DESIGN AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF AXIAL-FLUX PERMANENT MAGNET SYNCHRONOUS MACHINE

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Abstract – Design aspects of the Axial Flux Permanent Magnet (AFPM) machines are discussed in this paper. Also a particular attention is given on design and performance analysis of AFPM machine to study influence of initial design parameters, air-gap flux density, electrical loading, current density, diameter ratio on machine efficiency. A comprehensive approach is used for design of AFPM machine. Then design flowchart of AFPM machines is presented. Optimal design of axial flux permanent magnet machine with the purpose of enhancing machine efficiency is found by using genetic algorithm. A 3-phase, 11 kW, double-stage AFPM synchronous machine with two stators and rotor is designed and then three dimensional finite element analyses is performed to validate the design procedure. It is found that the results completely agree with the presented procedure. Furthermore, the influence of slot opening is investigated on performance of AFPM machines.

Keywords: Axial Flux Permanent Magnet (AFPM) Machine, Sizing Equations, Genetic Algorithm (GA), Analytical Method, Sensitivity Analysis, Finite Element Analysis (FEA), Slot Opening

1. Introduction

The development in the manufacturing of permanent magnets makes them available in different grades, which include a wide range of properties and application requirements. Thus, electrical machines account remarkable value of total global electricity consumption [1-2].

The electrical machines which are using permanent magnet (PM) in their construction have become more attractive option than other kinds. PM machines have more efficiency, higher power and/or torque density, better dynamic performance, simple construction and maintenance.

Among the PM electrical machines, Axial Flux Permanent Magnet (AFPM) machines topology provides a higher power-to-weight ratio that it causes smaller core and higher efficiency [3-6]. This advantage makes AFPM machines appropriate candidate for electrical vehicles and aircrafts [7]. Furthermore, according to their extreme axial compactness and thin structure, they are proper for using in pumps, fans and household applications [8-10]. AFPM machines are also used in generation system as generator of wind turbines [11] and micro turbines [12-13].

In this paper, the entire equations required for AFPM machine design are presented in Section II and III. Moreover, overall design concerns and restrictions for an AFPM machine are presented in Section II. Some features of GA and an objective function with the aim of high efficiency subjected to practical and performance restrictions are introduced in Section IV. In Section V, sensitivity analysis is used to reach design domination and recognize machine behavior on design criteria. In Section VI, a computer aid program for design of an AFPM machine using GA is attempted. In Section VII the details of the design procedure are given and then the design validation is proved by three dimensional finite element analysis. The effect of slot opening on machine performance is studied in Section VIII. Finally, conclusions are given in Section IX.

2. Sizing Procedure

The design procedure of a rotating electrical machine is shown in Fig.1.

![Design procedure of a rotating electrical machine](image-url)

Fig. 1. Design procedure of a rotating electrical machine

The design of a PM electrical machine can be commenced by defining certain basic characteristics such as output power, rated speed or rated angular speed, rated frequency, rated voltage, number of phases, and number of pole pairs and slots of the machine [14].

The criteria for choosing promising slot/pole
combinations (Ns/2p) have been presented by several authors and can be summarized as follows [15-17]:

The winding factor should be high to produce high torque.

The lowest common multiple (LCM) between the number of poles and slots should be high.

The greatest common divisor (GCD) between the number of poles and slots should be high and also an even number.

2.1 PM Air-gap Flux Density

In permanent magnet machines, the air-gap flux density must be in a sensible relation to the remanent flux density of the permanent magnet material. From the economy point of view of this material, the maximum air-gap flux density with permanent magnets should be about half of the remanent flux density.

The required thickness of the PM “hPM” to obtain desired air-gap flux density is calculated as [3]:

\[ h_{PM} = \frac{\mu_{r,PM} B_y K_{Carter} g}{0.95 B_f - \frac{B_y}{\sigma_{LPM}}} \]  

(1)

Where “\( \mu_{r,PM} \)” is permanent magnet relative permeability, “\( B_y \)” air-gap flux density, “\( K_{Carter} \)” Carter coefficient, “\( g \)” axial length of air-gap, “\( \sigma_{LPM} \)” is leakage factor which is used to model the wasting flux density.

In [18] and [19] the leakage factor is calculated by analytical method for PM machines.

2.2 Winding Selection

Choosing an appropriate winding for machine is very important. This is a critical phase with respect to the final characteristics of the machine. A guiding attitude is that a polyphase winding with high slot number produces more sinusoidal current linkage.

Different kind of winding is used in AFPMs. Distributed winding, concentrated winding and drum winding are three most common used windings. Among the mentioned windings, concentrated winding is mostly used in AFPMs because of low end winding, low copper cost owing to less coils, simple winding structure, and simple stator core for different number of phases [5]-[20].

2.3 Main Sizing Equations

For each electric machine, if stator leakage inductance and resistance are neglected, the electromagnetic apparent power is defined as:

\[ S_{Eim} = \epsilon \frac{P_{out}}{\eta \cos(\phi)} \]  

(2)

where “\( P_{out} \)” is output power, “\( \eta \)” is machine efficiency, “\( \cos(\phi) \)” is power factor and the coefficient “\( \epsilon \)” is the ratio of the EMF induced by the rotor excitation flux at no-load “\( E_i \)” to the machine terminal voltage “\( V_{ph} \)” and defined by equation (3):

\[ \epsilon = \frac{E_f}{V_{ph}} = \begin{cases} \text{Motor}, & \epsilon < 1 \\ \text{Generator}, & \epsilon > 1 \end{cases} \]  

(3)

Note that in permanent magnet machines “\( E_f \)” is \( e_{ph,PM} \).

Also the output power of machine can be expressed as:

\[ P_{out} = \eta m \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T e_{ph,PM}(t) i_s(t) dt \]  

(4)

where “\( e_{ph,PM}(t) \)” is the phase EMF induced by the PM, “\( e_{ph,PM} \)” is the peak value of EMF, “\( i_s(t) \)” is the phase current, “\( i_s \)” is the peak value of phase current and “\( m \)” is number of stator phase. The quantity “\( K_p \)” is termed the electrical power waveform factor and it is defined as:

\[ K_p = 1 \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T e(t) \times i(t) \frac{e_{ph,PM} \times i_s}{d} dt \]  

(5)

For AFPM machines, the peak value of the phase air-gap EMF and the peak value of the phase current can be expressed as:

\[ e_{ph,PM} = K_e n_{ph} B_y \frac{\omega}{p} (1 - k_d^2) D_{out}^2 \]  

(6)

\[ i_s = \frac{\pi K_i A (1 + k_d) D_{out}}{2m n_{ph}} \]  

(7)

“\( K_e \)” is the EMF factor which incorporates winding distribution factor “\( K_e \)” and per-unit portion of air-gap area-total spanned by the machine’s salient poles (if any) [21]. Also, “\( n_{ph} \)” is number of coil turns in series per phase winding. For a surface-mounted AFPM machine the coefficient “\( k_d \)” is equal to the value [14].

\[ K_e = \frac{\pi W_{PM}}{8 \tau_{pole}} \]  

(8)

“\( W_{PM} \)” is magnet width and “\( \tau_{pole} \)” is pole pitch.

In AFPM machines, the diameter ratio “\( k_d \)” is an important design parameter which has significant effect on the characteristics of the machine. To operate the machine in optimized state, the value of \( k_d \) has to be chosen carefully. The torque production capability of AFPM machines, as a function of \( k_d \), is described in Fig. 2. The curve is scaled for the maximum torque to be equal to value 1. The optimum value of \( k_d \) is equal to
\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} = 0.57735.
\]

Fig. 2. Torque as a function of \( k_d \)

Substitution of (6) and (7) into (4) yield an expression for the output power of an AFPM machine:

\[
P_{\text{out}} = \frac{\pi}{2} \eta K_p K_e K_l (B_g A \frac{\omega}{p} (1 - k_d^2)) (1 + k_d) D_{\text{out}}
\]

where “\( A \)” is electrical loading, “\( p \)” is number of pole pairs, “\( \omega \)” is angular frequency and “\( D_{\text{out}} \)” is outer diameter.

The outer diameter of the stator is the most important dimension of AFPM motors and it can be expressed as:

\[
D_{\text{out}} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{e_{\text{out}}}{2 \eta K_p K_e K_l B_g A \frac{\omega}{p} (1 - k_d^2) (1 + k_d)}
\]

(11)

The external diameter of the AFPM machine can be calculated by:

\[
D_{\text{ext}} = D_{\text{out}} + 2 l_{\text{end}}
\]

(12)

where “\( l_{\text{end}} \)” is radial length of the end-winding and it can be calculated by:

\[
l_{\text{end}} = l_e + 3 \frac{S_{\text{Cu}}}{\pi K_{\text{Cu}}}
\]

(13)

where “\( l_e \)” is the constant describing the distance between the stator core, “\( K_{\text{Cu}} \)” copper fill factor and end-winding and “\( S_{\text{Cu}} \)” is the cross sectional area of copper per phase and pole [22].

### 2.1 Rotor Core Geometry

The thickness of the stator yoke can be calculated as [3]:

\[
L_{\text{ys}} = \frac{B_g \pi D_{\text{out}} (1 + k_d)}{8p B_{\text{ys}}}
\]

(14)

\[
B_{\text{cr}} = \begin{cases} 
5.47 f^{-0.32}, & f > 40 \\
1.7 \text{ to } 1.8, & f \leq 40 
\end{cases}
\]

(15)

Calculating the maximum deflection value of rotor is very important. For an AFPM machine, deflection can be calculated by [23]:

\[
\frac{Y_{\text{deflection}}}{D} = M \frac{r^2}{D} + Q_n \frac{r^3}{D} K' - q \frac{r^2}{D} K''
\]

(16)

\[
q = \frac{B_g^2}{2 \mu_0}
\]

(17)

\[
Q_n = \frac{q}{2 \pi} \left(r_{\text{out}}^2 - r_{\text{in}}^2\right)
\]

(18)

where “\( M \)” is radial bending moment of shaft, “\( Q_n \)” is shear force, “\( D \)” plate constant, “\( r_{\text{shaft}} \)” is shaft radius, “\( K, K', K'' \)” are constants depending on inner and outer diameters of machine. Also “\( q \)” is Maxwell stress.

### 2.2 Stator Core Geometry

The thickness of the stator yoke can be calculated based on the air-gap flux and the allowed flux density in the stator yoke as [3]:

\[
L_{\text{ys}} = \frac{B_g \pi a_p D_{\text{out}} (1 + k_d)}{8p B_{\text{ys}}}
\]

(19)

\[
B_{\text{ys}} = 4.38 f^{-0.32}
\]

(20)

The required stator yoke thickness is depending on the machine magnetic loading and mechanical characteristics. If the number of pole pairs is small, stator yoke thickness will be determined by machine specific loading. As it is shown in figure 4, if the number of pole pairs were large, the stator yoke thickness will be very thin, therefore mechanical constructions is determining the stator yoke thickness. In this situation, the stator yoke thickness is dependent to natural frequency of stator, height of the stator teeth and winding.

Natural frequency of stator yoke “\( f_{\text{ns}} \)” is expressed by Young method [24]:
where \( K_{fn} \) is the lumped stiffness and \( M_{fn} \) is the lumped mass.

### 2.3 Carte’s Coefficient

To be able to calculate the magnetic voltage manually over the air-gap, the geometry of the air-gap has to be simplified. Often in an electrical machine, the surfaces of both the stator and the rotor are split with slots. The flux density always decreases at the slot opening and therefore it is not easy to define the average flux density of the slot pitch between the stator and the rotor.

\[
g_e = g k_{Carter} \tag{22}
\]

The equivalent slot opening in which the flux density is zero, is:

\[
b_e = k_{Carter} b \tag{23}
\]

The Carter factor is:

\[
k_{Carter} = \frac{\tau_{Slot,ave}}{\tau_{Slot,ave} - \gamma g} \tag{24}
\]

\[
\gamma = \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{b}{2g} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{b}{2g} \right) - \log \left( 1 + \left( \frac{b}{2g} \right)^2 \right) \right] \tag{25}
\]

\[
\approx \frac{b}{5g + b}
\]

The Carter factor is also the ratio of the maximum flux density \( B_{Max} \) to the average flux density \( B_{ave} \):

\[
k_{Carter} = \frac{B_{Max}}{B_{ave}} \tag{26}
\]

### 2.4 Stator Slot Geometry

A semi-closed slot is shown in Fig. 5. Because of disk structure of stator in AFPMs, by incrementing machine diameter from in to out, the slot teeth width increases.

The slot teeth width in inner diameter has the minimum value, so the minimum geometry of slot is determined. Therefore, the minimum required dimensions of the slot are determined based on teeth width in inner diameter. Moreover, saturation of slot teeth is one of the important factors to determine slot geometry.

Cross section of each conductor is:

\[
S_a = \frac{I_{ph}}{a_{ph}} \tag{27}
\]

Current density “\( J_s \)” is determined by cooling system. Number of coil conductors in one slot is:

\[
N_{Coil} = a_p N_{ph} \frac{Q}{m} \tag{28}
\]

Cross section of slot “\( S_{Slot} \)” should be applied in the following conditions [25]:

\[
S_{Slot} \geq \frac{S_a}{k_{Cu}} \tag{29}
\]

The minimum cross section of copper for each slot “\( S_{Cu} \)” is:

\[
S_{Cu} = \frac{2S_u N_{Coil}}{k_{Cu}} \tag{30}
\]

The coil span is:

\[
W_{Slot} = \tau_{Slot, min} - C_{min} \tag{31}
\]

Where “\( C_{min} \)” is tooth width in inner diameter. The minimum value of tooth width in inner diameter should be determined based on maximum flux density and mechanical constrains.

Now the slot length is:

\[
l_{Slot} = \frac{W_{Coil}}{S_{Cu}} \tag{32}
\]
3. Losses and Efficiency Calculation

3.1 Phase Resistance and Copper Loss

Copper loss is one of the main losses of electrical machines. So, to estimate accurate value of copper losses, it is important to find the phase resistance of the machine. Resistance of copper wires is depending on the temperature. Also it will be essential to determine the temperature of windings. The phase resistance is defined as [12]:

\[ R_{ph} = \frac{l_{Cu}}{I_{Cu}} \left( 1 + K_{T,Cu} (T - 20) \right) \]  

where “\( l_{Cu} \)” is the length of winding, “\( K_{T,Cu} \)” is temperature coefficient of copper, “\( T \)” is coil temperature, “\( \sigma_{ Cu } \)” is electric conductivity of copper and “\( a_p \)” is number of parallel paths or conductors.

The length of winding is determined by [12]:

\[ l_{Cu} = 2N_{ph} (l_s + 0.083p + 1.217) r_{pole, ave} + 0.02m \]  

Where “\( l_s \)” and “\( r_{pole, ave} \)” are the length of the stator stack and pole pitch in average radius respectively.

The copper loss can be calculated by:

\[ P_{Cu} = m R_{ph} I_{ph}^2 \]  

The stator’s high frequency current and high frequency magnetic field cause eddy current losses and it is defined as [26]:

\[ P_{eddy,Cu} = \frac{V_{Cu}(2\pi f B_g d_w)^2}{32 \rho_{Cu}} \times 10^{-3} \]  

where “\( V_{Cu} \)”, “\( d_w \)”, and “\( \rho_{Cu} \)” are copper volume, diameter of each wire of conductor and resistivity of copper, respectively.

3.2 Core Losses

Due to the complicated phenomena in laminated core, calculating core losses is too difficult. Up to now, deferent methods are presented. The best way to calculate core loss is to classify it into three parts, hysteresis losses, eddy current losses, and excess losses. According to the classification, the core losses per unit volume can be expressed:

\[ P_{Fe} = k_{hys} \hat{B}^2 f + \pi^2 \frac{\sigma_{Fe} d^2}{6} (\hat{B} f)^2 + 8.67 k_{exc} (\hat{B} f)^2 \]  

where “\( k_{hys} \)” Coefficient of hysteresis losses and “\( k_{exc} \)” excess losses are obtained based on core losses of the machine in deferent frequencies. Usually this information is presented by manufacturers.

Additional core losses which cannot be calculated easily are appeared as stray losses. The stray losses are consisted of two parts, harmonic losses in the ferromagnetic core of AC machines and other anomalous losses [12], [22].

\[ P_{stray} = k_{stray} P_{output} \]  

The coefficient “\( k_{stray} \)” is depending on the machine’s output power.

3.3 Eddy Current Losses in PMs and Rotor Disks

The main part of losses in permanent magnet machines and low-speed machines are copper and core losses. In addition, eddy current losses in PMs are appeared because of existence of harmonic component in air-gap flux density distortion. The eddy current losses are occurred in the permanent magnets and rotor disks. Usually the eddy current losses are neglected. But note that it is the main losses in high-speed machines. Also for semi-closed stator slot, the eddy current losses are not significant.

In this study we studied low-speed machine and used semi-closed slot. So calculation of eddy current was neglected. But using finite element method to calculation eddy current is suggested for open slot.

3.4 Mechanical Losses

Mechanical losses or rotational losses consist of mainly friction losses in bearings, winding losses and ventilation losses. Bearing losses is dependent on some factors such as, the bearing type, bearing diameter, rotor speed, load and lubricant used. Winding losses occur when friction is created with the rotating parts of the machine and the surrounding air. Unlike frictional loss, winding loss increases non-linearly with the speed. There are many semi-empirical equations for calculating the rotational losses giving various degrees of accuracy [13], [27].

\[ P_{mech} = \frac{1}{2} \pi f \rho_{air} (2\pi n)^3 (R_{out}^5 - R_{shaft}^5) \]  

where “\( c_f \)” drag coefficient for turbulent flow and it can be found as:

\[ c_f = \frac{3.87}{\sqrt{Re}} \]  

That “\( Re \)” the Reynolds number for a rotating disk where its outer radius is:
\[ Re = \frac{2\pi N_p \rho_{air} R_{out}^2}{\mu_{air}} \]  
(41)

where “\( \mu_{air} \)” is the dynamic viscosity of air.

### 3.5 Total Losses and Efficiency

Finally, total losses of the machine and the efficiency can be calculated by:

\[
P_{\text{Loss, total}} = \sum P_{\text{Loss}} = P_{\text{Cu}} + P_{\text{stray}} + P_{\text{Fe}} + P_{\text{mech}}
\]
(42)

\[
\eta = \frac{P_{\text{out}}}{P_{\text{in}}} = \frac{P_{\text{out}}}{P_{\text{out}} + \sum P_{\text{Loss}}}
\]
(43)

In Fig 6 design procedure of axial flux PM machine is presented based on expressed sizing equations.

Fig. 6. Design procedure of AFPM Machine

### 4. Optimized Design of AFPM Machine

#### 4.1 Fitness Function

Fitness function is based on minimizing the machine’s losses (copper losses, core losses, stray losses and mechanical losses) to reach maximum efficiency. By reducing copper losses, phase resistance will be decreased and by reducing core losses, the machine’s total volume will decrease too. Limitations of optimizing the function parameters are presented in table 1. Also lower and higher band of parameters are presented.

\[
f_{\text{opt}}(B_g, A, J, k_d, \alpha_p, g)
\]
(44)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sign</th>
<th>( x_{\min} )</th>
<th>( x_{\max} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( B_g )</td>
<td>( X_1 )</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( A )</td>
<td>( X_2 )</td>
<td>30 [kA/m]</td>
<td>75 [kA/m]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( J )</td>
<td>( X_3 )</td>
<td>3[A/mm²]</td>
<td>7.5[A/mm²]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( k_d )</td>
<td>( X_4 )</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_p )</td>
<td>( X_5 )</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( g )</td>
<td>( X_6 )</td>
<td>0.001 [m]</td>
<td>0.003 [m]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In low speed axial flux PM machines, copper losses are dominated and other losses are neglected. But in this study, we consider \( P_{\text{Fe}} \) and also we assumed that the \( P_{\text{stray}} \) is constant 1% of the output power to reach to the good accuracy. The mechanical losses and eddy current losses are neglected because the value of these losses is not significant.

#### 4.2 Genetic Algorithms and Optimization

The Genetic Algorithms is an arbitrary universal research method that imitates the metaphor of a natural biological process. GAs is capable for complicated optimization process by exploring an enormous space of possible solutions effectively. GAs operates on a population of potential solutions applying the principle of survival of the fittest to produce better estimates to a solution. At each generation, a new set of estimates is created by the procedure of selecting individuals according to their level of fitness in the problem domain and breeding them together using operators hired from natural genetics. They generate a classification of populations by using a selection mechanism, crossovers and mutation according to the search mechanism. GA is not reliant to the starting point of the research. It does not want any derivative information of the objective function or the constraint functions. It has a minimum chance of being trapped in a local minimum.

In a GAs, a population of strings (chromosomes), which encode candidate solutions (individuals) to an optimization problem, evolves to better solutions [28]. Each decision which is variable in the parameter set, is encoded as a binary string and these are concatenated to form a chromosome. The use of Gray coding has been advocated as a method of overcoming the hidden representational bias in conventional binary representation as the Hamming distance between adjacent values is constant [29-30].

#### 4.3 Chromosome Representation
The first step in the GA is to generate a primary population. This is usually reached by generating the necessary number of individuals using a random number generator that uniformly distributes numbers in the desired range. Each chromosome in proposed GA is a 1×6 array as being demonstrated in Fig 7, where $B_g$, $A$, $J_s$, $k_d$, $\alpha_p$ and $g$ are air-gap flux density, electrical loading, current density, diameter ratio, relative magnet width and the air-gap length respectively. Every generation has a chromosome population of 50 and gets randomly selected from the first generation.

![Fig. 7. Chromosome representation (1 × 6 array)](image)

It should be noted that the presented chromosome contains the genes “$K_w$” and “$N_{ph}$”. The fitness function depends on all the mentioned genes tacitly as the ratios “$K_e$”, “$K_i$”, “$K_p$”, and parameters like the outer diameter and the total length of machine are functions of the genes.

Chromosome variables or genes have real values, so real coding is applied for normalizing each gene as shown in Fig. 1b. Linear normalization results from:

$$G_{\text{Normal}} = \frac{0.8 - 0.2}{G_{\text{max}} - G_{\text{min}}} (G - G_{\text{min}})$$

(45)

where “$G$” is the chromosome gene value varies between “$G_{\text{min}}$” and “$G_{\text{max}}$”. The normalized values are limited between upper and lower limits 0.8 and 0.2, respectively.

![Fig. 8. Real-gene coding (linear normalization)](image)

**4.4 Crossover**

The basic operation for producing new chromosomes in the GA is the Crossover. Like its counterpart in nature, crossover produces new individuals that have some parts of both parent’s genetic material. The simplest form of the crossover is the single-point crossover, described in the Overview of GAs. In this section, a number of variations on crossover are described and debated and the relative merits of each have been reviewed [30].

The elitist method is used as a selection operator for two-point crossover as being shown in Fig 9. At first, two random numbers between one and “chromosome length − 1” are generated (1 ≤ random number ≤ chromosome length − 1).

**4.5 Mutation**

In natural evolution, mutation is a random procedure that one allele of a gene is replaced by another to produce a new genetic structure. In GAs, mutation is randomly applied with low probability. In this paper the range 0.005 and 0.05 is selected and it modifies the elements in the chromosomes. Usually considered as a background operator, the role of mutation is often seen as providing certitude that the probability of searching any given string will be never zero, also acting as a safety net to recover good genetic material that may be lost through the action of selection and crossover [28-29]. With non-binary representations, mutation is achieved by either perturbing the gene values or random selection of new values within the allowed range.

In GA programming, selecting fitness function to attain the best solution of a problem is very important [31]. An unsuitable fitness function may lead to the wrong answer. Another possible problem may happen when the created genes are quite better than other genes [33], and the answer may lead to a local solution. In this paper, the AFPM machine efficiency (eq. 38) is selected as the fitness function is calculated for each step and chromosome.

![Fig. 9. Genetic Algorithm Flowchart](image)
In Fig. 9, genetic algorithm flowchart and in Fig. 10 optimized design flowchart of AFPM machines are illustrated.

According to Fig. 13, by increasing $B_g$, the efficiency of machine will be increased. Also, air-gap flux density should be selected according to the stator teeth and the stator material saturation. High value of flux density could be reached by using high-quality material, that this issue made machines cost extremely high.

5. Sensitivity Analysis of AFPM Machine

In this paper, sensitivity analysis is used in order to achieve more design ascendancy and realize machine’s behavior on design criteria in AFPM machine. The results of the sensitivity analysis in the selections are used to define lower bound and upper bound of the design variations in genetic algorithm.

One of the most important design parameters of AFPM machines is “$k_d$” diameter ratio that selecting appropriate value for this parameter has high influence in machine’s performance. In Fig. 11 the efficiency of the machine is shown by using different values of diameter ratio. According to Fig. 11, by increasing the $k_d$, the efficiency of the machine will be decreased. Also the required number of winding turns will be increased so that radial length of the end winding will increase too. This issue is due to the increased copper losses that is the dominated loss of the machine in low-speed application.

In addition, according to Fig. 12, increasing $k_d$ is because of the stator’s outer diameter increment and consequently total volume of the machine and core losses.

Air-gap flux density is one of the main design parameter that has influence on the machine’s efficiency. In Fig. 13 the efficiency of the machine is plotted for different values of air-gap flux density.
Current density is one of the design parameters that affects operations and the thermal behavior of the machines. By increasing the current density, the cross section of conductor will be decreased (Eq. 26) and the phase resistance will increase. As a result, the machine’s efficiency will be decreased. On the other hand, by increasing the current density, the machine’s volume will be reduced. Also, this issue will be caused because of reducing coppers that are used in machine and consequently machine cost. The effects of current density on machine’s efficiency and machine’s volume are shown in Fig 14 and Fig 15 respectively.

![Fig. 14. Sensitivity analysis of machine efficiency versus current density](image)

![Fig. 15. Sensitivity analysis of machine volume versus current density](image)

**6. Result of optimization**

The optimization is executed for fitness function (minimizing total loss). Variations for every generation are shown in Fig. 16. According to fitness function, the goal is to minimize the total loss of the machine. We set weight 0.9 and 0.1 for both copper loss and core loss respectively hence copper loss is the dominant loss in low speed machines.

![Fig. 16. Fitness Function versus chromosomes in each generation](image)

The design data of double stage inner rotor slotted AFPM machine for both initial and optimized design are presented in table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design Data</th>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>GA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k_d</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B_g</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>30000 A/m</td>
<td>31751.1A/m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J_s</td>
<td>3.1×10^6 A/m²</td>
<td>3.108×10^6 A/m²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>2mm</td>
<td>2mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ_p</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>0.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D_out</td>
<td>393.2mm</td>
<td>355.3mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D_in</td>
<td>235.9mm</td>
<td>196.5mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_rotor</td>
<td>17.8mm</td>
<td>19.5mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_y</td>
<td>13.7mm</td>
<td>15mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_PM</td>
<td>3.1mm</td>
<td>5.5mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L_slot</td>
<td>29.1mm</td>
<td>33.1mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P_Cu</td>
<td>1048.5 W</td>
<td>863.6 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P_Core</td>
<td>119.5 W</td>
<td>124.06W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>90.4%</td>
<td>91.76%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The minimum loss of the machine is obtained when genetic algorithm is 987.66 watt and the initial designed loss was 1168 watt. The value of total losses (copper losses and core losses) is shown separately in Fig. 17. Also, the maximum efficiency of the machine for initial design and optimized design are shown in Fig 18.

According to Fig. 19, the volume of optimized machine is reduced and consequently, the machine’s weight will decrease. This issue can be seen in Fig. 20.
In many literates, it has been reported that an axial flux machine has an intrinsic 3D geometry. Therefore, analytical or 2D finite element analysis does not yield adequate accuracy in computations because it is usually performed on the average radius [33-35]. Although, 3D finite element method is time consuming, it is considered to use it to analyze AFPM machines behaviors and allow an accurate analysis of magnetic devices considering geometric details and magnetic nonlinearity. So, it is a suitable technique for analyzing AFPM machines.

In this paper, the result of 3D finite element analysis is presented. The software package, CEDRAT FLUX 3D has been used to execute all simulations. The model of studied AFPM machine is illustrated in Fig 21. Mesh diagram of the studied machine is shown in Fig 22. The density of meshes in stator teeth and PMs are increased because of an accurate simulation. In Fig 23 the flux diagram of the studied machine is shown. It shows that maximum flux density in hotspots is 2.158 T.
One of the most main characteristics of the machine is the air-gap flux density. In Fig 24 air-gap flux density caused by permanent-magnets placed in the middle of air-gap plane is shown.

![Fig. 24. Air-gap flux density in average radius calculated by FEM](image)

In Fig 25, the induced phase voltages are shown. Moreover, the evaluation between the analytical method and the time transient three dimensional finite element analysis is given in table 3. According to the obtained results in table 3, it is obvious that there is an acceptable agreement between the design necessities and the finite element analysis.

![Fig. 25. Induced phase voltages of the machine calculated by FEM](image)

| Table 3. FEM results of the machine |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Parameter                         | Analytical      | FEM            |
| Maximum Air-gap Flux Density      | 0.75            | 0.8            |
| Maximum Flux Density in Stator Teeth | 1.84          | 1.81           |
| Maximum Flux Density in Stator    | 1.4             | 1.34           |
Maximum Flux Density in Rotor Disk 1.4 1.32
Induced phase voltage 231 232.8

8. Sensitivity Analysis of Slot opening

The slot opening must be selected properly according to the flux leakage and cogging torque. It is suggested to use finite element sensitivity analysis. The effect of slot opening on air-gap flux density, induced voltage and cogging torque is presented in Fig 26, Fig 27 and Fig 28 respectively.

Slot opening affects the magnetic field in the air-gap. Slot opening reduces the average magnetic flux per pole and also it influences the air-gap flux distribution. As it is shown in Fig. 26, when the slot opening has high value, reluctance of top part of the slot is remarkable and it leads to the reduction of the flux density under the slot opening area. The air-gap flux density at the edge of the stator teeth under slot opening has a sharp peak. This is known as the slot edge effect [36].

According to Fig. 27a and Fig. 27b, back-EMF is reduced under the slot opening area. Reducing the back-EMF in top part of waveform is caused by generating harmonic components.

In axial flux PM machines, cogging torque is generated by the interaction between PMs and stator teeth. It is the peripheral component of attractive force that tries to maintain the alignment between the stator teeth and the PMs. Cogging torque is an adverse effect that adds a ripple component to the appropriate constant output torque [37]. Furthermore, this torque ripple leads to generating vibrations and acoustic noises which is deleterious to the machine’s performance [38-39].
It is obvious that the slot opening has important impact on the cogging torque. In some researches, cogging torque can be effectively reduced by regulating the slot opening [40-42]. In order to find an admissible value of slot opening according to the mechanical constrains, finite element sensitivity analysis is executed for different value of slot opening. It should be mentioned that slot opening is considered as a function of the coil span. As it is demonstrated in Fig. 28, by reducing the slot opening and making the top part of the slot close, cogging torque is decreasing. Consequently, the slot opening should be the minimum acceptable value but the mechanical limitations of the minimum slot opening for inserting coils in the slot must be adhered.

9. Conclusion
Design procedure of AFPM machines were presented completely. The impact of diameter ratio and the current density as two key parameters that have special effect on machine efficiency was studied. Diameter ratio has effects on volume, mass and the efficiency; also it should be selected adequately. Moreover, the current density influences on both volume and efficiency of the machine strictly. Therefore, to obtain high-efficiency, Low value of diameter ratio and current density is considered. Maximum efficiency of an AFPM machine was explored by using sensitivity analysis and GA with respect of practical and performance limitations. Obtaining lower loss and higher efficiency of the machine is the objective of this optimization.

As a design point, selecting desired value of slot opening is proposed to reduce the harmonic of inducted voltage, cogging torque and consequently the acoustic noises.

References


