge dc chopper 681
 asynchronous ac systems 895
 asynchronous carrier 722
 asynchronous machine 617
 asynchronous modulation 722
 asynchronous motors 1278
 asynchronous carrier natural sampling 722
 atmosphere gas pressure 1012
 atmospheres of pressure 20
 atmospheric boiling point 193
 atmospheric hydrocarbons 1370
 atmospheric oxygen ingress 1047
 atmospheric pressure 989
 atmospheric temperature 989
 atomic dipole moment 1301
 atomic dipoles 1300
 atomic dipoles parallel aligned 1300
 atomic magnetic moments 1291, 1299, 1300
 atomic magnets 1292
 atomic-level gaps 50
 atoms vaporize 1031
 attraction force 1317, 1348, 1392
 audible buzz 1362
 audio frequencies 1194
 austenitic stainless steels 1292, 1293
 auto transformer input 1276
 auto-ignition temperature 193
 automatic re-seal 1049
 automatic reset 399
 automatic resettability 392, 402
 automatic winding machines 1259
 automatic reset protection 378
 automotive application 1040, 1047
 automotive batteries 1066
 automotive electronics applications 1002
 automotive starter batteries 1053
 auto-sequential thyristor commutation 733

auto-transformer 595, 619, 826, 913, 962, 965, 1275, 1278
 auto-transformer action 797
 auto-transformer connection 1275
 auto-transformer connection diagram 1275
 auto-transformer diagram 1276
 auto-transformer efficiency 1277
 auto-transformer equivalent circuit 1277
 auto-transformer impedance transferred 1278
 auto-transformer induction motor starter 620
 auto-transformer iron area 1277
 auto-transformer losses 1277
 auto-transformer output side reactance 1277
 auto-transformer output side resistance 1277
 auto-transformer primary circuits 1276
 auto-transformer secondary circuits 1276
 auto-transformer short circuit voltage 1278
 auto-transformer starting 619
 auto transformer tap 600
 auto-transformer total copper quantity 1277
 auto-transformer VA capability 1276
 auto-transformer variac 806
 auto-transformer voltage matching 928, 978
 auxiliary ac-dc converter 350
 auxiliary commutation circuit 260
 auxiliary contacts 1405
 auxiliary functionality 925
 auxiliary output 805
 auxiliary quadrupolar 1401
 auxiliary stress diverting circuits 260
 auxiliary supply 480
 auxiliary switches 742
 auxiliary thyristor 735
 available winding area 1262
 avalanche breakdown 52, 60, 79
 avalanche breakdown voltage 67, 71
 avalanche break-over 590
 avalanche diodes 404
 avalanche junction area 405
 avalanche multiplication 73, 94, 95
 avalanche multiplication breakdown 113
 avalanche multiplication factor 113
 avalanche multiplication mechanism 79
 avalanche rated 392
 avalanche voltage 60, 61
 average battery voltage 1094
 average capacitor charge 813
 average capacitor current 444, 450, 783, 785
 average capacitor voltage 870
 average cell voltage 1111
 average chopper output voltage 687
 average conduction power loss 157
 average current 386, 445, 453, 786, 786, 1105
 average current rating 417, 506, 771
 average dc input current 771
 average dc machine current 667
 average dc machine output current 668
 average dc output current 427
 average dc output voltage 427
 average dc voltage source current 696, 697
 average devices currents 506
 average diode current 257, 435, 437, 608-610, 651-656, 662-668, 672, 674, 696, 782, 874, 878
 average discharge depth 1044, 1047
 average freewheel diode current 438, 518
 average grain size 1308
 average half cycle supply current 506
 average half-cycle freewheeling current 505
 average half-cycle load voltage 601
 average half-cycle supply current 505
 average half-wave load voltage 601, 602, 608-610
 average hazard rate 190
 average impulse let-through voltage 413

average inductor current 444, 777, 786, 791-799, 804, 805
 average inductor voltage 443 447, 602, 773, 785
 average input current 438, 575, 651, 654, 782, 801, 811, 864
 average junction power dissipation 163
 average junction temperature 144, 155, 162
 average junction to case temperature 155
 average junction to case temperature rise 151
 average line-side currents 473
 average load current 248, 257, 435, 439, 450, 507, 513, 516, 534, 574, 580, 656-662, 675, 782, 811
 average load power 642, 746, 747
 average load voltage 248, 439, 460, 507, 513, 523, 527, 642, 647, 773
 average machine output current 668
 average magnetising current 826
 average magnetising flux 826
 average motor speed 277
 average neutral current 605, 606
 average output capacitor current 803
 average output current 438, 446, 458, 459, 508, 514-522, 528, 535, 543, 575, 651, 654, 663-668, 671, 675, 688-691, 777, 780, 811, 881
 average output power 472
 average output voltage 433, 438, 444, 445, 451, 457-467, 481, 483, 508-514, 522-528, 533-537, 555, 574, 575, 631, 656, 669, 670, 678-680, 684-691
 average output voltage polarity 687
 average output voltages 655
 average power dissipated 1217-1219, 135, 136, 146, 155, 156
 average power flow 671
 average power loss 247
 average primary current 463, 864
 average pulse repetition time 1218
 average reactive power flow 933
 average rectifier diode current 438
 average resistor voltage 443
 average reverse voltage 879
 average semiconductor device currents 696
 average source current 669
 average supply current 580, 656, 657
 average switch current 651, 656-666, 672, 674, 771, 783
 average temperature difference 172
 average thyristor current 518, 519, 571-575, 580-582, 602-604, 608-610, 696-699
 average turn length 1260
 average VA 465
 average value 493
 average voltage 728, 729, 1086
 Avogadro's number 1013
 axial cylindrical resistors 1204
 axial fan - propeller 174
 axial fan - tube-axial 174
 axial fan - vane-axial 174
 axial fan 174, 180, 181, 192
 axial fan applications 175
 axial fan characteristics 175
 axial fan designs 175
 axial fan performance 176
 axial heat flux 205
 axial heat transport limits 203
 axial magnetic field 1400, 1402
 axial magnetic flux density 1401
 axial magnetic force 1399
 axial power rating 201, 202
 axial resistance 204
 axial vapour flow 204
 Ayrton-Perry wound wire elements 1207
 azimuthal direction 1401
 azimuthal electromagnetic force 1402

B versus *H* curve 1315, 1316

B versus *H* magnetization characteristic 1315
 back electrical contact 1032
 back emf 278, 441-445, 514, 452, 503, 650-676, 690-692
 back emf feedback circuits 276
 back emf magnitude 507, 514
 back emf source 664, 666
 back emf voltage 276
 back emf waveforms 278
 back fill gasses 1391
 back side metallization 43
 back to back inverter dc link voltage 971
 back to back parallel connected thyristors 629
 back-emf component 646
 back-filled 1388
 background concentration 12
 background doping 7
 background doping level 13
 backing layers 1000
 back-lapping 43
 back-scattering 27
 backstop design 1361
 back-to-back conductors 1281
 back-to-back configuration 895
 back-to-back connected phase control thyristors 948
 back-to-back connected thyristors 942
 back-to-back converters 928, 970
 back-to-back hvdc converter configuration 896
 back-to-back SCR ac normally-off output stage 588
 back-to-back SCRs 587-590
 back-to-back series connected Zener diodes 405
 back-tracking 709
 back-up applications 1108
 back-up batteries 750
 back-up electric power generating 981
 Baker's clamp 282
 balance three-phase load 467
 balanced delta connected load 600
 balanced input currents 478
 balanced line voltage 959
 balanced load 606
 balanced load voltage 959
 balanced resistive load 711
 balanced star load 634
 balanced isolated converters 826
 balancing activity 1112
 balancing electronics 1112
 balancing scheme 1112
 ball bearing fan 190, 192
 band gap 51, 60, 1023-1025, 1030-1040
 band gap voltage 1036-1040
 bandgap energy 1033
 bandwidth 758, 1270, 1275
 bank lifetime 1112
 bar separation 1288
 bare copper weight 1284
 bare wire diameter 1282
 base circuit diode 1270
 base current 78
 base flow height 142
 base ground 1394
 base grounding 1393
 base line system 226
 base start pulse 1270
 base to emitter voltage 1269
 base transport factor 77
 base-plate 218, 219, 241
 basic bidirectional current converter configurations 819
 basic converter comparison 816
 basic hvdc building block - one-phase 7-level modular converter 925
 basic hvdc transmission system 906
 basic impulse level 1404

basic operating principle 597
 basic recovery circuit 333
 basic smps circuit elements 828
 basic switch commutation techniques 646
 basic three-phase UPS 751
 bathtub shaped curve 1165
 batteries permissible temperature limits 1100
 battery 989-993, 1011, 1035, 1036, 1138
 battery activation 1087
 battery age 1067
 battery anode metal plating 1095
 battery arrangements 1053
 battery balancing 1072
 battery capacity 1041, 1057-1062, 1094, 1095, 1138
 battery capacity levels 1094
 battery cathode active materials 1094
 battery cell voltage potential 1102
 battery characteristics comparison 1042
 battery charge capacity 1138
 battery charged 750
 battery charger 1082, 1095
 battery charging regimes 1056
 battery chemistries 1052, 1081
 battery condition 1083
 battery construction 1043
 battery construction methods 1094
 battery container 1065
 battery cyclic life 1049
 battery degradation 1096
 battery discharge 1075
 battery discharge characteristic curves 1057
 battery discharge characteristics 1057-1060
 battery disposal 1083
 battery dry-out 1057
 battery electric vehicle 667
 battery electrode 1039, 1046
 battery equilibrium 1097
 battery float 1074
 battery float voltage 1094
 battery life 1036, 1047, 1056, 1057, 1061, 1091-1095
 battery life and safety 1094
 battery life expected years 1061
 battery maintenance 1046
 battery materials methods 1094
 battery memory 1071
 battery metal-ion 1039
 battery model 1138
 battery negative electrodes 1011
 battery no-load output voltage 1138
 battery open circuit voltage 1093
 battery output terminals 1138
 battery overcharging 1047
 battery overcharging explosion 1096
 battery overcharging overheating 1096
 battery overheating prevention 1087
 battery pack 1096
 battery pack protection circuit 1094
 battery plates 1052
 battery rating 1041
 battery residual capacity 1062
 battery reversal 1072
 battery self-discharge 1056, 1093
 battery service life 1052, 1057, 1061
 battery specific gravity 1052
 battery specifications 1094
 battery storage 1046
 battery storage regimes 1056
 battery surface temperature 1074
 battery technologies comparison 1042
 battery technology 1102
 battery temperature 1057, 1095, 1097
 battery temperature limit 1095
 battery terminals 1035
 battery thermodynamics 1097, 1098
 battery vibration 1067
 battery voltage 10951, 137, 1138
 battery voltage thresholds 1057
 battery water consumption 1072
 battery wear out 1075
 BCT 98
 beam equivalent pressure 11
 bearing ball 192
 bearing deterioration 731
 bearing sleeve 192
 bearing temperature 190
 bearing wear 188
 bell jar 40
 below resonance 760
 benign cathode material 1089
 best fit quadratic 1210
 beta-alumina solid electrolyte 1003
 beta-radiation 1099
B-H area 311
B-H characteristics 826, 1238, 1249, 1261, 1320, 1321
B-H characteristic operating point 1321
B-H curve 311, 1234, 1239, 1256, 1266, 1343
B-H curve characteristics 1234
B-H demagnetisation characteristic 1330
B-H demagnetising characteristic curve 1317
B-H magnetising curve 1239
B-H trajectory 1320, 1321
 bias 28
 bibliography 1505
 bi-direction voltage 684
 bidirectional capability 895
 bidirectional conducting 567
 bidirectional conduction properties 819
 bidirectional converter 503, 819
 bidirectional crowbar devices 416
 bidirectional current 260, 575, 732
 bidirectional dc voltage supply 962
 bidirectional dc-link source 961
 bidirectional energy transfer 819
 bidirectional gate current 274
 bidirectional load current 578, 646
 bidirectional options 414
 bidirectional output current 580
 bidirectional output voltage 580
 bidirectional power flow 637, 909
 bidirectional power flow capability 895
 bidirectional smps 676
 bidirectional storage system 1046
 bidirectional supporting voltage 260
 bidirectional switch configurations 261
 bidirectional switches 633, 635
 bidirectional transmission line 972
 bidirectional voltage and current 684
 bidirectional voltage blocking 948
 bidirectional voltage output 676
 bidirectional-conducting thyristor 98
 bidirectionally interchange power 909
 bifilar inductor 820
 bifilar winding 1207
 bifilar wound coil 1366
 bifilar wound limb 1287
 bilateral device 415
 bilateral transient suppressor diode 1366
 bilayered organic PV cells 1047
 bimetallic strip 1375
 biomass gasification 1008
 bipolar capacitor voltages 830
 bipolar configuration 895
 bipolar controlled dc chopper 688
 bipolar current 771

bipolar dc link voltage 924
 bipolar devices 265
 bipolar diode 287
 bidirectional energy 830
 bipolar electrode 1055
 bipolar flux mode 826
 bipolar junction device 265
 bipolar junction diode 112
 bipolar junction transistor 76
 bipolar junction transistor switching circuit 1269
 bipolar lead-acid battery 1055
 bipolar lead-acid battery construction 1055
 bipolar load current conduction 577
 bipolar output 696
 bipolar output control 689
 bipolar output states 684
 bipolar output voltages 684
 bipolar output waveform 720
 bipolar parasitic structures 117
 bipolar plate 993, 994
 bipolar plate material 993
 bipolar pulse width modulation 706
 bipolar switching 678, 679
 bipolar system 894
 bipolar transistor 76, 414, 1111
 bipolar turn-on voltages 416
 bipolar two-wire hvdc system 917
 bipolar voltage 771, 1171
 bipolar waveform 717
 bismuth telluride alloy 1121
 BJT 76
 BJT base drive 1269
 BJT gain 77
 BJT mechanisms 107, 117
 BJT phenomena 116
 BJT safe operating area 114
 BJT turn-off 284
 BJT turn-off time 116
 BJT turn-on 284
 BJT turn-on time 115
 black body 133
 black painted 168
 black start 917
 black surfaces 141
 blackout 750, 982
 blades 380
 blocking currents 361
 blocking diodes 751, 820, 1045
 blocking mode 376
 blocking voltage 590, 821
 blocking voltage capability 1171
 blocking voltage rating 129
 blow out magnet 1361
 blower 168
 blower applications 177
 blower blades 179
 blower characteristics 177
 blower designs 177
 blower performance 178
 blowers 174
 boats 19
 bobbin material 1363
 bobbin sections 1199
 bobbin thickness 1363
 body diode 85
 body resistance 1385
 body temperature 392, 1215, 1228
 boiling 216, 221
 boiling curve 216
 boiling modes 215
 boiling point 215-217, 230, 989
 Boltzmann's constant 5, 23, 57, 1037, 1197, 1208
 bombarding 11
 bonded glass-like film 1204
 bonded hard magnetic material 1303, 1304
 bonded magnet materials 1312
 bonded magnets 1308, 1314
 bonded magnet second quadrant hysteresis loop demagnetization characteristics 1313
 bonded magnets weakens magnetic properties 1314
 bonded permanent magnet 1309
 bonded samarium cobalt bonded materials 1314
 bonded thermoset magnets 1312
 bonded/fabricated fins 170
 bonding defects 50, 1028
 bonding materials 1229
 Booser grease life equation 190
 Booser life estimate 191
 Booser's nominal temperature acceleration factor 192
 boost charge interval 1060
 boost circuits 798
 boost converter 326, 354-359, 646, 731, 750, 790-797, 805-814, 828, 867
 boost converter concept 985
 boost converter snubber circuit 354
 boost converter systematic translations 807
 boost converter transformer coupled 797
 boost resonant ZVS converter 884
 boost smps 333
 boost switch mode power supply 662
 boost voltage converter resonant switch circuits 888
 boot strap gate supply circuit 271
 boot strapped supplied 347
 boot strapping voltage 347
 bottom cell 1035
 boule 48, 49
 bounce after opening 1404
 bounce on make 1359
 bounce time 1368
 bound electron-hole pairs 1047
 boundary conditions 150, 514
 boundary equations 831
 boundary imperfections 53
 bounded reactive interface area 1053
 braking 627
 braking circuit connection 628
 braking contactor 628
 braking current 667
 braking thyristor 628
 braking timing delay times 628
 braking timing sequence 628
 braking torque 627, 628
 brass metal crimp 1197
 brass resistivity 1289
 braze seal 1390
 break contact bounce 1365
 break contacts 1370
 break mode 1393
 break-away torque characteristic 617
 breakdown 1190
 breakdown channel 1192
 breakdown electric field 1102
 breakdown phenomenon 1406
 breakdown rating 249
 breakdown voltage 10, 96, 281, 413, 590, 1169
 breakdown voltage level 193, 415
 breakdown voltage ratings 112
 breaker contacts 1378
 breaking 1365
 breaking capacity 390, 402
 breaking dc current 928
 breaking elements 1361
 breaking elements speed 1361
 breaking loads 1371, 1390

breaking voltage peak 1369
 break-make contact 1360
 break-open 378
 break-over diodes 591
 break-over voltage 415, 594
 break-over voltage level 415
 bridge circuit voltage waveforms 443
 bridge converter 827
 bridge diodes 459
 bridge freewheel diodes 749, 763, 851
 bridge leg 349, 350
 bridge leg configurations 315
 bridge leg turn-on snubbers 316
 bridge legs 343
 bridge legs snubbers 314
 bridge output inductor 859
 bridge output voltage 770
 bridge reactive feedback 696
 bridge rectifier - split rail dc supplies 452
 bridge rectifier voltage doubler 452
 bridge rectifiers 452
 bridge square wave frequency 859
 bridge switch 353
 bridge switching frequency 855
 bridge thyristors 504, 527
 bridge voltage excitation frequency 765, 766
 broadband EMC generation 787
 brownouts 750
 brushless dc motor 174
 bubbles 216
 buck converter 354-359, 776, 782, 786-789, 806, 828
 buck voltage converter resonant switch circuits 887
 buck-boost converter 352-359, 790-806, 812, 819, 828, 867
 buck-boost converter systematic translations 807
 buck-boost converter transfer function 806
 buck-boost flyback converter 798-803
 buck-boost smps 332, 333, 340-343, 350, 353
 buck-boost voltage converter resonant switch circuits 889
 buffer layer 1033
 built-in electric field 1023
 built-in internal copper metal shield 1389
 built-in internal shield 1390
 built-in junction potential 57
 built-in potential 58, 59
 built-in redundancy 367
 bulk effect 1299
 bulk heterojunction 1048
 bulk heterojunction organic solar cell 1048
 bulk magnetic susceptibility 1297
 bulk magnets 1292
 bulk material 996
 bulk material property 1315
 bulk soft magnetic materials 1237
 bulk-heterojunction concept 1048
 buoyant force 168
 buried insulating layers 12
 burnout resistance 1358
 burp charge 1072
 busbar conductor insulating material 1290
 busbar noise 1290
 busbar width 1290
 busbar reactance 1281
 busbar reactance reduction 1281
 busbar size 388
 bypass contactor 625, 626
 bypass diodes 1045
 bypass element ladder 1111
 bypass path 974
 bypass resistor 1111
 bypass threshold voltage 1111
 by-product 15, 20, 992, 993
 cable dc current maximum 920
 cable heating 630
 cable rating 922
 cable size 388
 cable test equipment 1388
 cable voltage drop 923
 cabling faults 375
 cadmium-based electrode 1085
 calorific value 990
 cancelling magnetic fields 1284
 capacitance 296, 364, 377, 411-420, 1102, 1110, 1114, 1162, 1168, 1288
 capacitance density 1011
 capacitance loss 1191
 capacitance loss acceleration 1191
 capacitance per cubic metre 1011
 capacitance per unit area 82
 capacitance per unit volume 1169, 1176
 capacitance per unit volume per unit volt 1190
 capacitance range 1192
 capacitance recovery 1110
 capacitance reduction 1106, 1110
 capacitance requirement 366
 capacitance specification 1105
 capacitance temperature coefficient 1198
 capacitance temperature dependence 1179
 capacitance variation 1192, 1196
 capacitance voltage coefficient 1198
 capacitance volumetric densities 1011
 capacitive bank 945
 capacitive charging current 280, 893, 1200
 capacitive circuit load 1371
 capacitive compensation 948, 962, 963
 capacitive component 1104
 capacitive coupled charge pump 270
 capacitive coupling 419
 capacitive current 944
 capacitive dc link 567
 capacitive divider 1407
 capacitive effect 112
 capacitive elements 1371
 capacitive filtering 1362
 capacitive load 246, 587, 1357, 1373
 capacitive load effect 763
 capacitive make and break applications 1388
 capacitive over-voltage 3Φ clamping circuit 636
 capacitive reactance 822, 824, 927, 949, 952, 1164
 capacitive reactive power 920
 capacitive reactive power capability 920
 capacitive region 975
 capacitive sharing 367
 capacitive soft turn-off voltage clamp 340
 capacitive turn-off snubber 130, 287, 297, 300, 314, 356, 359, 764
 capacitive turn-off snubber design 302
 capacitive turn-off snubber energy recovery 328
 capacitive turn-off snubbers 340, 345, 348
 capacitive VAr 944
 capacitive voltage clamp 251
 capacitively injected current 1200
 capacitively load 417
 capacitively smoothed 775
 capacitor 1162
 capacitor ac current 864
 capacitor ac voltage 1108
 capacitor action 1197
 capacitor ageing 976
 capacitor air pockets 1184
 capacitor anode 1169
 capacitor bank 486, 944, 1110
 capacitor body 1108
 capacitor cathode 1169

capacitor charge 785, 801
 capacitor charging current 448
 capacitor charging high inrush relays 1397
 capacitor charging path 297
 capacitor clamped inverter 744
 capacitor clamped multilevel inverter 741
 capacitor commutated converters 895
 capacitor compensator 945
 capacitor construction 1178
 capacitor cooling 1108
 capacitor core temperature 1200
 capacitor cross-section 1194
 capacitor current 337, 451, 782, 795, 804, 869, 885, 950, 1164
 capacitor dc charging 1190
 capacitor dc voltage 864
 capacitor decoupling 421
 capacitor degradation 1165
 capacitor design 1191
 capacitor dielectric 1181, 1190
 capacitor dielectric layer 1169
 capacitor dielectric types 1162
 capacitor discharge 289, 364, 366, 1181
 capacitor discharge period 450
 capacitor discharging high inrush relays 1397
 capacitor disconnection 944
 capacitor energy 288, 300, 334, 339, 876
 capacitor energy loss 366
 capacitor energy stored 319, 1108
 capacitor equivalent circuit 1163-1165, 1184
 capacitor equivalent series inductance 780, 794, 802
 capacitor equivalent series resistance 780, 794, 802, 803
 capacitor ESR 789
 capacitor failure 1171
 capacitor failure rate 1165
 capacitor filter bank 486
 capacitor impedance 1163, 1183
 capacitor impedance characteristics 1178
 capacitor inductive reactance 1164
 capacitor initial charging 739
 capacitor initial charging current 451
 capacitor internal heating 1190
 capacitor life 1109, 1190
 capacitor lifetime 1109, 1165, 1177
 capacitor lifetime derating 1200
 capacitor loading 1110
 capacitor loss factor 1169
 capacitor module 1110
 capacitor net charge 797
 capacitor non-sinusoidal voltage rating 1189
 capacitor ohmic resistance 1164
 capacitor operating voltage 1187
 capacitor operational reliability 1169
 capacitor outer surface area 1172
 capacitor output filter 450
 capacitor overcharge 292
 capacitor package heat dissipation 1180
 capacitor package power limits 1189
 capacitor peak charging current 434
 capacitor peak discharging current 434
 capacitor percentage tolerance 366
 capacitor power rating 1189
 capacitor preferred resistance values 1230
 capacitor properties 1162
 capacitor pulse discharge 1181
 capacitor quality 1171
 capacitor rated voltage 1106
 capacitor rating limits 1186
 capacitor reactance 760
 capacitor reliability 1167, 1168
 capacitor resistance 789
 capacitor reversible temperature dependence 1168
 capacitor ripple current 777, 783
 capacitor ripple current rating 1173
 capacitor ripple voltage 802, 815
 capacitor rms ripple current 795, 822
 capacitor service life 1165, 1175
 capacitor smoothed 448
 capacitor specification 1197
 capacitor stored energy 300, 1011
 capacitor stress conversion factors 1166
 capacitor string 737
 capacitor string centre tap 737
 capacitor string mid-point 737
 capacitor surface 1172, 1184
 capacitor temperature 1108
 capacitor temperature coefficient 1183, 1198
 capacitor temperature dependence 1189
 capacitor terminal V-I phasor diagram 1164
 capacitor terminals 1108, 1181, 1190
 capacitor terminology glossary 1465
 capacitor turn-off energy 342
 capacitor turn-off snubber 341
 capacitor turn-off snubber circuit 313
 capacitor type characteristic comparison 1199
 capacitor type comparison 1199
 capacitor types 1162, 1163, 1174, 1177
 capacitor voltage 334-337, 435, 450, 451, 741, 770, 785, 850-857, 867-874, 879-884, 949, 961
 capacitor voltage absolute maxima 762, 763
 capacitor voltage balance 737, 741
 capacitor voltage capacitor coefficient 1198
 capacitor voltage increase 299
 capacitor voltage maxima 851
 capacitor voltage oscillation 877, 1190
 capacitor voltage rating 798
 capacitor voltage requirement 636
 capacitor voltage reset time 293
 capacitor voltage rings 1190
 capacitor voltage ripple 783
 capacitor voltage rise 314
 capacitor voltage swing 789
 capacitor voltages 738, 1188
 capacitor volumetric efficiency 1163
 capacitors - parallel connected 1287
 capacitors metallised polypropylene 288
 capacitors split dc rail voltage 736
 capacitors voltage/capacitance boundaries 1162
 capacity 1041
 capacity calculation 1085
 capacity deterioration 1094
 capacity permanent loss 1080
 capacity rating 1041
 capacity retention 1062
 capacity stabilisation 1069
 capacity temperature dependence 1063
 capacity temperature effects 1062
 capillary action 1048
 capillary height 201
 capillary limit 203, 206
 capillary limitation 202
 capillary pressure action 199
 capillary pumping limit 202
 capillary radius 201
 capital cost 894
 capless terminations 1206
 carbon activated charcoal particles 1011
 carbon aerogel 1102
 carbon based emissions 1012
 carbon ceramic electrical data 1230
 carbon ceramic electrical formula 1230
 carbon ceramic mechanical data 1230
 carbon ceramic mechanical formula 1230
 carbon ceramic resistive elements 1219
 carbon ceramic rod resistor 1217

carbon ceramics 1211
carbon cloth 1000
carbon composition film 1208
carbon composition film resistor construction 1206
carbon composition resistor 289, 312, 1213
carbon concentration 1206
carbon dioxide 999
carbon fibre surface 1011
carbon fibres 1013
carbon film resistor 1204, 1205, 1208
carbon film resistors parameters 1206
carbon fuel cell 1017
carbon grains 1225
carbon graphite lattice crystal 1039
carbon insulator layer 1102
carbon interconnect 1000
carbon monoxide 993
carbon nano-fibres 1010, 1011
carbon nanotubes 1102
carbon paper 1000
carbon paper electrodes 1002
carbon sequestration 1009
carbon type resistors 288
carbon/metal film resistor 1204
carbonaceous electrodes 997
carbon-graphite foam 1053
carbon-graphite foam grid battery 1053
carcinogenic safety 1011
Carnot efficiency 1017, 1131
carrier crest 730
carrier cycle 730
carrier frequency 722-724
carrier frequency components 598
carrier frequency cycle 727
carrier harmonics 725
carrier interval 729
carrier lifetime 38, 1035
carrier mobility 51, 60
carrier multiplication 60
carrier pair 1040
carrier peak 723
carrier period 728-730
carrier recombination 93
carrier trough 730
carrier waveforms 678
carries excess energy 1024
carry only applications 1390
carry only relays 1387, 1388
carry only RF relays 1397
cascade inverter 744
cascaded H-bridge 736
cascaded H-bridge multi-level inverter 343, 344, 740
cascaded H-bridge multi-level inverter snubbers 344
cascaded optimum stage number 490
cascaded stage number 487
cascaded stages 486
case temperature 135
case thermal resistance 149
case-to-ambient thermal resistance 163, 225
case-to-heat-sink thermal resistance 136, 137, 161, 163
case-to-sink thermal resistance 161
cast chip semiconductor 1227
cast grid 1047
cast hard magnetic material 1305
casted fins 169
casting 14, 1026
casting metallurgy 1305
casting process 50, 1027, 1306
catalyst 228, 991-994, 1000, 1002, 1005
catalyst assembly 1000
catalyst layer 999
catalyst membrane 991

catalyst poisoning 1001
catalytic action 995
catalytic activity 1005
catalytic effect 1356
catalytic gas recombiner 1063
catalytic reduction 995
catalyzed membrane 1000
catastrophic condition 408
catastrophic failure 419
catch winding 324, 820
cathode 92, 991, 992, 994, 996, 999, 1000, 1036-1038
cathode carbon sheet 1000
cathode chemistry active variants 1086
cathode contact 1358
cathode crystalline structures 1089
cathode double layer capacitances 1103
cathode electrode 1037
cathode foil oxidation 1171
cathode half reaction 997
cathode injection 129
cathode junction cut-off 99
cathode material 1005, 1041, 1086, 1088
cathode reaction 999, 1001, 1004, 1135
cathode variants 1086
cathode variants cells 1088
cathode-side 993
cathode-side fuels 1007
cathode-to-cathode impedance 281
cathode-to-gate breakdown voltage 282
cathodic arc deposition 18
cathodic performance 1005
cathodic process 1036
cation conduction 992
cation fuel cells 998
cations 992, 996, 1037
CCC-hvdc 896
CdTe PV cell
cell 1036
cell active area 1037
cell ageing 1056
cell ageing mechanisms 1047
cell balancing 1082, 1111
cell balancing devices 1056
cell balancing problems 1040
cell bypass diodes 1045
cell capacitor 741, 924
cell capacity 1041, 1057, 1062, 1094
cell characteristic equation 1042
cell characteristics 1043, 1106
cell charging 1038
cell charging cycles 1113
cell charging mechanism 346, 1039
cell chemistry 1085, 1087, 1099
cell chemistry reactions 1078
cell components 1012, 1029, 1043, 1087
cell conversion efficiencies 1043
cell corrosion 1056, 1057
cell damage 1107
cell density 80
cell design 993
cell dielectric ceiling 410
cell discharge 1036
cell discharge mechanism 1039
cell discharge tests 1059
cell discharging cycles 1113
cell effective area 1037
cell efficiency 1002, 1003, 1016, 1031, 1033
cell electrical capacity 1085
cell encapsulation 1028
cell end voltage 1058
cell equivalent internal resistance 1059
cell fabrication 993

cell fast transient voltage conditions 1112
cell fill-factor 1041
cell generating pressure 1081
cell heat up 1044
cell interconnects 1012
cell internal impedance 1086
cell internal pressure 1049
cell internal resistance 1059
cell I-V curve 1042
cell lifetime 1005, 1112
cell loss 1040
cell mass 1012, 1041
cell materials 1085
cell mismatch 1082
cell open circuit voltage 1014, 1038
cell open circuiting 1112
cell open-circuit voltage 1052
cell operation temperature 996
cell parameter measurement methods 1105
cell parameter specification 1105
cell performance deterioration 1075
cell plates 410
cell potential 1038, 1098, 1099
cell potential energy 1088
cell power 1012
cell pressurization 1078
cell protection circuits 1096
cell reactions 999, 1075
cell reversal 1074
cell self-discharge 1070, 1111
cell series connection 1043
cell shunt protection 1106
cell shunt protection circuitry 1106
cell size 1104
cell snubber capacitor 345
cell stack 996, 1003, 1036
cell standard voltage 1041
cell state of charge 1052
cell structure 1078, 1308
cell surface 1034
cell temperature 1042, 1045, 1070, 1074, 1089, 1096
cell temperature change 1044
cell terminals 1012
cell transform 1037
cell tuning 1036
cell type comparisons 1066
cell type properties 1066
cell vent 1074
cell voltage 1013-1016, 1028, 1037-1042, 1048, 1057-1060, 1063, 1072, 1085, 1091-1095, 1112
cell voltage distribution 1111
cell voltage drop 369, 1075
cell voltage equalization 1110
cell voltage level 346, 350
cell voltage limit 1056
cell volume 1012
cell water 1063
cell-to-cell balance 1072
cellular microstructure 1306
cemented wire-wound resistors 1215
central current-carrying conductor 1194
centralized power generation model 981
centre limb 463
centre opposing current 1281
centre-tapped ac transformer 489
centre-tapped capacitor string 487
centre-tapped full-wave rectifier circuit 1263
centre-tapped primary 465
centre-tapped push-pull transformer 1287
centre-tapped secondary 858, 1265
centre-tapped secondary transformer 442
centre-tapped transformer 353, 444, 518, 827

centrifugal fan applications 177
centrifugal fan characteristics 177
centrifugal fan designs 177
centrifugal fan performance 178
ceramic 238, 1311
ceramic body 380, 1204
ceramic capacitor 1194, 1196, 1197, 1200
ceramic capacitors properties 1195
ceramic carbon element 1206
ceramic conductive 397
ceramic core dimensions 1207
ceramic dielectric 1194
ceramic dielectric capacitor characteristics 1194
ceramic dielectric capacitors 1162, 1194
ceramic encapsulation 1225
ceramic ferrites 1344
ceramic housing
ceramic insulating rod 1390
ceramic magnets 1311
ceramic modules 1398
ceramic oxides of metals 1236
ceramic package 104
ceramic plates 222, 1055
ceramic PTC 399
ceramic PTC devices 397
ceramic PTC thermistor fuse characteristics 401
ceramic PTC thermistors 393, 397
ceramic resistivity 1213
ceramic sealing technology 1391
ceramic substrate 590
cermet 993, 1206
chained cells 924
change of phase 134, 228
change of state or two-phase systems 193
changing currents 420
channel carrier mobility 82
channel pitch 220
channel region 86
channel width 220
characteristic discharge curves 1059
characteristic impedance 419, 757, 758, 878, 1289, 1290
characteristic knee 1338
characteristic temperature stability 1246
charge acceptance 1072, 1080, 1083
charge acceptance efficiency 1080
charge algorithm 1056
charge capacity charge rate effects 1081
charge capacity temperature effects 1081
charge carrier diffusion 1117
charge carriers 1033, 1227
charge carriers density 1227
charge carriers velocity 1227
charge characteristics 1106
charge chemistry 1050
charge current 1036, 1095, 1097
charge current termination 1094
charge cycle 1072
charge depletion layer 1023
charge efficiency 1071, 1072
charge efficiency factor 1071
charge float voltage characteristics 1094
charge injection 1190
charge level 1095, 1137, 1138
charge mobility 1047
charge over-current 1096
charge period 1116
charge phase 1064
charge polarity 1102
charge process 1093
charge pump gate supply circuit 271
charge rate 1041, 1071, 1082, 1113
charge resonate 335

charge separation distance 1011
 charge source 1093
 charge stages 1056
 charge store electrical energy 1162
 charge temperature effect on discharge capacity 1082
 charge termination 1071
 charge termination method 1095
 charge threshold 1072, 1083
 charge time 1036, 1093, 1115, 1116
 charge transfer characteristics 271, 273
 charge voltage 1093
 charge voltage limit 1051
 charge/discharge cycles 1070, 1094, 1095
 charge/discharge cycling 1072
 charge/discharge phases 1050
 charge/discharging time 1105
 charge-carrier diode model 64
 charged 1102
 charged state 1036, 1051, 1057
 charge-dependent voltage source 1137
 charge-level indication 1057
 charger cut-off condition 1057
 charger open circuit voltage 1106
 charge-termination methods 1071
 charging cell 1040
 charging chemistries 1100
 charging current 1199, 1200
 charging efficiency 1080
 charging electronics 1110
 charging internal pressure 1080
 charging management 1073
 charging period 1074
 charging phase 1050
 charging process 346, 1037, 1084
 charging pulses 1072
 charging rate 1080
 charging regime 1071
 charging sequence 486, 488
 charging specification 1105
 charging stack 491
 charging time 884
 charging voltage 1067
 charging/discharging currents 1203
 chassis 422
 chattering 787
 chemical bond 1066
 chemical changes 1073
 chemical compatibility 214
 chemical composition 1306
 chemical compounds 1036
 chemical conversion process 981
 chemical deposition 15
 chemical equations 1079
 chemical form 1035
 chemical formula 1311
 chemical instability 1005
 chemical interface surface area 1053
 chemical materials 1038
 chemical oxidation 1065
 chemical process 1013
 chemical properties 1007
 chemical form 1035
 chemical formula 1311
 chemical instability 1005
 chemical interface surface area 1053
 chemical materials 1038
 chemical oxidation 1065
 chemical process 1013
 chemical properties 1007
 chemical reaction 1015, 1035, 1039, 1043, 1048, 1086, 1098
 chemical reaction 5, 39, 991, 992, 1009, 1015, 1034-1039, 1043, 1048, 1063, 1081, 1086, 1098 1102
 chemical reactions electricity 1037
 chemical resistant 997
 chemical solution deposition 15
 chemical stability 993, 994, 1004, 1005, 1089
 chemical vapour deposition 3, 9, 14, 21, 38, 39, 51, 1030, 1032
 chemically discharged 1064
 chemically inert 1204
 chemically reduced 1036

chemically stabilised metallic oxides 1225
 chemically stable 1048
 chemical-mechanical polishing 15
 chilled water-cooling 193
 chimney effect 144
 choke 789, 1233, 1252
 choke converters 789
 choke cores 1244
 choke design - dc current 1250
 chopped current pulse 682
 chopped dc voltage 775
 chopper 645
 chopper circuit waveforms 661
 chopper conducting paths 687, 690
 chopper effective dc input impedance 651
 chopper effective input impedance 654, 656
 chopper output current waveform 687
 chopper output voltage - bipolar 684
 chopper output voltage - multilevel 684
 chopper output voltage 684
 chopper output voltage waveform 687
 chopper subclass 646
 chopper switching operation 677
 chopper switching operation modes 677
 chopping current 1399
 chromium volatility 1006
 CID multi-junction PV cell 1037
 circuit breaker 375, 379, 984, 1355, 1371, 1398, 1399
 circuit breaker characteristics 1224
 circuit breaker interrupting duty 927
 circuit breaker resistors 1223
 circuit breaking resistors 1222
 circuit breaking time characteristics 1223
 circuit current waveforms 790
 circuit damage 394
 circuit description SSR 587
 circuit electrical waveforms 430
 circuit electronics 1112
 circuit fault current protection 379
 circuit impedance 757, 759, 851
 circuit inductance 111, 777, 809
 circuit load-line 399
 circuit model 1037
 circuit noise interaction 421
 circuit noise suppression 421
 circuit parameters 1267
 circuit protection devices 1381
 circuit Q 850, 852, 855, 863-869, 874, 880
 circuit quality factor 769, 1164
 circuit quality factor Q 756
 circuit quiescent current 1112
 circuit recovery operation 338
 circuit resistance 1176
 circuit resistance factor 1177
 circuit resonant frequency 765, 766, 863, 879
 circuit survival 403
 circuit temperature compensation 1112
 circuit unified snubber 334
 circuit voltage waveforms 790
 circuit voltages 773
 circuit waveforms 433, 505, 511, 513, 800
 circular cross-section 1283
 circular section preferred 1281
 circulating current 494, 544-749, 859
 circulating current control 748
 circulating current limiting inductor 748
 circulating current mode 746
 circulating dc current 628
 circulating energy 861
 circulating harmonics 465
 CIS PV cell 1031
 clamp 418

clamp capacitor 294, 307
 clamped load 335
 clamped switches 736
 clamping 403
 clamping circuits 353
 clamping device 403, 404, 411
 clamping diodes 591, 737, 741, 770
 clamping forces 139
 clamping pressure 137
 clamping voltage 408, 415
 clamping voltage level 408
 clamping Zener diode 251
 class D series 760
 class D parallel 767
 class I ceramic 1196
 class I dielectrics 1196
 class I type dielectrics characteristics 1196
 class II ceramic capacitor parameter coding 1196
 class II ceramic capacitors 1197
 class II dielectric coding 1196
 class II dielectrics 1196
 class II type dielectrics characteristics 1196
 class X 1192
 class X capacitors 1192
 class Y 1192
 class Y capacitors 1192
 class Y feed-through capacitors 1194
 clean metal 1359
 clearing integral 380
 close coupling 340
 close current carrying conductors 1281
 close proximity 1281
 close proximity conductors 1281
 close spacing rectangular section conductors 1281
 closed containers 1065
 closed fixed contacts 1355
 closed loop ferrite transformer 1270
 closed loop magnetizing force integral 1325
 closed magnetic circuit conditions 1317
 closed magnetic circuit induction 1317
 closed magnetic circuit loop 1327
 closed path 1271
 closed polygon connections 910
 closed surface 1326
 closed surface flux density 1325
 closed system 217
 closed transition start 619
 closed transition starter 621
 closed-loop control 626
 closed-loop soft-starters 626
 closed-space sublimation 1032
 closely uniformly wound air-cored toroidal coil 1271
 closely wound core length 1282
 closing and inrush currents 1404
 closing arc 1361
 closure contact bounce 1367
 CMOS 274
 CMOS 4049 inverter output 268
 CMOS characteristics 269
 CMOS gate output 267
 CMOS totem pole output stage 267
 CO poisoning 999
 CO₂ emissions 983
 coal gasification 1004, 1008
 coast down time 191
 coast to standstill 627
 coast-down time 188
 coatings 235
 coaxial cable 1285
 coaxial cable inductance 1284
 cobalt alloys 1305
 cobalt based amorphous metals 1249

cobalt - manganese positive electrode comparison 1086
 cobalt oxide cathode 1088
 cobalt oxide layered crystalline structure 1088
 cobalt oxide positive electrode 1088
 cobalt technical data 1282
 Coefficient of Performance 1116, 1123-1129, 1134
 coefficient of thermal expansion 145, 241
 coenergy 1348
 coercive force 1243, 1257, 1293, 1303, 1311, 1321, 1336
 coercive force temperature dependence 1315
 coercivity 1302, 1305, 1311, 1315, 1321, 1344
 coercivity characteristics 1308
 co-evaporation 38, 39
 co-generation of heat and power 1006, 1020
 cohesive conductive film 1205
 coil ac voltage rating 1362
 coil activation 1368
 coil arrangement 1401
 coil assembly 1363
 coil construction 1401
 coil copper wire 1368
 coil current 1321, 1329, 1331-1335, 1343, 1346, 1368
 coil current response 1368
 coil current waveform 252
 coil de-activation 1365
 coil de-energization 1361
 coil energising 1355
 coil energization 1361, 1335, 1340-1343
 coil field 1369
 coil flexibility 1273
 coil impedance 1365
 coil inductance 1241, 1251, 1365, 1368
 coil inner diameter 1272
 coil loss factor 1244
 coil outer diameter 1272
 coil output voltage 1271
 coil outputs 1271
 coil permeability 1241
 coil power 864, 1362, 1369
 coil power dissipation 1363
 coil relay 1362
 coil reset voltage 1367
 coil resistance 851, 853, 1363-1365, 1369
 coil resistance formula 1365
 coil source voltage 1367
 coil stored energy 1365
 coil suppression techniques 1367
 coil temperature 1365
 coil thermal resistance 1363
 coil turns 1347, 1365
 coil voltage 1369, 1389
 coil voltage suppression 1365
 coil voltage waveform 252
 coil winding 1282, 1363
 coil winding precision 1274
 coil-activated current 1366
 cold cranking Amp ratings 1045
 cold evaporation 33
 cold junction 1117
 cold plate 193, 212
 cold plate contact 211
 cold plate cost 210
 cold plate design 213
 cold plate efficiency 210
 cold plate liquid cooling heat transfer fluids 212
 cold plate materials 212
 cold-plate performance 211
 cold plate selection 212
 cold plate surface 211
 cold plate surface temperature 212
 cold plate transfer fluid compatibility 212
 cold plates 209, 210

cold plates - extruded cold 211
 cold plates - gun-drilled 210
 cold plates - tubed 210
 cold plates - vacuum-brazed inner finned 211
 cold resistance 385
 cold side 223, 1119, 1124
 cold side spreader 226
 cold side temperature 222, 1128
 cold surface 222
 cold switching 1393
 cold wall 14
 cold welding 1356
 cold-rolled grain-orientated silicon steel 462
 cold-rolled grain-oriented steel 1236
 cold-side heat sink 1134
 cold-side power losses 224
 cold-side temperature 1122
 cold-start pick-up voltage 1364
 cold-switching 1371
 collected carriers 1040
 collector 77
 collector current 78, 299, 330, 336, 1270
 collector current fall time 297
 collector current waveform 246, 318
 collector emitter voltage 78
 collector forward blocking *I*-*V* characteristics 362
 collector junction voltage breakdown 79
 collector linear fall period 337
 collector resistance 10
 collector SOA trajectory 300
 collector switch-off trajectory 247
 collector switch-on trajectory 247
 collector turn-on *I*-*V* trajectory with switching-aid circuit 308
 collector turn-on waveforms 304, 311
 collector voltage 337
 collector voltage rise time 297, 298
 collector voltage waveform 246, 318
 colloidal silica 49
 colour bands 1204
 colour coded 1204, 1231
 colours bands 1231
 column crystal axis 1305
 combinational polarised snubber circuit 314
 combined active and passive filters 973, 974
 combined convection and conduction heat transfer 135
 combined shunt and series compensation 939
 combined transformerless active + passive power filters 976
 combustion 991, 993
 combustion energy conversion 1017
 commercial storage facilities 1049
 common blade 1391
 common cathode connection 505
 common connection 1276
 common connection point 1276
 common connection tap 1275
 common dc current link 959
 common dc voltage link 959
 common emitter-connected IGBT 246
 common energy sources 991
 common impedance coupling 419
 common mode current 419, 421
 common mode mains supply noise filtering 420
 common mode noise filtering 421
 common mode transformers 421
 common mode voltage 730
 common mode voltage source 731
 common neutral 631
 common node 350
 common series output capacitor string 489
 common source output capacitance 118
 commonality factor 817
 communication components interface 984

commutate 733
 commutated current 1399
 commutating *dv/dt* limitation 589
 commutation 531, 544, 546, 645, 733, 767
 commutation angle 499, 546, 599
 commutation consideration 246
 commutation current 534
 commutation cycle 732
 commutation cycle time 879, 880
 commutation failure 545, 548, 549
 commutation groups 552
 commutation inductance 372, 529
 commutation inductance effects 550
 commutation inductance overlap 371
 commutation losses 721
 commutation margin 909
 commutation overlap 906, 907
 commutation overlap angle 496, 498
 commutation period 879
 commutation reactance 546, 548
 commutation time 258, 416, 546
 commutation voltage 499, 546
 commutation voltage drop 496, 498
 compact densifies 1308
 compact size 1206
 comparator 787
 compatibility 200
 compensated line 947
 compensated phasor diagram 941
 compensating capacitive reactance 954
 compensating currents 967
 compensating electrons 1040
 compensating harmonic components 976
 compensating voltage 970
 compensation 949
 compensation angle 957
 compensation range 966
 compensation reactance 954, 966
 compensation winding 1270
 compensator 956
 compensator angle 956
 compensator capacitive reactance 955
 compensator comparison 977
 compensator features 977
 compensator inductive reactance 955
 compensator inverter 973
 compensator phase angle 956
 compensator voltage 948
 complementary device 721
 complementary output 806
 complementary pair 687
 complementary signals 820
 complementary switch 737, 827
 complementary switch action 720
 complementary switch pairs 741
 complementary thyristor 598
 complex conjugate 972
 complex crystal structures 1292
 complex permeability 1241-1243
 complex permeability characteristics 1242
 complex permeability components 1242
 complex power 932, 972
 complex shapes 1312
 component lengths 729
 component lifetime 1167
 component material permeability 1335
 component residual inductance reduction 1286
 component stray capacitance 1199, 1200
 components recycling 1036
 composite carbon-graphite foam grid battery 1053
 composite ceramics 993
 composite electrode porosity volume fraction 1005

composite materials 228
 composite plastic heat-sinks 173
 composite power pulse 151
 composite rectangular power pulses 149, 151
 composite rectangular pulses 155
 composite rectangular superimposed power pulses 146
 composition structural breakdown 1318
 compressed hydrogen 1011
 compressed stacked sheets 393
 compression bonding process 1312
 compressors 174, 1126
 concentrated solar radiation 1032
 concentrated sunlight 1036
 concentration gradient 4
 concentrator 1041, 1043
 concentrator applications 1032
 concentrator systems 1032, 1033
 concentric coil geometry 1274
 concentric conductors arrangement 1282
 concentric cylinders in air 1406
 conchoidal fracture 238
 condensation 204
 condensed 41
 condensed working fluid 199
 condenser length 204
 conduct electricity 1090
 conduct free electrons 995
 conduct simultaneously 596, 678
 conducted ac mains borne noise 421
 conducted currents 419
 conducted electromagnetic interference 287
 conducted EMC 913
 conducted interference 287
 conducted noise 419
 conducted rfi 1246
 conducted voltages 419
 conducting devices sequences 687, 690
 conducting electrolyte 998
 conducting ground plane 1286
 conducting ions 1048
 conducting medium 1037
 conducting oxide layer 1031
 conducting path 1365
 conducting plates 1011
 conducting polymer pseudocapacitors 1114
 conducting polymers 1114
 conducting SCR 417
 conducting thyristor 532, 574, 603, 606
 conduction 133, 134, 419, 991, 1108
 conduction and heat spreading 165
 conduction angle 515, 622
 conduction band 60, 1023, 1227
 conduction duty cycle 777, 809
 conduction extinction angle 510
 conduction loss 162, 257
 conduction model 1227
 conduction paths 738, 1052
 conduction period 371, 446, 449, 504, 514, 537, 601-610, 631, 827
 conduction power loss 157
 conduction short-circuit 596
 conduction states 709
 conduction thermal heat transfer coefficient 135
 conduction time 824
 conductive 1040
 conductive cathode 1169
 conductive ceramics 1004
 conductive contact materials 1389
 conductive foils 1102
 conductive heat loading 134
 conductive heat transfer 134
 conductive path 1225

conductive pathways 40
 conductive plastic 393
 conductive polymer matrix 1033
 conductive resistance 218
 conductivity 12, 51, 221, 1073, 1086, 1207, 1281
 conductivity fluctuation 1208
 conductivity lost 199
 conductor carrying dc current 1281
 conductor centre 1246
 conductor cooling 1288
 conductor crowding 1281
 conductor current 1271, 1273
 conductor current density 1281
 conductor current density penetration 1281
 conductor field external 1281
 conductor length 1286
 conductor losses 1184
 conductor profiles inductance 1286
 conductor resistance 1289
 conductor resistivity 1289
 conductor size 1363
 conductor skin depth 1281
 conductor surface 1281
 conductor surface current 1289
 conductor thickness 1289
 conductor turns 1269
 conductor width 1289
 conductors carrying ac current 1246
 conductors carrying current 1289
 conductors thickness 1289
 cone surface 1302
 conformal 15, 43
 conformal coating 1204
 conformal encapsulation 1224
 conformal passivation layers 19
 congruent melting and freezing 228
 connecting wire size 1363
 constant air gap 1342
 constant capacitor charge 779, 780, 793, 810
 constant capacitor current 802
 constant capacitor voltage 326
 constant charge voltage 1045
 constant charging power 486
 constant current 400, 773, 883, 901, 1106, 1348
 constant current characteristics 1114
 constant current charge 1056, 1093
 constant current charging 1073
 constant current discharge 1058, 1104, 1108
 constant current discharge period 1115
 constant current input 884
 constant current load 642, 855, 1115
 constant current loading 1106
 constant current mode 827
 constant current period 881
 constant current pulse 367
 constant current region 81
 constant current soft starter 627
 constant current source 354, 1038
 constant current starter 627
 constant dc link current 548
 constant dc load current 461
 constant dc output voltage 444
 constant dc voltage control 908
 constant delay angle 907
 constant direct current bias 1229
 constant discharge 1109
 constant dopant diffusion 8
 constant energy contours 1347
 constant extinction angle 907
 constant extinction angle control 907
 constant extinction angle control characteristic 908
 constant field current 302, 308

constant input voltage 799, 831
 constant inverter output voltage 729
 constant link current 900
 constant load current 303, 448, 457, 463, 472, 473, 506, 521, 534-540, 732, 795, 859, 869-872
 constant load current component 873
 constant maximum load current 318
 constant motion 1048
 constant ohmic contact 1183
 constant on-state voltage 372
 constant operating conditions 1247
 constant output current 454, 544, 802
 constant output power 541
 constant output voltage 775, 799, 831
 constant power discharge 1108
 constant power state 395
 constant pressure storage 1011
 constant rate discharge 1105
 constant recoil permeability 1317
 constant resistance charge/discharge 1105
 constant resistance region 81
 constant secondary voltage 1266
 constant source current 768
 constant starting torque load 627
 constant switch duty cycle 647
 constant switching frequency 779, 801
 constant temperature 1180
 constant uptime 392
 constant VAr operation 902
 constant voltage 348, 885, 895, 962
 constant voltage ac supply input 567
 constant voltage charge 1093
 constant voltage charging mode 1057
 constant voltage limit 1094
 constant voltage link 734
 constant voltage magnitude phase shifting 956
 constant voltage source 354
 Constantan 1207
 constantly cycled 1073
 constituent materials 1036
 constitutive equation 1233
 constricted arc column 1400
 contact actuation 1360
 contact angle 201
 contact arcing 1365, 1373, 1393
 contact area 1183, 1392, 1399
 contact arms 1358
 contact bounce 1356, 1357-1365, 1367, 1369, 1373, 1393
 contact bounce on break 1365
 contact break 1359, 1370
 contact carry current 1392
 contact carry-current rating 1392
 contact characteristics 1356
 contact cleaning action 1356
 contact closure 1358, 1405
 contact contamination 1369
 contact corrosion 1370
 contact current handling capacity 1393
 contact current profile 1373
 contact disintegration 408
 contact electrical life 1402
 contact electrodes 1387
 contact erosion 1356, 1371, 1388, 1399-1404
 contact force 1361
 contact friction 1362
 contact gap 1361, 1398
 contact heating 1364
 contact interface resistance 1356, 1358
 contact lengths 1184
 contact life 1359, 1369, 1382
 contact load conditions 1363
 contact loads 1387

contact make current surge 1373
 contact material 1356, 1358, 1359, 1370-1392, 1400
 contact material comparisons 1389
 contact material vaporization 1371
 contact melting 1399
 contact metal 1356, 1408
 contact metals low emissivity 1402
 contact motion 1355
 contact movement 1371
 contact opening distance 1402
 contact operate coil temperature dependence 1362
 contact over-travel 1359
 contact oxidation 1369
 contact plate 1401
 contact polymerization 1370
 contact position 1368, 1393
 contact power dissipation 1363
 contact printing 25
 contact rated life 1359
 contact ratings 1392
 contact resistance 1106, 1107, 1183, 1188, 1369-1402
 contact separation 1399, 1404, 1405
 contact separation speed 1369
 contact spacing 1361, 1404
 contact spring load 1361
 contact surface slide 1370
 contact surfaces 1359, 1361
 contact temperature rise 1364
 contact terminal size 1363
 contact thermal resistance 136
 contact transfer 1356, 1365
 contact voltage 1383
 contact wear 1356, 1393
 contact weld 1359, 1361
 contact welding 1395
 contactor 403, 1355, 1369, 1373
 contactor configurations 1404
 contactor current carrying mechanisms 1392
 contactor designs 1391
 contactor high speed trip 1405
 contactor lifetime derating 1373
 contactor melt down 1393
 contactor selection 1428
 contactor voltage requirements 1405
 contacts 34, 1355
 contacts breakdown voltage 1394
 contacts close 1362
 contacts current ratings 1359
 contacts open 1362
 contacts overheating 1399
 contacts resistant 1399
 contacts stick 1359
 contact watt loss 1376
 contaminant 38
 contaminant gases 1362
 contaminant removal 35
 contaminants 413
 continuous ac load current flow 570
 continuous ac operation 584
 continuous ac voltage test 1192
 continuous arcing 390, 411, 412
 continuous armature inductance current 668
 continuous boundary conditions 508
 continuous choke current 799
 continuous circuit protection 377
 continuous conduction 282, 446, 514-522, 543, 790, 808, 942
 continuous conduction mode 749
 continuous converter current reversal operation 749
 continuous current 508, 510, 537, 555, 815, 1228
 continuous current conduction 507, 514
 continuous current conduction boundary 524
 continuous current flow 575

continuous current ratings 1403
 continuous cycling 1339
 continuous dc current density 1107
 continuous dc load current 544
 continuous discharge 1036
 continuous duty 1369
 continuous duty temperatures 1365
 continuous electrical stressing 1366
 continuous fold-back protection 393
 continuous gate pulses 570
 continuous inductor conduction 799, 809, 822, 824, 827
 continuous inductor current 444, 445, 668, 776-780, 790-799, 803-816, 822, 827, 831, 854, 857, 858
 continuous inductor current conduction 798, 819
 continuous inductor current conduction mode 781
 continuous input current 831
 continuous input inductor current 814
 continuous input power 798, 830
 continuous load current 436, 443-447, 456, 457, 505, 506, 518, 520, 522, 525, 533-538, 578, 631, 635, 646-651, 655, 656, 663, 665, 669, 678-680, 746
 continuous load current conditions 526
 continuous load current conduction 520, 648, 662, 677
 continuous load current waveforms 646
 continuous load inductor current 662
 continuous output current 445, 667
 continuous output inductor current 814
 continuous output voltage 601
 continuous power 1012
 continuous power rating 1218
 continuous pulses 1219
 continuous source current 985
 continuous supply current 631
 continuous transient suppression 405
 continuous trickle charging 1083
 continuous trickle current 1082
 continuous voltage regulators 958
 continuous working-voltage rating 1111
 continuously conducting 944
 continuously discharged 1089
 continuously pumped coolants cycle 210
 continuously triggered 948
 control angle 602
 control boundaries 787
 control carrier waveforms 678
 control circuitry 721, 775
 control electromagnet 1398
 control electronics 622
 control flexibility 925
 control operating point 908
 control signal 587, 588
 control strategies 782
 control system 588
 controllable capacitive susceptance 949
 controllable converter circuits main characteristics 553
 controllable dc load power 503
 controllable delay angle range 549, 579
 controllable magnitude angle 955
 controllable phase angle 955
 controllable power factor 775
 controllable series reactive element 973
 controllable shunt susceptance 942
 controllable sinusoidal voltage 959
 controllable sinusoidal voltage source 959
 controllable switching devices 260
 controlled active power operation 901
 controlled arc extinction 1399
 controlled avalanche 591
 controlled converter – constant load current + back emf + overlap 529
 controlled converter 427, 503
 controlled converter model - inversion 549

controlled converter model - rectification 549
 controlled current dc-link 893
 controlled current source 927
 controlled current source concept 734
 controlled current-sourced bridge 732
 controlled current sourced bridge inverter 733
 controlled devices 939, 940
 controlled energy sources 938
 controlled full-wave converter 521
 controlled internal environment 1391
 controlled output voltage 854
 controlled reactive power operation 901
 controlled reactor compensator 945
 controlled rectifiers 503
 controlled sources 939
 controlled thin film 1205
 controlled variables 918
 controlled voltage dc-link 893
 controlled voltage mode 893
 controlled voltage spikes 733
 controller firing circuit and 278
 controller gate waveforms 278
 controller SCRs 410
 convection 133, 134, 1108
 convection heat transfer 134
 convection heat transfer coefficient 134, 135
 convective heat transfer 219
 convective heat transfer process 216
 convective resistance 218
 conventional capacitive turn-off snubber 327
 conventional cooling 1120
 conventional energy sources 989
 conventional inductive turn-on snubber 323
 conventional snubber turn-off 330
 conversion 695
 conversion efficiency 1034
 conversion energy 1035
 conversion factor 1166, 1167, 1353
 conversion losses 924, 925
 converter ac inductors 920
 converter ac line inductance 919
 converter ac voltage 917
 converter average load voltage 543
 converter bridge 907
 converter characteristics comparison 818
 converter circuit 597, 452, 503, 506
 converter commutation 896
 converter comparison 812
 converter current commutation 633
 converter dc output bus 901
 converter dc-link voltage 962
 converter delay angles 927
 converter diodes 506
 converter equivalent circuit 859
 converter firing angle 901
 converter grade thyristors 125, 158
 converter grade thyristor R-C snubber 289, 291
 converter inductor 921
 converter input currents 912
 converter input voltage 518
 converter line current 912
 converter line inductors 920
 converter N output 749
 converter normalised output voltage characteristics 551
 converter on-state losses 771
 converter operating procedure 749
 converter output 748, 899
 converter output terminals 894
 converter output voltage 788, 909, 919
 converter overlap 549
 converter P output 749
 converter parameters 842

converter phase delay angle 749
 converter pwm technique 922
 converter reactive power consumption 909
 converter reactor 918
 converter response times 927
 converter semiconductor 503
 converter semiconductor devices 427
 converter semiconductor voltage drops 546
 converter shut down 540
 converter shutdown sequencing 346
 converter side 554, 906
 converter side-line to neutral voltage 924
 converter size 849
 converter start-up 787
 converter start-up sequencing 346
 converter synthesised controlled voltage 927
 converter terminal 895
 converter terminal connection reversed 894
 converter terminal voltage 921
 converter thyristor firing delay angles 894
 converter transformers 907
 converter transformers dc MMFs 461
 converter turn-off process 567
 converter type - balanced 776
 converter type - flyback 776
 converter type - forward 776
 converter type - resonant 776
 converter voltages 971
 converter weight 849
 converters connected back-to-back 631
 cool rolled 1306
 coolant 193, 214, 215
 coolant chemistry 195
 coolant density 194
 coolant flash point 194
 coolant freezing point 194
 coolant gas 1126
 cooling phase change 228
 coolant properties 233
 coolant specific heat 194
 coolant viscosity 194
 cooling 133
 cooling air flow 1214
 cooling distribution 367
 cooling efficiency 361
 cooling electro-hydrodynamic 220
 cooling electro-wetting 220
 cooling heat fluxes 1134
 cooling hetero-structure 227
 cooling management 928
 cooling periods 1083
 cooling rates 1309
 cooling solid state 222
 cooling super-lattice 227
 cooling system 225
 cooling terminology glossary 1473
 cooling thermionic 228
 cooling thermo-tunnelling 228
 co-ordinated protection units 983
 co-ordination types 630
 CoP 223-227
 co-phasal 706, 726
 co-phasal triplens 465
 co-phase 725
 copper alloy vacuum contacts 1404
 copper alloys 1393
 copper alloys bars 1282
 copper area 1256, 1264, 1277, 1282
 copper bars 616
 copper base plate 226, 590
 copper bus-bar lead frames 590
 copper clad iron 1204

copper coil resistance 1368
 copper conductors 1402
 copper conductors creepage paths 1288
 copper contact resistance 1387
 copper contacts 1371, 1391
 copper cross section area 1290
 copper current density 1256, 1265
 copper diameter 1262
 copper fill factor 1265
 copper flashed 380
 copper foil 1246
 copper fusing current level 1265
 copper interconnect conductors 1119
 copper interface area 238
 copper length 1256
 copper loss 1244, 1253-1264, 1278
 copper plated reed switch 1392
 copper resistivity 1289
 copper rings - end rings 616
 copper saving 1277
 copper stems 1401
 copper temperature coefficient 1363
 copper termination 1207
 copper turns component 1243
 copper turns current ratings 1268
 copper turns diameter 1256
 copper utilisation 827, 1276
 copper utilisation factor 442
 copper volume 1265, 1276
 copper winding area 1260
 copper winding factor 1265
 copper winding loss 1243
 copper winding resistance 1235
 copper window area 1253, 1257, 1259, 1262
 copper window area utilisation 1253
 copper wire 44, 1363
 copper wire design data 1284
 copper wire diameter 1256, 1264
 copper wire resistance 1365
 copper wire volume 1363
 copper-nickel alloy resistance 1207
 copper-zinc galvanic cell 1098
 core 1266
 core air gap 820, 1270
 core area 310, 1268
 core balance transformer 1383
 core characteristic temperature effects 1246
 core characteristics 1233
 core coupling 977
 core cross-sectional area 1268
 core dc mmf 466, 474
 core dimensional parameters 1253
 core dimensional requirements 421
 core dimensions 1238, 1242
 core eddy current 1237
 core effective length 1241
 core effective magnetic dimensions 1238
 core effective magnetic parameters 1238
 core effective volume 1249
 core energy stored 312
 core flux 324, 374, 463, 824, 1249
 core flux bias 1262
 core flux density 1235, 1266
 core hysteresis loss 816, 1243
 core length 1244, 1265, 1277
 core loss 928, 959, 976, 1235-1244 1253, 1259-1264
 core loss factor 1242
 core loss per unit volume 1244, 1247, 1264
 core magnetic field 1249
 core magnetising current 827
 core magnetising current reset 332
 core magnetising flux 821

core material 1244, 1245, 1252, 1266
 core material permeability 1282
 core material resistivity 1238
 core minimum area section 1262
 core mmf bias 467, 475, 476, 480
 core mmf imbalance 471
 core non-linearity 480
 core parameters 1238, 1267
 core path length 1266
 core permeance 1329
 core permeance factor 1247
 core physical dimensions 1256
 core plus copper volume 1259
 core remanence flux 826
 core reset 312, 1257, 1259, 1266, 1269
 core reset time 325, 1270
 core reset voltage 1268
 core saturation 311, 465, 767, 816, 822, 1234, 1256-1272
 core shape 1257-1260
 core size 1249, 1253, 1268
 core size considerations 1254
 core size range 1265
 core stored energy 1257
 core stored magnetic energy 1235
 core surface area 1265
 core temperature 1173, 1200, 1246, 1257
 core temperature considerations 1254
 core temperature rise 1109, 1262, 1265
 core to copper interface 1259
 core triplen fluxes delta connected suppression 920
 core volts-second balance 827
 core volt- μ s 374
 core volume 1253, 1261, 1265
 core window area 1277
 corner radiusing 1407
 corona 1406
 corona breakdown correction factor 1407
 corona cracking 1406
 corona discharge 1184
 corona dope 1407
 corona effects 928
 corona hissing 1406
 corona inception voltage 1407
 corona initiation voltage 1406
 corona ozone 1406
 corona resistance 1198
 corona starting field 1407
 corona starting voltage 1406, 1407
 corona surface factor 1407
 corona voltage levels 193
 corrected effective voltage 1407
 correction factors 1335
 corrosion 38
 corrosion management 1003
 corrosion pole 1097
 corrosion protection 194
 corrosion resistance 1308, 1358
 corrosion resistant 1318
 corrosion resistant properties 1307
 corrosive electrolyte fumes 1063
 corrosive environments 1293
 corrosive fluids 999
 corrosiveness 207
 corrosivity 196
 CO-shift conversion 1009
 co-sinusoidal current fall 301
 cost 29
 cost per Watt 1113
 cost surface mount resistors 1206
 cost-effective 43
 cost-to-energy ratio 1090
 Coulomb of charge 1041, 1097

Coulomb's law 1162
 counter emf 1359
 counteracting spring 1398
 coup-de-fouet 1058
 couple 1119
 coupled circuit 351, 764, 821, 822, 1234
 coupled circuit leakage inductance 353
 coupled circuit model 1235
 coupled circuit secondary 352
 coupled inductor magnetising inductance 371
 coupled inductor self-inductance 371
 coupled magnetic circuit 342, 353
 coupled reactors 370
 coupled secondary circuit 332
 coupled transformer 332
 coupled transformer primary 332
 coupling capacitance 420
 coupling factor 1235, 1266
 coupling mechanism 420
 coupling path 419
 coupling transformer 976, 981
 coupling transformer turns ratio 971
 crack failure 145
 cracked carbon film 1204
 cracking 21, 43, 53
 C-rate 1041
 C-rating 1072
 crest factor 493, 552, 643
 CrFeCo hard magnet material 1306
 critical angle 506, 521
 critical heat flux 214, 216
 critical inductance 814, 825
 critical load current 816
 critical load inductance - single-phase (two pulse) fully-controlled converters 537
 critical load inductance - single-phase (two pulse) semi-controlled converters 537
 critical load inductance - three-phase (six pulse), fully-controlled converters 537
 critical load inductance 444, 456, 506, 521, 527
 critical load inductance of three-phase (six pulse), semi-controlled converters 537
 critical load resistance 779, 784, 793, 796, 797, 800, 803, 805, 809, 811, 815, 821-824
 critical resistance 779, 793, 796, 797, 801, 803, 805, 810, 817, 825, 831, 1211
 critical temperature 1225, 1337
 critical transition temperature 1300
 critical values 825
 cross over times 673
 cross perpendicularly 1286
 cross section 391
 cross sectional area 205, 1271, 1276, 1323
 cross-coupled 342
 cross-coupled reactor external forced current sharing networks 370
 crossover 751, 1001
 crossover distortion 684
 cross-sectional area 201, 204, 400, 894, 1268, 1272
 crowbar 375, 376, 403, 404, 416-418, 591
 crowbar devices 403
 crowbar fault protection 375
 crowbar SCR 416, 417
 crowbar short-circuit current 417
 crucible 42
 cryo-adsorption 990
 cryogenic 206
 crystal anisotropy 1336
 crystal grain orientation 1301
 crystal grains 1225
 crystal growth 1236
 crystal growth axis 1121

crystal growth structure 1033
 crystal inclined cleavage planed defects 1128
 crystal lattice 12, 1119
 crystal modules 1030
 crystal structure 47, 1033, 1037, 1085, 1301
 crystalline formation 1072
 crystalline grains 1030
 crystalline lattice 1037, 1246
 crystalline magnetic anisotropy 1236
 crystalline magnetic material 1301
 crystalline silicon 1032, 1034
 crystalline silicon cells 1044
 crystalline structure 4, 1025
 crystalline structure irregularities 1027
 crystallinity 47
 crystallographic direction 1301, 1302
 crystallographic orientation 20
 CSI 755
 CSI topologies 964
 CSI-based hvdc control system 909
 CTE 166, 241
 cubic equation 831
 Ćuk converter 333, 813-816
 cumulative exposure 1229
 cumulative material transfer 1359
 cumulative percent failure 1373
 cumulative sum 486
 cumulative windings 1277
 cumulatively connected autotransformer windings 1277
 Cunic point 1310, 1315
 cure-in-place thermally conductive compounds 138
 Curie constant 1299
 Curie law 1299, 1300
 Curie point 1246, 1291, 1312
 Curie point temperature 1225
 Curie temperature 398, 1225, 1247, 1300-1308, 1310, 1311, 1317, 1337, 1342
 Curie-Weiss law 1300
 current amplification factor 78
 current balancing transformer 1287
 current boost 1112
 current boost circuit 830
 current boundary condition 509, 510
 current capability 361, 1088, 1288
 current carry applications 1371
 current carrying conductor 1194, 1274, 1281
 current carrying capacity 44, 237, 1087
 current carrying coil 1346, 1348
 current characteristic 380
 current chopping 683, 1404
 current commutation overlap 547
 current compensation 974
 current components 937
 current conducting member 1047
 current conduction angle 942
 current conduction period 372
 current controlled device 265
 current crest factor 643
 current cut-off characteristics 381
 current decay 1368
 current density 1012, 1107, 1246, 1256, 1265, 1281, 1361
 current derating 368
 current derating with frequency 1184
 current discharge 1074
 current discharge rate 1058
 current discontinuity 685
 current discrimination 1380
 current distortion factor 572, 578
 current distribution 1044
 current diversion 1045
 current excitation 1321

current extinction angle 430, 439, 446, 449, 509-512, 515, 524, 555, 580
 current extinction time 658, 660
 current fall 122, 124
 current fall period 338
 current fall time 116, 122
 current fed 695
 current fed induction machine 747
 current fed inverters 260
 current flow 1012, 1045, 1365, 1401
 current form factor 432, 454, 498, 513, 528
 current freewheel 869
 current freewheel paths 635
 current fundamental 538
 current fuse link 380
 current gain 855
 current generated 1038
 current handling 1112
 current handling capability 417
 current harmonic angles 570
 current harmonic elimination 970
 current harmonics 503, 521, 735, 850, 913, 928, 959, 964, 974-978
 current input distortion factor 578
 current in-rush 246
 current inrush control 1227
 current interrupting capability 1402
 current level 1259
 current level polarity change 687
 current limitations 267, 1379
 current limiting 1057, 1106
 current limiting breakers 1375
 current limiting devices 378
 current limiting mechanisms 377
 current limiting path 1203
 current loops 1281, 1401
 current margin 908
 current measurement 1270, 1271
 current measurement techniques 1275
 current measurement transducer 1271
 current mode 1266
 current noise 1208
 current operating region 975
 current output paths 739
 current output pulse 680
 current overload capability 927
 current overload conditions 379
 current parallel sharing factor 368
 current phase shift 765
 current phasor 963
 current protection 379
 current pulse 851, 912, 1107, 1188
 current pulse duration 1381
 current pulse period 682
 current push-pull mode 966
 current ramp soft start 626
 current ramp soft starter 627
 current range 1274
 current rates 1087
 current ratings 1403
 current regulation 588
 current reversal 895
 current ripple 523, 729, 730, 739, 1368
 current ripple factor 428, 495, 497, 513, 528
 current rise 120
 current rise period 254
 current rise time 115, 304, 308
 current sense resistors 1225
 current sensing resistors 1222
 current sensitive device 379
 current shape 771
 current sharing 370

current sharing analysis 371
 current shunt resistor 1203
 current sinking capability 1272
 current sinking topology 1112
 current source 633, 767, 806, 830, 862, 964, 1037
 current source based HVDC transmission systems converter station technologies 896
 current source converter 895, 925
 current source converter hvdc transmission systems 895
 current source converter technology 895
 current source current 1037
 current source input 772
 current source inverter 695, 732-735, 755-758, 767, 773, 964
 current source inverter circuits 755
 current source limit 268
 current source model 1325
 current source parallel connected 1037
 current-sourced converters 830
 current sourced single switch smps 831
 current sourced smps 830
 current surge 1393
 current surge capabilities 415
 current swing 788
 current tail time 124
 current tailing 254, 299
 current transfer 534, 544
 current transfer function 781, 827, 830, 831
 current transfer ratio 78, 1200
 current transformer 347, 962, 1233, 1265-1272, 1275
 current transformer action 1270
 current transformer coupling 861
 current transformer design flowchart 1267
 current transformer design procedure 1268
 current transformer design requirements 1266
 current transformer operation 862
 current transformer primary 1269
 current transformer primary currents 1268
 current transformer requirements 1267
 current transformer secondary currents 1268
 current transient overload characteristics 622
 current transitions 544
 current variation coefficient 389
 current waveform 573, 1190, 1271
 current waveform Fourier coefficients 640
 current waveforms 387, 471
 current zero sensing 1404
 current zero timing 1405
 current-over-time mode 1228
 current-time characteristic 395
 curve knee 1322, 1341
 custom controllers 931
 custom power 958
 custom power controllers 958
 custom power distribution level devices 958
 cut off 93, 116
 cut-off angle 430
 cut-off current 383
 cut-off frequency 781, 974, 1242
 cut-off MOSFET switches 1096
 cut-off spike 1366
 cut-off state 78
 cut-off temperature 1071, 1074
 CVD 3, 21, 38, 39, 51
 cyclability 1044
 cycle count 1082, 1090, 1091, 1114
 cycle life 1040, 1045, 1047, 1061, 1067-1070, 1080-1085, 1090-1095, 1113
 cycle lifetime 1042
 cycle period 371, 658
 cycle rate 389
 cycle-by-cycle basis 785
 cyclic external magnetic field 1323

cyclic loading 389
 cycling 1052, 1088
 cycloconverter 567, 631
 cycloconverter ac regulator - 3-phase to 1-phase 632
 cycloconverter ac regulator circuits 632
 cycloconverter ac regulator, 3-phase supply to 3-phase load - 3-pulse no neutral connection 632
 cycloconverter ac regulator, 3-phase supply to 3-phase load - 6-pulse + optional load neutral connection 632
 cycloconverter negative features 633
 cycloconverter output 631
 cycloconverter output frequency sub-harmonic 631
 cycloconverter positive features 633
 cycloconverter switch commutation 633
 cylindrical bodies 1170
 cylindrical capacitor winding inductance 1286
 cylindrical cells 1077
 cylindrical core 1250
 cylindrical cross-section capacitor 1163
 cylindrical high purity ceramic core 1204
 cylindrical inductor design 1282
 cylindrical inductors 1250
 cylindrical inductors coil layer 1283
 cylindrical inductors multi-layer coil 1283
 cylindrical inductors single-layer coil 1283
 cylindrical shapes 1088
 Czochralski 49
 Czochralski crystal growth 3
 Czochralski process 47, 48
 daily peak demand 1049
 damage annealing 11
 damped frequency 863, 879
 damped resonant angular frequency 758
 damped sinewave pulses 731
 damping constant 758
 damping factor 291, 756, 850
 damping loss 939
 damping networks 913
 dangling bonds 50, 1033
 dark effect 413
 DBA 241
 DBC 241
 dc applications 1190, 1358, 1393
 dc bias current 977, 1251
 dc blocking capacitor 767, 827
 dc brake electronic circuit 627
 dc braking 627
 dc breakdown voltage 413
 dc breaking arcs 1357
 dc cables 917
 dc capacitor 921, 964, 968
 dc capacitor split dc rail 858
 dc centralised ac microgrid architectural structure 983
 dc characteristic 860
 dc charge time 1107
 dc chopper - bipolar voltage switching 679
 dc chopper - load back emf - discontinuous conduction 659
 dc chopper-load back emf-discontinuous conduction verge 658
 dc chopper - load back emf 654
 dc chopper - multilevel output voltage switching 678
 dc chopper - three level 678
 dc chopper - two level 679
 dc chopper 256, 645, 646, 965
 dc chopper circuit 645
 dc chopper-discontinuous conduction 659
 dc chopper variations 645
 dc choppers 647
 dc circuit breakers 433, 927
 dc circuit fuse link design 391

dc-circuit operation 412
 dc circuit resonance 921
 dc circuit theory 354
 dc coil suppression 1367
 dc component 444, 461, 465, 526, 532, 539, 575, 577, 584, 598, 641, 898, 942
 dc copper winding loss 1243
 dc copper winding loss component 1243
 dc current 473, 626, 627, 906, 1109, 1251, 1270, 1361
 dc current braking 628
 dc current component 743
 dc current decay 540
 dc current demand 908
 dc current driver 1368
 dc current injection 984
 dc current magnitude 628
 dc decoupling capacitor 863, 976
 dc discharge time 1107
 dc drift 1273
 dc electrical power generator 1116
 dc electrical power transmission 927
 dc energy source 662
 dc equivalent series resistance dc 1106
 dc fans 190
 dc fault current 391
 dc field offset 1239
 dc filter 751, 896, 917
 dc fuse link protection 390
 dc fuse operation alternatives 391
 dc gain slope 861
 dc harmonic filtering circuitry 896
 dc high-voltage systems 1391
 dc injection 628
 dc injection braking procedure 628
 dc injection duration 628
 dc injection level 984
 dc input voltage 755, 766
 dc input voltage regulation 695
 dc lines 976
 dc link 314, 345, 348, 351, 636, 894, 961, 977
 dc link capacitor 349, 350, 636, 771, 924, 965
 dc link converter 906
 dc link current 548, 908
 dc link efficiency 915
 dc link energy 351
 dc link energy storage element 970
 dc link L-C smoothing filter 713
 dc link radiated EMC 913
 dc link resistive losses 918
 dc link series connected capacitors 737
 dc link side di/dt 896
 dc link smoothing inductance 915
 dc link source voltage 713
 dc link supply 351
 dc link voltage 346, 351, 746, 749, 897
 dc link voltage blocking 347
 dc link voltage boosting 731
 dc load 646
 dc load breaking 1365
 dc load current 651, 901
 dc load output 427, 503
 dc load power 912
 dc machine 503
 dc machine back emf 667
 dc machine back emf power delivered 668
 dc machine four-quadrant control 683
 dc machine model 503, 523
 dc machine with independent converters 747
 dc machine with simultaneously controlled converters 747
 dc magnetic bias 1240
 dc make and break load switching applications 1389
 dc MCB 1382
 dc microgrid architectural structure 983
 dc mmf 461
 dc mmf bias 479
 dc motor 429, 441, 646
 dc motor efficiency 257
 dc motor load 256
 dc motor shunt field 410
 dc operation 399
 dc output 427, 503, 822
 dc output current 488, 490
 dc output solid-state relay control 593
 dc output solid-state relay load connection 593
 dc output solid-state relays 593
 dc output SSR - inductive load 594
 dc output voltage 435, 444, 447, 448, 488, 515, 689, 775
 dc output voltage component 522
 dc output voltage reversing 746, 750
 dc overhead line 893
 dc plastic capacitors 1190
 dc polarity 1190
 dc power 549, 695
 dc power electronic circuits 416
 dc power flow 927
 dc power source 222, 1119
 dc power supply 965
 dc power switching 1370
 dc power switching relays 1369
 dc rail 749
 dc rail decoupling capacitor 864
 dc rail L-C decoupling 769
 dc rail voltage 731, 737
 dc reactive energy storage element 964
 dc relay 1363, 1365
 dc relay coils 1362, 1365
 dc relay technology 1393
 dc relays coils temperature consideration 1363
 dc resistance 1284, 1289, 1290
 dc resistivity insulation characteristics 1179
 dc side filtering 913
 dc side voltage harmonics 899
 dc solid-state relays - inductive loads 594
 dc solid-state relays 594
 dc source 595, 651, 659, 663, 667, 671, 677, 690, 763, 850
 dc source power delivered 665, 666
 dc source voltage 665
 dc spark-over voltage 412
 dc supply 332, 340, 595, 645, 680, 696, 732
 dc supply application 645
 dc supply current 771
 dc supply half-wave rectifier circuit 434
 dc supply inductance 695, 877
 dc supply toleration 363
 dc supply voltage 656, 657
 dc supply voltage rails 696
 dc switching arcing 1373
 dc to ac inverters - resonant mode 755
 dc to ac inverters - switched mode 695
 dc to ac power electronic inverter 981
 dc to ac voltage transfer function 859
 dc to dc converter 261, 775, 849, 855, 856
 dc to dc resonant switch step-down converters 866
 dc to line frequency power conditioner 985, 986
 dc transmission 916, 928
 dc transmission cables 895
 dc transmission line 915
 dc transmission system 893, 895, 907
 dc transmission voltage 917
 dc value 493
 dc voltage 751, 816
 dc voltage component 949
 dc voltage control 908
 dc voltage controlling mode 907

dc voltage electrolytic capacitor 636
 dc voltage input 790
 dc voltage level 390, 915
 dc voltage power applications 1370
 dc voltage rating 1184
 dc voltage source 658, 674, 681
 dc voltage source short circuiting 756
 dc withstand voltage 304
 dc working voltage 309
 DCB 144, 145, 238
 DCB advantages 238
 DCB drawbacks 145
 DCB properties 144
 DCB substrate power module thermal model 240
 DCB substrate power module basic structure 240
 DCB substrates 232
 DCB-ceramic substrate 238
 dc-ac controlled current-source inverters 732
 dc-ac voltage-source inverter bridge topologies 695
 dc-dc buck converter 788
 dc-dc/ac converters 849
 dc-dc chopper 667
 dc-dc conversion function 828
 dc-dc converter 756, 787, 788
 dc-dc converters - constant input voltage 832
 dc-dc converters - constant output voltage 836
 dc-dc voltage converter 645
 dc-line resistance 913
 dc-link capacitor 959, 967, 971, 973
 dc-link capacitor voltage 965
 dc-link clamping 730
 dc-link current 897, 907
 dc-link current harmonics 976
 dc-link decoupling 920, 1190
 dc-link filtering 976
 dc-link harmonic compensation 976
 dc-link power 918
 dc-link power flow 918
 dc-link reactor 959
 dc-link resistance 927
 dc-link resistive losses 914
 dc-link short circuit 909
 dc-link voltage 909, 962, 965, 976
 dc-link voltage harmonic ripple 921
 dc-link voltage magnitude 919
 dc-link voltage source 967
 dc-link voltage variations 921
 dc-side capacitor 959
 dc-side faults 927
 dc-side inductor 959
 dc-side voltage 907, 918
 dc-side voltage harmonics 540
 dead band 787
 dead band boundaries 787
 dead banding 720, 725-730
 dead battery 1097
 dead time 687, 690, 747, 748, 778, 802
 decay rate 760
 decay times 410
 decomposition voltage 1102
 decouple stray inductance 353
 decoupling capacitance 433
 decoupling capacitor 864
 decoupling filter 976
 decoupling input power lines 421
 decreases flux density 1247
 dedicated charger 1089
 de-energized relay 1356
 de-energized time 1366
 deep bar rotor 617
 deep cycle applications 1067
 deep cycle batteries 1047
 deep cycling 1045, 1052, 1068
 deep cycling applications 1075
 deep cycling regimes 1044
 deep cycling routines 1047
 deep discharge 1036, 1049, 1052, 1053, 1075
 deep discharge applications 1066
 deep RIE 32
 deep thermal cycles 136
 defective solid capacitors 1181
 definitions 493, 552
 deformation-induced martensite 1292
 degraded performance 1081
 degree of compensation 954
 degree of crystallinity 1026
 degree of non-linearity 404
 degrees of protection 1427
 dehydration 23
 de-intercalated 1085
 de-ionised water 193, 212, 1049
 delamination 21, 43
 delay 544
 delay angle 503, 505, 512-522, 531-538, 567-573, 580, 622, 899-901, 907-909, 915, 942-954
 delay control angle 611, 612
 delay time 115, 122, 127, 128, 361
 delaying switch turn-on 851
 delta arrangement 942
 delta connect line transformer 957
 delta connected 494, 552
 delta connected fully controlled regulator 611
 delta connected load 606
 delta connected motor 625
 delta connected primary 480-483
 delta connected secondary 898
 delta primary configuration 475
 delta primary winding 467
 delta secondary winding 467
 delta tertiary winding 913
 delta thyristor arrangement 608
 delta winding 911
 delta winding current 899
 delta winding line input current 912
 delta/delta/double polygon 18 pulse converter 910
 delta-delta connection 470
 delta-star connected transformer 473
 delta-star connection 454
 delta-type load 709
 delta-wye connection 471
 demagnetisation 1308
 demagnetisation change per unit volume 1345
 demagnetisation characteristic 1330
 demagnetisation curve 1324, 1328
 demagnetisation curve load permeance 1335
 demagnetisation curve slope 1324
 demagnetisation curve working point 1317
 demagnetisation effect 1329
 demagnetisation load line 1325
 demagnetisation operation 1340
 demagnetisation resistance 1308
 demagnetising bias field 1343
 demagnetising characteristic 1324
 demagnetising fields 1305, 1311
 demagnetising winding 821
 demagnetization 1293, 1321, 1337-1340
 demagnetization characteristic 1310, 1335, 1347
 demagnetization curve 1308, 1315-1325, 1331, 1337-1348
 demagnetization curve knee 1339, 1348
 demagnetization effects 1321, 1322
 demagnetization knee 1343
 demagnetization resistance 1321, 1339
 demagnetizing field 1302, 1307, 1318, 1331, 1340, 1342
 demagnetizing force 1322

demagnetizing influence 1332
 demineralised 1009
 density 134, 180, 215, 233, 234, 989, 1198, 1408
 density effects 187
 density of fluid 183
 depleted acid 1050
 depleted cell 1036
 depleted reactant 1097
 depletion layer 57
 depletion layer capacitance 64
 depletion region 80
 deposition 3, 8, 22, 38, 40, 43, 1031
 deposition process 19
 deposition rate 22
 deposition techniques 1030
 depth of discharge 1061, 1076, 1138
 depth of focus 26
 depth of discharge 1089
 derating 161, 368
 derating factor 383, 388
 derived electromagnetic units 1505
 derived units 1419
 design approach 752
 design curves for ac fused in dc application 390
 design flowchart 1257, 1258, 1261, 1267
 desorption 30, 35
 detectable negative slope 1071
 deterioration 418
 deterioration mechanism 413
 developed torque 619
 developer 24
 development 24
 device area utilisation 361
 device bulk temperature 395
 device capacitances 265
 device conduction 506, 672
 device conduction loss 939
 device conduction paths 505
 device conduction pattern 712
 device cooling 397
 device current limit 247
 device efficiency 1047
 device electrical characteristics matching 361
 device energy absorption capabilities 406
 device fabrication 36, 51
 device failure 249, 375
 device geometry 404
 device material 404
 device maximum off-state voltages 770
 device model 256, 371
 device parallel operation 361
 device protection 361
 device reset 395
 device reset time 397
 device resistance 395
 device series operation 361
 device switching losses 718, 247
 device thermal characteristics matching 361
 device under test 156
 device voltage limit 247
 device wear-out 413
 DG integration 983
 DG interconnection 983
 DG operation 982
 DG protective switchgear 984
 DG utility interconnection protection requirements 984
 DI 228
 di/dt 420
 di/dt sensitivity 415
 diac 275, 281, 282, 414
 diamagnetic effect 1299
 diamagnetic elements 1297
 diamagnetic material 1236, 1291, 1299
 diamagnetic metals 1299
 diamagnetism 1297-1299
 diamond cut 1205
 diamond CVD 15
 diamond saw 1026
 diamond scribing 43
 diamond wheel sawing 43
 diaphragm membrane 1008
 diaphragm relay 1391
 diaphragm style 1390
 diaphragm style relay 1390, 1394
 diaphragm style single-pole relay design 1390
 diatomic gas 992
 diatomic molecules 1008
 die area 83
 die separation 43
 dielectric 19, 1011, 1178
 dielectric absorption 1163, 1168, 1198
 dielectric arrangements 1181
 dielectric breakdown 1387, 1406
 dielectric capacitors 1162
 dielectric conduction 1181
 dielectric conduction losses 1181
 dielectric constant 215, 232, 398, 1122, 1162, 1163, 1178, 1194-1198, 1213, 1225, 1230, 1242
 dielectric constant materials 1181
 dielectric dc leakage resistance 1164
 dielectric defective area 1168
 dielectric electrochemical forming process 1171
 dielectric field strength 1204
 dielectric fields 1287
 dielectric film 220, 1179
 dielectric fluids 193, 212
 dielectric isolation 1369
 dielectric layer 21, 265
 dielectric layer thickness 1102, 1162
 dielectric leakage 1103
 dielectric liquid 214, 215
 dielectric liquid coolants 194
 dielectric loss 231, 927, 1163, 11781-1184, 1190, 1191, 1198
 dielectric loss factor 234
 dielectric material 1162, 1178, 1181, 1191, 1288, 1387
 dielectric material capacitor temperature coefficient 1183
 dielectric mica 1197
 dielectric over-stresses 1190
 dielectric oxide layer breakdown 1175
 dielectric oxide layer - electrolytic capacitor 1168
 dielectric permittivity 65
 dielectric plastics 1177
 dielectric properties 194, 1191
 dielectric reforming process 1171
 dielectric relative permittivity 1163
 dielectric rigidity 1399
 dielectric stand off voltage 1371
 dielectric strength 215, 231, 232, 1122, 1178, 1198, 1288, 1387, 1398, 1399
 dielectric strength comparison 1398
 dielectric thickness 1102, 1168, 1289, 1290
 dielectric type 1168, 1183, 1187, 1192, 1197
 dielectric withstand 1206
 dielectric withstand voltage 1203, 1395
 dielectric withstanding voltage loss 1393
 differential currents 419
 differential equation 372
 differential mode filtering 421
 differential mode mains supply noise filtering 420
 differential thermal expansion 137, 145
 differentially connected windings 1276
 diffraction 26
 diffuse grey surface 143
 diffuse mode 1401

diffused arc 1400
 diffused guard ring 97
 diffused resistors 34
 diffusion 4, 6, 11, 13, 57, 73, 202, 1027
 diffusion coefficient 5, 7, 1086
 diffusion length 6
 diffusion process 1033, 1048
 diffusion profile sawing 7
 diffusion rate 1062
 diffusion technology 405
 diffusivity 5, 7
 dilute solutions 1098
 dimension constraints 1187
 dimensional change 1004
 dimensional stability 994
 dimensionless permeance coefficient 1328
 diode 57, 392
 diode ac currents 369
 diode avalanche breakdown 413
 diode average current 369, 434, 452, 459, 460, 476, 777, 791, 799
 diode average current rating 642
 diode bootstrap 270, 271
 diode bridge current 449
 diode clamped 736, 866
 diode clamped coil 1366
 diode clamped inverter 737, 743, 744
 diode clamped multi-level inverter 343, 344, 736
 diode-clamped multi-level inverter snubbers 344
 diode clamped three-level inverter 738
 diode conduction 428, 449, 651
 diode conduction angle 453, 454
 diode conduction period 449, 451
 diode conduction time 802, 803
 diode current 430, 438, 448, 495-499, 654, 666, 668, 782, 1037
 diode current conduction period 450
 diode current extinction angle 449, 451
 diode current form factor 454, 457, 538
 diode current ratings 448
 diode current ripple factor 457, 538
 diode current turn-on angle 451
 diode dark saturation current 1037
 diode forward bias 366, 430
 diode forward I - V characteristic 371
 diode heat-sink design 160
 diode I - V static characteristics 58
 diode junction temperature 164, 165
 diode losses 813
 diode maximum average current 609
 diode maximum reverse voltage 442
 diode mean current 448
 diode non-ideal factor 1038
 diode on-state energy loss 159
 diode on-state voltage 164, 165
 diode peak current 434
 diode peak reverse voltage 880
 diode position 737
 diode R - C switching aid circuit 288
 diode recovery 315
 diode recovery energy 340
 diode recovery voltage snap 766
 diode rectification stage 448
 diode reverse blocking voltage 434
 diode reverse recovery 256, 346
 diode reverse recovery charge 159
 diode reverse recovery current 287, 293, 302, 334
 diode reverse recovery energy 336
 diode reverse recovery snubber 354
 diode reverse voltage 436, 495-499, 555, 557, 642
 diode reverse voltage rating 854
 diode rms current 257, 369, 444, 452, 459, 460, 476, 777, 791, 799

diode rms current rating 642
 diode snap-off 292
 diode total loss 1263
 diode voltage 448, 782, 877, 1037
 diode voltage drop 1263
 diode voltage snap 287
 diodes freewheeling 854
 diode-Zener series combination 1367
 dipole moments 1301
 dipole orientation 1181
 direct bond aluminium 241
 direct bond copper 241
 direct combustion 1015
 direct contact 1382
 direct cooling - liquid jet impingement 217
 direct cooling - spray cooling 217
 direct copper bonded substrates 232
 direct copper bonding 144, 238
 direct coupling 976
 direct current 893
 direct current electrical systems 1369
 direct current loads 1373
 direct electrical connection 1278
 direct heavy particle irradiation 1339
 direct immersion systems 193
 direct interconnection 45
 direct lightning strike 375, 376
 direct liquid cooling - immersion cooling 174, 214
 direct liquid cooling - liquid jet impingement 174
 direct liquid cooling - spray cooling 174
 direct liquid cooling 174, 193, 197, 214
 direct liquid immersion cooling 214
 direct liquid water 1180
 direct methanol fuel cell 998
 direct snubbing 354
 direction ac to ac conversion 567
 direction reversal 747
 directional 15, 29
 directional crystallization 1121
 direct-methanol fuel cell 999, 1001
 direct-on-line starting 619, 621
 dirty power requirement 1112
 dis-accommodation factor 1247, 1248
 disc ceramic capacitor 1197
 disc construction 1194
 discharge capacity 1073
 discharge chemistry 1050
 discharge circuit resistance 1188
 discharge current 1041, 1084, 1088, 1095
 discharge current magnitude 367
 discharge cut-off 1096
 discharge cycle 1044, 1085, 1113
 discharge depth 1044, 1061
 discharge duration 1104
 discharge element 411
 discharge limit 1058
 discharge over-current 1096
 discharge path 1172
 discharge power performance 1065
 discharge process 1037
 discharge pulses 1089
 discharge rate 1041, 1057, 1058, 1062-1067, 1090, 1113
 discharge rate capacity 1011
 discharge rate effect on discharge capacity 1082
 discharge reaction 1036, 1037
 discharge reserve 1075
 discharge resistor power rating 309
 discharge termination 1081
 discharge tests 331, 1057, 1058, 1104
 discharge voltage 1075
 discharge/charge cycles 1052, 1057
 discharged 1102

discharged capacity 1082
 discharged limits 1102
 discharging cell 1040
 discharging currents 1200
 discharging path 297
 discharging specification 1105
 discontinuous alternating current pulses 580
 discontinuous capacitor charging current 792
 discontinuous charging condition 792
 discontinuous choke current 800
 discontinuous conduction 508-518, 521-524, 654-659, 666, 793, 808, 815-817
 discontinuous conduction verge 658, 814
 discontinuous current 436, 446, 555, 603
 discontinuous current flow 896
 discontinuous inductor conduction 792, 802, 812
 discontinuous inductor current 346, 445, 527, 776-780, 786, 792-801, 809-819, 831, 854, 856
 discontinuous inductor current mode 340
 discontinuous inductor operation 800
 discontinuous input current 459
 discontinuous load current 437, 505, 517-524, 533-537, 568, 646-653, 658-660
 discontinuous load current analysis 652
 discontinuous load current bounds 652
 discontinuous load current conduction 524
 discontinuous load current load waveforms 665
 discontinuous load current minimum period 659
 discontinuous load inductor current 665
 discontinuous load voltage 602
 discontinuous loads 932
 discontinuous mode 802
 discontinuous modulating reference 726
 discontinuous output current 523, 635, 790
 discontinuous rms neutral current 605
 discontinuous unidirectional current pulses 580
 discrete electrical components 1037
 discrete levels 736
 discrimination 379, 1379
 dislocation loops 37
 dislocation nests 37
 dislocations 13, 37
 displaced layer construction 1178
 displaced metal foil 1177
 displacement angle 583
 displacement current 1190
 displacement factor 454, 539, 572, 640, 642
 displacement power factor 640
 displacement power factor angle 546
 displacement-pulses 1404
 disposal 1053
 disposal regulations 1036
 dissimilar materials 1117
 dissimilar metals 1037
 dissipated heat 1116
 dissipating energy 756
 dissipation constant 393, 1225, 1228
 dissipation factor 401, 1164, 1179-1181, 1187, 1190-1198
 dissipation impedance 1180
 dissipation losses 347
 dissipation paths 592
 dissipation properties 1196
 dissociation 18, 1047
 dissociation kinetics 998
 dissolved chemicals 1037
 distended battery 1057
 distorted supply voltages 937
 distorted waveform 921
 distortion factor 446, 457, 493, 572, 583, 642, 695, 702
 distributed capacitance properties 1288
 distributed generation 981, 989, 1035
 distributed generation inverters 1047
 distributed inductance 1273
 distributed shunt capacitance 1212
 distribution line 961
 distribution network 982
 distribution subsystems 931
 distribution system 958
 distribution voltage level 981
 diverter 404
 diversity 1381
 diversity factor 1381
 dmos structure 80
 domain 1303
 domain alignment 1300
 domain walls 1307
 domestic hot water 993
 dominant failure mode 1175
 donor 1, 58
 dopant atoms 1034
 dopant gases 16
 dopant 1, 4, 5, 10
 doped polycrystalline ceramic 1225
 doping 12
 dose 13
 dot convention 821
 double charge boundary layers 1011
 double converter circuit 746
 double edge modulation 724
 double electric field 1011
 double layer antireflection coating 1027
 double layer capacitor 1011, 1035
 double layer capacitor model 1103
 double layer capacitor systems 1096
 double layer cell protection circuitry 1096
 double layer interface potential distribution 1102
 double layer super-capacitor electrical equivalent cct 1104
 double metallised film 1178
 double sulphate equations 1043
 double throw configurations 1404
 double throw relay 1373, 1390, 1405
 double tuned filter single phase equivalent cct diagram 921
 double tuned filter single phase equivalent harmonic impedance characteristic 921
 double-cage rotor 617
 double-negative bevelling 72
 double-positive bevelling 72
 double-wound polygon analysis 910
 down-line customers 982
 down-time 619
 drag loss 1243
 drain 79
 drain current 82, 119, 272
 drain fall time 267
 drain rise time 267
 drain switching speed 266
 drain switching times 271
 drain voltage 121, 272
 drain voltage rise 122
 drain-source depletion field capacitance 271
 drain-to-source breakdown voltage 81
 drain-to-source impedance 265
 drift coefficient 1180
 drift region 86
 drive efficiency 748
 drive input device loss 156
 drive input device power loss 157
 drive train 617
 drive-in 6
 drive-in diffusion 5
 driven load 627
 driver transistor 283
 driving thyristors 265
 driving transistors 265

driving voltage 490
 droop characteristic 907
 drop out delay 1369
 droplet sizes 217
 droplets 217
 drop-out 1360, 1361, 1365
 drop-out temperature dependence 1363
 drop-out time 1367
 drop-out voltage 1355, 1362
 dry capacitor 1102, 1191
 dry chemical etching 29
 dry circuit 1370, 1357
 dry circuit loads 1370
 dry electrolyte 1162
 dry etching 27-33
 dry joint 138
 dry oxidation 20
 dry oxide 1169
 dry plastic separator 1102
 dry reactive ion etching 51
 dry solid polymer cell 1090
 dry solid polymer electrolyte 1090
 drying 35
 dual active snubber energy recovery 349
 dual converter circuit 746, 749
 dual energy recovery circuits 339
 dual energy recovery circuits operating regions 339
 dual input voltage function 452
 dual polarity output voltage 487
 dual reactor TCR compensator 943
 dual snubber 342
 dual snubber energy recovery 338
 dual-function materials 1292
 dumb nickel-based batteries 1071
 dumping capacitor 331
 dumping resistor 965
 duration components 746
 duration index 228
 DUT 156
 duty cycle 149-161, 600, 646, 652, 668-685, 767-778, 785, 792-811, 815-820, 824-831, 849, 1108, 1109, 1268, 1365
 duty cycle complement 828
 duty cycle control 779, 801
 duty cycle limit 820
 duty cycles 665, 778, 1188
 duty ratio 788
 dv/dt 420
 dv/dt capability 1187, 1200
 dv/dt immunity 416
 dv/dt limitation 589
 dv/dt protection 288
 dv/dt rating 95
 dv/dt sensitivity 415
 dv/dt stress 98
 dv/dt suppression 592
 dv/dt transients 927
 dv/dt voltages 351
 dynamic ac resistance 61
 dynamic braking 735
 dynamic capacitance 487
 dynamic current balancing 374
 dynamic current response 750
 dynamic electrical device characteristics 368
 dynamic event 396
 dynamic gate-to-drain capacitance 266
 dynamic impedance 1366
 dynamic magnetic systems 1339
 dynamic operation 1346
 dynamic resistance 403
 dynamic viscosity 215
 dynamic voltage balancing 366

dynamic voltage control 977
 dynamic voltage regulation 917
 dynamic voltage restorer 939, 958-961
 E and I laminations 1236
 E field 420
 E resistors 1230
 E12 range 1231
 E3 range 1230
 E6 range 1231
 early life failure distribution 189
 earth potential 422
 earth potential rise 375
 earth-current 894
 earthing 422
 earth fault loop impedance 1384
 earth leakage circuit breaker 1382
 earthing leakage circuitry 1199
 earth leakage currents 1384
 earth leakage current effects 1383
 earth leakage detection 1374
 earth loop impedance 1386
 earth's surface 1048
 easy cleavage plane 1197
 e-beam evaporation 41
 e-beam lithography 27
 EBL 26
 E-core design data 1258
 E-core pair 1252
 E-cores 1253, 1263
 eddy current losses 1182, 1235, 1236, 1243-1246
 eddy current magnetic fields 1246
 eddy currents 1182, 1401
 eddy currents dominate losses 1242
 edge defined film fed growth 1029, 1050
 edge insulation 1069
 edge isolation 1027
 edge junction isolation 1027
 edge passivation 260
 edgewise conductors 1282
 effective ac load resistance 852
 effective active filtering 976
 effective anode 1000
 effective area 1257, 1262, 1264
 effective area per unit volume 1176
 effective capability limiting 1281
 effective capacitance 1163
 effective capacitive reactance 954
 effective cathode 1000
 effective channel length 82
 effective concentration 1097, 1098
 effective condenser surface area 201
 effective core parameters 1234, 1257
 effective dimensional parameters 1260
 effective dimensions 1239
 effective dis-accommodation factor 1247
 effective distance 1163
 effective evaporator surface area 201
 effective gap area 1241
 effective gate input capacitance 121
 effective heat dispersion 300
 effective inductance 1235, 1289
 effective input impedance 419, 420, 654-659, 662, 675
 effective input voltage 768
 effective internal resistance 1188
 effective length 1241, 1257
 effective line reactance 948
 effective load power factor 763, 851
 effective magnetic dimensions 1238
 effective magnetic parameters 1238
 effective mass 1217

effective minimum core volume 1249
 effective oscillation frequency 770
 effective parameters 1252
 effective permeability 1241, 1248-1254, 1282
 effective pulse I^2t 388
 effective remanent magnetization 1321
 effective sending end voltage 971
 effective sending voltage 962
 effective short circuit ratio 895
 effective square wave input 854
 effective supply voltage 705
 effective switching frequency 924
 effective temperature coefficient 1248
 effective thermal conductivity 166, 204
 effective thermal resistance 136, 204, 225
 effective transmission end voltage 957
 effective value 493
 effective voltage 971
 effective volume 1254
 effectively wound back 1207
 efficiency 427, 503, 618, 864, 1035, 1040, 1041, 1047, 1130-1132, 1259, 1262-1265
 efficiency energy transfer 763
 efficiency performance 1020
 efficiency ratio 1043, 1044
 efficient 991
 efficient permanent magnet design 1337
 efficient water-cooled heat sink 1132
 E-field stress 1407
 E-I core 463
 E-I laminations 1265
 EIA designation 1196
 electric 1122
 electric arc 1399
 electric arc furnace 46
 electric charge 1097, 1162, 1303
 electric circuit 1008
 electric circuit interrupts 1355
 electric current 419, 992, 1023, 1028, 1087, 1118, 1227, 1302
 electric discharge 12
 electric distribution 982
 electric energy 968
 electric field 52, 66, 73, 221, 411, 419, 420, 928, 965, 1023-1025, 1030-1036, 1163, 1168, 1190 1197, 1406
 electric field breakdown strength 19
 electric field component 420
 electric field coupling 420
 electric field distribution 1407
 electric field gradient 1407
 electric field intensity 1281
 electric field intensity penetration 1281
 electric field magnitude 1190
 electric field strength 1169
 electric field stresses 1191
 electric grid integration 983
 electric motor inrush current 1373
 electric motor soft starter 616
 electric motors 616
 electric potential barrier 57
 electric power 1012
 electric power train 616
 electric shock 422, 1192, 1386
 electric shock danger 1192
 electric supply circuit 616
 electric transmission 982
 electric vehicles 1370
 electric/hybrid vehicles 1112
 electrical active material 1045
 electrical analogue 135
 electrical appliances 1192
 electrical carriers 1119
 electrical characteristics 52, 380, 397, 411, 1026, 1042, 1179, 1267, 1288
 electrical charge 1101
 electrical circuit 731, 1040
 electrical circuit switching 1355
 electrical circuit terms 1323
 electrical coefficients 1209
 electrical conducting partitioning wall 1055
 electrical conducting properties 420, 993
 electrical conductivity 22, 193, 228, 1005, 1124, 1292, 1302, 1356, 1359
 electrical conductor 1041, 1047, 1356
 electrical contact 1000, 1035, 1169, 1178, 1199, 1206
 electrical contact placement 1027
 electrical continuity 1388
 electrical conversion 645
 electrical current 1015, 1040, 1041, 1326, 1336
 electrical distribution network 616
 electrical elements 1065
 electrical energy 989, 1012-1014, 1035-1040, 1117, 1129
 electrical energy capacity 1041
 electrical energy conversion 442, 430
 electrical energy inverting transformation 755
 electrical energy pump 1037
 electrical equations 1235
 electrical equivalent circuit 1207
 electrical erosion 1371
 electrical factor 1290
 electrical fault 393
 electrical field 50, 1396
 electrical heating 1227
 electrical impedance 1163
 electrical input power 1122, 1123
 electrical insulating ceramic substrates 1119
 electrical insulation 1103
 electrical insulator 136, 1101
 electrical isolation 275, 1278
 electrical junction potential 1117
 electrical life determining factors 1402
 electrical life expectancy 1358, 1359
 electrical life rating 1395
 electrical lifetime 1399
 electrical load 992
 electrical loop 1117
 electrical machines 731
 electrical make 1359
 electrical mechanical 1288
 electrical node 403
 electrical noise 731, 1357, 1388
 electrical noise levels 1358
 electrical non-isolated connection 1278
 electrical operating conditions 287
 electrical output open-circuit 1013
 electrical parameter operational limits 1110
 electrical parameters 415, 1233, 1288, 1290
 electrical performance 586
 electrical positive carriers 1119
 electrical potential 989, 1035, 1036
 electrical power 893, 981, 1035, 1129, 1356
 electrical power applications 1162, 1204
 electrical power distribution systems 931
 electrical power generation transmission and distribution systems 893
 electrical power heat 991
 electrical power industry 981
 electrical power input 1227
 electrical power systems 931
 electrical power transmission systems 931
 electrical pressure 1037
 electrical properties - PTC devices 395
 electrical properties 51, 413, 1007, 1044, 1207, 1356
 electrical pulses 386, 1219

electrical pump 1037
 electrical rating 1359
 electrical reliability 1207
 electrical resistance 1006, 1048, 1117, 1123, 1305, 1363
 electrical resistivity 1005, 1123, 1131, 1293
 electrical safety 1393
 electrical service life 1362
 electrical short 1393
 electrical shorting failure 1103
 electrical shorts 1371
 electrical stability 1207
 electrical stress capabilities 1178
 electrical stress levels 1206
 electrical stresses 1174
 electrical surge stresses 375
 electrical surges 375
 electrical switchgear 983
 electrical system 630
 electrical traction systems 375
 electrical trip event 397
 electrical work 1346
 electrical work energy 1013
 electrical work reaction 1013
 electrically charged atoms 1090
 electrically charged groups of atoms 1090
 electrically conducting 1103
 electrically conductive 1030, 1357
 electrically conductive metal strips 1027
 electrically connection 43
 electrically equivalent 1037
 electrically gate 265
 electrically insulating 997
 electrically insulative 173
 electrically isolated 819, 1037, 1199
 electrically isolated powder particles 1238
 electrically isolated rotor 616
 electrically neutral 422
 electrically operated switch 1355
 electrically-conducting substrate 917
 electricity 992
 electricity conductor 1023
 electricity generation 1023, 1047
 electricity produced 1013
 electro-active oxide materials 1086
 electro-catalyst 1001
 electro-catalytic activity 1005
 electrochemical battery 1103, 1106, 1035, 1102, 1113, 1137
 electrochemical battery cell 1035
 electrochemical battery terminology glossary 1451
 electrochemical cell 1035
 electrochemical conversion 1050
 electrochemical corrosion 894
 electrochemical deep etching processes 1169
 electrochemical deposition 3, 1030
 electrochemical device 992, 1102
 electrochemical double layer capacitor 1101
 electrochemical energy 1036
 electrochemical equation 1097
 electrochemical interface 1102
 electrochemical lead-acid battery 1106
 electrochemical lead-acid battery technologies 1040
 electrochemical operating environment 1005
 electrochemical oxidation-reduction reaction 1035
 electrochemical oxidising process 1169
 electrochemical potential 1085, 1094
 electrochemical process 991, 1014, 1169
 electrochemical reaction 1036, 1037, 1048, 1050, 1062, 1097
 electrochemical reduction 994
 electrochemical requirements 1005
 electrochemical series 1039
 electrochemical transformation 1064
 electrochemically compatible 1048

electro-chemistry 993, 1098
 electrocution 1383, 1386
 electrocution protection 1383
 electrode 991, 993, 994, 1000, 1008, 1028-1038, 1101, 1102, 1177, 1181
 electrode active mass 1101
 electrode area 1101
 electrode connections type 1191
 electrode faces 1401
 electrode foil 1181
 electrode impedance 1103
 electrode internal heating 1106
 electrode kinetics 1004
 electrode layers 1006
 electrode material 1114
 electrode plate 1194
 electrode potential 1036-1039, 1098, 1102
 electrode principle 1400
 electrode resistance 1106, 1190
 electrode self-discharge 1074
 electrode spacing 412
 electrode surface area 1046, 1072
 electrode virtual short 413
 electro-deposition 14, 1031, 1032
 electrodes active surface area 1087
 electrodes edge connections 1198
 electrodes inductance 1163
 electrodes lithium ion flow 1088
 electro-hydrodynamic and electro-wetting cooling 174
 electro-hydrodynamic cooling 220
 electrolysis methods 1008
 electrolysis 992, 993, 1037, 1074
 electrolysis cell 1008
 electrolysis process 1008
 electrolysis reaction 1080
 electrolyte 991-1004, 1037-1050, 1064, 1065, 1079, 1086, 1102, 1103, 1176
 electrolyte absorber 1048
 electrolyte absorption ability 1048
 electrolyte boiling 1074
 electrolyte break down 1102
 electrolyte capacitors 1170
 electrolyte concentration 1070, 1098
 electrolyte conductance 1103
 electrolyte conduction 992
 electrolyte conductivity 1004
 electrolyte corrosion 1176
 electrolyte dielectric capacitors 1168
 electrolyte diffusion 1048, 1175
 electrolyte dry-out 1057
 electrolyte evaporation 1176
 electrolyte immobilization systems 1049
 electrolyte interface 1087
 electrolyte leakage 1090, 1109
 electrolyte management 1003
 electrolyte redistribution 1070
 electrolyte reserve 1074
 electrolyte reserve depletion 1074
 electrolyte resistance 1106
 electrolyte retaining ability 1048
 electrolyte retention 1048
 electrolyte specific gravity 1051, 1062
 electrolyte specific weight 1050
 electrolyte volatility 1002
 electrolytic 1000
 electrolytic capacitor dielectric oxide layer 1168
 electrolytic capacitors 1101, 1113, 1163-1173, 1181, 1190
 electrolytic copper 1204
 electrolytic generated dielectric oxide film 1171
 electrolytic membrane 992
 electrolytic membrane materials 1019
 electrolytic solution 1101, 1102

electrolytic solution polarisation 1101
 electrolyze 1063
 electromagnet 1355, 1398
 electromagnet cores 1302
 electromagnetic coil 1391, 1392
 electromagnetic compatibility 419
 electromagnetic compatibility issues 925
 electromagnetic device 1355
 electromagnetic efficiency 658, 659, 662
 electromagnetic efficiency of conversion 674
 electromagnetic emissions 419
 electromagnetic energy conversion efficiency 256, 651, 654
 electromagnetic energy transfer efficiency 672
 electromagnetic environment 419
 electromagnetic field 419, 1163
 electromagnetic fields oppose 1281
 electromagnetic interference 419, 587, 849
 electromagnetic interference conducted 287
 electromagnetic interference radiated 287
 electromagnetic interference radiation 917
 electromagnetic phenomenon 419
 electromagnetic power 690-692
 electromagnetic radiation 1024
 electromagnetic radiators 173
 electromagnetic spectrum 237-1024
 electromagnetic systems 1278
 electromagnetic thermal radiation heat loading 133
 electromagnetic thermal radiation heat transfer 133
 electromagnetic trip relay 1383
 electromagnetic wave theory 1281
 electromechanical counterparts 587
 electromechanical energy conversion 981
 electromechanical loads 246
 electromechanical losses 1181
 electromechanical motors 617
 electromechanical relay 586, 1365
 electromechanical starter 625
 electromechanical systems 616
 electromechanical systems forces 1348
 electromigration 38-41
 electromotive force 1037
 electron affinities 1037
 electron beam 38
 electron beam evaporation 18, 41
 electron beam lithography 24, 26
 electron charge 22, 1023, 1037, 1227
 electron column 26
 electron conduction 1023
 electron conductivity 1004, 1005, 1023
 electron deficiency 1052
 electron emission 411
 electron flow 1024, 1053
 electron gun 11, 26
 electron irradiation 72, 93
 electron lithography 23, 26
 electron mobility 2, 52
 electron non-conducting 1040
 electron pump 1035, 1037
 electron recombination 1040
 electron release 1035
 electron scattering 26, 27
 electron surplus 1037
 electron tendency 1037
 electron transfer 1037, 1097
 electron velocity 85
 electron velocity saturation 81
 electron-hole pair 1, 2, 1023-1025, 1040, 1099
 electronic behaviour 1037
 electronic circuitry 1071
 electronic component 1174, 1168, 1199
 electronic conductivity 994
 electronic equipment 999
 electronic heat pump 1116
 electronic monitoring 1071
 electronic motor controller 616
 electronic properties 1026
 electronic soft starters 624
 electronic structure 1301
 electronically insulated electrolyte 992
 electronics applications 1002
 electrons 1, 23, 57, 992, 1037
 electrons collide 1388
 electrons energy level 1119
 electrons gyrate 1400
 electro-plating 15, 1318
 electrosorption 1114
 electrostatic barrier potential 65
 electrostatic discharge devices 377
 electrostatic discharge protection 416
 electrostatic field 1101
 electrostatic field strength 1387
 electrostatic screen 1273, 1274
 electrostatic shield 1392
 electrostatic stored energy 1101
 electrostatically stored charge 1114
 electrostriction 1181
 electrowetting 221
 electrowetting cooling 220
 element constant 404
 element geometry 1120
 element heat capacity 1228
 element length 1211, 1217, 1272
 element linear energy derating 1214
 element linear power derating 1214
 element number in commutation group 494
 element pairs 1123
 element temperature 393
 element transient response 406
 element voltage 1207
 elemental periodic table 1300
 elementary magnetic moments 1337
 elevated temperature operation 1036
 elevated temperatures 1082, 1337
 elevated temperatures demagnetisation 1342
 elevated temperatures excessively overcharging 1079
 embedded distributed generation 958
 embedded generation 981, 989, 1035
 embedded generation interfacing 985
 EMC 173, 276, 419, 592, 913
 EMC directives - immunity 630
 EMC directives 630
 EMC directives emission 630
 EMC filtering 588
 EMC filtering regulations 276
 EMC interference 731
 EMC issues 925
 EMC limits 276
 EMC shields 920
 emergency power 981
 emf 428
 emf components induced 1274
 emf induced in another conductor 1281
 emf potential difference 1118
 emf produced 1272
 emf source 523
 emi 419, 849, 886, 917, 1259, 1365
 emi penetration suppression 1194
 emi shielding 1259
 emi suppression capacitors 1192, 1194
 emissions 993, 1049
 emissivity 142, 235-238
 emissivity coefficient 141, 143
 emitter 77
 emitter junction cut off 116

emitter saturation voltage 78
 emitter shorts 117
 emitting diode 1200
 emitting surface 143
 empirical battery model 1137
 empirical pulse power model 1219
 enamelled copper wire 1256
 encapsulated high-voltage diaphragm relay 1391
 encapsulation 361
 enclosure cooling 188
 end of life 413, 1064, 1110
 end voltage limit 1058
 endothermic 1018
 endothermic metals 1079
 endothermic reaction 1009, 1070
 endpoint voltage 1074
 endurance capacitance 1110
 endurance resistance 1110
 endurance specification 1221
 endurance test 1221
 energized coil 1389
 energy 381
 energy absorbing sizes 591
 energy absorption capability 404
 energy back 1105
 energy band gap 19, 52, 1024
 energy *BH* 1319
 energy capacity 1052, 1084, 1089
 energy change per unit volume 1330
 energy chemically stored 1101
 energy conversion 1012, 1035
 energy conversion efficiency 1012, 1040
 energy conversion factor 641
 energy conversion system 981, 1129
 energy delivered 1115
 energy density 413, 989-999, 1010, 1019, 1035-1050, 1066, 1074-1095, 1113, 1114, 1190, 1198, 1310, 1346, 1347
 energy density capabilities 1035
 energy density rating 1041
 energy derating 1220
 energy dissipated 288, 304, 310, 318, 1116
 energy dissipation 405, 409
 energy dumping 330
 energy efficiency 1036
 energy generated deficit 668
 energy injection pulse 1217
 energy input 796
 energy levels 1024
 energy limits 1219
 energy loss 246, 331
 energy loss equation 307
 energy loss mechanisms 1181, 1190
 energy lost 851
 energy market 982
 energy output 796, 1345
 energy per m² 990
 energy per unit volume 989, 1348
 energy per unit weight 1041
 energy product 1305-1308, 1310, 1311, 1314
 energy properties 990, 1307
 energy pulse 1219, 1220
 energy rating 408
 energy reactant sources 1035
 energy recovery 334, 342
 energy recovery active turn-off snubber 333
 energy recovery capacitive turn-off snubber circuits 327
 energy recovery circuits - active 323
 energy recovery circuits - passive 323
 energy recovery for inductive turn-on snubber circuits 323
 energy recovery switching-aid circuits 323
 energy recovery turn-off snubber energy recovery stages 328
 energy recovery turn-off snubber equivalent circuit 331
 energy released 1346
 energy resonance 760
 energy returned 338
 energy source 760, 959, 989, 1020, 1035, 1085, 1323, 1324
 energy spectrum 1034, 1113
 energy state 1302
 energy storage 347, 937, 989-991, 1101, 1035, 1046, 1047, 1102, 1114
 energy storage capacitor 491
 energy storage capacity 1112
 energy storage inductor 567
 energy storage mechanism 1102
 energy storage medium 982
 energy stored 292, 304, 311, 318, 325, 326, 336, 342, 760, 808, 1181, 1234, 1316
 energy strike 413
 energy transfer 1345
 energy transfer 338, 340, 419, 538, 662, 928
 energy transfer balance 336
 energy transfer control 756
 energy transfer efficiency 341, 665, 667, 1115
 energy transfer inductor 796
 energy transfer paths 334, 1203
 energy transfer process 527
 energy transfer time 294
 energy transferred 758, 762, 763, 768
 energy volume 1171
 engine batteries 1066
 enhanced air-cooling - nano-lightning 174
 enhanced air-cooling - piezo fans 174
 enhanced air-cooling - synthetic jet cooling 174
 enhanced air-cooling 174, 192
 enthalpy 998, 1001
 enthalpy change 1016
 enthalpy term 1014
 entrainment limit 202
 entropy 1013-1016
 entropy change 1018
 entropy term 1014
 environmental hazards 1088
 environmental impact 928, 1069
 environmental temperature 1225
 epi 8
 epi diode *I-V* characteristics 75
 epi polysilicon deposition 22
 epi-layer 10
 epitaxial drain region 83
 epitaxial drift layer 51
 epitaxial growth 10, 11, 51
 epitaxial layer 74
 epitaxial process 73
 epitaxial reactor 9
 epitaxial region 71
 epitaxially grown 71
 epitaxy 3, 9, 10, 14
 epitaxy growth 8
 epoxy material 44
 EPR 375
 equal charge level 1070
 equal voltage stressing 743
 equalization charges 1045
 equalizing charge 1052, 1057
 equalizing reactor 371
 equally spaced windings 1272
 equi-inductance lines 1281
 equilibrium constant 1098, 1099
 equilibrium diffusion process 1048
 equilibrium potential 1037
 equilibrium pressure plateau 1011
 equilibrium velocity 1040
 equipment failure rate 1167

equipment fault damage 1399
 equipment life 1108
 equipment reliability 367, 1165
 equivalent ac resistance 855
 equivalent capacitance 1104
 equivalent circuit - diac 414
 equivalent circuit - SCR 414
 equivalent circuit 855, 1037, 1277, 1324, 1329, 1334
 equivalent circuit -anti-parallel SCR pair 414
 equivalent circuit model 1171, 1266
 equivalent composite rectangular power pulses 154
 equivalent diode circuit 555
 equivalent emitter load 354
 equivalent energy rectangular pulses 153
 equivalent homogeneous non-gapped structure 1241
 equivalent internal resistance 546
 equivalent mmf source 1334
 equivalent module shunt resistance 1042
 equivalent output voltage 852
 equivalent parallel inductor model vector diagram 1242
 equivalent parallel resistance 1111
 equivalent permanence 1328
 equivalent reluctance 1328
 equivalent resistance 855
 equivalent serial resistance 1110
 equivalent series inductance 780, 781
 equivalent series inductor 781, 1163
 equivalent series inductor model vector diagram 1242
 equivalent series inductor voltage 781
 equivalent series resistance 780, 789, 1106, 1164, 1184, 1190
 equivalent series resistance, ac 1106
 equivalent series resistance, dc 1106
 equivalent series resistor 781, 1163
 equivalent series resistor voltage 781
 equivalent source impedance 391
 equivalent TCSC reactance 951
 equivalent thermal circuit 163
 equivalent thermal model 164
 equivalent total energy rectangular pulses 153
 equivalent weight 1000
 ESD 377
 ESD suppressor 416
 ESD test equipment 1388
 E-shaped core 1259
 ESR characteristics 1186
 established dc link voltage start-up 346
 estimated life duration 1106, 1109, 1110
 estimating fan life 188
 etch 9
 etch rate 27
 etchant 28
 etched aluminium 1169
 etched channels 1000
 etching 23, 27, 28, 40, 1027
 ethanol 993, 999
 eutectic solution 221
 evacuated reed switches 1391
 evaporated 39
 evaporation 38, 1031
 evaporation electron-beam 40
 evaporation filament 40
 evaporation flash 40
 evaporation induction 40
 evaporation process 18
 evaporator cooling 208
 evaporator dry-out 202
 evaporator heat flux 203, 205
 evaporator length 204
 even harmonic currents 600
 even harmonics 720, 898, 942
 even stage number 487
 excess carriers 3

excess electrons 1023
 excess energy 348
 excess energy stored 332
 excess heat generated 1016
 excess pressure release 1071
 excessive currents 767
 excessive gassing 1064, 1066, 1081
 excessive material 1359
 excessive overcharge 1064
 excitation 18
 excitation current 1320
 excitation repetition rate 758, 759
 excitation winding 1320
 exciton dissociation 1048
 exciton lifetime 1047
 excitons 1033, 1047
 exhausted reactants 1038
 exothermic 998
 exothermic metals 1079
 exothermic reaction 1009, 1079, 1309
 exotic materials 1002
 expanders 1048
 expansion ratio 989
 expected irreversible loss 1338
 expected life rating 1393
 expected lifetime 1176
 expected number of cycles 1061
 expendable coolants 229
 experienced voltage 1218
 explosion 408
 exponential current decay 1368
 exponential pulses 1218
 exposed copper surface area 1260
 exposed core surface area 1260
 exposed radiating surface 1214
 exposed surface area 1214
 exposure temperature 1229
 extended foil inductance 1286
 extended foil technique 1178
 extended foil/metallisation methods 1183
 extended gate pulse period 575
 extended metal foil electrodes 1178
 extended metallisation 1178
 extended metallisation method 1178
 extended zero current periods 669
 external actuating assembly 1390
 external applied magnetising field intensity 1321
 external bias field 1342
 external circuit 992, 997-1000, 1036, 1037, 1087
 external circuit current 1040
 external circuit electron flow 1037
 external coil 1389
 external connections 1187
 external cooling 168
 external corona 1181
 external current electrons 1040
 external current path 1023
 external cut-off spike 1367
 external demagnetizing field 1321
 external dv/dt 85
 external electrical circuit 994, 998, 1037
 external electrical conditions 785
 external electrical load 992
 external electromagnetic field 1281
 external electromagnetic interference 1272
 external energy 411
 external field 1274, 1300, 1315, 1317
 external forced current sharing 367, 368
 external forced current sharing network 370, 373
 external high voltage connections 1390
 external inductance 110, 1289
 external influences 1273, 1274

external insulation 1273
 external load connection 1037
 external magnetic circuit 1325
 external magnetic field 1284, 1291, 1299-1305, 1321, 1336, 1391
 external magnetic load circuit 1327, 1329
 external magnets 1389
 external mmf 1329
 external quantum efficiency 1040
 external resistor 1369
 external reverse field 1341
 external series resistor 1270
 external terminals 1390
 externally applied field 1328, 1334, 1346
 externally applied magnetic field 1299
 externally produced magnetic field 1300
 extinction angle 514, 578, 584, 907
 extinguishing device 1375
 extinguishing voltage 411
 extra capacity 1072
 extra control state 735
 extrusion 1039, 1040
 extrinsic 1
 extrinsic gettering 37
 extruded cold plates 211
 extruded fins 169
 extrusion methods 1314

fabrication 23
 facilitate regulation 931
 facility water 210
 FACTS 913, 939
 FACTS applications 746
 FACTS devices 931, 939, 940, 959, 978
 FACTS devices summary 979
 FACTS terminology glossary 1491
 FACTS transmission 959
 FACTS transmission level devices 959
 fail-safe mechanism 411
 fail-safe shut down 351
 fail-safe start-up 351
 failure 1199
 failure data 1373
 failure mechanism 1229
 failure mode 1049
 failure periods 1165
 failure rate 189, 1165-1167, 1175, 1176
 failure short-circuit 376
 failure tendency 189
 failures in time 1166
 fall time 129
 false triggering 289
 false turn-on 270, 289
 fan 168, 174
 fan airflow rate 185
 fan assistance 165
 fan blades 179
 fan cooling terminology glossary 1473
 fan curve 180
 fan diameter 185
 fan efficiencies typical 187
 fan efficiency 186
 fan failure definition 188
 fan impeller speed 185
 fan laws 184, 185
 fan life estimation 190
 fan life experiments 191
 fan lifetime 190
 fan motors 174
 fan noise 180
 fan noise fan load 182
 fan noise minimization - speed and size 182

fan noise minimization - system impedance 182
 fan noise minimization - temperature rise 182
 fan noise minimization - vibration isolation 182
 fan noise minimization - flow disturbance 182
 fan noise speed 182
 fan noise structure vibration 182
 fan noise turbulence 182
 fan noise vortex shedding 182
 fan operating environment 180
 fan operating point 180
 fan performance curve 180
 fan power 180
 fan power requirements 186
 fan pressure 185
 fan pressure versus flow curve 183
 fan reliability 180, 191
 fan selection 182
 fan space 180
 fan static pressure 186
 fan tenth percentile lifetime 190
 fan testing 191
 fans redundant 184
 far field 419, 420
 far field interference 1274
 far field source 1274
 Faradaically stored charge 1114
 Faraday's constant 1097, 1013, 1085, 1265
 Faraday's equation 371, 373, 821
 Faraday's grid 1200
 Faraday's law 821, 824, 1234, 1235, 1256, 1262-1266
 Faraday's law of induction 1233
 Faradic equation 1074
 fast acting 376
 fast acting circuit breaker 416
 fast acting fuse 386
 fast charge overcharge regime 1082
 fast charge termination 1082
 fast charging 1071, 1089, 1093, 1095
 fast recovery device 365
 fast recovery diode 71, 109, 288, 594, 760, 854
 fast recovery power diodes 158
 fast response 1224
 fast rise times 364
 fast turn-off 283
 faster dynamic response 748
 fast-to-release 1361
 fault circuit inductance 386
 fault condition 1355
 fault condition reversals 1191
 fault current 380, 390, 392, 401, 907, 984, 1060, 1369, 1405
 fault cycle number 408
 fault diversion 1405
 fault level 383, 417
 fault mode 962
 fault overloads 379
 fault point-on-wave 386
 fault protection 416, 734
 fault ride-through 695, 755
 fault ride-through capability 925
 fault short circuit current level 940
 fault time constant 390
 fault tolerance 734
 faulty dielectric 1168
 FeCoV/Cr hard magnetic material 1306
 feed back source 627
 feed L/R time 390
 feed pre-treatment 1009
 feedback 794
 feedback arrangements 370
 feedback current 120
 feedback mechanism 121
 feedback winding 820-824

feeder switching 984
 feed-through capacitors 1193, 1194
 feed-through rod 1194
 Fermi energy 1129
 Fermi level 1117
 ferrimagnetic 1311
 ferrimagnetic materials 1236, 1237, 1292, 1301
 ferrimagnetism 1297, 1298, 1301
 ferrite beads 1234
 ferrite characteristic curves 1259
 ferrite characteristics 1238
 ferrite core materials 1253
 ferrite core selection 1259
 ferrite core shapes 1237
 ferrite cores 1253, 1254
 ferrite current measurement transformer 1270
 ferrite current transformer 1265
 ferrite current transformer design 1269
 ferrite effective volume 1249
 ferrite inductor design - dc current 1250
 ferrite material 1239, 1238, 1257, 1263
 ferrite solid cylindrical core 1283
 ferrite switch-mode power supply 1233
 ferrite toroid 1268
 ferrite toroid core 1269
 ferrite type 1256, 1257, 1260
 ferrite voltage transformer design 1263
 ferrites 1244, 1297
 ferritic stainless steels 1293
 ferroelectric Curie temperature 398
 ferroelectric dielectric 1196
 ferroelectric hysteresis losses 1181
 ferroelectric material 1194
 ferromagnetic 1293, 1297
 ferromagnetic blade 1391, 1392
 ferromagnetic component 1299
 ferromagnetic hysteresis 1401
 ferromagnetic magnetic properties 1246
 ferromagnetic materials 1182, 1236-1238, 1291-1293, 1300
 ferromagnetic order 1300
 ferromagnetic phase 1292
 ferromagnetic pieces 1401
 ferromagnetism 1298, 1300, 1312
 ferromagnets 1291, 1299
 ferrules 380
 Fe-Si nanocrystalline material characteristics 1282
 fibre optic 1200
 fibre optic communications link 351
 fibre/spring wick 199
 fibreglass separator 1043
 fibre-optic 273
 field attenuation 1281
 field breakdown 60
 field changes 1400
 field crystallisation 1175
 field current 646
 field current constant 311
 field grading rings 1407
 field intensity 1282, 1320, 1321, 1348
 field potential 1322
 field strength 399, 1169, 1239, 1243, 1320, 1339
 field stress 1406
 fieldstop 51
 fieldstop PT-IGBT 88
 figure of merit 227, 757, 1122-1124, 1131, 1302
 figure of merit factor 1244
 filament evaporation 40
 filigree track structure 239
 fill factor 1040-1043
 filler 380
 fill-weight range 1073
 film capacitor 1184, 1190, 1200
 film deposition 33
 film foil capacitors 1178
 film materials 1205
 film metallisation 1180
 film resistor 1204, 1213, 1218, 1222
 film resistor construction 1204
 film resistor residual capacitance 1208
 film resistor types 1225
 film thickness 1206
 film type 1177
 film type designation 1177
 film type resistor 1207
 filter 275, 928
 filter bus 918, 919
 filter bus ac voltage 917
 filter capacitor 435, 444
 filter compensator inverter pwm outputs 977
 filter components 964
 filter current harmonics 959
 filter inductor 444
 filter resonance frequency 859
 filter voltage 919
 filter voltage harmonics 959
 filtering 361, 421, 695, 775
 filtering applications 1238
 filtering requirements 735
 fin cross sectional area 142
 fin density 171
 fin depth 141, 142
 fin height 170
 fin height-to-gap aspect ratio 169
 fin perimeter 142
 fin spacing 141
 fin thickness 170, 171
 fin thermal resistance 226
 fin width 141
 final actuation time 1361
 final capacitor charge 318, 319
 final capacitor voltage 325, 1114
 final energy 338
 final leakage current 1171
 final snubber capacitor voltage 229
 final temperature 135
 final voltage 336
 finite Q 881
 finite saturation time 1256
 finned heat-sinks 208
 fin-to-fin spacing 171
 fire-proof ceramic housing 1207
 fire protection 1385
 firing angle 278, 523, 902, 952
 firing control 952
 firing delay angle 631, 897
 first breakdown 79
 first order passive filter 964
 first quadrant 645, 678
 first quadrant area swept 1348
 first quadrant chopper 646, 658, 664, 669, 679
 first quadrant dc chopper circuit 646
 first quadrant chopper
 - load back emf + continuous output current 649
 first quadrant chopper
 - load back emf + discontinuous output current 653
 first quadrant chopper steady-state time domain analysis 649
 first quadrant dc chopper - two output current modes 648
 first quadrant dc-to-dc chopper 654, 658, 659
 first sector 729
 first year failures 1168
 fit 1166
 five level flying-capacitor inverter output states 740
 five level voltage source inverter 738

fixed boundary control 788
 fixed capacitors 1162
 fixed carrier frequency 722
 fixed contact 1355
 fixed frequency 802
 fixed frequency carrier 724
 fixed frequency duty ratio 1368
 fixed frequency output 750
 fixed length 729
 fixed magnitude output 750
 fixed on state 725
 fixed on-time 795, 801, 810
 fixed on-time mode 779
 fixed output voltage 695
 fixed peak inductor current 802
 fixed resistance resistor bodies 1204
 fixed resistor 1203, 1208
 fixed series compensation 948
 fixed speed induction motor 617
 fixed switching frequency 779, 780, 785, 793, 794, 801, 810
 fixed temperature cut-off 1071
 fixed timer 1083
 flame sprayed 1206
 flash evaporation 41
 flash point 193
 flasher 416
 flat circular disc ceramic capacitors 1197
 flat mandrel flattened shape 1088
 flat metal band 1225
 flat pasted plate 1047
 flat plates 1043
 flat sides adjacent conductors 1282
 flat spiral air-core coil inductance 1282
 flat square plate heat-sink 140
 flat surface area 1288
 flat-band construction 1225
 flatness 36
 flexible ac transmission system devices summary 979
 flexible ac transmission systems 931
 flexible acidic membrane 997
 flexible bi-axially aligned electro-insulator 1178
 flexible bonded magnet second quadrant hysteresis loop demagnetization characteristics 1313
 flexible hard magnetic material 1303, 1304
 flexible magnets 1314
 flexible neodymium material 1314
 flexible plastic film 1000
 flexible plastic former 1273
 flexible plastics 1030
 flexible Rogowski coil 1273
 flexure strength 231
 flickering 582, 932
 flip-chip bonding 45
 float charge 1051, 1052, 1056, 1075, 1095
 float charge current 1045, 1067
 float charge techniques 1056
 float life 1047
 float service 1047, 1056, 1064, 1074, 1094, 1095
 floating base drive 827
 floating disk 104
 floating earth 422
 floating field guard 80
 floating gate drive circuits 827
 floating power supplies 270
 floating voltage 1072
 float zone process 47, 48
 flooded antimony battery 1066
 flooded battery 1049, 1052, 1057, 1066
 flooded cell 1052, 1053, 1100
 flooded cell lead-acid battery 1063
 flooded cell lead-acid battery design 1063
 flooded cell plates 1052
 flooded lead acid cell characteristics 1050
 flooded lead-acid batteries 1062
 flooded lead-acid cell 1066
 flooding limit 202
 flow boiling 216
 flow fields 1000
 flow meter 1228
 flow rate 171, 180, 181, 209, 213
 flow rate sensor 1228
 flow velocity 173
 flowchart 1254
 fluctuating ambient temperature 1116
 fluid boiling 193
 fluid density 142, 184, 212, 220
 fluid flow rate 211, 212, 217
 fluid force coupling 616
 fluid impregnation 1178
 fluid kinematic viscosity 220
 fluid pressure drop 211
 fluid specific heat capacitance 142
 fluid velocity 220
 fluidised bed technique 1206
 fluorocarbon 1000
 flux 646, 1324
 flux bias 1262
 flux change 1281
 flux compensated toroidal ferrite core 1271
 flux components 1329
 flux conservation 1325
 flux density 960, 1239-1246, 1256-1264, 1282, 1312, 1315-1322, 1325-1342
 flux density distribution 1246
 flux density integral 1325
 flux density saturation 1256
 flux density temperature dependence 1240
 flux dot convention 1235
 flux gate sensor 1275
 flux leakage 1259, 1269, 1401
 flux leakage coefficient 1347
 flux level 726, 1251
 flux linkages 1281
 flux linked component 1271
 flux output 1339
 flux source 1323, 1334
 flux source model 1324
 flux swings 1245
 flyback converter 789, 795, 796, 803-806, 822, 1259
 flyback converter duty cycle 821
 flyback isolated converters 820
 flyback step-up/step-down converter 816
 flying capacitor 736, 739
 flying capacitor clamped multi-level inverter 343
 flying capacitor inverter 743, 744
 flying capacitor multilevel inverter 738, 739
 flying-capacitor clamped multi-level inverter 344
 flying-capacitor clamped multi-level inverter snubbers 344
 foil capacitor 1177
 foil edge failure 1191
 foil electrode capacitors 1191
 foil film capacitors 1178
 foil gain 1169
 fold-back affect 415
 fold-back crowbar 403
 fold-back devices 411
 folded/convoluted fins 170
 footprint 913
 force 1348
 force field 1023
 force of attraction 1349
 forced air 1119
 forced air cooling 143, 388
 forced apart 1281

forced circulating liquid systems
 forced commutation 128, 732
 forced convection 134, 168, 173, 215
 forced cooling correction coefficient 388
 forced current sharing 368
 forced parallel current sharing network 369
 forced transformer sharing 374
 forged/stamped fins 170
 fork connections 910
 forklift batteries 1053
 form factor 427, 493, 503, 523, 571
 former 1264
 former window area 1256
 forming voltage 1169, 1171
 forward base current 116
 forward bias 59, 63, 111, 504, 505, 520, 884
 forward bias characteristics 61
 forward bias SOA 114, 115
 forward blocking current 126
 forward blocking mode 87
 forward blocking state 549
 forward conduction 60, 61
 forward conduction characteristics 91, 368, 374
 forward converter 354-359, 776-781, 784-787, 806, 812-814, 820-827, 1252, 1259
 forward converter circuits 826
 forward converter equivalent circuit 827
 forward converter mode 808, 809
 forward converter output stage 827
 forward current ratings 108
 forward isolated converters 820
 forward *I-V* characteristic 61, 371
 forward off-state voltage-current characteristics 361
 forward recovery characteristics 109
 forward second breakdown 114
 forward voltage 770
 forward voltage blocking off-state 289
 forward voltage blocking properties 950
 forward voltage converter resonant switch circuits 887
 forward voltage overshoot 109
 fossil fuel 1003, 1008, 1049
 fossil fuel consumption 983
 fossil sources 993
 four complementary switches 741
 four layer three junction thyristor 125
 four quadrant 645
 four quadrant capability 735
 four quadrant chopper - four subclass dc choppers 647
 four quadrant control 747, 749
 four quadrant dc chopper 683, 690
 four quadrant dc chopper circuit 684
 four quadrant dc chopper circuit waveforms 686
 four quadrant H-bridge chopper 645
 four quadrant H-bridge dc chopper 683
 four quadrant output current 684
 four quadrant output voltage 684
 four quadrant *P-Q* diagrams 971
 four quadrant *P-Q* phasor diagrams 971
 four quadrants reversible converter operation 748
 four terminal capacitors 1194
 Fourier analysis 280, 639
 Fourier co-efficients - fundamental frequency 602
 Fourier co-efficients - fundamental voltage 608
 Fourier co-efficients - output voltage 595
 Fourier co-efficients 505, 518, 531-538, 583, 649, 653, 717, 899
 Fourier co-efficients load voltage 639
 Fourier component magnitudes 570
 Fourier component phases 570
 Fourier components 717
 Fourier effect 1123
 Fourier harmonic magnitudes 720
 Fourier phase angle 583

Fourier series - load voltage 671
 Fourier series 526, 540, 764
 Fourier series - output voltage 598
 Fourier triplen series 727
 Fourier voltage components 570, 571
 Fourier voltage waveform series 698, 700
 Fourier's law of heat conduction 134
 fourth quadrant 678
 fourth quadrant chopper 679
 four-wire PWM inverter topology 960
 four-wire system 935
 fraction of discharge 1138
 fragile material 1339
 Fraunhofer diffraction 26
 free air 1213
 free carbon particles 1103
 free convection 134
 free convective cooling 1109
 free diode 337
 free electrons 997, 1024, 1028, 1029, 1037
 free electrons generation 1035
 free energy 1014, 1017, 1085
 free energy change 1018, 1098
 free hole 1023, 1028
 free holes generation 1035
 free moving ions 992
 free poles 1322
 free space 1406
 free space characteristic impedance 419
 free space induction 1353
 free space magnetic permeability 1321
 free space permeability 1323
 free space permittivity 65
 free state electron 1023
 freewheel diode 238, 335, 250, 253, 288, 334-342, 354, 436-436, 505, 507, 534, 541, 594, 645, 646, 678, 692, 696, 760-777, 809, 854, 876-879, 965
 freewheel diode current 437, 517, 876, 877
 freewheel diode recovery 303, 354
 freewheel diode recovery energy passive energy recovery 357
 freewheel diode recovery step voltage 335
 freewheel diode reverse bias 335
 freewheel diode reverse recovery 254, 336, 354
 freewheel diode reverse recovery current 300, 334, 341
 freewheel diode reverse recovery energy 338
 freewheel diode rms current 439
 freewheel diode turn-off 253
 freewheel diode turn-on 253
 freewheel diode voltage 876
 freewheel load diode 534
 freewheel path 595, 598, 600
 freewheeling diode 306, 531
 freewheeling diode current snap 403
 freewheeling loop resistive components 250
 freewheeling path 505
 freewheeling thyristor 505
 Frenkel defects 12
 Freon coolants 215
 frequency characteristics 860, 921
 frequency components 752, 764, 1174
 frequency control 751
 frequency dependence 395, 1184, 1208
 frequency dependent characteristics 1180
 frequency dependent resistance 1208
 frequency derating factor 1173
 frequency derating table 389
 frequency detection 984
 frequency independent 1174, 1189, 1272
 frequency modulation 647
 frequency multiplier 1172
 frequency range 1259, 1263

frequency ratio 763
 frequency ratio terms 764
 frequency response 1107, 1272, 1273
 frequency ripple current conversion multipliers 1173
 frequency spectra 724
 frequency subharmonics 724
 frequency tolerance 984
 frequency trip function 984
 Fresnel diffraction 26
 friction factor 220
 fringing 1325
 fringing factor 1241
 fringing flux 1249
 fringing flux effect 1241
 fuel 1006
 fuel cell 991-999, 1001, 1003, 1007-1017, 1020, 1112, 1391
 fuel cell advantages 1018
 fuel cell challenges 1019
 fuel cell chemistries 996
 fuel cell effective internal resistance 1014
 fuel cell efficiency 1005, 1012, 1019
 fuel cell electrical characteristics 1012
 fuel cell electrodes 993
 fuel cell emission properties 1012
 fuel cell emissions 1012
 fuel cell features 1018
 fuel cell mechanisms 1006
 fuel cell open-circuit voltage 1017
 fuel cell operation 991
 fuel cell parts 995
 fuel cell performance 1007
 fuel cell potential efficiency 1017
 fuel cell power 1019
 fuel cell process 991, 1016
 fuel cell reaction 998, 1016, 1021
 fuel cell shortcomings 1019
 fuel cell stack 993
 fuel cell summary 1020
 fuel cell systems 1096
 fuel cell technologies comparison 1022
 fuel cell technology 1020
 fuel cell terminology glossary 1456
 fuel cell types 1006, 1017
 fuel cell type manufacturers 1021
 fuel cell voltage potential 1102
 fuel cell volume 1012
 fuel cell weight 1012
 fuel cells energy converter 981
 fuel cells fuels 1020
 fuel cells operating temperatures 1020
 fuel chemical energy 1012
 fuel combustion 991
 fuel combustion processes 993
 fuel constituents impact 1007
 fuel electrode 993, 1037
 fuel flexibility 1019
 fuel gas combustion 1009
 fuel impurities 1012
 fuel infrastructure 1006
 fuel molecules 991
 fuel oxidation 1005
 fuel reformer 1002, 1008
 fuel reforming 1008
 fuel reforming technologies 993
 full bridge 764-769, 827
 full bridge configuration 633
 full bridge converter 768
 full bridge excitation 758
 full bridge isolated forward converters 827
 full bridge inverter 767
 full bridge inverter configuration 756
 full capacity 1053

full capacity restoration 1082
 full charge 1067, 1072, 1082, 1093, 1094, 1106, 1113
 full charge cycle 1057
 full charge detection 1071
 full charge reversal 1112
 full charge state 1083
 full charge voltage 1093
 full charge/discharge cycles 1095
 full charging conditions 1110
 full conduction 945
 full densification 1311
 full discharge 1079, 1094
 full line voltage 625
 full load 617
 full load current 454, 619, 909, 1393
 full load regulation 1278
 full load torque 618, 621, 625
 full output voltage 487
 full rating 624, 625
 full resonant cycle 866
 full resonant sinusoidal cycle 867
 full speed 429, 617, 625, 627
 full sunlight 1039
 full sunshine 1047
 full VA rating 1276
 full wave rectified sine wave losses 1244
 fullerene derivative 1047
 full voltage locked rotor current 621
 full-wave circuit 519
 full-wave commutation 866
 full-wave controlled converter - inductive load + negative emf source 527
 full-wave controlled converter 519, 543
 full-wave converter 547
 full-wave diode bridge rectifiers - delta 498
 full-wave diode bridge rectifiers - star 497
 full-wave diode rectifier - L-C filter 447
 full-wave fully-controlled bridges - delta connected secondary supply 558
 full-wave fully-controlled converter 550
 full-wave fully controlled converter - inductive load + emf source 525
 full-wave fully-controlled single-phase converter 552
 full-wave fully-controlled three-phase converter 552
 full-wave fully controlled thyristor converters - star connected supply 556
 full-wave half-controlled converter 551
 full-wave half-controlled converter - freewheel diodes + back emf 507, 509
 full-wave half-controlled converters + freewheel diodes 504
 full-wave multiplier 491
 full-wave output voltage 490
 full-wave parallel voltage multiplier 491
 full-wave rectification - no dc mmf bias 485
 full-wave rectification 450, 480, 484, 485, 491
 full-wave rectified 434
 full-wave rectified forward converter 353
 full-wave rectifier - resistive and back emf load 441
 full-wave rectifier 441, 460, 827
 full-wave resonance switching 866
 full-wave resonant circuits 872
 full-wave resonant converters 261
 full-wave series multipliers 489
 full-wave single-phase rectifier 494
 full-wave three-phase rectifier 494
 full-wave three-phase rectified average output voltage 481, 482
 full-wave three-phase controlled rectifier 540
 full-wave three-phase dc rectifier 459
 full-wave three-phase half-controlled converter - load freewheeling diode 542
 full-wave voltage control 518

full-wave voltage multiplier 491
 full-wave ZCS circuits 886
 full-wave ZVS resonant converter 877
 fully absorbed 1064
 fully automatic three-phase starter 619
 fully blocking state 746
 fully charged 1037, 1064, 1137
 fully charged battery 1071, 1072, 1083, 1138
 fully charged cell 1062
 fully charged condition 1035, 1095
 fully charged state 1073
 fully controlled 535
 fully controlled bidirectional switches 633
 fully controlled converter 351, 427, 503, 507, 523, 541, 548, 746
 fully controlled full-wave converter 528
 fully controlled full-wave single-phase converter 521
 fully controlled regulator 608
 fully controlled single-phase converter 746
 fully controlled single-phase full-wave converter 529
 fully controlled three-phase ac regulator - delta load 606
 fully controlled three-phase ac regulator - wye load + isolated neutral 600
 fully controlled three-phase ac regulator - wye load + neutral connected 604
 fully controlled three-phase ac regulator 604
 fully dense anisotropic material 1310
 fully dense isotropic magnets 1309
 fully dense magnet materials 1314
 fully dense material 1314
 fully dense sintered magnet 1307
 fully discharged battery 1138
 fully loaded 895
 fully primed 1070
 fully re-magnetised 1340, 1341
 fully reversible 894
 fully reversible current controlled converter/inverter configuration 750
 fundament power 772
 fundament reactive power 571
 fundament voltage magnitude 770
 fundamental 727
 fundamental ac input power factor 900
 fundamental base apparent power 918
 fundamental component 572, 917, 942, 968
 fundamental current 456, 548, 852, 900, 968
 fundamental current component 942
 fundamental current displacement factor 572
 fundamental current flow 850
 fundamental frequency 570, 850, 938, 946, 951, 952, 959, 975
 fundamental frequency phase voltage 962
 fundamental frequency voltage 920, 921
 fundamental impedance 450, 946
 fundamental inductor reactance 779, 793, 801, 810
 fundamental input component 859
 fundamental input current 539
 fundamental line current 541, 901
 fundamental line frequency 540
 fundamental load voltage components 569
 fundamental magnitude - sin term 602
 fundamental magnitude 715, 718, 720, 726, 965
 fundamental output power 698
 fundamental power factor 578, 640, 643
 fundamental power factor angle 583
 fundamental power quality 975
 fundamental reactance 950
 fundamental ripple 465, 472, 482, 483
 fundamental ripple - output voltage 481
 fundamental ripple voltage 467
 fundamental rms component 493 498
 fundamental rms current 641
 fundamental rms current component 944

fundamental rms value 712, 715
 fundamental sin term magnitude 604
 fundamental supply current 572
 fundamental supply frequency 969
 fundamental torque 639
 fundamental voltage 456, 610, 704, 770, 965
 fundamental voltage component 949
 furnace heat treatment 1075
 fuse 376, 377, 416, 1096, 1371
 fuse characteristics 390
 fuse clearing 380
 fuse current rating 380, 389
 fuse derating factor - temperature 383
 fuse derating factor - frequency 383
 fuse derating factor - power factor 383
 fuse derating factor 388
 fuse derating - ac supply voltage 385
 fuse derating - ambient temperature 385
 fuse derating - power factor 385
 fuse design analysis 387
 fuse holder frame 1398
 fuse I^2t formula 387
 fuse link 379, 417
 fuse link dc operation 390
 fuse link derating 384
 fuse link derating factors 388
 fuse link duty 383
 fuse link I^2t co-ordination 384
 fuse link losses 384
 fuse link parameters 381
 fuse link protection - dc circuits 390
 fuse link protection 384
 fuse link resistance 380
 fuse load constant 385
 fuse losses 385, 391
 fuse nominal current rating 385, 391
 fuse operating time 383
 fuse peak let through current 386
 fuse performance data 390
 fuse predicted life 384
 fuse protection 392, 408
 fuse pulse number derating curves 387
 fuse temperature 385
 fuse thermal derating 388
 fused quartz process tubes 19
 fused resistive element 1223
 fuse-link cut-off characteristics 383
 fuse-link terminology glossary 1433
 fuse-link time-current characteristics 382
 fuseology 1433
 fuses 375, 378, 379, 402, 403, 403
 fuses protection 379
 fuses versus PTCs 401
 fusible resistor characteristics 1223
 fusible resistors 1223
 fusing current 1256, 1284
 fusing current level of copper 1265
 fusing resistors 1222

GaAs design challenges 1033
 gain electrons 1037, 1038
 gain roll-off 850
 galvanic action 1037
 galvanic cell 1038
 galvanic connection 1278
 galvanic deposited gold layers 1357
 galvanically coupled 375
 gap area 1249
 gap bulging flux 1241
 gap distance 1401
 gap energy 1327, 1347

gap flux density 1327
 gap inductors 1249
 gap length 1348
 gap permeance 1327, 1335
 gap reluctance 1327
 gap volume stored energy 1249
 gap widths 1251
 gapped core 1241, 1244, 1249
 gapped core effective permeability 1244
 gapped E-cores 1253
 gapped pot core 1248
 gas 994
 gas air bubbles 1178
 gas bubbles 1047, 1407
 gas composition 411
 gas constant 1014, 1097
 gas crossover 1000
 gas diffusion 1000
 gas discharge 411
 gas discharge principle 412
 gas discharge tube 376, 377, 403, 411, 413, 417
 gas evolution 1073, 1074
 gas filled high voltage relays 1396
 gas filled relays 1388, 1396
 gas filled sealed ceramic switching chamber 1389
 gas filled solid capacitors 1181
 gas formation 1171
 gas fuel 992
 gas generating potential 1053
 gas ionization 1388
 gas mixture 1388
 gas molecules 997, 1000, 1388
 gas moles 1015
 gas physics properties 411
 gas pressure 411, 1074
 gas pressure relief valve 1170
 gas pressurization 1065
 gas purification 1009
 gas purification stage 1009
 gas recombination reaction cycle 1065
 gas shift reactor 1009
 gas tight 1008
 gas tight housings 1370
 gaseous hydrocarbons 993
 gasoline 999
 gassing 1039, 1053, 1072
 gassing voltage 1063
 gate 92
 gate activated cathode area 1256
 gate-cathode junction 283
 gate charge 157
 gate circuit implementation 265
 gate commutable 893
 gate commutated thyristor 100, 125, 265
 gate-drain capacitance 266
 gate drive 121
 gate drive circuit 267, 282
 gate drive complexity rating 750
 gate drive conditions 126, 296
 gate drive current 272
 gate drive design procedure 271
 gate drive isolation techniques 284
 gate drive power 345
 gate drive power rating 750
 gate drive smps 332
 gate drive voltages 760
 gate equivalent series resistance 271
 gate inductance 284
 gate input capacitance 120, 273
 gate level circuitry 351, 1200
 gate level power 346
 gate level voltage 351

gate non-trigger voltage 127
 gate power 350
 gate power consumption 273
 gate power derivation methods 346
 gate power losses 248, 255
 gate reverse di/dt 284
 gate-source capacitance 266, 271
 gate supply derivation methods 347
 gate threshold 271
 gate threshold voltage 120, 265, 266, 270
 gate turn-off thyristor 98, 128, 282
 gate turn-off thyristor basic structure 99
 gate turn-off thyristor circuit symbol 99
 gate voltage 80, 120, 121, 281
 gate voltage level 268
 gate voltage waveforms 279
 gated thyristors 414
 gauge wires 1256
 Gauss's law 64
 Gaussian diffusion distribution 6
 Gaussian distribution function 12
 GCT 100, 260, 282, 287, 297, 323, 645, 695
 GCT applications 284
 GCT drive design 282
 GCT internal package inductance 284
 GCT inverter bridge legs 342
 GCT low inductance 100
 GCT n-type buffer 100
 GCT switching aid circuit 288
 GCT thyristor 733
 GCT thyristor bridges 721
 GCT thyristor inverters 718
 GCT thyristor single-phase bridge inverter 696
 GCT transparent emitter 100
 GCT turn-off 100
 GCT turn-on 100
 GCTThyristor 344, 346, 959
 GDT 376, 377, 379, 411, 413, 417, 418
 GDT life cycle 413
 GDT tube 413
 gel batteries 1057, 1064, 1067
 gel cell 1053, 1054
 gel electrolytes 1049, 1087
 gel glass mat 1049
 gelled electrolyte 1049, 1054, 1093
 gelled electrolyte battery 1049, 1066, 1067
 gelled electrolyte cell 1049
 general cell structures 351
 general output voltage 737
 general output voltage waveform 543
 general thermal dissipation model 136
 generalised control algorithm 684
 generalised equivalent magnetic circuit 1334
 generalised equivalent magnetic circuit permeance 1334
 generalised switch-diode-inductive element circuit 356
 generalised switched-mode circuit 356
 generalised unified H-bridge control - bipolar output 684
 generalised unified H-bridge control 684
 generalised unified H-bridge control -three-level output 684
 generate dc electricity 1116
 generate electricity 999
 generate gases 1072
 generated 1
 generated heat 1402
 generated hydrogen 1073
 generated noise 419
 generated power 1059
 generated reactive powers 940
 generated temperature 1109
 generating capacity 981
 generation efficiency 1037
 generation inverters 1047

generation system 982
 generator cold-side 1132
 generator efficiency 1133
 generator internal resistance 1132
 generators 410
 genset applications 627
 geometric volume reformer vessels 1009
 getter effect 413
 gettering 21, 37
 gettering extrinsic 37
 gettering intrinsic 37
 gettering sites 37
 Gibbs efficiency 1014
 Gibbs free energy 1013, 1097, 1098
 Gibbs free energy change 1016
 Gibbs free energy equation 1037
 Gibbs net free energy change 1013
 Gibbs thermodynamic efficiency 1014, 1017
 glass bead thermistor 1228
 glass coating 1229
 glass envelope fracture 1229
 glass fibre 1169
 glass layer 19
 glass mat separators 1054
 glass material 1047
 glass mats 1047
 glass micro fibres 1048
 glass micro-spheres 1010, 1011
 glass passivation 405
 glass powder glaze 1204
 glass substrate 1028
 glass to metal seals 1391
 glassed sand 380
 glassivating material 42
 glassivation 42, 43
 glass-matted plate 1049
 glazed thick film temperature sensing resistors 1225
 global planarization 36
 glossary of terms 1429
 glow discharge 31, 32
 glow discharge deposition 1029
 glow initiation level 1396
 glow onset 1396
 glow region 411
 glow voltage level 411
 go and return conductors 1281, 1287
 go and return paths 1284, 1288
 go and return power cable residual inductance 1286
 go-and-return bus bar arrangement 1289
 gold deposited 43
 gold lifetime killing 72
 gold overlay 1357
 gold plated spring pin terminations 1206
 good conductor 1281
 good shielding 1288
 governmental design standards 1194
 governmental safety standards 1194
 grading rings 1407
 grain boundaries 37, 49, 398, 399, 1028, 1045
 grain boundary junction depletion layers 399
 grain shape 1302
 grain size 232, 1301
 grain structure 43, 591
 grain-boundaries 232
 grains 49
 graphical integration 156
 graphite 990, 993
 graphite carbon anode 1088
 graphite carbon negative electrode 1088
 graphitic planes 1039
 gravimetric capacity 1085, 1086
 gravimetric energy 1086
 gravimetric energy density 991, 1041, 1042, 1113
 gravimetric power densities 991, 1106, 1041
 gravitational acceleration 201
 gravitational power density 192
 grease half-life subtraction factor 190
 grid alloy 1047
 grid connected power 981
 grid connected PV electricity 1049
 grid connection 987
 grid corrosion 1052, 1056, 1061
 grid corrosion positive lead plate 1051
 grid electricity voltage and frequency standards 981
 grid life 1047
 grid operator 981
 grid real power 920
 grid side 919
 grid structure 1044
 grid synchronised displacement 919
 grid system integration 1049
 grid tolerance 984
 grinders 49
 groove 97
 groove heat pipe 204
 grooved tube wick 199
 ground 422
 ground connection 420
 ground fault 1373, 1393
 ground fault sensing 1405
 ground isolated 1373
 ground isolation 1393
 ground isolated relay 1373
 ground plane 421, 1394
 ground potential 422, 1393
 ground potential shift susceptibility 410
 ground return current 894
 grounded tuned filter 921
 grounded tuned filter branches 921
 grounding cables 984
 grounding impedance 932
 grounding requirements 1394
 grounding symbols 422
 group III 1
 group IV 1
 group V 1
 growth axis 1121
 growth defects 10
 growth rate 10, 19
 GTO 98, 128, 282, 695
 GTO anode snubber circuits 283
 GTO applications 284
 GTO drive design 282
 GTO gate drive circuit 282, 283
 GTO inverter bridge legs 342
 GTO thyristor 117, 157, 287, 297, 323, 327, 645, 733
 GTO thyristor gate turn-on current 283
 GTO thyristor holding current 128
 GTO turn-off mechanism 99
 guard ring 71, 74
 guided contacts 1371
 gun drilled cold plates 210

 H field 420, 1299
 half bridge 764, 766
 half bridge converter 827
 half bridge inverter 767
 half cell 1036, 1037
 half cell chemistry reactions 1043, 1070
 half cell electro-chemical equations 1043, 1070, 1079
 half cell potential 994, 1007
 half cell reaction 998, 1037, 1088, 1097
 half cell zero reference potential 1038

half controlled 608, 611
 half controlled bridge mean output 531
 half controlled converter 503, 507, 531
 half controlled converters 541
 half controlled full bridges – delta connected secondary supply 558
 half controlled full bridges – star connected secondary 557
 half controlled mode 575
 half controlled regulator 608
 half controlled three-phase ac regulator 608
 half cycle 448, 850
 half cycle capacitor voltage peak magnitudes 760
 half cycle load current 570
 half cycle load voltage 608
 half integral cycle control 567
 half isolated forward converters 827
 half oscillation cycles 761
 half power bandwidth 757, 759
 half power frequencies 759, 770, 771
 half power points 771
 half reaction equations 1085
 half reaction potentials 1038
 half reactions 1098
 half resonant cycle 763, 866, 883
 half resonant sinusoidal cycle 867
 half sine cycle 762
 half sine period 523
 half sine resonant voltage pulse components 636
 half wave and full-wave controlled converter - load freewheel diode 551
 half wave circuit - resistive and back emf R - E load 428
 half wave circuit - resistive load 427
 half wave circuit - R - L load and freewheel diode 436
 half wave commutation 866
 half wave controlled converter 433, 517, 543
 half wave controlled converter thyristor trigger delay angle characteristics 512
 half wave controlled rectifier 573
 half wave controlled rectifier circuit 511
 half wave controlled rectifiers - freewheel diode 556
 half wave controlled rectifiers – star connected secondary supply 554
 half wave controlled single-phase converter 515
 half wave converter 547
 half wave diode rectifiers 495
 half wave fully controlled three-phase converter + load freewheel diode 533
 half wave fully-controlled converter 550
 half wave n -phase controlled converter 544
 half wave n -phase uncontrolled rectifier 461
 half wave output voltage 487
 half wave parallel multipliers 488
 half wave rectification 454, 461, 465, 471, 480, 587
 half wave rectified 444, 452, 884
 half wave rectified average sinusoidal voltage 773
 half wave rectifier – load freewheel diode 438
 half wave rectifier - load freewheel diode and R - L load circuit diagram 436
 half wave rectifier - load freewheel diode and R - L load waveforms 436
 half wave rectifier - resistive and back emf load 429
 half wave rectifier - source resistance 434
 half wave rectifier 460, 514, 642
 half wave rectifier circuit - R load and capacitor filter 433
 half wave rectifier circuit diagram 431
 half wave rectifier with R - L load 431
 half wave resonance switching 866
 half wave resonant converters 260
 half wave resonant switch 881
 half wave series multiplier 486
 half wave series positive output voltage multiplier 486
 half wave sine power losses 1244

half wave three-phase diode rectifier circuit 452
 half wave three-phase rectifier 534
 half wave voltage multiplier 490
 half wave ZVS circuits 886
 half wave ZVS converter 877
 Hall effect sensor 1275
 Hall effect transducer 1270
 halogen acids 1039
 Hanna curves 1251, 1252
 hard bake 23, 24
 hard ceramic hexaferrites 1311
 hard characteristic 73
 hard contact materials 1388
 hard contacts vaporization 1390
 hard hexagonal ferrite materials 1311
 hard magnet 1303, 1305
 hard magnetic alloy material 1303
 hard magnetic ceramic material 1303, 1304
 hard magnetic material 1297, 1304, 1317, 1320-1322, 1339
 hard magnetic material characteristics 1319
 hard magnetic material devices 1234
 hard magnetic material properties 1315, 1319
 hard switched 755, 766
 hard switched converters 849
 hard switched inductive load 760
 hard switching 246, 258, 259, 854
 hard turn-on 857
 hardenable stainless steels 1293
 hardened condition 1293
 hardening transformation 1293
 harmonic analysis 704
 harmonic compensating currents 975
 harmonic compensating voltages 975
 harmonic compensation 928, 975, 978
 harmonic component magnitude 730, 771
 harmonic components 585, 718, 764 790, 897, 900, 1208
 harmonic content 432, 437, 547, 901, 924
 harmonic current compensation 968
 harmonic current flow 978
 harmonic currents 446, 458, 467, 526, 611, 642, 917, 920, 928, 969, 975
 harmonic deviation 1208
 harmonic distortion 960
 harmonic factor 427, 503, 695, 702
 harmonic filter 975, 897, 917
 harmonic filtering functions 959
 harmonic filtering mode 975
 harmonic frequency 570, 671, 951, 979
 harmonic input current magnitudes 547
 harmonic magnitude 444, 585
 harmonic minimisation 893
 harmonic non-fundamental currents 640
 harmonic order 704
 harmonic output 633
 harmonic output current 437
 harmonic output voltage component 437
 harmonic pollution 959
 harmonic power losses 932
 harmonic producing load 968
 harmonic reduction 567, 751
 harmonic reduction chopping 695
 harmonic regulation requirements 622
 harmonic requirements 962, 970
 harmonic ripple 921
 harmonic rms component 493, 498
 harmonic rms magnitudes 571
 harmonic voltage drops 932
 harmonic voltages 460, 921
 harmonic voltages magnitude 922
 harmonics 537, 630, 695, 725, 890
 harmonized constant frequency ac power source 981
 harmonized constant voltage ac power source 981

harsh environments 587, 1049
 hazard function 189
 hazardous substances 1114
 H-bridge 684, 763, 771, 850, 859
 H-bridge based cascaded multilevel inverter 924
 H-bridge configuration 270
 H-bridge current conduction paths 353, 828
 H-bridge current paths 740
 H-bridge current-source inverter 768
 H-bridge dc-dc chopper 690
 H-bridge inverter 695, 715
 H-bridge inverter output voltage 708
 H-bridge load circuit 827
 H-bridge modules 344
 H-bridge operation 767
 H-bridge output ac voltage 863
 H-bridge parallel resonant voltage converter 636
 H-bridge semiconductors 827
 H-bridge square-wave switching frequency 863
 H-bridge switching frequency 852, 854, 865
 H-bridge voltage-source inverter 763
 HD process 1309
 HDDR process 1309
 header manifolds 211
 healing time 1168
 heart defibrillators 1388
 heat 133, 756, 1036
 heat accumulators 228
 heat build-up 1072, 1089
 heat by-products 991
 heat capacity 195, 212, 213, 221, 392, 396, 1228
 heat capacity of the fluid 172
 heat coefficient 1184
 heat coils 379, 402
 heat conducting gaskets 139
 heat conduction 1118, 1124
 heat conductivity 137
 heat cycling 1207
 heat damage 378
 heat dissipated 182, 334, 1116, 1123
 heat dissipating area 1262
 heat dissipating casing 1068
 heat dissipation 226, 1184
 heat dissipation constant 392, 393
 heat dissipation factor 393
 heat dissipation rating 1392
 heat energy 993, 1012, 1033, 1117, 1188, 1228
 heat engine 1131
 heat exchanger 222, 223, 1119, 1124
 heat exchanger length 210
 heat flux 193, 200, 214-220
 heat flux level 192
 heat generated 378, 394, 1209, 1363
 heat generating component 167
 heat generating elements 1109
 heat generation 1064, 1073, 1093
 heat input 1130, 1132
 heat input area 205
 heat insensitive 1032
 heat liberation 1117
 heat load 133, 212, 1122
 heat loss 1214
 heat of condensation 229
 heat of solid to liquid 228
 heat of fusion 228
 heat of fusion per volume 228
 heat of liquid to vapour 229
 heat of solid to liquid 228
 heat of vaporization 215, 229, 230
 heat of vaporization per unit mass 199
 heat pipe 199-208, 226, 1119
 heat pipe capillary pumping limit 202
 heat pipe condenser 197
 heat pipe depriming 203
 heat pipe effective thermal resistance 204
 heat pipe entrainment limit 202
 heat pipe evaporator 197
 heat pipe flooding limit 202
 heat pipe fluid range 207
 heat pipe fluids 200
 heat pipe fluids intermediate temperature figure of 208
 heat pipe fluids intermediate temperature vapour pressure 208
 heat pipe fluids operating temperature range 206
 heat pipe limitations 203
 heat pipe mechanisms 203
 heat pipe nucleated boiling limit 202
 heat pipe parameter performance characteristics 205
 heat pipe performance - diameter 206
 heat pipe performance - length 206
 heat pipe performance - orientation 206
 heat pipe performance - pipe bending 206
 heat pipe performance - pipe flattening 206
 heat pipe performance 206
 heat pipe porous medium 197
 heat pipe priming 203
 heat pipe repriming 203
 heat pipe sonic limit 202
 heat pipe thermodynamic operation 198
 heat pipe viscous limit 202
 heat pipe wick 197
 heat pipes - indirect cooling 197
 heat pipes 193, 197, 198
 heat pump 1116
 heat pumping 1117
 heat pumping capacity 135, 1119
 heat pumping rate 1124
 heat radiators 141
 heat recovery systems 1020
 heat rejected 1123
 heat released 1015, 1016
 heat removal 208
 heat sinking design 158
 heat sinking requirement 593
 heat sinking thermal resistance 140
 heat source 165, 1080, 1363
 heat sources proximity 1214
 heat spreaders 165
 heat spreading 166
 heat transfer 194, 220, 395, 396, 1119
 heat transfer calculations 235
 heat transfer capabilities 165
 heat transfer capacity 197
 heat transfer characteristics 214
 heat transfer coefficient 134, 142, 165-167, 210-221, 235, 392, 1172, 1184
 heat transfer coefficient constant 237
 heat transfer efficiencies 172, 173
 heat transfer environment 396
 heat transfer fluid 194, 212
 heat transfer modes 215
 heat transfer rate 216
 heat transferred 1133
 heat transport limit 203
 heat treatment 1305, 1308
 heat treatment cycles 1306
 heat triggered detection 1071
 heating 1190
 heating applications 582
 heating losses 412
 heating rate per unit length 1118
 heating terminology glossary 1473
 heat-sink - integrated microchannel 218
 heat-sink - thermoelectrically enhanced 225

heat-sink 143, 166, 172, 173, 193, 218, 222, 225-228, 1108
 heat-sink air-cooling with fans and blowers 174
 heat-sink applications 170
 heat-sink area 140, 1215, 1216
 heat-sink base 170
 heat-sink base length 170
 heat-sink base width 142
 heat-sink bonded/fabricated fins 169
 heat-sink casted fins 169
 heat-sink cooling enhancements 174
 heat-sink correction factor 141
 heat-sink cross-section 162
 heat-sink determination 247
 heat-sink extruded fins 168
 heat-sink fin geometry 170
 heat-sink foam-fin 168
 heat-sink folded/convoluted fins 169
 heat-sink forged/stamped fins 169
 heat-sink machined fins 169
 heat-sink manufacturing process capabilities 172
 heat-sink modified die-casted fins 169
 heat-sink mount 1206, 1215
 heat-sink mounted resistors 1215
 heat-sink pin-fin 168
 heat-sink plate-fin 168
 heat-sink requirement 224
 heat-sink selection 167, 168
 heat-sink skived fins 169
 heat-sink stack 144
 heat-sink surface temperature 142
 heat-sink swaged fins 169
 heat-sink temperature 226, 227
 heat-sink thermal curve 409
 heat-sink thermal resistance 142, 163-167
 heat-sink types - advantages 170
 heat-sink types - disadvantages 170
 heat-sink types 168
 heat-sink width of base 170
 heavier duty relays 1358
 heavy current single-phase busbars 1281
 heavy duty tape wound power resistors 1216
 heavy duty transportation modules 1112
 heavy load 860, 1391
 helical groove 1205, 1213
 helically trimmed 1206
 hermetic packages 43
 hermetic seal 1032, 1228
 hermetically sealed dc relays 1370
 Hess' law 1015
 hetero-junction 1030, 1031, 1034
 heterojunction device 1034
 heterojunction interface 1032
 heterojunction structures 1031
 heterostructure cooling 227
 hexagon 729
 hexagon centre 728
 hexagonal ferrite structure 1312
 hi K 1196
 high accuracy resistor 1204
 high ambient temperatures 1094
 high burn out resistance 1357
 high capacity heat rejection 209
 high coercivity 1311
 high conductivity copper contacts 1391
 high contact pressure copper contacts 1391
 high continuous current applications 1401
 high current applications 1181
 high current clamping region 406
 high current contactors 1356
 high current dc loads 1369
 high current discharging 1089
 high current fault conditions 377
 high current high-voltage relays 1390
 high current interrupt capabilities 1389
 high current interruption 1399
 high current relays 1356
 high current shunting switches 1402
 high dielectric 1389
 high discharge applications 1074
 high drain applications 1066
 high duty cycle pulses 144
 high efficiency multi-junction cells 1036
 high efficiency PV cells 1032
 high energy 1350
 high energy discharge capacitors 1190
 high energy hard-magnetic behaviour 1306
 high energy ions 11
 high energy ions bombard 1031
 high energy magnet 1308, 1347
 high energy photon 1025, 1033
 high flux densities 1238, 1241
 high flux densities properties 977
 high frequency adverse effects 1281
 high frequency bandwidth 1273
 high frequency currents 1281
 high frequency harmonics 720
 high frequency isolation 985
 high frequency loss 977, 1257
 high frequency measurements 1273
 high frequency phenomenon 1281
 high frequency pulses 1272
 high frequency resonant dc to ac matrix converter 636
 high frequency rfi is attenuation 1194
 high frequency single-phase to three-phase matrix converter 636
 high frequency switching 158, 787
 high heat flux cooling 166
 high heat transfer coefficient 214
 high impedance state 377, 413
 high inductance 379
 high inertia load 627, 628
 high inrush currents 1365
 high inrush dc applications 1357
 high inrush loads 1373
 high inrush relays 1397
 high intensity light beam 1041
 high internal pressures 1072
 high load 1370
 high load demands 1112
 high making current peaks 1357
 high melting points 1388
 high melting temperatures 1387
 high modulation indices 737
 high noise immune circuit designs 421
 high output voltages 736
 high pass filter 406, 969
 high performance cooling 165
 high permeability, amorphous metal-based soft magnetic materials 977
 high permittivity 1196
 high potential dc voltage 486
 high potential terminal 347
 high power applications 166, 715, 1087
 high power drives 722
 high power IGBT 342
 high power series resonant circuits 756
 high pressure hydrogen tank 1011
 high pressure steam heat capture 1002
 high pressure steel canisters 1084
 high pressure steel canisters batteries 1078
 high pulse order transformer/converter 913
 high Q load circuits 772
 high quality power injection 984
 high quality wastes 1003

high reactance 732
 high resistance state 410
 high resistance values 1212
 high resistivity 1236
 high resistivity semiconductor substrate 73
 high rf applications 1393
 high side driver 270
 high side load 1394
 high slip conditions 627
 high speed communication lines 416
 high speed crowbar 1405
 high speed current pulses 1271
 high speed digital applications 413
 high speed fuses 630
 high speed interruption 1399
 high speed semiconductor ac fuses 390
 high temperature 206
 high temperature applications 1308
 high temperature fuel cell 999
 high temperature fuel cell types 1002
 high temperature latching 90
 high temperature load lifetime 1110
 high temperature operation 1070
 high temperature transient liquid phase attachment 241
 high thermal conductivity ceramic 1207
 high velocity radial diffusion 1399
 high voltage ac-grids 978
 high voltage applications 1371, 1389, 1392
 high voltage arcs 416, 1387
 high voltage bipolar asymmetrical voltage clamping 405
 high voltage bipolar symmetrical voltage clamping 405
 high voltage breakdown properties 1198
 high voltage capacitors 1169
 high voltage circuit applications 1394
 high voltage conversion systems 939
 high voltage dc capacitor 921
 high voltage dc motor 878
 high voltage dc relays 1397
 high voltage diode 271
 high voltage impulses 379
 high voltage insulator 1393, 1394
 high voltage levels 408
 high voltage modules 1112
 high voltage npn transistor 112
 high voltage power line 375
 high voltage power supplies 1405
 high voltage protection 1405
 high voltage rating 739
 high voltage reed relays 1391
 high voltage relay comparison 1387
 high voltage relay designs 1389
 high voltage relay grounding 1393
 high voltage relays 1373
 high voltage spike 1228
 high voltage terminal options 1390
 high voltage transformer applications 391
 high voltage transformers 913
 high voltage transients 1287
 high work function cathode 228
 high work function materials 1387
 higher load conditions 940
 higher order harmonics 456
 higher voltage power relays 1371
 highest voltage 363
 highly inductive 669
 highly inductive dc load switching 1389
 highly inductive load – constant load current 538
 highly inductive load 161, 448, 521, 975, 1404
 highly reactive anodes 1087
 highly-conductive carbon black particles 393
 hinge arm 1355
 hold current 395, 396, 401
 holding current 127, 128, 413, 415, 590, 1368
 holding current level 1369
 holding point 403
 hole concentration 111
 hole mobility 2, 90
 hole-electron pair 60
 holes 1, 57
 homoepitaxy 8
 homogeneity 4
 homogeneous chemical structure 1206
 homogeneous composition 1214, 1217
 homogeneous contact 74
 homogeneous element 1207
 homogeneous insulators 1407
 homogeneous metal-based film resistor 1204
 homogeneous physical structure 1206
 homogeneous thermal conducting material 147
 homogenising stage 1306
 homo-junction 71, 1030, 1034
 homojunction device 1034
 homojunction Si cell 1034
 homopolar hvdc link 894
 Hook's law 1355
 horizontal orientation 1170
 horseshoes 1305
 hosting grid 981, 983
 hosting grid interconnection 983
 hosting utility 982
 hot circuit 1393
 hot electron diode 74
 hot filament 12
 hot junction 1117
 hot loads 1373
 hot pressing 1310
 hot resistance 385
 hot rolled 1306
 hot side 1119, 1123
 hot side temperature 222, 1128, 1122
 hot spot temperature 1207, 1214, 1219-1223
 hot spots 1045
 hot start pick-up voltage 1364
 hot start relay pick up voltage 1365
 hot switching 1371, 1393, 1394
 hot wall 14
 household appliances 1047
 household refrigerators 1134
 humidity 1179
 humidity coefficient 1180
 humidity dependence 1180
 hv arcing 587
 hv contact terminals 1372
 hv dc relay 1396
 hv direct-current transmission 893
 hv Marx generator 492
 hv pitting 587
 hvac transmission system 933
 hvac transmission system reactive power compensation methods 939
 hvcd technologies comparison 926
 hvdc 893
 hvdc active power control loop 918
 hvdc components 920
 hvdc configuration 918, 924
 hvdc control 907
 hvdc control characteristic performance 908
 hvdc control objectives 909
 hvdc filtering 913
 hvdc link 906
 hvdc power factor correction 913
 hvdc power reversal - voltage polarity reversal 909
 hvdc protection 907
 hvdc reactive power control loop 918

hvdc scheme 921
 hvdc steady-state V-I characteristics 908
 hvdc system load line characteristics 906
 hvdc systems 913
 hvdc technologies comparison 925
 hvdc transmission 540, 893
 hvdc transmission IGBT modules 361
 hvdc transmission systems 908
 hvdc transmission thyristor 361
 hvdc VSC converter terminal 920
 hvdc VSC features 927
 hybrid dc circuit breaker 433
 hybrid electric vehicles 1391
 hybrid filter arrangements 976
 hybrid filter topologies 976
 hybrid parallel connected TSC 940
 hybrid parallel connected TCR 940
 hybrid principle 1401
 hybrid quadrupolar contact system 1401
 hybrid silicon 1050
 hybrid STATCOM *I-V* characteristics 977
 hydrated 1001
 hydrated membrane 1000
 hydrated silicate 1197
 hydration 1019
 hydraulic diameter 218, 219
 hydrides 1078
 hydrocarbon 1005
 hydrocarbon attributes 989
 hydrocarbon cracking 1005
 hydrocarbon feedstock 1009
 hydrocarbon fuels 995, 1004
 hydrocarbon species 1005
 hydrocarbon structure 1177
 hydrocarbons 989, 1035
 hydrocarbons energy properties 990
 hydrofluoric HF acid 19
 hydrogen 989, 1001, 1008
 hydrogen absorbing alloys 1079
 hydrogen absorbing negative electrode 1085
 hydrogen absorption 1079, 1309
 hydrogen alloys storage 1011
 hydrogen decrepitation 1308
 hydrogen dielectric 1389
 hydrogen electrode 992, 1038
 hydrogen evolution 1056, 1074
 hydrogen filled relays 1371
 hydrogen fuel 992, 1002
 hydrogen gas 993, 1035
 hydrogen gas filled contactors 1369
 hydrogen gas filled relays 1369
 hydrogen gas relays 1389
 hydrogen gas-filled relays 1369
 hydrogen hydrides generation 1010
 hydrogen ion release 1081
 hydrogen ions 992
 hydrogen molecule ionizes 992
 hydrogen molecules 994
 hydrogen oxidation 994, 1005
 hydrogen pressurising 989
 hydrogen properties 989
 hydrogen protons 1019
 hydrogen purification 1009
 hydrogen reduction 9
 hydrogen resistant 1306
 hydrogen storage 1010, 1011
 hydrogen storage metals comparison 1079
 hydrogen transfer 1079
 hydrogen transport 1079, 1080
 hydrogen/air fuel cell 1016
 hydrogen/air fuel cell characteristics 1013
 hydrogen/air fuel cell reaction 1013

hydrogenated amorphous silicon 1030
 hydrogenated amorphous silicon p-i-n cell 1029
 hydrogenation disproportionation desorption and recombination process 1309
 hydrometer 1052
 hydrophilic surfaces 34
 hydrophobic 29
 hydrostatic pressure drop 202
 hydrous ruthenium oxide 1114
 hygroscopic substance 228
 hysteresis 480, 1271
 hysteresis band 681-683, 788
 hysteresis band level 682
 hysteresis boundaries 788
 hysteresis bounds 787
 hysteresis component 1244
 hysteresis control 788
 hysteresis controller 787
 hysteresis current losses 1244
 hysteresis dead band 788
 hysteresis input gate 270
 hysteresis loop 1239, 1240, 1243, 1244, 1303, 1315, 1316, 1320, 1321, 1338, 1340
 hysteresis loop area 1302, 1303
 hysteresis loop permeability definitions 1239
 hysteresis loops 1321
 hysteresis loss factor 1244
 hysteresis loss resistance 1244
 hysteresis losses 1235, 1237, 1245-1247, 1311
 hysteresis material constant 1244
 hysteresis mechanisms 1321
 hysteresis voltage feedback control 787

 I^2R heat 380
 I^2R losses 1278
 I^2t 126
 I^2t integral 380
 I^2t t let-through 383, 384
 I^2t let through energy 1381
 I^2t rating 126
 I^2t surge current 417
 I^2t surges 388
 I^2t withstand values 384
 ideal blocking device 376
 ideal capacitor 780, 1115, 1164
 ideal charge voltage 1051
 ideal compensator 940
 ideal curve 1315, 1316, 1322
 ideal diamagnets 1351
 ideal dielectric 1387
 ideal diode 64, 1038
 ideal emf 1017
 ideal emitter 133
 ideal fuel cell voltage derivation 1015
 ideal induction loop 1316
 ideal input transformer 901
 ideal magnetisation loop 1316
 ideal material 1315
 ideal off-state - open circuit 258
 ideal on-state - short circuit 258
 ideal output capacitor 780
 ideal PV cell model 1037
 ideal resistor 1207, 1209
 ideal semiconductors 647
 ideal standard potential 1017
 ideal starter 617
 ideal supercapacitor 1116
 ideal switching - instantaneous 258
 ideal transformer 1235
 identical cell types 1104
 identical cells parallel connection 1042

identical cells series connection 1042
 identical components 1165
 identically rated capacitors 1172
 identification stamp 1204
 IEC Standards 1428
 IEEE Standard 1204-1997 895
 IGBT 76, 87, 117, 123, 238, 260, 265, 267, 342, 361, 392, 421, 587, 645, 695, 1200
 IGBT application 265, 314
 IGBT based systems 927
 IGBT bridge leg 271
 IGBT conduction loss 161
 IGBT current tailing at turn-off 247
 IGBT die parallel connection 368
 IGBT gate drive circuits 267
 IGBT heat-sink for repetitive high duty cycle operation 161
 IGBT heat-sinking 161
 IGBT on-state 88
 IGBT latch-up 89
 IGBT modules 927
 IGBT on-state SCR static latch-up 89
 IGBT output stage 593
 IGBT PWM inverter/converter bridge topologies 959
 IGBT short circuit operation 124
 IGBT switching 123
 IGBT switching frequency 917
 IGBT transistor 323
 IGBT turn-off 88
 IGBT turn-off SCR dynamic latch-up 89
 IGBT turn-on 87
 IGBT valves 917
 IGBTs 238, 361, 392, 421
 IGC thyristors 950
 IGCT applications 284
 IGCThyristor 332, 333, 337, 342, 347
 ignition 412
 ignition-aid coated 411
 illumination 1039, 1041
 image field 36
 imaginary permeability components 1241
 imbalance current 343
 imbedded matrix material 228
 immersion cooling 193, 214
 immersion cooling heat transfer regimes 216
 immobilized electrolyte
 impact ionisation 60
 impact velocity 1367
 impedance 1235
 impedance analyzer 1106
 impedance curves 1183
 impedance matching 779
 impedance transferred 1278
 impeller hub contour 182
 impeller input power 185
 impeller tip speed 185
 impenetrable 42
 imperfections 50, 1033
 Implantation energies 12
 implanted ion 12
 impregnated materials 1191
 impregnated paper dielectrics 1192
 impulse energy 403
 impulse period 1212
 impulse voltage tested 1192
 impulse waveforms 408
 impulse withstand voltage 1405, 1406
 impure fuels 1004
 impurities 413
 impurity concentration 5
 impurity concentration gradient 4
 impurity trapping sites 37
 IMS 238, 239
 inactive 411
 inaudible frequencies 1238
 incandescent lamps 246, 1357
 incandescent lighting load 695
 incandescent lighting load flickering 582
 incident angle 235
 incident energy 1044
 incident light 26, 1027
 incident light reflection 1027
 incident power 1041
 incident sunlight 1041
 in-circuit design 396
 incoherent transport 227
 incoming air 170
 incremental inductance 311, 312, 1253, 1256
 incremental permeability 1240, 1251, 1253, 1256
 incremental resistance 410
 incremental temperature coefficient 1210
 in-delta circuit configuration 624
 in-delta connected three-phase ac regulator 607
 independent active power control 919
 independent buck-boost smps 332
 independent control 746, 927
 independent physical properties 1292
 independent reactive power control 919
 index 1505
 index of refraction 26
 indirect clamp 346
 indirect coil voltage suppression 1366
 indirect contact 1382, 1384
 indirect contact protection 1384
 indirect cooling - cold plates 209
 indirect filter coupling methods 978
 indirect liquid cooling - cold plates 174
 indirect liquid cooling - heat pipes 174
 indirect liquid cooling 174, 193, 197
 indirect reduction reaction 997
 indirect snubbing 354
 individual magnet grains 1318
 individually insulated stranded wire 1246
 induced magnetization 1321
 induced voltage 324, 419, 1281
 inducing field energy source 1303
 inductance - air gap 1250
 inductance 289, 417, 748, 1178, 1198, 1237-1241, 1257, 1272, 1283, 1369
 inductance characteristics comparison 1254
 inductance factor 1241, 1253
 inductance laminated bars 1282
 inductance liming 1272
 inductance loop 1288
 inductance minimization 1285
 inductance parallel wire pair 1286
 inductance parameter effects 1247
 inductance per unit length 1286
 inductance reduction 1290
 inductance rolls off 1253
 inductance stability 1247
 inductance temperature effects 1247, 1248
 inductance time effects 1247
 inductance time variation 1248
 inductance variation 1248
 inductance versus dc bias current 1251
 induction 1331, 1341, 1345
 induction coil 48
 induction evaporation 42
 induction generator 981
 induction heating 849
 induction heating applications 356
 induction irreversible losses 1337
 induction machine starting 619
 induction motor 616, 628

induction motor characteristics 618
 induction motor starting - wye-start, delta-run connection 621
 induction motor starting 621
 induction motors 617
 induction phenomena 1276
 induction reversible losses 1337
 inductive ac loads 411, 412
 inductive circuit 1270
 inductive circuit load 1371
 inductive compensation 964
 inductive components 1289
 inductive coupling 419
 inductive dc load 503, 968
 inductive dc-link, current source PWM inverter 959
 inductive effects 1108
 inductive element 859, 1206, 1371
 inductive load 119, 156, 246-259, 289, 314, 506, 512, 537, 659, 755, 766, 770
 inductive load circuit 596
 inductive load considerations 594
 inductive load current 645, 647
 inductive load elements 1372
 inductive load energy 416
 inductive load interruption 1369
 inductive load switching 1404
 inductive load switching interval linear approximations 255, 256
 Inductive load switching waveforms 253
 inductive load turn-off voltage spike 250
 inductive loads 410, 503, 505, 587, 592, 631, 696, 975, 1369, 1372, 1393
 inductive *L-R* load 569
 inductive passive load 443
 inductive path 758
 inductive paths 1203
 inductive phenomenon 546
 inductive reactance 927, 949
 inductive reactive coupling 965
 inductive resonant circuit 1404
 inductive snubber 289
 inductive switching 259
 inductive turn-on energy 337
 inductive turn-on snubber 304-308, 314, 337, 345-348, 367
 inductive turn-on snubber passive energy recovery 358
 inductive turn-on snubber stored energy 324
 inductive turn-on turn-off snubber 356, 359
 inductive VAR 942
 inductive voltage 555, 557
 inductive voltage drop due 1281
 inductive-resistive load 602
 inductive-type loads 976
 inductor 830
 inductor ac side coupled harmonics 921
 inductor and capacitor energy recovery 342
 inductor average current 779, 793, 800, 809
 inductor average voltage 777
 inductor carrying dc current 1243, 1266
 inductor circuits 1234
 inductor conduction losses 944
 inductor current 293, 337, 445, 759, 776-779, 784-788, 790-800, 804-809, 813, 856, 867-879, 883-886
 inductor current fall 809
 inductor current oscillation 283
 inductor current ripple 793
 inductor current ripple peak-to-peak magnitude 779
 inductor current ripple p-p magnitude 801
 inductor current waveform 782, 783
 inductor currents 813
 inductor design 1255, 1256
 Inductor electrical characteristics 1234
 inductor energy 294, 334, 436, 792, 797, 799, 813
 inductor equal voltage area criterion 433
 inductor iterative design procedure 1254
 inductor losses 582, 1263
 inductor magnetising current 311
 inductor magnitude 343
 inductor model vector diagram 1242
 inductor models 1234
 inductor parallel equivalent circuit 1242
 inductor peak reset voltage 310
 inductor quality factor 1244
 inductor reactance 779
 inductor recovery current 345
 inductor reset 307
 inductor resonant current 882
 inductor ripple current 779, 783, 786, 796-809, 813
 inductor ripple current magnitude 793
 inductor rms current 783, 784
 inductor rms ripple current 790, 799
 inductor series equivalent circuit 1241, 1242
 inductor size 750
 inductor storage stage 775
 inductor stored energy 307, 1234, 1249
 inductor supported voltage 1256
 inductor total rms current 777, 791, 799
 inductor transfer stage 775
 inductor turn-on snubber circuit 313
 inductor turn-on snubbers 340
 inductor turn-on turn-off snubber 341
 inductor voltage 310, 337, 433, 443, 595, 814, 873, 884, 951
 inductor voltage areas 513
 inductor voltage average 572
 inductor voltage rise 1256
 inductor voltage waveform 433
 inductor winding resistance 306
 inductor-diode combination 304, 1366
 inductors 1233, 1234
 industrial applications 1391
 industrial battery systems 1036
 industrial flooded deep-cycle batteries 1053
 industrial synthesis 1009
 inert 1048
 inert ceramic matrix 1003
 inert core 1205
 inert environment 1387
 inert gas surge arrester construction 411
 inert gas surge arrester over-voltage limiting characteristics 412
 inert gasses 1391
 inert material 1048
 inertial forces 1355
 inference 375
 infinite heatsink 1215
 infinite permeability 1320
 infinite Q 865
 infinite transient number 408
 ingot 48, 50
 ingot-growth techniques 1030
 inherent current limitation 1393
 inherent dielectric absorption 1163
 inherent low inductance 1206
 inhibitor 23
 initial actuation time 1361
 initial break 1368
 initial capacitor voltage 756, 758, 850
 initial capacity 1068
 initial charge 1106, 1138
 initial charge stage 1072
 initial conditions 336, 945
 initial current 697, 1093
 initial current inrush 944
 initial *di/dt* 96, 364
 initial *di/dt* capability 1256
 initial dose 6

initial energy 338
 initial fast charge 1083
 initial inductor current 758, 850
 initial load current 696
 initial make 1368
 initial operate time 1361
 initial output voltage 1114
 initial peak current 1203
 initial permeability 1237-1242, 1247, 1253, 1257
 initial permeability variation 1248
 initial pre-trip resistance 397
 initial resistance 400
 initial start current 627
 initial start voltage 625
 initial starting line current 619
 initial start-up 787
 initial stored energy 1114, 1115
 initial trickle charge 1070
 initial voltage 773
 initial voltage dip 1058
 injecting energy 1036
 injection efficiency 78
 injection moulded 1312
 injection-moulded bonded magnet 1307
 inlet air 172
 inlet fluid temperature 142
 inlet temperature 212
 inner concentric sphere 1406
 inner diameter 1283
 inner most hexagon 746
 inner radius 1285
 inorganic based spray paints 237
 inorganic magnetic materials 1292
 input 3rd harmonics 636
 input ac mains 750
 input ac supply 452, 503
 input ac supply power factor 439
 input ac supply voltage 775
 input ac voltage 900
 input ac waveforms 487
 input and output dependence 636
 input average current 778
 input boost converter stage 813
 input capacitance 118
 input characteristics 445
 input characteristics 457
 input circuit 588
 input converter 734
 input current 445-458, 538, 778, 790-800, 831, 872, 882-886, 897, 912, 985, 1128
 input current distortion 636, 750, 751
 input current harmonics 472, 902
 input current THD 902
 input current waveform 778
 input dc power 1124
 input dc voltage 645, 695, 1123
 input displacement factor 446, 454, 636
 input displacement factor control 637
 input distortion factor 457
 input electrical power 226
 input energy 779, 780, 793, 801
 input energy infinite source 1048
 input energy source 354
 input excitation voltage 861
 input filters 1197
 input fixed dc voltage 645
 input frequency 631
 input harmonics 473, 633
 input impedance 419, 762, 768, 884
 input inductor 772
 input inductor energy 869, 874, 879
 input L-C filter 633, 636
 input light irradiance 1040
 input line current 539, 635, 637, 899
 input line filter 634
 input line voltage 481-483
 input lines 635
 input nominal tolerance 1105
 input phase 635
 input phase angle 763, 764
 input phase voltage magnitude 636
 input phase voltages 636
 input power 448, 549, 571, 651-662, 674, 777, 864, 914, 1112, 1129, 1260
 input power factor 454, 457, 518, 549, 577, 578, 640, 902
 input power factor correction 567
 input reactive power
 input ripple current 790
 input rms current 439
 input short circuit constraint 635
 input source 790
 input supply 797
 input supply ac current 633
 input supply ac voltage 633
 input supply frequency 631
 input switch 1263
 input terminal voltage 1123
 input terminals 594, 1276
 input three-phase ac supply system 633
 input thresholds 421
 input to output current conduction 1276
 input VA 1276
 input VAR 914
 input voltage 599, 764-769, 776-778, 782, 787-793, 799-811, 816, 824, 827, 854, 855, 870-877, 1129
 input voltage fundament 761, 764
 input voltage level 854
 input voltage magnitude 765, 766, 799, 828
 input voltage source 633, 772
 input voltage supply 633
 input voltage variation 775
 input voltages 634, 637
 in-rush current 1365
 in-rush current 386, 619, 624, 1404
 inrush current limiters 1225
 inrush current limiting resistors 1404
 inrush damping resistor 1404
 inrush limiting resistor 1404
 inrush resistant 1357
 insertion 1039, 1040, 1114
 inside delta connection 625
 inside delta loop 625
 inside temperature 135
 in-situ 36
 in-situ doping 22
 in-situ-formed oxide scales 996
 insulation 1042, 1044
 insulation I-V characteristics 1044
 insulation voltage 600
 inspection 24
 instability 50
 instant voltage drop 1107
 instantaneous active powers 937
 instantaneous current components 936
 instantaneous current 280, 791, 936, 937
 instantaneous failure rate 1167
 instantaneous fault current 390
 instantaneous imaginary power 936
 instantaneous load voltage 506, 517
 instantaneous NTC temperature 1227
 instantaneous output voltage 533, 669, 698
 instantaneous output voltage states 728
 instantaneous power 338, 935, 936, 1011
 instantaneous power dissipation 249, 403

instantaneous power flow 937
 instantaneous power loss 246
 instantaneous power theory 935
 instantaneous reactive powers 937
 instantaneous real power 936,
 instantaneous reverse recovery current 594
 instantaneous supply ac voltage 448
 instantaneous supply voltage 436
 instantaneous transfer matrix 636
 instantaneous turn-on 587, 592
 instantaneous voltage 791, 936, 969
 instantaneous voltage differences 748
 insulated alloy powder 1236
 insulated gate bipolar transistor 76, 87, 123
 insulated high quality spongy iron powder 1236
 insulated metal substrate 238, 239
 insulated winding 1273
 insulating dc leakage resistance 1164
 insulating fluids 1407
 insulating gas 1407
 insulating material 136, 397, 1179
 insulating material polarisation process 1168
 insulating medium ionization 1387
 insulating parts 1405
 insulating resistance 412
 insulating separators 1049
 insulation 1262
 insulation breakdown arcing 403
 insulation conductance 1289
 insulation degrading 1406
 insulation fault 1383
 insulation layer 1207, 1273
 insulation properties 1192
 insulation resistance 1163, 1179, 1192, 1198, 1288, 1395
 insulation resistance loss 1393
 insulation resistance properties 1192
 insulation thickness 1363
 insulation type 1363
 insulator 34, 416, 1169
 insulator rf heating 1393
 integer multiple 720, 722
 integral control 952
 integral cycle control 567, 583, 584, 636, 942
 integral half-cycle single-phase ac control 583
 integrated ac motor thermal protection 625
 integrated heat exchangers 1009
 integrated microchannel heat-sink 218
 integrating capacitor 1273
 integration components interface 984
 integration performance 1272
 integrator bandwidth 1273
 integrator gain 1273
 inter electrode capacitances 1407
 interactive noise effects 361
 inter-area oscillations 952
 intercalated 1085
 intercalated ions 1085
 intercalation 1037, 1039, 1114
 intercalation action 1039
 intercalation host electrodes 1040
 intercalation process 1039, 1114
 interconnect 22, 38, 982, 996, 1005
 interconnect filter 964
 interconnected star winding 454
 interconnecting wiring 419
 interconnection line schematic 984
 inter-converter inductor 749
 inter-diffusion 993
 inter-digitated cathode 100
 interdigitated finger 99
 interdigitated islands 128
 inter-electrode gap 1400, 1401

interface joint 140
 interface losses 226
 interface resistance 1357
 interface thermal resistance 166
 interfacial polarization 1181, 1190, 1191
 interfacial polarization losses 1181
 interfacial reactions 996
 interfacing circuit 280
 interfacing conversion methods 985
 interfacing electronics 1274
 interfacing electronics overload 1274
 interfacing filter 346
 interfacing transformers 924
 interfacing unit 981
 interference 361, 419, 1392
 interference frequency dependency 421
 interference problems 420
 interference types 421
 inter-fin spacing 170
 inter-granular boundary resistance 405
 inter-granular capacitance 406
 inter-granular grain boundaries 405
 inter-group circulating current 631
 intergroup reactor 494, 552, 631
 interleaved metal foil 1177
 interleaved zero voltage states 678
 interlocked breaker 619
 interlocked contactors 627, 628
 intermediate capacitive energy storage 332
 intermediate capacitor 350
 intermediate charge 1082
 intermediate energy stage 567
 intermediate energy storage 645
 intermediate energy storage capacitors 346
 intermediate energy storage stage 633, 636
 intermediate load 1370
 intermediate storage capacitor
 intermediate storage capacitor 332, 343, 345, 350, 353
 intermediate storage stage 775
 intermediate substations 893
 intermediate temperature 206
 intermediate temperature heat pipe 207
 intermediate temperature range 208
 intermediate transfer stage 775
 intermediate transfer stage capacitor 346
 intermediate voltage levels 408, 939
 intermediated storage capacitor 340
 intermittent dc-link current flow 921
 intermittent discharge 1036
 intermittent dissipation 405
 intermittent duty 1365
 intermittent firing 279
 intermittent operation 145
 intermittent overloads 1173
 intermittent reset conditions 419
 intermittent supply burdens 982
 intermittent tack welding 1365
 intermolecular bonding forces 229
 internal armature style relays 1394
 internal cell pressure 1075
 internal combustion engine 1012
 internal configuration 1181
 internal connections 1191
 internal connectors 1074
 internal controller temperature protection 1096
 internal couple thermoelectric materials resistance 1130
 internal dc resistance 1114
 internal diameter 1268
 internal dielectric interfaces 1181
 internal discharge 1049
 internal electrical conditions 785
 internal electrodes 411

internal electromagnetic field 1281
 internal electron migration 1087
 internal equivalent series resistance 782
 internal flux linkages 1289
 internal gases 1070
 internal generated losses 1184
 internal ground arc-over 1373
 internal ground plane 1373, 1393
 internal grounding 1393
 internal heat 1045
 internal heating 1106, 1171
 internal hinged armature style 1389
 internal I^2R Joule heating 393
 internal impedance 1039, 1066, 1084, 1086, 1095, 1182, 1198
 internal interfaces 1181
 internal kinetic energy stored 1346
 internal loss limit 1184
 internal losses 1016, 1018, 1184
 internal materials 413
 internal metal shield 1390
 internal metal strip tab 1074
 internal overheating 1107
 internal parallel resistance 1111
 internal parasitic diode 314, 886
 internal polarization field 1181
 internal positive ion flow 1037
 internal power dissipation 1164
 internal power losses 1114, 1188
 internal pressure 1064
 internal quantum efficiency 1040
 internal recombination stages 1064
 internal recombination theory 1063
 internal reflections 1033
 internal reforming 1004
 internal resistance 1017, 1036, 1050-1055, 1060, 1062, 1088, 1103-1116, 1130-1138, 1392
 internal resistance cells 1087
 internal resistance temperature dependence 1063
 internal resistance voltage drop 1106
 internal resistive losses 1032, 1115, 1116
 internal self-discharge 1037, 1041, 1106
 internal self-discharging effects 1041
 internal self-heating 1109
 internal self-inductance component 1286
 internal short-circuiting rate 1114
 internal temperature 1093
 internal temperature rise 1172
 internal temperature self-heating 1184
 internal vaporized metal 1404
 internal voltage 1137
 internal voltage control circuits 1093
 internal wiring 1181
 internally generated heat 1188
 internally generated heating power 1060
 internally generated interference 375
 inter-phase output voltages 712
 inter-phase transformers 910
 inter-phase voltage 602, 711
 interrupt rating 1373
 interrupter components 1399
 interrupter vacuum contact 1402
 interrupting devices 984
 interruption capacity 1399
 interruption principle 1399
 interruption time 1223
 interruption time characteristic 1223
 interspersing discharging 1072
 inter-spiral capacitance effects 1213
 interstitial air 137
 interstitial spaces 1039
 interstitials 12
 inter-terminal capacitances 118
 inter-turn capacitance 1273
 intertwined bipolar transistors 414
 inter-winding capacitance 1199, 1246, 1287
 intrinsic carrier concentration 1
 intrinsic carrier density 58
 intrinsic characteristics 1316, 1334
 intrinsic coercive force 1311
 intrinsic coercivity 1302, 1303-1309, 1321, 1322, 1339-1341
 intrinsic concentration 58
 intrinsic curve 1321, 1328, 1332, 1345
 intrinsic curve operating point 1334
 intrinsic demagnetisation characteristic 1333
 intrinsic demagnetisation curve 1322, 1324, 1325, 1332, 1343
 intrinsic demagnetising factor 1328
 intrinsic electron magnetic moments 1299
 intrinsic flux 1329
 intrinsic gettering 37
 intrinsic induction 1322
 intrinsic layer 73, 1029, 1035, 1036
 intrinsic M versus H magnetization characteristic 1315
 intrinsic magnet model 1324
 intrinsic magnetic moments 1299
 intrinsic magnetic properties 1306
 intrinsic magnetisation curve 1332
 intrinsic magnetization curve operating point 1334
 intrinsic operating point 1328, 1342
 intrinsic permeability 1239, 1248
 intrinsic permeance coefficient 1328
 intrinsic stresses 14
 invariant 821
 invariant parameters 823
 inverse parallel connected freewheel diode 345
 inverse parallel connected SCR and diode 616
 inverse parallel connected silicon-controlled rectifiers 616
 inversion 503, 506, 527-533, 546, 548, 695, 726, 749-755
 inversion mode 529, 548, 747, 894, 901
 inversion modes converter operation 906
 inversion operation 547
 inversion overlap 906
 inversion safety angle 548
 inverted non-isolated output 803, 815
 inverter 765
 inverter ac output frequency control 713
 inverter ac-side voltage 909
 inverter advance angle 915
 inverter based compensators 959
 inverter bridge freewheel diodes 965
 inverter bridge leg 340, 341
 inverter bridge legs passive snubber energy recovery circuits 342
 inverter bridge legs recovery circuits 345
 inverter bridge operation 756
 inverter circuits 695
 inverter components 964
 inverter control mode 907
 inverter controllers 908
 inverter current controller 908
 inverter current rating 967
 inverter dc output voltages 907
 inverter delay angle 909, 913, 914
 inverter equipment 1046
 inverter feedback loop 984
 inverter fundamental output voltage 978
 inverter grid connection 981
 inverter leg 348
 inverter leg devices 347
 inverter losses 960, 971
 inverter mode 901
 inverter modulation index 972
 inverter negative terminal 736
 inverter output 732, 751
 inverter output current ripple 727

inverter output current waveforms 695
 inverter output frequency 727
 inverter output states 740
 inverter output voltage 538
 inverter output voltage fundamental 965
 inverter output voltage waveforms 695
 inverter power losses 968
 inverter PWM modulation depth 960
 inverter reactive power 915
 inverter regeneration 749
 inverter side ac voltage 909
 inverter square wave excitation 850
 inverter switching 735
 inverter switching losses 755
 inverter transformer 908
 inverting boost converter 813
 inverting mode 746, 904
 inverts 80
 ion absorption layer 1102
 ion channelling 12
 ion clusters 1000
 ion concentration 1099
 ion conducting media 1086
 ion conducting electrolyte 1008
 ion conducting membrane 991, 992
 ion dose 12
 ion exchange 1090
 ion exchange water conditioning system 1009
 ion flow 1090
 ion flux 18
 ion implant 11
 ion implantation 3, 11, 13, 34, 51
 ion implanted resistors 34
 ion implanting 12
 ion impurities 12
 ion milling 32
 ion mobility 1003
 ion transfer mechanism 1037
 ionic conduction 1011, 1103, 1190
 ionic conductivity 1004, 1037
 ionic conductor 1005, 1037
 ionic contaminants 35
 ionic liquid 1102
 ionic salts 1103
 ionised arc 411
 ionization 18, 991
 ionization reaction 994
 ionized air molecules 192
 ionized gas breakdown 1393
 ions 1037, 1039
 ions extraction 1037
 ions insertion 1037
 IP codes 1427
 i -region 73
 iron area 1277
 iron core inductive loads 1404
 iron losses 454
 iron metal 1291
 iron oxide powder 1311
 iron powder cores 1236, 1253
 iron powders 1236
 iron technical data 1282
 iron-free resistive element 1207
 irradiance 1040
 irradiance power 1041
 irradiated areas 37
 irradiated cell 1039
 irradiation level 1039, 1047
 irradiation lifetime control 97
 irregular grain boundaries 1028
 irreversible ageing losses 1339
 irreversible changes 1342

irreversible damage 1057, 1112
 irreversible effects
 irreversible loss 1308, 1317, 1338-1347
 irreversible loss component 1337
 irreversible loss thermal effects 1343
 irreversible recoverable magnetic loss 1337
 irreversible resistance changes 1223
 irreversible sulphation 1060
 irreversible temperature loss 1344
 irreversible thermal losses 1343
 irreversible thermodynamic theory 1118
 irreversible unrecoverable magnetic loss 1337
 irreversible-recoverable loss 1339
 islanding 981, 1046
 islanding protection 983
 islands 34
 isolated dc voltage source 740
 isolated gate-to-source drive 268
 isolated mode 909, 983
 isolated output 820
 isolated output forward converter 825
 isolated output step up/down flyback converter 822
 isolated output, flyback converter 821
 isolated output, forward converter 820
 isolated phase busbar systems 1282
 isolated power sources 740
 isolated single-phase inverter 978
 isolated substrates - power modules 238
 isolated dc voltage power supplies 743
 isolating pulse transformers 625
 isolating transformer 750
 isolation 275, 504, 819, 1275
 isolation capacitance 1199
 isolation diodes 1045
 isolation layer 239
 isolation material 238, 239
 isolation reed relays 1392
 isolation requirement 347
 isolation separation 1200
 isolation techniques 34
 isolation voltage 238, 1390
 isolator switch 1374
 isothermal heat-sink 228
 isothermal operation 1018
 isotropic 28, 1312
 isotropic etching 27
 isotropic form 1308, 1314
 isotropic hard magnetic material 1305, 1306
 isotropic magnets 1309
 isotropic materials 1315
 I - t performance 378
 iterative solution 1365
 I - V characteristics 260, 364, 368, 371, 405-408
 I - V curves - diac 414
 I - V curves - SCR 414
 I - V curves - anti-parallel SCR pair 414
 I - V ratings 792
 I - V switching conditions 258
 I - V switching trajectory 247, 323
 jet impingement 193, 217
 jet impingement cooling 217, 218
 JFET 91
 JFET region 86
 Johnson noise 1208
 Jordan formulae 1243
 Joule heating 393, 1117, 1118, 1123, 1124, 1227
 Joule I^2R heat 1359
 Joule of energy 1097
 Joule's integral 1190
 Joule's law 1209

junction capacitance 66-68, 361
 junction coolant temperature 220
 junction depth 6, 7
 junction electric field 1033
 junction field effect transistor 91
 junction operating temperature 162, 163, 416
 junction spiking 38
 junction surface area 1047
 junction temperature 57, 108, 109, 149-152, 164, 165, 224, 241, 1047, 1117
 junction temperature swing 150
 junction-case thermal resistance 146

Kelvin terminals 1225
 kerf 49
 kick-start pedestal voltage 625
 kinematic viscosity 221
 kinetic energy 628, 1346
 kinetic energy carriers 1033
 Kirchhoff 330
 Kirchhoff analysis 855
 Kirchhoff current loops 333
 Kirchhoff equations 331
 Kirchhoff loop 332
 Kirchhoff voltage equation 430
 Kirchhoff voltage loop 731
 Kirchhoff's current law 298, 304, 362, 371, 372, 651-666, 771, 804, 864, 966, 1325, 1326, 1336
 Kirchhoff's electrical current equation 475
 Kirchhoff's laws 304
 Kirchhoff's voltage law 298, 304, 368, 371, 372, 437, 507, 514, 573, 634, 635, 805, 852, 963, 965, 1115, 1325, 1326, 1336
 knee 1315, 1317
 knee characteristic 1347
 knee effects 1325
 knee point 1343
 Korndorfer system 1278
 Kunststoff 1177

L/R constant 1368
 L/R ratio 410
 L/R time constant 308, 309, 1369
 L'Hopital's rule 550
 labour content 1198
 lagging current 945, 962, 965
 lagging fundamental rms voltage 950
 lagging operation 760
 lagging power factor 854, 858
 lagging power factor angle 932
 lagging power mode 965
 laminar 143
 laminar flow 134
 laminated bars 1282
 laminated bus bar 1288, 1290
 laminated bus bar arrangement 1288
 laminated bus bar design 1288
 laminated bus bar parameters 1290
 laminated cylindrical iron cores 616
 laminated parallel bus bar configuration 1285
 laminated silicon steel 1245
 lamp charging 1373
 lamp dimmer 275
 lamp dimmer circuit 275
 lamp intensity 275
 lamp load 1365, 1373
 lamp starters 415
 lancet-shape hysteresis loop 1240
 lapped 49
 large stationary power generators 1002

laser 38
 laser sawn 1029
 laser scribing 43
 latching actuators 1405
 latching current 127, 590
 latching type configurations 1404
 latch-up 10, 117
 latent heat 200, 207, 228
 latent heat of fusion 228, 229
 latent heat of vaporisation 197, 199, 228, 229
 lateral displacement 1349
 lateral resistance 1030
 laterally shift 1040
 lattice 12
 lattice damage 12
 lattice deformation 1040
 lattice disorder 37
 lattice grid 1047
 lattice-substrate boundary 53
 laws of conduction 1214
 laws of convection 1214
 laws of radiation 1214
 laws of thermodynamics 1118
 layer construction 1187
 layer extension 1178
 L-C circuit 944
 L-C circuit natural resonant frequency 854
 L-C dc link filter 863, 878
 L-C filter 275, 404, 598, 750, 850, 913
 L-C filter fundamental cut-off frequency 751
 L-C filter resonant frequency 850
 L-C filter stage 985
 L-C filtering 421
 L-C filtering action 761, 764
 L-C filtering attenuation 771
 L-C high-pass shunt line filter 975
 L-C load arrangement 756
 L-C low-pass, second-order filters 751
 L-C notch filters 946
 L-C oscillation 314
 L-C output filter 447, 781
 L-C resonance 884
 L-C resonant circuit 756, 865
 L-C resonant converter 849
 L-C resonant period 332, 333, 337
 L-C resonant transfer 293
 L-C series converter 861
 L-C series filter cut-off frequency 852
 LCC resonant tank circuit 859
 LCC hvdc 896
 L-C-R circuit 767
 L-C-R resonant circuits 755, 756
 lead acid battery 1044, 1056, 1057, 1061, 1097
 lead acid battery charge stages 1056
 lead acid battery charging regimes 1056
 lead acid battery design features 1068
 lead acid battery life 1061
 lead acid battery negative plate discharge reaction 1050
 lead acid battery plate discharge reaction 1050
 lead acid battery plate reaction 1051
 lead acid battery positive plate discharge reaction 1050
 lead acid battery storage regimes 1056
 lead acid cell 1044, 1054, 1098
 lead frame assembly 44
 lead free solder 1223
 lead inductance 406, 1163
 lead length 1215
 lead length correction factor 1225
 lead length increase 1215
 lead metal negative grids 1053
 lead oxide positive plate 1053
 lead-acid 1053

lead-acid and nickel-cadmium battery technologies
 comparison 1078
 lead-acid batteries 1053, 1055
 lead-acid batteries construction 1055
 lead-acid battery 1037, 1041, 1043, 1047, 1050, 1113
 lead-acid battery discharge characteristics 1059
 lead-acid battery properties 1066
 lead-acid battery user properties 1066
 lead-acid car battery 1047
 lead-acid cell 1051, 1100
 lead-acid cell arrangements 1053
 lead-acid cell corrosion equations 1063
 lead-acid cell gassing equations 1063
 lead-acid cell theory 1043
 lead-acid secondary 1088
 lead-infused ceramic plates 1055
 leading current 756
 leading operation 760
 leading power factor 854, 857
 leading power mode 965
 leading reactive power 945
 leakage coefficient 1326
 leakage current 59, 60, 72, 73, 95, 108, 157, 266, 361, 402, 416, 1106, 1111, 1169-1175, 1382, 1388
 leakage current region 405
 leakage current sensing 1405
 leakage current specification 1106
 leakage flux 1259, 1317, 1325, 1327, 1334
 leakage flux cancelling technique 1287
 leakage flux correction factor 1334
 leakage inductance 352, 353, 827, 859, 906, 944, 965, 1235, 1257, 1266, 1271, 1287
 leakage inductance current 827
 leakage inductance energy 352
 leakage inductance energy recovery 352
 leakage inductance stored energy 827
 leakage losses 1184
 leakage path 1336
 leakage reactance 907, 922, 1278
 leakage reactance commutation overlap 907
 leakage regions 1326
 leakage resistance 1163
 leakage voltage control 352
 leaky integrator 1272
 leg output 725
 leg phase voltages 730
 leg voltages 731
 legs 43
 Lenz's law 1246, 1299
 let-through energy 376, 1379
 level shift driver 283
 level shifter 594
 LFR 377-402
 LHP 198
 liberation absorption 1117
 life cycle 413, 1066
 life estimate 191
 life expectancy 133, 591, 1053, 1110, 1369, 1373
 life tests 1373
 life-reducing overcharge 1082
 lifetime 139, 164, 407, 408, 1046, 1075, 1106, 1110, 1113, 1175, 1200, 1395
 lifetime constraints 1190
 lifetime control 37
 lifetime control thermal diffusion Au Pt 37
 lifetime criteria 1110
 lifetime killing 72, 93
 lift truck applications 1047
 lifting height 201
 lift-off 24, 33
 light absorbing materials 1033
 light absorption 1033

light absorptivity 1032
 light capture 1027
 light dimmer 281
 light dimming circuit 281
 light induced degradation 50
 light intensity 1041
 light irradiance 1040
 light load 861, 735, 767
 light load conditions 854, 940
 light load levels 746
 light metal 1095
 light photon absorption 1023
 light photon energy 1024
 light transmittance 1035
 light transparency 1034
 light triggered thyristor 101
 lighting and heating applications 750
 light-load efficiency 767
 light-load regulation 767
 lightning 375
 lightning arresters 1404
 lightning damage 375
 lightning discharges 375
 lightning effects 928
 lightning EPR 376
 lightning protection 984
 lightning withstand impulse 1405
 lightweight transducer 1273
 lignin derivative organic compound 1048
 lignin organic compound 1048
 Li-ion battery cell safety circuit 1096
 Li-ion battery charge stages 1093
 Li-ion battery chemistries 1094
 Li-ion battery lifetime 1095
 Li-ion battery packs 1093
 Li-ion battery permanently damage 1095
 Li-ion cell 1100, 1113
 Li-ion cell protection circuitry 1096
 Li-ion conduction 1087
 Li-ion overcharge 1093
 Li-ion phosphate batteries 1094
 Li-ion polymer batteries 1090
 Li-ion technology 1102
 likelihood of failure 1387
 limited dc current interruption 1404
 limiting constraints 371
 limiting element voltage 1211
 limiting factor 1180, 1184
 limiting flashover voltage 1211
 limiting voltage 1218
 line commutated 452
 line commutated circuits 913
 line commutated high voltage dc transmission system 896
 line commutated hvdc 913
 line commutated thyristor systems 913
 line commutation 128, 427, 503, 567, 645, 893, 959
 line compensation 934, 973
 line configurations 623
 line current 472-476, 538, 897-923, 936, 946-949, 952, 954
 line current distortion compensation 967
 line current flow 934
 line current harmonic compensation 969
 line current harmonics 538, 959
 line efficiency 915
 line feed resistor 377, 379
 line frequency 627, 775
 line frequency operation 399
 line frequency switching 913
 line harmonic voltages 969
 line impedance voltage 964
 line inductance 975
 line inductance absorbed reactive power 933

line inductance VAr 975
 line input current 912
 line input current harmonics 602
 line phase angle 965
 line protection module 377
 line reactance 544, 922, 923, 934, 951-955, 964, 966-979
 line reactive power 935, 954
 line resistance 915
 line resolution 26
 line resonance 948
 line sending voltage 958
 line series compensating capacitor 950
 line thyristors 612
 line to ground current protection 1405
 line to line voltage 530, 602, 720
 line to load neutral 739
 line to load neutral levels 736
 line to neutral rms load voltage 608
 line to neutral rms voltage 544
 line to neutral voltage 478, 923, 965
 line voltage 413, 538, 547, 586, 606, 622, 923, 940, 965, 968
 line voltage distortion compensation 969
 line voltage drop 964
 line voltage harmonics 959
 line voltages 712, 720, 730
 linear chokes 1251
 linear current 777
 linear demagnetising curve 1321
 linear demagnetization 1323
 linear demagnetization characteristic 1329, 1347
 linear expansion coefficient 1209
 linear expansion temperature co-efficient 145, 146
 linear inductor design flowchart 1255
 linear inductors 1251, 1265
 linear leakage current 61
 linear load 640, 938
 linear mode 775
 linear ramp 625
 linear region 82, 114, 1341
 linear regulators 789
 linear resistance 404
 linear reversible change 1345
 linear thermal expansion coefficient 234
 linear transfer function 809
 linear transformations 1220
 linear voltage fall 367
 linear voltage fall time 1259
 linear voltage transfer function 779
 linearity 1275
 linearity coefficients 1208
 linearly derated 407
 linearly voltage derated 1171
 linear-parabolic model 20
 line-commutated converters 895
 line-commutated FACTS 939
 line-commutated systems 939
 line-commutated thyristors 748
 line-feed resistor 400
 line-side currents 473
 line-side tap changers 907
 line-to-line rms voltage 456
 line-to-line voltage 455, 606, 634, 711, 922
 line-to-line voltage waveform 736, 739
 line-to-load neutral voltage 710
 line-to-load neutral voltage Fourier coefficients 710
 line-to-neutral load voltage waveforms 601
 line-to-neutral voltage waveforms 608, 711
 line-to-neutral voltages 634
 link current 734, 914
 link efficiency 915
 link inductance 913, 928
 link inductor 735
 link inductor input voltage 733
 link peak to peak current 915
 link rail 725
 link resistive voltage drop 916
 link voltage 907
 Lipowitz's alloy 221
 liquefaction 989
 liquefied hydrogen 1011
 liquefied petroleum gas 999
 liquid alcohols 993, 1002
 liquid aluminium oxide capacitor 1171, 1173, 1174
 liquid capacitors 1171, 1175
 liquid compatible 214
 liquid coolant chemistries 194
 liquid coolants 193, 209, 215
 liquid coolants dielectric aliphatics 194
 liquid coolants dielectric aromatics 194
 liquid coolants dielectric fluorocarbons 195
 liquid coolants dielectric silicate-ester 194
 liquid coolants dielectric silicones 195
 liquid coolants non-dielectric calcium chloride solution 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric deionised water 195
 liquid coolants non-dielectric ethanol/water 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric Ethylene glycol 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric liquid metals
 liquid coolants non-dielectric methanol/water 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric potassium formate/acetate solution 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric propylene glycol 196
 liquid coolants non-dielectric water 195
 liquid cooled cold plates 209
 liquid cooled microchannel heat-sink 209
 liquid cooled recirculating chiller 210
 liquid cooling 165, 193, 209, 1119
 liquid density 207
 liquid electrolyte 1003, 1053, 1066, 1067, 1087, 1162, 1176
 liquid electrolytic capacitors 1176
 liquid filled capacitors 1181
 liquid fuels 992, 999
 liquid hydrocarbons 993
 liquid level sensing 400, 1227
 liquid metabolate by-product 1011
 liquid metal 221
 liquid metal cooling 174, 221
 liquid metal oxide dielectric capacitor 1169
 liquid metals thermal properties 221
 liquid methanol 1002
 liquid organic solvents 1087
 liquid oxide capacitors 1171, 1174
 liquid phase 199
 liquid phosphoric-acid fuel cell 1002
 liquid ratio 989
 liquid return loop 198
 liquid screen printing technology 1206
 liquid state 989, 1359
 liquid tantalum 1177
 liquid tantalum capacitors 1174, 1176
 liquid thermal conductivity 207
 liquid viscosity 207
 liquid-to-liquid heat exchanger 193, 210
 lithiated metal oxide 1085
 lithium batteries 1039
 lithium manganese dioxide battery 1135
 lithium metal 1041
 lithium metal plated 1093
 lithium phosphate cells 1089
 lithium polymer batteries 1036
 lithium polymer cell charging 1093
 lithium polymer cell construction layers 1090
 lithium salt electrolyte solutions 1087
 lithium thionyl chloride battery 1135
 lithium-cobalt oxide cell 1088

lithium-ion battery 1037, 1081, 1085
 lithium-ion battery characteristics 1096
 lithium-ion battery construction 1087
 lithium-ion cathode technologies 1089
 lithium-ion cell 1088, 1100
 lithium-ion cell cathode types 1091
 lithium-ion cell characteristics 1091
 lithium-ion cell properties 1095
 lithium-ion discharge 1093
 lithium-ion load characteristics 1091
 lithium-ion secondary rechargeable battery 1039
 lithium-ion/anode-graphite interaction 1085
 lithium-ions 1040
 lithium-manganese oxide cell 1088
 lithium-nickel-cobalt-manganese cell 1089
 lithium-phosphate cell 1089
 lithium-polymer cell 1090
 lithium-polymer electrochemistry 1090
 lithium-thionyl-chloride batteries 1036
 lithography 23
 Litz wire 1246
 Litzendraht 1246
 live conductor 1272
 LLC converter 860
 load absorbed power 1115
 load absorbed torque 617
 load ac current 445, 456
 load and supply power factors 578
 load angle 946, 953, 954, 956
 load average current 429, 441, 672, 674
 load average voltage 429, 441, 659, 660, 672
 load back emf 428, 441, 456, 457, 503, 507, 514, 524, 535, 536, 543, 549, 656
 load centre 982
 load changes 695, 787
 load characteristics 498, 1223
 load circuit 440, 671, 827, 885
 load circuit condition 680
 load circuit current 523
 load circuit rms voltage 437, 443, 505
 load commutating diode 517
 load compensation 976
 load conditions 773, 779, 831
 load connection 487
 load consideration 246
 load conveyers 627
 load current 296, 309-348, 417-459, 471, 491, 505-548, 570, 573, 596, 602, 611, 631, 639-700, 755, 770, 779-810, 824, 851, 863, 871-877, 884-886, 912, 966-975, 1358, 1364
 load current coefficients 639
 load current dependent 735
 load current equations 505, 655
 load current flow 775
 load current form factor 569
 load current Fourier coefficients 640
 load current freewheeling path 436
 load current harmonics 457, 571, 602, 639
 load current independent 332
 load current interruption 1405
 load current level 334
 load current magnitude 311, 325, 546, 884
 load current peak-to-peak output ripple 673
 load current ripple factor 516
 load current symmetrical, bipolar, discontinuous 582
 load current waveform 428, 518, 519, 662, 675
 load current zero slope criterion 433
 load dc back emf 503
 load dc voltage 850
 load delta connection 606
 load dependant parameters 771
 load efficiency 528, 640, 641, 695

load emf 685
 load energy 677, 805
 load energy recovery 354
 load energy transfer efficiency 1116
 load equipment terminals 1404
 load factor 183
 load fault energy 380
 load filter capacitor 435
 load Fourier voltage component 640
 load freewheel diode 288, 325, 331, 334, 518, 541, 556, 642, 647, 876
 load freewheeling 508
 load freewheeling bipolar diode 313
 load ground side 1373
 load half cycle average voltage 603
 load harmonics 431, 437, 444, 462, 487, 512, 521, 570-582, 640, 650, 695, 751-756, 1266
 load impedance temperature effects 647
 load independent 670, 678
 load inductance 249, 432, 433, 444, 456, 461
 load inductance voltage polarity 433
 load inductive stored energy 646
 load inductor 767
 load inductor average voltage 569
 load inertia 627, 746
 load L/R time constant 651
 load line 399, 1325-1335, 1340, 1340, 1340
 load line slope 1334-1348
 load line solutions 1330
 load line sweep 1347
 load lines 1325
 load losses 735
 load natural power factor 578
 load natural power factor angle 522, 567, 577, 579
 load network 966, 967
 load network current 966
 load neutral connection 631
 load neutral voltage 634
 load operating point 1325
 load output 433
 load overloading 399
 load performance 518
 load phase angle 602
 load phase rms current 604
 load phase rms voltage 602, 604
 load power 438, 440, 444, 514, 520, 602, 640, 701, 704
 load power absorbed 522
 load power delivered 516
 load power dissipated 428, 515, 613
 load power factor 260, 578, 597, 637, 698, 701, 704, 763, 966
 load power factor angle 572
 load power percentage error 459
 load Q 760, 763, 767
 load Q factor 756
 load reactive energy 696
 load regulation 338, 861
 load resistance 433, 439, 444-447, 541, 758-786, 793-796, 801-810, 815-819, 827, 855, 865, 1017, 1039, 1060, 1131
 load resistance average current 577
 load resistance dependant 766
 load resistance rms current 577
 load resistor 281, 428, 440, 441, 665, 769
 load resistor voltage 581
 load resonant circuit comparison 860
 load resonant converter 859
 load resonant frequency 755, 756
 load ripple current frequency 677
 load ripple voltage 444
 load rms current 429, 441, 521, 581, 582
 load rms maximum 579
 load rms voltage 429, 439, 441, 516, 525, 659, 660, 672
 load shorting 399

load sinusoidal back emf 577
 load speed torque curve 627
 load switching 1365, 1388
 load switching frequency 677
 load terminal voltage 770
 load thermal time constant 582
 load time constant 650, 655, 658, 660, 672, 682, 691
 load triplen currents 600
 load voltage 427, 440, 505, 523-546, 570, 596, 646-665, 683, 733, 755, 776, 808, 864, 876, 948, 965-969, 975, 1359
 load voltage form factor 437, 443, 453, 456, 505, 520, 528, 552
 load voltage Fourier coefficients 639, 649
 load voltage Fourier series 671
 load voltage frequency component 583
 load voltage harmonics 428, 438, 440, 444, 537, 554, 583, 700, 962
 load voltage polarity 696
 load voltage ripple factor 428, 437, 444, 516, 528
 load voltage waveform 428, 518, 639, 652, 662, 675
 load waveform harmonics 631
 load waveforms 504, 505, 518, 611, 639, 648, 662
 load-compensation 976
 loaded output voltage 1132, 1133
 loaded source 1014
 loading station 19
 load-resonant converters 755
 local axial field distribution 1400
 local earth 422
 local electronic systems 630
 local field strength 1407
 local hot spots 73
 local minimum turning point 831
 local planarization 36
 localized melting 1181
 locked magnetic domains 1336
 locked rotor load conditions 625
 locked rotor torque 621
 long cylindrical wire inductance 1286
 long distance electrical power transmission 893
 long foil strips - rolled 1087
 long life 1387
 long lifetimes 1191
 long storage 1053
 long straight conductor carrying current 1272
 long thin cylinders/rods 1305
 long winding 911
 longer-term faults 378
 long-life current closing 1404
 long-life energy storage 1036
 long-life fuse protection 385
 long-term cold resistance 397
 long-term contact 1049
 long-term float charge 1056
 long-term overcharging 1045
 lookup table mapping 828
 loop area 420
 loop gain 94
 loop heat pipes 166, 198
 loop inductance 340
 Lorentz forces 1181
 lose electrons 1037, 1038
 loss angle 1164
 loss characteristic 1180
 loss coefficient 220
 loss factor 1242, 1244, 1326, 1347
 loss mechanism 1181
 losses 363
 losses variation 1192
 losses windings 1276
 lossless capacitive turn-off snubbers 827
 lossless commutated 866
 lossless oscillation 352, 353
 lossless self-inductance 1243
 lossless turn-off snubbers 854
 lost charge acceptance 1083
 low capacitance 270
 low carrier frequencies 722
 low charge levels 1137
 low coercivity 1311
 low contact resistance 1392
 low cut-off frequency 1200
 low duty cycle applications 1111
 low frequencies 364
 low frequency ac current 1281
 low frequency ac output 631
 low frequency bandwidth 1273
 low frequency noise 1273
 low frequency power harmonics 939
 low frequency switching 158
 low frequency transfer matrix 635
 low flow liquid cooling 166
 low impedance 376, 1114
 low impedance gate drives 1200
 low impedance path 284
 low impedance resonance 757
 low impedance state 410
 low inductance 305, 309, 921, 1176, 1288
 low inductance applications 1207
 low inductance path 921
 low inductance resistor 367, 625
 low leakage core shapes 1266
 low leakage current 1389
 low load 1370
 low loss conductor 1394
 low loss rf reed relays 1392
 low loss state 377
 low maintenance battery 1091
 low order harmonics 939
 low pass filter 404, 920, 1273
 low pass L-C based filters 959
 low pass second-order LC output filter 781
 low power elements 1224
 low pressure air pumps 174
 low pressure chemical vapour deposition 43
 low pressure CVD 15
 low remanence 1311
 low resistance contact 1355
 low resistance copper contacts 1391
 low resistance values 1212
 low shunt capacitance 1213
 low side driver 270
 low side load 1394
 low slip conditions 627
 low speed motors 618
 low temperature 206
 low temperature applications 1074
 low temperature fuel cell 999
 low temperature heat pipe 207
 low trigger current 376
 low voltage on-state 377, 413
 lower boundary 787
 lower cut off half-power points 1272
 lower energy photons 1035
 lower half-power frequency 757, 770
 lower hysteresis band limit 682
 lower order harmonics 718
 lower resonant frequency 859
 lower switches 709
 lower voltage ac source 486
 lower voltage capacitor windings 1181
 lowest leakage 364
 LPCVD 15, 43
 LPM 377
 L-R load 427, 503, 567

LTT 101
 lumped residual capacitance 1207
 lumped series impedance 932
 LV voltage make and break relay 1395

M input voltages 633
 machine acceleration 749
 machine armature 667
 machine current 629
 machine field winding 302, 308, 311
 machine laminations 1236
 machine regenerative braking 749
 machine reversal 629
 machine rotational direction change 746, 749
 machine rotational speed 746
 machine slot tips 619
 machine speed back emf 523
 machine torque 629
 machined fins 170
 macrojet impingement 192
 magnet 1325, 1328
 magnet alloys 1304
 magnet area 1325
 magnet B-H curve 1328
 magnet circuit 1325
 magnet coenergy 1348
 magnet cycling 1338, 1345
 magnet demagnetising field 1331
 magnet demagnetization B-H curve 1325
 magnet energy 1338, 1347
 magnet energy product 1346
 magnet energy released 1347
 magnet field energy irreversible loss 1347
 magnet flux 1326, 1329
 magnet flux cycling 1343
 magnet flux density 1315, 1348
 magnet flux losses 1337
 magnet knee 1324, 1337, 1342
 magnet length 1325, 1327, 1335, 1340
 magnet life 1318
 magnet linear demagnetising characteristic 1329
 magnet linear region 1325
 magnet load 1343
 magnet load dependant operating point 1329
 magnet load line equation 1329
 magnet magnetic circuit models 1322
 magnet magnetic force 1365
 magnet material 1315, 1325, 1336, 1350
 magnet material volume 1315
 magnet mmf 1329
 magnet operating point 1321, 1325-1331, 1335, 1337, 1346
 magnet operating point flux change 1346
 magnet operational life 1336
 magnet permeance 1335
 magnet processing 1349
 magnet properties 1349
 magnet recoils 1345
 magnet reluctance 1323, 1324, 1330, 1346
 magnet remanence 1343
 magnet stability 1317, 1318, 1337, 1343
 magnet stabilization 1337, 1339
 magnet surface 1309
 magnet temperature effects 1338
 magnet thermal knee 1310
 magnet volume 1315, 1317, 1326, 1328, 1346
 magnet working point 1317
 magnetic 1297
 magnetic alignment 1310
 magnetic alloy characteristics 1238
 magnetic amplifiers 1233
 magnetic anisotropic alloy 1306
 magnetic anisotropy 1236, 1301, 1305
 magnetic attraction 1355
 magnetic axioms 1353
 magnetic axis 1315
 magnetic basics 1351
 magnetic behaviour 1297, 1301
 magnetic biasing capability 1254
 magnetic blow-out 1369
 magnetic charges 1302
 magnetic circuit 1241, 1247, 1249, 1277, 1315, 1320, 1325, 1329, 1340, 1343, 1345, 1364, 1401
 magnetic circuit air gap 1247
 magnetic circuit Ampere-turns 1364
 magnetic circuit demagnetisation load line characteristic 1334
 magnetic circuit dimensions 1325
 magnetic circuit equations 1325, 1331
 magnetic circuit model 1323, 1335
 magnetic circuit operating point 1332
 magnetic circuit operating point shift 1333
 magnetic circuit reluctance 1234
 magnetic circuit shape 1328
 magnetic circuit Thevenin model 1323
 magnetic circuits 1293
 magnetic component design 1239
 magnetic components 421, 826, 1233, 1242, 1243, 1326
 magnetic core 820, 921, 1234
 magnetic core energy 325
 magnetic core Rogowski coil 1275
 magnetic coupled circuit technique 324
 magnetic creep 1339
 magnetic cubic structure 1237
 magnetic devices 1233
 magnetic dipole moments 1315
 magnetic dipoles 1301
 magnetic domains 1300, 1301
 magnetic element 820, 821
 magnetic energy 1339, 1362
 magnetic energy storage inductor 821
 magnetic equations 1233
 magnetic equivalent 1335
 magnetic field 41, 48, 419, 616, 1182, 1207, 1271-1276, 1291, 1292, 1303-1323, 1336, 1365, 1389, 1400, 1401
 magnetic field coupling 420
 magnetic field density 1272
 magnetic field disturbances 894
 magnetic field intensity 1257, 1336
 magnetic field leaks 1325
 magnetic field line integral 1272
 magnetic field problems 420
 magnetic field source 1302
 magnetic field stored energy 1249
 magnetic field strength 1253, 1256, 1336, 1351
 magnetic field strength bias 1243
 magnetic field strengths 1247
 magnetic fields 920, 928, 1299
 magnetic flux 594, 1315, 1324, 1325, 1336, 1392, 1400, 1401
 magnetic flux conductors 1391
 magnetic flux density 1336, 1351
 magnetic flux intensity 311
 magnetic fluxing energy 821
 magnetic force 1235, 1363, 1365
 magnetic force coupling 616
 magnetic forces 1243
 magnetic hardness 1305
 magnetic induction 1243, 1336, 1351, 1353
 magnetic interaction 1300
 magnetic lines of force 1400
 magnetic load 1325
 magnetic load circuit 1336
 magnetic load line characteristics 1330
 magnetic material coercivity 1321

magnetic material curves 1316
 magnetic material intrinsic properties 1301
 magnetic material resistivity 1246
 magnetic material structural types 1292
 magnetic material types 1236
 magnetic materials 1239, 1246, 1301-1303, 1321
 magnetic materials classification 1291, 1302
 magnetic materials comparison 1319
 magnetic mmf bias 465
 magnetic mmf core bias 471, 473
 magnetic model 1329
 magnetic moment 1300, 1301
 magnetic moments interaction 1300
 magnetic order 1301
 magnetic output loss 1336, 1337
 magnetic parameter variation 1267
 magnetic parameters 1233
 magnetic parameters units 1353
 magnetic particle density 1312
 magnetic particles 1292
 magnetic performance 1317
 magnetic permeability 1236, 1292, 1321, 1323, 1351
 magnetic polarisation 1353
 magnetic properties 462, 1238, 1292-1311, 1351, 1352
 magnetic properties per unit magnet volume 1325
 magnetic properties per unit volume 1326
 magnetic radiation 1339
 magnetic reluctances 1401
 magnetic repulsion 1355
 magnetic retentivity 1404
 magnetic reversal loss characteristics 1245
 magnetic saturation 619
 magnetic shock 1247
 magnetic stability 1316-1319
 magnetic steels 1305
 magnetic storage stage 775
 magnetic surfaces 1235
 magnetic susceptibility 1299, 1300, 1351
 magnetic susceptible 1297
 magnetic terminology glossary 1479
 magnetic transfer stage 775
 magnetic transformer component 826
 magnetic trip unit 1375, 1378
 magnetic variables 1329
 magnetic volume 311
 magnetically coupled 767
 magnetically coupled based snubber energy recovery 351
 magnetically coupled circuit 338, 354, 420, 821, 1241, 1235
 magnetically coupled circuit converters 822
 magnetically hard materials 1303
 magnetically permeable core 1272
 magnetically saturated structure 1243
 magnetically soft materials 1302
 magnetically stabilizing 1338
 magnetisation 1306, 1311, 1353
 magnetisation conditions 1300
 magnetisation direction 1301, 1302
 magnetisation force 1306
 magnetisation losses 1340
 magnetisation saturation 1300
 magnetising branch 824
 magnetising current 311, 312, 373, 454, 618, 820-827, 1256, 1257, 1266-1276
 magnetising current magnitude 1250, 1257
 magnetising energy 820-822
 magnetising field 1332
 magnetising flux 820, 821, 827
 magnetising flux build-up 827
 magnetising force 1236, 1266, 1243
 magnetising inductance 372, 821, 824, 1235
 magnetising inductor 371
 magnetising influence 1332
 magnetism 1345
 magnetism induced 1302
 magnetism loss 1336
 magnetism types 1297
 magnetization 1299, 1321, 1322, 1347
 magnetization axis 1302
 magnetization characteristic 1322
 magnetization compensation point 1301
 magnetization curve 1320
 magnetization direction 1316
 magnetization types 1291
 magnetizing current 372, 374
 magnetizing flux 618
 magnetizing force 1315, 1316, 1326, 1331, 1340
 magnetizing force integral 1325
 magnetizing inductance 372, 821, 1265
 magnetizing/demagnetising field 1336
 magneto-crystalline anisotropy 1236, 1301, 1302, 1344
 magneto-fluiddynamic 221
 magneto-fluid-dynamic pump 196
 magnetomotive force 1323-1326
 magnetomotive force per unit length 1251
 magnetostriction 1236, 1302, 1305
 magnets mmf 1335
 main battery 1112
 main contacts 1398, 1399
 main converter circuit characteristics 551
 main switch turn-off 353
 main switches 742
 main terminal current 415
 mains ac thyristor chopper 581
 mains cycles 582
 mains filters 421
 mains half sine wave 280
 mains plug 422
 mains power total interruption 750
 mains sine wave 275
 mains transformers 1236
 maintained core temperature 1108
 maintenance 1095
 maintenance charge 1082
 maintenance costs 621
 maintenance time 403
 maintenance-free batteries 1063
 maintenance-free operation 403
 major hysteresis loop 1340
 majority carriers 2, 74
 make and break applications 1371
 make and break hard contact relays 1388
 make and break modes 1387
 make and break relay characteristics 1395
 make and break relays 1388
 make and break, hot relays 1397
 make and/or break load 1373
 make contacts 1370
 make mode 1393
 make only applications 1371
 make only relays 1388, 1397
 making loads 1390
 malfunction 1199
 Manchester plate 1046
 Manchex plate 1046
 Manchex positive plate 1045
 manual reset 399
 manufacturing processing constraints 1230
 manufacturing processing limitations 1230
 mapped transfer functions 830
 martensitic hardenable stainless steels 1293
 Marx generator 492
 Marx voltage generator 491
 mask 24
 masking 19

mass 135, 392
 mass evaporation rate 199
 mass flow 187
 mass flow rate 142, 172, 182, 185, 210
 mass transport 13
 mass transport loss 1012
 mass-transport-limited 22
 mat separator material 1067
 matched devices 367, 368
 matched resistors 364
 matched static characteristics 368
 matching transformers 972
 material cross-sectional area 1227
 material deposition 34
 material evaporation 1361
 material handling applications 1047
 material impurities 1175
 material lamination thicknesses 1236
 material loss 1359, 1369
 material operating boundaries 1356
 material parameters 1132
 material properties 1025, 1036, 1120, 1420-1426
 material shedding 1047
 material stab 1011
 material transfer 1357-1359, 1371
 material transfer build-up 1359
 material types comparison 1237
 materials magnetic behaviour 1298
 material's magnetization direction 1316
 material-specific constant 1299
 mating contacts 1357
 mating surfaces 1371
 matrix converter 567, 633, 634, 636
 matrix material 23
 matrix modulation frequency components 633
 matrix phase disproportionates 1309
 maximum ac voltage 1186
 maximum active power 934, 975
 maximum allowable ambient temperature 1219
 maximum allowable collector current 1270
 maximum allowable delay angle 549, 550
 maximum allowable device current rating 368
 maximum allowable energy pulse 408
 maximum allowable flux density 1264
 maximum allowable fuse temperature 388
 maximum allowable junction temperature 109, 150
 maximum allowable limits 107
 maximum allowable operating flux density 1261
 maximum allowable pulse voltage 1218
 maximum allowable ripple voltage 803
 maximum allowable terminal temperature 1392
 maximum allowable thermal resistance 1134
 maximum allowed operating voltage 1112
 maximum ambient 1222
 maximum ambient temperature 160, 162, 386
 maximum apparent power 540
 maximum applied dc voltage 390
 maximum applied voltage 391
 maximum available secondary current 1270
 maximum average neutral current 605
 maximum battery charge 1138
 maximum battery voltage 1094
 maximum bipolar rms load current 582
 maximum blocking voltage 361
 maximum body external temperature 1214
 maximum capacitor stored energy 756
 maximum capacitor voltage 293, 771
 maximum capacitor voltage extremes 770
 maximum capillary pressure 203
 maximum cell voltage 1014, 1016
 maximum circuit leakage current 1371
 maximum clamping voltage 408

maximum collector current 114, 256, 1269, 1270
 maximum concentration 13
 maximum continuous rms working voltage 1223
 maximum continuous working voltage 1225
 maximum controllable output 579
 maximum CoP 223, 1125
 maximum core temperature 1236
 maximum current 323, 655, 669, 777, 851, 1109, 1198, 1269
 maximum current capabilities 1184
 maximum current rating 368, 369, 374
 maximum density 1246
 maximum device voltage variation 369
 maximum di/dt 585
 maximum diode reverse voltage 476
 maximum discharge current 302
 maximum dissipation 1221
 maximum drain current 265
 maximum duty cycle 353, 820, 827
 maximum dv/dt 291, 771
 maximum efficiency 1131, 1132, 1260
 maximum electric field 67
 maximum electrical power 1039
 maximum electrical work 1016
 maximum energy product 1311, 1316, 1317, 1339, 1353
 maximum energy rating 1219
 maximum energy transfer 768
 maximum field 1301
 maximum field intensity 65
 maximum firing delay 281
 maximum flux density 1266
 maximum frequency 1274
 maximum fundamental filter current 752
 maximum fundamental rms component 718
 maximum fundamental rms current component 944
 maximum generator efficiency 1133
 maximum heat-sink thermal resistance 163, 225
 maximum inductor current 777, 790, 799, 882
 maximum inductor stored energy 756
 maximum initial di/dt 380
 maximum input current 790
 maximum instantaneous power dissipation 255
 maximum instantaneous value 727
 maximum interrupt rating 1403
 maximum interruption rating 1404
 maximum junction temperature 135, 227, 362
 maximum kinetic energy 180
 maximum leakage current 361, 362
 maximum line voltage 601, 916
 maximum load current 288, 300
 maximum load resistance 782, 811, 814
 maximum loss 363
 maximum magnetizing current 372-374
 maximum make current 1395
 maximum mean output 534
 maximum mean output voltage 505, 518, 520, 533, 535, 541
 maximum mean thyristor current 569
 maximum modulation index 720, 727
 maximum nominal current 391
 maximum off-state voltage 581
 maximum on-state duty cycle 163
 maximum on-state voltage 371
 maximum on-time 373, 1266, 1269
 maximum operating frequency 294, 880
 maximum operating temperature 402, 1220, 1337
 maximum operating voltage 1104
 maximum operating voltage limit 1171
 maximum output current 661, 673, 878
 maximum output current pulse width 1268
 maximum output power 583, 1132
 maximum output voltage 450, 513, 729, 870, 879, 1133
 maximum overvoltage 306
 maximum permeability 1239

maximum permissible continuous fuse current 385
 maximum permissible power dissipation 1184
 maximum permissible winding temperature 1207
 maximum potential energy 180
 maximum power 540, 756, 931, 933, 948-957, 1018, 1040-1044, 1120, 1131, 1219
 maximum power dissipation 1172
 maximum power output 282, 538, 1045, 1047
 maximum power point 1039-1041
 maximum power point current 1041
 maximum power rating 1211
 maximum power transfer 1018, 1060
 maximum primary magnetising current 1270
 maximum primary voltage 1263
 maximum rated current 1125, 1405
 maximum rated energy 1219
 maximum rated power 1219
 maximum rated rms voltage 401
 maximum ratings 107, 1198
 maximum $R-C$ voltage 317
 maximum reactive power 934
 maximum reset current 313
 maximum reset voltage 313
 maximum resistance 363
 maximum resistor power losses 363
 maximum resistor voltage 768
 maximum reverse recovery charge 160
 maximum ripple 556, 689
 maximum ripple current 651, 1172
 maximum ripple current magnitude 536
 maximum ripple voltage 685
 maximum rms continuous current 389
 maximum rms current 575
 maximum rms current interrupt 1404
 maximum rms load current 581
 maximum rms neutral current 605
 maximum rms output current 568
 maximum rms output voltage 568
 maximum rms ripple voltage 649
 maximum rms supply current 571
 maximum rms thyristor current 571
 maximum rms voltage 575
 maximum rms voltage rating 592
 maximum secondary voltage 1270
 maximum short circuit current 402
 maximum slew rate 317
 maximum snubber current 317
 maximum snubber di/dt 317
 maximum specified test voltage 1396
 maximum stored charged 365
 maximum supporting voltages 770
 maximum surface temperature 1213
 maximum switch capacitor current 882
 maximum switch current 872
 maximum switch duty cycle 824
 maximum switch loss 255
 maximum switch overshoot 293
 maximum switch voltage 309, 312, 353, 777, 782
 maximum temperature 147, 212, 1317
 maximum temperature differential 1124
 maximum thermal dissipation 114
 maximum thyristor average current rating 611
 maximum thyristor blocking voltage 611
 maximum thyristor di/dt 579
 maximum thyristor voltage 580, 581
 maximum total module losses 364
 maximum transistor base to emitter voltage 1269
 maximum transmittable power 941
 maximum triac dv/dt stress 585
 maximum VA terminal end 933
 maximum variation in junction temperature 150
 maximum voltage 323, 453, 538, 554, 635, 766, 1209, 1218, 1227, 1269
 maximum voltage and current condition 254
 maximum voltage applied 1370
 maximum voltage gain 636, 853, 1269
 maximum voltage limit 1171
 maximum voltage overshoot 288, 293
 maximum voltage potential 487
 maximum voltage rating 1169
 maximum working temperature 1317
 maximum working voltage 1211, 1213
 maximum-power point 1039
 Maxwell's equations 1233
 MBE 3
 mcb 392, 416, 630, 1374
 mcb actuation time 1385
 mcb contact ratings 1377
 mcb derating factors 1378
 mcb properties 1379
 mcb types 1379
 mean activity coefficient 1098
 mean and rms current rating 782
 mean converter output voltage 552
 mean current 691, 825
 mean current value 433
 mean device current 371
 mean device current ratings 611
 mean diode current 454, 457, 538
 mean gate power 126
 mean half-cycle output voltage 570
 mean half-cycle voltage 712
 mean inductor current 783
 mean input current 795, 803, 815, 824
 mean line current 480
 mean load current 443, 512, 524, 526, 567, 649
 mean load power 696-699
 mean load voltage 456, 512, 517, 547, 567, 597, 649, 663, 665
 mean output current 436, 505, 517, 520, 527, 547, 651, 654, 685, 783, 795, 803, 804, 815, 816, 824
 mean output voltage 432, 436, 438, 452-456, 498, 505, 506, 519-527, 532-535, 541, 546-550, 554, 653
 mean rectifier output voltage 494, 556
 mean source current 696-699
 mean supply current 567
 mean supply reactance voltage 550
 mean supply voltage 567
 mean thyristor current 569
 mean time between failure 190, 407, 1167, 1197
 mean time to failure 190
 mean value 493
 mean voltage 427, 432, 443, 495, 497, 503, 558
 mean-free path 10
 measured back emf 278
 measurement attenuation 1273
 measurement bandwidth 1208, 1270, 1271
 measurement phase delay 1273
 measuring devices 984
 mechanical abrasion 1356
 mechanical bracing 1404
 mechanical brittleness 1305
 mechanical characteristics 1311
 mechanical coefficients 1209
 mechanical compact 1206
 mechanical components 619
 mechanical contact 1169, 1400
 mechanical contactor 628, 1374
 mechanical continuity 1388
 mechanical control devices 931
 mechanical damage 36
 mechanical damage abrasion 37
 mechanical damage grooving 37
 mechanical damage sandblasting 37

mechanical efficiency 186
 mechanical energy 430, 981, 1345
 mechanical energy conversion 442
 mechanical expansion stresses 377, 379
 mechanical fluid pump 209
 mechanical forces 1363
 mechanical life 1359
 mechanical output characteristics 617
 mechanical power 617
 mechanical pressure switch 1093
 mechanical properties 1238, 1351
 mechanical properties of rectangular copper busbars 237
 mechanical relay 586
 mechanical reliability 1389
 mechanical requirements 617, 1005
 mechanical robust 1206
 mechanical shock 624, 1247
 mechanical soft starters 616
 mechanical stability 1005
 mechanical strength 51, 1004, 1288, 1311
 mechanical stress 146, 1114
 mechanical switch 1355, 1365
 mechanical switching 895
 mechanical tension 1103, 1207
 mechanical torque 617
 mechanical work 1346
 mechanical work done 1348
 mechanically coupled load 617
 mechanically stacked 1035
 media permittivity 420
 medical devices 1041
 medium voltage applications 1371
 medium voltage ac vacuum circuit breaker characteristics 1402
 medium voltage contactors 1398
 melt our temperature 228
 melt spinning 1309
 melt spun ribbon 1309
 melting I^2t 381
 melting I^2t characteristics 381
 melting point 39, 221, 234, 380, 1361, 1371, 1408
 melting process 1026
 melting temperature 228, 1358, 1359
 melting time 380, 381
 melt-spinning 1311
 membrane 993, 1000, 1001
 membrane humidified 1000
 memory 1075
 memory backup 1112
 memory effect 1075, 1079, 1106
 memory phenomenon 1072
 mercury-wetted reed relays 1359
 merit number 207
 mesa isolation 34
 meshed distribution system 982
 mesoporous metal oxide 1033
 metal alloy 196, 1078, 1205
 metal alloy film 1223
 metal anode capabilities 1040
 metal boxes 422
 metal brazing technologies 145
 metal case cooling 1062
 metal clad resistor 304
 metal contacts 39
 metal contamination 35
 metal deposition 39
 metal electrode leadless face 1204
 metal element 377
 metal eutectic PCM 228
 metal film low inductance resistor 310
 metal film resistor 288, 1208, 1218, 1219
 metal film temperature sensing elements 1224

metal foil electrodes 1192
 metal galling 1356
 metal gate 80
 metal glaze thick film resistors 1208
 metal grid 1030
 metal hermetic seals 1369
 metal hydride 1079
 metal hydride cell chemistry 1078
 metal hydride cells exothermic charging 1080
 metal hydride hydrogen storage 1011
 metal hydride retrieval reaction 1011
 metal hydrides 990, 1010, 1011
 metal interconnect 999, 1000
 metal ions 1037, 1040
 metal layers 40, 1178
 metal matrix composite 241
 metal migration 1359
 metal outer foils 1197
 metal oxide 1103
 metal oxide capacitor 1169
 metal oxide capacitors construction 1170
 metal oxide dielectric capacitance 1162, 1169
 metal oxide film resistor 1212
 metal oxide resistance 1224
 metal oxide resistive film deposited 1205
 metal oxide resistors 309
 metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistor 79
 metal oxide varistor 376, 403, 409, 591, 1369
 metal oxides 1001, 1002, 1114
 metal plating 1095
 metal return current 894
 metal salt 1039
 metal silicide 22
 metal sources 40
 metal spray technique 1178
 metal thin film power resistor 1218
 metal-based catalyst 1009
 metal-ion extraction 1039
 metal-ion insertion 1039
 metal-ions 1039, 1040
 metallic alloys 1078
 metallic cathode 1047
 metallic contact 1023
 metallic electrodes 1181
 metallic element 378, 1039
 metallic interconnect 994, 1006
 metallic lithium plating 1093, 1096
 metallic molecules 1039
 metallic oxides 1225
 metallic surfaces 1181
 metallisation techniques 1027
 metallised deposited plastic 1177
 metallised electrical contact 39
 metallised electrode contacts 1187
 metallised electrodes 1191
 metallised films 1178
 metallised paper 1178
 metallised paper capacitors 1192
 metallised plastic capacitors 1186
 metallised plastic dielectric 1192
 metallised plastic film capacitor 1168
 metallised plastic film dielectric capacitors 1178
 metallised plastic winding 1178
 metallised plastics 1178
 metallised polyester capacitor 1187, 1188
 metallised polypropylene capacitor 288, 289, 302, 1187, 1191
 metallization 3, 38-41, 1027
 metallurgical changes 1312, 1317
 metallurgical degrading microstructural permanent change 1337
 metallurgical interface 1023
 metallurgical junction 65, 66

metallurgical junction depth 12
 metal-organic chemical vapour deposition 8, 1033
 metal-organic vapour phase epitaxy 8
 metal-oxide-varistor 1366
 metals 993
 metals pairs 1118
 metal-to-metal contact 1356
 metamagnetic material 1292
 metered parameter power output 984
 methane 992
 methane-steam reforming catalyst 1005
 methanol 992, 993, 999
 methanol fuel cell 1001
 MFD 196, 221
 mica applications 1198
 mica capacitor 1198
 mica capacitor assembled unit 1198
 mica dielectric capacitors 1162, 1197, 1198
 mica plate 1197
 mica plate stack 1197
 mica properties and applications 1198
 micro cracks 1229
 microchannel 210
 microchannel heat-sink 219, 220
 microchannel optimization 219
 micro-channels 193, 211, 218, 219
 microchannels and minichannels 174
 microcooler 193, 220
 microcracks 37
 microcrystalline 51
 microcrystalline wax 1198
 microperforated polyethylene plastic 1087
 micropipes 51
 microporous polyethylene 1049
 microporous polyethylene membranes 1087
 micro-porous polymer separator grids 1069
 microporous separator 1047, 1064
 microprocessor interfacing to a thyristor 281
 micropump 217
 micropumping 220
 micro-scale ion-driven airflow 192
 microscopic charge separation 1102
 microscopic crystals 51
 microstructural grain size 1005
 microstructural instability 1005
 micro-structure 405, 1306
 microtubular cells 1006
 micro-turbines 1391
 microvoids 50, 137
 micro-voltage 1116
 mid-band gain 1273
 midget fuses 384
 midpoint current magnitude 941
 midpoint shunt compensation 941
 midpoint shunt voltage 934
 midpoint static series compensation 948
 midpoint voltage 933, 940, 944, 948
 midpoint voltage magnitudes 941
 Miller capacitance 116, 119, 121, 122, 125, 1200
 Miller capacitance effects 1200
 Miller capacitor 346
 Miller charging effects 270
 Miller effect 121, 266, 271, 760, 766
 mineral oil 193
 miniature circuit breaker 392, 1374
 mini-channels 193, 218
 minimal drop-out delay 1369
 minimal electrical stress 756
 minimal interference 1229
 minimal leakage current 410
 minimal self-inductance 1213
 minimise coupling effects 1286
 minimise stray inductance 1284
 minimum allowable fault current 391
 minimum allowable operating voltage 1140
 minimum arc voltage 1370
 minimum arc voltage rating 1357
 minimum area 1264
 minimum capacitance 803
 minimum chopping frequency 667
 minimum commutation cycle time 880, 881
 minimum contact load 1357
 minimum controllable delay angle 579
 minimum current 506, 655, 658-661, 669
 minimum dc-voltage level limit 920
 minimum delay 282
 minimum delay angle characteristic 908
 minimum duty cycle 667
 minimum effective volume 1249
 minimum EMC 592
 minimum firing delay 281
 minimum frequency 1274
 minimum heat-sink requirement 161
 minimum heat-sink thermal resistance 161
 minimum holding current level 1368
 minimum inductance 805, 814, 822, 824, 827, 1285
 minimum inductor current 778, 790, 792, 797, 799, 800, 809
 minimum load current 671
 minimum loss 1281
 minimum loss condition 1281
 minimum off-time 129, 342, 1266, 1269
 minimum on time 342, 345
 minimum on-state voltage 372
 minimum output current 661, 665, 668, 673, 687, 690
 minimum output voltage 450
 minimum prospective fault current 390
 minimum resistance 251, 395, 1210, 1211
 minimum resistance point 1210
 minimum resistance value 1209
 minimum ripple current magnitude 536
 minimum secondary voltage 1270
 minimum stored charged 365
 minimum switch commutation period 870
 minimum switching frequency 658
 minimum total heat 223
 minimum total loss 300
 minimum total turn-on losses 306
 minimum transformer self-inductance 373
 minimum turn-off current 128
 minimum voltage obtainable 746
 minimum voltage reset time 294, 296
 minimum voltages 554
 minimum volume 1317
 minor hysteresis loop 1321, 1345
 minor loop 1323
 minor magnetization curve 1340
 minority carrier charge 112
 minority carrier device 111
 minority carrier diffusion length 90
 minority carrier electron lifetime 3
 minority carrier hole lifetime 3
 minority carrier lifetime 78, 124
 minority carriers 2, 74, 76, 88, 110
 Misch metal 1011, 1079
 missing ac cycles 750
 mixed dielectric capacitors 1178, 1187
 mixed dielectric paper 1178
 mixed flow fans 174
 mixed layer capacitor 1178
 mixed level switching 1371
 mixed potential reactions 1012
 mixed-flow fans 180
 MMC 241
 mmf analysis 466, 478

mmf balancing 480
 mmf bias 482
 mmf contribution 1326
 mmf dc bias 472, 473
 mmf equations 466, 481
 mmf imbalance 475
 mmf loss factor 1347
 mmf magnetic bias 465
 mmf source 1323
 mmf waveforms 471
 Mn-Zn ferrite 1244, 1259
 Mn-Zn materials 1242
 mobile H⁺ ions 997
 mobility 2, 5, 1029
 mode of propagation 421
 model diode current 1038
 model resistance 374
 model shunt components 932
 models for the bipolar junction diode 61
 modes of cycle operation 762
 modes of power dissipation 144
 modified die-casted fins 170
 modular cell 345
 modular cell structure 349
 modular fuel cell power conversion system 986, 987
 modular hardware structure 896
 modular multi-level converter 916
 modular structure 344, 740, 894
 modulation depth 690, 691, 728
 modulation frequency 722, 724, 975
 modulation frequency sidebands 725
 modulation index 636, 684, 720
 modulation reference 727
 modulation reference waveform 725, 726
 modulation sinewave 720
 modulation technique 600
 modulation waveform 722, 725, 726
 module conversion efficiencies 1043
 module efficiencies 1033
 module lifetime 1112
 module material properties 233, 234
 module maximum power 1042, 1044
 module maximum power output 1043
 module power 1030
 module series and parallel PV cell connection 1042
 module series PV cell connection 1042
 module short-circuit current 1042
 module terminal voltage 1042
 module voltage 1105
 module-to-module balancing 1111
 moisture 38
 moisture ingress 1206
 moisture penetration 1204
 molar concentration 1098
 molar enthalpies 1015
 molar entropies 1015
 mole 989
 molecular beam epitaxy 3, 10, 17, 1033
 molecular dipole rotation 1190
 molecular field 1300
 molecular magnetism 1292
 molecular magnets 1292
 molecular one-dimensional mode 134
 molecular packing density 989
 molecular polarisation 1163
 molecular structure 1008
 molecular thermal motion 1246
 molecule size voids 1011
 molecule sizes 53
 moles of electrons 1098
 molten alkaline carbonate salt mixture 1003
 molten alloy 1311

molten-carbonate fuel cell 999, 1002
 molybdenum diaphragm 1390
 monitored parameter current 984
 monitored parameter oil temperature 984
 monitored parameter reactive power 984
 monitored parameter real power 984
 monitored parameter vibration 984
 monitored parameter voltage 984
 mono organic PV cells 1047
 mono silicon 1026
 monochromatic 1024
 mono-crystal 48
 monocrytalline 3, 51
 mono-crystalline silicon 1050
 monocrytalline silicon PV cell 1039
 monolithic cell 1035
 monolithic die 34
 monolithic multi-junction PV cell 1036
 monolithic multi-layer capacitor 1198
 monomolecular layer 1356
 monopolar battery 1055
 monopolar lead-acid batteries 1055
 monopole and earth return 894
 monopole configuration 894
 monopole converter bridges 898
 monopole system 895
 mono-silicon 49
 MOSFET 76-91, 116, 238, 260-268, 281, 288, 392, 421, 586, 587, 645, 695, 1111, 1200
 MOSFET absolute maximum ratings 117
 MOSFET action 124
 MOSFET application 265, 314
 MOSFET capacitances 118
 MOSFET cell 84
 MOSFET characteristics 80
 MOSFET charge transfer characteristics 272
 MOSFET conduction loss 157
 MOSFET drain characteristics 122
 MOSFET drain current 81
 MOSFET drain - source R-C snubber 288
 MOSFET dynamic characteristics 118
 MOSFET gate drive circuits 267
 MOSFET H-bridge circuit 489
 MOSFET heat-sinking 162
 MOSFET heat-sink repetitive high duty cycle operation 163
 MOSFET heat-sinking repetitive high peak current, low duty cycle operation 162
 MOSFET input capacitance 273
 MOSFET internal gate resistance 122
 MOSFET internal parasitic diode 886
 MOSFET negative gate drive 130
 MOSFET on-state resistance 83, 86
 MOSFET output conductance 82
 MOSFET parasitic BJT 85
 MOSFET p-channel 84
 MOSFET R-C snubber design 289
 MOSFET structure 80
 MOSFET switches 289
 MOSFET switching aid circuit 288
 MOSFET switching characteristics 119
 MOSFET switching losses 289
 MOSFET switching times 273
 MOSFET transconductance 82
 MOSFET turn-off 122
 MOSFET turn-on 120
 MOSFET turn-on time 280
 MOSFET virtual junction 163
 motive power applications 1047
 motor acceleration 625, 627, 747
 motor average starting current 429
 motor back emf 651, 654
 motor braking mode 747

motor breakaway torque 625
 motor developed torque 617
 motor efficiency 429, 430
 motor electrical losses 429
 motor heat dissipated 625
 motor heating 617, 625, 628, 630, 639
 motor loss 430, 442
 motor mechanical load 618
 motor model 627
 motor neutral connection 631
 motor noise 639
 motor overload protection 627
 motor overload trip level 625
 motor protection 630
 motor rating 628
 motor regeneration 631
 motor reversal 631
 motor shaft torque 627
 motor speed 616
 motor speed control circuit 276
 motor speed controller circuit design 278
 motor speed controller performance 279
 motor speed-torque characteristic 617
 motor stalling 625
 motor starting 400
 motor stators 1237
 motor switching 1399
 motor synchronous speed 616
 motor vibration 639
 motorised tap-changing drives 913
 motors 1404
 motor-start rated circuit breakers 619
 moulded battery case 1050
 moulded carbon composition film resistor 1206
 mounted resistors power dissipation 1216
 mounting pressure 136
 MOV 376, 409, 418
 MOV clamping 592
 MOV voltage protection 896
 movable contact 1355, 1368
 moving contact 1390
m-phase converter output voltage - firing delay angle 631
 mtbf 190, 407
 mttf 190
 multi silicon 1026
 multi-carrier based pwm generation 744
 multi-crystalline silicon 47, 49, 50, 1026, 1028
 multi-crystal-silicon module 1044
 multi-functional magnetic materials 1292
 multi-junction 1032, 1034
 multi-junction cell 1025, 1034-1037
 multi-junction devices 1032, 1035, 1036
 multi-junction PV cell 1035
 multi-junction structure 1035
 multi-layer ceramic capacitors 1197
 multi-layer cross-sectional cylindrical inductors 1282
 multi-layer cylindrical inductor 1282
 multi-layer monolithic type construction 1194
 multilayer pcbs 421
 multi-layered cell 1036
 multilayer-IMS 238
 multi-layers 36
 multilevel carrier 690
 multilevel configurations 924
 multilevel controlled chopper 688
 multilevel controlled dc chopper 688
 multi-level converter 361, 746, 736, 939
 multi-level inverter 343, 736, 737, 741
 multilevel inverter component count 744
 multilevel inverter topologies 959
 multilevel inverter PWM 744
 multi-level inverters snubbers 343

multilevel layers 414
 multi-level naturally sampled pulse-width modulation waveforms 721
 multilevel output voltage states, dc chopper 680
 multi-level pulse width modulation 706, 707
 multilevel rotating voltage space vector 745
 multilevel space 744
 multilevel structure 924
 multilevel switching 677
 multilevel topology comparison 743
 multilevel voltage rail 342
 multi-level voltage-source inverters 736
 multi-level waveform 717
 multilevel waveform voltage 741
 multi-phase output 695
 multiple coils 462
 multiple contacts 1369
 multiple excitation 1033
 multiple fans 184
 multiple fans –parallel operation 184
 multiple fans –series operation 184
 multiple guard rings 71
 multiple layer over-the-edge printed mica plates 1197
 multiple limb transformers 462
 multiple offset triangular carriers 744
 multiple secondary's 342
 multiple solutions 720
 multiple-pole arrangements 1400
 multiple-switch, balanced, isolated converters 826
 multiple-switch, isolated output, pulse-width modulated converters 826
 multiplication breakdown 60
 multiplication rate 723
 multiplier stack 488
 multiplier temperatures 490
 multipoles magnetization 1314
 multi-pulse width modulation 713, 717
 multi-pulse selected notching modulation 713, 717
 multi-stage charge methods 1056
 multi-stage charger 1056
 multi-tap transformer 597
 multi-tapped transformer 486
 multi-terminal configuration 895
 multi-terminal hvdc 913
 multi-terminal hvdc systems 927
 multi-voltage control feeder 1398
 multi-winding magnetic element 821
 mu-metal 420, 1305
 mutual coupling inductance 1285
 mutual coupling terms 1235
 mutual inductance 420, 1235, 1271, 1274
 mutually coupled circuits 1235
 mutually exclusive converters 748
 MV ac vacuum interrupters 1398
 MV contactors 1405
 MV relays 1405

n-1 devices 365, 374
N cascaded stages 487
n devices current sharing analysis 372
n-drift region 88
n output voltages 633
n parallel connected devices 368-371
n parallel devices 373
n series cells 361
N stage voltage multiplier 486
n transformer secondary windings 372
n/p-type polymer configuration 1114
n+ substrate 86
 nafion 1000
 nanocoolers 1134

nanocrystal amorphous core materials 960
 nanocrystal coating 1033
 nanocrystalline 51, 1033, 1236
 nanocrystalline alloys 1236, 1245, 1311
 nanocrystalline cores 1265
 nano-crystalline material 1245, 1311
 nanocrystalline metals 1249
 nanocrystalline PV cells 1026
 nanocrystalline soft magnetic alloys 1236
 nanocrystalline soft magnetic materials 1237
 nanolightning 192
 nanoparticle alloys 995
 nano-phosphate materials 1089
 nano-sized grains 1311
 nanostructured magnets 1292
 nanotube impregnated papers 1102
 narrow hysteresis loop 1340
 native oxide films 36
 natural ac period current zeros 390
 natural ac power factor angle 602
 natural arc extinction 1373
 natural commutation 128, 427, 503, 533, 601, 633
 natural convection 134, 168, 173, 215
 natural convection cooling 174
 natural convection heat transfer coefficient 237
 natural convection two-phase flow 214
 natural current zero 755
 natural current zero instances 849
 natural gas 993, 999, 1003, 1008
 natural gas fuel 1002
 natural gas reforming 1008, 1009
 natural gas steam reforming 1009
 natural hard magnetic material 1303
 natural magnetism types 1299
 natural mica 1198
 natural power factor angle 567
 natural recombination 364
 natural resonant frequency 765, 858
 natural sampling 720, 723
 natural vertical convection 134
 natural voltage zero 755
 natural voltage zero instances 849
 natural zero current periods 645
 naturally commutated 452
 naturally commutating ac to dc converters 427, 503
 naturally commutating converters 567
 naturally commutating thyristor tap changing circuit 958
 naturally sampled pulse-width modulation waveforms 722
 naturally-commutated switching 258, 260
 n-channel 80
 n-channel MOSFET 284
 NdFeB magnetic characteristics 1311
 Nd-rich phase 1309
 NDV method 1082
 near conductor 1281
 near field 419
 near-field diffraction 26
 necks 380
 Néel point 1292
 Néel temperature 1292, 1300
 negative anode lead plate 1052
 negative average load voltage 646
 negative average voltage 687
 negative bias voltage 1373
 negative capacity 1075
 negative charge 1037
 negative converter 746-749
 negative converter group 631
 negative current excitation 1321
 negative dc link voltage 894
 negative delta *V*, ΔV 1071
 negative delta voltage 1082

negative delta voltage charging 1082
 negative diode current 256
 negative direction 414
 negative electrochemical standard potential 1318
 negative electrode 32, 994, 1008, 1037, 1075, 1078, 1080, 1085
 negative electrode metal alloy 1081
 negative electrode oxygen recombination 1080
 negative electrode plate 1036, 1045
 negative electrode potential 1038
 negative gate bias 270
 negative gate current 282
 negative gate drive 270, 272
 negative gate supply 284
 negative gate turn-on current 274
 negative groups 750
 negative input 787
 negative intermediate voltage rail 332
 negative ions 992, 994, 999
 negative material reduction 1085
 negative multiplier 487
 negative NTC thermistor 392
 negative output current 684
 negative output source 809
 negative output voltage 645
 negative photoresist 23, 25
 negative plate 1048, 1049, 1056, 1102
 negative plate recombination 1073
 negative plate structures 1047
 negative plate transport 1073
 negative power angle 934
 negative reaction 1135
 negative resists 24
 negative sequence currents 482, 912
 negative source 809
 negative standard potential 1039
 negative supply voltage 430
 negative susceptibility 1299
 negative temperature coefficient 60, 1225
 negative temperature coefficient material 1225
 negative temperature co-efficient thermistor 1097
 negative temperature dependence 1164
 negative terminal 1037
 negative voltage loop 680, 681
 negative voltage rail 332
 neodymium iron boron alloys 1308
 neodymium iron boron magnets 1304
 neodymium magnet powders 1314
 neodymium-iron-boron magnets 1310
 neodymium rich phase 1318
 neoprene rubber 1049
 Nernst equation 1014, 1038, 1097, 1098
 net alternating current 466
 net capacitor charge 785
 net capillary pressure difference 202
 net current encircled 1272
 net electron flow 1097
 net energy transfer 520, 851
 net inductor energy 433
 net magnetic moment 1299
 net magnetising energy 824
 net observable flux density 1316
 net observable induction 1316
 net output current 1037
 net power flow 671
 net REDOX reaction 1043, 1070
 network impedance 940
 network interconnected systems 982
 network node 940
 network oscillation damping 939
 network stability 939
 network voltage 920
 neutral 454, 462

neutral access 611
 neutral charge regions 1023
 neutral connected battery 751
 neutral connected PWM inverter topology 960
 neutral connection 472, 473, 480, 600
 neutral current 454, 472, 604-606, 631, 959
 neutral floating PWM inverter topology 960
 neutral point 737
 neutral point clamped 736
 neutral point clamped inverter 344
 neutral point clamped multi-level converter 916
 neutral supply 454
 neutral voltage 712
 neutron transmutation doping 3
 Newton's law of cooling 134, 135, 1228
 NiCd and NiMH cells comparison 1084, 1085
 NiCd battery 1072
 NiCd battery charging 1070
 NiCd battery electrolyte life 1074
 NiCd battery requirement 1076
 NiCd cell 1100
 NiCd cell charge characteristics 1072
 NiCd charge methods 1083
 NiCd charge termination terminology 1071
 NiCd charging methods 1071
 NiCd chemistry 1072
 NiCd discharge characteristics 1075, 1077
 NiCd discharge polarity reversal characteristics 1076
 NiCd discharge water consumption 1073
 NiCd disposal 1075
 NiCd high current discharge 1074
 NiCd limitation 1075
 NiCd memory effect 1075
 NiCd over discharge 1074
 NiCd plates 1069
 nichrome 34, 1207
 nickel metal hydride cell overcharge 1080
 nickel technical data 1282
 nickel-based battery 1070
 nickel-based battery discharge 1106
 nickel-based cell 1100
 nickel-based chemistry 1041, 1056
 nickel-cadmium and lead-acid cell comparison 1070
 nickel-cadmium and lead-acid chemistries comparison 1073
 nickel-cadmium battery 1037, 1047, 1069
 nickel-cadmium battery properties 1076
 nickel-cadmium battery technologies 1040
 nickel-cadmium cells endothermic charging 1080
 nickel-cadmium discharge 1074
 nickel-cadmium sealed cell 1074
 nickel-iron alloys 1305
 nickel-metal hydride battery uses 1083
 nickel-metal-hydride 1079
 nickel-metal-hydride battery 1037, 1040, 1078, 1113
 nickel-metal-hydride battery characteristics 1084
 nickel-metal-hydride battery properties 1079
 nickel-metal-hydride cell 1079
 nickel-metal-hydride shortcomings 1084
 NiMH battery overcharge 1080
 NiMH battery slow-charge 1083
 NiMH cell 1100
 NiMH cell charging 1082
 NiMH cell charging overall chemical reaction 1079
 NiMH cell discharge 1081
 NiMH cell excessive overcharging 1080
 NiMH cell over discharging 1081
 NiMH cell transport charging 1080
 NiMH cell transport discharging 1080
 NiMH fast chargers 1082
 NiMH fast-charging 1083
 n-i-p devices 1035
 nitrogen based emissions 1012
 nitrogen gas relays 1389
 n-layer 73
 no load conditions 821
 no load current 1363
 no load relay conditions 1363
 no load switching rf relays 1397
 no pre-existing dc link voltage start-up 346
 noble gas 18, 412
 noble metal film resistors 1208
 noble metals 15, 1001, 1002, 1356
 noble metal catalyst 999
 no-flow point 180
 noise 279, 361, 419
 noise components 403
 noise filtering precautions 421
 noise immunity 270, 421
 noise injection 1199
 noise reduction precautions 421
 noise suppression 588
 noise voltage 1208
 noise wavelength 419
 no-load circulating current 858
 no-load conditions 1364
 no-load induction motor 618
 no-load output magnitude 860
 no-load volts 1137
 nomenclature 1411
 nominal ac voltage 953, 954
 nominal cell voltage 1066
 nominal coil voltage 1368
 nominal current 389, 1402
 nominal current performance 1402
 nominal current rating 384, 385
 nominal dc load current 391
 nominal load current 391
 nominal low duty cycle switching action 1263
 nominal maximum permissible current rating 1378
 nominal melting T_m 386, 388
 nominal operating cell temperature 1045
 nominal operating temperature range 1214
 nominal primary current 1263
 nominal primary voltage 1264
 nominal rated current 385
 nominal reference voltage 1112
 nominal resistance 400, 401, 1223
 nominal resistance range 1225
 nominal voltage 407, 1089, 1138, 1263, 1355, 1369
 nominal wire diameter 1284
 non fundamental component 585
 non intrusive 1274
 non-alloyed metals 1249
 non-aqueous electrolytes 1039, 1041
 non-aqueous organic lithium salt 1087
 non-aqueous solvents 1087
 non-circulating current mode 746
 non-coated film margin 1178
 non-conducting 412
 non-conducting ceramic bar 1205
 non-conduction period 448, 450, 601
 non-conductor 1037
 non-continuous inductor current operation 831
 non-corroding metal plate 422
 non-corrosive 193
 non-coupled inductance 421
 non-crystalline state 1236
 non-dc-decoupled resistance 850
 non-dielectric fluids 193
 non-dielectric liquid coolants 195
 non-discharge periods 1050
 non-failure components 1167
 non-fundamental components 635
 non-fundamental current 641

non-fundamental harmonic magnitudes 601
 non-ideal behaviour 1104
 non-inductive current shunt resistor 1203
 non-inductive elements 1213
 non-inductive paths 1203
 non-inductive resistance applications 1203
 non-inductive resistor 1206, 1225
 non-inversion 790
 non-isolated relays 1393
 non-isolated, step up/down flyback converter 798
 non-isolated, step-up, flyback converter 791
 non-isolating transformer 619
 nonlinear conduction losses 1181
 non-linear current 975
 nonlinear demagnetization curve 1323
 non-linear device 404
 non-linear electrical characteristics 405
 non-linear equations 718
 non-linear impedance devices 404
 non-linear irreversible change 1345
 non-linear load 640, 642, 932, 937, 968, 970
 non-linear load equivalent voltage source 969
 non-linear load impedance 962, 968, 969
 non-linear load voltage 970
 nonlinear magnet external field 1324
 non-linear parallel load equivalent current source 968
 non-linear resistance 417
 non-linear resistance characteristic 377
 nonlinear resistance/temperature response 1225
 non-linear series load equivalent voltage source 962
 non-linear varistor resistance 405
 non-linear voltage clamp 410
 nonlinear voltage dependent 1181
 non-linear voltage-dependent dynamic resistances 404
 non-linear voltage-dependent static resistances 404
 non-linearity 1271
 non-load condition 752
 non-magnetic 1297
 non-magnetic behaviour 1292
 non-magnetic bus bars 1282
 non-magnetic material 1310
 non-magnetic matrix 1305
 non-magnetic metal 1392
 non-magnetised state 1233
 non-metal polycrystalline structure 1194
 non-operation periods 1388
 non-optimal operation 1347
 non-oriented steel 462
 non-polarised capacitors 1168, 1177, 1192
 non-polarised capacitors healing time 1168
 non-polarised coil 1390
 non-polarised plastic type capacitors properties 1192
 non-polarised R-C snubber 288, 289
 non-reactive porous electrode 1011
 non-rectangular composite pulse 155
 non-rectangular power pulses 153
 non-repetitive pulse rating 1217
 non-resettable 376
 non-resetting mechanical devices 379
 non-saturable inductor 310
 non-sealed battery 1052
 non-sinusoidal load current 639, 640
 non-sinusoidal repetitive voltages 1188, 1189
 non-sinusoidal ripple currents 1174
 non-sinusoidal voltage 975, 1189
 non-spherical particles 1302
 non-standard cell conditions 1038
 non-symmetrical currents 419
 non-toxic liquid 193
 normal blocking condition 590
 normal cell operation 1080
 normal characteristic slope 1334

normal characteristics 1316, 1334
 normal coercivity 1345
 normal current 379, 401
 normal current operation range 399
 normal curve 1321, 1322, 1328
 normal curve operating point 1334
 normal curve slope 1316
 normal delta connection 621
 normal demagnetisation curve 1324, 1325, 1328
 normal demagnetising curve 1322, 1334, 1343
 normal discharge 1074
 normal induction 1321
 normal load 1369
 normal load line 1332
 normal low-resistance 377
 normal operating conditions 392, 403
 normal operating current 388, 401
 normal operating mode 1190
 normal operating point 1342
 normal operating range 1210
 normal operating region 406
 normal operation 403, 751
 normal over-charge 1072
 normal permeance coefficient 1328
 normal rated level 1355
 normal system operation 376
 normal temperature range 1363
 normal total emissivity values 236
 normalise output voltage harmonic peak magnitudes 537
 normalised ac-chopper purely inductive load control characteristics 574
 normalised current 516
 normalised current characteristics 604
 normalised input current 831
 normalised loss components 305
 normalised mean output 535, 543
 normalised mean output voltage 505, 518, 520, 531-534, 542
 normalised neutral current characteristics 606
 normalised output current 831
 normalised output voltage 432
 normalised peak to peak ripple voltage 495, 555
 normalised reset times 296
 normalised ripple current design curves 664
 normalised rms current harmonics - single-phase full-wave ac regulator - resistive load 572
 normalised rms voltage harmonics - single-phase full-wave ac regulator - resistive load 572
 normalised semi-controlled inductive load characteristics 611
 normalised semi-controlled resistive load characteristics 611
 normalised voltage 577
 normalised voltage characteristics 604
 normally closed 1355, 1356, 1405
 normally closed blade 1392
 normally closed configurations 1404
 normally closed contact 1360, 1368
 normally off 80
 normally open 1356, 1367, 1405
 normally open configurations 1404
 normally open contact 1360, 1361, 1365, 1366, 1368, 1389
 normally open fixed contact 1356
 normally-closed contacts 1367
 normally-open contact performance 1367
 Norton equivalent 1336
 Norton equivalent circuit 1323, 1346
 Norton equivalent magnetic circuit 1324
 notch frequency 978
 notch zones 389
 notches 379, 718, 959
 nozzle pressure drop 217
 n-p junction 1027
 NPC 736
 NPC bridge inverter 738

NPC inverter leg 737
 NPC voltage source inverters hvdc transmission 917
n-phase converter mean output voltage 550
n-phase half-wave controlled converter 532
n-phase p-pulse system 452
 npn junction transistor 112
 npn transistor 112
 npn-pnp two-transistor model 94
 NPT-IGBT 88, 89, 91
n-pulse fully-controlled converter 547
n-side 57, 71
 NTC 392
 NTC material 1225
 NTC temperature 1227
 NTC thermistor 392, 1226, 1227
 NTC thermistor drift 1229
 NTC thermistor heat capacity 1228
 NTC thermistor terminology glossary 1448
 n^{th} current harmonic magnitude 548
 n^{th} harmonic peak magnitude 649
 n^{th} harmonic phase 649
 NTP conditions 1017
n-type 1, 1118
n-type amorphous silicon 1035
n-type collector 77
n-type dopant 1033
n-type doped semiconductor 1023
n-type materials 1023
n-type region 58
n-type semiconductor 1023
n-type window 1030
 nuclear batteries 1099
 nuclear reactors 221
 nucleate boiling 216
 nucleate pool boiling 214
 nucleated boiling limit 202
 nucleating 37
 nucleation 1307
 nuisance tripping 392
 null even harmonics 598
 number of states 745
 number of busses 238
 number of capacitors 736, 739, 740
 number of couples 1120
 number of cycles 583
 number of levels 736, 739, 740
 number of machine pole pairs 617
 number of modules 1133
 number of parallel devices 368
 number of phase 739
 number of pole pairs 616
 number of poles 619
 number of possible switch states 739
 number of primary turns 1262, 1264
 number of secondary turns 1262, 1264
 number of series cells 1105
 number of stages 488, 490
 number of switch states 736, 739, 740
 number of switches 736, 740
 number of thermocouples 1123
 number of triangles 745
 number of turns 1251-1259, 1262, 1265-1268, 1276, 1283
 number of vectors 745
 numerical aperture 26
 numerical values 1231
 Nusselt number 210, 219, 221

 odd order rms harmonics 724, 942, 949
 odd stage number 487
 off state loop voltage 827
 off period 337, 792

off resonance characteristics 863
 offset triangular carriers 720, 744
 off-state 78, 122, 247, 258, 281, 352
 off-state duty cycle 364
 off-state dv/dt suppression snubber 289
 off-state leakage current 255, 361
 off-state leakage current losses 248
 off-state leakage loss 156
 off-state leakage power loss 157
 off-state switch 821
 off-state voltage 821
 off-state voltage transient suppression 289
 off-time 629, 797, 877, 1269
 Ohm's law 1059, 1123, 1208
 ohmic bulk resistance 405, 406
 ohmic contact 3, 22, 39, 40, 53, 60, 76, 86, 1178
 ohmic losses 1012
 ohmic region 82, 83
 ohmic resistance 1181, 1190, 1204
 ohmic resistance losses 1181
 Ohm's law 1228, 1335
 Ohm's law calculation 225
 oil immersed 1225
 oil impregnated paper bipolar capacitors 636
 oil impregnation 1178
 oligomers 51
 on/off cycles 191
 on/off operation 389
 on-conduction loss 156
 one dimensional steady state and transient thermal conditions 147
 one leg phase shifted 700
 one skin depth 1281
 one-piece talon 1206
 one-pulse output voltage 518
 one-second internal RC time constant 1106
 one-sided junction equations 68
 one-sided pn diode equations 66
 one-sun PV cell 1041
 one-way valve 1065
 on-off thermal cycling 1003
 on-period 672, 685, 689
 on-resistance 81, 83
 on-state 247, 258, 1270
 on-state duty cycle 1623, 64, 248, 302, 308, 311, 646, 647, 650, 654-663, 668, 778, 793, 800, 828
 on-state losses 314, 682, 733, 780, 794
 on-state power loss 161
 on-state resistance 162
 on-state resistance temperature coefficient 157
 on-state voltage 60, 72, 164, 368, 372
 on-state voltage drops 361, 683, 927
 on-state voltage losses 750
 on-time 780, 785, 794, 797, 809, 877
 on-time control 779, 793, 801
 on-time duty cycle 157, 158, 670, 782, 811, 821
 op amp compensation circuit drives current 1270
 op-amp 787
 op-amp output voltage 787
 open access policy 931
 open cell voltage 1057
 open circuit 415, 1012, 1039, 1060, 1175, 1223
 open circuit conditions 766
 open circuit corrosion 1060
 open circuit dc voltage 491
 open circuit failure 1106
 open circuit magnetic flux intensity 1327
 open circuit output 695, 767
 open circuit output line current 633
 open circuit output voltage 487, 1038, 1044, 1131
 open circuit state 767

open circuit voltage 1015, 1017, 1039-1045, 1060, 1062, 1093, 1131, 1138, 1271
 open coil 1273
 open connections 910
 open crystal structures 1040
 open ended coil 1272
 open flooded lead-acid cell 1063
 open lead NiCd chargers 1071
 open line voltage 1372
 open loop control 625
 open loop load voltage regulation 801, 810
 open loop load voltage regulation control 779, 793
 open loop voltage ramp 627
 open star three-phase ac regulators - three thyristors 612
 open star three-phase ac regulators 611
 open terminal voltage 1093
 open transition start 619
 opening arc 1361
 operate time 1361, 1369, 1392, 1395
 operate voltages 1402
 operating above resonance 767
 operating conditions 1197, 1265
 operating costs 1049
 operating current 1109
 operating curves 397
 operating flux density 1264
 operating frequency 291, 755, 767, 780, 793-796, 870, 879
 operating hours 1166
 operating mechanism 772, 992
 operating point 183, 184, 371, 392, 1317, 1321, 1326-1332, 1341, 1342
 operating point temperature dependence 1341, 1343
 operating point trajectories 1343
 operating principle 486, 1275
 operating range 200, 1198, 1224, 1244
 operating temperature 203, 394, 999, 1015, 1017, 1020, 1110, 1174, 1200, 1203, 1363, 1364
 operating temperature dependence 1109
 operating temperature range 206, 347, 1036, 1113, 1198, 1312
 operating voltages 415, 909, 948, 1105, 1110, 1166, 1167, 1174, 1176, 1367
 operational amplifier 1272
 operational boundaries 339, 831
 operational boundary condition 668
 operational characteristics 821
 operational mechanism 354
 operational specification 1109
 operations minimum 1359
 opposing back emf 646
 opposing chamber winding 1207
 opposing emf 1281
 opposing emf voltage source 338
 opposite direction 1308
 opposite polarity average output voltage 748
 opposite polarity half-wave parallel voltage multipliers 488
 optical elements 1041
 optical interfacing device 280
 optical isolator 588
 optical lithography 23-26
 optical power 1037
 optical properties 1292
 optically coupled SCRs 588
 optimal float charge voltage 1056
 optimal inductance 814
 optimal load resistance 1043
 optimal operating curve 223, 1128
 optimal pulse-width modulation method 718
 optimal pwm 718, 735
 optimal temperature range 203
 optimize heat-load 211
 optimized magnetic circuits 1369
 optimum air gap 1254, 1255

optimum charge performance 1072
 optimum core size 1254
 optimum current 1125
 optimum inductor design 1251
 optimum quench rates 1309
 optimum stage number 488
 optimum switching life 1365
 optimum voltage 1124
 opto-coupled output stage+optional over-voltage protection 589
 opto-coupled SCR 275
 opto-coupler 273, 275, 421, 593, 1200
 opto-coupler design 587
 opto-coupler input LED 589
 opto-coupler isolated gate drive 274
 opto-coupler packages 1200
 opto-transistor 589
 opto-triac circuit 588
 opto-triac LED 589
 orbital shells 1023
 organic acid electrolytic 1169
 organic cells 1048
 organic contamination 35
 organic electrolyte 1103
 organic electrolyte supercapacitors 1106
 organic magnetic materials 1292
 organic materials 1048, 1292
 organic metal oxide dielectric capacitor 1169
 organic photovoltaic cell 1047
 organic PV cell 1047, 1048
 organic solvent 1039
 organic solvent electrolytes 1087
 orientated domains 1321
 orientated steel 462
 orientation 420
 orienting field applied 1311
 original compounds 1036
 original energy reactants 989
 oscillating components 938
 oscillating pulse discharge 1190
 oscillation cycle 760, 854
 oscillation damping 909
 oscillation half cycle 763, 851
 oscillation power damping 947
 oscillatory components 945
 oscillatory transient currents 945
 oscilloscope probes 1200
 outages 960
 outer case 1194
 outer circle outer 966
 outer concentric sphere 1406
 outer diameter 1283
 outer hexagon 746
 outer limb 463
 outer loop 827
 outer magnetic sleeve 1284
 outer radius 1285
 outer switches 737
 outer voltage loop 962, 966
 outgoing thyristor 733
 outlet header temperature 213
 outlet temperature 210
 outlet velocity pressure 186
 output 3^{rd} harmonics 636
 output ac ripple 504
 output ac ripple voltage 649, 671, 679, 685, 689, 691
 output ac voltage 437, 733
 output angular frequency 567
 output bridge diodes 856
 output capacitance 270, 348, 783, 803, 822, 824
 output capacitance charging 760
 output capacitor 459, 785, 790, 798, 806, 819, 883, 884

output capacitor voltage 813
output capacity 1074
output circuit 773, 792, 882
output circuit current 450
output circuit functions 824
output conductance 82, 85
output current 431, 444, 446, 486, 503-537, 575, 596, 635, 637, 653-695, 777-780, 792-802, 831, 870, 1037-1044, 1277
output current combinations 738
output current conduction states 687
output current cycle 674
output current harmonics 964
output current mean 678
output current peak-to-peak ripple 655, 656
output current pulse width 1268
output current rating 468-471, 677
output current ripple factor 516
output current source 633, 863
output current waveform 531, 654, 658, 662, 675, 690
output cycle 721
output diode 819, 827, 883
output dv/dt 736
output energy 779, 780, 793, 801, 810, 869, 874
output filter 347, 351, 869, 1197
output filter capacitor 458
output forward converter 813
output frequency 633, 695, 706, 722
output full-wave rectifier bridge 850
output fundament frequency 855
output fundamental 718
output fundamental frequency 698-700
output harmonics 552, 633
output impedance 487, 789
output inductor 814, 827, 863, 867, 875, 1263
output I - V quadrant 645
output I - V characteristic 486, 1038
output L-C filter 598
output level integrity 281
output levels 737
output line current amplitude 637
output line currents 637
output line to line voltage magnitude 636
output line voltages 636
output line-to-line voltage 911
output line-to-line voltage phase shift between polygons 911
output load current modes 646
output loop voltage equation 968
output magnitude 853
output modes 669
output peak-to-peak ripple voltage 450
output phase 635
output phase legs 736
output power 1130-1133, 1260, 1263
output power 446, 448, 457-465, 482, 483, 495, 571-583, 651-662, 674-777, 849, 957
output p-p ripple voltage 803
output profile 622
output pulse number 494, 552
output pulse number per cycle 460, 543
output pulses 491
output range 812
output rectifier 1263
output rectifying diode 884
output resistance 855
output reversible converter 808
output ripple 427, 486, 503, 651, 788
output ripple current 650-653, 666
output ripple current harmonics - function of duty cycle 650
output ripple factor 445
output ripple voltage 437, 490, 535, 780, 785, 789, 794, 802, 805, 827
output rms current 445, 456, 668
output rms fundamental voltage 698
output rms voltage 551, 717
output rms voltage magnitude 718
output series inductance 959
output short 678
output short circuit 487, 695, 734, 735
output side referred impedance 1277
output signal 1271
output spectrum 724, 939
output stage 814, 854
output stage variations 827
output states 678, 687, 728
output terminals 594, 1276
output VA 1276
output VA rating 1277
output vector 730
output vector length 730
output voltage 427, 436, 444-494, 503-506, 513-544, 552-582, 595, 598, 601, 627, 634, 637, 648, 662-678, 684-687, 695, 700, 706-722, 731, 738, 739, 749, 765-767, 773-782, 786-794, 799-802, 808-819, 831, 849-852, 855, 865, 870-878, 882-899, 906, 939, 958, 960, 1039, 1044, 1115, 1132, 1133, 1272-1277
output voltage ac 520, 533
output voltage ac component 526
output voltage combinations 738
output voltage contour 622
output voltage control 865
output voltage control resolution 584
output voltage cycle 696
output voltage distortion 726
output voltage distortion ripple factor 533
output voltage feedback 779, 793
output voltage form factor 428, 445, 513, 526
output voltage Fourier components 718
output voltage Fourier series 653
output voltage frequency response 1272
output voltage fundamental ripple 467, 472, 481-483
output voltage harmonic content 622
output voltage harmonic factor 521
output voltage harmonic reduction 717
output voltage harmonics 456, 505, 518, 531, 534, 695, 700, 900, 964
output voltage harmonics as a function of duty cycle 650
output voltage magnitude 780, 794
output voltage maximum 556, 1189
output voltage minimum 556
output voltage modes 611, 612
output voltage modulation factor 631
output voltage polarity inversion 790
output voltage range 812
output voltage reference 741
output voltage regulation 488, 490, 779, 780, 861
output voltage resolution 699
output voltage ripple 451, 488, 490, 511, 532, 781, 783, 788, 814, 827
output voltage ripple factor 433, 516, 521, 537, 649, 680, 685, 689
output voltage rms value 536
output voltage space vector 727
output voltage spectrum component frequencies 548
output voltage switching states 680
output voltage total rms 717
output voltage transfer function 778, 806
output voltage waveform 460 531, 543, 601, 636, 654, 658, 662, 675, 690, 718, 720
output voltage zeros 531
output waveform 736
output winding configuration 480
output zero current crossing 674
outside temperature 135
oval cross-section capacitor 1163
over charge time 1071

over discharging cell 1081
over modulation 729
over voltage condition 1112
over voltage indication 1112
over voltage protection 250
over voltage transient 590
over voltages 1399
over/under voltage trip function 984
overall battery life 1095
overall cell efficiency 1014
overall cell potential 1038
overall cell reaction 1072
overall derating 368
overall efficiency 1040, 1115
overall power factor 546
overall reaction 1097
overall service life 1088
overall system efficiency 1006
overall active spongy cadmium-negative electrode 1072
overcharge 779, 810, 1064, 1072, 1073, 1083, 1106
overcharge condition 1053, 1067, 1071, 1089
overcharge current 1073, 1074
overcharge onset 1082
over-charge protection 1096
over-charging damage 1077
overcharging pressure build-up 1080
overcoating 21
over-current 375, 399
over-current circuit protection 392
over-current devices 378
over-current events 402
over-current limiting devices 402
over-current protection - ac and dc circuits 416
over-current protection 361, 376-378, 399, 400
over-current protection devices 377, 401
overdamped L-C-R discharge current 300
over-discharge polarity reversal 1075
over-discharge protection 1096
over-discharged condition 1075
overhead current 1368
overheating 1369
overlap - inversion 548
overlap 544, 547, 767
overlap angle 529, 544, 546, 549, 555, 557
overlap equivalent circuit 545
overlap output voltage 548
overlap period 529, 534, 544
overlap regulation model 548
overlapped copper foil ground shield layer 1199
overlapped printed silver 1197
overlapping surface area 1011
overload 402
overload capability 928, 939
overload capacity 1225
overload conditions 1223
overload current 379, 380, 1223
overload protection 1375
overload ratings 1217
overload relay 630
overloads 389
over-modulation 636, 726, 730
overshoot 789
over-temperature 1254
over-temperature condition 591
over-temperature protection 1097
over-travel 1356
over-voltage 375, 403, 787, 952, 1113, 1278
over-voltage devices 378
over-voltage potential 1053
over-voltage protection - ac and dc circuits 416
overvoltage protection 361, 376, 377, 403
overvoltage protection devices 377
overvoltage protection fundamentals 410
overvoltage protection theory 410
over-voltage pulse 1369
oxidant 991, 992, 1007
oxidant gas 994
oxidant gas streams 992
oxidation 20, 35, 1036, 1037
oxidation chemistry 1037
oxidation reaction 1005
oxidation resistance 1048
oxidation-reduction reaction 991, 1098
oxidation-resistant metallic materials 1005
oxide capacitors 1168, 1172
oxide capacitors leakage current 1172
oxide ceramic dielectric 1194
oxide dielectric 1171
oxide dielectric capacitor 1162, 1164, 1171
oxide dielectric constant 1169
oxide film 19, 1358
oxide growth 1170
oxide growth rate 20
oxide inhibitor 193
oxide ion diffusion rates 1005
oxide ion reduction 1036
oxide isolation 34
oxide layer 19, 1169
oxide material ceramic capacitors 1194
oxide thickness 1169
oxide type capacitors 1177
oxidisation atmosphere 1197
oxidised 1037, 1040
oxidised copper 143
oxidising activity 1171
oxidising agent 20, 1039, 1093
oxidising electrode 1036
oxidizing agents strength 1038
oxidizing conditions 993
oxidizing environments 1005
oxidizing potentials 993
oxygen 991
oxygen bonds 992
oxygen diffusion 1065
oxygen electrode 992
oxygen generation 1072-1075
oxygen molecule dissociation 994
oxygen molecules 992
oxygen plasma ashing 3
oxygen pre-reforming 1005
oxygen recombination 1056
oxygen recombination capability 1067
oxygen recombination cycle 1049, 1064, 1067
oxygen recombination efficiency 1050
oxygen reduction 994
oxygen reduction kinetics 1005, 1012
oxygen releases 1093
oxygen-permeable separator 1072
oxygen recombination mechanism 1080
oxygen-recombination process 1072
package 43
package dimensions 1184
package encapsulation design 1390
package inductances 110
package limit 1184, 1187
package power dissipation 1184
package power dissipation limit 1188
packing 53
packing density 1288
pair of switches 737
paper based dielectrics 1169
paper dielectric 1191, 1192

paper dielectric capacitors 1192
 paper dielectric thickness 1169
 parabolic growth law 20
 parabolic rate constant 20
 parallel active filter 969
 parallel bypass resistor 1111
 parallel capacitance 1163
 parallel capacitor 296, 876
 parallel capacitor-reactance combination 946
 parallel cells 1104
 parallel circuit 758, 768
 parallel circuit Q 759
 parallel circuit resonance frequency 759
 parallel circuit steady-state voltage 767, 768
 parallel compensation 940
 parallel conducting copper plates 1285
 parallel connected 372
 parallel connected capacitance 893
 parallel connected capacitors 1110, 1287
 parallel connected commutation group 552
 parallel connected devices 368
 parallel connected diode 760
 parallel connected freewheel components 1368
 parallel connected inductors 1235
 parallel connected legs 372
 parallel connected number in commutation group 494
 parallel connected primary and secondary coils 1235
 parallel connected reluctance components 1336
 parallel connected secondary windings 462
 parallel connecting capacitors 1172
 parallel connection - fully-controlled, phase-shifted converter 540
 parallel connection 361, 739
 parallel current displacement paths 735
 parallel device operation 367
 parallel devices 371
 parallel diode 760
 parallel diode/switch combinations 830
 parallel equivalent components 1242
 parallel go and return paths 1284
 parallel half-wave voltage multipliers 489
 parallel IGC thyristors 949
 parallel laminated bus bar 1288
 parallel L-C resonant tank load circuit 756
 parallel load circuits 767
 parallel load resonant converter operation 857
 parallel loaded resonant dc-to-dc converters 855
 parallel magnetising current 372
 parallel monopole 895
 parallel multipliers 488
 parallel operation 361, 408
 parallel plate inductance 1284
 parallel plates 1285
 parallel power devices 367
 parallel R-C circuit 768
 parallel R-C network 1369
 parallel resistance 363, 1367
 parallel resistors 361
 parallel resonance 858, 952
 parallel resonant 859
 parallel resonant circuit 755, 759, 856-859
 parallel resonant converter 861
 parallel resonant dc-to-dc converter 856
 parallel resonant inverter 765-767
 parallel resonant inverter output 767
 parallel resonant L-C-R circuit 758
 parallel resonant voltage source converter 765
 parallel semiconductor device operation 367
 parallel sharing resistors 1172
 parallel switch capacitance 260
 parallel transformer coupled circuits 863
 parallel transformer resonant circuit 862, 863
 parallel wire pair inductance 1286
 parallel wiring conductor inductance 1284
 parallel wiring conductors 1285
 parallel wiring cylindrical conductors 1285
 parallel Zener diode 252
 parallel-connected capacitive turn-off snubber 287
 parallel-connected capacitors 1287
 parallel-connected magnetic components 1336
 parallel-connected power devices 1287
 parallel-connected reluctances 1330
 parallel-coupled resonant circuits 863
 parallelogram 746
 parallel-resonant current-source inverter 767, 768
 parallel-resonant voltage-source inverter 764
 parallel-switch Zener diode 251
 paramagnetic 1300
 paramagnetic material 1236, 1291, 1292, 1300
 paramagnetic metals 1299
 paramagnetic non-magnetic stainless steels 1292
 paramagnetic steels 1293
 paramagnetic substance 1300
 paramagnetism 1297-1299
 parameter specification reference 1211
 parameter stability 1250
 parasitic bipolar device 85
 parasitic discharge 1112
 parasitic inductance 292
 parasitic loads 222, 1128
 parasitic npn bipolar junction transistor 85
 parasitic npn transistor 116
 parasitic pnp-npn thyristor structure 117
 parasitic series component values 780
 parasitic series inductance 292, 867
 parasitic transistors 89
 partial charge 1095
 partial discharge 1406
 partial discharge capability 239
 partial discharge cycles 1095
 partial discharge losses 1181
 partial discharge process 1190
 partial discharge 1181, 1190, 1191
 partial evaporation 41
 partially charged battery 1071, 1083
 partially de-magnetized 1321, 1337
 partitioning wall 1055
 Paschen curve 413
 Paschen's law 1406
 passage length 219
 passivation 19, 49, 72, 1027
 passivating interfacing layer 1085
 passivating layer 42
 passive capillary pump 197
 passive components 867, 913
 passive decoupling filter 978
 passive detection 1271
 passive devices 1227
 passive elements 1371
 passive energy recovery capacitive turn-off snubber 332
 passive filter arrangements 913
 passive filtering 977
 passive harmonic filters 932, 976
 passive harmonic notch 959
 passive heat load 133
 passive inductive energy recovery 325
 passive inductive turn-on snubber energy recovery circuit 355
 passive integrator 1273
 passive L-C notch filters 960
 passive load 505, 535
 passive load part 577
 passive low pass filters 960
 passive L-R circuit 505

passive recovery 324, 328, 334, 352
 passive recovery circuit 323
 passive recovery into dc supply 341
 passive R-L-C type discharge 1188
 passive snubber 287
 passive turn-off snubber circuits 323
 passive turn-off snubber energy recovery 352
 passive turn-on snubber circuits 323
 passive unified recovery circuits 339
 paste filling 1046-1048
 paste shedding 1068
 pasted flat plate 1045
 pasted plate 1047
 pasted plate batteries 1044
 pasted plate structure 1047
 patterning 3
 Pauli exclusion principle 1299
 p-base 77
 pcb mounting 1206
 p-channel 80
 p-channel MOSFET 84, 280
 p-channel MOSFET drive circuit 270
 PCM 139, 140, 228
 PCM solid-liquid thermo-physical characteristics 229
 peak ac input voltage 636
 peak allowable power 1218
 peak arc voltage 383, 386
 peak blocking voltage 705, 769
 peak capacitor current 450
 peak capacitor voltage 882
 peak charge voltage 1089
 peak current 406, 409, 769, 771, 1106, 1188, 1191, 1256
 peak current rating 408
 peak diode current 435, 450, 451
 peak diode reverse voltage 453, 467
 peak diode voltage 597, 598, 882
 peak discharging current 435
 peak electric field 59, 60
 peak energy 409
 peak fault current 380
 peak flux density 1244
 peak forward gate current 126
 peak fundamental ac output voltage 636
 peak gate power 126
 peak inductor current 791, 799, 802, 872, 880
 peak input current 880
 peak input voltage 486, 487
 peak instantaneous powers 405
 peak junction temperature 144, 149, 156, 162
 peak let-through current 380, 381
 peak let-through current versus clearing I^2t 384
 peak let-through current versus clearing time 384
 peak line voltage 455, 901
 peak load current 705, 769
 peak magnitude 522
 peak mains voltage 280
 peak open circuit voltage 376
 peak output voltage 451, 899
 peak power 149, 957
 peak power dissipation 249
 peak recovery level 335
 peak resonant current 879
 peak reverse recovery current 288
 peak service voltage capabilities 1192
 peak snubber current 291
 peak supply burdens 982
 peak supply current 641
 peak switch current 303, 304, 335
 peak switch voltage 773
 peak switch/ voltage 882
 peak switching voltage 291
 peak temperature rise 1219, 1220
 peak thyristor voltage 597
 peak to peak output voltage 785, 794
 peak to peak ripple voltage 434
 peak torque 617
 peak transient current 408
 peak voltage 592, 899, 1093, 1189, 1192, 1365, 1396
 peak voltage limit 1171
 peak voltage requirement 1192
 peak voltage supplied 491
 peak voltage transient 1369
 peak-to-peak capacitor voltage 762, 763, 851
 peak-to-peak current 786
 peak-to-peak output current ripple 659, 661
 peak-to-peak output voltage ripple 789
 peak-to-peak ripple current 650, 651, 664-671, 683, 685
 peak-to-peak ripple voltage 447, 448, 456
 peak-to-peak voltage 767
 peak-to-peak voltage ripple 802
 PECVD 15-43
 Peltier cell cooling system 1120
 Peltier cooler 1134
 Peltier cooling 1128
 Peltier cooling effect 1123
 Peltier effect 1116-1119
 Peltier effect thermoelectric couple 1123
 Peltier elements 201, 1117-1120, 1126, 1134
 Peltier factors 1118
 penetration 39
 per unit capacitance 1285
 per unit core energy 1251
 per unit effective volume 1239
 per unit inductance 1285
 per unit power 410
 per unit sine-wave samples 722
 per unit volume change 1347
 percentage derating 1215
 percentage dielectric wastage 1163
 percentage of synchronous speed 616
 percentage parallel derating 368
 percentage power transferred 584
 percentage resistance change 1221
 perfect diode 61
 perfluorinated carbons 194
 perforated plastic retainer 1047
 performance 1006
 performance graphs 173
 period boundary 434
 periodic boundary conditions 508
 periodic minimum current 526
 periodic table 1299, 1304, 1418
 periodic table of elements 1297
 periodic topping charge 1057
 periodic voltage 938
 periodically discharge/charge 1077
 permalloy 420, 1305
 permanent arcs 1361
 permanent capacity loss 1060, 1095
 permanent dipole polarizations reverse 1190
 permanent magnet 1302, 1315, 1317, 1320-1323, 1326, 1331, 1334, 1342, 1347, 1365, 1391
 permanent magnet alloys 1308
 permanent magnet demagnetization curve 1326
 permanent magnet gapped circuit load lines 1328
 permanent magnet grades 1317
 permanent magnet intrinsic induction 1322
 permanent magnet load line 1327
 permanent magnet magnetic circuit 1331
 permanent magnet magnetization 1320
 permanent magnet magnetization curve 1320
 permanent magnet manufacturing process 1349
 permanent magnet material 1315, 1321, 1322, 1331
 permanent magnet material features 1314

permanent magnet model 1322
 permanent magnet motors 1311
 permanent magnet stability 1336
 permanent magnet time effects 1339
 permanent magnet types 1317
 permanent magnet uniform magnetization 1340
 permanent magnet working point 1339
 permanent magnetic energy components 1348
 permanent magnetic material 1316
 permanent magnetic properties 1293, 1306
 permanent magnetic stainless steels 1292
 permanent magnets 1234, 1297, 1300, 1303, 1305, 1348
 permanent magnets development 1304
 permanent magnets energy 1303
 permanent magnet's magnetization 1315
 permanent permeability 1340
 permanent plated adhesive bond 1197
 permanent polarization 1181
 permanent split capacitor ac induction motor 174
 permanently magnetized 1303
 permanent-magnet material 1315
 permeabilities 420
 permeability 199, 420, 1237-1246, 1290, 1297, 1321, 1323
 permeability definitions 1239
 permeability temperature coefficient 1248
 permeability vacuum 1300
 permeability variation 1248
 permeable core 1272
 permeable soft magnetic material 1320
 permeance 1334, 1336
 permeance coefficient 1318, 1328, 1331, 1339
 permeance generalised equivalent magnetic circuit 1334
 permissible battery temperature limits 1100
 permissible short time overload ratings 1216
 permittivity 1176, 1197, 1290
 permittivity dielectric material 1288
 perpendicular charge carrier movement 1400
 perpendicular radial distance 1272
 per-unit TCSC reactance 952
 PESD 418
 petrol 989
 petroleum jelly 1066
p-glass 21, 43
 pH 195, 196, 992
 phase angle 427, 503, 577, 581, 584, 602, 606 919, 955, 960, 974
 phase angle compensation 955
 phase angle control 567, 584, 746, 942, 944, 958
 phase angle controller 979
 phase angle regulation 973
 phase change - liquid-vapour 228
 phase change - solid-liquid 228
 phase change - solid-solid 228
 phase change 138, 139
 phase change cooling 228
 phase change gasket materials 139
 phase change solid to liquid gasket 139
 phase change material 137-139, 228
 phase change material thermal properties 228
 phase change materials and heat accumulators 174
 phase commutation inductance 534
 phase compensation 955
 phase control angle conditions 518
 phase control turn-on 587
 phase controlled 622
 phase controller 567
 phase current 457, 604
 phase dead banding 725
 phase delay angle 505, 506, 511, 521, 526, 549, 595, 601, 606, 608, 900
 phase diagram 1208
 phase displaced commutating groups 494
 phase displacement 637, 1362
 phase output frequency spectrum 708
 phase output voltage 959
 phase primary current 481
 phase primary voltages 483
 phase reversal at full voltage 629
 phase rms voltage 606
 phase secondary voltages 483
 phase shift 277, 912, 934, 957, 973
 phase shift angle 700
 phase shift compensation 958
 phase shift phasor diagram 958
 phase shifter 957, 975
 phase shifting configuration 958
 phase source inductance 549
 phase transformation 393
 phase voltage 457, 538, 546, 606, 712, 731, 936
 phase voltage crossover 612
 phase voltage magnitude 725
 phase windings 898
 phase zero voltage cross-over 532
 phase-controlled 531
 phased control 893
 phase-locked-loop 919
 phases number 654
 phase-shifting 714
 phasor 967
 phasor diagram 577, 900, 901, 922, 932, 941, 948, 956, 957, 960, 964, 968, 973-975, 1164
 phasor diagrams - UPFC 972, 973
 phasor diagrams 577, 964
 phasor quadrature voltage 963
 phenolic resin 1198
 phonon drag 1117
 phosphoric acid fuel cell 998, 999, 1002
 phospho-silicate glass 21
 photo generated current 1038
 photoactive layer 1048
 photobiological water splitting 1009
 photocurrent 1037, 1041
 photo-development 23
 photodiode array 586
 photoelectric effect 1023
 photoelectric material bandgap 1024
 photoelectrochemical water splitting 1009
 photolithographic 40
 photoluminescence 1047
 photolytic processes 1008
 photolytic processes - light energy 1009
 photomask 24
 photon absorption 1031, 1047
 photon energy 1023, 1024, 1040
 photon flux 21
 photon frequency 1037
 photon-generated electron-hole pairs 1047
 photons 1040
 photons created hole-electron pairs 1024
 photons to electrons conversion 1023
 photoresist 3, 23-25, 33, 35, 42
 photoresist layer 33
 photoresist lithography masking 19
 photosynthesis conversion process 981
 phototransistor array 586
 photo-triac 275
 photovoltaic cell efficiency factors 1040
 photovoltaic cell types 1026
 photovoltaic cells 50, 1023, 1034
 photovoltaic solar energy converter 981
 photovoltaics 1028, 1044
 physical bus bar dimensions 1288
 physical characteristics 1178
 physical constants 1505

physical dimensions 1174, 1258
 physical properties 51, 1351
 physical properties materials 1124
 physical property data 208
 physical reaction 1035
 physical separation 1199
 physical sputtering 33
 physical structure 999, 1402
 physical vapour deposition 1030
 physical vapour deposition 3, 14, 17
 pick-up current 1363, 1364
 pick-up voltage 1363-1365
 pick-up voltage equations 1365
 piecewise-linear junction diode model 61
 piezo fans 192
 piezoceramic patches 192
 piezoelectric effects 1197
 piezoelectric fans 192
 piezoelectricity 1181
 pilot SCR 96
p-i-n devices 1035
p-i-n diode 72, 73
p-i-n structure 1029, 1035
p-i/n/n-i-p 1034
 pinch-off 81
 pinning 1308
 pins 43
 pit 1357
 planar cell stacks 996
 planar coil 1274
 planar design cell 1006
 planar epitaxial structure 77
 planar fuel cells 1003
 planar gate structure 86
 planar Rogowski current sensors 1274
 planar SOFC 1006
 planar strip structure 1206
 planar thick film power resistor 1206
 planarity 36
 planarization 34, 36
 planarization global 36
 planarization local 36
 Planck's constant 1023, 1037
 plane wave 419, 420
 plane-parallel metal plates 1026
 planet earth 422
 Planté plate 1046
 Planté positive plate 1045
 plasma 32
 plasma ashing 35
 plasma enhanced CVD 15, 53
 plasma etching 30
 plasma etching reactors 30
 plasma-assisted CVD 15
 plasma-enhanced chemical vapour deposition 43
 plastic capacitor 1187
 plastic capacitor constructions 1179
 plastic dielectric capacitor 1180-185
 plastic dielectric capacitor frequency characteristics 1183
 plastic dielectric capacitor types 1184
 plastic dielectric capacitor, temperature derating characteristics 1185
 plastic dielectric humidity coefficient 1180
 plastic dielectric insulation resistance temperature dependence characteristics 1180
 plastic film 1178
 plastic film capacitors 1178, 1179
 plastic film dielectric 1168, 1178
 plastic film dielectric capacitance 1182
 plastic film dielectric capacitors 1162, 1168, 1177
 plastic film dielectrics characteristics 1178
 plastic packages 43
 plastic type 1177
 plastic type non-polarised capacitors 1191
 plate chemical reactions 1063
 plate grid characteristics 1044
 plate grid materials 1044
 plate heat conduction 1068
 plate height 1047
 plate life 1053
 plate mechanical strength 1045
 plate pore flooding 1073
 plate reactions 1073
 plate self-discharge 1048
 plate separation 1069, 1285
 plate separation distance 1162
 plate structures 1045
 plate surface 1048, 1049
 plate surface area 1011
 plate terminal 1044
 plate thickness 1047
 plate width 1285
 plate-out condition 1390
 plate-out internal walls 1390
 plates forces 1162
 plate-to-plate shorts 1049
 plating out walls 1387
 platinum 994
 platinum catalyst 992, 1019
 platinum nanoparticles 1000
 platinum surface area 1000
 platinum/ruthenium catalysts 999
 platinum-based catalyst 1002
p-layer 73
 plug-braking 629
 plugging 628
 plunger 1355
p-n diode 71
p-n junction 3, 4, 57, 58, 73, 256, 1023, 1024, 1033, 1034
p-n junction diode 58, 61, 64, 1037
p-n junction layers 1025
p-n junction total surface 1048
 pocket plate 1069
 pocket plate technology 1077
 point 221
 point of common coupling 895, 939, 940, 981
 point of connection 913, 964
 point of contact 1356
 point-on-wave 383, 386
 point-to-point connection 928
 point-to-point transmission 895
 poisoning 1002
 poisonous 1032
 Poisson's ratio 232, 1122
 polarisation 1321
 polarisation process 1168
 polarised electrolytic solution 1102
 polarised switching-aid circuits 296
 polarised turn-off snubber circuit 297
 polarised turn-off switching aid circuit analysis 318
 polarised turn-on snubber circuit 304, 310
 polarising dc offset field 1240
 polarity 418
 polarity orientation 351
 polarization 398, 1050, 1103
 polarization resistance 1005
 polarized dc relays 1365
 pole face flux densities 1317
 pole imbalance 894
 pole piece 1293, 1349
 pole states 745
 pole vector length 729
 pole voltages 923
 pole-to-pole 917

pole-to-pole voltage 922
 polished wafer 49
 polycarbonate film based capacitors 1191
 polycrystalline 47, 51
 polycrystalline magnetic isotropic ceramic oxides 1237
 polycrystalline material 1029
 polycrystalline NTC thermistor 1225
 poly-crystalline silicon 49, 50, 1025, 1028, 1050
 polycrystalline thin films 1026, 1030
 polycrystalline thin-film cell 1030
 polycrystalline thin-film PV cells 1031
 polycrystalline transparent Si 1050
 polyester capacitor 1162
 polygon long winding voltage 911
 polygon short winding voltage 911
 polygon vector 911
 polygon voltages 911
 polygon voltages phase shift 911
 polygon winding 462, 911
 polygon winding currents 911
 polygon winding kVA 912
 polymer cables 928
 polymer cables age 928
 polymer dielectric type capacitors 1177
 polymer electrolyte membrane electrolyser 1008
 polymer electrostatic discharge suppressor 416
 polymer ESD suppressor - construction 416
 polymer ESD suppressor - *I-V* curve 416
 polymer exchange membrane fuel cell 998, 999, 1002
 polymer matrix 1314
 polymer membrane 1000
 polymer positive temperature coefficient thermistor 377
 polymer PTC 1225
 polymer re-crystallizes 393
 polymeric PTC current versus trip time curves 396
 polymeric PTC devices 393
 polymeric PTC resistance recovery 397
 polymeric PTC thermistor circuit operating load line 400
 polymeric PTC thermistor fuse characteristics 401
 polymeric PTC thermistor operating principle 394
 polymeric PTC thermistor operating *R-V-I-t* curves 394
 polymeric PTC thermistor protectors 394
 polymeric PTC thermistor typical tripping dispersion 394
 polymeric voltage variable material technologies 416
 polymerization 1356
 polyphase 452
 poly-phase multiplier 491
 polypropylene capacitor 288, 1178, 1180
 polysilicon 4, 21, 22, 1026
 polysilicon deposition 21
 polysilicon layers 12
 polysilicon resistors 34
 pool boiling 216
 poor conductivity properties 1358
 poor lead connection 1287
 poor regulation 342
 pore radius 199
 porosity 1103
 porous lattice 1169
 porous medium 1064
 porous microstructure 994
 porous paper 1169
 porous structure wick 199
 portable devices 1050
 portable fuel cells 1112
 position correction factor 140
 positive active material 1135
 positive average load voltage 646
 positive average voltage 687
 positive cathode lead plates 1052
 positive converter 746-749
 positive converter blocks 747
 positive converter group 631
 positive dc link voltage 894
 positive direction 414
 positive electrical charge 1023
 positive electrode 994, 1000, 1008, 1036, 1037, 1046, 1047, 1075, 1078
 positive electrode endothermic reaction 1081
 positive electrode heat absorption 1081
 positive electrode overcharging 1080
 positive electrode plate 1036, 1045
 positive electrode potential 1038
 positive electrodes structures 1089
 positive electron resists 26
 positive emf 1014
 positive grid 1046
 positive groups 750
 positive half cycle 598
 positive intermediate voltage rail 333
 positive ions 998, 999, 1037
 positive material oxidation 1085
 positive multiplier 487
 positive photoresist 23
 positive plate 1048, 1058, 1059, 1072, 1102
 positive plate energy 1059
 positive plate expiry 1074
 positive plate oxidizes 1050
 positive plate passivation 1045
 positive plate structures 1047
 positive plates expansion 1061
 positive power angle 934
 positive PTC thermistor 392
 positive reaction 1135
 positive resists 24, 25
 positive sequence currents 482, 912
 positive susceptibility 1299, 1300
 positive temperature coefficient 398, 1164
 positive temperature coefficient alloy resistance wire 1225
 positive temperature coefficient material 1225
 positive temperature coefficient switch 1087
 positive temperature coefficient thermistors 378
 positive temperature dependence 371
 positive terminal 1037
 positive terminal safety vent 1080
 positive voltage 645
 positive voltage loop 671, 680
 positive voltage rail 332
 post trip resistance 399
 pot core 1259, 1263, 1265
 pot core minimum area 1264
 pot design data 1258
 pot ferrite core 1248
 potential barrier 74, 87, 398, 399, 1225
 potential barrier height 398
 potential difference 1037, 1406
 potential energy 228, 1345, 1346
 potential energy storage capacity 1088
 powder coating 1318
 powder coercivity 1310
 powder iron 1236
 powder metal wick structure 204
 powder metallurgy 1305, 1306
 power 205, 361, 395, 447
 power absorbed 460
 power angle 934, 974
 power applications 1191, 1198, 1289
 power backup 1112
 power balance 731
 power bipolar transistor 282
 power capability 1036
 power cell start-up circuitry 349
 power circuit 939, 1203, 1355
 power components 937

power conditioning systems 410
 power consumption 931, 1274, 1368
 power contacts 1369
 power contribution 1189
 power control 918
 power control concept 918
 power controllers 1373
 power conversion efficiencies 1048
 power converted 1040
 power converted to rotational energy 429
 power copper loss 1264
 power cross 375
 power cross voltages 375
 power cycling 144, 146
 power cycling failure 104
 power delivered 257, 433, 456, 513, 516, 578, 584, 668-772
 power delivery 953
 power density 227, 991, 999, 1012, 1035, 1041, 1042, 1066, 1074, 1079, 1089, 1112-1114
 power density capabilities 1035
 power derating 1215, 1220
 power diodes 71
 power dissipated 304, 307, 318, 411, 428, 439, 440, 447, 459, 523, 577, 581, 582, 640, 864, 1014, 1187, 1209, 1214, 1229, 1259, 1363
 power dissipation 147, 281, 302, 363, 404, 408, 590, 1128, 1184, 1203, 1214, 1215, 1219, 1221
 power dissipation factor 1229, 1184, 1187
 power duty cycle 153
 power efficiency 1126
 power electronic circuits 1203, 1233
 power electronic component properties 234
 power electronics 1203
 power electronics applications 1162, 1233, 1239, 1244
 power electronics cooling 193, 222
 power electronics devices 931, 940
 power equations 948, 965, 975
 power factor 383-446, 457, 494-499, 516, 528, 539, 546, 554-558, 572, 617, 618, 640, 748, 775, 851, 922, 942-954, 1103
 power factor angle 431, 467, 731
 power factor compensation 902
 power factor correction 959, 960, 968
 power ferrite application data 1279
 power ferrite transformer design 1259
 power ferrites 1238
 power film resistors 1218
 power filters 751
 power flow 503, 901, 909, 917, 921, 934, 952, 955, 964, 979
 power flow capability 947
 power flow control 931, 956, 974
 power flow direction 646
 power flow equation 933
 power flow reversal 909
 power frequency 939, 975, 1405
 power frequency withstand voltage 1405, 1406
 power generation 1129, 1134
 power ground point 1200
 power handling capabilities 777, 791
 power handling capacity 991
 power heat dissipation 227
 power in 800
 power induction 375, 378
 power inductive loads 1357
 power injection 984
 power injection quality 984
 power interface circuits 274
 power invariance 831
 power inversion 527, 540, 746
 power law 404
 power *L-C* filters 751
 power level 1263
 power level current 1200
 power level signals 1200
 power limit 1209
 power limited 1223, 1225
 power load angle 934, 965
 power load characteristic 1223
 power loci 902
 power locus 12-pulse converters - pu output voltage 903
 power locus 12-pulse converters 903
 power locus 6-pulse converters - per unit output voltage 903
 power locus 6-pulse converter 539, 903
 power loss 129, 158, 260, 364, 488, 490, 948, 1116
 power loss component 546
 power loss curves 1261
 power loss periods 259
 power losses from manufacturers' data sheets 156
 power metal film resistor pulsed capabilities 1218
 power metal oxide film resistor 1222
 power metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistor 76
 power Mn-Zn ferrite 1244
 power module - DCB substrate basic structure 240
 power module - DCB substrate thermal model 240
 power modules 104
 power modules isolated substrates 238
 power MOSFET 117
 power oscillations 979
 power out 800
 power outages 1044
 power output 538, 1039, 1085, 1130
 power output stage 587
 power package 104, 1199
 power per unit weight 1041
 power pulse 1217
 power pulse applications 1180
 power quality 639, 641, 642, 932, 982
 power rating 109, 283, 300, 369, 408, 1209, 1212, 1216-1218, 1225
 power rating equations 160
 power received 932
 power reconstitution conservation method 1396
 power regeneration 746
 power relays 1359, 1370
 power resistive loads 1357
 power resistor characteristics 1204
 power resistor construction 1205
 power resistor requirements 1218
 power resistor stability 1222
 power resistor thermal properties 1214
 power resistors 1203
 power resistors performance monogram 1221
 power resistors properties 1204
 power reversal 533, 894
 power semiconductor cooling 1119
 power semiconductor device 939
 power semiconductor devices parallel connection 361
 power semiconductor devices parallel operation 361
 power semiconductor devices series connection 361
 power semiconductor devices series operation 361
 power sent 932
 power source harmonic voltages 910
 power superposition 156
 power supplied 906
 power supply 1366
 power supply continuity 982
 power swings 952
 power switches 791, 799
 power switching 1390
 power switching applications 1373, 1393
 power switching cycles 1371
 power switching device 586, 246, 287
 power switching lifetime derating curves 1373
 power switching rating 1393

power switching relays 1369, 1371
 power switching semiconductor devices 71
 power switching transistors 76
 power system 1020
 power system stability 927
 power through put 755
 power thyristor 280
 power tools 1041
 power transfer 795, 804, 907, 927, 959, 978
 power transfer equation 940
 power transfer ratio 583
 power transformer 271, 920
 power transformer cores 1259
 power transistor 1256
 power transmission 957
 power transmission principles 932
 power transmitted 918, 958
 power transported 204
 power versus load angle 941
 power waveform analysis 146
 power wire-wound resistors 1207
 power/current requirements 1104
 power-flow conditions 952
 power-handling capabilities 361
 power-handling relay 1355
 power-in 778, 783, 792, 793, 811-816
 power-off 1172
 power-out 778, 783, 792, 793, 811-816
 p-p voltage ripple 822
 p-pulse controlled converter average load voltage 543
 p-pulse output voltage 531
 p-pulse rectifier 460
 p-pulse rectifier output 456
 P-Q 901
 P-Q compensation components 973
 P-Q diagram 920, 921
 P-Q locus 540
 p-q power components 937
 p-q power flow 935
 practical PV cell equivalent circuit 1038
 practical PV cell model 1038
 Prandtl number 219, 221
 pre trip resistance 399
 pre-arcing I^2t 381, 383, 391
 pre-arcing I^2t characteristics 381, 382, 390
 pre-arcing I^2t integral 380
 pre-calculated angles 598
 pre-charged 348
 pre-charged capacitors 1393
 pre-charging sequences 346
 precious metal 37, 1006
 precious metal mechanical contacts 1408
 precipitates 37
 precipitation hardenable stainless steels 1293
 precision temperature compensation 1228
 precision temperature control 1228
 precision temperature measurement 1228
 precursor 15
 predefined threshold 1095
 predeposition 5, 7
 predeposition diffusion 6
 predeposition dose 6
 prefabricated carrier 45
 preferred gate drive area 127
 preferred resistance value 364
 preferred value 310
 pre-ionization 412
 premature contact failure 1357
 pre-saturation stored energy 1257
 preset limit 417
 pre-settable start voltage 625
 pressed disc semiconductor 1227
 pressure build up 1171-1073
 pressure drop 171, 209, 210
 pressure figure 180
 pressure gradient 199
 pressure increase 180
 pressure loss 219, 220
 pressure relief safety valve 1049
 pressure relief valve 409, 1057
 pressure relief valve design 1049
 pressure rise 1072
 pressure sensitive 1198
 pressure swing adsorption 1009
 pressure versus airflow 183
 pressure waves 181
 pressure-sensitive vent hole 1087
 pressurised hydrogen 992
 pressurized battery 1087
 pressurized sealing vents 1066
 pressurized sulphur hexafluoride 1388
 pre-stabilized 1337
 primary and secondary cell summary 1099
 primary batteries 1036, 1099
 primary cell 1035, 1036, 1099
 primary circuit 1235
 primary crystalline damage 12
 primary current 463, 475-481, 862, 1235, 1264, 1266, 1270
 primary current harmonics 495, 554
 primary current rating 444
 primary dc resistance 1262
 primary electrical parameters 1235
 primary electrical sources 1035
 primary electrochemical cell 1036
 primary field energy 1281
 primary input power 1263
 primary leakage inductance 325
 primary line voltages 467
 primary load 1367
 primary neutral node 481
 primary overvoltage protection 378
 primary protection 376, 413
 primary protective devices 417
 primary protector 376, 417
 primary referred 822
 primary rms current 597, 864
 primary self inductance 1235, 1271
 primary side power factor 496
 primary side triplen currents 472
 primary sources 989, 1019, 1035
 primary storage 1036
 primary switch 827
 primary turns 1266, 1271
 primary voltage 332, 372, 863, 1264, 1266
 primary voltage-time 1266
 primary winding 324, 1235, 1264
 prime fuel internal energy 981
 prime fuel source 981
 priming 23
 principal anode current 129
 principal conductor 1281
 principal crystallographic axes 1302
 principal current 345
 principal fundamental current 939
 principal power flow 939
 prismatic case 1088
 prismatic lithium-polymer cell 1090
 probability of failure 1167
 processing times 1396
 product gases 1008
 product reliability 1373
 products 992, 1038
 products entropy 1017
 projection printers 26

projection printing 25, 26
 prolonged overloads 386
 prolonged storage 1077
 propagation delay time 1290
 propagation delays 268
 properties coolant 233
 properties of module materials 233, 234
 properties of power electronic components 234
 properties of substrate materials 233
 proportional voltage 1272
 proprietary emission coatings 411
 proprietary gas mixture 1389
 prospective fault 380
 prospective fault current 381
 prospective peak dc fault current 390
 prospective rms symmetrical fault current 386
 prospective short circuit current 390
 prospective short circuit fault current 391
 protected device voltage rating 591
 protecting diodes 287
 protecting electronic systems 375
 protecting equipment 375
 protecting thyristors 287
 protecting transistors 287
 protection 287, 361
 protection capability 414
 protection circuit 588, 1096
 protection circuit operation 399
 protection coordination 417
 protection degrees 1427
 protection device technology features 418
 protection diodes 1369
 protection elements 378, 984
 protection functions 983
 protection mechanism 418
 protection overview 375
 protection relay 984
 protection trips 625
 protective capacitors 1404
 protective circuit 1093
 protective circuit self-discharge 1093
 protective coatings 1318
 protective grounding 984
 protective high-resistance state 395
 protective measures 375
 protective moisture-resistant 1204
 protective shunt capacitor 1404
 protective switchgear 984
 proton conductor 997
 proton exchange membrane 999, 1000
 proton H⁺ cation conducting electrolyte 997
 proton irradiation 72
 protons 992, 997
 proximity effect 27, 1281, 1282
 proximity printing 25
 pseudocapacitors 1114
 PSG 21
 p-side 57, 71
 PT IGBT 91
 PTC 392
 PTC ceramic thermistor characteristics 398
 PTC device 392, 393
 PTC device application
 PTC device time-to-trip 396
 PTC element 401
 PTC hold and trip currents versus device temperature 395
 PTC material 1225
 PTC thermistor 376-378, 392, 396, 398, 402
 PTC thermistor terminology glossary 1448
 PTC thermistor volume 396
 PTFE fluorocarbon 1001
 PT-IGBT 89

p-type 1
 p-type absorber layer 1030
 p-type absorbing layer 1031
 p-type conductor 1048
 p-type materials 1023, 1118
 p-type region 58
 p-type silicon wafer 1033
 pu copper saving 1277
 pu volume energy 1346
 pulled 49
 pull-in temperature change dependence 1363
 pull-in voltage 1355
 pull-out torque 617
 pull-up resistor 268
 pulsating motor shaft torques 735
 pulse applications 1236
 pulse area 720
 pulse tripping 1380
 pulse capacitor discharge rates 1190
 pulse capacitors 1181
 pulse characteristic 1188
 pulse derating 386
 pulse discharge applications 1181
 pulse discharge operation 1181
 pulse discharged 1081
 pulse duration 152, 1218
 pulse energy 1217
 pulse energy rating 1366
 pulse forming networks 1182
 pulse number 427, 495, 497, 503, 552, 557, 558, 910
 pulse period 154
 pulse power ability 1203
 pulse rating 1187, 1212
 pulse rating capability 1177
 pulse repetition rate 491
 pulse response 147
 pulse slope 1188
 pulse test 1187
 pulse transformer 273-275, 1200
 pulse transformer drive circuit 275
 pulse tripping characteristics 1381
 pulse width 149,
 pulse width modulation 728, 736, 788, 924, 1368
 pulse-charging 1056
 pulsed discharge 1050
 pulsed layer deposition 18
 pulsed load 1081
 pulsed power resistor design 1218
 pulse-width control 714
 pulse-width modulation 647, 695, 919, 939
 pulsing currents 1109
 pump cavitation 217
 pump power 210
 pumping applications 627
 punched holes 379
 punch-through 96
 punch-through breakdown 590
 punch-through voltage 60, 67
 puncture resistant 1048
 pure dissipative element 1203
 pure hydrogen 1008, 1017
 pure inductive load 572
 pure magnetocrystalline anisotropy 1307
 pure silicon 48, 1027
 pure sinusoid 1208
 pure sinusoidal current 1208
 pure solid activity 1098
 purely inductive load 433 512, 514, 520, 573, 574, 580, 602,
 610, 611
 purely resistive 756
 purely resistive inductive load 514

purely resistive load 427, 472, 503, 512, 513, 519, 521, 535, 537, 600, 641, 975
 purge/tail gas 1009
 purification process 1001
 purifying silicon 46
 push-pull centre tapped transformer 352
 push-pull converter 352, 353, 827, 1259, 1265
 push-pull flux mode 826
 push-pull forward converter 827
 push-pull operation 1264
 push-pull smps transformer 1261
 PV ancillary system 1033
 PV cell 1023-1029, 1037-1042, 1046
 PV cell characteristics 1039, 1043
 PV cell efficiency 1031, 1040
 PV cell electrical circuit model 1038
 PV cell energy conversion efficiency 1040
 PV cell equivalent circuit 1037
 PV cell general characteristics 1033
 PV cell model 1037
 PV cell properties 1034
 PV cell reflectance 1040
 PV cell structures 1034
 PV cell surface area 1040
 PV cell technology 1048
 PV cell technology summary 1050
 PV devices 1034
 PV integration 1028
 PV market 1049
 PV materials 1024
 PV module 1028, 1042, 1046, 1047
 PV module characteristics 1043
 PV module temperature characteristics 1045
 PV storage 1047
 PV system 1046- 1049
 PV technologies 1034
 PVD 17
 PVD 3
p-wells 87
 pwl 181
 pwl junction diode model 62
 pwl model 61
 pwm average on-time 1263
 pwm boost three-phase rectifier 732
 pwm carrier components 975
 pwm controlled drivers 1368
 pwm controlled inverter fed ac machine 750
 pwm frequency 975
 pwm harmonics filter 751
 pwm inverter 959
 pwm mode 751
 pwm modulation depth 972
 pwm modulation index 965
 pwm regulation 1263
 pwm switching angles 598
 pwm technique 721, 725, 735, 736, 893
 pwm voltage source inverter 960
 pwm waveforms 724
 pwm-wave output 706
 pyrolysis 22, 1102, 1031
 pyrolytic reaction 9
 pyrophoric reversible metal hydride 1011

 quadratic expression 816
 quadratic model 81
 quadrature boost 958
 quadrature boost phase shift compensator 958
 quadrature boosting 958
 quadrature phase shift voltage 958
 quadrature voltage 964
 quadrivalve 896

 quadruple axial magnetic field contact 1400, 1401
 quadripolar 1401
 quality factor 758, 1164
 quantum dot photovoltaics 1034
 quantum dots 1033
 quantum efficiency 1040
 quarter wave symmetry 717, 718, 598, 722
 quartz 46
 quartz crucible 48
 quartz glassware 19
 quasi resonance process 871, 874
 quasi square-wave voltage 699
 quasi zero current switching 260
 quasi zero voltage switching 260
 quasi-rectangular 645
 quasi-resonant converters 849
 quasi-square output 727
 quasi-square output voltage 702
 quasi-square output voltage waveforms 712
 quasi-square three-phase output 727
 quasi-square vectors 728
 quasi-square voltage 729
 quasi-square waveform 715
 quasi-squarewave 703, 709
 quasi-squarewave multilevel output 698
 quasi-squarewave output voltage 714
 quasi-squarewave voltage 713
 quiescent state 1112

 radial centrifugal blowers 174
 radial distribution system 982
 radial fan 180, 187
 radial feeders 982
 radial heat flux 202
 radial magnetic field 1400, 1402
 radial magnetic force 1399, 1400
 radiated electromagnetic field coupling 419
 radiated electromagnetic fields 419
 radiated electromagnetic interference 287
 radiated emc 773, 913
 radiated interference 287
 radiated rfi 1246
 radiated switching 755
 radiating surface 1214
 radiation 133, 222, 419, 1036, 1049, 1396
 radiation energy incident 1024
 radiation heat loads 133
 radiation heat transfer 142, 168
 radiation heat transfer coefficient 136
 radiation resistant 1032
 radiation spectrum 1024
 radiator heat exchanger 210
 radio frequency interference 361, 582
 radio frequency infrared heating 16
 radio frequency 30
 Ragone plot 991
 rail voltage 29, 7302, 770
 rail voltage totem pole 270
 ramp voltage 1188
 ramped voltage 624
 Ramsdell notation 51
 random fire SSR 587
 random motion 1048
 random orientation 1299
 random pits 40
 random tack welding 1365, 1366
 random transients 403
 random turn-on 587
 random turn-on relay 592
 randomly oriented grains 1236
 randomly oriented moments 1299

rapid quenching 1309, 1310
 rare earth alloy 1302, 1308
 rare earth element 1300, 1304, 1306
 rare earth transitional metals 993
 rare earth-nickel batteries 1079
 rare earth magnets 1307
 rare earth ores 1307
 rastering 41
 rate of transfer 1228
 rated ac mains frequency 630
 rated ambient 1174
 rated capacitance 1163, 1164, 1186, 1189
 rated capacity 1041, 1060, 1067
 rated conditions 1175
 rated current 916, 1093, 1399
 rated dc load power 465
 rated dc power 895
 rated dissipation 1219, 1221, 1223
 rated electrical life factors 1365
 rated heatsink 1215
 rated heatsink area 1215
 rated life 1060
 rated lifetime 1200
 rated lightning impulse withstand voltage 1398
 rated load 617
 rated load current 1402
 rated loads 1359
 rated maximum current 1125, 1126
 rated motor current 624
 rated power 976, 1045, 1223
 rated power interruption 1369
 rated pulse slope 1187
 rated residual operating current 1384, 1386
 rated resistance 1207
 rated ripple current 1172
 rated saturation flux density 1261
 rated temperature 1173, 1200
 rated temperature range 1108
 rated terminal voltage 895
 rated torque/speed 629
 rated voltage 362, 1105, 1106, 1110, 1164-1172, 1197, 1200
 rate-of-temperature increase 1082, 1083
 Rayleigh's criterion 26
 RCCB features 1386
 RCCB sensitivity levels 1386
 R-C charging 1218
 R-C circuit 287
 R-C discharge 296, 1203
 R-C discharging 1218
 R-C network 1359
 R-C snubber 288 291, 325, 332, 333, 344, 337, 353, 421, 588, 592, 625, 752, 1369
 R-C snubber circuit 251, 288, 292
 R-C snubber circuit analysis 317
 R-C snubber circuit overshoot magnitude 291
 R-C snubber damping circuits 897
 R-C snubber design 287
 R-C snubber equivalent circuit 290
 R-C snubber recovery 332, 333
 R-C snubbing 251
 R-C switching aid circuit 288
 R-C time constant 294, 332, 1106, 1404
 R-C transmission line 1104
 R-C turn-off snubber 347
 R-C-D switching aid circuit analysis 318
 R-C-D turn-off snubber 352, 1203
 RCT 97, 260
 RCT circuit symbol 97
 RCT cross-sectional wafer view 97
 RCT doping profile 97
 R-C-D snubber circuit 297

 reactance midpoint 947
 reactant 993, 1038, 1039
 reactant gas 993
 reactant ions 996
 reactant weight 989
 reactants entropy 1017
 reaction energy change 1013
 reaction energy released 1013
 reaction enthalpy 1013
 reaction entropy change 1013
 reaction per mole of reactant 1013
 reaction sites 993
 reaction temperature 1013
 reactions limits 1114
 reactive chemicals 1041
 reactive circuit load 1371
 reactive dc link 959
 reactive energy 945
 reactive energy storage element 964
 reactive inductive loads 1369
 reactive ion etching 30, 31, 34, 42
 reactive ions 32
 reactive line losses 932
 reactive load applications 314
 reactive plasma 27
 reactive power 539, 633, 901, 902, 913-920, 927, 933-941, 945-949, 954
 reactive power 953-956, 959-980
 reactive power absorbed 624
 reactive power absorption 942
 reactive power compensation 895 921, 927, 928, 940, 959
 reactive power components 919
 reactive power consumed 919
 reactive power continuous absorption 920
 reactive power control 917, 921
 reactive power control loop 918
 reactive power definition 921
 reactive power equations 965
 reactive power exchange 917
 reactive power flow 919 922, 934, 960, 965, 971, 973, 975
 reactive power flowing 902
 reactive power generated 919
 reactive power independent control 920
 reactive power injection 920
 reactive power output 965
 reactive power phasor diagram 919
 reactive power shunt 939
 reactive sputter etching 31
 reactive storage components 939
 reactive stored energy 1371
 reactive VA 945
 reactive voltage magnitude 770
 reactivity 993
 readily heat dissipated 52
 ready state 1071
 reagent 15, 228
 real battery 1137
 real line losses 932
 real permeability components 1241
 real power 473, 571, 933, 957 960, 965-968, 973
 real power exchange 964
 real power flow 749, 934, 953, 954, 973
 real power output 465
 real power transfer 901, 973
 receiving bus 932, 974
 receiving end 973, 979
 receiving voltage magnitudes 941
 receptive state 992
 recharge efficiency 1063
 rechargeability 1068
 rechargeable batteries 1052
 rechargeable battery systems 1066

rechargeable cell 1071, 1099
 recharging chemical reaction 1070
 recirculating chiller 210
 recoil 1320, 1334
 recoil flux density 1321
 recoil line 1321, 1322, 1340, 1347
 recoil line slope 1321, 1335
 recoil magnetisation losses 1339
 recoil operation 1339
 recoil permeability 1316, 1336, 1345
 recoil relative permeability 1311, 1338, 1340
 recoil remanence 1346
 recoil slope 1339
 recombinant battery 1066
 recombination 1036, 1040
 recombination conditions 1065
 recombination cycle 1064
 recombination efficiency 1064
 recombination losses 1040
 recombination principle 1066
 recombination reaction 1057
 recombine 1
 recover 364
 recoverable loss 1338
 recovered energy 325
 recovery 1110
 recovery characteristics 886
 recovery charge 110
 recovery circuit 333, 339, 342, 343
 recovery into dc supply 324, 326, 332, 340, 345, 348
 recovery into dc supply 326, 331
 recovery into load 325, 328, 334, 338
 recovery into supply 338
 recovery processes 336
 recovery resistance 397
 recovery smps 346, 351
 recovery smps diodes 343
 recovery snubber circuits 353
 recovery technique 352
 recovery time 789
 recovery voltage 1404
 recrystallization rate 13
 rectangular composite power pulse decomposition 156
 rectangular composite pulse 152
 rectangular conductor self-inductance 1286
 rectangular core height 1272
 rectangular cross section ring 1272
 rectangular current blocks 897
 rectangular current pulses 160
 rectangular power pulses 146, 153
 rectangular pulse 408
 rectangular section conductors 1281
 rectangular substrate device 1122
 rectangular wave duty cycle 598
 rectangular wave bipolar output voltage 701
 rectangular wave carrier 598, 600
 rectification 164, 427, 503, 546-548, 640, 746
 rectification efficiency 493, 552
 rectification mode 894
 rectification mode converter operation 906
 rectification process 975
 rectification 975
 rectified 775
 rectified ac frequency 472
 rectified ac grid voltage 965
 rectified ac supply voltage 750
 rectified average load voltage 574
 rectified current mean value 431
 rectified output 552
 rectified output circuit 855
 rectified resonant current 863
 rectified sine supply 523
 rectified supply 445
 rectifier ac voltage 908
 rectifier ac voltage input circuits 831
 rectifier angle 916
 rectifier average load voltage 460
 rectifier bridge input rms voltage 461
 rectifier bridge rms voltage output 461
 rectifier characteristics - q phases 462
 rectifier characteristics 461
 rectifier circuit waveforms 455
 rectifier circuits overlap effects 548
 rectifier controller 908
 rectifier controlling current 909
 rectifier converter circuits 427
 rectifier current controller 908
 rectifier dc output voltages 907
 rectifier delay angle 907, 909, 914, 916
 rectifier diode 72, 448, 1367
 rectifier diode peak current 429
 rectifier end transformers 907
 rectifier feed 975
 rectifier grade thyristors 735
 rectifier maximum current 909
 rectifier minimum delay angle limit 908
 rectifier mode 900
 rectifier mode equations 901
 rectifier output 751
 rectifier output power 901, 906
 rectifier output voltage 901, 907, 914, 915
 rectifier side ac voltage 908
 rectifier stage 1393
 rectifier tap ratio 915
 rectifier voltage 915
 rectifiers 427, 503
 rectifying diode 435, 437, 442, 511, 854, 1265
 rectifying diode power loss 430
 rectifying diode rms current 439
 rectifying diode utilisation 465
 rectifying mode 904
 recycled 1036
 redox 28, 1037
 redox galvanic action 1037
 redox reactions 1037
 redox tolerance 1005
 reduced voltage electromechanical starters 619
 reduced voltage starter 619, 621
 reducible material 1074
 reducing agents strength 1038
 reducing conditions 993
 reducing electrode 1037
 reducing potentials 993
 reduction 46, 1036
 reduction chemistry 1037
 reduction-oxidation 1103
 reduction-oxidation reactions 28, 1114
 redundancy 367
 redundancy states 738
 redundant states 738, 739
 reed relay 1387, 1392
 reed switches 1391
 reference current 908
 reference current level 681
 reference frequency 1172, 1174
 reference point 1363
 reference temperature 389, 399, 1215, 1363
 reference zero 730
 referencing voltages 422
 referred impedance 1235
 reflectance losses 1040
 reflected primary on-state voltage 1269
 reflected primary voltage 1270
 reflection high-energy electron diffraction 11

reflectivity 11
 reflow soldering 166
 reformed fuel 1005
 reformer design 1009
 reforming capabilities 1171
 reforming conversion 1003
 refractory metal silicides 38
 refractory metals 38, 1387
 refractory silicides 34
 refrigeration cycles 1126
 regenerated into dc supply 646
 regenerating efficiency 667
 regeneration 506, 548, 662
 regeneration action 94
 regeneration mode 677
 regeneration transfer efficiency 668
 regenerative 540
 regenerative braking 667, 749
 regenerative braking energy 1112
 regenerative current 93
 regional load management 984
 regular sampling 722-725
 regular sampling asynchronous sinusoidal pulse-width-modulation 723, 724
 regulate load terminal voltage 959
 regulated dc power supplies 831
 regulated output voltage 787
 regulating compensator 960
 regulating transistor 775
 regulation 342
 regulation voltage droop 488, 490
 regulation voltage drop 491
 regulator devices 600
 regulator operating principle 582
 regulator output current 567
 regulator output voltage magnitude 957
 regulator start up 602
 relative core loss factor 1244
 relative dielectric constant 1162
 relative displacement 635
 relative humidity 1182
 relative magnetic permeability 1299
 relative permittivity 65, 234, 1194, 1198, 1283, 1300-1305, 1336, 1346, 1353
 relative recoil permeability 1321
 relative susceptibility 1301
 relative temperature coefficient 1248
 relay 983, 1355, 1369, 1373, 1402
 relay activation time reduction 1368
 relay armature 1362, 1390
 relay base ground 1394
 relay bounce 1388
 relay break 1369
 relay carry-only applications 1367
 relay close 1369
 relay coil 1365-1368
 relay coil current 1364
 relay coil inductance 1368
 relay coil thermal properties 1364
 relay coil voltage suppression techniques 1367
 relay coil voltage suppression 1369
 relay coil winding 1363
 relay connections 594
 relay construction 1395
 relay contact arc suppression protection 1369
 relay contact life expectancy 1369
 relay contact protection circuits 1370
 relay contact style 1394
 relay contacts 1355, 1356, 1364, 1365
 relay core 1362
 relay current waveforms 1360
 relay design 1363
 relay dropout dynamics 1366
 relay drop-out time 1367
 relay electrical parameters 1368
 relay endurance 1366
 relay failure mechanisms 1369
 relaying conversion 1368
 relay internal surface 1396
 relay life 1365, 1371, 1390
 relay load profiles 1372
 relay magnetic circuit 1365
 relay make 1369
 relay normally open contacts 1396
 relay open 1369
 relay operating speed 1369
 relay operation 1365
 relay operation mechanical requirements 1355
 relay parameters 1363, 1368
 relay performance 1360
 relay performance related definitions 1361
 relay pick up voltage 1364
 relay pick-up 1360
 relay pull-in 1368
 relay pull-through 1368
 relay ratings 1373
 relay reliability 1371
 relay switching performance 1362
 relay terminals 1393
 relay terminology glossary 1437
 relay timing characteristics 1369
 relay type 1368
 relay voltage transient suppression 1365
 relay voltage waveforms 1360
 relay wall deposition 1371
 relays false triggering 1228
 release characteristics 1361
 release time 1365, 1367
 release time coil temperature dependence 1362
 release times 1392
 release/reset time 1367
 released energy 433
 reliability 29, 133, 587, 1174
 reliability concepts 189
 reliable operation 1223
 reluctance factor 1326
 reluctance load circuit 1329
 remagnetisation 1317, 1329
 remagnetising 1342, 1337
 remaining charge 1137
 remanence 1243, 1257, 1266, 1303, 1317, 1343, 1346
 remanence flux density 1243, 1340-1343
 remanence fluxes 1345
 remanence loss 1243
 remanent 1321
 remanent flux density 1315, 1323, 1341
 remanent magnetization 1315, 1320-1322
 remedial techniques 421
 remnant polarization field 1190
 remnant polarization field magnitude 1190
 remote locations 402
 remote transducers 1099
 removal 3, 1114
 renewable bio-sources 993
 renewable energy sources 989, 1035
 renewable liquid fuels reforming 1008
 renewable source 1012
 repetition frequency 1189
 repetition rate 427, 503, 758, 1187, 1217-1220
 repetition time 1218
 repetitive current surges 592
 repetitive peak thyristor voltage rating 126
 repetitive power pulse applications 1223
 repetitive pulsed power resistor behaviour 1217

repetitive pulses 148, 1217
 repetitive pulses energy 1219
 repetitive surges 388
 repetitive switching 1358
 repetitive transient response 150
 repetitive transient suppression 1188
 repetitive voltage spikes 403
 repulsive effect 1299
 require thermo-mechanical robustness 43
 reset 332
 reset circuit 252
 reset components 348
 reset core flux 374
 reset inductor 353
 reset resistance 304, 310
 reset resistor 251, 299, 309, 334
 reset resistor power rating 300
 reset time 296, 1266, 1270
 reset time at turn-off 339
 reset voltage 1266, 1270
 resettable 376
 resettable ceramic fuse design 401
 resettable fuses 377, 392
 resettable fuses protection 392
 resettable NTC 1097
 resettable over-current polymeric PTC protector physics 393
 resettable over-current protection devices 393
 resettable terminal switch 1087
 residential PV system 1046
 residual break 1362
 residual capacitance 1208, 1212
 residual capacity 1060, 1062
 residual current 1383, 1384
 residual current circuit breaker 1382
 residual flux density 1315, 1321
 residual flux frozen 621
 residual inductance 1205, 1207, 1212, 1213, 1284
 residual induction 1315, 1320
 residual induction temperature dependence 1315
 residual loss 1243
 residual magnetism 1362
 residual stored energy 1114, 1116
 residual voltage 404
 residual wiring inductance 1287
 resin 23
 resin elastomer binders 1314
 resist exposure 24
 resist liquid 23
 resist pattern 24
 resist stripping 35
 resist swell 27
 resistance 2, 304, 309, 1205
 resistance accuracy 1225
 resistance anisotropic behaviour 1121
 resistance coefficients 1209
 resistance colour code 1205
 resistance drift 1222
 resistance film adhesion 1205
 resistance frequency dependence 399
 resistance hysteresis 397
 resistance matching 1133
 resistance per metre 1256, 1262
 resistance - preferred value 308
 resistance range 1207, 1225
 resistance stability 1214
 resistance temperature coefficient 392, 1203-1210, 1219-1226
 resistance tolerance 363, 364, 1204-1206, 1231
 resistance tolerance ageing out 1229
 resistance trim 1205
 resistance value 1204, 1206, 1208, 1223
 resistance variation 1222
 resistance variation sensitivity 1224
 resistance varying resistor 1225
 resistance versus temperature mode 1228
 resistance voltage coefficient 1209, 1211
 resistance voltage dependence 399
 resistance wire characteristics 1230
 resistance-temperature characteristic 395
 resistance-temperature curve 1209, 1226
 resistive balanced load 604
 resistive carbon film 1206
 resistive component 34, 1104-1207
 resistive dissipation 307
 resistive divider 1407
 resistive electrical loss 1040
 resistive electrically 1032
 resistive element 1204, 1207, 1209, 1217-1224
 resistive element conductivity fluctuation 1208
 resistive element diffusion 1208
 resistive element electrolysis 1208
 resistive element mass 1217
 resistive element oxidation 1208
 resistive element re-crystallisation corrosion 1208
 resistive element resistivity 1207
 resistive element specification 1203
 resistive element temperature dependence 1224
 resistive element type 1208
 resistive elements 1211
 resistive evaporation 18, 40
 resistive film 1205
 resistive film element 1204
 resistive heating 38, 1227
 resistive heating application 584
 resistive heating load 695
 resistive inductive reactance 952
 resistive layer 1204
 resistive line load 611 resistive load 156, 246-254, 273, 282, 428-440, 452, 458, 512, 513, 531, 537, 570, 571, 601-610, 713, 782, 795, 796, 803, 1042, 1395
 resistive load component 696
 resistive load fundamental 610
 resistive load resistive component 640
 resistive load switching losses 248
 resistive loads 587, 1372, 1393
 resistive losses 1401, 1402
 resistive materials 1206
 resistive parallel current sharing 369
 resistive switching 259
 resistive symmetrical load 608
 resistive voltage drop 932
 resistive voltage magnitude 770
 resistively loaded 806
 resistivities 1, 19, 22, 38, 39, 139, 1122, 1209, 1211, 1279, 1289, 1408
 resistivity property 1206
 resistivity range 1205
 resistivity temperature co-efficient 381, 1210
 resistor average current 450
 resistor average voltage 450
 resistor chemical composition 1209
 resistor coefficients 1209
 resistor construction 1204
 resistor continuous power rating 1213
 resistor convection 1214
 resistor current 764, 792, 1271
 resistor diffused 34
 resistor discharge path 296
 resistor divider 417
 resistor equivalent circuit model 1207
 resistor fabrication 34
 resistor flashover 1211
 resistor heatsink mounted derating 1216
 resistor heatsinking 1215
 resistor helical groove 1204

resistor high frequency characteristics 1208
 resistor high voltage applications 1211
 resistor imperfection 1208
 resistor inductance 296
 resistor initial current 300
 resistor internal inductance 302
 resistor ion-implanted 34
 resistor length middle 1214
 resistor load 447
 resistor load line 1222
 resistor loss calculation 304
 resistor losses 332, 333, 581
 resistor maximum loss 363
 resistor maximum working voltage per cm 1212
 resistor model 1214
 resistor nominal operating temperature range 1214
 resistor performance monograms 1221
 resistor physical construction 1203
 resistor physical size 1221
 resistor polysilicon 34
 resistor power dissipation 363
 resistor power loss 288, 363
 resistor power rating 294
 resistor preferred resistance values 1230
 resistor radiation 1214
 resistor reliability 1204
 resistor shelf-life stability 1222
 resistor stability resistor endurance 1221
 resistor surface temperature 1207, 1215
 resistor surge applications 1211
 resistor temperature rise 1214
 resistor terminations 1204, 1207
 resistor thermally derated 1220
 resistor thermal dissipation properties 1215
 resistor thermal properties 1204
 resistor thin-film 34
 resistor time constant versus power rating 1212
 resistor time constant versus resistance 1212
 resistor tolerance 1231
 resistor tree 1204
 resistor type size 1221
 resistor types 1204, 1220, 1229
 resistor uses 1229
 resistor voltage 443, 763, 768
 resistor voltage limits 1211
 resistor voltage rating 312
 resistor-capacitor network 333
 resistors 1203, 1217
 resistors parallel 361
 resolution 23-26, 29
 resonance 763, 770, 851
 resonance energy 338
 resonance frequency 854, 860
 resonance inductor 349
 resonance re-enforcement 764
 resonant ac current oscillation 850
 resonant action 870
 resonant angular frequency 758
 resonant bridge rms current 864
 resonant capacitor 764, 767, 854, 855, 861, 862, 882-885
 resonant capacitor current 882, 883
 resonant capacitor specification 769
 resonant capacitor voltage 864, 868
 resonant capacitor voltage 871-876
 resonant circuit 755, 763, 764, 767, 772, 878
 resonant circuit capacitor 864
 resonant circuit components 764
 resonant circuit diode 349
 resonant circuit excitation voltage 761
 resonant circuit inductance 768
 resonant circuit inductor 862
 resonant circuit inductor current 857

resonant circuit input impedance 765
 resonant circuit input impedance magnitude 765
 resonant circuit properties 764
 resonant circuit Q 863, 878
 resonant circuit resistor 764
 resonant circuit voltage 883
 resonant circuits frequency characteristics 757
 resonant circuits step response 757
 resonant converter circuits 759
 resonant converters 849
 resonant converters shortcomings 849
 resonant coupled-load configurations 861
 resonant current 229, 328, 332, 335, 861
 resonant current commutation 865
 resonant current reaches 336
 resonant current switch commutation 865
 resonant cycle 339, 871-873, 879
 resonant dc link and forced commutated converters 755
 resonant dc-ac inverters 755
 resonant effects 975
 resonant energy transfer current waveforms 229
 resonant energy transfer voltage waveforms 229
 resonant frequency 752, 756, 766-769, 773, 859-864, 1181-1183
 resonant inductor current 883-886
 resonant L-C circuit 849
 resonant link commutation 128
 resonant load 755, 756, 849
 resonant load arrangements 764
 resonant load converters 756
 resonant load single-phase inverters 756
 resonant mode 849
 resonant mode dc to ac inverters 755
 resonant period 335, 758, 884
 resonant recovery circuits 347
 resonant reset 340
 resonant sinusoidal current 861
 resonant switch buck, boost, and buck/boost converters 886
 resonant switch circuit configurations 865
 resonant switch forward converters 867
 resonant switches, full-wave circuits 865
 resonant switches, half-wave circuits 865
 resonant switching 246, 258, 260, 867
 resonant tank 861
 resonant transfer 325, 342
 resonant tunnelling 228
 resonant vibration modes 1114
 resonant voltage commutation 865
 resonant voltage switch commutation 865
 resonantly transferred 336
 resonant-switch dc-dc converters 755
 resonant-switch dc-dc step-down voltage converters 865
 resonant-switch dc-dc step-up voltage converters 882
 resonate 328, 332, 352
 resonating load current 773
 response behaviour 412
 response time 410, 913, 939
 rest position 1365, 1366
 rest time 1074
 restoring force 1391
 resultant dc mmf bias 485
 resultant magnetism 1300
 retainer tube 1047
 retainers 1048
 retarded armature motion 1367
 retarding spring force 1391
 retentivity 1321
 return paths 1293
 reversal 747, 748
 reverse applied field 1340
 reverse base current 116
 reverse bias 59, 63, 68, 71, 459, 518
 reverse bias current 61

reverse bias SOA 115
 reverse bias voltages 763
 reverse block 364
 reverse blocking diode 97, 250
 reverse blocking capability 260
 reverse blocking GCTs 750
 reverse blocking IGBTs 598, 600
 reverse blocking NPT IGBT 90
 reverse blocking properties 261
 reverse blocking voltage 325
 reverse breakdown 73
 reverse charging 342
 reverse conducting thyristor 97
 reverse current 111
 reverse direction 629, 819
 reverse domain 1307
 reverse field 1322, 1324, 1342
 reverse gate bias 129
 reverse gate current 129
 reverse gate-to-source biasing 272
 reverse leakage current 60, 126
 reverse load charge 1072
 reverse magnetic domains 1308
 reverse magnetic field 1243
 reverse magnetic field losses 1339
 reverse polarity 538
 reverse polarity protection 588
 reverse power flow 964
 reverse recovery 112, 158, 292, 361
 reverse recovery average power loss 158
 reverse recovery characteristics 109
 reverse recovery charge 110, 111, 364
 reverse recovery conditions 366
 reverse recovery current 365
 reverse recovery process 313
 reverse recovery time 111
 reverse recovery voltage 365
 reverse saturation current 1037
 reverse selenium rectifiers 404
 reverse steady-state leakage current 365
 reverse transfer capacitance 118
 reverse voltage 256, 260, 352, 442, 455, 760, 770, 1171
 reverse voltage bias 58
 reverse voltage blocking ability 893
 reverse voltage blocking requirements 760
 reverse voltage breakdown 59, 64, 73
 reverse-conducting thyristor 97
 reversed-biased rectifier diode 1366
 reversible change 1180, 1317
 reversible chemical reaction enthalpy 228
 reversible chemical reactions 228, 1078
 reversible converter 289, 747, 808, 810-813, 816, 817
 reversible converter circuit 808
 reversible converter output ripple voltage 749
 reversible converter output voltages 749
 reversible current 633
 reversible dc link converters 746
 reversible displacive reaction 1011
 reversible energy change 1347
 reversible energy source 989, 1035
 reversible ferroelectric Curie temperature mechanism 400
 reversible flux density 1338
 reversible flux lost 1338
 reversible forward converter 811
 reversible hydrogen storage capabilities 1011
 reversible loss 1317, 1337, 1343
 reversible loss component 1337
 reversible magnetic loss 1337
 reversible mechanism 1102
 reversible permeability 1240
 reversible phenomenon 1246
 reversible reaction 1036, 1309

reversible storage 1011
 reversible temperature coefficient 1307 1315, 1337-1341
 reversible temperature coefficient of coercivity 1339
 reversible temperature coefficient of induction 1339
 reversible temperature loss 1344
 reversible voltage 633
 reversible work 1016
 reversing 628
 reversing circuit 628, 629
 Reynolds's number 185, 220
 rfi 361
 rf applications 1392
 rf energy source 32
 rf induction 38
 rf reed relays 1392
 rf seal 1194
 rf sputtering 41
 rfi attenuation feed-through capacitors 1193
 rfi capacitance variation 1193
 rfi filters 1192
 rfi noise 419
 rfi radiation 421, 1199
 rfi suppression 1234, 1238
 ribbon growth 48
 ribbon like powdered material 1309
 ribbon silicon 49
 ribbon silicon process 47
 ride through capability 739
 ride-through 636
 ride-through capability 636
 RIE 30, 31, 42
 right hand rule 1272
 rigid bonded magnet materials 1312
 rigid coil lower measurement frequency range 1274
 rigid Rogowski coil 1274
 ringing choke converters 789
 ringing pulse discharge 1190
 ripple current 784-791, 804, 811-815, 436, 650, 651, 685, 718, 726, 777-780, 1074 1077, 1109, 1172, 1174, 1368
 ripple current magnitude 684
 ripple current rating 1173-1175
 ripple factor 427, 432 453, 456, 493 503, 520, 523, 552, 653-656, 689
 ripple free 447
 ripple output voltage 794
 ripple reduction 751
 ripple voltage 451, 490, 491, 505, 748, 780, 781, 787, 794, 830, 1056
 rise-time 1189
 rise-time minimum 1189
 R-L load + load emf 540
 R-L load 436, 445, 507-514, 523, 533, 645-652
 R-L load time constant 517
 R-L-C circuit 415, 788
 rms ac supply current 443
 rms ac supply voltage 430
 rms capacitor current 784
 rms common mode voltage 720
 rms current 433, 447, 499, 512, 516, 557
 rms current basis 1256
 rms current rating 771, 782
 rms current value 1256
 rms current variation 389
 rms diode current 454, 457, 538, 783
 rms fundamental component 599
 rms fundamental current 897
 rms fundamental line current 901
 rms input current 539, 578
 rms input line currents 457, 538
 rms input supply voltage 520
 rms line current 541, 951
 rms line voltage 550, 551

rms load current 257, 428, 432, 438-440, 443, 459, 460, 515, 520-528, 568-581, 613, 656, 696, 771
 rms load voltage 428-440, 453-460, 512-523, 575, 578, 611, 613, 649, 688-691
 rms load voltage per phase 602, 608, 609
 rms machine output current 667
 rms neutral current 605, 606
 rms output current 432 438 509, 571 578, 580, 582, 654, 662, 674
 rms output voltage 432, 438, 445-457, 467-483, 509-520, 524, 531-543, 554, 556, 568-585, 595-602 622, 653-656, 671, 679, 685, 699, 701, 715, 716, 770
 rms output voltage ripple 784
 rms phase voltage 550
 rms prospective fault current 380
 rms ripple current 783
 rms ripple current rating 1173
 rms ripple voltage 649, 655, 660, 673
 rms subharmonic component 584
 rms subharmonics 585
 rms supply current 575, 578, 642
 rms supply voltage 598, 600, 642
 rms thyristor current 519
 rms value 493, 696
 rms voltage 428, 495, 556, 567, 688
 rms voltage limits 1174
 rms voltage rating 442
 robust suppressor 410
 rod plate 1045, 1047
 rod plate electrode 1047
 rod plate structure 1048
 rods 49
 Rogowski coil 1271-1274
 Rogowski coil advantages 1272
 Rogowski coil construction 1273
 Rogowski coil current transformer 1275
 Rogowski coil current transformer types 1273
 Rogowski coil frequency response 1273
 Rogowski coil operating principle 1272
 ROM look-up table 718
 room temperature 22, 57, 166, 22, 391, 1056, 1097, 1098, 1226, 1297, 1300
 room temperature cooling applications 1122
 rotating angles 729
 rotating masses 628
 rotating poles 628
 rotating torque 616
 rotating vector 709, 727, 728, 744, 746
 rotating vector sequence 709
 rotating voltage space vector approached 745
 rotating voltage vector 729
 rotating water-cooled wheel 1309
 rotation 730
 rotation resistant 1302
 rotation speed 727
 rotational angle 730, 973
 rotational direction reversal 749
 rotational speed changes 191
 rotational system 627
 rotational velocity 180
 rotor-cast-aluminium conductors+short-circuiting end rings 616
 rotor assembly 616
 rotor bars 616, 628
 rotor current 616
 rotor residual flux 628
 rotor resistance 617
 rotor speed 616
 rotor standstill 628, 654
 rows of holes 380
 RTD 1228
 RTD element 1228

rubber hard magnetic material 1303
 rubber magnets 1314
 running contactor 619
 rust-like deterioration 1032
 ruthenium oxide 1114
 s/b 114, 117
 safe charging 1071
 safe limits 1095
 safe linear region 1341
 safe operating area 114, 247
 safe operating limits 375
 safe operating range 1112
 safe operation 1091
 safe pressure threshold 1093
 safety characteristics 1089
 safety grounded 1394
 safety issues 1047
 safety objective 750
 safety regulations 1405
 safety threshold 1093
 safety valve 1053, 1064
 safety vent 1071, 1075, 1081, 1171
 sags 959, 963
 salt solution 1011
 samarium cobalt alloys 1306
 samarium cobalt alloys second quadrant hysteresis loop 1307
 samarium cobalt magnets 1304
 samarium iron nitride alloys 1308
 samarium-cobalt type magnets 1308
 sampling and hold 724
 sampling point 724
 sampling time 723, 724
 sand 380
 sapphire 52
 saturable ferrite inductance 310
 saturable inductor 310, 312, 1250., 1256-1259, 1265, 1266
 saturable inductor design 1257, 1259
 saturable inductor design flowchart 1258
 saturable inductor iterative design flowchart 1257
 saturable inductor snubber 348
 saturable inductor turn-on snubber 312
 saturable reactor 312, 313, 897, 1197, 1233
 saturate 1272
 saturated core 1259
 saturated on-state 78
 saturated single crystal 1301
 saturated state 116
 saturated vapour 197
 saturating flux densities 1237
 saturation 275, 310, 312, 1253-1259, 1266, 1271, 1303, 1321
 saturation current 60
 saturation delay time 100
 saturation electron drift velocity 52
 saturation flux density 310, 1236, 1261
 saturation level 1310
 saturation magnetic flux densities 1237
 saturation magnetisation 1291, 1300-1302, 1308, 1307
 saturation polarisation 1301, 1302
 saturation region 84
 saturation temperature 216
 saturation time 116, 1256
 saturation velocity 82
 saw damage 1027
 saw-tooth ac voltage waveform 1189
 sawtooth carrier 724
 sawtooth power pulse 153
 sawtooth pulse trains 1188
 scalar durations 729
 scale growth 1006

scattered 11
 scattering 17
 Schmitt input gate 270
 Schmitt trigger 787
 schooped plating connections 1184
 schooping 1178
 schooping contact methods 1183
 Schottky 51
 Schottky barrier diode 74, 76, 111
 Schottky barrier diode structure 75
 Schottky barrier height 39, 74
 Schottky diode 74, 125, 819, 1263
 Schottky diode dynamic characteristics 111
 Schottky diode *I-V* characteristics 75
 Schottky diodes 1265
 scl 57, 59, 65, 66, 73, 77, 79, 111
 scl capacitance 64
 scl electric field 71
 scl penetration 68
 scl region 256
 scl width voltage dependence 66
 scooping connection inductance 1286
 scope probe ground 1200
 SCR 92, 117, 125, 291, 414, 417, 645
 SCR amplifying gate 96
 SCR anode ratings 125
 SCR anode turn-off 128
 SCR anode turn-on 127
 SCR break-over 590
 SCR cathode shorts 95
 SCR crowbar - over-current protection 417
 SCR crowbar - overvoltage protection 417
 SCR crowbar fuse link 417
 SCR devices 128
 SCR dynamic characteristics 127
 SCR firing angle - smoothly ramped-up motor voltage 622
 SCR firing angle 624
 SCR gate ratings 126
 SCR gate trigger requirements 127
 SCR heatsink assembly 629
 SCR holding current 127
 SCR initial di/dt 292
 SCR latching current 127
 SCR noise immunity 281
 SCR ratings 125
 SCR reverse blocking 96
 SCR section 117
 SCR solid-state switches 622
 SCR static *I-V* characteristics 94
 SCR turn-on 93
 SCR turn-on mechanism 590
 SCR-Diode 622
 screen mesh wick 199
 screen wicked heat pipes 203
 screening 420
 SCRs 361, 586, 625
 SCR-SCR 622
 sea level 183, 187
 sealed arc interruption 1405
 sealed batteries 1049
 sealed cell 1063, 1100
 sealed cell construction 1078
 sealed ceramic encapsulated dc relay 1391
 sealed chamber 1390
 sealed lead-acid battery 1053, 1081
 sealed lead-acid cell 1053
 sealed NiCd cell technology 1085
 sealed relay 1391
 sealed switching chamber 1394
 sealed terminology 1065
 sealed vacuum contacts 1405
 sealed vacuum interrupters 1399
 sealing material 1049
 seamless automatic power flow reversal 909
 seated position 1362
 second ac cycle half period 427
 second breakdown 79
 second harmonic current magnitude 445
 second order filter 921
 second order *L-C* 761
 second order *L-C* filter 764, 850, 976
 second order *L-C* low pass filtered 975
 second order temperature term co-efficient 1210
 second quadrant 645, 1315, 1323, 1324
 second quadrant *B-H* curve 1316, 1322
 second quadrant characteristics 646
 second quadrant demagnetising curve 1321
 second quadrant demagnetization 1343
 second quadrant hysteresis loop 1305, 1307
 secondary battery characteristics 1040
 secondary battery types 1036
 secondary cell 1087, 1088, 1099
 secondary circuit 824, 862, 1265
 secondary copper winding utilisation 854
 secondary current 467, 475, 480, 481, 864, 1235, 1264-1268, 1270
 secondary dc filter capacitor 864
 secondary dc resistance 1262
 secondary diameter 1262
 secondary electrical parameters 1235
 secondary electro-chemical cell 1036
 secondary energy sources 989, 1035
 secondary gas turbines 1003
 secondary harmonic currents 481
 secondary inductance 1235
 secondary inductor 863
 secondary level protection 376
 secondary line voltages 467
 secondary load circuit 863
 secondary neutral node 481
 secondary output voltage 824
 secondary overvoltage protection 378, 400
 secondary parameters 822, 824
 secondary phase currents 481
 secondary power requirement 1265
 secondary protection 376, 413
 secondary protector 417
 secondary quantities 825
 secondary reaction 1081
 secondary referred 822
 secondary resistance 1235
 secondary rms current 864
 secondary self inductances 1235
 secondary side 554
 secondary side power factor 496, 554
 secondary source 1035
 secondary storage batteries 1036
 secondary turns 912
 secondary voltage 863, 913, 1264, 1266-1270
 secondary winding 324, 442, 466, 827, 912, 1235, 1263
 secondary winding rms current 912
 secondary winding voltage 1269
 secondary-side third harmonics 472
 second-quadrant 678
 second-quadrant chopper 646, 664, 669
 second-quadrant chopper operational stages 663
 second-quadrant chopper output current modes 664
 second-quadrant DC chopper - continuous inductor current 667
 second-quadrant dc chopper 662
 second-quadrant dc-to-dc chopper 662
 second-quadrant operation 667
 sediment space 1047
 Seebeck coefficient 1117, 1118, 1121, 1123, 1130, 1131

Seebeck effect 1099, 1116, 1117
 Seebeck power generation 1117
 Seebeck voltage 1123
 Seebeck's coefficient 1121
 selected harmonic elimination 713, 717, 735
 selected harmonics 718
 selective coordination 1379
 selective harmonic elimination 598, 600
 selectivity 28, 29, 31
 selenium cells 409
 selenium crystalline structure 409
 selenium rectifier 409
 selenium suppressor 409, 410
 selenium suppressor cell plates 410
 selenization 1031
 self commutate thyristor converters 756
 self commutating FACTS devices 939, 959
 self commutation devices 959
 self healing properties 1178
 self heating 1227
 self heating non-linear drop 1227
 self heating non-linear rise 1227
 self inductance 289
 self resets 409
 self-aggregated molecular magnets 1292
 self-annealing 50, 1029
 self-capacitance 1259
 self-commutable devices 755
 self-commutable switches 949
 self-commutated inverter 749
 self-commutating devices 750
 self-commutating FACTS 939
 self-commutating FACTS devices 939
 self-commutating GCThyristor inverter 959
 self-commutating IGBT inverter 959
 self-commutating switch 645
 self-commutating thyristor devices 733
 self-commutating thyristors 733
 self-damage 403
 self-discharge 1052, 1053, 1056-1060, 1066, 1077, 1081, 1082, 1091, 1093, 1095, 1112, 1114
 self-discharge rate 1084, 1045, 1061
 self-discharge resistance 1138
 self-healing 1168
 self-healing characteristics 409, 1192
 self-healing mechanism 1178
 self-healing properties 1168, 1178
 self-heat 1228
 self-heated condition 1228
 self-heated temperature 393
 self-heating 393, 1164, 1225, 1228, 1364
 self-heating effects 1227
 self-inductance 306, 372, 1183, 1234
 self-inductance energy 822
 self-inflicted victim 419
 self-interstitials 13, 37
 self-regulating heaters 400
 self-regulating heating elements 1225
 self-resealing safety vents 1072
 self-resealing valve 1050
 self-resetting over-current protectors 1225
 self-resonant frequency 1163, 1183
 self-standing films 1103
 self-sustaining 414, 1270
 semi-conducting material 1026, 1034
 semiconducting polymer 1047
 semiconducting thermistors 1226
 semiconductor average current ratings 505, 506
 semiconductor breakdown 1365
 semiconductor dc circuit breaker 433
 semiconductor device characteristics 107
 semiconductor device ratings 107

semiconductor devices 342
 semiconductor fuse curves 630
 semi-conductor fuse link protection 379
 semi-conductor fuses 389, 630
 semiconductor *I-V* characteristics - clamping 413
 semiconductor *I-V* characteristics - fold-back devices 413
 semiconductor junction 224, 1099
 semiconductor losses 677
 semiconductor manufacturing 38
 semiconductor material 222, 1024-1027
 semiconductor physics junction diode model 64
 semiconductor power losses 133
 semiconductor structures 1025
 semiconductor switch turn-on snubber 1250
 semiconductor switched devices 939
 semiconductor switching 287
 semiconductor switching devices 1256
 semiconductor thermal rating 158
 semiconductor voltage ratings 977
 semiconductor, manganese oxide 1171
 semi-controlled converter 503, 531
 semi-controlled single-phase ac regulator 577
 semi-crystalline silicon 1033
 sending angle 940
 sending bus 934
 sending bus voltage 973
 sending converter line voltage 924
 sending end 933, 934
 sending end reactive power 953
 sending end voltage 955
 sending ends 979
 sending power factor 954
 sending reactive power component 932
 sending real power component 932
 sending voltage 956
 sending voltage magnitude 941, 957
 sense resistor 417
 sensible heat 228
 sensitive circuit bypass 1199
 sensitive circuit elements 403
 sensitive electrical load demand 982
 sensitive electronic devices protection 1405
 sensitive electronic elements 403
 sensitive infrastructure 982
 sensitivity 1273
 sensitizer 23
 separating strips 1027
 separation distance 420
 separator 1037, 1103
 separator dry spots 1070
 separator failure 1049
 separator/electrolyte membrane 1090
 separators 1048, 1065
 serial phases 330
 series ac circuit 763
 series access resistance 64
 series armature inductance 746
 series armature resistance 429, 441
 series blocking diode 733, 750, 868, 874
 series bridge connection 897
 series capacitance 1163
 series capacitor commutated high voltage dc transmission system 896
 series capacitor 948, 949, 952, 1103
 series cells 1104
 series circuit 762
 series circuit quality factor 757
 series circuit resonance frequency 757
 series circuit resonance frequency 851
 series circuit steady-state current 763, 851
 series circuit variations 764
 series coil model impedance 1244

series compensating transformer 958
series compensating voltage 962
series compensation 939, 940, 947, 955
series compensation principle 948
series compensation voltage 973
series compensator 939, 948, 949, 957, 960, 962, 978
series compensator modes 964
series component 376
series component reluctances 1336
series connected 343, 372, 405, 736, 740
series connected capacitance 951
series connected capacitors 486, 736, 1110
series connected commutating group 552
series connected device circuit 346
series connected device turn-on snubber circuit 347
series connected devices 345
series connected devices active energy recovery 348
series connected devices general active recovery concepts 350
series connected devices snubbers 344
series connected devices turn-off snubber 345
series connected diode 771
series connected inductors 1235
series connected L-C resonant load 756
series connected magnetic components 1336
series connected number of commutating groups 494
series connected protection 376
series connected PV cells 1042
series connected switches 333, 345
series connected switching device 1213
series connected switching elements 343
series connected vacuum interrupters 1398
series connection - fully-controlled, phase-shifted converter 540
series connection 361, 739, 1113, 1276
series connection of devices 737
series connection of diodes 737
series converter 854, 860, 861, 972
series coupled bipolar electrodes 1055
series coupling 979
series device 408
series device connection 363, 366
series devices 361
series diode 1269, 1367
series diode string shunting capacitance 365
series diodes 486
series diode-Zener 1368
series DVR 975
series DVR compensator 973
series equivalent circuit 1323
series equivalent components 1242
series equivalent resistance 1103
series FACTS devices 979
series filter 978
series filtering 975
series GCT connected inverter bridge legs 348
series half-wave voltage multipliers 487
series IGBT string with resistive shunting 362
series impedance 1235
series inductance 288, 354, 491, 782, 893, 944
series inductive snubber 421
series inductive turn-on snubber 297
series inductive voltage 947
series inductor 296, 334, 870
series inductor current 756
series inverter compensator 959
series inverters/converters 960
series L-C-R circuit 758
series L-C-R high Q resonance 761, 762
series L-C-R load circuit 761
series L-C-R resonant circuit 850
series line compensation 934
series line inductance 964, 975
series line resistance 964
series line transformer 958
series linear regulator power supplies 775
series load 459, 529, 1393
series load resonant converter 853, 855
series load single leg circuit 760
series loaded resonant dc-to-dc converters 850
series L-R circuit 380
series non-polarised R-C circuit 287
series operation 361
series phase angle compensation 957
series phase angle compensator 958
series phase compensator 957
series phase shifter 960
series plus parallel ac circuit 768
series primary and secondary coupled coils 1235
series protector 376
series R-C circuit 450, 1108
series R-C snubber 288
series reactance 947
series reactive compensation 973
series reactive control 955
series regulator 963
series resistance 306, 1042, 1104, 1110, 1186-1190, 1359
series resistance component 1037
series resistance requirement 1174
series resistor 1038, 1137, 1176
series resistor-capacitor snubber 1366
series resonant circuit 769, 854, 863
series resonant converter 852, 861
series resonant current 325
series resonant dc step-down voltage converter 863
series resonant inverter 765-767
series resonant L-C-R circuit 756
series resonant load 755,
series resonant tank 861
series resonant voltage source converter 760
series R-L circuit 1243
series semiconductor device operation 361
series semiconductor thyristor device 944
series stack 1110
series stack voltage distribution 1111
series static synchronous compensator 971
series static VAR compensator 949, 950
series string circuit 924
series switch diode 886
series switch inductance 260
series thermal fuse link 378
series thyristor controlled reactor 952, 954
series thyristors 949
series turn-on snubber 304
series versus parallel voltage multipliers 491
series voltage 939, 972
series voltage harmonic filtering inductance 965
series voltage magnitude 974
series voltage regulation 962
series-connected IGBT cells 917
series-parallel converters 861
series-parallel LCC resonant dc-to-dc converter 858
series-parallel LLC resonant dc-to-dc converter 860
series-parallel resonance 766
series-parallel resonant 767
series-parallel resonant converter 861
series-parallel resonant inverters 766
series-parallel resonant stage 859
series-parallel resonant voltage source converter 766
series-parallel-resonant voltage-source inverter 765
series-resonant voltage-source inverter - single inverter leg 760
series-resonant voltage-source inverter 760, 763
service costs 402

service life 109, 193, 1050, 1052, 1061, 1079, 1081, 1084, 1165, 1167
service lifetime 1048, 1174, 1175
service operating life 1167
service time 1167
setup voltage converter resonant switch circuits 888
setup/down voltage converter resonant switch circuits 889
seven-level, cascaded H-bridge inverter 741
sextants 730
SF-6 circuit breakers 1398
SF-6 dielectric 1388
SF-6 gas-filled relay 1371, 1373, 1396
SF-6 insulator 1388
shade mitigation 1045
shaded cell 1046
shaded string 1045
shader coil 1362
shader ring 1362
shading problems 1045
shaft encoder 626
shaft speed 617
shallow cycling 1075
shallow cycling regimes 1047
shallow discharge 1074
shallow junctions 40
shallow-cycle battery 1047
shape anisotropy 1305
shape effect 1281
shared thermal paths 1363
sharing capacitance 366
sharing factor 365
sharing network 1172
sharing resistance 1172
sharing resistors 363, 364
sharp edge break down 1406
SHE 713
SHE commutation angles 719
sheet resistance 2, 34
shelf life 1060, 1066
shell transformer 463
shield electromagnetic interference radiation 917
shielded equipment 1194
shielding 1262
shielding wall 1194
shift compensator terminal current
shift compensator terminal voltage 957
shock hazard curves 1385
shock tolerance 1368
short arcs 1370
short channels 81
short circuit 380, 403, 411, 415, 913, 960, 1039, 1041, 1192, 1266
short circuit analysis 984
short circuit at turn-on 124
short circuit conditions 1040, 1074, 1089
short circuit current 384, 1039-1042, 1059, 1060, 1074, 1271
short circuit discrimination 1380
short circuit during on-period 125
short circuit fault 907, 909
short circuit fault current 386
short circuit fault time constant 391
short circuit impedance 1278
short circuit mechanism 415
short circuit output current 1038, 1044
short circuit protection 630
short circuit ratio 496-499, 895
short circuit turn 1199
short circuiting 1106
short circuits 1175
short contact gaps 1369
short effective core path length 1266
short gate pulse period 574
short power interruptions 1112
short pulse power demands 1107
short pulse width rating 409
short pulse widths 410
short time ratings 1217
short travel 1402
short winding 911
short-circuit and the open-circuit conditions 766
short-circuit conditions 630, 1282
short-circuit configurations 1188
short-circuit current 1041, 1043, 1278
short-circuit current behaviour 1400
short-circuit current drops 1044
short-circuit current operation 1401
short-circuit current range 1402
short-circuit input phase voltages 633
short-circuit photocurrent 1041
short-circuit reaction characteristics 412
short-circuit voltage 921
short-circuited 631
short-circuited output 767
short-term overloads 1217
shunt active filter 968
shunt capacitance 354, 1404
shunt capacitive turn-off snubber 297
shunt capacitor 760, 895, 948, 965
shunt capacitor banks 927
shunt compensating current 968, 969
shunt compensating network 967
shunt compensation 917, 940, 947
shunt compensator 939-941, 957-964 967, 970, 974, 979
shunt compensator bandwidth 975
shunt compensator sources current 966
shunt components 932
shunt conductance 1289
shunt connected protection 376
shunt converter 967, 972
shunt current 939, 970
shunt device 376
shunt electrical over-voltage protection 418
shunt excitation transformer 958
shunt FACTS devices 979
shunt filtering 975
shunt inductor 965
shunt injection 975
shunt inverter compensator 959
shunt inverters/converters 960
shunt linear regulator power supplies 775
shunt phase angle controlled TSC 944
shunt power factor controller 968
shunt reactance voltage 966
shunt reactive power compensation 940
shunt regulator 966-969
shunt regulator voltage 968
shunt resistance component 1037
shunt resistor 1038, 1275
shunt static synchronous compensator 971
shunt static VAR compensator 942, 945
shunt surge current 376
shunt susceptance 942
shunt switch 1403
shunt TCR 950
shunt thyristor controlled reactor 946
shunt voltage 934, 967
shunt voltage control mechanisms 376
shunt voltage magnitude 973
shunt voltage regulation 965
shut down 350, 351, 505, 580
shut-off 180
SI units 1419
SIC 105
sichrome 34
SIDAC 414-416

SIDAC electrical characteristics 416
 SIDAC I-V curve 416
 side chains 1000
 sideband component magnitudes 730
 side-band components 708
 sidebands 724, 725
 signal ground 1200
 signal level 1194, 1199
 signal transformer 271
 silane 22
 silica gel coated 1206
 silent operation 587, 1019
 silica 19, 46
 silica gel 1066
 silica glass 19
 silicide formation 38
 silicides 22, 41
 silicon atom 1023
 silicon based temperature sensors 1228
 silicon carbide 51, 61, 404, 405
 silicon carbide matrix 1002
 silicon carbide Schottky diodes 76
 silicon carbide Schottky freewheel 254
 Silicon carbide varistor 409
 silicon carbon 1036
 silicon cell 1026
 silicon crystallinity 1034
 silicon die 378
 silicon die area 411
 silicon dioxide 19
 silicon dioxide dielectric layer 265
 silicon electrodes 1028
 silicon grain orientated steels 960
 silicon ingot 1026
 silicon iron 1236
 silicon lattice 37
 silicon material parameters 1505
 silicon metallurgical-grade 47
 silicon multi-crystalline 50
 silicon photovoltaic cells 1033
 silicon poly-crystalline 50
 silicon p-type 1026
 silicon purifying 46
 silicon purity 1034
 silicon PV cell physics 1023
 silicon ribbon tubular shaped 1029
 silicon semiconductive component material 1226
 silicon solar cell 1041
 silicon steel 1238, 1245
 silicon steel laminated transformer cores 977
 silicon structural physics 1023
 silicon substrate 19, 42, 1033
 silicon thyristor device for alternating current 414, 415
 silicon transient suppressor diode 1366
 silicon wafer 46
 silicon wafer fabrication technology 377
 silicon-based PV devices 1032
 silicon-controlled rectifier 92
 silicone elastomer 138
 silicone grease 136
 silicon-iron components 1293
 Silistor 1226
 silver alloy contacts 1356
 silver band 379
 silver coated mica plates 1197
 silver crystal growth 1229
 silver electrodes 1197
 silver mica capacitor 1198
 silver migration 1229
 silver oxide battery 1135
 silver under-layment 1357
 simultaneous conduction 712, 734

simultaneous control 746, 748
 simultaneous converter control 748
 simultaneous discontinuous inductor conduction 814
 simultaneously strain 1040
 sine curve 957
 sine terms 728
 sine wave 723
 sine wave magnitude 720
 sine wave voltage 1262
 single ac source 582
 single airflow 184
 single cell battery 1094
 single coil sweeping arm 1278
 single crystal 49
 single crystal silicon 47, 48, 1025
 single domain particles 1309
 single domain size 1307
 single edge modulation 724, 730
 single enamel copper wire 1264
 single ended capacitive turn-off snubber energy recovery 327
 single ended inductive turn-on snubber energy recovery 323
 single ended resistive dumping circuit 351
 single ended snubber circuit energy recovery 334
 single ended switching circuit 354
 single energy pulse 1219
 single fully bidirectional switches 959
 single heat energy source 166
 single inductor recovery circuit 343
 single inverter leg 761-767
 single junction 1034
 single junction cell 1037
 single junction PV cells 1026
 single magnetic domain 1301
 single molecule magnets 1292
 single opto-isolated output 1112
 single phase 1311
 single-phase ac chopper regulator 600
 single phase ac rectifier supplies 427
 single phase ac supplies 503
 single phase rectifier 452
 single plate, construction 1194
 single pole double throw relay 1390
 single pole HV vacuum contactors 1404
 single power pulse 149
 single power pulse capability 147
 single pulse 152-155
 single reactor TCR compensator 943
 single rectangular power pulse 149
 single secondary transformer winding 827
 single section former 1264
 single semiconductor material 1034
 single silicon 1026
 single solar cell efficiency 1025
 single surge 413
 single switch inverter 772
 single throw 1355
 single transistor isolated converter 826
 single trigger pulse 608
 single vertical stack 896
 single winding 1234, 1265
 single winding electrical transformer 1275
 single-crystal cells 1030
 single-crystal layers 1033
 single-crystal silicon 1023, 1025
 single-crystal silicon cells 1028
 single-crystal structure 48
 single-crystal substrate 1033
 single-crystal thin-film 1032
 single-crystalline silicon 1026
 single-crystalline silicon cells 1032
 single-crystalline thin films 1026

single-ended IGBT transistor switching circuit 323
 single-ended passive snubber energy recovery concepts 354
 single-ended, grounded-load, dc chopper 645
 single-ending series connected switch 347
 single-junction PV cell 1032, 1034
 single-layer cross-sectional cylindrical inductors 1282
 single-layer cylindrical inductance 1282
 single-layer cylindrical inductor 1282
 single-layer inductor 1282
 single-leg half-bridge - series L-C-R load 769
 single-leg half-bridge 761-764, 767, 771
 single-leg half-bridge circuit 769
 single-phase 441, 531, 755
 single-phase ac 683
 single-phase ac chopper regulator - commutable switches 598
 single-phase ac load 631
 single-phase ac regulator - ac back emf composite load 581
 single-phase ac regulator - integral cycle control 582
 single-phase ac regulator - line commutated 582
 single-phase ac regulator
 - phase control with line commutation 567
 single-phase ac regulator - pure inductive load 579
 single-phase ac regulator 567, 577, 579
 single-phase bridge 714, 720
 single-phase bridge rectifier circuit 452
 single-phase circuit 454, 507
 single-phase compensators 959
 single-phase controlled thyristor converter circuits 511
 single-phase cooling loop 193
 single-phase current source inverter 732, 733
 single-phase cycloconverter ac regulator 630
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier - inductive load 448
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - C-filter + resistive load 448
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - C-filter + resistive load 450
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - output L-C filter 444
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - resistive and back emf load 440
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - resistive load 440
 single-phase full-wave diode bridge circuits 442
 single-phase full-wave half-controlled converter 504
 single-phase full-wave load 440
 single-phase full-wave rectifier bridge 443, 449
 single-phase full-wave rectifiers 441
 single-phase full-wave symmetrical thyristor ac regulator - R-L load 568
 single-phase full-wave thyristor ac regulator - inductor load 573
 single-phase full-wave uncontrolled rectifier circuits 446
 single-phase half-bridge inverter 705
 single-phase half-controlled converter 517
 single-phase half-wave controlled converter 511
 single-phase half-wave converter characteristics 432
 single-phase half-wave diode rectifying circuit - R-L load 430
 single-phase half-wave load 427
 single-phase half-wave rectifier - resistive load 435
 single-phase half-wave rectifier 434
 single-phase half-wave rectifier circuit - R-L load 430
 single-phase half-wave rectifier waveforms 435
 single-phase half-wave rectifiers 428
 single-phase H-bridge 701, 740
 single-phase inverter bridge 978
 single-phase load-resonant converter 756
 single-phase motor 639
 single-phase output 695
 single-phase resistive load 499
 single-phase system 1281

single-phase tap changer 595
 single-phase thyristor ac regulator 567
 single-phase topologies 960
 single-phase toroidal core mmf imbalance 466
 single-phase transformer connection - full-wave rectification 467
 single-phase transformer core 464
 single-phase transformer tap-changer - line commutated 595
 single-phase transformer winding arrangement 464
 single-phase transformers 960
 single-phase two-pulse half-wave rectifier 462
 single-phase uncontrolled converter circuits 427
 single-phase UPS 750
 single-phase voltage-source inverter bridge 695
 single-phase zig-zag transformer core 466
 single-phase zig-zag transformer winding 466
 single-phase controlled converter - continuous conduction + back emf 528
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - R-L load 442
 single-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - R-L-E load 445
 single-phase full-wave controlled rectifier circuit - R-L load 518
 single-phase full-wave half-controlled circuit - R-L load 504
 single-phase full-wave half-wave rectifier output stage 444
 single-phase, full-wave converter voltage drop 548
 single-phase full-wave diode rectifier 447, 450
 single-phase full-wave, fully-controlled circuit - R-L + emf load 523
 single-phase full-wave half-controlled 505
 single-phase full-wave half-controlled circuit - R-L + emf load 507
 single-phase half-wave controlled circuit - R-L load 511
 single-phase half-wave controlled rectifier 515
 single-phase half-wave half-controlled 517, 518
 single-phase two-pulse ac input to single-phase ac output circuit 631
 single-pole arrangements 1400
 single-pole double-throw diaphragm relay 1391
 single-pulse modulation technique 717
 single-pulse width modulation 713-715
 single-switch converters 826
 single-switch single-inductor converters 806
 single-switch, current source, series resonant inverter 772
 single-switch, current-source series resonant converter waveforms 772
 single-wafer capsules 913
 sink energy 989, 1035
 sinking current 1112
 sintered ceramic ferrite magnet second quadrant hysteresis loop demagnetization characteristics 1312
 sintered compounds 1225
 sintered construction 1176
 sintered fully dense material 1312
 sintered hard magnetic material 1305
 sintered magnet 1305, 1323
 sintered metal oxide 1227
 sintered metal powders 1011
 sintered NdFeB permanent magnets processing route 1309
 sintered neodymium-iron-boron magnets second quadrant hysteresis 1310
 sintered permanent magnets 1308
 sintered powder wick 199, 200
 sintered tantalum powder 1169
 sintered zinc oxide 405
 sintered zinc oxide grains 405
 sintering 1306
 sintering temperature 39
 sinusoidal ac supply input currents 751
 sinusoidal current 578, 731, 976, 1273
 sinusoidal excitation 1239

sinusoidal flux 1234
 sinusoidal frequency waveform 1046
 sinusoidal input phase frequency 635
 sinusoidal input phase voltages 635
 sinusoidal input voltage 436
 sinusoidal like wave shapes 849
 sinusoidal modulation 724
 sinusoidal output line to line frequency 635
 sinusoidal output line to line voltages 635
 sinusoidal output voltage 755
 sinusoidal pulse trains 1188
 sinusoidal pulse width modulation 713, 720
 sinusoidal pwm 636, 722, 922
 sinusoidal pwm techniques 744
 sinusoidal resonance 879
 sinusoidal segments 601
 sinusoidal sine-wave reference 723
 sinusoidal single-phase ac supply voltages 640
 sinusoidal source 642
 sinusoidal supply 584, 598, 600
 sinusoidal supply voltage 639
 sinusoidal three-phase ac supply voltages 640
 sinusoidal voltage component 600
 sinusoidal voltage waveform 1046
 six bridge devices 535
 six current blocks 899
 six hexagon states 713
 six inverter switches 726
 six pulse converter 900
 six pulse valve group configuration 896
 six pulses per cycle 531
 six quasi-square output vectors 728
 six states 727
 six switching combinations 741
 six-phase half-wave 496
 six-pulse bridge circuits 910
 six-pulse converter 539, 540, 906
 six-pulse converter based hvdc transmission 913
 six-pulse cycloconverter 631
 six-pulse line-frequency fully-controlled thyristor converter 897
 six-pulse rectification process 476
 six-step quasi-square fixed magnitude voltage output 727
 six-step quasi-square output voltage waveform 746
 six-switch, three-phase pwm generation 720
 six-wire connection 625
 size 418
 skeleton cemented diamond 166
 skin depth 1181, 1281, 1289
 skin effect 388, 420, 1184, 1190, 1208 1246, 1281-1285 1289
 skin effect neutralisation 1282
 skived fins 170
 slack variable 729
 sleeve-bearing fan 190, 192
 sliding pressure 1356
 slip 616
 slip speed 617
 slot utilisation 1265
 slow charge 1056, 1071
 slow recharging 1060
 slow-to-release 1361
 slurry 49
 small conduction angles 277
 small grains 1311
 small signal wise 764
 small signals coupling 1392
 small signals transmission 1392
 smoothing filter 751
 smoothing grain boundary phase 1306
 smoothing inductor 897
 smoothness factor 493
 smps 323, 326, 340, 346-353, 775
 smps diode losses 340
 smps diode stresses 340
 smps diodes series connected 349
 smps inductor 346, 351
 smps recovery circuitry 347
 smps switch losses 340
 smps switch stresses 340
 smps technique 800
 smps transfer function mapping 828
 snap action 379
 snap-off 111
 sneak currents 379
 snubber 287, 308, 773
 snubber action 314, 330
 snubber at switch turn-off 336
 snubber capacitance 291, 297, 299
 snubber capacitor 297 299, 314, 330-337, 346, 352
 snubber capacitor discharge 302, 313, 315
 snubber capacitor discharge current 251
 snubber capacitor energy 288, 331, 334, 338
 snubber capacitor stored energy 332, 333
 snubber capacitor voltage 328, 331-333, 337, 338
 snubber circuit - unified 313
 snubber circuit 260, 289, 296, 298
 snubber circuit active energy recovery 348
 snubber circuit analysis 291
 snubber circuit damping factor 318
 snubber circuit energy recovery 334
 snubber circuit *RC* time constant 300
 snubber circuit resistance 300
 snubber circuit resistor 300
 snubber current 317
 snubber diode 332, 335
 snubber discharge 292, 330
 snubber energy 326
 snubber energy recovery 351, 354
 snubber energy recovery circuit 333, 355, 356
 snubber energy recovery intermediate energy transfer phase waveforms 229
 snubber energy recovery turn-on snubber 326
 snubber function 1219
 snubber inductance 305, 308
 snubber inductor 314
 snubber inductor stored energy 308
 snubber loss components 299
 snubber losses 327, 901
 snubber maximum *dv/dt* versus *L-C-R* damping factor 290
 snubber peak current versus *L-C-R* damping factor 290
 snubber peak voltage versus *L-C-R* damping factor 290
 snubber *R-C* voltage 317
 snubber recovery 337
 snubber reset 314, 337
 snubber reset periods 342
 snubber reset time 340
 snubber resistance 291
 snubber resistor losses 291, 298
 snubber resistor power losses 251
 snubbers 300, 404
 SOA 114, 117, 247, 296, 300
 SOA bounds 247
 SOA trajectory 296, 311
 SoC 1071, 1072
 soft bake 24
 soft baking 23
 soft clamp 251, 338
 soft contact materials 1387
 soft ferri-magnetic materials 1237
 soft ferrite general technical data 1279
 soft ferrites 1237
 soft ferro-magnetic materials 1237
 soft iron 1345

soft iron pole pieces 1347
 soft magnetic alloys 1293
 soft magnetic applications 1311
 soft magnetic body 1317
 soft magnetic components 1293
 soft magnetic crystal grains 1236
 soft magnetic material 1321, 1327, 1233, 1234, 1302 1336
 soft recovery 111
 soft snubbing 339
 soft start three-phase induction motors 600
 soft starter current feedback control 626
 soft starter voltage feedback control 626
 soft starters 622
 soft switched converters 849
 soft switching 258, 260
 soft voltage clamp 292, 293, 307, 340
 soft voltage clamp design 293
 soft voltage polarised clamp 293
 softening voltage 1370
 soft-start three-phase ac caged induction motors 616
 soft-starter application 625
 soft-starter control 625
 soft-starter rating 629
 soft-starters 630
 soft-stop 627
 soft-switched 636
 soft-switching waveforms 260
 solar cell 1023, 1027, 1099
 solar electric generation 1048
 solar electric terminology glossary 1459
 solar insolation 1045
 solar module encapsulation 1028
 solar power 1391
 solar radiation 1035, 1037
 solder 138
 solder joint 1223
 solder joint melting 379
 solder joint melts 1223
 soldering 166
 soldering spot temperature 1215
 solder-pellet-melting based switch 379
 solenoid 594
 solenoid cores 1293
 solenoid quality 1293
 solid aluminium capacitors 1175
 solid capacitors 1169, 1171
 solid carbon 993
 solid carbon ceramic resistive elements 1210
 solid carbon ceramic resistor 1214
 solid carbon ceramic resistor coefficients 1213
 solid carbon ceramic resistor construction 1205
 solid carbon ceramic resistor power rating 1219
 solid carbon ceramic resistors 1211
 solid carbon ceramic rods 1213
 solid carbon ceramic type resistors 1209
 solid ceramic carbon 1206
 solid ceramic material 1004
 solid construction 1206
 solid copper spreader 226
 solid electrolyte 999, 1085, 1162
 solid electrolyte interface 1087
 solid lithium-salt electrolytes 1087
 solid metal oxide dielectric capacitor 1169
 solid organic polymer electrolyte membrane 1000
 solid oxide capacitors 1169, 1171, 1175
 solid oxide electrolyser 1008
 solid oxide fuel cell 999, 1003
 solid plastic toroidal coil 1274
 solid resistive elements 1213
 solid resistor 1204
 solid semiconductor metal oxide 1169
 solid state cooling 222

solid tantalum 1177
 solid tantalum capacitor 12011174-1176
 solid tantalum capacitors rms voltage limits 1174
 solid to liquid phase change 229
 solid wire 1246
 solidification 1028
 solid-phase epitaxy 13
 solid-state 222
 solid-state ac switches 622
 solid-state cooling - superlattice cooling 174
 solid-state cooling - heterostructure cooling 174
 solid-state cooling - thermotunnelling cooling 174
 solid-state cooling - thermionic cooling 174
 solid-state cooling - thermoelectric 174
 solid-state cooling - Peltier devices 174
 solid-state cooling 174
 solid-state device 192, 1116, 1371
 solid-state electrochemical device 991
 solid-state heat pumps 1119
 solid-state relay 567586590-595
 solid-state relay functional stages 588
 solid-state relay heatsink requirements 593
 solid-state relay internal protection 592
 solid-state relay overvoltage fault modes 590
 solid-state relay power elements 589
 solid-state relay turn-on 593
 solid-state relay voltage 595
 solid-state relays 587, 589, 595
 solid-state relays response time 587
 solid-state semiconductors 586
 solid-state soft starters 616, 622, 624, 625
 solid-state soft starters characteristics 624
 solid-state soft-starter arrangements 624
 solid-state switches 622
 solubility 37
 soluble complex 35
 solvent 23, 1037
 sonic agitation 36
 sonic limit 202
 sonic speed 202
 sound power level 181
 sound pressure level 181, 185
 sound pressure level characteristics 181
 source 79
 source acoustic power 181
 source charging voltage 1188
 source commutation 645
 source controlled current 732
 source current 434, 968
 source current waveform 696, 699
 source emitter 419
 source energy 989, 1035
 source energy extraction efficiency 985
 source impedance 413, 419, 420, 647, 662, 897, 901, 913, 1200, 1394
 source inductance 546, 1284
 source inverter 760
 source line voltage 944
 source peak to peak voltage 1188
 source reactance 544
 source reference 948
 source transformer 486
 source voltage 438, 731, 963, 966, 967
 sourcing-sinking mode 967
 space applications 1036
 space charge depletion layer 1023
 space charge layer 57
 space heating 993
 space vector modulation 744, 745
 space voltage modulation 634
 spacing adopted 1282
 spark arresting valve 1050

spark effect 413
 spark gap 1369
 sparking 1181
 spark-over 411
 spark-over voltage 411, 412
 sparse layer 1002
 spatial voltage vector 727
 spatial voltage vector injection 727
 spatial voltage vector waveform 727
 spdt contacts 1405
 special function power resistors 1222
 specialised resistors 1229
 species 995
 specific capacitor type 1201
 specific capacity 1086
 specific charge terminations 1080
 specific conductivity 1121
 specific energy 990, 1041
 specific energy density 1043, 1069, 1078
 specific gravity 1048, 1052, 1062
 specific heat 135, 182, 210-215, 221, 232, 233, 392, 1122, 1217, 1279
 specific heat capacity 134, 234, 1217, 1230
 specific power 1012, 1041
 specific power density 1085
 specific resistance 1176
 specific thermal conductivity 234
 specific weight 1050
 specified intermittent conditions 1171
 specified temperature 1109, 1223
 spectra components 725
 spectral comparison 708
 spectrum 720
 speed 646
 speed controller 278
 speed controller circuit calculations 279
 speed controller performance 279
 speed half-life subtraction factor 190
 speed limit 190
 spheres in air 1406
 spike energy 249, 375
 spikes 959
 spin casting 24
 spin coating 23
 spin crossover compounds 1292
 spinel-based lithium-ion cell 1089
 spinels 1001, 1002
 spinning electrons precess 1299
 spin-on glass materials 36
 spin-orbit coupling 1302
 spiral contacts 1399-1402
 spiral cylindrical shape 1087
 spiral cylindrically wound electrodes 1088
 spiral electrodes 1401
 spiral radial magnetic field contact 1402
 spiral radial magnetic force contact 1402
 spiral wound construction 1088
 spiral wound cylindrical cell 1087
 SPL A weighting 181
 splattering 1359
 split capacitor voltage rail 342
 split dc link centre voltage node 731
 split dc rail 854
 split dc rail push-pull smps 1263
 split resonant capacitance 764
 split rail dc output voltages 452
 spluttering 18, 40
 spluttering time 1206
 spluttering type technology 1206
 spongy lead 1064
 spontaneous forward direction reaction 1097
 spontaneous magnetisation 1301

spontaneous reaction 1014, 1015
 spontaneous reverse direction reaction 1097
 spot-welded terminals 1225
 spray coatings 1318
 spray cooling 193, 217, 218
 spray pyrolysis 1031
 spreading resistance 173
 spring deflect 1355
 spring force 1355, 1356
 spring tension-loaded thermal fuse type mechanism 412
 spring-loaded armature 1389
 sputter deposition 38, 39
 sputter etching 30, 32, 36
 sputtered hard metal 1391
 sputtering 31, 38-42, 1031
 square *B-H* curve 1253
 square hysteresis loop 1311
 square law reduced start torque 627
 square plate fed 1006
 square power pulse 1218
 square substrate device 1122
 square wave 487, 703, 711, 718, 767, 771, 852
 square-wave current waveform 959
 square-wave drive voltage 850
 square-wave excitation 767
 square-wave input voltage 761, 764
 square-wave output 696
 square-wave output current 732
 square-wave voltage 850, 1262
 square-wave voltage waveform 959
 squirrel-cage induction motors 1278
 SSR input control stage - ac 589
 SSR input control stage - dc 589
 SSR operation principle 588
 SSR package substrate ceramic insulator 589
 SSR requirements 591
 stabilisation process 1342
 stability 1006
 stability enhancement 959
 stability lines 1222
 stability performance monogram 1221
 stability period
 stability problems 735
 stabilized magnet 1337
 stabilized operation 1345
 stabilizers 959
 stable firing point 277
 stable iron oxide 1311
 stable leakage current 1388
 stable low-pressure area 180
 stable performance 277
 stack design 996, 1006
 stack fabrication 1005
 stack faults 51
 stack furnace 13
 stacked block construction 1178
 stacked cells 1036
 stacked cores 1268
 stacked toroids 1242
 stacking faults 37
 Staebler-Wronski effect 50
 stage capacitance 488, 490
 stagnant liquid 216
 stainless steel 212, 1292
 stainless steels hardened martensitic grades 1292
 stainless steels magnetic behaviour 1292
 standard capacitors 1102
 standard carrier based sinusoidal pwm 728
 standard cell potentials 1098
 standard conditions 1037
 standard conditions 1041
 standard copper wire tables 1262

standard current transformer 1272
 standard deviation 12, 13
 standard electrochemical potential 1097
 standard electrode potentials 1037, 1038
 standard enthalpy of formation 1015
 standard Gibbs free energy 1097
 standard potential 1017, 1041
 standard pressure 1039
 standard PWM 726
 standard state 1097, 1098
 standard tables 998, 1001
 standard temperature 1045
 Standard Test Conditions 1040, 1043
 standard thermocouples 1118
 standard voltage 1097
 standard voltage ratings 384
 standard wire tables 1256, 1264
 standby 347, 1057
 standby application 1047, 1066
 standby current 409
 standby impedance 376
 standby inverters 750
 standby life 1047
 standby mode 960, 983, 1075, 1222
 standby operation 1073
 standby periods 347
 standby power dissipated 407
 standby power dissipation 407
 stand-off high voltage 1391
 stand-off reed relays 1392
 stand-off voltage 1388, 1393
 standstill 617
 standstill-reactance 619
 star connected 494
 star connected primary 471, 473, 478, 481, 482, 898
 star connected secondary 452
 star primary 481
 star primary winding 467
 star secondary winding 467
 star winding 462
 star-connected loads 611
 star-delta load equivalence 606
 star-delta starter 621, 624
 star-delta, phase-shifting, transformer 924
 star-load three-phase ac regulator - untapped neutral 613
 star-star and star-delta connected converter transformers 903
 start contactor 619
 start current 629
 start pulse 1270
 start time 188, 629
 start voltage 627
 start voltage profile 625, 626
 start/stop frequency 629
 starter rating 629
 starting motors 619
 starting temperature 135
 starting time 625, 627
 starting torque 624
 start-up 271, 346-351, 580
 start-up current inrush 863
 start-up currents 386
 start-up mechanism 346
 start-up pulse 386
 start-up sequence 349
 start-up systems 1278
 star-type load 709
 starved condition 1072
 STATCOM 895, 959, 964
 STATCOM - SVC comparison 970
 STATCOM operating principles 965
 STATCOM output 975

state of charge dependency 1061
 state of over discharge 1081
 state-of-charge 1052, 1062, 1077, 1084, 1112, 1138
 static and current imbalance 346
 static characteristics 127
 static compensator 946
 static current balancing 369, 374
 static efficiency equation 186
 static electrical device characteristics 368
 static forward *I-V* characteristics 112
 static hysteresis loss 1243
 static *I-V* diode characteristics 109
 static linear diode model 62
 static on-state resistance 374
 static phase shift compensator 940
 static pressure 183
 static reactive power compensation 940
 static resistance 371, 410
 static reverse characteristics 61
 static reverse *I-V* characteristics 112
 static SCR *I-V* on-state characteristics 368
 static semiconductor inverter circuit 755
 static series phase angle reactive power compensation 955
 static series phase angle reactive power shift SPS 955
 static series reactive power compensation 947
 static series VAR compensator 940
 static series voltage compensation 963
 static shunt reactive power compensation 940
 static switching electrical appliance 645
 static synchronous compensator 895, 959-961, 975
 static synchronous series compensator 960, 971, 975
 static synchronous shunt compensator 964, 975, 971
 static VAR compensation 940
 static VAR compensator 917, 932, 940, 942, 945
 static VAR generator 959
 static voltage balancing 363, 346
 static voltage sharing 345
 static voltage sharing resistors 897
 static/total pressure 186
 stationary applications 1066
 stationary auxiliary power units 999
 stationary cells 1058
 stationary power applications 1020
 stationary power-generation systems 1002
 stationary stator torque field 627
 stator rotating magnetic field 616
 stator winding circulating dc current 628
 steady state conditions 859
 steady state junction temperature operation 150
 steady state load conditions 875
 steady state minimum dc-voltage level limit 920
 steady state power dissipation 1214
 steady state thermal resistance 150
 steady-state 364, 433, 788, 851
 steady-state ac network voltage 920
 steady-state boundary condition 690
 steady-state coil temperature 1364
 steady-state condition 260, 907
 steady-state conduction loss 158
 steady-state constant current characteristic 907
 steady-state current 367, 761, 771
 steady-state cycle 813
 steady-state equilibrium condition 392
 steady-state frequency 932
 steady-state load conditions 697
 steady-state load current 437
 steady-state load current conditions 702
 steady-state loss 160
 steady-state mean power delivered 696
 steady-state power 1012
 steady-state power dissipation 409, 1363
 steady-state power flow 927

steady-state response 146
 steady-state sharing 369, 371
 steady-state sharing network 367
 steady-state standby losses 405
 steady-state successive inductor current absolute maxima 768
 steady-state thermal operating conditions 1364
 steady-state time domain analysis of first-quadrant chopper 653
 steady-state voltage balance 348
 steady-state voltage control 978
 steady-state voltage magnitude 932
 steady-state voltage rating 407
 steady-state voltage sharing 361, 1172
 steady-state voltage sharing circuit 367
 steam cogeneration 1002
 steam methane reforming 1009
 steam pre-reforming 1005
 steam reformer burner 1009
 steam reforming 1005, 1009
 steam reforming process 1009
 steatite tube 1207
 steel 420, 1236
 steel high permeability pole piece 1325
 steel laminated ac mains voltage transformer 1233
 steel laminations 1236
 steel permeability 1325
 steel pole pieces 1325, 1326, 1331
 steel prismatic case 1088
 Stefan-Boltzmann constant 133
 Stefan-Boltzmann law 143
 Steinhart-Hart parameters 1226
 Steinhart-Hart third-order approximation equation 1226
 Steinmetz equation 1245
 stencil layer 33
 step coverage 15, 39
 step down autotransformer pu copper saving 1277
 step input 291
 step input current 758
 step input voltage 317, 756, 761
 step junction 57, 64
 step load current 755
 step load voltage 755
 step up autotransformer pu copper saving 1277
 step voltage source charging 1107
 step voltage source discharging 1107
 step-differential charge 1083
 step-down autotransformer 1277
 step-down converter 646, 776, 782
 step-down converter normalised performance monogram 843
 step-down forward converter 782
 step-down output voltage 1276
 step-down reversible converter 811
 step-down transformer impedance matching 779, 801
 step-down voltage 467
 stepped sine wave 724
 stepper 36
 step-up autotransformer 1277
 step-up chopper 646
 step-up converter normalised performance monogram 844
 step-up flyback converter 795, 796
 step-up flyback isolated converter 820
 step-up transformer 793, 822
 step-up voltage 792, 1276
 step-up voltage flyback converter 790
 step-up voltage ratio 663
 step-up/down converter normalised performance monogram 845
 step-up/step-down voltage flyback converter 790
 stiffen output ac voltage 733
 still air 397
 stop button 627
 stop charge condition 1112
 stop charge signal 1112
 stopping methods 627
 storable energy 1011
 storage 1095
 storage capacitor 326
 storage capacity 1081
 storage cell comparison 1113
 storage current 129
 storage densities 990
 storage life 1060, 1090
 storage methods 1035
 storage self-discharge 1060
 storage shelf life 1077
 storage temperatures 1095
 storage time 129
 store electrical energy 1162
 store energy electro-statically 1102
 stored chemical energy 1035
 stored electrical energy 1249
 stored energy - air gap 1250
 stored energy 229, 298, 312, 313, 334, 346, 366, 433, 756, 759, 776, 790, 820-827, 1035, 1047, 1090, 1172, 1192, 1234, 1249-1254, 1266, 1303, 1346, 1348, 1372, 1373
 stored energy release 346
 stored inductive load energy 602
 stored inductor energy 305, 348
 stored load energy 250
 stored magnetic energy 1235, 1249
 stored potential energy 1345
 stored thermal energy 1227
 stored thermal energy change 1227
 stove igniter 416
 straight conductor carrying current 1271
 straight line plot 512
 straight load lines 1328
 straight wire inductance 1284
 strand diameter 1246
 stray capacitance 921, 1199
 stray capacitance minimisation 1199
 stray capacitances to ground 921
 stray circuit inductance 287
 stray inductance 256, 288-296, 734, 1393
 stray inductance minimisation 1284
 stress anisotropy 1302
 stress arresting functions 354
 stress conditions 1173
 stress conversion factors 1176
 stress factors 1176
 stress reduction 354
 stresses 37
 strip C cores 1236
 strip conductors 1282
 stripping 3
 stripping dry 35
 stripping organic 35
 stripping wet inorganic 35
 strobes 416
 strong magnetic field 1300, 1303
 strong system 895
 strongest diamagnetic elements 1299
 structural stability 993
 structural uniformity 50
 sub-cooled boiling 193
 sub-cooling 216
 sub-harmonics 582-584, 722
 sublimes 51
 submarine cable 925
 subsea cables 893
 substation installation 896

substrate 8, 238
 substrate adhesion 1033
 substrate characteristics 235
 substrate materials properties 233
 substrate properties 232
 substrate structural features 51
 sub-synchronous frequencies 952
 sub-synchronous oscillations 952
 subtractive connection 1277
 subtractive external electro-magnetic fields 1281
 sub-zero temperatures 590
 successive inductor current absolute maxima 767
 successive operational cycles 767
 successive switching operations 1359
 sulphate crystals 1052
 sulphation 1051-1057
 sulphonated organic hydrocarbon polymer membrane 1001
 sulphonic acid groups 1000
 sulphur hexafluoride 1388
 sulphur hexafluoride ionization 1388
 sulphur species 999
 sun 1041
 sun's intensity 1047
 sun-facing 1040
 sunlight 50, 1025, 1026
 sunlight ageing 1049
 sunlight concentration 1041
 sunlight energy photon 1033
 sunlight intensity 1039
 sunlight photon energy 1023
 sunlight spectrum 1040
 sunlight spectrum of sunlight 1024
 sunlight-to-electricity conversion efficiency 1026
 sunny day 1047
 suns concentration 1035
 sun's spectrum 1034
 super capacitor 990, 1011, 1113, 1035
 supercapacitor capacitance frequency dependence 1107
 supercapacitor capacitance temperature dependence 1107
 supercapacitor cell performance characteristic profiles 1108
 supercapacitor cells 1105
 supercapacitor charge-voltage 1113
 supercapacitor constant current discharge 1108
 supercapacitor constant power discharge 1108
 super-capacitor features 1113
 supercapacitor internal resistance frequency dependence 1107
 supercapacitor internal resistance temperature dependence 1107
 supercapacitor lifetime 1110
 supercapacitor parameter variation 1109
 supercapacitor properties 1112
 supercapacitor technology 1103
 supercapacitor thermal dissipation 1108
 supercapacitor voltage balancing circuit 1111
 supercapacitors 989, 1102
 superconductors 1299
 supercooling 228
 superheated steam 1002
 superimposed ac field 1240
 superimposed ac harmonics 427
 superimposed alternating current 1172
 superimposed dc current 1250
 superimposed dc field 1251
 superimposed triplen mmf 473
 superlattice 227
 superlattice cooling 227
 superposition 640
 supersaturated oxygen 37
 superstrates 1030
 supplementary output 806
 supply ac current 456
 supply apparent power 457, 540, 570, 642
 supply centre tapped 1263
 supply connection - delta 554
 supply connection - star 554
 supply crest factor 641
 supply current 435 437, 505, 511, 527, 567, 571, 639, 642, 695, 755, 798, 975
 supply current distortion 570
 supply current distortion factor 577, 641
 supply current Fourier coefficients 640
 supply current power factor 639
 supply currents 532
 supply cycle 517
 supply discontinuation 982
 supply displacement factor 550, 583
 supply distortion factor 640
 supply electrons 1037
 supply energy recovery 354
 supply frequency 511, 532, 600, 633, 944
 supply frequency component 440
 supply frequency fluctuation 981
 supply fundamental apparent power 539
 supply fundamental harmonic factor 641
 supply harmonics 582
 supply input power 864
 supply instantaneous voltage 507, 514
 supply line currents 482
 supply mid point 741
 supply neutral 750
 supply peak ac currents 445
 supply polarity 527
 supply power delivered 430, 540, 642
 supply power factor 429-440, 442, 447-460, 463-467, 472-476, 481-483, 506, 513-516, 521-523, 540, 541, 569, 571, 578, 583, 640
 supply rail 1199
 supply rail voltage 331
 supply reactance voltage drop 549
 supply reactive power 940
 supply rms current 438, 445, 456
 supply rms maximum 579
 supply side power factor 497
 supply sinusoidal input current 750
 supply system swells 375
 supply tolerance 366
 supply total rms harmonic factor 641
 supply voltage 296, 381, 451, 458, 505, 601, 640, 731, 773, 808, 870, 877, 1256
 supply waveforms 504, 505, 640
 support reverse bias 364
 suppress partial discharges 1191
 suppress relay coil voltages 1365
 suppressed carrier 725
 suppression 1365
 suppression circuit 1366
 suppression diodes 1369
 suppression frequency 1238
 suppression technique 1367
 suppressor 1366
 suppressor dynamic impact 1365
 surface area 172, 994, 995, 1000, 1011 1040, 1045, 1102, 1162, 1184, 1214, 1263, 1402
 surface area-to-volume ratio 14
 surface charge distribution 1302
 surface coatings 1006
 surface concentration 7, 13
 surface condition correction factors 1407
 surface current density 1281
 surface damage 49
 surface dissipation factor 1260
 surface dust particles 1406
 surface emissivity 236

surface insulating oxide layer 1236
 surface leakage paths 1179
 surface mount resistive devices 1204
 surface property 235
 surface reaction limited 22
 surface square-based pyramids 1027
 surface temperature 219, 1207
 surface tension 49, 198, 200, 201, 207, 220
 surface texture 235
 surface water particles 1406
 surface-to-liquid temperature difference 215
 surge abilities 415
 surge arrester 411
 surge arrester dynamic characteristics - dv/dt response 412
 surge arrester dynamic characteristics - fusing time 412
 surge arrester dynamic characteristics 412
 surge conditions 411
 surge current 377, 386, 400, 411, 413, 1393
 surge current capability 400, 590
 surge damage minimization 375
 surge damage prevention 375
 surge energy 376
 surge energy rating 1206
 surge frequencies 417
 surge ionizing effect 413
 surge performance 415
 surge protection 928
 surge voltage capability 400
 surge voltage protector 1369
 surge voltage rating 1110
 surge voltage suppression 411
 surge voltages 377
 surrounding environment 1228
 surrounding environmental temperature 1225
 surrounding heat 228
 surrounding temperature 395
 susceptibility 419, 1300, 1353
 susceptible victim 419
 sustained arcs 1361
 sustained overvoltage 1110
 SVM control 731
 sw band 1194
 swaged fins 170
 swelling 25, 40
 swelling/contraction cycle 27
 swells 959, 963
 switch anti-parallel diode 887-889
 switch average current 777, 791, 799, 881
 switch bridge leg configurations 314
 switch capacitors 895
 switch characteristics 258
 switch collector current 331
 switch collector voltage 324
 switch combinations 742
 switch conduction interval 877
 switch conducts continuously 651
 switch configurations 260, 261
 switch connection matrix 633
 switch consideration 246
 switch current 1256
 switch current 259, 308, 334, 782, 886
 switch current fall period 338
 switch di/dt 334, 849
 switch duty cycle 353, 646, 773, 822, 824
 switch dv/dt 849
 switch energy dissipated 319
 switch gate 351
 switch $I-V$ ratings 778, 792
 switch losses 255, 298-305, 312, 743, 813
 switch matrix 635
 switch maximum instantaneous current 777, 799
 switch maximum instantaneous voltage 777, 799
 switch mean current 824
 switch minimum off time 342, 293, 294, 325
 switch minimum on time 342, 345
 switch mode power supply 1199, 1287
 switch mode power supply application 1256
 switch modulation sequence 314
 switch off-period 650-653, 663-674, 689, 790, 797, 821, 824, 872
 switch on-period 650, 653, 663-668
 switch on-state 797
 switch on-state duty cycle 649, 650, 663, 665, 667, 805, 811
 switch on-state full-load current magnitude 1257
 switch on-state period 659, 780, 794, 810
 switch on-time 674, 782, 790-797, 810, 815
 switch operating frequency 678
 switch operation 297, 1359
 switch overlap 756
 switch power loss 259
 switch resonant inductor 877
 switch reverse voltage block capability 867
 switch rms current 777, 791, 799
 switch states 687, 743, 763, 851
 switch temperature 399
 switch timing 761
 switch transient voltage protection 1366
 switch turn-off 254, 303, 306, 330, 336, 338, 354
 switch turn-off cycle 338
 switch turn-off losses 303
 switch turn-off stressing 367
 switch turn-off waveforms 297, 298
 switch turn-on 254, 297, 298, 328-338, 354
 switch turn-on loss 293, 309, 313, 353, 1256
 switch turn-on stress 1256
 switch turn-on voltage fall time 1256
 switch un-aided turn-off losses 302
 switch un-aided turn-on losses 308
 switch under lap 756
 switch utilisation 854
 switch utilisation ratio 777, 782, 791, 799, 816, 817
 switch voltage 259, 302, 310, 351, 662, 665, 782, 791, 865, 884
 switch voltage fall time 334
 switch voltage level 739
 switch voltage rating 324
 switch voltage waveforms 251
 switch wear 1365
 switch wear problems 1365
 switched capacitor banks 959
 switched cold 1393
 switched devices 940
 switched dry 1392
 switched filters 927
 switched hot 1393
 switched inductive loads 1404
 switched mode converter 695
 switched mode converters passive energy recovery circuits 359
 switched mode full-bridge inverters 767
 switched-mode power supply 323, 326, 489, 775, 1162, 1197
 switched reluctance machine drives 680
 switched reluctance motor drive 677
 switched-off period 157
 switches 403
 switchgear 1403
 switching 258
 switching ac circuit loads 1373
 switching aid circuit 287, 288
 switching angles 599
 switching application 777, 799, 1389
 switching area trajectory 1197
 switching capabilities 1389
 switching circuit 588
 switching classification 258
 switching currents 1259

switching cycle 680, 785
 switching device dv/dt 741
 switching devices 246, 367, 376, 741, 939
 switching dry circuit loads 1370
 switching elements 622, 1366
 switching frequencies 886
 switching frequency 600, 1218, 1259, 1369
 switching frequency 156, 162, 293, 650-659, 668, 681, 683, 717, 730, 736, 766-773, 779-788, 793-795, 801, 802, 810-821, 849, 854, 870-881 917, 920-927, 939, 960,
 switching frequency components 598
 switching instances 769
 switching interval 156
 switching life 1365
 switching loss 927
 switching loss for non-linear transitions 249
 switching losses 161, 162, 260, 282, 287, 296, 636, 725, 729, 773
 switching network 1404
 switching pattern 729
 switching performance 260
 switching period 150, 658, 668, 678, 777, 784, 788, 809, 811
 switching point variables 598
 switching regulator 775
 switching resistance 416
 switching sequence 676, 768
 switching spark gaps 412
 switching speed 272
 switching states 730
 switching time 258, 1369
 switching transients 1404
 switching transistor 775
 switching transition loss 156
 switching transition period 246
 switching transition power loss 156
 switching transitions 255, 1200
 switching type thermistors 1225
 switching voltage performance - clamping 413
 switching voltage performance - fold-back devices 413
 switching waveforms 247, 687
 switching-aid circuits 296, 297, 323
 switch-mode power supplies 1259
 switch-off energy losses 298
 switch-off time 248
 switch-on loss for a resistive load 247
 switch-on power 396
 switch-on time 248, 780, 801, 810
 symbols 1411
 symmetric toroidal uniform coil of wire 1272
 symmetrical bidirectional designs 415
 symmetrical bipolar discontinuous load current 582
 symmetrical blocking thyristor devices 893, 896
 symmetrical crowbar behaviour 414
 symmetrical currents 419
 symmetrical delay angles 567
 symmetrical field 1281
 symmetrical firing 902
 symmetrical firing power locus 902
 symmetrical gate pulses 575, 580
 symmetrical half cycles 942
 symmetrical H-bridge 763, 768
 symmetrical H-bridge conducting devices 761
 symmetrical $I-V$ characteristics 404
 symmetrical modulation 723, 725, 730
 symmetrical output 610, 622
 symmetrical square-wave output cycle 854
 symmetrical star load 613
 symmetrical triggered 978
 symmetrical voltage blocking IGCT thyristors 949
 synchronised conditions 981
 synchronised rectification 819
 synchronised zero crossing 755
 synchronization 983
 synchronous 343, 720
 synchronous alternator 981
 synchronous carrier 720
 synchronous condenser 895
 synchronous mosfet rectifier 1045
 synchronous selective harmonic elimination 960
 synchronous speed 616, 617, 627
 syngas 1009
 synthesis gas 1009
 synthesized gas 1009
 synthetic hydrocarbon 194
 synthetic jet cooling 192
 synthetic jets 192
 system contingencies 979
 system control strategies 931
 system disturbances 927
 system downtime 403
 system efficiency 622, 1003
 system failure 1366
 system flow 183
 system impedance 932
 system lifetime 616
 system midpoint voltage 944
 system model 222, 965, 1128
 system model hvdc 906
 system operation self restoration 917
 system oscillation damping 931
 system power locus 540
 system reactive energy 945
 system reliability 931
 system resistance curve 183
 system resonances 939
 system short circuit ratio 895
 system shutdown 191
 system stability 931, 979, 980
 system stabilization 952
 system start-up 346
 system static pressure loss 183
 system strength 895
 system survival 1167
 system technology challenges 1020
 system transfer admittance 956
 system uptime 402
 system voltage 383, 978
 system voltage matching 959
 tacho-generator 626
 tack welding 1365, 1366
 tail current 297
 tail-gas 1009
 $\tan \delta$ 1164, 1183, 1244
 tank circuit 759
 tank circuit stored energy 759
 tank load circuit 756
 tantalum capacitors 1169, 1171, 1176
 tantalum capacitors lifetime 1176
 tap changer 908, 920, 958
 tap changing 959
 tap changing converter 597
 tape automated bonding 44, 45
 taper control 36
 tapped transformer 595
 TCR compensation 943
 TCSC advantages 952
 TE coolers 1121, 1126
 TE cooling design 1128
 TE semiconductor materials 1121
 TEC 222-227
 TEC characteristics 225

TEC cooling models 1127
 TEC module 1124
 TEC performance characteristic 223
 TEC performance curves 1129
 TEC requirements 227
 TEC thermal resistance model 223
 TEG 222
 telephone-type relays 1358
 temperature 1047
 temperature change 1119, 1228
 temperature coefficient 61, 162, 385, 398, 406, 1038, 1176-1183, 1196, 1206-1209, 1214, 1223-1231, 1337, 1248, 1305-1312, 1363
 temperature coefficient of expansion 234
 temperature coefficient of resistance 395
 temperature coefficient ranges 1210
 temperature coefficient resistor 1194, 1207
 temperature compensation factor 1076
 temperature conditions 1197
 temperature constant 1300
 temperature cyclic capacitance drift 1179
 temperature cycling 1229
 temperature demagnetisation 1341
 temperature dependant 756, 1056, 1117, 1365
 temperature dependant anisotropy 1302
 temperature dependant capacitance co-efficient 1168
 temperature dependant knee 1315
 temperature dependant operating point 1343
 temperature dependant relationship 1209
 temperature dependence 371, 415, 1179, 1181, 1208, 1224, 1244
 temperature dependent resistance 1368
 temperature derating 1214
 temperature derating characteristics 1185
 temperature derating multiplier 1173
 temperature difference 201, 222, 223, 237, 1117, 1124, 1126, 1172
 temperature differential 224
 temperature effects 1074, 1189, 1248, 1337
 temperature excursions 592
 temperature extremes 1095
 temperature factor 1248
 temperature fluctuations 1342
 temperature fuse 1096
 temperature gradient 205, 222, 1118
 temperature increase 1072
 temperature increase rate 1071
 temperature I-V characteristics 1044
 temperature multiplier 1172
 temperature operating range 200
 temperature over 216
 temperature properties 1307
 temperature range 139, 1168, 1196, 1225, 1305
 temperature ratings 109
 temperature related loss 1317
 temperature ripple current conversion multipliers 1173
 temperature rise 148, 1188, 1214, 1217, 1220, 1255, 1256, 1260, 1357
 temperature sensing region 1227
 temperature sensing resistors 1222, 1224
 temperature sensing technique 1082
 temperature sensitive devices 384
 temperature sensors 1225
 temperature stabilisation 1335, 1343
 temperature stability 231, 1238
 temperature stability mechanisms 1341
 temperature stable 1106
 temperature threshold 1082
 temporary energy storage 735
 temporary energy store 921
 terminal bus 932
 terminal capacitance 405
 terminal conductor size coefficient 388
 terminal connections 1190
 terminal converter 906
 terminal current 1208
 terminal electrical characteristic 1233
 terminal end 933-935
 terminal end reactive power 954
 terminal end VAr 934
 terminal polarities 909
 terminal resistance 1207, 1208
 terminal size 1363
 terminal supply voltages 962
 terminal voltage 412, 932, 934, 940, 962, 1041, 1053, 1062, 1116, 1208
 terminal voltage range 1115
 terminal voltage rate of rise 412
 terminal voltage regulation 976
 terminating angle 940
 tertiary winding 920
 tetravalent bonding state 1023
 tetravalent bonds 1023
 textured metallised paper electrodes 1178
 textured surface 1027
 textured transparent conducting oxide substrate 1029
 texturing 1027
 TFC 238, 239
 theoretical efficiency 1033
 theoretical energy density 1085
 theoretical intrinsic coercivity 1322
 theoretical maximum voltage 1012
 theoretical s/c current 499
 thermal agitation 1023, 1291, 1299, 1300, 1317
 thermal analysis 149, 151
 thermal annealing 39
 thermal bonding stressing 241
 thermal capacitance 228
 thermal capacity 135, 1206, 1217, 1401
 thermal characteristics 52, 380, 397
 thermal coefficient of expansion 215
 thermal coefficients 1209
 thermal compression 44
 thermal conditions 1364
 thermal conductance 140, 1123, 1130
 thermal conducting plastic resins 173
 thermal conducting grease 136
 thermal conducting silicone moulding material 1207
 thermal conduction 165, 217, 1053
 thermal conductivities 204
 thermal conductivity 52, 134-143, 166, 194-197, 200-221, 228-238, 405, 1121-1131, 1204, 1230, 1279, 1356
 thermal conductivity of air 165
 thermal conductor 590
 thermal cooling time constant 1228
 thermal criteria 168
 thermal cut-off control 1082
 thermal cycle fatigue 1128
 thermal cycling 144, 145, 386, 996, 1318
 thermal delay design 386
 thermal derating 389
 thermal derating continuous 389
 thermal derating curves 396
 thermal derating cyclic 389
 thermal differential equation 1228
 thermal diffusion 5
 thermal dissipation properties 1172
 thermal distribution 1288
 thermal effects 60
 thermal electron agitation 1208
 thermal emf coefficient 1117, 1118
 thermal element 1376
 thermal energy 61, 221, 1129, 1312 1339
 thermal energy storage 228, 229

thermal energy transfer 228
 thermal environment 397
 thermal equilibrium 58, 1228
 thermal equivalent electrical circuit model 158
 thermal evaporator 17
 thermal event 397
 thermal expansion 53, 228-232, 993, 996, 1005
 thermal expansion coefficient 1005
 thermal fatigue 389, 592
 thermal grease 137-140,219
 thermal heat 1114
 thermal impedance 146 148, 153, 368, 590
 thermal impedance curves 148
 thermal impedance imbalance 368
 thermal impedance normalising factor 152, 154
 thermal inertia 629
 thermal instability 61
 thermal interface material 136, 137, 165
 thermal interfaces 225
 thermal limit 931, 1106
 thermal limitation 247
 thermal load 222, 1128
 thermal losses 895
 thermal management 165, 228, 592, 1073, 1126
 thermal management technologies 174
 thermal mass 396, 409
 thermal matching 405
 thermal motion 1299
 thermal optimization 171
 thermal oxidation 14, 19, 20
 thermal path 134
 thermal performance 138, 172, 212
 thermal performance graph 173
 thermal processes 1008
 thermal processing 13
 thermal properties - liquid metals 221
 thermal properties 397, 1108, 1213, 1238, 1314, 1356
 thermal properties thermistors 392
 thermal radiation 133, 168, 1401
 thermal reforming processes 1008
 thermal reliability 1207, 1363
 thermal resistance 104, 109, 135-151, 161, 163, 170-172, 188 193, 199, 202, 210, 213, 222-226, 593, 1109 1128, 1134, 1199, 1206, 1224
 thermal resistance components 1128
 thermal resistance heating 16
 thermal resistance normalized 212
 thermal resistivity 219, 220
 thermal resistor equivalent network 225
 thermal runaway 107, 108, 367, 1057, 1066, 1086, 1090
 thermal runaway phenomenon 1057
 thermal runaway process 1087
 thermal shock 37, 1247, 1311
 thermal shock temperature change 145
 thermal stability 117, 200, 1088, 1089, 1207, 1236, 1260, 1306
 thermal stresses 1174
 thermal stressing reliability 241
 thermal switches 379
 thermal time constant 147, 150, 392, 393, 1173, 1219, 1220, 1224, 1225, 1228
 thermal trip unit 1375
 thermal vibration 1301
 thermal voltage 1038
 thermal/mechanical 258
 thermally activated 395
 thermally agitated disorder 1300
 thermally conductive adhesive tapes 137, 138
 thermally conductive compounds 137
 thermally conductive elastomeric pads 137, 138
 thermally derated resistor types 1220
 thermally generated emf 1207
 thermally sensitive resistors 392

thermally sensitive silicon resistor 1226
 thermally stable 1198
 thermionic cooling 228
 thermistor 392, 1071, 1225-1228
 thermistor circuit protection 409
 thermistor current-time characteristics 1228
 thermistor dissipation factor 1227
 thermistor element 1228, 1229
 thermistor failure 1229
 thermistor leads 1229
 thermistor package 1228
 thermistor PTC 376
 thermistor power dissipation factor 1229
 thermistor resistance 1229
 thermistor short circuit 1229
 thermistor stability ageing affects 1229
 thermistor temperature expansion characteristics 1229
 thermistor thermal properties 392
 thermistor type 1229
 thermistor voltage drop 1227
 thermo-chemical unstable state 1060
 thermo-compression bonding 44
 thermocouples 1117, 1228
 thermodynamic cycle 197, 202
 thermodynamic data 1015, 1021
 thermodynamic efficiency 1015, 1040
 thermodynamic efficiency limit 1040
 thermo-dynamic equilibrium 57
 thermodynamic functions 1013
 thermodynamic property 229
 thermodynamics 1013
 thermoelectric 1129
 thermoelectric characteristics generic Bi₂Te₃ 226
 thermoelectric cooler 222, 1116, 1120, 1128
 thermoelectric cooler design 224, 1128
 thermoelectric cooler module 222
 thermoelectric cooler principle 222
 thermoelectric cooling 227, 1126, 1134
 thermoelectric cooling features 1126
 thermoelectric couple 1130
 thermoelectric device 222
 thermoelectric effect 1117
 thermoelectric efficiencies 1134
 thermoelectric element 1119, 1125, 1134
 thermoelectric generator 222, 1116, 1129, 1131
 thermoelectric generator design 1132, 1134
 thermoelectric generators 1131
 thermoelectric material 1122-1125, 1134
 thermoelectric module 222, 1035, 1116, 1119, 1126-1132
 thermoelectric module characteristics 224
 thermoelectric module equations 1122
 thermoelectric power 1118
 thermoelectric power generation 1129, 1132, 1134
 thermoelectric resistance 1130
 thermoelectric semiconductor material 1121
 thermoelectric superlattice coolers 228
 thermoelectric technology comparison 1135
 thermoelectric terminology glossary 1469
 thermoelectric voltage 1203, 1392
 thermoelectric voltage cancellation 1392
 thermoelectrically enhanced heat-sink 225
 thermo-mechanical stresses 14
 thermo-metallic element 1375
 thermometric drift 1229
 thermo-physical properties - fluorocarbon coolants 215
 thermo-physical properties - water 215
 thermo-physical properties 193, 214
 thermoset composites 993
 thermo-siphons 193
 thermo-sonic bonding 44
 thermo-tunnelling cooling 228
 Thevenin equivalent 1336

Thevenin equivalent circuit 1323, 1346
 Thevenin equivalent circuit mmf source 1327
 Thevenin equivalent magnetic circuit 1323
 Thevenin equivalent resistance 1042, 1131
 Thevenin resistance 1014
 Thevenin/Norton equivalent 1328
 Thevenin's short circuit impedance 932
 thick film 1206
 thick film copper 238, 239
 thick film mixture 1205
 thick film resistor 1208, 1209
 thick film resistors temperature characteristics 1209
 thick film substrates 239
 thick films 1030
 thickness 400
 thin bands 379
 thin film deposition 14
 thin film resistors 1206
 thin film 15, 38, 1030, 1032, 1205
 thin film cell structure 1030
 thin film deposition 1030
 thin film flexibility 1030
 thin film layer 21
 thin film light absorbing materials 1033
 thin film material 50
 thin film modules 1028
 thin film multi-junction devices 1036
 thin film resistors 34
 thin film silicon 1026, 1032
 thin film technologies 1047
 thin film thermoelectrics 1134
 thin insulating layer 1035
 thin insulation layer 1285
 thin permeable electrolyte sheet 1000
 thin plastic film dielectric 1162
 thin walls 1308
 third and fourth terminal voltage sensing leads 1225
 third conductor 895
 third harmonic 604, 715, 718
 third harmonic component 641
 third harmonic current 772
 third harmonic current magnitude 772
 third harmonic injection 727, 751
 third harmonic voltage 771, 1189
 third harmonic voltage injection 726
 third order resonant stage 859
 third quadrant 1315
 third-order characteristics 765
 Thomson effects 1118
 three basic multilevel inverters 743
 three controlled phases 619
 three electrical connections 1275
 three independent single phase ac regulators 606
 three inverter legs 709, 728, 736
 three level inverters 745
 three level pulse width modulation 707
 three line voltages 711
 three line-to-line fundamental voltages 711
 three motor connections 624
 three output states 740
 three output voltage states 677, 681
 three output voltage waveforms 709
 three output voltages 740
 three phase ac rectifier supplies 427
 three phase ac supplies 503
 three phase currents 938
 three phase inverter bridge 343
 three phase power components 937
 three phase power components decomposed into p - q power components 937
 three phase power transformer 920
 three phase voltages 529, 917

three poles 727
 three regulator thyristors 601
 three single-pole overload relays 619
 three terminal feed-through capacitors 1194
 three windings 463
 three wire systems 962
 three-dimensional spinel structure 1088
 three-level capacitor-clamped inverter 741
 three-level capacitor-clamped multilevel inverter 743
 three-level converter circuit 741
 three-level inverter 737
 three-level voltage source inverters hvdc transmission 917
 three-limb shell 463
 three-limb transformer 463
 three-phase 452
 three-phase ac asynchronous motor 616
 three-phase ac caged induction motor 616
 three-phase ac full-wave 3-wire delta-load ac controller 606
 three-phase ac full-wave voltage controller 600
 three-phase ac full-wave voltage controller characteristics - inductive load 603
 three-phase ac full-wave voltage controller characteristics - resistive load 603
 three-phase ac full-wave voltage neutral-connected controller - resistive load 605
 three-phase ac induction motor starting 619
 three-phase ac induction motors 619
 three-phase ac input 1393
 three-phase ac load cycloconverters 631
 three-phase ac machine 749
 three-phase ac mains supply 726, 731
 three-phase ac regulator 600, 602
 three-phase ac source 534
 three-phase ac supply 605, 608, 631
 three-phase ac transmission line 952
 three-phase ac vacuum circuit breaker 1399
 three-phase autotransformer 962
 three-phase boost input converter 751
 three-phase bridge 535
 three-phase bridge inverter 710, 714
 three-phase bridge rectifier 912
 three-phase circuit 491, 533, 969
 three-phase connection 467
 three-phase control 616
 three-phase controlled current-source inverter 733
 three-phase controlled SCR based soft starter functional block diagram 626
 three-phase controlled-current sourced bridge inverter 734, 735
 three-phase current output 634
 three-phase currents 625
 three-phase delta connected load 600
 three-phase delta connected TCR 944
 three-phase delta primary 465
 three-phase delta secondary 465
 three-phase full-wave bridge circuit - capacitively filtered load resistance 458
 three-phase full-wave bridge circuit-inductive load+EMF 457
 three-phase full-wave bridge circuit 457
 three-phase full-wave bridge circuit- constant load current 457
 three-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit - continuous load current 456
 three-phase full-wave bridge rectifier circuit 456
 three-phase full-wave controlled rectifier - constant output current 540
 three-phase full-wave converter 549
 three-phase full-wave converter - freewheel diode 541
 three-phase full-wave fully-controlled circuit - inductive load 535
 three-phase full-wave half-controlled 531
 three-phase full-wave rectifier 459

three-phase full-wave rectifier circuit - R - L load 455
 three-phase full-wave rectifier circuit 455, 458
 three-phase full-wave uncontrolled rectifier circuits 458
 three-phase fully-controlled circuits 612
 three-phase fully-controlled converter 536, 551, 735
 three-phase fully-controlled half-wave circuit - inductive load 532
 three-phase fully-controlled half-wave converter 532
 three-phase fully-controlled soft-starter 625
 three-phase fully-controlled thyristor converter 894, 906
 three-phase fundamental 895
 three-phase grid connection 987
 three-phase half-controlled bridge converter 530
 three-phase half-controlled converter 529, 558
 three-phase half wave 496
 three-phase half-wave ac voltage regulator - star load 609
 three-phase half-wave ac voltage regulator characteristics 610
 three-phase half-wave circuit 453
 three-phase half-wave controlled rectifier converter circuit 533
 three-phase half-wave controlled converter 532
 three-phase half-wave controlled rectifying converter 544
 three-phase half-wave converters 551
 three-phase half-wave converter + freewheel diode 533
 three-phase half-wave diode rectifier 453
 three-phase half-wave rectifier + freewheel diode 534
 three-phase half-wave rectifier 471, 473
 three-phase half-wave rectifier circuit - R - L load 452
 three-phase induction motor 733, 893, 931
 three-phase input ac supply 726
 three-phase input to three-phase output matrix converter circuit 634
 three-phase input voltages + three-phase output voltages 637
 three-phase instantaneous imaginary power 936, 968
 three-phase instantaneous power theory 935
 three-phase instantaneous real power 936, 937, 968
 three-phase inverter 724, 725, 749
 three-phase inverter bridge 718
 three-phase line input voltages 531, 532
 three-phase loads balancing 959
 three-phase mains ac thyristor chopper 613
 three-phase motor 618, 625
 three-phase MV ac contactor 1402
 three-phase output 695
 three-phase pwm generation 723
 three-phase pwm generator 727
 three-phase rotating magnetic field 616
 three-phase sinusoidal waveforms 727
 three-phase six-switch dc-ac voltage-source inverter 736
 three-phase source 459
 three-phase star connected load 600
 three-phase system 720, 726, 731, 922
 three-phase three-wire system 935
 three-phase thyristor controller 604
 three-phase transformer - hexa-phase rectification 475
 three-phase transformer connections 467
 three-phase transformer full-wave rectifiers - zero core mmf 480
 three-phase transformer mmf imbalance cancellation 478
 three-phase transformer secondary zig-zag winding 478
 three-phase transformer winding - dc mmf bias 474
 three-phase transformer winding - hexa-phase rectification 477
 three-phase transformer winding zig-zag arrangement no dc mmf bias 479
 three-phase transformer with delta connected secondary winding 485
 three-phase transformer wye connected secondary winding + full-wave rectification 484
 three-phase transformer, half-wave rectifiers 471

three-phase transmission system 932
 three-phase uncontrolled rectifier converter circuits 452
 three-phase uninterruptible power supply 751
 three-phase UPS 751
 three-phase voltage control of caged three-phase ac induction motor 623
 three-phase voltage input 634
 three-phase voltage multipliers 491
 three-phase voltage source inverter 749
 three-phase voltage to three-phase current matrix converter switch combinations 636
 three-phase voltage-fed PWM inverter 968
 three-phase voltages 726
 three-phase voltage-source inverter bridge 708
 three-phase VSI inverter 720
 three-phase VSI inverter circuit 709
 three-phase Y configuration voltage multipliers 492
 three-phase Y - y transformer 468, 469
 three-phase zig-zag interconnected star winding 454
 three-phase Δ - y transformer 471
 three-phase Δ - δ transformer 470
 three-phase controlled thyristor converter circuits 532
 three-pulse output voltage 534
 three-pulse per ac cycle cycloconverter 631
 three-stage fast charge 1082
 three-terminal coaxial feed-through 1194
 three-thyristor delta connected regulator 611
 three-wire PWM inverter topology 960
 three-wire system 625
 threshold energy 7
 threshold level 82, 124
 threshold voltage 12, 80, 84
 throughput 29
 thyristor 92, 125, 276, 277, 317 367, 376 386, 418 771
 thyristor ac circuit - R - C snubber 290
 thyristor action 413
 thyristor application 273
 thyristor average current 521 526, 541, 575, 579, 613
 thyristor based hvdc 913
 thyristor based systems 927, 939
 thyristor blocks 951
 thyristor commutation 733
 thyristor commutation angle 532
 thyristor commutation failure 549
 thyristor commutation time 901
 thyristor conduction 518, 950, 951
 thyristor conduction modes 604
 thyristor conduction period 568
 thyristor control 952
 thyristor controlled reactance 951
 thyristor controlled reactor 940, 942, 950
 thyristor controlled reactor compensator 945
 thyristor controlled series capacitor 940, 949
 thyristor controlled series capacitor compensation 950
 thyristor controlled series compensation 939
 thyristor current 555, 567, 571
 thyristor current crest factor 571
 thyristor current extinction angle 568
 thyristor current form factor 575
 thyristor current rating 581, 582, 606
 thyristor current source converter 895
 thyristor delay angle 541
 thyristor delay time 1256
 thyristor devices 1256
 thyristor di/dt 548
 thyristor di/dt rating 579
 thyristor firing angle 278, 581, 582, 628, 894
 thyristor firing delay angle 523
 thyristor fold-back I - V operation - circuit symbol 415
 thyristor fold-back I - V operation - SIDAC 415
 thyristor fold-back I - V operation - TSPD 415
 thyristor forward blocking recovery time 549

thyristor forward blocking voltage 579
 thyristor forward voltage blocking rating 569
 thyristor gate 279
 thyristor gate drive circuits 274
 thyristor gate drive design 280
 thyristor gate pulses 579
 thyristor gate requirements 273
 thyristor gate turn-on current waveform 273
 thyristor heating applications 582
 thyristor HVDC substation 900
 thyristor HVDC transmission system 896
 thyristor I^2t rating 386
 thyristor I - V ratings 579
 thyristor loss 572, 613, 950
 thyristor maximum average current 601, 609
 thyristor maximum forward voltage 557, 558
 thyristor maximum reverse voltage 557, 558
 thyristor mean current 522
 thyristor natural commutation 645, 959
 thyristor operational modes 602
 thyristor packages 927
 thyristor peak forward voltage 598
 thyristor peak reverse voltage 598
 thyristor peak surge current rating 386
 thyristor phase control 597
 thyristor phase triggering delay angles 577
 thyristor physical structure - diac 414
 thyristor physical structure - SCR 414
 thyristor physical structure - anti-parallel SCR pair 414
 thyristor protector 417
 thyristor reverse blocking voltage 579
 thyristor reverse voltage 557
 thyristor reverse voltage blocking rating 569
 thyristor rms current 541, 556, 569, 575
 thyristor rms current rating 521, 526, 579
 thyristor rms currents 596
 thyristor snubber 367
 thyristor speed control circuit 276
 thyristor surge protection device 414, 415
 thyristor switch reactor 942
 thyristor switched capacitor 940, 944
 thyristor switched capacitor compensation 944, 945
 thyristor switched compensation 939
 thyristor switched series capacitor 940, 949
 thyristor switched series capacitor compensation 949
 thyristor systems 939
 thyristor three-phase ac regulators 611
 thyristor trigger angle 511, 512, 581
 thyristor triggering 505
 thyristor triggering delay angle 538
 thyristor turn-off 645
 thyristor turn-on 292, 944, 949
 thyristor turn-on delay angle 540
 thyristor type protection 413
 thyristor valve 897
 thyristor valve modules components 897
 thyristor valve symbol 897
 thyristor voltage drops 544
 thyristor voltage fold back 414
 thyristor voltage fold-back devices 413
 thyristor voltage rating 386
 thyristor voltages 606
 thyristor voltages ratings 597
 thyristors 289, 392, 414, 427, 732
 thyristors block 951
 thyristors voltage ratings 518
 tilted surface 1040
 TIM 136-139, 165, 225
 time constant 303, 646, 758, 1107, 1178, 1179, 1224, 1271, 1273, 1382
 time current characteristic 380
 time delay 400
 time dependence 1180
 time discrimination 1380
 time domain 729
 time domain current 672, 673
 time domain differential equations 650
 time domain load current 649
 time domain load current equations 649
 time domain output current 665
 time domain output current equations 673
 time domain solution 781
 time domain waveforms 1360
 time reference 762
 time to charge 1115
 time-current characteristics 381, 382
 timed voltage ramp system 625
 time-dependant 378
 time-domain step-response 758
 timeout timers 1082
 time-to-trip 396
 time varying field attenuation 1281
 timing sequencing 763
 tin-coated copper 1027
 tinned 380
 TLP 241
 TLP die and substrate attach methods 241
 top cell 1035
 top side copper surface 238
 top-off charge 1093
 topping charge 1056, 1057, 1071, 1083, 1093, 1106
 torch chamber 20
 toroid complex permeability 1243
 toroid core 1259
 toroid cross section radius 1272
 toroid design data 1258
 toroid ferrite core 1269
 toroid major radius 1272
 toroid mean circumference 1272
 toroidal circular cross section inductance 1282
 toroidal coil 1274
 toroidal core 462, 465
 toroidal core transformers 462
 toroidal shape toroid 1272
 toroids 1236
 torque 1348
 torque control starter 627
 torque developed 616
 torque generation 618
 torque load 618
 torque oscillations 695
 torque speed characteristics 279
 torque-speed curve - induction motor 617
 torque-speed load performance - food mixer 279
 torque-speed load performance - hand drill 279
 total air gap 1252, 1255
 total average power loss 158
 total cell internal heat losses 1014
 total cell internal heat released 1014
 total cell leakage current 1111
 total circuit efficiency 256
 total circuit energy losses 319
 total circuit losses 318
 total circuit resistance 385
 total copper loss 1262
 total copper quantity 1277
 total current 368, 372-374
 total current rating 368
 total diode losses 257
 total effective resistance 1207
 total energy 396
 total energy available 1016
 total energy dissipated 415
 total energy stored 1249

total flux linkage 1347
 total gate charge 122
 total harmonic current 641
 total harmonic distortion 446 493 643 695 702 715 720, 741, 942, 950
 total harmonic input current distortion 540
 total harmonic voltage distortion 716
 total heat input 1132, 1133
 total heat rejected 1124
 total heat-sink resistance 173
 total hemispherical emissivity 235
 total I^2t let-through 383
 total internal dc resistance 1106
 total interrupting time 380
 total leakage flux 1326
 total let-through current 384
 total let-through energy 381
 total line resistance 915, 922
 total load current 374
 total load instantaneous power 457
 total load power 640
 total loss 157, 299, 301, 304, 1243, 1264
 total magnetization 1299, 1300
 total output voltage 1273
 total per unit volume core losses 1245
 total potential energy per unit magnet material volume 1346
 total power 606, 1189
 total power copper loss 1264
 total power delivered 429, 441, 524, 526
 total power dissipation 156, 1189
 total power loss 161, 162, 1260
 total reaction 1135
 total recovery charge 110
 total resistor losses 369, 370
 total rms current 641, 643
 total rms output voltage 718
 total series capacitance 490
 total series resistance 306
 total silicon solution 636
 total stack voltage 1111
 total stopping power 12
 total stored energy 1249
 total supply power factor 640-643
 total supply side rms current 598
 total surface area 142
 total switch losses 248
 total system cost 1132
 total thermal resistance 135
 total turn-off losses 303, 306, 309
 total turn-on snubber losses 310
 total voltage blocked 361
 total volume 1265
 total winding area 1262
 totally electronic device 586
 totem pole level shift driver 283
 toxic gas 1031
 toxic hazards 1088
 toxic metals 1040, 1075, 1077
 toxic PV materials 1049
 traction batteries 1053
 traditional power generation 981
 transconductance 82-85, 91
 transconductance characteristics 120
 transducer 1270
 transducer bandwidth 1273
 transfer capacitor 328, 337, 338
 transfer capacitor final voltage 338
 transfer capacitor voltage 328
 transfer contact 1360
 transfer dump capacitor 331
 transfer function 792, 799, 805, 809, 828, 962, 968
 transfer function polarity 809

transfer functions - constant input voltage 832
 transfer functions - constant output voltage 836
 transfer functions 830
 transfer process 334
 transfer rate 1228
 transfer time 1361
 transformation phenomena 1276
 transformation voltage ratios 817
 transformed load resistance 781
 transformer 342 420, 448-454, 461, 462, 494, 504, 518, 631, 819, 1233-1235, 1244, 1266, 1404
 transformer action 325 822, 827, 1276
 transformer action ceases 1266
 transformer apparent power 465, 466
 transformer apparent power components 482
 transformer application 1199
 transformer average VA rating 463
 transformer average VA rating 467
 transformer based smps 827
 transformer circuits 1234
 transformer configuration 897
 transformer connection 1275
 transformer connection diagram 1275
 transformer converter side 554
 transformer core 912, 979, 1244, 1265, 1302
 transformer core design data 1260
 transformer core loss 1239
 transformer core triplen harmonic fluxes 913
 transformer core utilisation 465
 transformer coupled 636, 756, 946, 960
 transformer coupled circuits 1235
 transformer coupled flyback converter 822, 823
 transformer coupled forward converter 821, 824
 transformer coupled series-resonant dc-dc converter 863
 transformer coupling 944, 960, 977
 transformer coupling action 827
 transformer current mode 1266
 transformer current sharing 374
 transformer currents 472, 482
 transformer data 1263
 transformer dc-side ac voltages 914
 transformer dc-side line voltage 913
 transformer de-energising 403
 transformer design 1256, 1263, 1265
 transformer diagram 1276
 transformer duty cycle 275
 transformer electrical characteristics 1234
 transformer energising 403
 transformer impedance matching 801
 transformer input power 1263
 transformer input VA rating 463
 transformer interwinding capacitance 1199
 transformer isolated smps 347
 transformer laminations 960
 transformer leakage inductance 352, 827, 910, 959
 transformer limb 454, 462
 transformer line-to-line transient suppression 410
 transformer losses 971
 transformer magnetising current 372
 transformer magnetising inductance 822, 824
 transformer matching 939
 transformer mode 1266
 transformer models 1234
 transformer oil 1396
 transformer output power 1263
 transformer output VA rating 463
 transformer parallel equivalent circuit 1241
 transformer per phase leakage inductance 906
 transformer phase arrangement 958
 transformer phase currents 897
 transformer power loss 1263
 transformer power ratings 475, 476, 480

transformer primary 352
transformer primary apparent power 467
transformer primary circuit 821
transformer primary current 372, 466, 476, 483, 1259
transformer primary phase current 472
transformer primary side 372
transformer primary side power factor 554
transformer primary voltage 372, 1259
transformer protection 401
transformer ratings 480
transformer reactive inductance 916
transformer real power 466
transformer referred voltage 338
transformer requirements 1266
transformer secondary 494, 552, 596, 820
transformer secondary apparent power 467
transformer secondary circuit 821
transformer secondary conduction short-circuits 596
transformer secondary current 483, 1259
transformer secondary rectified voltage 443
transformer secondary side 554
transformer secondary voltage 1259, 1263
transformer secondary winding 444
transformer series phase angle compensation 956
transformer short circuit voltage 1278
transformer tap 600
transformer tap changer 973
transformer tap ratio 915
transformer tapping 915
transformer taps 1275
transformer terminal 1199
transformer transmissible power 1260
transformer turns ratio 339, 352, 353 443 819-821 824, 827, 864, 897, 906, 913, 914, 1275
transformer VA rating 463, 465, 472
transformer voltage matching 928, 980
transformer voltage mode 1266
transformer voltages 472
transformer windings 1265
transformer windings currents 823
transformer-add 714
transformer-less grid-tie inverters 984
transformer-less series power filtering 978
transformerless variac 600
transformer-less version 339
transient absorbers 407
transient absorption circuit 403
transient conditions 228
transient current overload capacity 622
transient current path 364
transient current rating 288
transient currents 367, 945
transient electrical stressing 287
transient energy 1369
transient energy absorbed 407
transient function 354
transient gate voltage 1284
transient generating inductive loads 1404
transient heating 135
transient impulse voltages 1212
transient liquid phase 241
transient liquid phase attachment 241
transient losses 323
transient overshoot 789
transient overshoot energy 1369
transient over-voltage protection 292, 592
transient over-voltages 984
transient power response 999
transient protection solution 591
transient response 10191275
transient response 778, 793, 816, 1275
transient reverse-blocking voltage 364
transient sharing 371
transient sharing capacitor 367
transient sharing capacitor discharge 367
transient start-up period 619
transient suppressing non-linear resistance 1404
transient suppressing Zener diodes 73
transient suppression 1365
transient suppressor characteristics 409
transient suppressor comparison 409
transient suppressors 404
transient surge 375
transient surge response 414
transient thermal impedance 147, 148, 162
transient turn-off voltage balancing 345
transient turn-on voltage protection 367
transient undershoot 789
transient voltage attenuation 404
transient voltage control 979
transient voltage fold-back devices 410
transient voltage impulse withstand 1206
transient voltage protection devices 591
transient voltage reversal 1190
transient voltage sharing 345, 364, 733
transient voltage sharing circuit 367
transient voltage suppression clamping devices 404
transient voltage suppressor 376 377, 404, 588, 591, 1274
transient voltage suppressor devices *I-V* characteristics 407
transients 386
transients swelling 932
transient-sharing networks 367
transistor base current 1269
transistor base to emitter voltage 1269
transistor chopper 775
transistor gain 1269, 1270
transistor *I-V* characteristics 247
transistor maximum on-time 1269
transistor off-time 822
transistor on-time 778, 790, 797, 802
transistor ratings 112
transistor rms current 783
transistor switching characteristics 115
transistor switching waveforms 247
transit capacitance 64
transition metals 995, 1086, 1225, 1306, 1308, 1040
transition temperature 395, 1300, 1343
transitional condition 394
transitional elements 1304
transitional temperature coefficient 399
transitional tripping 395
transmission angle 946, 974, 979, 980
transmission cable 894
transmission capability 947
transmission flexibility 940
transmission line 947, 958
transmission line behaviour 1104
transmission line connection 940
transmission line current 964
transmission line inductance 927
transmission line midpoint voltage 933
transmission line reactance 931
transmission line series-compensation 952
transmission line voltage drop 932
transmission lines 978
transmission load angle 932, 946, 947, 957
transmission side base voltage 972
transmission system 940, 959, 978
transmittable power 894, 940, 948
transmitted active power 941
transmitted power 909, 928, 1276
transmitted reactive power 957
transmitted real power 974
transmitting end 923

transorb 591
transparent 1030, 1035
transparent conducting oxide 1030, 1032
transparent conducting oxide layer 1031
transport diagram 1081
transportation applications 1012, 1020
transportation restrictions 1095
transportation systems 1041
transported 41
transported ion 1040
transporting hydrogen process 1081
trapezoidal pulse trains 1188
trench 88
trench gate 86
trench gate concept 87
trench gate *n*-channel enhancement-mode power MOSFET 267
trenching 34
triac 92, 101, 274, 289, 414, 586, 587, 622
triac ac circuit - *R-C* snubber 290
triac gate drive circuits 274
triac initial *di/dt* rating 585
triac maximum *di/dt* 584
triac maximum *dv/dt* 584
triac opto-coupler 275
triac output 590
triac *R-C* snubber 289
triac triggering angle 275
triac turn-on 585
triangle voltage reference level 684
triangular based modulation control 684
triangular carrier 678, 708, 723, 724
triangular carrier wave 720
triangular power pulses 153
triangular pulse waveform 388
triangular references 687
trickle charge 1083, 1093
trickle charge circuits 751
trickle charge currents 1072
trickle charge rate 1083
trickle charging 1095
trigger circuit 280, 588
trigger circuit impedance 593
trigger delay 899
trigger network 277
trigger voltage 418
triggering angle 275, 581
triggering control 611
triggering device 414
triggering pulses 540
tri-hexaphase half-wave rectifier 475
trimmed film resistor 1204
trip current 395, 397, 401, 1381
trip event 396
trip jump 397
triple diffused transistor 77
triplen core fluxes 480
triplen currents 476, 480
triplen fluxes 480
triplen harmonic currents 600
triplen harmonics 461, 711
triplen injection 713 726, 731, 735, 744, 922
triplen injection modulation 726
triplen mmf 473
triplens 472, 636, 897
triplens injected into modulation waveform 713
triple-pole line contactor 619
tripole line system 928
tripole system 895
tripped state 394, 395, 402
tripping 394
tripping time 1375

true seals 1391
TSPD 414-418
TTL 274
TTL characteristics 269
TTL compatible microprocessor peripheral 280
TTL gates 268
TTL logic 281
tube arcing 413
tube height 1047
tubed cold plates 210
tubes 1371
tubular batteries 1047
tubular cell stacks 1006
tubular design cell 1006
tubular fuel cells 1003
tubular plate 1047
tubular plate batteries 1044
tubular plate structure 1046
tubular positive plate 1045, 1047
tubular positive plate batteries 1047
tubular solid oxide fuel cell 1003
tubular solid oxide fuel cell construction 1003
tuned *L-C* filters 913
tunnel junction 1035
turbulent 143
turbulent flow 134
turn-off 156
turn-off amplification 128
turn-off capacitance snubber loss components 301
turn-off capacitor 352
turn-off characteristics 110, 128
turn-off collector current 249
turn-off current gain 100
turn-off current switching waveform 246
turn-off delay 122, 123
turn-off energy loss 249
turn-off gain 129
turn-off inductor current 324
turn-off instants 781
turn-off loss 247, 254, 257, 302, 318
turn-off normalised switching loss components 302
turn-off protection 292
turn-off *R-C* snubber circuit analysis 317
turn-off reset time 339
turn-off reverse gate current 283
turn-off saturation delay 282
turn-off snubber 130, 287, 297, 304, 332, 338-345, 354, 1197
turn-off snubber action 353
turn-off snubber capacitor 335, 346
turn-off snubber circuits 331
turn-off snubber energy 340
turn-off snubber energy recovery 332
turn-off snubber energy recovery circuit 336
turn-off snubber energy recovery waveforms 330
turn-off snubber interaction 343
turn-off snubbing 348
turn-off snubbers 1188, 1284
turn-off soft-switching waveforms 260
turn-off stored energy 696
turn-off stresses 733
turn-off switching loss 247, 289
turn-off switching waveforms 259
turn-off switching-aid circuit 300
turn-off time 128
turn-off transients 849
turn-off voltage switching waveform 246
turn-on 110, 156, 739
turn-on air-core inductor snubber design 308
turn-on and turn-off snubber circuit 348
turn-on characteristics 109, 128
turn-on collector current rise 247
turn-on collector voltage fall 247

turn-on current rise time 254
 turn-on current switching waveform 246
 turn-on delay angle 540
 turn-on delay time 115, 120
 turn-on delay times mismatching 364
 turn-on electrical stressing 311
 turn-on energy recovery energy 340
 turn-on equations 336
 turn-on ferrite-core inductor snubber design 311
 turn-on inductive snubber 348
 turn-on inductor coupling 340
 turn-on inductor current 338
 turn-on initial di/dt capability 283
 turn-on instants 781
 turn-on linear voltage fall time 1259
 turn-on loss 256, 257, 308, 310, 827
 turn-on minimum voltage 274
 turn-on short current boost 283
 turn-on snubber 293 297, 312, 340, 341, 346, 354, 1250
 turn-on snubber characteristics with saturable inductor 311
 turn-on snubber circuit – air-core inductance 304
 turn-on snubber circuit – non-saturable inductance 304
 turn-on snubber circuit – saturable inductance 310
 turn-on snubber circuit 307, 310
 turn-on snubber energy 340
 turn-on snubber function 334
 turn-on snubber inductance 340
 turn-on snubber inductor 315, 340, 342
 turn-on snubber modifications 307
 turn-on snubber waveforms 306
 turn-on snubbers for bridge legs 316
 turn-on soft-switching waveforms 260
 turn-on surge 246
 turn-on switching interval loss 254
 turn-on switching loss 247, 766
 turn-on switching waveforms 259
 turn-on switching-aid circuit - series inductance 304
 turn-on synchronisation 333
 turn-on time 127
 turn-on transients 849
 turn-on transition of slope 247
 turn-on voltage and current collector waveforms 305
 turn-on voltage fall characteristics 367
 turn-on voltage fall time 254, 298
 turn-on voltage switching waveform 246
 turns factor 1241
 turns per secondary winding 1264
 turns ratio 324, 372, 391, 444 821, 859, 898, 910-922, 1235, 1266, 1268
 turns ratio factor 1269
 turns ratio squared 1235
 turns spacing 1282
 turns/phase 911
 TVS 376, 377, 404, 418
 TVS device 414
 TVS diode 377, 408, 594
 TVS diode voltage 595
 TVS protectors 592
 twelve-pulse ac line frequency converter operation control 906
 twelve-pulse ac line frequency converters 897
 twelve-pulse fully-controlled converter 902
 twelve-pulse fully-controlled converter input current THD 902
 twelve-pulse fully-controlled converter power loci 902
 twelve-pulse series connected converter P - Q 901
 twelve-pulse transformer 924
 twelve-pulse transformer hvdc NPC VSC 924
 twelve-pulse transformer, NPC hvdc 924
 twelve-pulse valve group configuration 896
 twelve-pulse valve group converter configuration 903, 905
 twelve-pulse valve group converter symbol 898
 twelve switch high frequency ac to ac converter 636

twelve switch high frequency ac to ac converter quasi-square generated voltages 639
 twist pair solid copper wire 1290
 twisted pair parameters 1290
 twisted wire pairs 421
 two conducting thyristors 601
 two conductor mutual inductance 1286
 two conductor self inductance 1286
 two controlled phases 619
 two dimensional crystal structure 1040
 two heat source components 1364
 two level inverter 745, 939
 two level switching 678, 679
 two level three-phase inverter 730
 two limb strip core transformer 463
 two limb transformer 463
 two metal loop 1117
 two modulation waveform magnitudes 724
 two parallel conducting plates 1288
 two phase-displaced bridge outputs 718
 two phase half-wave 496
 two phase heat transfer device 204
 two phase nanostructure 1305
 two phase supply 452
 two phase-controlled solid-state soft starter 625
 two quadrant 645
 two quadrant chopper 646
 two quadrant control 746
 two quadrant dc chopper 669, 676
 two quadrant dc chopper circuit 670
 two quadrant dc chopper circuit waveforms 683
 two quadrant dc chopper - load back emf 672
 two quadrant dc chopper operation - bipolar output 679
 two quadrant dc chopper operation
 - multilevel output voltage 681
 two quadrant dc chopper operational current paths 677
 two quadrant dc-dc chopper 672
 two quadrant operation 812
 two quadrant operational modes 350
 two quadrant output voltage operation 808
 two stage charge cycle 1093
 two stage charging 1082
 two stage series voltage multiplier 486
 two thermal elements on a common heat-sink 163
 two transistor model 93
 two voltage levels 736
 two winding transformer 1277, 1278
 two winding transformer equivalent equations 1278
 typical power range 1223

ultracapacitor 1011, 1104
 ultracapacitor applications 1108
 ultracapacitor cells long life reliable operation 1107
 ultracapacitor core temperature 1108
 ultracapacitor lifetime 1109, 1110
 ultracapacitor module 1105
 ultracapacitor resistive elements 1107
 ultracapacitor series stack 1110
 ultracapacitor size 1104
 ultracapacitor terminal voltage 1105
 ultracapacitor voltage profile 1104
 ultra-fast chargers 1072
 ultrasonic detector 1406
 ultrasonic scrubbing 36
 ultrasonic welding 44
 ultra-thin prismatic geometry 1090
 ultra-thin rectangular geometry 1090
 ultraviolet light 23
 un-aided switch 298, 300, 309, 318
 un-aided switch losses 299, 303
 un-aided switch turn-on loss 312

un-aided switching 306
 unbalanced distorted or phase shifted phases 746
 unbalanced load 937, 959
 unbalanced phase voltages 959
 unbalanced single-phase rectifier 642
 unclamped inductance 292
 uncompensated system 973
 uncontrolled capacitive turn-on currents 944
 uncontrolled charging 1106
 uncontrolled charging current 340
 uncontrolled converter 427, 503, 514
 uncontrolled rectifier 427, 514, 550, 731
 uncontrolled secondary currents 863
 uncontrolled three-phase line rectifier 965
 uncoupled inductance 352
 uncoupled parallel connected inductors 1235
 uncoupled series connected inductors 1235
 under sea cables 928
 under the sea 894
 undercut 28
 undercutting 31
 underground electrical power transmission 893
 underlap 314, 547
 underlying energy recovery circuits 350
 undershoot 789
 underwater electrical power transmission 893
 undistorted output voltage 726
 un-energized rest position 1365
 un-gapped cores 1249, 1265
 ungrounded transformer secondary winding 920
 ungrounded tuned filter 921
 ungrounded tuned filter branches 921
 uni-axial anisotropy 1302
 uni-axial stress 1302
 uni-direction gate triggering current 275
 uni-directional conduction characteristics 868
 uni-directional converters 427, 503
 uni-directional crowbar device 414
 uni-directional current flow 574
 uni-directional current switch 828
 uni-directional current transformer 1266
 uni-directional current two-quadrant dc chopper 676
 uni-directional devices 415
 uni-directional load current 570
 uni-directional options 414
 uni-directional switch 645
 uni-directional switch configurations 261
 uni-directional transient suppressor 1366
 uni-directional voltage-current switch 633
 uni-directional voltage blocking IGBT technology 893
 uni-directional voltage properties 950
 uni-directional voltage switch 828
 unified active energy recovery 340
 unified active snubber energy recovery 343
 unified active snubber energy recovery 349
 unified active snubber energy recovery circuits 340
 unified four-quadrant dc chopper - bipolar voltage output switching 684
 unified four-quadrant dc chopper - multilevel voltage output switching 687
 unified passive energy recovery circuits 339
 unified passive snubber energy recovery circuits 342
 unified passive snubbing characteristics 339
 unified power flow controller 939, 959, 971-974
 unified single ended snubber circuit energy recovery 334
 unified snubber 314
 unified snubber circuit 313
 unified snubber circuit energy recovery – single ended 334
 unified snubber - switch turn-off 336
 unified snubber - switch turn-on 335
 unified turn-on and turn-off snubber circuit 313
 uniform air gap 1349

uniform cross section 1214
 uniform cross sectional area 1323
 uniform current density 1264
 uniform current flow 1281
 uniform heat flux condition 221
 uniform heat input 225
 uniform magnetic field density 1272
 uniform temperature distribution 392
 uniform tension 1207
 uniformly distributed capacitance 1288
 uniformly distributed resistance 1288
 unintentional resonant circuit 1284
 un-interrupted flux path 1392
 un-interruptible power supply 750, 932, 1105
 unipolar device 74
 unipolar flux mode 826
 unipolar pulses 574
 unipolar switches 260
 unipolar transistor 76
 unipolar voltages 1170
 unity input displacement 636
 unity power factor 750, 751
 unity turn-off gain 100, 129
 unload thermistor 1228
 un-magnetized state 1320
 unoriented isotropic magnetic properties 1305
 unpaired electrons 1291, 1292, 1299, 1300
 unrecoverable losses 1317
 unregulated dc voltage 448
 unregulated transformer square-wave voltage ratio 827
 unsuppressed relay 1365
 untreated ingot 1308
 unwanted capacitor discharging 340
 unwanted currents 630
 unwanted heat 334
 unwanted voltages 630
 UPFC series operating mode phasor diagrams 973
 upgraded power transmission lines 931
 upper band limit 682
 upper boundary 787
 upper cut off half-power points 1272
 upper half-power frequency 757
 upper operating frequency 592
 upper resonant frequency 859
 upper switches 709
 UPS basic limitations 750
 UPS batteries 1041
 UPS equipment 1040
 UPS system 982
 upstream flow velocity 173
 usable power output 1039
 usable power range 1259
 usable voltage rating 1284
 useful life 1390
 user transparency 402
 utilisation discharged 1036
 utility conditions 982
 utility demand 982
 utility distribution system 984
 utility grid 1046, 1047
 utility switchgear 1047
 UV light 3
 V/f ratio 713
 VA capability 1276
 VA rating 1265
 vacuum 1163, 1387
 vacuum arc 1388, 1400, 1402
 vacuum arc thermal stress 1400
 vacuum brazed inner finned cold plates 211
 vacuum circuit breaker 350, 351, 928, 1398, 1405

vacuum circuit breaker altitude properties 1405
vacuum cleaner suction controller 275
vacuum conditions 38
vacuum contact 1404
vacuum contact gap 1387
vacuum contact mechanical life 1402
vacuum contactor 1369, 1402, 1403
vacuum deposited 40, 1178
vacuum deposition 40, 1205
vacuum enclosures 1394
vacuum envelope 1393
vacuum high-voltage relay physics 1387
vacuum interrupter 1398, 1400, 1401, 1401, 1401
vacuum interrupter - altitude 1399
vacuum interrupter - extreme temperature 1399
vacuum interrupter - humidity 1399
vacuum interrupter capability 1403
vacuum level 1399
vacuum package 1389
vacuum package enclosure 1390
vacuum permeability 1300
vacuum relay 1369, 1371, 1388, 1390, 1393-1396
vacuum relay deposit inner wall deposit 1387
vacuum relays X-ray emissions 1396
vacuum sealed ceramic switching chamber 1389
vacuum sputtered 1205
valance electrons exchange interaction 1300
valence band 1023
valve dc-link side capacitor 921
valve effect 1169
valve electronics 897
valve regulated 1043
valve side ac line current 898
valve system 1049
valve unipolar current 898
valve-regulated batteries 1062, 1064
valve-regulated battery discharge characteristics 1057
valve-regulated lead acid battery type comparison 1054
valve-regulated lead acid battery types 1053
valve-regulated lead acid cell 1053, 1056
valve-regulated terminology 1065
valve-sealed 1070
vaporization property 229
vaporized contact material 1393
vaporized metal 1393
vapour bubbles 216
vapour chamber 165, 226
vapour compression refrigerators 1126
vapour condenses 197
vapour mixture 6
vapour phase epitaxy 9
vapour phase etching 30 33
vapour pressure 39, 193, 207, 217
vapour temperature 228
vapour temperature range 198
vapour velocity 202
VAr compensation 913, 931, 960, 975
VAr compensator 917
VAr control mode 965
VAr requirements 941
variable autotransformer 1278
variable capacitor series compensated 893
variable impedance 939
variable on-time 780, 794, 801, 802, 810
variable output frequency 695
variable reactance compensator 960
variable resistor 288,
variable series impedance compensator 960
variable series reactive compensator 975
variable switching frequency 779, 784, 801, 810
variable voltage dc link 713
variatic 806, 1278
various prime alternative fuel sources 983
varistor 404, 405, 408, 411
varistor clamp 407
varistor conduction mechanisms 405
varistor current rating 407
varistor deterioration 408
varistor effect 399
varistor energy ratings 407
varistor equivalent circuit models 405, 406
varistor failure mode 408
varistor *I-V* linear characteristics 405, 406
varistor power rating 407
varistor static resistance characteristics 406
varistor terminology glossary 1447
varying system impedance 184
vector length 727, 728
vector positions 728
vector states 746
velocity 142
vent 1043
vented cells 1052
vented lead-acid gassing 1065
vented lead-acid recombination 1065
venting valve 1050
Venturi 174
Vernier control 954
versatile non-invasive measurement 1271
vertical airflow 134
vertical heat-sink 142
vertical laser scribing 1030
vertical natural convection airflow 143
vertical p-conducting regions 86
vertical sidewalls 86
vertical structure 86
vertical super-junction 86
vertically stack 143
very weak system 895
vessel mate 200
vhf band 1194
V-I characteristic 399
vibration tolerance 1368
victim equipment 420
virgin form 1315
virtual clearing integral 381
virtual junction 107, 136
virtual load 947
viscosity 24, 211, 215, 221
viscous limit 202
viscous pressure drop 202
visible light 1024
vitreous enamel ceramic housing 1207
v-layer 73
void-free joint 138
void-free soldering 405
voltage 1037
voltage accuracy 418
voltage altitude correction factor 1405
voltage amplitude 919
voltage balancing 1113
voltage based hysteresis control 788
voltage boost circuit 645
voltage breakdown 78, 86, 1168, 1387, 1388
voltage capability 1191
voltage capability curves 1059
voltage change 1104
voltage clamp capacitor peak over-voltage versus damping factor 294
voltage clamping action 414
voltage clamping devices 376, 406
voltage clamping level 406
voltage clamping ratio 409
voltage clamps 73

voltage coefficients 1209
voltage compensation 963, 967, 975
voltage compensation range 967
voltage control 715, 751
voltage controlled converter 922
voltage controlled devices 265
voltage coupling transformer 863
voltage crest 1056
voltage current characteristic 395
voltage current characteristic curves - MOVs, break-over diodes, + TVS 591
voltage delta 1082
voltage dependence 395, 1110, 1211
voltage dependence factor 1208
voltage dependent 1181
voltage dependant charge 66
voltage dependant current demand limit 909
voltage dependant resistance 405, 410
voltage derating - frequency 1184
voltage derating - temperature 1184
voltage detection 984
voltage detection circuits 1111
voltage difference 371, 374, 420
voltage differential 1102, 1407
voltage dips 624
voltage distortion 1208
voltage distortion compensation 963, 969
voltage divider 861
voltage doubler 452
voltage droop 907
voltage drop 406, 488, 1039, 1045, 1071, 1075, 1105, 1107, 1269, 1288
voltage efficiency 1014
voltage fall 120
voltage fall period 254
voltage fall time 121, 127, 288, 289
voltage fed 695
voltage fed induction machine 747
voltage fed PWM inverter 969
voltage fluctuation 932, 969, 1082
voltage fold-back 376
voltage form factor 432 495, 513, 554, 690
voltage free interruption 1278
voltage fundamental 718
voltage gain 850, 855, 863
voltage gain characteristics 861
voltage gain magnitude transfer function 765, 766
voltage generated 1038
voltage harmonic cancellation 962
voltage harmonic elimination 971
voltage harmonic magnitude 1189
voltage harmonics 427 503, 521, 522, 950, 959, 960, 1189
voltage imbalances 960
voltage index 1197
voltage inverting mode 812
voltage level 741-743
voltage limit 972, 1106, 1114, 1189, 1384
voltage limiting 1056
voltage limiting device 379
voltage limiting diodes 407
voltage limiting function 404
voltage limiting protectors 376
voltage loops 851
voltage magnitude 730, 749, 956
voltage magnitude control 971
voltage management circuit discharge 1112
voltage management circuit instability 1112
voltage matching 504, 946, 959, 960
voltage matching transformer 452, 793, 959, 978
voltage matrix 936
voltage mode 1266
voltage multiplier 486, 487, 1201
voltage multiplier switch-on 487
voltage multiplier term 1201
voltage oscillation 288
voltage output 688
voltage output characteristic 541, 551
voltage output harmonic filtering 959
voltage overshoot 254 289, 299, 309, 1369
voltage overshoot - turn-off 247
voltage period angle 950
voltage phasor 963, 964
voltage plateau 1082
voltage polarity reversal 909
voltage polarised capacitance 448
voltage potential 1102
voltage profile 959
voltage properties 1196
voltage protection 404, 1274
voltage protection bidirectional 404
voltage protection device summary 418
voltage protection unidirectional 404
voltage pulses 1212
voltage quality 979
voltage rail 709
voltage ramp time 625
voltage range 1198
voltage rated capacitor 1189
voltage rating 361, 395, 405, 825, 931, 1170, 1206
voltage ratio output/input 912
voltage recovery 1110
voltage reference sources 73
voltage regulation 486 487, 913, 959 971, 973, 976, 1278
voltage regulation control 793
voltage regulation mode 965
voltage reset time 293
voltage reversal 895, 1181, 1190
voltage reversal capacitor design 1191
voltage reversal effects 1191
voltage reversal mechanisms 1190
voltage reversal operating mechanism 1190
voltage ringing 256
voltage ripple 526, 781, 788, 789, 814, 1362
voltage ripple factor 494, 495, 505, 513, 515, 554, 660, 671, 673, 690, 691
voltage rise 122, 123
voltage rise time 122, 288-299
voltage sagging 932
voltage sag 960, 967
volt-second integral 874
volts-second 827
volts-second balance 827
volts-second imbalance 827
volt- μ s 374
voltage sensitive elements 591
voltage sharing circuit design 365
voltage sharing factor 363, 365
voltage sharing resistors 1213
voltage signature 1071
voltage source 447, 450, 633, 695, 769, 863, 935, 1275
voltage source charging current 1106
voltage source controlled dc-link hvdc transmission 922
voltage source converter 916, 920, 921, 925
voltage source converter-based dc-transmission 917
voltage source input converters 830
voltage source inverter 261, 695, 755, 756, 766, 927, 940, 964
voltage source inverter circuits 755
voltage source inverter leg 768
voltage source leg 739
voltage source resonant inverter summary 766
voltage source seven-level cascaded H-bridge inverter 741
voltage source transformer resonant converter circuits 862
voltage-sourced buck converter 830
voltage-sourced buck-boost converter 830

voltage-sourced boost converter 830
 voltage-sourced converters 830
 voltage space vector 709
 voltage space vector modulation 713, 726
 voltage spike 249, 403, 982, 1372, 1373
 voltage spike suppression 367
 voltage stabilisation 985
 voltage stability 487
 voltage step-down ratio probes 1200
 voltage step-down transformer 944
 voltage step-up 854
 voltage stress 342, 488, 1407
 voltage stress factor 1177
 voltage suppression 1365
 voltage suppression techniques 1367
 voltage surges 982
 voltage swell 932, 960, 966, 982
 voltage swing 763
 voltage switching harmonics 781
 voltage temperature coefficient 407
 voltage threshold 1184
 voltage tolerance 984
 voltage transfer function 765-779, 793, 797, 801, 806-810, 815, 819, 827, 853, 859
 voltage transfer ratio 796, 814, 859, 1276
 voltage transformation ratio 816
 voltage transformer 861, 863, 1233, 1259, 1265, 1266
 voltage transformer coupled, resonant converter circuits 862
 voltage transformer coupling 861
 voltage transformer design flowchart 1261
 voltage transient 403, 591, 592, 1365, 1372, 1407
 voltage transient protection 587
 voltage transient suppression techniques 404
 voltage translation 985
 voltage triggered switches 414
 voltage variable material 416
 voltage versus current applications 1228
 voltage versus current mode 1228
 voltage waveform 601, 602 608, 609, 981
 voltage withstand 1206
 voltage zero sensing 1404
 volume efficient 1065
 volume figure 180
 volume flow 187
 volume per kg 989
 volume resonance 1242
 volumetric 1042
 volumetric efficiency 1113, 1163
 volumetric energy density 991, 1041, 1043, 1069, 1078, 1085
 volumetric flow rate 171, 180-187, 220
 volumetric heat transfer efficiency 172
 volumetric power density 192, 1006, 1041
 volumetric susceptibility 1299
 volumetric thermal resistance 168
 VRLA AGM battery 1054
 VRLA batteries 1050, 1064, 1066
 VRLA batteries gassing 1065
 VRLA batteries recombination 1065
 VRLA battery cycle life 1067
 VRLA systems 1072
 VRLA technology 1066
 VSC based hvdc 916
 VSC based hvdc control 917
 VSC converter dc voltage 923
 VSC converter side-line to neutral voltage 924
 VSC converters 917
 VSC dc-transmission 917
 VSC dc-voltage transmission line 922
 VSC hvdc transmission ac-side 919
 VSC hvdc transmission dc-side 918
 VSC independent control 918
 VSC power delivered 923

VSC PWM 920
 VSI 755
 VSI inverters 695
 VSI modulation control techniques 713
 VVM 416

wafer 4, 24, 43
 wafer cleaning 35
 wafer condensing 1033
 wafer fabrication 10
 wafer fabrication chemical reactions 54
 wafer non-planarity 36
 wafer preparation 49
 wafer processing terminology glossary 1429
 wafer silicon 46
 waiting time 1361
 wall superheat 215
 warranty 402
 waste heat 993
 watchdog circuitry 421
 water 212, 991
 water absorptive 997
 water activity 1098
 water consumption 1074
 water consumption 1073
 water cooled 1207
 water depletion 1053
 water electrolysed 1074
 water electrolysis 1054, 1064
 water electrolyte 1135
 water gas shift final reaction 1008
 water gas shift reaction 1009
 water loss 1045, 1053
 water molecules 999
 water splitting 1008
 water usage 1074
 water vapour 1032
 water vapour formation 1014
 water vapour ingress 1047
 wave impedance 419
 waveform quality 939
 waveform smoothness 552
 waveform symmetry 898
 wavelength 25, 26, 235, 1024, 1163
 weak ac grids 927
 weak ac systems 909
 weak internal magnetisation 1299
 weak link 379
 weak repelling effect 1292
 weak system 895
 wear-out mechanism 415, 591
 weather 1047
 Weibull distribution 191
 Weibull hazard rate 189
 Weibull plotting 1373
 Weibull scales 1373
 weight 135
 weight ratio 1050
 Weiss theory 1300
 welded hard metal 1391
 welding 1357
 well-annealed alloys 1292
 wet abrasive 43
 wet chemical etching 1027
 wet cleaning 35
 wet electrolyte 1162
 wet etching 27, 28, 51
 wet flooded batteries 1066
 wet oxidation 20
 wet oxide 1169
 wet paste 1047

wetted materials 212
 wheeled applications 1066
 wick 199
 wick fibre/spring 199
 wick grooved tube 199
 wick material properties 199
 wick permeability 199
 wick pore radius 199
 wick screen mesh 199
 wick sintered powder 199
 wick structure 204
 wicking characteristics 1048
 wicking structure 203
 wide bandgap 51, 76
 wide bandgap materials 52
 wide bandwidth ripple 788
 wide nominal value tolerance 1206
 width of channel 82
 wind speed 1040, 1045
 windage and friction losses 616
 winding area 1264
 winding connection 461
 winding cross-section 1256
 winding diameter 1262
 winding material 1278
 winding process 1103
 winding resistance 1264, 1266, 1404
 winding rms current 912
 winding short circuit 596
 winding slot utilisation 1265
 winding space factor 1262
 winding surface area 1282
 winding taps 1262
 winding voltage 827
 windings 1234
 window area 1259, 1262, 1268, 1269
 window layer 1030, 1034
 window surface electrical contact 1030
 wiping action 1358
 wire aluminium 44
 wire bonding 43
 wire bonding methods 44
 wire copper 44
 wire cross sectional area 1276
 wire carrying current 419
 wire diameter 43, 1256, 1262
 wire insulation 1393
 wire loop carrying current 419
 wire loop lengths 421
 wire terminations 1204
 wire wound resistor 1204
 wires in air 1406
 wire-wound aluminium clad resistors 296
 wire-wound circuit breaker resistors 1223
 wire-wound elements 1223, 1225
 wire-wound resistor 1207, 1208, 1213-1217, 1222, 1225
 wire-wound resistor construction 1207
 wire-wound resistor dissipation 1215
 wire-wound temperature sensing elements 1224
 wiring diameter 1392
 wiring method 1284
 wiring regulations 1384
 wiring residual inductance reduction 1284
 withstand voltage 407
 withstand voltage capability 1192
 withstanding thermal shock 1204
 Woods metal 221
 work done 1346
 working conditions 1074
 working coolant 200
 working fluid 198, 200, 204, 206, 221
 working flux density 201, 1262, 1264

working point 1317
 working temperature 1037
 working temperature range 1345
 working voltage 1203, 1222
 work-piece 756
 worst case assumptions 365
 worst case conditions 1189
 worst case faults 379
 worst case junction temperature 150
 worst case resistance 364
 wound cold-rolled grain-orientated silicon steel 462
 wound copper wound 1283
 wound rod 1207
 wound stator 616
 wound strip air core inductor 1283
 wound wire element resistor 1204
 wye connected transformer primary 472
 wye load 604
 wye primary configuration 475
 wye primary winding 467
 wye secondary winding 467
 wye-delta connection 469
 wye-delta starter 621
 wye-start, delta-run connection - induction motor starting 621
 WYE-wye connection 468

X capacitors 1192
 X-ray emission 1388, 1396
 X-ray radiation 1388
 X-rays 23
 Y configured transformer 962
 Y-shaped impedance curve 1183
 Y-Y transformer 915
 Y-Y winding configurations 913

ZCRS 260
 ZCS 260, 755
 ZCS and ZVS converter comparison 886
 ZCS full-wave 887-889
 ZCS half-wave 887-889
 ZCS resonant dc step-down voltage converter 878
 ZCS resonant-switch dc-dc step-up voltage converters 882
 Zener breakdown 60
 Zener diode 73, 125, 250-253, 306-309, 313, 377, 403-411, 591, 594, 1366
 Zener diode and varistor comparison 406
 Zener diode clamp 250, 312
 Zener diode clamping circuit 250
 Zener diode failure mode 408
 Zener diode losses 250
 Zener diode switch voltage clamping 251
 Zener diode voltage 595
 Zener effect 60, 73
 Zener plus diode 253
 Zener voltage 312
 zenith 1040
 zero average current 772
 zero average voltage output 347
 zero bias built-in voltage 67
 zero bias junction capacitance 64, 66
 zero bias junction potential 67
 zero bias voltage 65
 zero core mmf 480
 zero cross voltage window 592
 zero crossing 596
 zero crossing relay 592
 zero crossing turn-on 587, 592
 zero crossing voltage window 588
 zero crossover 671
 zero current 854, 869

zero current conditions 351
 zero current crossing 849
 zero current cross-over instant 699
 zero current cross-over point 696, 697
 zero current level 1361
 zero current periods 518, 646
 zero current resonant principle 882
 zero current resonant switching 260
 zero current switching 260, 755, 860, 867, 868, 872, 879
 zero current switching full-wave resonant switch dc-dc converter 871, 873
 zero current switching full-wave resonant switch dc-dc step-up voltage converter 883, 885
 zero current turn-off 421, 582
 zero current turn-on 770
 zero current voltages 371
 zero current full-wave resonant switch converter 870
 zero current resonant-switch dc-dc converter 867, 872
 zero current resonant-switch step-down dc-dc converter 878
 zero degree Kelvin 1301
 zero emissions 993
 zero failure test strategy 191
 zero impedance 265
 zero load current 861
 zero net inductor energy 433
 zero neutral current 605
 zero output periods 602
 zero output voltage loops 684
 zero output voltage states 677
 zero power condition 1228
 zero power dissipation 1220
 zero resistor inductance 309
 zero secondary voltage 1266
 zero sequence component 631
 zero sequence current 475, 482
 zero sequence dc current 473
 zero sequence triplen currents 476
 zero sequence voltage 920, 935
 zero speed detection 629
 zero strain solid insertion material 1085
 zero slope 433
 zero state voltage vectors 729
 zero supporting voltage 1213
 zero switching losses 755, 849
 zero terminal voltage 773
 zero turn-on loss 773
 zero viscosity 202
 zero voltage 600, 854
 zero voltage crossing 260
 zero voltage cross-over 380 582, 942
 zero voltage current loops 683
 zero voltage full-wave resonant switch converter 877
 zero voltage information 598
 zero voltage loop 353, 646, 671 677, 680, 690, 698, 761, 762, 727
 zero voltage output periods 721
 zero voltage resonant-switch converter 881
 zero voltage resonant-switch dc-dc converter 875, 877
 zero voltage resonant-switch step-down dc-dc converter 881
 zero voltage resonant switching 260
 zero voltage state 730
 zero voltage switching 260, 755, 827, 861, 867, 875
 zero voltage switching full-wave resonant switch dc-dc converter 878
 zero voltage switching half-wave resonant switch dc-dc converter 875
 zero voltage turn-on 421, 587, 582, 886
 zero volts 422
 zig-zag secondary 480
 zig-zag winding 454, 466, 478
 zinc air battery 1135
 zinc carbon battery 1135
 zinc oxide 404, 591
 zinc oxide grains 405
 zinc oxide varistor pulse lifetime ratings 408
 zone physiological effects 1384
 ZVRS 260
 ZVS 260, 353, 755, 827
 ZVS characteristic 860
 ZVS full-wave 887-889
 ZVS half-wave 887-889
 ZVS resonant-switch, dc-to-dc step-up voltage converters 884
 α - β coordinates 936
 α - β -0 axis 935
 ΔV 1071
 Δ -Y transformer 922

