



Algorithm-based, drive design for a ventricular assist device

Algorithm-based
drive design for
a VAD

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to describe a design process for a drive of a ventricular assist device (VAD) under the consideration of constraints given by the application. In this case, these constraints are the possibility to implant the VAD system, providing a sufficient perfusion of the human body and cutting down development costs.

Design/methodology/approach – In the described approach an optimization algorithm is integrated in the initial stage of the design process for a drive system.

Findings – During simulations the optimum drive design under the implantation constraints of the given VAD system is found. The key constraints of this design, which are torque, axial force and losses, are validated during initial test bench measurements of a drive prototype.

Practical implications – The described design process enables an optimum drive design from the beginning of a VAD development. This reduces the time to initial and chronic *in vivo* test, which are required to be approved for the market later. Therefore, this approach cuts development and device costs. Additionally, this design process can be transferred for the design of other drive concepts and applications.

Originality/value – The developed and proved method in this paper enables a competitive and reliable drive design.

Keywords Electrical engineering, Electronic equipment and components, Drive design, Finite element method, Finite element analysis, Differential evolution algorithm, Ventricular assist device

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

According to the World Health Organization cardiovascular diseases are the major cause of death in industrialized countries World-Health-Organization (2010). One therapy option of patients, suffering from terminal heart failure, is heart transplantation, which is dependent on the available number of donor hearts. For this reason many patients die while waiting for a donor organ (Copeland *et al.*, 2004). In order to sustain the patients' life, ventricular assist devices (VAD) can mechanically (mech.) support the human heart to achieve a sufficient perfusion of the body. There are two therapy strategies called bridge to transplant and bridge to recovery. In the last strategy the heart might recover, because the VAD unloads it. Figure 1 shows the schematic of a radial flow VAD. The pump unit contains parts of the housing for the flow guiding and an impeller, while the drive consists of a rotor, made of neodymium iron boron (NdFeB) permanent magnets, a hydrodynamic axial bearing and the stator. This arrangement yields the axial flux permanent magnet brushless DC (BLDC) motor.

The general design of the BLDC drive is shown in Figure 2, while the optimized specifications are determined by the differential evolution algorithm (DEA) in the next section. The rotor consists of 16 alternating axial magnetized permanent magnets with a remanent induction of 1.4 T at 20°C, which are attached to the rotor backiron. Due to the axial flux direction, the backiron as well as the stator yoke is made of solid



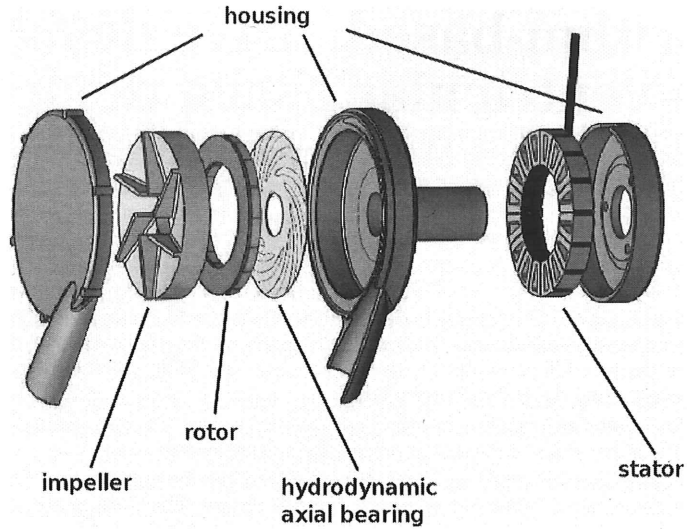


Figure 1.
Schematic of radial flow
VAD

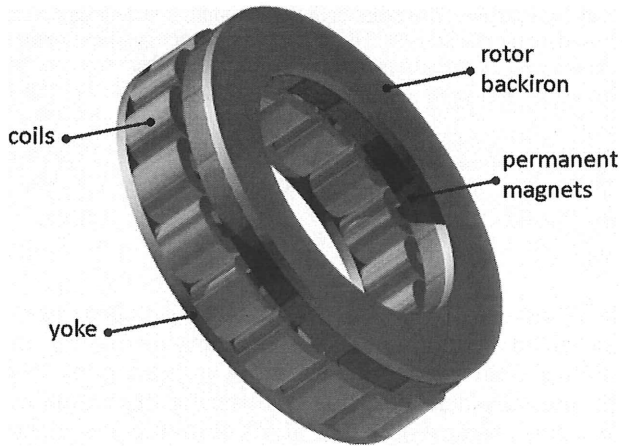


Figure 2.
CAD drawing of the
general VAD drive design

ferromagnetic steel (9S20) with a saturation induction 1.7 T. Hence, eddy currents occur there. The stator coils are hand wound with a rectangular copper wire. For the following drive design the copper fill factor is estimated to 60 percent. The hydrodynamic bearing relies on a thin film of blood and therefore works without contact and passive. It consists of a compound disc with integrated flow channels (Figure 1), which design influences the stiffness and acceptable forces. For the given design an axial force of 9 N can be compensated. The air gap between the top of the stator coils and the bottom of the rotor magnets amounts to 1 mm.

Design objectives

The design objectives are given in Table I. While the nominal speed and torque are required for the pump unit to generate a sufficient perfusion of the human body, the

overall efficiency of the VAD is maximized for the maximum allowed axial force. In order to avoid blood damage by overheating, caused by copper losses, the electric losses have to be minimized. In this paper the rotor dimensions are given and the stator dimensions are limited for a minimal invasive implantation of the device.

The attracting axial force F_{axial} between the stator and the rotor can be calculated by applying the equation:

$$\vec{F}_{axial} = \frac{B^2 \cdot A}{2 \cdot \mu_0} \cdot \vec{e}_{axial}, \quad (1)$$

with the induction B , the cross section area A of the stator teeth and the permeability of the vacuum μ_0 . As the magnetic field H is linked with the induction B by the product of the relative permeability μ_r and the vacuum permeability μ_0 :

$$B = \mu_0 \cdot \mu_r \cdot H, \quad (2)$$

the axial force can be adjusted by varying the height of the ferromagnetic stator teeth, which relative permeability is higher when compared to the permeability of air. This results in coils, which are partially filled with ferromagnetic iron and air, to design a drive with a good efficiency. The radial component of the force F_{rad} is calculated by the Lorentz force equation:

$$\vec{F}_{rad} = I \cdot (\vec{l} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{e}_{rad}, \quad (3)$$

with the current supply I and the active wire length l of the coils. As the resulting torque is linked with the radial force, both the torque and the axial force are dependent on the induction B of the motor. Due to the significant flux leakage and the rotational movement of the drive, transient and non linear finite element (FE) simulations are required to determine the distribution of the induction in the motor. The results, shown in Figure 3, have been obtained by a solver from the FE software package iMOOSE, which is developed at the Institute of Electrical Machines of the RWTH Aachen University (Chakraborty, 2008; Institute of Electrical Machines, 2010). In summary the design objectives have to be within the given dimensions, generate at least the required torque and adjust the axial force to 9 N.

Differential evolution algorithm

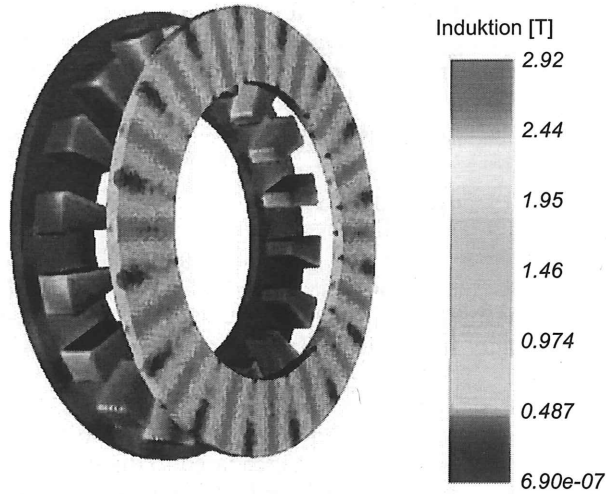
In order to achieve an optimum drive design the DEA is applied for the drive design according to the introduced objectives (Pohlmann *et al.*, 2010). The DEA is a generic and population based optimization algorithm introduced in Price *et al.* (2005) and Chakraborty (2008). At the beginning the constraints and the design parameters are set. As the design parameters are initialized with random values, their lower and upper limit

Design objectives

Nominal speed	2,500 rpm
Nominal torque	12 mNm
Max. axial force	9 N
Max. stator height	<7 mm
Max. outer radius	<19.5 mm

Table I.
Design parameters

Figure 3.
Distribution of the
induction in the BLDC
drive



are defined as well. Then a first generation of computer models is created. The number D of models equals ten times the amount of the design parameters.

As explained before a FE simulation is required for each model to obtain the axial forces and resulting torque. Due to the rotational movement the reluctance force between stator and rotor vary, requiring a transient simulation of 15° (mech.), corresponding to 120° electrically (el.) for the torque and axial force determination. No further steps are required because of the drive symmetry.

In order to speed up the algorithm based design process, the simulations are performed assuming linear material characteristics here. If the required torque can be generated, the resulting ohmic losses $P_{l,calc}$ and axial forces $F_{axial,calc}$ are simulated. Otherwise the model is reinitialized with a different design parameter set to ensure the desired number of computer models for one generation and the convergence of the DEA process. For a fair comparison each model is virtually supplied with a current linkage Θ of 50 A in the simulation. Therefore, the generated torque as well as the resulting losses depend on the drive geometry. By applying the cost function CF:

$$CF = a \cdot \exp\left(\frac{P_{l,calc}}{P_{l,max}}\right) + b \cdot \exp\left(\frac{|F_{axial,calc} - F_{axial,max}|}{F_{axial,max}}\right), \quad (4)$$

the quality of each model is determined in terms of losses and forces. In order to give priority either to the losses or to the resulting axial forces during the optimization process the parameters a and b are initialized with a value between 0 and 1, while the sum of a and b equals to 1 (Hameyer and Belmans, 1999). For this reason the best model in theory has no losses, while the axial force amounts to 9N. In this way a list, containing the hierarchic order of the best models is generated. Based on the best model of this population a new generation and as well a second list is created. The two lists are merged by comparing the quality of each model and only keeping the best ones. After several iterations this process yields the optimum drive design with a high efficiency and an axial force of 9N when the algorithm is converging.

Simulation results

As adjustments in the introduced calculation chain were required to achieve a tolerable computation time and to ensure the convergence of the DEA, the design process was started three times. By learning from the previous run, the amount of design parameter was reduced to four of the final one, which results are shown in Figure 4. The best member yields a cost function value of 1.25 (a). After iteration number 15 the DEA improves the drive design only marginally, which is explained with the converging of the DEA. In (b) the mean distance to the cost function is presented, which is calculated by the mean value of the cost function of all models of one generation. At the beginning the mean distance is really high, but improves as the design parameter of the generation $n + 1$ are based on the design parameters of the best model of generation n . At the end the quality of all models are really close to each other, proofing the converging of the DEA. As the air gap, which is included in the maximum stator height, and the thickness of the stator yoke ring are both 1 mm, the coil height is close to its maximum value of 5 mm (f). Hence, the ratio between the stator teeth and coil height (e) sums up to 73 percent. According to a previous DEA run, the outer radius converges against its maximum boundary of 18.5 mm. Together with the stator yoke width the average coil

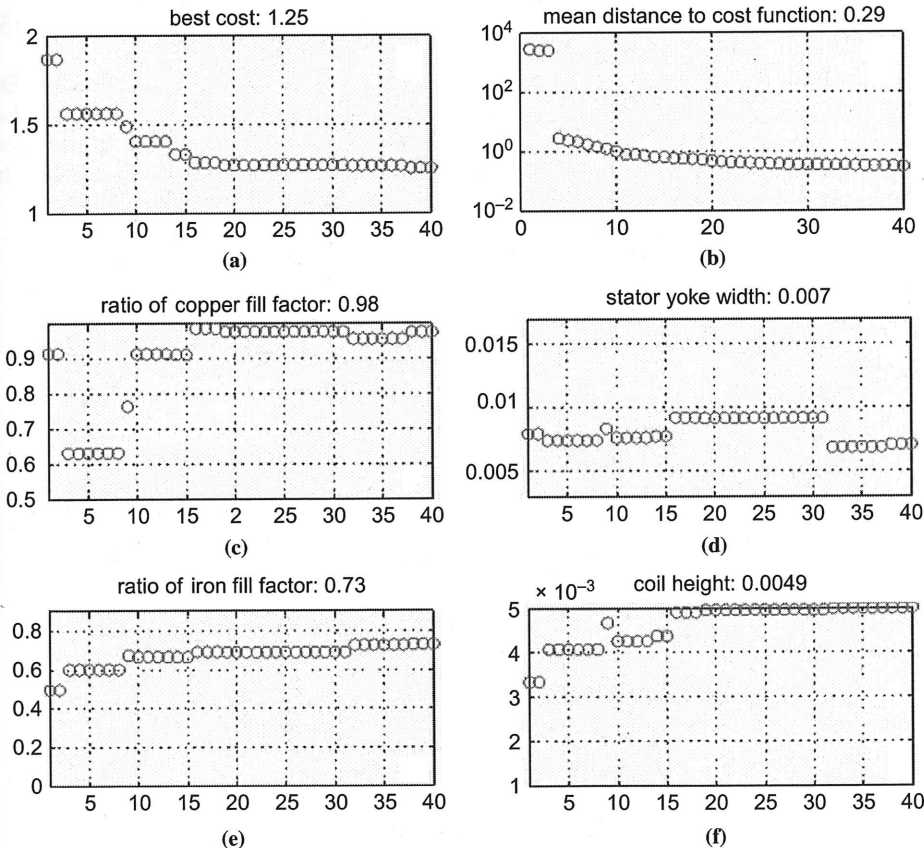


Figure 4.
Results of the DEA drive design process

length is defined. For a yoke width of 7 mm (d), the required torque is generated at lowest possible losses. The best member yielded an axial attracting force of 9.12 N for linear FEM simulations. Due to the occurring stray flux and the non linear characteristic of the ferromagnetic iron and permanent magnets, non linear FEM simulations have been performed, to validate the drive design of the best member, obtained from the DEA. Hence, the ohmic losses and the mean axial force amount to 0.66 W and 9.01 N, respectively. In Figure 5 the axial force and the generated torque characteristic is shown. For the VAD drive a field oriented control with pulse current is applied. Therefore, the current is commutated every 60° (el.) corresponding to 7.5° (mech.). At 6° the axial force reaches its maximum value and is decreasing until reaching the next commutation.

Between the commutation point the torque yields its maximum with 27 mNm. The peak to peak value of the simulated torque ripple in relation to the mean torque amounts to 14 percent. Due to the inertia of the rotor and the frequency of 2,400 Hz at a nominal speed of 2,500 rpm, it is expected that the ripple cannot be proved by measurements. For the same reasons no negative effects on the drive performance is expected from the variations in the axial attracting force.

Over the whole simulated rotation the resulting torque exceeds the required torque. According to:

$$T \sim \Theta_s \Theta_f \sin \varepsilon, \tag{5}$$

the resulting torque T is proportional to the stator and excitation current linkage Θ_s and Θ_f as well as the angle ε between them. Due to the field oriented control with pulse current injection the torque is proportional to the stator current linkage as the open term of equation (5) is constant. For the loss calculation this relation is applied to determine the required stator current linkage for generating a torque of 12 mNm.

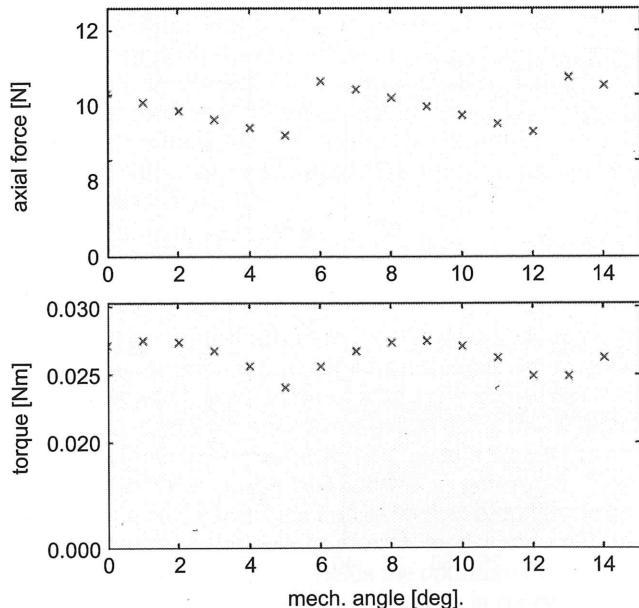


Figure 5.
Simulation results of axial force and tangential torque

Experimental validation

The stator of the drive prototype is shown in Figure 6. Due to manufacturing the possible copper fill factor is reduced from 60 to 52 percent. The resulting coil height is slightly increased to 5.1 mm. One coil consists of four layers with nine turns each. In order to ensure a sufficient stability and to protect the coils the stator is molded in epoxy resin.

The test bench for the evaluation of the drive design is shown in Figure 7. In the middle the permanent magnet rotor is directly attached to the shaft of an eddy current

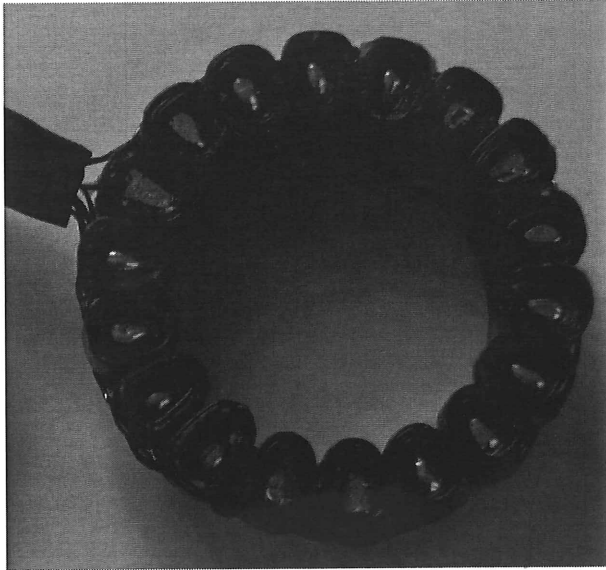


Figure 6.
Stator with windings of
the prototype

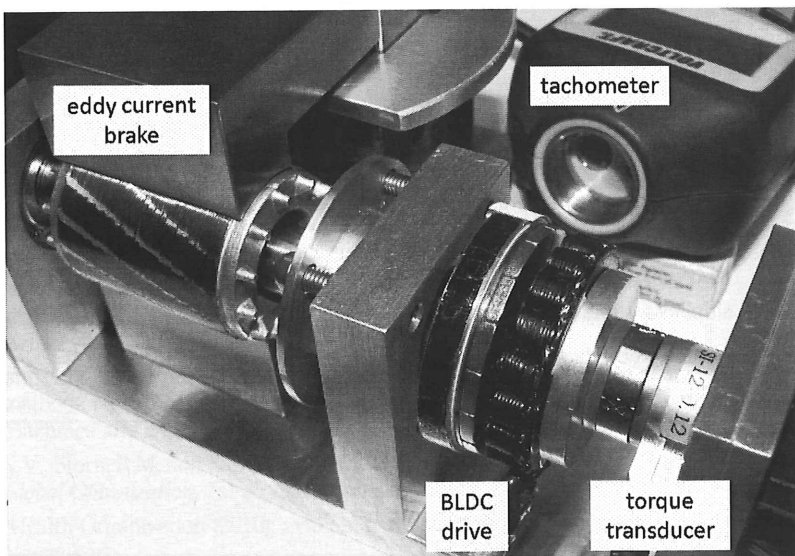


Figure 7.
Test bench for the
validation of the drive
design

brake, realizing the required load. The stator is attached to a torque transducer and a three dimensional positioning system. In this assembly the axial hydrodynamic bearing is missing. The drive is supplied with a commercially available converter with integrated sensorless position detection and field oriented control. The set points for the converter as well as the control for the eddy current brake are realized via a rapid prototyping system. For controlling the speed an optical working tachometer is applied. Figure 8 represents a measured speed torque characteristic. Due to the rolling resistance of the bearing of the eddy current brake shaft the torque rises linear with the speed up to the rated speed of 2,500rpm. When increasing the input further, the resulting torque is rising as well, allowing for an overload capability.

For the nominal operating speed n_N of 2,500 rpm and torque T_N of 12 mNm, the input power of the converter and the drive is measured with a power meter. The resulting mechanical output power can be calculated by applying:

$$P_{mech} = 2 \cdot \pi \cdot n_N \cdot T_N. \tag{6}$$

When dividing the mechanical output power by the measured input power, the overall efficiency as well as the drive efficiency can be calculated to 33 and 41 percent, respectively.

The axial attracting force was proved by replacing the eddy current brake with a force sensor. Then the air gap width was varied via the three dimensional positioning system. According to Table II the resulting axial force is lower than expected. For this reason an operation with the axial hydrodynamic bearing is possible.

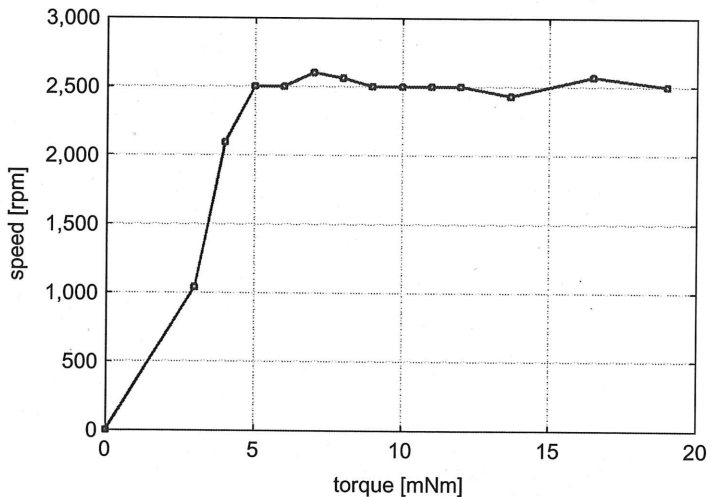


Figure 8.
Measured speed vs torque characteristic

Air gap width	Axial force
1.5 mm	4.2N
1.25 mm	6.6N
1 mm	8.2N
0.8 mm	9.8N

Table II.
Axial force vs air gap

Summary and conclusions

Cardiovascular diseases are the mayor cause of death in industrialized countries. The standard therapy heart transplant is limited due to the insufficient number of available donor heart. If some heart function is retaining, VADs are assisting in achieving a sufficient cardiac output. For the drive design this requirement is transferred to a torque of 12 mNm. Then the general design of a VAD and its BLDC drive is presented. In order to achieve a long durability and to limit the input power a passive and contactless axial hydrodynamic bearing is introduced. This bearing can only compensate axial forces of 9 N. In order to avoid blood damage caused by copper losses, they should be as low as possible. For this multiobjective drive design the DEA is applied, which is based on FE simulations due to occurring stray flux, a relative large air gap width and the rotational movement, causing reluctance forces. Because of a high amount of required FE simulations only the final drive design is validated by non linear simulations. The design results in a axial forces of 9 N and a torque 12 mNm at copper losses of 0.66 W. The described measurements of the drive prototype proved its design.

The stator yoke is made of solid steel due to the axial flux flow through the stator teeth. Therefore, the propagation of eddy currents, causing iron losses, is not prevented. As the copper losses are quite low and the drive efficiency only amount to 41 percent, the iron losses are expected to be significant. Therefore, further simulations for their determination are required followed by a material study to reduce them. A high potential is seen in soft magnetic composite, which consist of isolated particles, reducing eddy currents. But the disadvantage of such material is its relative low saturation induction.

For the validation of the drive in VAD operation, the VAD is connected to a circulatory mock loop. Such a mock loop mainly consists of hydrostatic heads, representing the pressures of the human blood circuit. Again, the drive generated enough torque to provide the desired torque. This time the axial hydrodynamic bearing was included in the drive, but was not able to compensate the axial force of 9 N. Therefore, a redesign is required here.

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André Pohlmann received his Diploma degree in Electrical Engineering from RWTH Aachen University in October 2008. In December 2008 he started his Doctoral studies at the Institute of Electrical Machines at the RWTH Aachen University. His field of research is magnetic bearings and drives for artificial hearts. André Pohlmann is the corresponding author and can be contacted at: andre.pohlmann@iem.rwth-aachen.de

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Dr Kay Hameyer received his MSc degree in Electrical Engineering from the University of Hannover and his PhD degree from the Berlin University of Technology, Germany. After his university studies he worked with the Robert Bosch GmbH in Stuttgart, Germany as a Design Engineer for permanent magnet servo motors and vehicle board net components. Until 2004 he was a Full Professor for Numerical Field Computations and Electrical Machines with the KU Leuven in Belgium. Since 2004, he has been Full Professor and the Director of the Institute of Electrical Machines (IEM) at RWTH Aachen University in Germany. He was Vice Dean of the faculty in 2006 and from 2007 to 2009 he was the Dean of the faculty of Electrical Engineering and Information Technology of RWTH Aachen University. His research interests are numerical field computation and optimisation, the design and controls of electrical machines, in particular permanent magnet excited machines, induction machines and the design employing the methodology of virtual reality. For several years his work has been concerned with the magnetic levitation for drive systems, magnetically excited audible noise in electrical machines and the characterisation of ferro-magnetic materials. He is author of more than 250 journal publications, more than 500 international conference publications and author of four books. He is a member of VDE, IEEE senior member and fellow of the IET.