A thermoregulation model for hypothermic treatment of neonates

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Abstract

This paper presents a thermoregulation finite element model (FEM) to simulate hypothermia procedures for the treatment of encephalopathy hypoxic-ischemia (EHI) in neonates, a dangerous ischemic condition that can cause neurological damages and even death. Therapeutic hypothermia is the only recommended technique to reduce sequels caused by EHI in neonates; intervention with moderate cooling for neural rescue in newborns with hypoxic-ischemic brain injury is the culmination of a series of clinical research studies spanning decades. However, the direct monitoring of brain cooling is difficult and can lead to additional tissue damage. Therefore, the measurement of efficiency during clinical trials of hypothermia treatment is still challenging. The use of computational methods can aid clinicians to observe the continuous temperature of tissues and organs during cooling procedures without the need for invasive techniques, and can thus be a valuable tool to assist clinical trials simulating different cooling options that can be used for treatment. The use of low cost methods such as cooling blankets can open the possibility of using brain cooling techniques in hospitals and

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clinics that cannot currently afford the available expensive equipment and techniques. In this work, we developed a FEM package using isoparametric linear three-dimensional elements which is applied to the solution of the continuum bioheat Pennes equation. Blood temperature changes were considered using a blood pool approach. The results of the FEM model were compared to those obtained through the implementation of a user-defined function (UDF) in the commercial finite volume software FLUENT and validated with experimental tests. Numerical analyses were performed using a three-dimensional mesh based on a complex geometry obtained from MRI scan medical images.

Keywords: thermoregulation, hypothermia, brain cooling, neonates, finite element method

Word Count: 4993

1 1. Introduction

Although the use of hypothermia as a therapeutic treatment refers to the 2 Ancient Greece [1], only in the last century the effects of hypothermia on metabolism were better comprehended, allowing its use in the global cooling of the human body. In the last decades, the positive effects of mild hypother-5 mia after cardiac arrest and brain trauma were observed, and only very recently these effects were studied for applications post-trauma. It has been shown that therapeutic hypothermia can minimize sequels caused by hypoxic-ischemic con-8 ditions resulting of insufficient perfusion in tissues. In this condition, the brain 9 is the most vulnerable tissue [1], and the first few hours after the ischemia are 10 the critical time when secondary factors such as hypotension, hypoxia, hyper-11 glycaemia and hyperthermia may occur and cause brain cell damage [2]. 12

In neonates, hypothermia is the only known treatment for encephalopathy hypoxic-ischemic (EHI), a dangerous ischemic condition that can cause neurological damages and even death. EHI is usually a consequence of complications ¹⁶ during birth such as suffocation by umbilical cord, ingestion of amniotic fluid
¹⁷ and placenta displacement. After a consistent record of neuroprotection in an¹⁸ imal research, induced hypothermia was investigated in several clinical trials
¹⁹ with neonates suffering perinatal asphyxia [3].

In 2006, Edwards and Azzopardi [4] discussed extensive experimental data 20 resulting from clinical trials for the CoolCap project [5], from the National Insti-21 tute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) [6] and from Eicher et 22 al. [3], and concluded that:"either selective head cooling or total body cooling 23 reduces the combined chance of death or disability after birth asphyxia. How-24 ever, as there are still unanswered questions about these treatments, many may 25 still feel that further data are needed before healthcare policy can be changed to 26 make cooling the standard of care for all babies with suspected birth asphyxia." 27

A database review between 1993 and 2008 [7] shows that many authors agreed that brain cooling is a promising therapeutic treatment in reducing brain damage in neonates. Eight randomised controlled trials [8] comprising 638 infants with moderate/severe encephalopathy showed a statistically significant reduction in mortality and neurodevelopmental disability in neonates after treatment.

Extensive experimental and clinical research carried out into prolonged mod-34 erate hypothermia for perinatal asphyxial encephalopathy was recently reported 35 by Azzopardi et al. [9]. They also report data from the UK TOBY Cooling 36 Register, which was set up immediately following the conclusion of enrolment 37 to the TOBY (Total Body Hypothermia) trial, a multicentre randomised con-38 trolled trial of whole body hypothermia for the treatment of perinatal asphyxial 39 encephalopathy, predominantly carried out in the UK. The TOBY Cooling Reg-40 ister already contains data available from 1331 reported cases. 41

Gluckman et al. [5] stated that a mild hypothermia treatment in neonates, at least six hours after detection of the hypoxic condition, is associated with positive neurological and physiological outcomes. Furthermore, the duration and intensity of cooling can determine the effects of the treatment in reducing damages [10]. The treatment consists in a reduction of the core temperature to $_{47}$ 33 – 34°C for 48 to 72 hours and a rewarming phase at a rate of approximately $_{48}$ 0.5°C per hour.

Hypothermic treatment in neonates can be performed by different methods. 49 The most widely used are selective brain cooling, which consists of a cooling 50 helmet/cap or a pack of ice placed in the head to reduce temperature, as used 51 in the CoolCap trials, and whole body cooling, that uses a cooling blanket to 52 decrease the core temperature of the body, as used in the TOBY trial. Although 53 clinical trials have shown that the hypothermic treatment reduces the sequels 54 of perinatal asphyxia, the efficacy of the different cooling methods is hard to 55 measure through clinical trials. Gluckman et al. [5] suggest that the first method 56 can allow effective brain cooling to be achieved with less systemic hypothermia, 57 reducing the adverse systemic effects of the cooling. On the other hand, clinical 58 trials suggest that whole body cooling results in better outcome in severe EHI 59 cases, in which selective brain cooling would not be protective [11]. 60

Proper evaluation of the cooling procedures requires that the deep brain 61 temperatures, where cell loss leads to the most severe long term neurological 62 impairments, are to be measured [12]. Not only is the brain temperature diffi-63 cult to measure but also, in the case of neonates, their immunological system 64 is more fragile and the body is much more susceptible to temperature changes 65 than adults. As their brain is still under development, the vulnerabilities and 66 healing potential are different to that of an adult [2]. Although ischemia dam-67 ages in neonates are much similar to those observed in adults, factors such as 68 the duration of the treatment and the goal temperature may vary [10]. 69

With the advances in the development of computational methods, the use 70 of numerical modelling to simulate diseases and biological conditions in the 71 human body has become an important tool to aid clinicians and researchers 72 to understand the processes. Advances in computer modelling allow a detailed 73 analysis of all information collected from the patient, the study of the influence 74 of various parameters, facilitate the interpretation of the diagnosis, and enable 75 the construction of models of a specific pathological condition and their use as 76 a prognostic tool during treatment. 77

Heat transfer in the human body can be affected by several mechanisms such 78 as environmental conditions, thermophysical properties of tissues and fluids, 79 vascular geometry, physiological changes and pathologies [13]. Bioheat mod-80 els describe the heat flux in the human body and have an important role in 81 understanding heat transfer in human tissues. These models are usually ana-82 lyzed on a macro-scale considering a continuum media composed by a mix of 83 blood and tissues, as is the case of the Pennes model used in this work [14]. 84 The Pennes model is one of the most popular bioheat models and assumes that 85 heat transfer in the tissues occurs only at the capillary vessels [15]. It describes 86 the bioheat transfer in a simple way and it was shown to be very efficient for 87 different bioheat applications [16]. 88

The main goal of the hypothermia treatment is to reduce the temperature 89 in the brain. Studies simulating hypothermia in the human head purely based 90 on bioheat models showed that, because of the influence of arterial temperature 91 in the tissue temperature, the temperature inside the brain is not affected by 92 external cooling [17], unless an invasive procedure such as intracarotide saline 93 infusion is applied [18, 19]. In Zhu and Diao [20] and Ley and Bayazitoglu 94 [21], simulations of hypothermia procedures considering only the head were not 95 effective in reducing the deep brain temperature. As the arterial temperature is 96 responsible for regulating local tissue temperature, protecting the tissues against 97 external cooling, the model employed to simulate hypothermia in the body must 98 be able to take into account arterial temperature changes [22, 23]. 99

For this reason, in this paper, we adopted a model that considers thermoreg-100 ulation responses as the body tries to recover the heat loss and re-establish the 101 homoeothermic balance, reducing the efficiency of the treatment [24]. In the 102 last decades, several models were developed to try to reproduce the thermoreg-103 ulation system, from simple two-node models to more complex multi-segment 104 models [25, 26]. In Schwarz et al. [27], an 128 segment hemodynamic model 105 developed by Avolio [28] is used as an input for a thermoregulation model based 106 on Fiala [29] for hypothermia simulations during open heart surgery. Other ex-107 amples of applications have been found in different fields, such as the automotive 108

¹⁰⁹ industry, environmental comfort and biomedical engineering [30].

The model presented in this paper was implemented in a finite element 110 software developed at the Structures and Materials Laboratory at the Federal 111 University of Rio de Janeiro. The idea of segments and a central blood pool is 112 adapted from Fiala [29], but implemented here as part of a three-dimensional 113 model which assumes that all segments are connected and exchange heat with 114 neighbouring segments. The simulation results were compared to those pre-115 sented in Laszczyk and Nowak [31], and were also validated with some available 116 experimental results. 117

¹¹⁸ 2. Methodology

119 2.1. Bioheat Transfer

The transport of blood in the tissue is a difficult process to be modeled at the microscopic level due to the large amount of vessels present in the tissues. In this paper, we considered a continuum macro-scale model based on blood perfusion developed by Pennes [13]. The model considers blood and tissue as a continuous homogeneous medium. The Pennes' equation is given by

$$\rho_t c_t \frac{\partial T_t}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (k_t \Delta T_t) + \rho_b c_b \omega_b (T_a - T_t) + \dot{q}_m \tag{1}$$

and represents the bioheat flux in a domain Ω . In the above equation, T 125 is the temperature and the subscripts t, b, a and m represent tissue, blood, 126 arterial blood and metabolism, respectively. The material properties defined in 127 the equation are: k (thermal conductivity), c (specific heat), ρ (density) and ω 128 (blood perfusion rate). The metabolic heat generation rate is represented by 129 \dot{q}_m . The perfusion term and the metabolic heat generation rate are considered 130 as isotropic heat sources. The arterial temperature T_a is obtained considering 131 the heat exchanges during blood circulation in the body, and will be discussed 132 in the next section. 133

The bioheat equation is defined in all parts of the body considering different properties for each tissue. The boundary conditions are prescribed temperatures ¹³⁶ $\overline{T}(\Gamma_t,t)$ in the boundary Γ_t and heat fluxes $\overline{q}(\Gamma_q,t)$ in the boundary Γ_q , $\Gamma =$ ¹³⁷ $\Gamma_t \cup \Gamma_q$. The initial condition is,

$$T(x,t_0) = T_0,$$
 (2)

where T_0 is the initial temperature in the tissue.

- 139 2.2. Metabolism
- 140

The metabolic heat generation rate in a specific tissue can be considered as a composition of the basal rate $\dot{q}_{m,0}$, representing a thermal neutrality condition, and an additional rate $\Delta \dot{q}_m$ generated by a local thermoregulation activity:

$$\dot{q}_m = \dot{q}_{m,0} + \Delta \dot{q}_m \tag{3}$$

The additional rate $\Delta \dot{q}_m$ can be divided into three components:

$$\Delta \dot{q}_m = \Delta \dot{q}_{m,0} + \Delta \dot{q}_{m,sh} + \Delta \dot{q}_{m,w} \tag{4}$$

where $\Delta \dot{q}_{m,0}$ refers to local basal metabolic variation and $\Delta \dot{q}_{m,sh}$, $\Delta \dot{q}_{m,w}$ are variations due to changes in metabolism caused by shivering and muscular effort, present only in muscular tissues. The local basal metabolic variation occurs in muscular and non-muscular tissues, and reflects the dependence of the biochemical reactions on the local temperature of the tissue. It results of the van't Hoff Q_{10} effect [32], and can be calculated by the equation:

$$\Delta \dot{q}_{m,0} = \dot{q}_{m,0} \left[Q_{10}^{\frac{T_t - T_0}{10}} - 1 \right] \tag{5}$$

In the above equation, the reference temperature T_0 is the equilibrium temperature of the body and the Q_{10} coefficient is usually considered as equal to 2. The second and third terms in Eq. (4), $\Delta \dot{q}_{m,sh}$ and $\Delta \dot{q}_{m,w}$, were not considered in the case of neonates presented in this paper.

155 2.3. Blood Circulatory System

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The perfusion term in Eq. (1) considers that the heat exchange between blood and tissues occurs only on the capillary vessels, neglecting the heat exchange between adjacent arteries and veins in the body extremities, where the blood is colder than in the core. To consider these effects, the arterial temperature calculation is obtained using the circulatory system model developed by Fiala [29], assuming a non-uniform distribution of arterial temperature in the human body.

The main hypothesis of this circulatory model is that a central blood pool supplies the tissues through the main arteries. A counter current heat exchange between adjacent arteries and veins occurs before the blood reaches the capillary vessels. In this heat exchange, the arteries lose heat and the veins are rewarmed while flowing back to the central blood pool. The venous blood from the whole body is gathered in the blood pool and a new arterial temperature is obtained. The arterial temperature is calculated according to the following equation:

$$T_a = \frac{\rho_b c_b \int \omega_b dV \ T_c + h_x T_{v0}}{\rho_b c_b \int \omega_b dV + h_x} \tag{6}$$

The symbol T_c stands for the blood pool temperature, T_a and T_v are the arterial and venous temperature and h_x is the counter current heat exchange coefficient, considered as zero in the core and with defined values for the extremities of the body [32].

As described in Fiala et al. [25], the blood pool temperature T_c is assumed to be a function of the tissue temperature in the whole body. Differently from Fiala [29], the implementation presented here is a three-dimensional model which considers that all sectors of the body are smoothly connected and heat is exchanged across all surfaces of each segment. The numerical procedure to calculate T_a and T_c will be shown in Section 2.6. 181 2.4. Blood Perfusion Rate

The blood perfusion rate $\omega_{b,t}$ in a specific tissue can be divided into two components:

$$\omega_{b,t} = \omega_{b,0,t} + \Delta \omega_{b,t} \tag{7}$$

where $\omega_{b,0,t}$ is the local basal blood perfusion rate and $\Delta \omega_{b,t}$ is a local variation depending on the tissue temperature, calculated as:

$$\Delta\omega_{b,t} = \Delta\omega_{b,0,t} \left[Q_{10}^{\frac{T_t - T_0}{10}} - 1 \right]$$
(8)

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187 2.5. External Heat Exchange

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The heat exchange between the body and the surrounding environment can be divided into two main mechanisms: convection and radiation. The heat exchange rate varies along the body surface, and the heat flux is the sum of the contributions of both convective and radiative fluxes:

$$q_{skin} = q_{conv} + q_{rad} \tag{9}$$

The convective flux q_{conv} between the skin surface and the external environment can be calculated using the Newton cooling law, defined as

$$q_{conv} = h_{conv}(T_{ext} - T_{skin}) \tag{10}$$

The symbols T_{ext} and h_{conv} indicate the external temperature and the heat transfer coefficient, respectively.

¹⁹⁷ The radiative flux between the skin and the surrounding environment can ¹⁹⁸ be obtained by the Stefan-Boltzmann law:

$$q_{rad} = h_{rad} (T_{skin}^4 - T_{sr,mean}^4) \tag{11}$$

where T_{skin} is the temperature at the skin surface, $T_{sr,mean}$ is the mean temperature of the surrounding radiating surfaces and

$$h_{rad} = \sigma \,\varepsilon \tag{12}$$

²⁰¹ in which σ refers to the Stefan-Boltzmann constant and ε is the average emissiv-²⁰² ity of all radiating surfaces. The emissivity may vary depending on the surface ²⁰³ material (skin, clothes, hair).

204 2.6. Numerical Model

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In the numerical model, the finite element method is used to obtain an ap-206 proximate solution to the Pennes equation and the blood pool model described 207 in Fiala et al. [25]. We have developed an in-house finite element code to solve 208 the proposed bioheat/blood pool model. This code was designed for parallel 209 distributed/shared memory architectures and can be run in any platform with 210 multi-core technology. An in-house model gives more flexibility in choosing spe-211 cific time operators, nonlinear algorithms, iterative solvers, control parameters 212 and special data structures for high performance computing, as shown in Ribeiro 213 e nd Ferreira [33] and Ribeiro and Coutinho [34]. 214

To solve the transient problem, a time-marching scheme based on a semidiscrete form of the FEM is used, where the spatial discretization is performed by finite elements and the time derivative is approximated by finite difference operators using the two-point closed Newton-Cotes formula, also called Trapezoidal rule. Considering the Pennes Eq. (1) in a spatial domain Ω and a temporal interval $(0, \Pi)$, the domain Ω is discretized in elements and at each time step $t = t_{n+1}$ we adopt the approximation:

$$T(x, t_{n+1}) \cong \tilde{T}(x, t_{n+1}) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} N_j(x) \,\tilde{T}_{j,n+1}$$
(13)

where $N_j(x)$ refers to the spatial interpolation functions and $\tilde{T}_{j,n+1}$ are the nodal values of the approximate temperature function \tilde{T} at time step t_{n+1} . The $_{224}$ time derivative of T at t_{n+1} is approximated by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}\Big|_{t=t_{n+1}} \cong \tilde{T}(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} N_j(x) \,\tilde{T}_{j,n+1} \tag{14}$$

Introducing the approximations presented above, the following system of algebraic equations is obtained at time $t = t_{n+1}$:

$$M \dot{T}_{n+1} + K T_{n+1} = F_{n+1} \tag{15}$$

where M is the mass matrix, \dot{T}_{n+1} are the nodal values of the time derivative of temperature, K is the stiffness matrix, T_{n+1} are the nodal temperatures at time step t_{n+1} and F_{n+1} is the vector of independent terms. The coefficients of these matrices are calculated as follows:

$$m_{ij} = \int_{\Omega} c_t \rho_t N_i N_j d\Omega \tag{16}$$

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$$k_{ij} = k \int_{\Omega} \left(\frac{\partial N_i}{\partial x} \frac{\partial N_j}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N_i}{\partial y} \frac{\partial N_j}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial N_i}{\partial z} \frac{\partial N_j}{\partial z} \right) d\Omega + \int_{\Omega} c_a \rho_a \omega_a N_i N_j d\Omega \quad (17)$$

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$$f_i = \int_{\Omega} q_m N_i d\Omega - \int_{\Gamma} \overline{q} N_i d\Gamma + \int_{\Omega} c_a \rho_a \omega_a T_a N_i d\Omega \tag{18}$$

The counter current heat exchange and the circulatory system effects on blood pool temperature are incorporated by calculating the arterial temperature in each sector $T_{a,k}$ as

$$T_{a,k} = \frac{\rho_b c_b \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k}\right) T_c + h_{x,k} T_{v0,k}}{\rho_b c_b \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_k} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k}\right) + h_{x,k}}$$
(19)

where the subscript k denotes the sector of the body, N_k is the number of elements in each sector k and $V_{i,t,k}$ is the volume of element i of the tissue t in the sector k. The blood pool temperature used in Eq. (19) is given by Laszczyk and Nowak[31]:

$$T_{c} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left[\frac{\rho_{b} c_{b} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_{k}} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k} \right) \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_{k}} V_{i,t,k} T_{i,t,k} \right)}{\rho_{b} c_{b} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_{k}} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k} \right) + h_{x,k}} \right]}$$
(20)
$$\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left[\frac{\left[\rho_{b} c_{b} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_{k}} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k} \right) \right]^{2}}{\rho_{b} c_{b} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N_{k}} \omega_{b,t,k} V_{i,t,k} \right) + h_{x,k}} \right]}$$

In the above equation, K is the total number of sectors in the body and $T_{i,t,k}$ represents the temperature of each element i of tissue t in sector k. In this way, at each new iteration of the system, before assembling the stiffness matrix and the force vector, the temperatures $T_{a,k}$, T_c and $T_{v0,k}$ must be updated.

A predictor multi-corrector algorithm is used for the treatment of the nonlinearities [35]. For this purpose, the residue at time t_{n+1} is considered as equal to zero if the system is balanced, i.e.

$$R = F_{n+1} - M \dot{T}_{n+1} - K T_{n+1}$$
(21)

with R being the residue at time step t_{n+1} . In this work, we implemented the algorithm presented by Ribeiro and Ferreira [33], as illustrated in Table 1, where Δt is the time step and α is a finite difference coefficient. The system of equations is assembled by performing a local calculation in each element and it is solved using the conjugate gradient method with a diagonal pre-conditioner [36] consisting of the diagonal coefficients of the system matrix.

	Table 1: Predictor/ Multi-corrector algor	rithm [33]
1:	$\tilde{T}_{n+1} = T_n + (1 - \alpha)\Delta \tilde{T}_n$	(predictor)
2:	i = 0	
3 :	$T_{n+1}^i = \tilde{T}_{n+1}$	
4:	$\dot{T}^i_{n+1} = 0$	
5:	$R^{i} = F_{n+1} - M \dot{T}_{n+1}^{i} - K T_{n+1}^{i}$	
6:	$\Delta \dot{T}_{n+1}^{i+1} = (M^*)^{-1} R^i \ (1)$	
7:	$\dot{T}_{n+1}^{i+1} = \dot{T}_{n+1}^i + \Delta \dot{T}_{n+1}^{i+1}$	(corrector loop
8:	$T_{n+1}^{i+1} = \tilde{T}_{n+1} + \alpha \Delta t \dot{T}_{n+1}^{i+1}$	
9:	i = i + 1	J
(1)	$M^* = M + \alpha \Delta t K$	-

253 3. Application

The main purpose of this work is to implement a thermoregulation model capable of simulating the heat transfer in the human body during hypothermic treatments in neonates suffering from encephalopathy hypoxic-ischemia.

The geometrical model used in this work was obtained by segmentation 257 of 3D medical images provided by the Institute of Thermal Technology of the 258 Silesian Institute of Technology. It represents a neonate weighting 3.3 kg, whose 259 geometry consists of nine different materials (skin/fat, muscle, bone, brain, 260 viscera, lungs, eyes, fontanel and cerebrospinal fluid) divided in seven sectors 261 (trunk, head, abdomen, arm, hand, leg, foot). Only half of the body was used 262 in the simulation, due to symmetry. The geometry of the neonate and the 263 materials can be seen in Figures 1 - 2. The mesh was discretized in 3.5 million 264 four-node tetrahedral elements. 265



Figure 1: Geometry of the neonate



Figure 2: Mesh of 3.5 million elements

The material properties were taken from Laszczyk and Nowak [31]. The blood perfusion and heat generation rates were taken from an inverse analysis study [37]. Table 2 shows the material properties for each tissue used in this simulation.

Table 2: Material properties of the different tissues					
Material properties					
Tissue	Thermal	Density	Specific Heat	Metabolic	Blood Per-
	Con-	(kg/m^3)	$(J/kg.^{o}C)$	Heat Gener-	fusion Rate
	ductivity			ation Rate	(1/s)
	$(W/m.^{o}C)$			(W/m^3)	
Blood	0.5	1050	3800	-	-
Eye	0.6	1000	3990	0	0
Lungs	0.4	700	3719	850	0.39016
Skin + Fat	0.3	1000	3631	450	0.00795
Cerebrospinal	0.5	998	3800	0	0
fluid					
Bones	0.8	1030	1796	0	0
Fontanel	0.6	1015	2714	0	06
Muscle	0.5	1000	3645	350	0.00135
Viscera	0.5	1005	3697	4020	0.004326
Brain	0.5	1000	3805	6800	0.017453

Several examples were performed to initially validate the finite element 270 model, and their results compared to those obtained through the implemen-271 tation of the model in a commercial finite volume software (FLUENT) using 272 a user-defined function (UDF). The examples were taken from an experimen-273 tal study with an anthropomorphic thermal manikin of a newborn baby [38]. 274 From the experiments, the convection heat transfer coefficient was defined and 275 the mean skin temperature was used to compare experimental and numerical 276 results. 277

In the first test, the body of the neonate was divided in two regions: top and bottom. An adiabatic condition was prescribed at the bottom surface while,

- $_{\tt 280}$ $\,$ at the top surface, an external temperature and a heat transfer coefficient were
- ²⁸¹ defined. Both surfaces are depicted in Figure 3.



Figure 3: Top (green) and bottom (black) surfaces used to prescribe boundary conditions in case 1

The first case considers an external temperature of $30^{\circ}C$ and a convec-282 tive heat transfer coefficient of $10.63W/m^2$.°C. The total basal metabolic heat 283 source was considered as 5.5W and the case was analyzed as steady-state. The 284 counter current heat exchange coefficients are presented in Table 3. Based on 285 these initial boundary condition values, different sub-cases are analyzed to com-286 pare both finite element and Fluent UDF implementations. An analysis with 287 heat transfer coefficient of $9.3W/m^2$. C is performed to compare the numerical 288 results with the temperature measures of the manikin test. Finally, a sensitivity 289 analysis is performed to analyze the behavior of the body temperature under 290 different external conditions and heat transfer coefficients. 291

Table 3: Counter current heat exchange coefficient of the seven sectors of the neonate body

Countercurrent heat exchange coefficient - h_{xc} (W/°C)							
Sector	Head	Trunk	Abdomen	Arm	Hand	Leg	Foot
	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.652	0.228	2.760	1.360

For the second case, a transient cooling treatment procedure was simulated.

The treatment consists of a special cooling helmet to provide selective brain cool-293 ing while maintaining core temperature at safe levels using a radiant warmer. 294 The goal of the hypothermic treatment is to maintain a core temperature of 295 $33 - 34^{\circ}C$ during 72 hours. The cooling helmet was imitated using a convective 296 boundary condition with an external temperature of $10.8^{\circ}C$ and a convective 297 heat transfer coefficient of $19.5W/m^2$. ^{o}C . In the rest of the body, a convec-298 tive condition with external temperature of $25^{\circ}C$ and convective heat transfer 299 coefficient of $5.0W/m^2$.°C was prescribed during the first hour of simulation. 300 After that, a mixed condition of convective and radiative heat flux is prescribed 301 at the top part of the body, considering the average temperature of all radiant 302 surfaces as $48^{\circ}C$ and an average emissivity of 0.98. The boundaries indicating 303 the cooling helmet, the top and the bottom part are shown in Figure 4. 304



Figure 4: Cooling helmet (blue), top surface (green) and bottom surface (black) used to prescribe boundary conditions in case 2

A third case consisting of the same boundary condition of case 2 is analyzed, changing the radiative flux boundary condition to be applied during the whole simulation. The comparison between both cases is discussed at the end of the next section.

The rewarming phase is simulated in the fourth case. In this case, the cooling helmet is turned off and a controlled rewarming is performed until the normal core temperature of $37^{\circ}C$ is achieved. As specified in Gluckman et al. [5], the rewarming procedure takes about 4-6 hours and the average temperature of all radiant surfaces is considered to be $35 - 37^{\circ}C$, at a maximum temperature increase rate of $0.5^{\circ}C/hour$. In the present case, the radiant warmer temperature was set as $37^{\circ}C$ and the rewarming was simulated during 5.5 hours.

316 4. Results

The first test described in the previous section consists of a steady-state problem with external temperature prescribed at the top part of the body. This example was used to compare the results obtained using the finite element model and the FLUENT implementation of the thermoregulation model. Several subcases were simulated considering different conditions presented in Table 4. Table 5 shows the blood pool temperature used to compare the results of both methods.

Subcase	Heat transfer coef-	Metabolic heat	Blood Pool	Division into
	ficient $(W/m^2.^oC)$	generation rate	approach	sectors
		and blood per-		
		fusion rate		
a	10.6	constant	no	no
b	10.6	constant	yes	no
с	10.6	Eq. (5), Eq. (8)	yes	no
d	10.6	constant	yes	yes
е	10.6	Eq. (5), Eq. (8)	yes	yes
f	9.3	Eq. (5), Eq. (8)	yes	yes

Table 4: Subcases considered in Case 1

Table 5: Comparison between FEM model and Fluent UDF implementation				
$T_p(^oC)$				
Case	FEM Bioheat program	Fluent implementarion	% difference	
a	37.00	37.00	0.00%	
b	34.81	34.87	0.17%	
с	34.01	34.06	0.15%	
d	34.96	35.02	0.17%	
е	34.87	34.92	0.14%	
f	35.21	35.27	0.17%	

The maximum relative difference in Table 5 is about 0.17%, which means 323 the results of both programs are in good agreement. In the case 1e, the change 324 in the heat transfer coefficient compensates a small difference between the sur-325 face area of the experimental manikin and the geometrical model used in the 326 simulation. The change in the heat transfer coefficient provides a mean top sur-327 face temperature of $34.5^{\circ}C$, compatible with the experimental results obtained 328 by Laszczyk and Nowak [39] using the manikin. The sensitivity of the anal-329 ysis to the heat transfer coefficient and external temperature was checked by 330 performing some analyses using different external temperatures and heat trans-331 fer coefficient values of 100%, 50% and 25% of the initial value for a constant 332 external temperature. The results are shown in Table 6. 333

External Temperature (^{o}C)	Heat transfer coefficient $(W/m^2.^oC)$	$T_p(^{o}C)$
30	10.63	34.87
20	10.63	24.81
10	10.63	14.80
10	5.315	19.21
10	2.6575	33.80

Table 6: Sensitivity study of the blood temperature to the external temperature and heat transfer coefficient.

A drop of $10^{\circ}C$ in the external temperature results in a final blood pool 334 temperature approximately $10^{\circ}C$ lower. The relation between heat transfer 335 coefficient and blood pool temperature is inversely proportional. Considering 336 an external temperature of $10^{\circ}C$, a heat transfer coefficient of half and a quarter 337 of the initial value results in an increase of almost $5^{o}C$ and $19^{o}C$ in the blood 338 pool temperature, respectively. These results are consistent with the physics in 339 that, the more clothes are worn, the lower the heat transfer coefficient and less 340 heat is lost to the environment, so the body is kept warmer. 341

Our aim is for some of the more sensitive parameters to be 'learned' from further studies on neonates. For instance, our collaborators at the Silesian University of Technology have already performed some inverse analyses where specific parameters were identified from temperature measurements provided by a collaborating hospital [40]. As more studies on neonates are published, we hope that the required model parameters will be refined and their values will be more clearly defined.

The second test consists of a transient thermal analysis of a 3.3 kg neonate laying down in a mattress during 24 hours (considering the heat flux between the neonate body and the mattress to be zero), wearing a cooling helmet and subjected to a radiative flux after one hour of the beginning of the cooling procedure. The blood pool temperature during the 24 hours simulations can be

³⁵⁴ depicted in Figure 5.



Figure 5: Case 2- Blood pool temperature during 24 hours of analysis

Figure 5 shows a blood pool temperature drop of $3^{\circ}C$ during the first hour of simulation, and then the maintenance of a mild hypothermic temperature of $34^{\circ}C$ during the remaining 23 hours. The deep brain temperature reached $34.1^{\circ}C$ after one hour of simulation, which is compatible with the hypothermia treatment temperature described in the literature. Figures 6 and 7 show the temperature profile at the skin surface and inside the body during the final hour of analysis.



Figure 6: Case 2- Temperature profile on the skin surface after 24 hours of analysis



Figure 7: Case 2- Temperature profile in the interior of the body after 24 hours of analysis

The temperature at the skin surface reached a maximum of $36.1^{\circ}C$ in the extremities and a minimum of $28.1^{\circ}C$ at the cooling helmet location. The mean top skin temperature is $34.8^{\circ}C$. The third test considers a mixed convective and radiative flux condition during the whole analysis. A comparison between the
blood pool temperature during the 24 hour simulations of the second and third
cases is shown in Figure 8.



Figure 8: Comparison between blood pool temperature in cases 2 and 3 during 24 hours of analysis

The temperature variation in the transient analysis of the third case shows 368 that it takes about 15 hours for the blood pool temperature to drop to $34^{\circ}C$ 369 considering a radiant heat source during the whole analysis, while it takes only 370 one hour if the radiant source is turned off during the first hour of simulation. 371 A faster cooling process is more effective in preventing neurological damages 372 resulting from perinatal asphyxia in neonates. For that reason, the second case 373 would be more suitable for the cooling therapy treatment. The fourth case has 374 considered the rewarming phase of the hypothermic treatment, with the cooling 375 helmet turned off and the radiant warmer temperature adjusted to $37^{\circ}C$. The 376

³⁷⁷ results are depicted in Figure 9.



Figure 9: Case 4: Blood pool temperature during 5.5 hours analysis of rewarming procedure

The results of the fourth case simulation show that it takes about 5.5 hours to re-establish the normal core temperature of $37^{\circ}C$ after a period of mild hypothermic treatment. The behaviour of the core temperature during a 24 hour hypothermic treatment is shown in Figure 10.



Figure 10: The blood pool temperature during the hypothermic treatment simulation, consisting of a 1 hour cooling stage, 23 hours of mild hypothermia and 5.5 hours rewarming

382 5. Conclusion

The main goal of the work described in this paper is to develop a finite element model able to simulate bioheat transfer processes in a neonate's body, and to perform selective body cooling procedures as a treatment for encephalopathy hypoxic-ischemic disease.

The results produced by the FEM code were initially compared with those obtained by a UDF Fluent implementation to validate the model and assess the differences between both methods of implementation. Results showed very small differences between both methods, concluding they are in good agreement. A sensitivity analysis was performed to verify the dependence of the final result on the environmental temperature and heat transfer coefficient of the external surfaces. Changes in the environmental temperature show a linear dependence between the final temperature of the blood pool and the external temperature. On the other hand, the blood pool temperature has an inversely proportional dependence with the heat transfer coefficient, and the relation is more complex. For a $10^{\circ}C$ external temperature, for example, dropping the heat transfer coefficient by a quarter resulted in an increase in the blood temperature of almost $20^{\circ}C$, showing the importance of correctly determining this parameter.

After calibrating the heat transfer coefficient to compensate some differences in the surface area between the numerical geometry and a manikin developed at the Silesian University of Technology, a simulation was performed and the mean top surface temperature calculated to compare with the temperature measurements in the manikin experiment, also producing good agreement.

Finally, a transient analysis was performed considering a cooling helmet and 405 a radiative flux on the top surface of the body. The variation of the blood 406 pool temperature and the internal brain temperature were calculated during 24 407 hours. Results show it is possible to decrease the brain temperature to $34.3^{\circ}C$ 408 in one hour and to maintain it constant for 24 hours by turning on the radiant 409 warmer after 1 hour from the start of the treatment. If the radiant warmer is 410 turned on at the start of the treatment, it takes about 15 hours for the brain to 411 reach the mild hypothermic temperature required in the treatment. 412

During the rewarming phase, after turning off the cooling helmet, it took 413 about 5.5 hours for the normal temperature of $37^{\circ}C$ to be re-established, at 414 a rate of approximately $0.5^{\circ}C/hour$. During a selective body cooling treat-415 ment, it usually takes between 4 and 6 hours for the temperature of $37^{\circ}C$ to be 416 reached during the rewarming phase, depending on the hypothermic tempera-417 ture prescribed. This means the results obtained have good correspondence with 418 clinical results using known selective cooling devices, in the sense they correctly 419 reproduce all the main features demonstrated in clinical trials of hypothermic 420 treatments. . 421

These results demonstrate the importance of the model developed in this work for the study of different scenarios of cooling procedures. The model presented here was capable to reproduce a hypothermic treatment procedure in a

realistic neonate body under different scenarios with very good results. This 425 opens the way for the optimisation of the treatment on a patient-specific basis, 426 by performing parametric studies with newborns of different weights/gestation 427 periods to verify if the current cooling/rewarming guidance is optimal for all 428 newborns, or if the brain temperature and rewarming period depend on the 429 size of each newborn. The greatest difficulty is the determination of the correct 430 parameters to guarantee that the analysis corresponds to the real case, as small 431 differences in some of the parameters can result in substantial differences in 432 temperature, as demonstrated by the sensitivity analysis. 433

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