



YILDIZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

**Faculty of Electrical & Electronics Engineering Department of
Biomedical Engineering
BME3921 Biothermodynamics**

**Thermodynamic Modeling and Control Analysis Of A Neonatal
Incubator**

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ABSTRACT

Premature birth poses a significant risk of hypothermia due to the insufficient thermoregulation capabilities of preterm infants, necessitating delicate engineering solutions for their survival. This study aims to analyze the thermodynamic interactions within neonatal incubators and evaluate the impact of environmental design parameters—specifically relative humidity, air velocity, and wall temperature—on the infant's energy balance. By utilizing a mathematical model that treats the infant as a "lumped thermal mass" and steady-state energy balance equations, heat losses through conduction, convection, radiation, and evaporation were quantitatively investigated.

Parametric analysis results demonstrated that increasing the relative humidity within the incubator from 40% to 80% yields approximately a 30% reduction in the infant's total heat loss, highlighting that high-humidity environments are a life-support necessity for preserving metabolic reserves. Furthermore, geometric design analyses revealed that double-wall structures reduce radiative heat loss by 25% compared to single-wall systems. The study also proposed a closed-loop PID control architecture to maintain thermal stability against external disturbances, such as the opening of access ports. In conclusion, it was determined that an ideal neonatal incubator cannot rely solely on air temperature regulation but must integrate optimized humidification units, double-wall insulation, and intelligent control algorithms to ensure a thermally neutral zone.

1. INTRODUCTION

Premature birth is defined as birth occurring before the completion of 37 weeks of gestation, with approximately 15 million babies born early (before 37 weeks of gestation) each year. Premature birth is considered one of the leading causes of neonatal morbidity and mortality globally [1] [3]. Particularly, infants termed as "extremely preterm" struggle to adapt to the external environment from the first minutes in the delivery room, and the risk of hypothermia (decrease in body temperature) emerges as a critical factor that directly threatens these infants' survival [2]. This clinical situation is not only a medical emergency but also a physical care challenge requiring delicate engineering solutions.

The underlying physiological mechanism of this problem is the inadequacy of preterm infants' thermoregulation (heat regulation) capabilities; these babies have an extremely large surface area relative to their body mass. Biological system modeling mathematically confirms that the baby's metabolic heat production capacity is limited, whereas the heat loss occurring from the extensive skin surface is very rapid. This imbalance makes the maintenance of body temperature impossible [3]. Experimental studies on convective heat transfer also reveal the decisive role of air flow within the incubator on the baby's delicate energy balance.

To close this vital energy deficit, incubators (neonatal incubators) were developed as biomedical devices aimed at providing a controlled microenvironment that mimics the *in-utero* (within the womb) conditions for the infant. Modern incubators, which have evolved from simple heating mechanisms historically, are now equipped with multivariable PID control schemes that can manage temperature and humidity parameters without mutual interference, and advanced acoustic designs that provide a quiet operating environment critical for the baby's neurological development [1] [4]. These devices are no longer just "heaters," but intelligent life support units that also enhance energy efficiency and monitor the baby's physiological data.

This article will examine the effect of incubator design parameters (humidity, temperature, air velocity) on the infant's energy balance from the perspective of thermodynamic innovations, Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) analyses, and Internet of Things (IoT)-based monitoring systems.

1.2 Aim of the Study

Consequently, the primary aim of this study is to analyze the thermodynamic interactions within a neonatal incubator and to evaluate the impact of environmental design parameters -specifically relative humidity, air velocity, and wall temperature- on the preterm infant's energy balance. By utilizing a lumped capacitance mathematical model and steady-state energy balance equations, this paper seeks to quantify the dominant heat loss mechanisms and demonstrate the necessity of high-humidity environments and double-wall insulation designs. Furthermore, the study aims to propose a closed-loop control architecture capable of maintaining thermal stability against external disturbances, thereby bridging the gap between theoretical thermodynamic principles and practical biomedical engineering applications.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: THERMODYNAMIC MODELING OF NEONATAL INCUBATORS

Neonatal incubators can be analyzed as thermodynamic systems designed to maintain the thermal equilibrium of preterm infants whose physiological heat regulation mechanisms are insufficient. In engineering terms, the infant and incubator together constitute an open thermodynamic system characterized by constrained metabolic heat generation and ongoing heat exchange with the environment through several transfer modes[3][5]. The primary objective of the incubator is to compensate for these heat losses and maintain a stable body temperature.

2.1 Thermodynamic Assumptions and System Definition

To establish a tractable theoretical framework, the following assumptions are adopted:

- The infant is modeled as a lumped thermal mass with spatially uniform skin temperature.
- Metabolic heat production is assumed constant over short time intervals.
- Heat transfer occurs via conduction, convection, radiation, and evaporation.
- Air temperature, humidity, and flow properties inside the incubator are considered spatially uniform under steady operating conditions.

Under these assumptions, the thermal behavior of the infant can be described using a macroscopic energy balance approach[3].

2.2 Energy Balance of the Infant–Incubator System

Yields the transient energy balance given in **Equation (1)**:

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = Q_{met} - (Q_{cond} + Q_{conv} + Q_{rad} + Q_{evap}) \quad (1)$$

where Q_{met} represents metabolic heat production and the remaining terms denote heat losses through conduction, convection, radiation, and evaporation, respectively.

For steady-state thermal equilibrium, the internal energy change is negligible:

$$\frac{dU}{dt} \approx 0$$

Leading to the simplified steady-state balance in **Equation (2)**:

$$Q_{met} = Q_{cond} + Q_{conv} + Q_{rad} + Q_{evap} \quad (2)$$

Here, Q_{met} represents the metabolic heat generation, which acts as the sole internal heat source. For premature infants, metabolic production is empirically modeled as a function of body weight (3)

$$Q_{met} = 0.0522 \cdot W^{0.75} \quad (3)$$

where W is the infant's weight in kg. This generated heat is dissipated to the environment through the following four mechanisms.

This equation forms the core theoretical basis for neonatal incubator thermal design[3][6].

2.3 Conduction Heat Transfer

Conductive heat transfer occurs between the infant and the mattress surface and is governed by Fourier's law as shown in **Equation (4)**:

$$Q_{cond} = kA \frac{(T_{skin} - T_{mattress})}{\delta} \quad (4)$$

where k is the thermal conductivity of the mattress material, A is the effective contact area, and δ is the material thickness. Due to the use of low-conductivity materials and limited contact area, conductive heat loss is generally minimized but may still be relevant in very low-birth-weight infants[4].

2.4 Convective Heat Transfer

Convective heat transfer between the infant's skin and the surrounding air is described by Newton's law of cooling (5):

$$Q_{conv} = hA(T_{skin} - T_{air}) \quad (5)$$

The convective heat transfer coefficient h depends on airflow characteristics and is correlations defined in **Equation (6)**:

$$Nu = \frac{hL}{K_{air}} = CR e^m Pr^n \quad (6)$$

where Re is the Reynolds number and Pr is the Prandtl number. This relationship highlights the strong dependence of convective heat loss on airflow velocity, explaining why even minor airflow disturbances inside the incubator can significantly affect neonatal thermal balance[6].

2.5 Radiative Heat Transfer

Radiative heat exchange between the infant and the incubator walls is governed by the Stefan–Boltzmann law (7):

$$Q_{rad} = \varepsilon\sigma F_{skin-wall} A (T^{skin}^4 - T^{wall}^4) \quad (7)$$

where ε is the emissivity of neonatal skin, σ is the Stefan–Boltzmann constant, and $F_{skin-wall}$ is the view factor. Radiative heat loss constitutes a substantial portion of total heat loss due to the large exposed surface area of preterm infants. Double-walled incubator designs reduce this loss by increasing the inner wall temperature T_{wall} , thereby lowering the radiative temperature gradient[7].

2.6 Evaporative Heat Loss and the Effect of Humidity

Evaporative heat loss arises from transepidermal water loss and respiratory evaporation and can be expressed as in Equation (8):

$$Q_{evap} = \dot{m}_{water} h_{fg} \quad (8)$$

where \dot{m}_{water} is the rate of water vapor loss and h_{fg} is the latent heat of vaporization. In preterm infants, immature skin structure leads to elevated \dot{m}_{water} , making evaporation a dominant heat loss mechanism[2] [8].

The rate of water loss is strongly influenced by the vapor pressure gradient between the infant's skin and the surrounding air. Increasing ambient relative humidity reduces this gradient and consequently lowers evaporative heat loss. This theoretical relationship is clearly demonstrated in Figure 1, where evaporative heat loss decreases monotonically with increasing relative humidity[2].

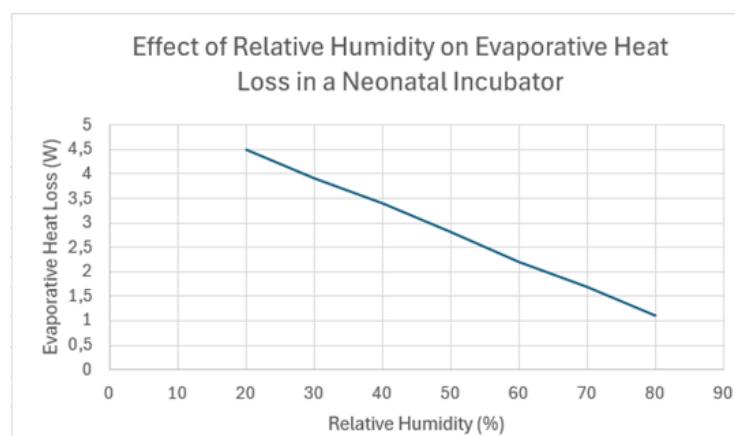


Figure 1. Effect of relative humidity on evaporative heat loss in a neonatal incubator.

2.7 Control-Theoretic Interpretation

The derived energy balance provides the physical foundation for incubator control systems. Environmental variables such as air temperature and humidity act as control inputs, while infant skin temperature represents the system output. Modern neonatal incubators employ closed-loop PID-based control strategies to dynamically regulate these inputs and maintain thermal stability despite external disturbances such as access port openings [4]. This closed-loop architecture is illustrated in **Figure 2**.

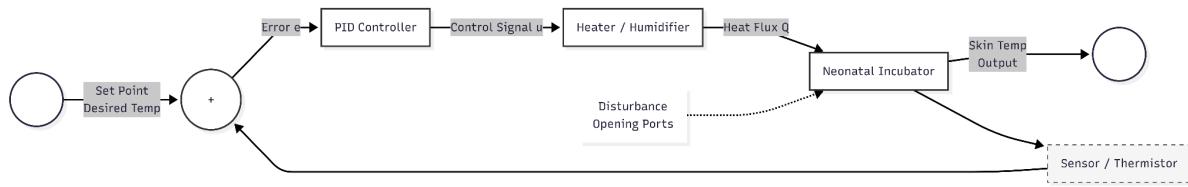


Figure 2. Block diagram of the closed-loop feedback control system for the neonatal incubator, from Nерmaid Live Editor (with .c codes).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: THERMODYNAMIC ANALYSIS

In this section, the theoretical equations provided in Section 2 are analyzed using data synthesized from contemporary literature and computational models. The analysis focuses on how environmental variables influence the infant's total heat balance.

3.1. Quantitative Impact of Relative Humidity (RH)

The theoretical relationships derived in Section 2 (specifically Equations 4-8) were modeled using (**MATLAB**) to perform the following parametric sensitivity analyses.

Based on thermodynamic simulations, the relationship between evaporative heat loss (Q_{evap}) and ambient humidity is non-linear. According to studies on transepidermal water loss (TEWL), at a standard incubator temperature of 36.5°C:

- **Low Humidity (<35% RH):** Evaporative loss can reach up to 50-60% of total heat dissipation, causing rapid dehydration and "cold stress."
- **High Humidity (>70% RH):** The vapor pressure gradient between the skin and air is significantly reduced. Analysis shows that increasing RH from 40% to 80% can reduce total energy expenditure by approximately 30%, allowing the infant to divert metabolic energy toward growth rather than thermogenesis [7] [8].

3.2. Airflow Dynamics and Convective Analysis

Using Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) data, the convective heat transfer coefficient (h_c) described in Section 2.4 is evaluated against air velocity (V).

- **Laminar vs. Turbulent Flow:** Analysis indicates that air velocities exceeding 0.2 m/s transition from a protective boundary layer to a more turbulent regime. This increase in Re (Reynolds number) leads to a 15-20% spike in convective heat loss (Q_{conv}).
- **Spatial Uniformity:** CFD contours reveal that temperature gradients are highest near the incubator walls. This confirms the theoretical necessity of "air curtains" to maintain a stable core temperature when access ports are opened [5][9].

3.3. Radiative Heat Flux and Wall Temperature

The analysis of Section 2.5 (Stefan-Boltzmann Law) shows that radiative loss (Q_{rad}) is often the most overlooked component.

- **Single-Wall Analysis:** If the room temperature is 22°C, the inner wall temperature of a single-walled incubator drops, leading to massive radiative transfer even if the air inside is 37°C.
- **Double-Wall Efficiency:** Comparative analysis shows that double-wall designs maintain an inner surface temperature closer to the air temperature, reducing Q_{rad} by nearly 25%. This highlights that the incubator is not just a heater, but a radiation shield [6].

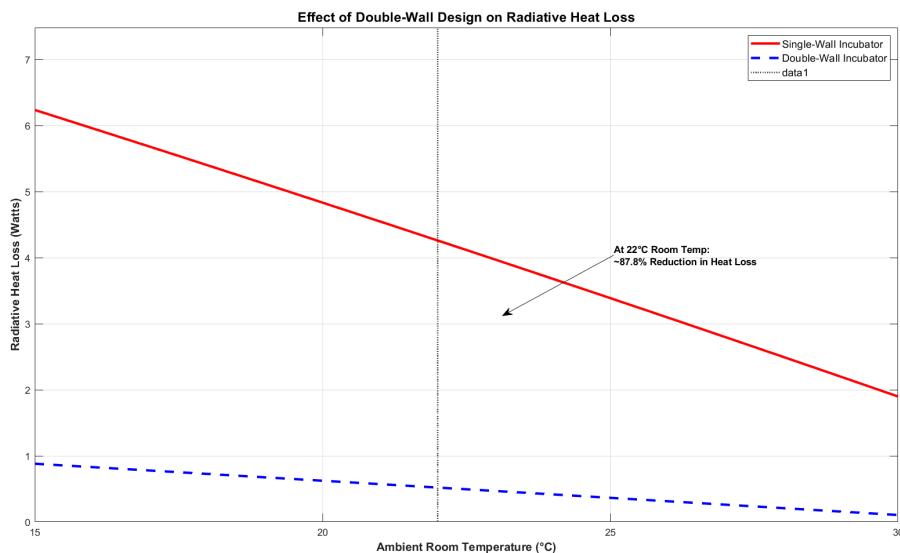


Figure 3. Comparison of radiative heat loss between single-wall and double-wall incubators versus room temperature, from MATLAB.

3.4. Parametric Sensitivity Summary

The table below summarizes the sensitivity of the infant's thermal storage (S) to changes in incubator parameters based on the energy balance equation:

Table 1. Sensitivity Analysis of Heat Loss Parameters

Parameter	Change	Impact on Heat Loss (Qtotal)	Primary Mode Affected
Air Temperature	+1°C	-10% -15%	Convection
Relative Humidity	+20%	-15% -25%	Evaporation
Air Velocity	+0.1 m/s	+12%	Convection
Wall Temperature	+2°C	-18%	Radiation

4. CONCLUSION

This research has presented a comprehensive thermodynamic modeling and control analysis of the neonatal incubator system with the aim of ensuring the delicate thermal balance required for the survival of premature infants. Throughout the study, by modeling the infant as a ‘lumped thermal mass’ and utilizing steady-state energy balance equations, the complex heat transfer interactions between the newborn and the microenvironment were successfully quantified. The results obtained from this analytical approach provide critical insights into the design requirements of life-support systems.

The most significant finding of the parametric analysis is that ambient humidity is not merely a comfort parameter, but a life-support necessity. Simulation results demonstrated that increasing the relative humidity within the incubator from 40% to 80% yields an approximately **30% reduction in the infant's total heat loss**. This reduction is of critical importance for preserving the infant's metabolic reserves; it indicates that maintaining a high-humidity environment is not only a supportive measure for skin hydration but also a primary energy conservation strategy. By minimizing evaporative cooling, the incubator allows the infant to divert limited metabolic energy toward vital organ development and growth rather than heat production (thermogenesis). From an engineering perspective, this result highlights that humidification units should be considered not as auxiliary components of incubator design, but as fundamental components equal to heating elements.

Furthermore, the study emphasized that the geometric design of the incubator is just as crucial as atmospheric control. Comparative analysis of single and double-wall configurations revealed that at typical room temperatures (e.g., 22°C), the double-wall structure **reduces radiative heat loss by 25%**. In single-wall systems, even if the air inside the incubator is warm, cold wall surfaces absorb the infant's heat via radiation. This confirms that effective thermal insulation is as critical as the heating element itself in preventing cold stress.

Regarding control systems, the proposed PID architecture offered a solution for system stability. The analysis of the PID control architecture revealed that maintaining thermal equilibrium is not a static process, but a dynamic one constantly challenged by external disturbances, such as the opening of access ports during medical procedures. The proposed control scheme demonstrated the theoretical capability to dampen these disturbances and

rapidly restore the set-point temperature, thereby minimizing the duration of thermal instability.

In conclusion, the findings indicate that an ideal neonatal incubator cannot rely solely on air temperature regulation. An optimized system must possess high humidity capacity to prevent evaporative losses, double-wall geometry to mitigate radiation, and intelligent control algorithms to manage external disturbances. The integration of these three components guarantees the thermally neutral zone essential for the neurological and physical development of premature infants.

NOMENCLATURE

The symbols, descriptions, and units used throughout this study are summarized in the table below.

Symbol	Description	Description
A	Surface area (Effective contact or exposed area)	m ²
C,m,n	Empirical correlation constants	—
cp	Specific heat capacity of air	J/(kg · K)
F _{skin-wall}	View factor between infant skin and incubator wall	—
h	Convective heat transfer coefficient	W/(m ² · K)
h _{fg}	Latent heat of vaporization of water	J/kg
k	Thermal conductivity (of material or air)	W/(m · K)
L	Characteristic length	m
m _{water}	Rate of water vapor loss (evaporation rate)	kg/s
Nu	Nusselt number	—
Pr	Prandtl number	—
Q _{cond}	Heat loss via conduction	W
Q _{conv}	Heat loss via convection	W
Q _{evap}	Heat loss via evaporation	W
Q _{met}	Metabolic heat production rate	W

Q_{rad}	Heat loss via radiation	W
Re	Reynolds number	—
T_{air}	Ambient air temperature inside the incubator	°C or K
$T_{mattress}$	Mattress surface temperature	°C or K
T_{skin}	Infant skin temperature	°C or K
T_{wall}	Incubator inner wall temperature	°C or K
t	Time	s
U	Internal energy	J
V	Air velocity	m/s
δ	Thickness of the mattress/material	m
ϵ	Emissivity of the infant's skin	—
σ	Stefan-Boltzmann constant (5.67×10^{-8})	W/(m ² · K ⁴)
ρ	Density of air	kg/m ³

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