Title

Subtitle

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Abstract

Detecting changes in human lung morphology and determining its effects on lung function requires significant time committment per patient, so statistical analysis on many individuals is infeasible. Computational models of the lung are therefore a natural choice for researching the effects of altered lung morphology, with reference to existing lung function tests.

Accurate computational models also allow investigation into properties of the lungs that cannot feasibly be measured; e.g., increased internal stress in one location from damaged airways elsewhere.

This paper builds on recent advancements in modelling airflow in the lungs ($\langle \text{ref-}$ erence to Foy \rangle) to produce an efficient, accurate model of the lungs that supports simple alterations to the simulated morphology. We then use this model to determine the strains placed on the rest of the lungs by various kinds of constricted or damaged airways.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Respiratory diseases account for more than 10% of *all* disability-adjusted life-years lost due to any medical condition, second only to cardiovascular diseases. [1] Because of this, any betterment of our understanding of the lungs and how they change from damage has immediate benefits towards understanding one of the most significant categories of disease.

In spite of this, there are relatively few existing methods for experimentation. Clinical observations on live patients are necessarily limited, and common techniques – spirometry, inert-gas washout, and fMRI imaging – all have severe limitations that render them infeasible or impossible to use for obtaining detailed data on the lungs at scale. And on top of that, the difficulty of drawing inference from these methods is enhanced by the fact that they are purely observational; in this paper, we are concerned with the effects of certain changes in lung morphology (such as: tightening of the airways, stiffness in the expansion and contraction, etc.).

Of course, it would be unethical to *induce* these changes in patients. However, sufficiently-accurate computational models present a natural solution. By designing models that can easily be arbitrarily deformed or otherwise altered, we create the opportunity to efficiently investigate how targeted changes in lung morphology affect both lung functioning as a whole and the stresses placed on individual regions.

Todo: I'd like to add something along the lines of: "historically, computational models have been too expensive for experimentation without specialized equipment, but recent developments (i.e. Foy) have show other methods for simulating airflow are both efficient and accurate."

1.2 Contributions to the field

This paper introduces a new tool for simulating and observing changes to the lungs, and their precise effects.

Todo: Something about: "this is useful to people looking to find new results about *how* the lungs get impacted by various diseases." Would like to also say: "we have investigated the effects of clinically-observed symptoms from a couple diseases, to showcase the utility of this tool"

2 Background

2.1 Physiology of the lungs

Basic points:

- air comes in through mouth, meets the lungs at the larynx
- lungs start off with the trachea, turns into bronchi/bronchial tubes
- eventually turns into bronchioles, alveoli & capillary network (although we don't care as much about these)

Want to talk about typical dimensions of each part here, as well as typical airflow & how that's observed (e.g. "what tests are used?") – talk about intert-gas washout, among others.

2.2 Clinical methods

- fMRI typically very expensive & fairly low granularity: Good at getting an overview of the lung morphology, but resolution is typically low. (Not 100% sure how accurate this assessment is, but I think I saw something about it.)
- Inert gas washout

The above are good for *observing* changes in a patient, but have a couple short-comings if we want to analyze the effects of lung morphology. Firstly, observational tests cannot be performed quickly; it would be prohibitively expensive to acquire the data for any kind of large-scale analysis. Secondly, current clinical methods do not allow forced changes to patient lung morphology (even without the risks and ethical considerations).

For those reasons, it is natural to turn to simulations – in particular, computational models – in order to gain insight into impact on physiology and overall function from isolated changes within the lungs.

2.3 Prior computational models

Talk briefly about proper fluid dynamics being too computationally expensive, use that to tie into the model from Foy.

There's definitely other models, still need to look into those.

3 Methods

This section is mostly some temporary filler at the moment, just serving as a place to jot down the formulae that we're using inside the simulation *right now*.

3.1 Simultaneous Equations

There are essentially four simultaneous equations that we use to evaluate the state of the system at a given point in time. This section provides a summary and brief description of each, the first of which is the following:

$$P_{\text{parent}(i)} - P_i = R(i)Q_i \tag{1}$$

which specifies that the pressure differential between the distal end of branch i and its parent must equal the pressure from the resistance from the flow through this branch i. For the "root" branch, $P_{\text{parent}(i)}$ is the pressure at the trachea – typically atmospheric pressure.

The resistance term R(i) is defined as following function, as given by Pedley et al. (1970):

$$R(i) = \frac{2\mu L_i c}{\pi r_i^4} \left(\frac{4\rho |Q_i|}{\mu \pi L_i}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The parenthesized term corresponds to the Reynold's number of the flow, scaled by the ratio of the diameter of the branch to its length L_i . r_i is the radius of branch i, μ is the viscosity of the air, and c = 1.85 is a correction constant.

The second equation ensures incompressibility; the flow through a bifurcation must equal the sum of the flow through its children:

$$Q_i = \sum Q_{\text{child}} \tag{2}$$

where each *child* refers to any branch c with parent(c) = i.

The third equation maintains that the volume of an acinar region changes with the flow into or out of it for the given timestep:

$$V_i^t = V_i^{t-1} + dtQ_i^t \tag{3}$$

where dt is the timestep size, t refers to the current timestep, and V_i is the volume of the acinar region of branch i.

The final equation defines the elastic force of each acinar region, relating the pressure it exerts on its branch to the volume of the region itself and the pressure outside it:

$$P_i = \frac{1}{C_i} V_i + P_{pl}(t) \tag{4}$$

where $P_{pl}(t)$ is the pleural pressure (i.e. the "pressure" from the diaphragm, outside the acinar region) at the current time and C_i is the *compliance* of the acinar region of branch *i*. The pleural pressure changes over time to mimic human breathing patterns – hence why it is parameterised by t. At each timestep in the simulation, all of the simultaneous equations are grouped into a single optimization function $f(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathrm{EQ}_1..., \mathrm{EQ}_2..., \mathrm{EQ}_3..., \mathrm{EQ}_4)$, where each EQ_i corresponds to the repeated instances of the *i*th equation above, normalized so the right-hand-side equals zero. Thus the solution exists at $\mathbf{0}$, and we use Euler's method to find an approximate solution, within $\|f(\mathbf{x})\|^2 \leq tol$ and $\|d\mathbf{x}\|^2 \leq tol$, with a tolerance of 10^{-6} .

The input \boldsymbol{x} is arranged with the values (P..., Q..., V...) for each applicable branch – i.e. using P and Q from all branches and V from each acinar region.

The above descriptions are *nearly* correct – they would work, but there were a few adjustments made to the inputs and equations in practice for better numerical stability. These are discussed in the next section.

3.2 Units & Numerical stability

It is worth making explict the units used for each value. After careful consideration, these were considered to provide the best trade-off of familiar units and those with values of magnitude close to one, where floating-point accuracy is maximized. As we will see momentarily, the spread was still quite wide. The chosen units were:

Type of thing ???	Units	
Distance	m	
Volume	m^3	
Flow velocity	$\frac{\mathrm{m}^3}{\mathrm{s}}$	
Density	$\frac{\mathrm{kg}}{\mathrm{m}^3}$	
Pressure	Pascals $\left(\frac{kg}{m \cdot s^2}\right)$	
Compliance	$\frac{\mathrm{m}^3}{\mathrm{Pascal}} \left(\frac{\mathrm{m}^4 \cdot \mathrm{s}^2}{\mathrm{kg}} \right)$	
Resistance	$\frac{\mathrm{kg}}{\mathrm{m}^4 \cdot \mathrm{s}}$	
Viscosity	<u>kg</u> m·s	

One of the challenges with using these units is that some values are at a much greater magnitude than the others. For example, the pressure inside each branch is close to atmospheric pressure – or about 10^5 Pascals, but pressure gradients are typically much smaller.

In practice, this can mean that if the dx from our Euler step is too small, the pressure won't change; it doesn't have the necessary precision at that magnitude.

To mitigate this issue, we define two new values: \hat{P} and \hat{V} , which are given by:

$$\hat{P} = P - P_{\text{atm}} \tag{5}$$

where P_{atm} is is atmospheric pressure; and:

$$\hat{V} = V - V|_{P=P_{\text{atm}}} \tag{6}$$

$$=C(\hat{P}-P_{pl})\tag{7}$$

Note that the definition of \hat{V} would be the result of simply substituting \hat{P} for P in 4. Applying these substitutions gives the following equations, equivalent to their counterparts above:

$$\hat{P}_{\text{parent}} - \hat{P}_i = R(i)Q_i \tag{8}$$

$$Q_i = \sum Q_{\text{child}} \tag{9}$$

$$\hat{V}_i^t = \hat{V}_i^{t-1} + dt Q_i^t \tag{10}$$

$$\hat{P}_i = \frac{1}{C_i}\hat{V}_i + P_{pl}(t) \tag{11}$$

Representing the pressure and volume by their *offset* from values at atmospheric pressure causes them to cluster much closer to zero – the magnitude of the mean is significantly decreased, relative to the variance of the values. This of course greatly improves the accuracy of each Euler step.

References

[1] The global impact of respiratory disease – second edition.