

# High-Speed PM Generator for Optimized Sizing Based on Particle Swarm for Smart Grids

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## Abstract

High-Speed, Permanent-Magnet (HSPM) types of micro generators play an important role in power generation involving Smart Grids Applications. This paper illustrates the benefits of HSPM generators compared to the traditional Permanent Magnet (PM) synchronous machines which offer significant reduction in both weight and volume. An optimized analytical design is proposed and compared with the original machine design of a typical 500 kW output power at tip speed of 250 m/s. These two designs take into consideration multiple factors including classical sizing and problem formulation for optimizing efficiency with bounded constraints. A Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) algorithm was formulated to optimize efficiency as an objective or fitness function and to minimize machine size as a non-linear function with bounded parameter constraints. Particle swarm algorithms use population based on flocks of birds or insects swarming. The parameter variables used for this type of optimization consist of rotor length to diameter ratio, rotor radius, and stack length. It was determined that using the PSO algorithm in HSPMSG sizing is able to solve constrained and unconstrained optimization problems. Test results including simulations using PSO Tool in Matlab showed significant improvement in machine design and performance. Furthermore, it was observed that the proposed technique has the advantage of limiting losses at higher frequencies with low weight/volume applications thus improving overall efficiency. Other system parameters such as power factor were also shown to improve as well. Finally, several analytical design problems with waveform variations, harmonics distortion, rotor losses, and effects of poles changing were provided to show the merit of the proposed optimization technique.

## Introduction

There has been increased interest in smart and micro-grids connect systems, especially those dealing with onsite generation [1]. This is largely due to limitation in the use of traditional power plants heavily constrained by economic and environmental regulations [2]. Length-to-diameter is the most important factor defined as the rotor aspect ratio in high-speed applications [3]. Classical and optimum designs of high speed PM alternators are studied for distributed power generation applications [4]. In the case of a high speed PM motor, temperature sensitivity of magnetic materials is an additional factor and Samarium Cobalt is often used to realize higher temperature designs [1-5]. In fact, there have been extensive studies dealing with HSPM design and applications that were conducted and listed in the literature [5-22]



**III. Stator and Rotor Material.** The rotor is usually built from the same material as the stator for ease of construction but it can be made of any economical steel provided it is strong enough for the given function [31]. The four main materials are low carbon steels, silicon (Si) steels, nickel (Ni) alloy steels, and cobalt (Co) alloy steels [43]. The M19, 29 gauge electrical silicon steel is selected for its economical, thin laminations, and saturation flux density of about 1.8 [31].

### Machine Design Parameters

**I. Stator Mechanical Design.** The main aspect considered in this process is the stator mechanical design, either slotted or slotless. A slotless stator has the armature windings located in the air gap of the machine as shown in Fig. 2.

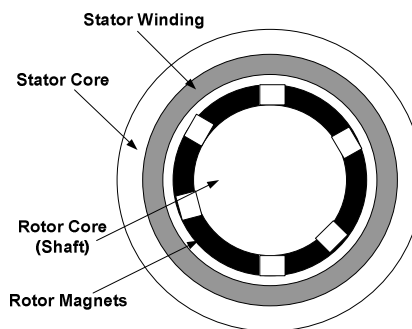


Figure 2: Slotless Stator Design

The overall performance of a slotless stator is always inferior to equivalent slotted stator design and thus, does not appear often in high power applications (Fig. 3). The openings provide rigid housings for the conductors and associated insulation. The stator slot geometry as shown in Fig. 4 is selected to ensure that depression width is the same as the slot top width.

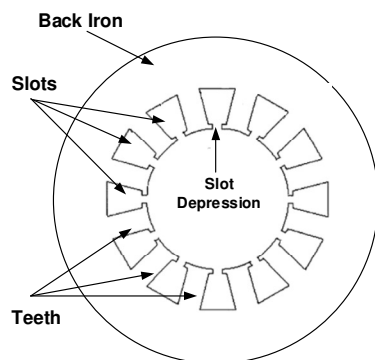


Figure 3: Slotted Stator Design

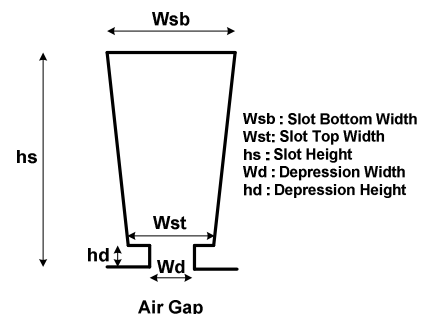


Figure 4: Stator Slot Geometry

In power applications requiring high number of phases, 36 slots are chosen for the initial motor design.

**II. Rotor Mechanical Design.** In high speed applications, the rotor aspect ratio, defined as length to diameter (L/D), is a critical parameter. A normal L/D ratio for wound rotor machine is 0.5 – 1.0 compared to 1 – 3 for a PM machine [27]. The rotor radius and rotational speed also determine the tip speed of the machine which is the surface velocity of the rotor (as defined by Eq. 1).

$$v_{tip} = r\omega_m \quad (1)$$

where  $\omega_m$  is the angular speed (rad/sec) and  $r$  is the rotor radius (m).

For most rotating machines, the upper limit on tip speed is between 100-250 m/s depending on the design criteria [37].

**III. Number of Poles and Magnets Pole Design.** The number of poles in a balanced rotational design is determined by Eq (1) as

$$N(2p) = 120f \quad (2)$$

where  $N$  is speed (rpm);  $p$  is the number of pole pairs; and  $f$  is the electrical frequency (Hz).

For a given rotational speed, an efficient solution is to have large number of poles and higher frequency [31]. The magnet poles are sometimes skewed to reduce cogging torque and smooth out variations in air gap reluctance, flux, and voltage waveforms. A skew factor is shown in Eq. (3).

$$k_{sn} = \frac{\sin(n\theta_s)}{\theta_s/2} \quad (3)$$

where  $\theta_s$  is the skew angle (rad) and  $n$  is the harmonic number.

**IV. Permanent Magnet Dimensions.** Using a first order approximation, the air gap flux density ( $B_g$ ) can be represented by Eq. (4) [28].

$$B_g = \frac{h_m}{h_m + g} B_r \quad (4)$$

where  $h_m$  is the magnet height (mm);  $g$  is the air gap (mm); and  $B_r$  is the magnet remnant flux density (T).

In order to get uniform magnetic fields, the magnet height is usually larger than the air gap by a factor of 5 to 10.

**V. Number of phases.** power, current, and voltage ratings in an electric machine is determined by the number of phases Eq. (5).

$$|P + jQ| = q \times V \times I \quad (5)$$

where  $P$  is the real power (W);  $Q$  is the reactive power (VAR);  $q$  is the number of phases;  $V$  is the RMS phase voltage (V); and  $I$  is the RMS current (A).

**VI. Slots per Pole per Phase.** The number of slots per pole per phase ( $m$ ) is an important parameter when considering motor design and it is calculated using Eq. (6).

$$m = \frac{N_s}{2 \times p \times q} \quad (6)$$

where  $N_s$  is the number of slots;  $p$  is the pole pairs; and  $q$  is the number of phases.

**VII. Stator Windings.** A slot fill factor ( $\lambda_s$ ) [31] is used to determine the extend of which the slot cross – sectional area is occupied by winding material Eq. (7).

$$\lambda_s = \frac{\text{Winding Area}}{\text{Total Slot Area}} \quad (7)$$

Overall, slot fill factors vary in value from 0.3 – 0.7 [31], depending on the number and size of the conductors in the slots. A slot fill factor of 0.5 is assumed.

### Machine Calculated Parameters

**I. Basic Model.** Assuming the machine is balanced, parameters are determined on a per – phase basis and can be applied to all phases as shown in Fig. 5.

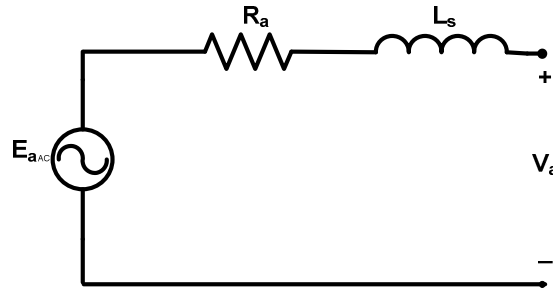


Figure 5: Per Phase Model

**II. Winding Resistances.** The resistance of the copper phase windings ( $R_a$ ) is calculated using Eq. (8).

$$R_a = \frac{l}{\sigma \times A} \quad (8)$$

where  $l$  is the length of conductor;  $\sigma$  is the winding conductivity; and  $A$  is the winding cross – sectional area.

The cross sectional area of the conductor ( $A_{ac}$ ) is obtained using the slot area and slot fill factor as shown in Eq. (9).

$$A_{ac} = \frac{A_s \times \lambda_s}{2 \times N_c} \quad (9)$$

where  $A_s$  is the slot area; and  $N_c$  is the number of turns per coil

The power loss resulting from eddy currents in the slot conductors appears as an increased resistance in the winding as in Fig. 6 [36] and determined by Eq (10).

$$P_{ec} = \frac{1}{12} \sigma L \omega_c h^3 \omega^2 \mu_0^2 H_m^2 \quad (10)$$

where  $H_m$  is the turn field intensity value; and  $\mu_0$  is the permeability of free space.

Since skin depth is defined as

$$\delta_s = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega \mu_0 \sigma}} \quad (11)$$

Equation (10) can be written as

$$P_{ec} = \frac{L \omega_c h^3}{6 \sigma \delta^4} H_m^2 \quad (12)$$

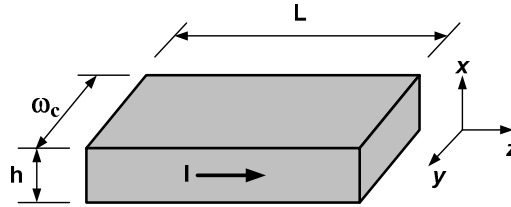


Figure 6: Rectangular Conductor Geometry.

Assuming that the slot conductors are distributed uniformly in the slot, the total slot eddy current loss is calculated by substituting the field intensity into Eq. (12) and summing over all  $n_s$  conductors as defined in Eq. (13).

$$P_e = \left( \frac{d_s L h^2 n_s^2}{9 \sigma \delta^4 \omega_s} \right) I^2 \quad (13)$$

where  $I$  is the RMS conductor current;  $\omega_s$  is the slot width (m); and  $d_s$  is the slot depth (m).

The single slot resistance ( $R_{sl}$ ) assuming  $n_s$  conductors connected in series is:

$$R_{sl} = \frac{\rho n_s^2 L}{k_{cp} \omega_s d_s} \quad (14)$$

where  $L$  is the slot length;  $k_{cp}$  is the conductor packing factor that is the ratio of cross sectional area occupied by conductors to the entire slot area; and  $\rho$  is the electrical resistivity ( $\Omega \cdot m$ ).

Using Eq. (14), the total slot resistance ( $R_{st}$ ) can be written as

$$R_{st} = R_{sl} + R_{ec} = R_{sl} (1 + \Delta_e) \quad (15)$$

In this equation,  $\Delta_e = R_{ec}/R_{sl}$  is a frequency-dependent term. Using Eq. (14) and Eq. (13), this term simplifies to

$$\Delta_e \equiv \frac{R_{ec}}{R_{sl}} = \frac{1}{9} \left( \frac{d_s}{\delta} \right)^2 \left( \frac{h}{\delta} \right)^2 \quad (16)$$

**III. Winding and Magnet Factors.** A winding factor ( $k_w$ ) is the ratio of flux linked by an actual winding to the flux linked by a full – pitch, concentrated factor ( $k_p$ ), and a breadth/distribution factor ( $k_b$ ) as shown in Eq. (17).

$$k_{wn} = k_{pn} \times k_{bn} \quad (17)$$

The pitch factor can be derived with the final result shown in Eq. (18).

$$k_{pn} = \sin\left(\frac{n \times \alpha}{2}\right) \times \sin\left(\frac{n \times \pi}{2}\right) \quad (18)$$

where  $n$  is the harmonic number; and  $\alpha$  is the short pitch coil as illustrated in Fig. 7. A phase winding normally consists of numerous coils linking flux slightly out of phase with each other as shown in Fig. 8 .

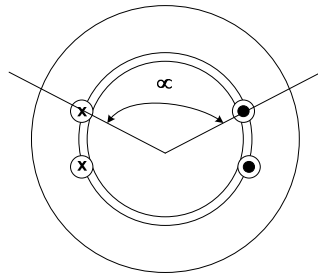


Figure 7: Short – Pitch Coil

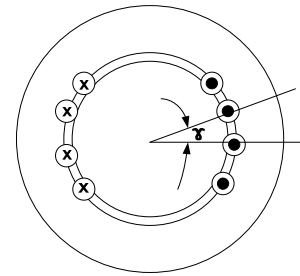


Figure 8: Winding Breadth

The breadth factor is derived either magnetically or geometrically by Eq. (19).

$$k_{bn} = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{n \times m \times \gamma}{2}\right)}{m \times \sin\left(\frac{n \times \gamma}{2}\right)} \quad (19)$$

where  $m$  is the number of slots per pole per phase; and  $\gamma$  is the coil electrical angle. The equation for slotted stator, surface magnet configuration is given by Eq. (20).

$$k_{gn} = \frac{R_i^{n_p-1}}{R_s^{2n_p} - R_i^{2n_p}} \times \left[ \left( \frac{n_p}{n_p + 1} \right) \times (R_2^{n_p+1} - R_1^{n_p+1}) + \frac{n_p}{n_p - 1} \times R_s^{2n_p} \times (R_1^{1-n_p} - R_2^{1-n_p}) \right] \quad (20)$$

where  $R_s$  is the outer magnetic boundary;  $R_2$  is the outer boundary of magnet;  $R_i$  is the inner magnetic boundary;  $R_1$  is the inner boundary of magnet;

$$R_s = R + h_m + g; \quad R_i = R_1 = R; \quad R_2 = R + h_m$$

**IV. Flux, Voltage and Current.** The air gap flux density is also affected by the magnet geometry in the air gap as depicted by Eq. (20). Since the magnet poles rotate north/south, the air gap flux density shape is approximated by Eq (21) as shown in Fig. 9.

$$k_c = \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\frac{\tau_s}{w_t} \times \left( 5 \times \frac{g}{w_s} + 1 \right)} \right]^{-1} \quad (21)$$

where  $w_s$  is the average slot width;  $w_t$  is the tooth width;  $\tau_s = w_s + w_t$ ;  $w_s = (w_{st} + w_{sb}) / 2$

$$g_e = k_c \times g \quad (22)$$

where  $g_e$  is the effective air gap.

$$PC = \frac{h_m}{g_e \times C_\phi} \quad (23)$$

where  $PC$  is the permeance coefficient;  $C_\phi$  is the flux concentration factor ( $\text{Am/Ag}$ ) =  $\frac{p \times \theta_m}{180}$

$$B_g = \frac{k_r C_\phi}{1 + k_r \times \frac{\mu_{rec}}{PC}} B_r \quad (24)$$

where  $\mu_{rec}$  is the recoil permeability;  $B_r$  is the remnant flux density (T); and  $k_r$  is the reluctance factor

$$B(\theta) = \sum_{\substack{n=1 \\ \text{n odd}}}^{\infty} B_n \times \sin(np\theta) \quad (25)$$

$$B_n = \frac{4}{n\pi} \times B_g \times k_{gn} \times \sin\left(\frac{np\theta_m}{2}\right) \times \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

where  $\theta_m$  is the magnet physical angle.

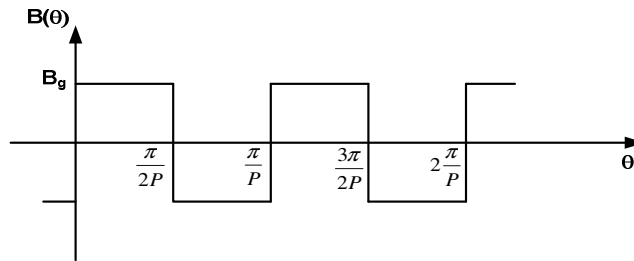


Figure 9: Air Flux Density

Assuming the radial flux through coil ( $B_{flux}$ ) is sinusoidally distributed, the peak flux ( $\phi_{pk}$ ) for this ideal coil is given by Eq. (27).

$$\phi = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{P}} B_{flux} \times R_s \times L_{st} d\theta \quad (26)$$

$$\phi_{pk} = \frac{2 \times R_s \times L_{st} \times B_{flux}}{p} \quad (27)$$



Through Faraday's Law, the back EMF ( $E_a$ ) for the machine is given by Eq. (29).

$$\lambda(\theta) = \sum_{\substack{n=1 \\ \text{nodd}}}^{\infty} \lambda_n \times \sin(np\theta) \quad (28)$$

where

$$\lambda_n = \frac{2 \times R_s \times L_{st} \times N_a \times B_n \times k_{wn} \times k_{sn}}{p}$$

$$E_a = \sum_{\substack{n=1 \\ \text{nodd}}}^{\infty} V_n \times \sin(np\theta) \quad (29)$$

where

$$V_n = \frac{d}{dt} \lambda_n = \omega_0 \times \lambda_n$$

The fundamental components are used to determine the internal voltage of the motor as depicted in Eqs. (30) and (31) [4, 36, 37].

$$B_1 = \frac{4}{\pi} \times B_g \times k_g \times \sin\left(\frac{p\theta_m}{2}\right) \quad (30)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{2 \times R_s \times L_{st} \times N_a \times k_w \times k_s \times B_1}{p}$$

$$E_a = \omega_0 \times \lambda \quad (31)$$

The number of armature turns ( $N_a$ ) could be found using Eq. (32) assuming each slot has 2 half coils.

$$N_a = 2 \times p \times N_c \quad (32)$$

where  $N_c$  is the number of turns per coil.

The vector relationship, illustrated in Fig. 10, between terminal voltage ( $V_a$ ), internal voltage ( $E_a$ ), and the synchronous reactance voltage drop is utilized to obtain Eq. (33) [29].

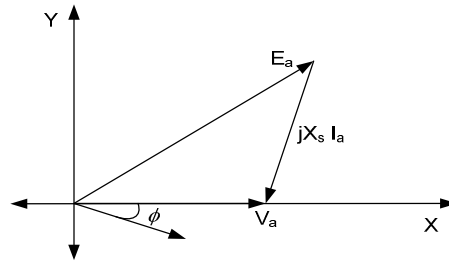


Figure 10: Phasor Relationship

$$V_a = \sqrt{E_a^2 + (X_s \times I_a \times \cos \phi)^2} + X_s \times I_a \times \sin \phi \quad (33)$$

$$I_a = \frac{P_{input}}{q \times V_a \times \cos \phi} \quad (34)$$

By substituting Eq. (34) in Eq. (33), (assuming  $\cos\phi = 0.99999 \cong 1$ ) the relation of the voltage could be found as a relation in output power, e.m.f and reactance (which could be calculated using previous and coming sections) from the resulting quadratic equation.

$$V_a^2 = E_a^2 + X_s^2 I_a^2 = E_a^2 + X_s^2 \frac{P_{input}^2}{9(V_a^2)}$$

$$V_a^4 - E_a^2 V_a^2 - X_s^2 \frac{P_{input}^2}{9} = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad BB = E_a^2; \quad CC = X_s^2 P_{input}^2 / 9$$

$$V_a^4 - BBV_a^2 - CC = 0$$

$$V_a = \sqrt{\frac{BB + \sqrt{BB^2 + 4CC}}{2}} \quad (35)$$

$$\text{The air gap power} \quad P_{air\ gap} = 3E_a I_a = T_e \omega_s = P_{wr} + P_{core} + P_{windage} \quad (36)$$

## V. Machine Inductances

To calculate the air gap inductance, a full – pitch, concentrated winding carrying a current I is initially examined which leads to an air gap flux density shown in Eq. (37) [36].

$$B_{flux} = \sum_{\substack{n=1 \\ n \text{ is odd}}}^{\infty} B_n \times \sin(np\theta) \quad (37)$$

$$B_n = \frac{4}{n\pi} \times \frac{\mu_0}{(g + h_m)} \times \frac{N_a \times I}{2p}$$

The air gap flux density becomes.

$$B_n = \frac{q}{2} \times \frac{4}{n\pi} \times \frac{\mu_0}{(g + h_m)} \times \frac{N_a \times I}{2p}$$

The flux can be found using Eq. 26 and the total flux linkage is  $\lambda = Na \phi$ . With all real winding effects included, the air gap inductance is then given by Eq. (38).

$$L_{ag} = \frac{\lambda}{i} = \frac{q}{2} \times \frac{4}{n\pi} \times \frac{\mu_0 \times R_s \times L_{st} \times N_a^2 \times k_{wn}^2}{n^2 \times p^2 \times (g + h_m)} \quad (38)$$

Assuming that the slot is rectangular with slot depressions as illustrated in Fig 4 results in a slot permeance per unit length given by Eq. (39) [36], [37].

$$Perm = \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{h_s}{w_{st}} + \frac{h_d}{w_d} \quad (39)$$

Assuming ( $m$ ) slots per pole per phase and a standard double layer winding, it can be shown that the slot leakage inductance is given by Eq. (40) through Eq. (42).

$$L_{as} = 2 \times p \times L_{st} \times Perm \times [4 \times N_c^2 (m - N_{sp}) + 2 \times N_{sp} \times N_c^2] \quad \text{self} \quad (40)$$

$$L_{am} = 2 \times p \times L_{st} \times Perm \times N_{sp} \times N_c^2 \quad \text{mutual} \quad (41)$$

$$L_{slot} = L_{as} - L_{am} \quad (3 \text{ phase}) \quad (42)$$

$$L_{slot} = L_{as} - 2 \times L_{am} \times \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{q}\right) \quad (\text{higher odd phases})$$

From [36], the total end turn inductance per phase is defined in Eq. (43).

$$L_e = \frac{\mu_0 \times N_c \times N_a^2 \times \tau_s}{2} \times \ln\left(\frac{\tau_s \times \pi}{\sqrt{2 \times A_s}}\right) \quad (43)$$

And the total inductance for the phase is the sum of the three inductances is given by Eq (44).

$$L_s = L_{ag} + L_{slot} + L_e, \quad X_s = \omega_0 \times L_s \quad (44)$$

## Basic Losses

- I. Core Losses.** Empirical data for M-19, 29 gauge material is obtained. An exponential curve fit is then applied to the data to obtain an equation for estimating the core losses Eq. (45) [31].

$$P_c = P_0 \times \left(\frac{B}{B_0}\right)^{\epsilon B} \times \left(\frac{f}{f_0}\right)^{\epsilon f} \quad (45)$$

$$P_R(\omega) = \frac{V_a^2}{R_c} \quad (46)$$

$$R_c(\omega) = \frac{3\pi^2 L_{st}^2 N_a^2 \sqrt{\omega}}{8c_{Fe} k_{Fe} \left(\frac{1}{\omega_0}\right)^{1.5} \left(\frac{1}{B_0}\right)^2 \left[ m_{st} \left(\frac{p\beta_{slot}}{b_{st}}\right)^2 + m_{sy} \left(\frac{1}{h_{sy}}\right)^2 \right]} \quad (47)$$

where  $R_c$  is the core resistance,  $c_{Fe}$  is the correction factor for iron loss calculation,  $b_{st}$  is the stator tooth width,  $k_{Fe}$  is the specific iron loss,  $m_{st}$  is the stator teeth mass,  $\beta_{slot}$  is the slot angle, and  $h_{sy}$  is stator yoke height.

- II. Conductor Losses.** The conductor losses are then found using the power equation for a resistance Eq. (48).

$$P_{cu} = q \times I_a^2 \times R_a \quad (48)$$

- III. Friction and Windage Losses.** For rotors operating at high speed, friction and windage can cause losses which result in inefficiency and heat production. Friction/windage losses [29] are given by Eq. (49).

$$P_{wind} = C_f \times \pi \times \rho_{air} \times \omega^3 \times r^4 \times L_{st} \quad (49)$$

where  $C_f$  is the friction coefficient;  $\rho_{air}$  is the density of air. The coefficient of friction can be approximated by Eq. (50).

$$C_f \cong 0.0725 \times R_{ey} - 0.2 \quad (50)$$

where  $R_{ey}$  is the Reynold's Number.

### Machine Initial Sizing

Air gap magnetic shear stress ( $\tau$ ) is the magnetic shear force developed per unit gap area and is constrained by magnetic design and thermal management [32].

$$\tau \propto K_z B_g \quad (51)$$

where  $\tau$  is the shear stress (psi);  $K_z$  is the surface current density; and  $B_g$  is the air gap flux density.

Typical values for air gap shear stress for different types of motors are shown in [32]. For the basic sizing calculations, 10 psi is assumed since the generator is air-cooled and could be at the beginning of liquid-cooled machine area. The fundamental output machine power equation is utilized to derive the rotor radius and stack length of the machine Eq. (52).

$$P_{wr} = 2\pi r L_{st} v_{tip} \tau \quad (52)$$

where  $r$  is the rotor radius;  $L_{st}$  is the stack length.

The electrical frequency and rotor surface speed are determined as shown in Eq. (53).

$$f = \frac{pN}{60}, \quad \omega = 2\pi f, \quad \omega_m = p \omega_m \quad (53)$$

where  $\omega$  is the electrical frequency (rad/sec);  $\omega_m$  is the mechanical frequency (rad/sec); and  $N$  is the rpm speed.

### Machine Detailed Sizing

Once basic sizing is complete, an in-depth analysis is conducted to ascertain the overall performance of the machine within 500 kW power rating. The detailed sizing method is developed using MATLAB. Using the equations presented above, all parameters could be obtained as explained next. Lengths, volumes, and motor mass are calculated using basic geometric equations. A 15% service mass fraction is added to the total mass estimate to account for the additional services associated with machines cooling [32].

#### I. Rotor variables

$h_m = 0.02$  [Magnet thickness (m)];  $Br = 1.2$  [Magnet remnant flux density];  $\theta_m = 50^\circ$  [Magnet physical angle (deg)]; Magnet skew angle (actual deg) =  $10^\circ$ .

#### II. Stator variables

$q = 3$  (number of phases);  $N_s = 36$  (number of slots);  $N_{sp} = 1$  (number of slots short pitched);  $g = 0.002$  [air gap (m)];  $t_{frac} = 0.5$  (peripheral tooth fraction);  $h_s = 0.010$  [slot depth (m)];  $h_d = 0.0004$  [slot depression depth (m)];  $w_d = 10^{-6}$  [slot depression width (m)];  $s_{yrat} = 0.7$  [stator back iron ratio (yoke thick/rotor radius)];  $N_c = 1$  (turns per coil);  $\lambda_s = 0.5$  (slot fill fraction);  $\sigma_{st} = 6.0 \times 10^7$  (stator winding conductivity); and rms = root mean square.

#### III. Densities

$\rho_s = 7700$  [steel density (kg/m<sup>3</sup>)];  $\rho_m = 7400$  (Magnet density);  $\rho_c = 8900$  (conductor density).

#### IV. Constants

$\mu_0 = 4 \times \pi \times 10^{-7}$  (free space permeability);  $\rho_{air} = 1.205$  (density of air at 20°C (kg/m<sup>3</sup>))

$$\text{Magnet Mass: } M_m = 0.5(p \times \theta_m) \left( (r + h_m)^2 - r^2 \right) L_{st} \rho_m \quad (54)$$

$$\text{Tooth width: } w_t = 2\pi(R + g + h_m + h_d) \times t_{frac} / N_s \quad (55)$$

$$\text{Slot top width (at air gap): } w_t = 2\pi(R + g + h_m + h_d) \times (1 - t_{frac}) / N_s \quad (56)$$

$$\text{Slot bottom width: } w_{sb} = w_{st} \times (R + g + h_s + h_d) / (R + g + h_m + h_d) \quad (57)$$

$$\text{Stator core back iron depth(as } p \text{ increases, } d_c \text{ decreases): } d_c = s_{yrat} \times R / p \quad (58)$$

$$\text{Full pitch coil throw: } N_{sfp} = N_s / (2p) \quad (59)$$

$$\text{Actual coil throw: } N_{sct} = N_{sfp} - N_{sp} \quad (60)$$

#### Estimate end turn length:

$$\text{End turn travel (one end): } l_{az} = \pi(R - g + h_m + h_d + 0.5h_s) \times N_{sct} / N_s \quad (61)$$

$$\text{End length (half coil): } l_{e_2} = \pi \times l_{az} \quad (62)$$

$$\text{End length (axial direction): } l_{e_1} = l_{e_2} / \pi \quad (63)$$

$$\text{Overall machine length: } L_{mach} = L_{st} + 2l_{e_1} \quad (64)$$

$$\text{Core inside radius: } R_{ci} = R + h_m + g + h_d + h_s \quad (65)$$

$$\text{Core outside radius: } R_{co} = R_{ci} + d_c \quad (66)$$

$$\text{Overall diameter: } D_{mach} = 2R_{co} \quad (67)$$

$$\text{Tooth flux density: } B_t = B_g / t_{frac} \quad (68)$$

$$\text{Back iron flux density: } B_b = B_g \times R / (p \times d_c) \quad (69)$$

These set of equations are mainly extracted from references [36], [37] by Hanselmann, Hendershot and Miller.

#### Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) Algorithm

A Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) algorithm is used in this paper and formulated to optimize efficiency as an objective function with bounded parameter constraints. Particle swarm is a population-based algorithm based on flocks of birds or insects swarming. The optimizing variables are rotor length to diameter ratio, rotor radius, and stack length. Simulations were performed using PSO Tool in Matlab. The PSO algorithm could be applied to solve a variety of optimization problems not well-suited for standard optimization techniques in which the objective function is discontinuous, non-differential, stochastic, or highly nonlinear.

#### HSPM Generator Optimum Efficiency PSO Sizing

The Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) technique is used [33-35] to optimize the generator efficiency. The optimization variables  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , and  $x_3$  are L/D ratio, rotor radius, and rotor stack

length, respectively. the efficiency function, in the form of m-file is implemented. PSO algorithm is then used to maximize the function and generate the desired variables using [1 0 0] constraints as the lower limit, and [3 1 1] as the upper limit. All detailed variables are calculated for the desired high speed permanent magnet synchronous generator. They are used as arguments to generate all basic and detailed variables [36], [37].

$$M_{Total} = M_{Core} + M_{Magnet} + M_{Shaft} + M_{Conductor} + M_{Service} \quad (70)$$

$$M_{Core} = M_{cb} + M_{ct} \quad (71)$$

$$M_{cb} = \rho_s \pi (R_{co}^2 - R_{ci}^2) L_{st} \quad (72)$$

where  $M_{cb}$  is the back iron mass (kg);  $\rho_s$  is the steel density (kg/m<sup>3</sup>);  $R_{co}$  is the core outside radius; and  $R_{ci}$  is the core inside radius.

$$R_{ci} = R + h_m + g + h_d + h_s \quad (73)$$

where  $h_m$  is the magnet thickness (m);  $g$  is the air gap (m);  $h_d$  is the slot depression depth (m); and  $h_s$  is the slot depth (m).

$$R_{co} = R_{ci} + d_c \quad (74)$$

where  $d_c$  is the stator core back iron depth (m).

$$M_{ct} = L_{st} \rho_s (N_s w_t h_s + 2\pi R h_d - N_s h_d w_d) \quad (75)$$

where  $M_{ct}$  is the teeth mass;  $N_s$  is the number of slots;  $w_t$  is the tooth width;  $w_d$  is the slot depression width (m).

$$M_{Magnet} = 0.5 (p \theta_m ((r + h_m)^2 - r^2) L_{st} \rho_m) \quad (76)$$

where  $\theta_m$  is the magnet physical angle;  $\rho_m$  is the magnet density;  $p$  is the pole pairs number.

$$M_{Shaft} = \pi R^2 L_{st} \rho_s \quad (77)$$

$$M_{Conductor} = 3 L_{ac} A_{ac} \rho_c \quad (78)$$

where  $L_{ac}$  is the armature conductor length;  $A_{ac}$  is the armature conductor area (assumes form wound);  $\rho_c$  is the conductor density.

$$L_{ac} = 2 N_a (L_{st} + 2 l_{e2}) \quad (79)$$

$$A_{ac} = A_s \lambda_s / (2 N_c) \quad (80)$$

where  $N_a$  is the number of armature turns;  $l_{e2}$  is the end length (half coil);  $A_s$  is the slot area;  $\lambda_s$  is the slot fill fraction;  $N_c$  is the turns per coil.

A 15% service mass fraction is added to the total mass estimate to account for the additional services associated with machines cooling [32].

$$M_{Service} = 0.15 (M_{Conductor} + M_{Shaft} + M_{Magnet} + M_{Core}) \quad (81)$$

$$P_{Total\_Losses} = P_{Core} + P_{Conductor} + P_{Wind} \quad (82)$$

$$P_{input} = P_{Total\_Losses} + P_{out} \quad (83)$$

$$\eta = P_{out} / P_{input} \quad (84)$$

Based on the application, the same techniques could be used to optimize (minimize) the different loss types, mass part of the machine, or any geometric sizing parameter.

### Design Comparisons

This section introduces a comparison between the classical and the optimum design procedures. Both design methods were compared at tip speed = 250 m/s and output power of 500 kW. Waveforms of Flux Density Waveform, EMF Waveform, and Harmonic Content are presented. The complete detailed generators parameters for the original and optimized designs are introduced in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

### Original Design Results

Table 1: Complete Classical Design Parameters

$D = 0.0608; L_{st} = 0.1519; \text{rpm} = 7.8579\text{e}+4; w_t = 0.0046; w_{st} = 0.0046; w_{sb} = 0.0037; d_c = 0.0071; l_{az} = 0.0252; le_2 = 0.0792; le_1 = 0.0252; k_g = 1.1871; w_s = 0.0042; \tau_s = 0.0088; g_e = 0.0023; B_g = 0.8583; \lambda = 0.0736; E_a = 1.2844\text{e}+3; L_{ag} = 1.2090\text{e}-5; L_{slot} = 5.0754\text{e}-6; A_s = 4.1697\text{e}-5; L_s = 1.7077\text{e}-5; X_s = 0.4216; L_{ac} = 7.4476; A_{ac} = 1.0424\text{e}-05; M_{ac} = 2.0729; L_{mach} = 0.2023; R_{ci} = 0.0628; R_{co} = 0.0699; D_{mach} = 0.1397; M_{cb} = 3.4555; M_{ct} = 2.0288; M_c = 5.4843; M_m = 2.3768; M_s = 3.3918; M_{ser} = 1.9989; M_{tot} = 15.3247; R_a = 0.0119; B_t = 1.7166; B_b = 1.2262; P_{cb} = 1.9514\text{e}+3; P_{ct} = 2.3382\text{e}+3; P_c = 4.2896\text{e}+3; V_a = 1.2258\text{e}+3; P_{wind} = 2.4655\text{e}+3; I_a = 135.9692; P_a = 660.4237; P_{losses} = 7.4155\text{e}+3; P_{in} = 5.0742\text{e}+5; \text{eff} = 0.97.$
Rotor Losses caused by Harmonics: Time Harmonic Losses = 0.2399 kw; Space Harmonic Losses = 0.0146 kw; Total Rotor Losses = 0.2544 kw; THD = 12.2077 %.

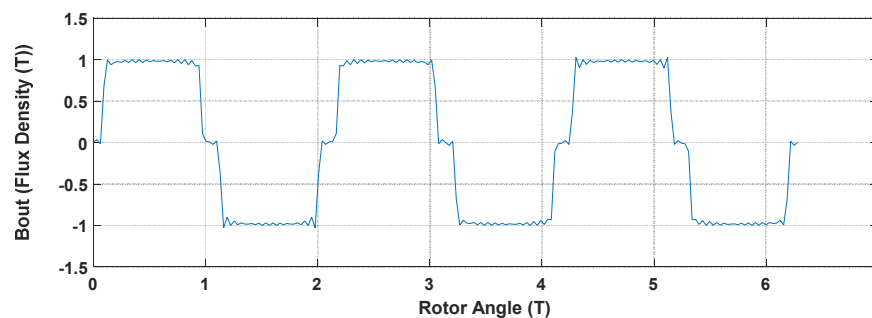


Figure 11: Initial Flux Density Waveform for original design

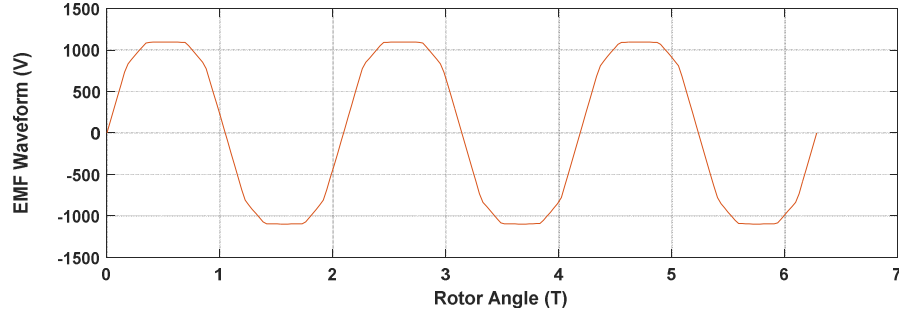


Figure 12: Initial EMF Waveform for original design

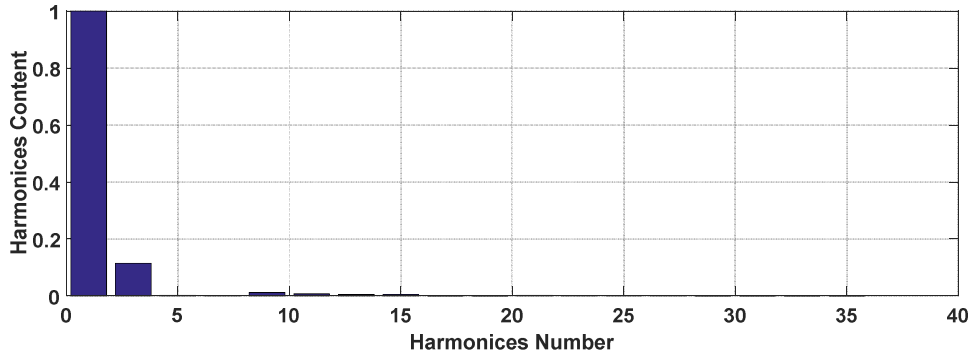


Figure 13: Initial Harmonic Content (12.2077 %) for original design

### Efficiency Optimization Results

Efficiency = 0.992; Optimizing variables:  $x_1 = 1.3943$ ;  $x_2 = 0.0407$ ;  $x_3 = 0.1134$ .

Table 2: Complete Optimized Design Parameters

$D = 0.0814$ ; $L_{st} = 0.1134$ ; $rpm = 5.8683e+4$ ; $w_t = 0.0055$ ; $w_{st} = 0.0055$ ; $w_{sb} = 0.0046$ ; $d_c = 0.0095$ ; $l_{az} = 0.0297$ ; $le_2 = 0.0933$ ; $le_1 = 0.0297$ ; $k_g = 1.1319$ ; $w_s = 0.0051$ ; $\tau_s = 0.0106$ ; $g_e = 0.0024$ ; $B_g = 0.8562$ ; $\lambda = 0.0625$ ; $E_a = 815.2730$ ; $L_{ag} = 1.0805e-5$ ; $L_{slot} = 3.1234e-6$ ; $A_s = 5.0686e-5$ ; $L_s = 1.3898e-5$ ; $X_s = 0.2562$ ; $L_{ac} = 7.2023$ ; $A_{ac} = 1.2671e-5$ ; $M_{ac} = 2.4367$ ; $L_{mach} = 0.1729$ ; $R_{ci} = 0.0731$ ; $R_{co} = 0.0826$ ; $D_{mach} = 0.1651$ ; $M_{cb} = 4.0548$ ; $M_{ct} = 1.8204$ ; $M_c = 5.8752$ ; $M_m = 2.2277$ ; $M_s = 4.5417$ ; $M_{ser} = 2.2622$ ; $M_{tot} = 17.3436$ ; $R_a = 0.0095$ ; $B_t = 1.7124$ ; $B_b = 1.2232$ ; $P_{cb} = 1.3949e+3$ ; $P_{ct} = 1.2780e+3$ ; $P_c = 2.6729e+3$ ; $V_a = 756.8998$ ; $P_{wind} = 2.4655e+3$ ; $I_a = 220.1965$ ; $P_a = 1.3780e+3$ ; $P_{losses} = 6.5163e+3$ ; $P_{in} = 5.0652e+5$ ; $eff = 0.99$ ; $pf = 0.99$ .
Rotor Losses Caused by Harmonics: Time Harmonic Losses = 0.1675 kw; Space Harmonic Losses = 0.0102 kw; Total Rotor Losses = 0.1776 kw; THD = 11.6276 %.



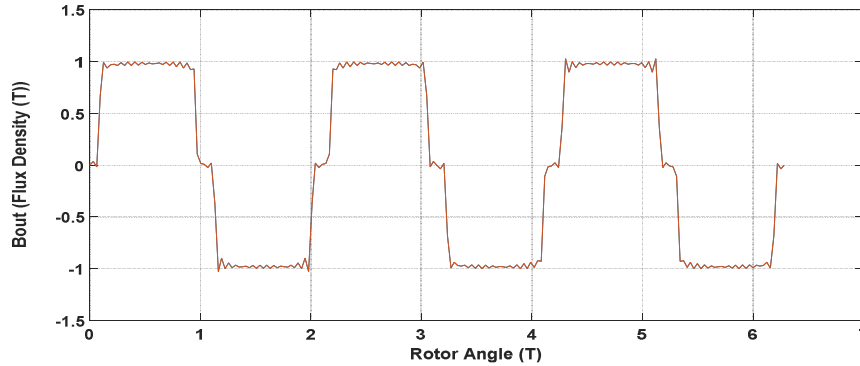


Figure 14: Initial Flux Density Waveform

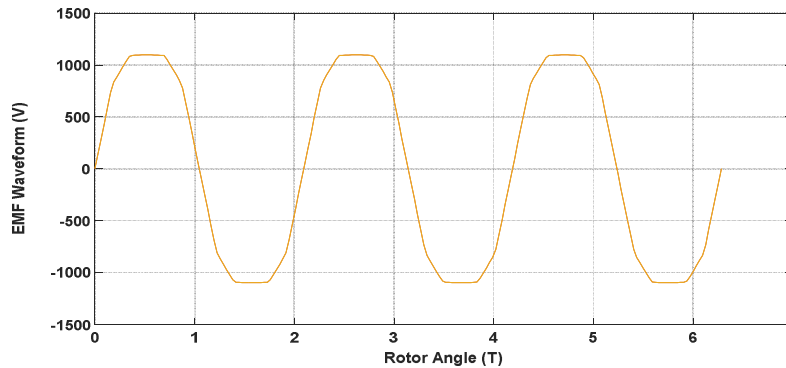


Figure 15: Initial EMF Waveform

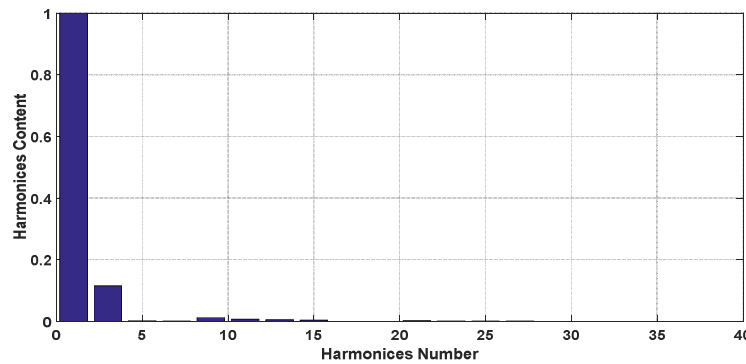


Figure 16: Initial Harmonic Content (11.6276 %)

From waveforms comparisons, it can be seen that THD is improved as a result of reduced losses and enhanced machine performance

### Effect of Number of Poles on Sizing Parameters and M/C characteristics

This section illustrates the effect of the number of poles on parameters and generator characteristics having constant number of slots and phases. Considering the case at 50 kW output power with various tip speeds of 250, 200, 150, and 100m/s. The tested number of poles were 4, 6, and 12. As expected, the number of poles affects the electrical, magnetic, and

structural performance, including frequency, voltage waveforms, magnetic flux, magnetic volume, air gap, and the stator back iron thickness.

In general, if rotational speed is held constant as the number of poles is increased:

- Number of slots/pole/phase changes affecting the output waveforms and THD.
- Decrease in the weight of the machine.
- Increase in the electrical frequency.

The following figures (17, 18, 19) depict these various effects at 50 kW:

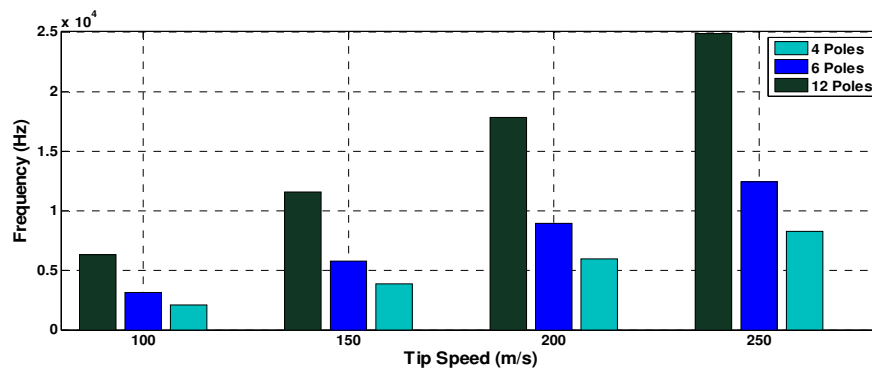


Figure 17: Frequency with Tip Speed for Various Pole Number.

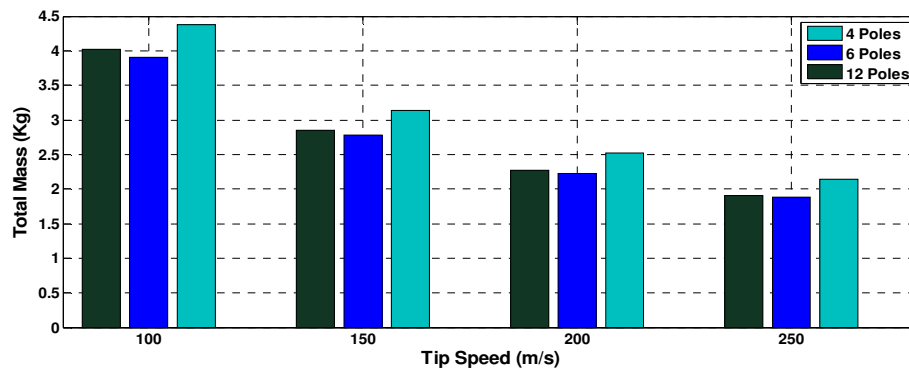


Figure 18: Total Mass with Tip Speed for Various Pole Number.

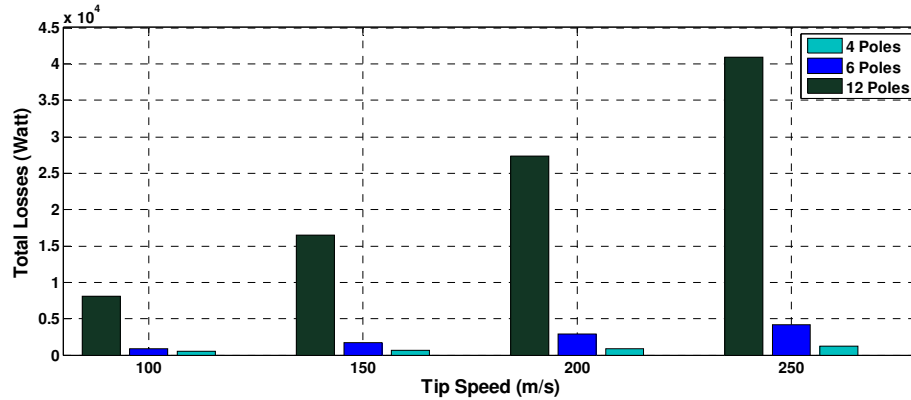


Figure 19: Total Losses with Tip Speed for Various Pole Number.

Based on Fig. 17-19, it is clear that 1) the rpm speed is constant at each tip speed value because the frequency is changed with changing poles number; 2) the frequency is directly proportional with the number of poles at each tip speed; and 3) the magnet mass increases with the number of poles for a specific tip speed and total losses.

## Conclusion

This paper provided an elaborate and detailed design analysis for a high speed PM generator as compared to traditional methods. Significant reductions in both weights and volumes were realized for a case study involving a 500 kW, 250m/s machine based on previous work found in the literature. The optimizing variables considered in this study were rotor length to diameter ratio, rotor radius, and stack length with the objective to maximize efficiency. It was determined that using the proposed PSO algorithm in HSPMSG sizing resulted in reduced losses and significant improvement in the performance of the machine parameters. Furthermore, it was found that if the rotational speed was held constant as the number of poles increased, the weight of the machine can be decreased and the electrical frequency increased. These design factors can also have an impact on the number of slots/pole/phase affecting THD and the output waveforms of the HSPM generator used in smart-grid applications.

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