

In-vitro validation of some flow assumptions for the prediction of the pressure distribution during obstructive sleep apnea

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1 An adequate description of the pressure distribution exerted by the fluid flow on pharyn-
2 geal walls is a first requirement to enhance the understanding, modelling and consequently
3 the prediction of airway collapse during obstructive sleep apnea. From a fluid mechanical
4 point of view several flow assumptions can be formulated to reduce the governing flow
5 equations. The relevance of some major flow assumptions and the accuracy of the re-
6 sulting flow description with respect to obstructive sleep apnea is investigated on a rigid
7 geometrical replica of the pharynx. Special attention is given to the influence of geometri-
8 cal asymmetry and to the position of the flow separation point. An 'in-vitro' experimental
9 and theoretical study of steady pharyngeal fluid flow is presented for different constriction
10 heights and upstream pressures. Pressure and velocity distributions along a rigid 'in-vitro'
11 replica of the oro-pharyngeal cavity are compared with different flow predictions based on
12 various assumptions. Fluid flow models are tested for volume flow rates ranging from 5
13 up to 120l/min and for minimum apertures between 1.45 and 3.00mm. Two dimensional
14 flow models are required and predict experimental results within an accuracy of 15%.
15 Flow theories classically used in the case of a Starling resistor provide a poor agreement.

1. INTRODUCTION

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is defined as the intermittent cessation of breathing during sleep and is characterised by recurrent collapse of the pharyngeal airway. OSA is extensively shown to be an important health care issue with a reported prevalence of 4 % in adult men and 2 % in adult woman (YOUNG et al. 1993). OSA causes excessive daily sleepiness and increases the development of cardiovascular diseases and arterial hypertension (PEPPARD et al. 2000). Consequently OSA has adverse consequences on the patients daily life and is associated with an increased risk on public traffic accidents (FLEMONS and REIMER 2002, TERAN-SANTOS et al. 1999).

The OSA syndrome is mainly treated using empirical therapeutical or surgical procedures. Long-term use of therapeutical treatment strategies like continuous positive airway pressure or pharyngeal appliances cause daily discomfort and as such reduces the quality of life (FLEMONS 2002). The long-term effectiveness of surgical treatment is estimated to range between 50 and 78 % depending on the applied surgical procedure (FLEMONS 2002, BRIDGMAN and DUNN 2002, SHER et al. 1996). Therefore current research aims to improve diagnosis, follow-up and treatment of the OSA syndrome. In particular the need for further understanding of the OSA syndrome in order to favour successful development of therapeutical and surgical treatments is stressed (FLEMONS 2002, HUI et al. 2000, LIPTON and GOZAL 2003, MCNICHOLAS 2003, PENZEL et al. 2002, RAMA et al. 2002, AYAPPA and RAPOPORT 2003, PAYAN et al. 2002). The present study is an essential step towards a physical model of the ongoing flow phenomena. A physical flow model is a first requirement to model the fluid/structure interactions

38 at longterm aiming to predict the outcome of surgical interventions.

39 The upper airway is a potentially collapsible structure whose patency is dictated by a
40 combination of passive mechanical properties and active neural mechanisms. In particu-
41 lar the OSA syndrome is known to be due to a partial (hypopnea) or total (apnea) collapse
42 of the upper airway during inspiration (AYAPPA and RAPOPORT 2003). The Starling
43 Resistor is a classical experiment used to study biofluid mechanical applications involving
44 collapsible structures such as flow limitation in the airway branches (GROTBERG and
45 JENSEN 2004, LAMBERT and WILSON 1972). Due to the pharyngeal asymmetry in
46 both geometry and tissue properties (rigid hard palate versus soft tissues) the relevance
47 of such devices for the study of OSA is not obvious. An alternative set-up is presented
48 in this paper. From a physical point of view, neglecting neural mechanisms, the airway
49 collapse is due to the fluid-mechanical interaction of the fluid (airflow during inspira-
50 tion) and the surrounding structure (tissues). Studies of the biomechanical pharyngeal
51 airflow and resulting forces in case of OSA are very limited. Because of a wide clinical
52 interest, most of the literature in the field concentrates on the relationship between in-
53 spiratory and expiratory pressure and the volume flow velocity. Usually the pressure-flow
54 relationship in the upper airway is mathematically fitted by a quadratic or polynomial
55 function in order to objectively detect inspiratory flow limitation and related phenomena
56 (HENKE 1998, MANSOUR et al. 2002). The resulting pressure-flow relationship ob-
57 tained by curve fitting of the applied mathematical polynomial or quadratic formulation
58 may provide useful empirical information, but does not describe the complexity of the
59 ongoing physical flow behaviour and does not inform on the pharyngeal pressure distri-
60 bution.

61 The interaction between the fluid and the surrounding upper airway tissue is expressed
62 by the force exerted by the fluid on the surrounding tissue. This force is determined
63 by the pressure distribution. Therefore not only the volume flow velocity needs to be
64 accurately predicted from the upstream pressure as aimed in (HENKE 1998, MANSOUR
65 et al. 2002), but also does the pressure distribution along the upper airway. With respect
66 to an accurate description of the pressure distribution it is generally accepted that an ac-
67 curate prediction of flow separation is crucial (MATSUZAKI and FUNG 1976, PEDLEY
68 and LUO 1998).

69 A three-dimensional computational simulation of airflow characteristics, including both
70 volume flow velocity and pressure distribution, in an anatomical accurate rigid human
71 pharynx geometry is assessed in (SHOME et al. 1998). The airflow was assumed to be
72 incompressible and steady. The pressure drop in the pharynx was quantified to lie in
73 the range of 200-500Pa provoking the pharynx to collapse. The onset from laminar to
74 turbulence flow was found to increase the pressure drop with 40 %. Subtle effects on the
75 airway morphology, as introduced by surgical treatment of OSA, were shown to have a
76 large effect on the pressure drop.

77 The presented work aims to contribute to the understanding of flow induced pharyngeal
78 airway obstruction at the origin of OSA. The pressure distribution along an rigid 'in-
79 vitro' geometrical constriction, representing the pharyngeal cavity, was predicted from
80 the upstream pressure and geometrical information. Several assumptions on the flow and
81 the constriction geometry are experimentally assessed. The model performance of cor-
82 responding flow models with increasing complexity is systematically and quantitatively
83 validated.

84 2. Theory

85 2.1. Assumptions and dimensional numbers

86 From a fluid mechanical point of view several flow assumptions can be formulated on
87 the basis of a dimensional analysis of the governing flow equations. This yields a set of
88 non-dimensional numbers, which can be interpreted as a measure of the importance of
89 various flow effects. Based on the obtained orders of magnitude for the characteristic
90 non-dimensional numbers approximations are made to describe the flow. Concerning ob-
91 structive sleep apnea four non-dimensional numbers are derived based on characteristic
92 conditions listed in Table 1. Physiological data are obtained from ‘in-vivo’ observations
93 (LEITH 1995, MAYER et al. 1996, SCHWAB et al. 1990).

94 Firstly, the squared value of the Mach number, $Ma = \frac{U_0}{c_0}$, the ratio of flow velocity U_0 to
95 the speed of sound c_0 indicates the tendency of the flow to compress as its encounters a
96 solid boundary. Since the velocities involved during respiration are small compared with
97 the speed of sound in air ($Ma_0^2 \approx O(10^{-4})$) the flow is assumed to be incompressible.

98 Secondly, the Strouhal number $Sr = \frac{L_0}{t_0 U_0}$, is a dimensionless frequency indicating the ratio
99 of the distance over which flow is convected in a characteristic time t_0 over a characteristic
100 width L_0 of a structure exposed to the flow. The airflow can be considered as primarily
101 steady as long as the flow patterns at any given time are approximately the same, which
102 is reasonable during quiet breathing at the characteristic respiratory frequencies and rigid
103 walls expressed by a low Strouhal number $Sr_0 \approx O(10^{-3})$.

104 The assumptions of incompressible and steady flow will not be discussed in the present
105 article. The assumptions are indeed widely accepted in the literature (GROTBERG and
106 JENSEN 2004, PEDLEY and LUO 1998, SHOME et al. 1998). Note that in the case of

107 snoring these assumptions would certainly be disputable.

108 Thirdly the Reynolds number, $Re = \frac{\rho_0 U_0 h_0}{\mu_0}$ with U_0 a typical flow velocity, h_0 a typical
109 dimension (such as the pharyngeal minimum aperture), μ_0 the dynamic viscosity and ρ_0
110 the density, represents the importance of inertial forces with respect to the viscous forces
111 acting on a given fluid element and the length of the pharyngeal replica. In first approxi-
112 mation the flow is assumed to be inviscid considering the involved characteristic Reynolds
113 numbers $Re_0 \approx O(10^3)$. Although it can be neglected for the bulk of the flow, viscosity is
114 important near the walls motivating the application of the boundary layer theory. Next,
115 the occurrence of flow separation is a consequence of the viscosity and has a strong influence
116 on flow control (MATSUZAKI and FUNG 1976, PEDLEY and LUO 1998). Therefore the
117 flow separation point is either considered to be fixed by an empirical ‘ad-hoc’ assumption
118 or is predicted based on physical principles. The relevance of this assumption and its
119 influence on the position of flow separation is extensively investigated in this paper.

120 Fourthly, the ratio of characteristic geometrical lengths yields information about the di-
121 mensionality of the flow. The aspect ratio h_0/W_0 is considered, with h_0 a typical mini-
122 mum aperture and W_0 a typical width. Following the characteristic ratio $h_0/W_0 = 0.09$
123 [$h_0/W_0 \ll 1$] the flow is assumed to be completely characterised by a bidimensional flow
124 description in the (x,y)-plane. This assumption will be experimentally tested.

125 In the next subsection different flow descriptions are presented based on the assumptions
126 with respect to viscosity, dimensionality of the flow description and to the influence of
127 the asymmetry on the geometrical replica. As a result the flow predictions resulting from
128 different simplifications of the bidimensional laminar, incompressible and quasi-steady
129 Navier Stokes (NS) equations can be numerically and experimentally validated.

130

131 **2.2. Theoretical flow predictions**

132 The origin of OSA lies in a strong interaction of the fluid and the surrounding tissue
 133 provoking the pharyngeal airway recurrently to collapse during sleep. A first requirement
 134 to describe ongoing phenomena is to know the pressure variations through the pharyn-
 135 geal geometry. Since an exact analytical solution for the flow through such a constriction
 136 is not available different flow models and flow assumptions are assessed to estimate 1)
 137 the volume flow velocity ϕ and 2) the pressure distribution $p(x)$ as function of position
 138 (BLEVINS 1992, SCHLICHTING and GERSTEN 2000).

139 Once $p(x)$ is known the force $F(x)$ acting by the airflow on the surrounding tissue of the
 140 pharynx is deduced as $F(x) = \int p dS$.

141

142 **2.2.1. Bernoulli with ad-hoc viscosity correction**

143 In first approximation, the flow is assumed to be fully inviscid. The three assumptions of
 144 incompressible, quasi-steady and inviscid flow allow to apply the steady one-dimensional
 145 (1D) Bernoulli law (1),

$$146 \quad p(x) + \frac{1}{2}\rho U(x)^2 = cte, \quad (1)$$

147 to estimate the pressure distribution $p(x)$ along the pharyngeal walls. The volume flow
 148 velocity is defined by $\phi(x) = U(x)A(x) = cte$ with $U(x)$ the local flow velocity and $A(x)$
 149 the area along the pharyngeal replica. To be useful, an empirical ad-hoc correction is
 150 needed to the 1-D Bernoulli equation to account for the occurrence of flow separation
 151 downstream of h_{min} . The jet formation downstream of the point of flow separation is due
 152 to very strong viscous pressure losses and reversed flow occurring near the wall and thus

153 can not be predicted by the Bernoulli law. For a steady flow the onset of separation
 154 coinciding with the separation point is defined as $\frac{\partial U}{\partial n}|_{n=0} = 0$. In literature, the area
 155 associated with flow separation A_s is empirically chosen as 1.2 times the minimum area
 156 A_{min} along the replica, i.e. $A_s = cA_{min}$, with $c = \frac{A_s}{A_{min}} = 1.2$ (PAYAN et al. 2002, HOF-
 157 MANS et al. 2003). The ad-hoc correction for the 1D Bernoulli (1) results in a steady
 158 1D expression for $p(x)$ given in (2), with p_0 and A_0 respectively the pressure and area
 159 upstream of the replica indicated in Figure 2. The volume flow velocity is estimated as
 160 (3). In expression of (2) pressure recovery downstream of the point of flow separation is
 161 neglected.

$$162$$

$$163 \quad p(x) = p_0 + \frac{1}{2}\rho\phi^2 \left(\frac{1}{A_0^2} - \frac{1}{A(x)^2} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$164 \quad \phi = A_s \sqrt{\frac{2(p_0)}{\rho}}, A_s = cA_{min} \quad (3)$$

165 The preceding assumption of inviscid flow is not valid for low Reynolds numbers. This
 166 is the case for low flow velocities U or/and small h_{min} values. In this case, an extra
 167 Poiseuille term is often added to the Bernoulli expression for $p(x)$ in (2) to correct for
 168 viscous pressure losses. The Bernoulli expression with Poiseuille correction is given in (4)
 169 with μ the dynamic viscosity coefficient, D the diameter of the half cylinder and $h(x)$ the
 170 heigth between the half cylinder and the flat plate as defined in subsection 3.1.

$$171 \quad p(x) = p_0 + \frac{1}{2}\rho\phi^2 \left(\frac{1}{A_0^2} - \frac{1}{A(x)^2} \right) - \frac{12\mu\phi}{D} \int \frac{dx}{h(x)^3} \quad (4)$$

172 2.2.2. Boundary layer solution

173 In the preceding subsection 2.2.1 the viscosity is either neglected (Bernoulli in (2)) or
 174 corrected with an additional Poiseuille term, assuming a fully developed Poiseuille flow

175 (Poiseuille in (4)). However, at high Reynolds numbers the region in which viscous forces
 176 are important is confined to a thin layer adjacent to the wall which is referred to as
 177 laminar boundary layer δ . Outside of the boundary layer, the inviscid irrotational main
 178 flow, with velocity $U(x)$, is described by Bernoulli (3). The resulting boundary layer
 179 theory is described by the Von Kármán momentum integral equation for steady flows
 180 (SCHLICHTING and GERSTEN 2000). An approximated method to solve this equa-
 181 tion for laminar incompressible bidimensional (x,y) boundary layers is given by Thwaites
 182 method.

183 Introducing two shape parameters $H(\lambda) = \frac{\delta_1}{\delta_2}$, $S(\lambda) \propto \frac{\tau_S \delta_2}{U}$ which are only functions of
 184 the velocity profile determined by the acceleration parameter $\lambda \propto \frac{dU}{dx} \delta_2$, with $\tau_S(x) \propto$
 185 $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}$ the wall shear stress indicating the viscous force per unit area acting at the
 186 wall, the displacement thickness δ_1

$$187 \quad \delta_1(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{u(y)}{U}\right) dy, \quad (5)$$

188 and the momentum thickness δ_2

$$189 \quad \delta_2(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{u(y)}{U} \left(1 - \frac{u(y)}{U}\right) dy. \quad (6)$$

190 The Von Kármán equation is then approximated by

$$191 \quad \delta_2^2(x)U^6(x) - \delta_2^2(0)U^6(0) \propto \int_0^x U^5(x)dx. \quad (7)$$

192 Equation (7) in combination with the fitted formulas for $H(\lambda)$ and $S(\lambda)$ tabulated in
 193 (BLEVINS 1992) enables to compute the strived pressure distribution $p(x)$ up to the flow
 194 separation point where $\tau_S = 0$ for a given input pressure and know geometry. Moreover,
 195 the point of flow separation x_S is numerically estimated since separation is precicted to

196 occur at $\lambda(x_S) = -0.0992$ (PELORSON et al. 1994). So no ad-hoc assumption is made
 197 to account for flow separation.

198 In (DEVERGE et al. 2003) the method was successfully applied to accurately predict
 199 the position of flow separation and associated pressure within the glottis. In the present
 200 study the prediction of the pressure distribution along the pharyngeal replica is assessed.
 201 Although since flow prediction downstream of the position of flow separation is not pos-
 202 sible in the following subsections two numerical methods of flow predictions are outlined.

203

204 **2.2.3. Reduced Navier Stokes**

A second simplification of the Newtonian steady laminar incompressible bidimensional Navier Stokes equations is obtained making two additional assumptions. Firstly the flow is assumed to be characterised by a large Reynolds number and secondly the geometrical transverse dimension (y-axis) is assumed to be small compared to the longitudinal dimension (x-axis). In the geometry under study the last assumption coincides with $h_0 \ll D$. Applying those assumptions to the bidimensional NS equations results in a system in which the transverse pressure variations are neglected. This system is referred to as the Reduced Navier Stokes/Prandtl (RNSP) system in accordance with Prandtl's formulation of the steady boundary-layer. Nondimensional variables are obtained by scaling u^* with U_0 , v^* with U_0/Re , x^* with h_0Re , y^* with h_0 and p^* with ρU_0^2 with the Reynolds number defined as $Re = U_0 h_0 / \nu$. In terms of the nondimensional variables the resulting RNSP equations become:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}u + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}v = 0, \quad u \frac{\partial}{\partial x}u + v \frac{\partial}{\partial y}u = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}p + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}u, \quad 0 = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}p. \quad (8)$$

205 The no slip boundary condition is applied to the lower and upper wall. Since the lower
206 wall of the geometry of interest corresponds to $y = 0$ and the distance to the upper
207 wall is denoted with $h(x)$ the no slip condition becomes respectively $(u(x, y = 0) = 0,$
208 $v(x, y = 0) = 0)$ and $(u(x, y = h(x)) = 0, v(x, y = h(x)) = 0)$. In order to numerically
209 solve the RNSP equations the pressure at the entrance is set to zero and the first velocity
210 profile need to be known (Poiseuille). There is no output condition.

211

212 3. Material

213 In order to enable experimental validation of the predicted pressure distribution for a
214 given pressure, a suitable ‘in-vitro’ pharyngeal replica and experimental set-up is required.

215

216 3.1. In-vitro pharyngeal tongue replica

217 The place of obstruction in the pharynx at the origin of OSA is known to be very
218 variable (naso-, oro- or laryngopharynx) (RAMA et al. 2002). Regardless the precise
219 location of obstruction in the pharynx the relevant anatomy is ‘in-vitro’ imitated by a
220 rigid half cylinder, representing roughly the tongue geometry, placed inside a rectangular
221 uniform pipe representing thus the pharyngeal wall. Changing the minimum aperture
222 (h_{min}) between the tongue-replica and the pipe allows the study of different anatomical
223 conditions. Consequently the important geometrical parameters are the diameter D of
224 the half cylinder and the value of h_{min} . In this study the diameter D of the rigid replica is
225 fixed to 49mm which is in accordance with anatomical ‘in-vivo’ values. Different degrees
226 of constriction are studied by changing h_{min} between the half cylinder and the flat plate.
227 Minimum distances h_{min} of 1.45, 1.90, 2.30 and 3.00mm are considered. These distances

228 were measured using calibrated plates with an accuracy of 0.01mm. In order to connect
229 the replica to the experimental set-up described in subsection 3.2 a triangular attach-
230 ment of length 25mm and height 6mm is fasten to the upper part of the half cylinder
231 maintaining a fixed vertical height of $h_0=34$ mm between the beginning of the attachment
232 and the flat plate. A photograph and longitudinal cross-section of the resulting pharyn-
233 geal geometry constituted from the attachment and ‘in-vitro’ tongue replica is depicted
234 in respectively Figure 1 and Figure 2 for the assessed h_{min} ’s. The flat plate coincides
235 with the x-axis at $y=0$. The changing height of the replica along the x-axis is further
236 denoted with $h(x)$. Remark the physiologically observed strong asymmetrical nature of
237 the replicas geometry in the (x,y)-plane. The replica has a fixed width W of 34mm along
238 the z-dimension.

239

240 3.2. Experimental set-up

241 To simulate the origin of OSA the rigid pharyngeal replica is attached to an ‘in-vitro’
242 test-installation. The test-installation enables to study the influence of various incom-
243 ing (inspiration) pharyngeal airflow conditions. To validate theoretical flow predictions,
244 flow characteristics are measured at different positions along and upstream of the tongue
245 replica. Incoming airflow conditions are determined by measuring the volume flow veloc-
246 ity (ϕ) and upstream pressure (p_0) as indicated in Figure 2. The volume flow velocity
247 ϕ [l/min] is measured using a thermal mass flow meter (TSI 4040) with an accuracy of
248 0.01 l/min. Flow pressure measurements [Pa] are performed at three different positions
249 (p_1, p_2, p_3) depicted in Figure 2 along the converging part of the rigid tongue replica and
250 the flat bottom plate. The pressure is measured with piezoresistive pressure transducers

251 (Endevco 8507C or Kulite XCS-093) positioned in pressure taps of 0.4mm diameter at the
 252 mentioned sites which allows dynamic pressure measurements. The site p_3 corresponds
 253 to the position h_{min} . The sites p_2 and p_1 are respectively located upstream from the site
 254 p_3 at 4.5mm and 8.0mm along the x-dimension. The pressure transducers are calibrated
 255 against a water manometer with an accuracy of 1 Pa. The volume flow velocity ϕ and
 256 pressure distribution $p(x)$ along the replica are predicted from the measured upstream
 257 pressure p_0 .

258 Next to pressure measurements a constant temperature anemometer system (IFA 300) is
 259 available in the test-installation to perform flow velocity measurements with accuracy of
 260 $0.1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Velocity profiles can be obtained by moving the hot film using a two dimen-
 261 sional stage positioning system (Chuo precision industrial co. CAT-C, ALS-250-C2P and
 262 ALS-115-E1P). The accuracy of positioning in the x and y direction is respectively 4 and
 263 $2 \mu\text{m}$.

264

265 4. Predictive performance

266 The performance of the distinct flow predictions defined in subsection 2.2 will be sta-
 267 tistically quantified by the coefficient of determination R^2 ($0 \leq R^2 \leq 1$),

$$268 R^2 = 1 - \frac{\hat{\sigma}^2}{\sigma_y^2}, \quad (9)$$

269 with $\hat{\sigma}^2$ the sample variance of the prediction residuals and σ_y^2 the sample variance of
 270 the measured output about its mean value. Larger R^2 values correspond to increased
 271 predictive model performance.

272

273 5. Results and discussion

274 The flow predictions outlined in section 2.2 are developed assuming particular flow
275 conditions. Therefore major flow assumptions discussed and motivated in subsection 2.1
276 are experimentally validated before in the following sections the predictive value of the
277 flow descriptions is systematically explored.

278 5.1. Experimental validation of some major flow assumptions

279 5.1.1. Spatial distribution of the flow

280 The steady flow models presented in section 2.2 result in a 1D, quasi-2D or 2D flow
281 description. The third dimension (z-axis) perpendicular to the (x,y) plane is assumed to
282 have no influence on the flow. In order to validate this assumption, the horizontal veloc-
283 ity profile is measured for each h_{min} . Figure 3 illustrates an exemplary velocity profile
284 for $h_{min} = 2.3mm$ and a steady flow of 60 l/min. The step Δz at the edges near the
285 wall is 0.1 mm elsewhere Δz equals 1.0 mm. The anemometer is positioned as close as
286 possible to the minimum aperture. The measured velocity has a standard deviation (ξ
287 [%]) $\xi < 1\%$ around its mean value. $\xi < 1\%$ corresponds to a flat velocity profile along
288 the z-direction. For all assessed apertures and volume flow rates $\xi < 1\%$ is maintained.
289 At the edges, where a smaller stepsize of $\Delta z = 0.1$ mm is applied, the measured velocities
290 are slightly decreased due to the presence of the boundary layer. Consequently neglecting
291 the z-dimension in the flow description is positively validated and as such a bidimensional
292 (x,y) spacial distribution of the flow is motivated.

293 The velocity profiles depicted following the y-dimension in figure 4 draw attention to
294 the asymmetry of the flow within the pharyngeal replica. The vertical velocity along
295 the y-dimension is measured while the x-value coincides with an aperture of 9mm along

296 the diverging side of the replica. This position is indicated by the horizontal line at
297 $h(x)=y=9\text{mm}$ in Figure 2. The vertical velocity profile is measured with a spatial resolu-
298 tion of $\Delta z = 0.1\text{mm}$. Figure 4 shows the vertical velocity profile for volume flow velocities
299 ranging from 20l/min up to 100l/min for a minimum aperture $h_{min} = 2.30\text{mm}$. $y=0$ cor-
300 responds with the flat plate of the replica. For high volume flow velocities the vertical
301 velocity profiles in figure 4 becomes asymmetrical. In order to evaluate the impact of
302 the asymmetry on the pressure distribution the pressure is measured at positions p_1 , p_2
303 and p_3 on the half cylinder as well as on the flat bottom plate as indicated in figure 2.
304 Figure 5 represents an example of the normalized pressure measurements for different
305 values of the upstream pressure p_0 for the minimum aperture $h_{min} = 3.00\text{mm}$. At the
306 position of the minimum aperture the ratio $\frac{p_3}{p_0}$ approximates -0.15 for both the pressures
307 measured on the half cylinder as on the flat bottom plate. This ratio is of the same order
308 of magnitude than the one mentioned in (HOFMANS et al. 2003) for a symmetrical lip
309 replica with a comparable minimum aperture of $h_{min} = 3.36\text{mm}$. Thus at the position
310 of minimum aperture the measured pressure difference is between the half cylinder and
311 the flat plate is very limited. The pressures measured at the flat plate at position p_2 are
312 by a few percent superior to the pressures measured at the half cylinder. Looking at the
313 measurements at position p_1 the same finding holds. Furthermore the transverse pressure
314 difference is found to decrease approaching the minimum aperture. So the influence of the
315 asymmetry on the pressure measurements augments with increasing absolute value of the
316 spatial derivative. Although systematically, the measured pressure gradients at positions
317 p_2 and p_1 are far inferior to 10%, which is small compared to the general accepted error
318 range of 25% (HOFMANS et al. 2003). Same findings hold for all assessed minimum

319 apertures. Therefore it is concluded that although measurable, the asymmetry hardly
320 affects transverse pressure measurements and so the strived pressure distribution $p(x)$.
321 This finding is important considering application of the boundary layer theory since, as
322 expressed in equation 8, the equations of motion within the boundary layer assume that
323 transverse pressure variations can be neglected.

324

325 5.1.2. Flow prediction

326 Figure 6 illustrates a detailed bidimensional velocity map for a steady flow of 40 l/min
327 with a minimum aperture of $h_{min} = 3.00\text{mm}$. The presented findings hold for all assessed
328 minimum apertures and volume flow velocities. The anemometer is displaced with a step
329 of $\Delta x = 1\text{mm}$ in the x direction and $\Delta y = 0.05\text{mm}$ in the y direction. The same way as
330 for the horizontal velocity profile depicted in Figure 3 the decrease in velocity towards the
331 edges provides experimental evidence for the existence of the boundary layer. Along the
332 diverging part of the replica the velocity tends to zero, which experimentally illustrates
333 the impact of flow separation on the flow also mentioned in (SHOME et al. 1998). The im-
334 portance of the boundary layer and flow separation on the bidimensional flow description
335 is further illustrated in figure 4. The plotted profiles show the existence of a boundary
336 layer near the edge ($y/h_{min} = 0$) and the formation of a jet since the velocity tends to 0 as
337 the ratio y/h_{min} becomes superior to 1. The development of the inviscid main flow with
338 increasing volume flow velocity is clearly illustrated. Due to the importance of the posi-
339 tion of flow separation on the flow control in the following the relevance of the assumption
340 with respect to a fixed or predicted flow separation point are extensively considered with
341 respect to the strived pressure distribution.

342 The ad-hoc corrected Bernoulli law with the assumption of fixed flow separation point de-
 343 scribed in subsection 2.2.1 results in the most simplified prediction of the strived pressure
 344 distribution. The application of the one dimensional pressure prediction is illustrated in
 345 figure 7 for a minimum aperture $h_{min} = 1.45mm$. The volume flow velocity ϕ is varied
 346 from 5 up to 120l/min in steps of 5l/min ($Re \leq 4719$). The ratio of the measured and
 347 upstream pressure p_0 at the positions p_1 , p_2 and p_3 are indicated with crosses. The one
 348 dimensional pressure distribution $p(x)$ is shown for two different positions of flow separa-
 349 tion expressed by two values of the constant $c = \frac{A_s}{A_{min}}$. The constant c is chosen to 1.2 and
 350 1.05 corresponding to respectively the value proposed in literature and the value retrieved
 351 from the measured data $c = \sqrt{1 - \frac{p_3}{p_0}} = 1.05$. Remark that in the last case the modelling
 352 performance is optimized by using not only one input value (p_0), but two (p_0, p_3). Since p_3
 353 is used as an input the predicted pressure values at position p_3 are expected to correspond
 354 well with the measured pressures. The origin of the OSA syndrome is qualitatively ex-
 355 plained by the negative pressure at the level of the constriction. As expected an accurate
 356 quantitative model is obtained for the region of maximal pressure drop ($R^2=0.99$ at site
 357 p_3) from the 1D flow description. The impact of the ‘ad-hoc’ value c or the position of flow
 358 separation on the predicted pressure distribution is obvious. Consequently the position
 359 of flow separation (or the value of the constant c) will largely affect the forces exerted by
 360 the flow on the surrounding tissues. In order to further evaluate the retrieved constant
 361 $c = 1.05$ figure 9 shows the physical value of the constant c predicted using Thwaites
 362 method and RNSP. It appears that the ad-hoc value $c=1.05$ greatly underestimates the
 363 position of flow separation x_S for all covered volume flow velocities. So although the
 364 ad-hoc value $c=1.05$ optimises the 1D modeling performance it is an unphysical value

365 resulting in a less accurate force distribution since

$$366 \quad F = W \int_{inlet}^{separation} p(x) dx. \quad (10)$$

367 Therefore one dimensional pressure prediction involving a fixed position of the flow separation
368 ration point is not useful for application to OSA where the force distribution is important
369 and will not be considered further. This finding is in agreement with (PEDLEY and
370 LUO 1998, MATSUZAKI and FUNG 1976) who stresses the importance of an accurate
371 prediction of flow separation and the need to improve the one-dimensional model with
372 more modern boundary layer methods.

373 Figure 8 shows the measured and predicted longitudinal velocity profile along the x-axis
374 using Thwaites method and RNSP, outlined in subsections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3 for a steady
375 flow of 40 l/min with a minimum aperture $h_{min} = 3.00\text{mm}$. Note the limited range of
376 experimental data along the longitudinal dimension, i.e. the x-axis. This is due to the
377 physical dimensions of the hot film probe preventing further insertion inside the replica.
378 Thwaites method doesn't allow to compute any predictions past the point of flow separation.
379 Consequently for large x values only experimental datapoints and RNSP predictions
380 can be seen. The same findings hold for all assessed minimum apertures and volume flow
381 velocities.

382 The velocity values obtained with both Thwaites method and RNSP are within 10 %
383 agreement with the measured velocity values. Although the velocity distribution within
384 the replica seems much more accurate with RNSP since the trend in the measured data
385 is captured.

387 5.2. Pressure distribution

388 The predictive value of the bidimensional flow predictions using Thwaites method and
389 RNSP is quantitatively explored. Since the position of flow separation largely affects the
390 force distribution, we reconsider the predicted values of the constant c for different vol-
391 ume flow velocities depicted in figure 9. Although very close, the constant predicted with
392 Thwaites is systematically superior to the constant obtained from RNSP. Consequently
393 RNSP predicts flow separation to occur prior compared to Thwaites. Although, for all
394 assessed minimum apertures the difference in the predicted constant is small ($< 3\%$),
395 except for small volume flow velocities where the difference increases up to $\pm 10\%$. To
396 evaluate the prediction of the pressure distribution with Thwaites and RNSP the pressures
397 measured at positions p_1 , p_2 and p_3 are compared to the computed pressures. Figures 10,
398 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 show the predicted and measured data normalised by the upstream
399 pressure p_0 at positions p_1 , p_2 and p_3 for respectively $h_{min} = 1.45mm$ and $h_{min} = 3.00mm$
400 as function of the upstream pressure p_0 . In all figures the pressure drop predicted by RNSP
401 is slightly superior to the pressure drop predicted by Thwaites method. A larger pressure
402 drop agrees with the slightly inferior value of the constant c mentioned earlier in case of
403 RNSP. Figures 12 and 15 illustrate that both Thwaites and RNSP pressure predictions at
404 the minimum aperture p_3 yields well within the typically accepted error range of 25% on
405 the measured pressure values (HOFMANS et al. 2003). From the remaining figures it can
406 be seen that this hold also for the pressure measured at positions p_1 and p_2 . Note from
407 Figure 7 that using Bernoulli would give estimation errors far above the accepted error
408 range of 25% in case the position of flow separation is respected ($c=1.2$). The overall
409 model performance for all assessed minimum apertures (1.45, 1.90, 2.30, 3.00 mm) at the

410 positions p_1 , p_2 and p_3 for Thwaites and RNSP is detailed in Table 2. The overall model
411 accuracy is expressed by the mean coefficient of determination R^2 defined in equation 9
412 averaged for all minimum apertures and the indicated ranges of volume flow velocities ex-
413 tending from 5 l/min to respectively ≤ 30 , ≤ 60 , ≤ 80 , ≤ 100 and ≤ 120 l/min. The covered
414 ranges allow to value the predictive value for distinct Reynolds numbers $Re = \frac{\phi}{W\nu}$, with
415 ν being the kinematic viscosity coefficient and W and ϕ as defined previously. For all 5
416 cases the model performance of both Thwaites and RNSP at the position of minimum
417 constriction $R_{p_3}^2$ is excellent ($R_{p_3}^2 > 0.97$). Further it can be seen that in general $R_{p_1}^2 \leq$
418 $R_{p_2}^2 \leq R_{p_3}^2$. So the R^2 and thus the prediction performance increases approaching the
419 position of minimum aperture. This finding stresses the importance to validate the pres-
420 sure predictions at different sites along the replica in order to compare and evaluate flow
421 predictions if the pressure distribution is of interest. From table 2 follows the model per-
422 formance significantly increases for Reynolds numbers below ± 2500 . Reynolds numbers
423 below 2500 are characteristic for laminar flows. Higher values of the Reynolds number
424 indicate the transition from laminar to turbulent or turbulent flows. Since the applied
425 bidimensional flow predictions are laminar flow models the flow behaviour was expected
426 to be most accurately described within the laminar range, as is the case. Furthermore
427 the predictive value of RNSP exceeds slightly Thwaites predictions for low volume flow
428 velocities in the laminar range. The volume flow velocities involved during OSA are below
429 30 l/min (FISHMAN et al. 1986). So, in case of OSA the predictive value of RNSP ex-
430 ceeds slightly the predictive value of Thwaites method and RNSP prediction is favoured
431 to acquire the pressure distribution. This holds in particular for the position p_1 , where
432 the influence of the asymmetry is largest. Although it can be seen that areas with the

433 largest pressure drop will most contribute to the origine of OSA. Consequently an accu-
434 rate pressure prediction at the level of p_1 is least critical.

435 The present study experimentally confirms the numerical study reported in (SHOME
436 et al. 1998) for a rigid pharyngeal geometry and in particular the crucial effects of geo-
437 metrical changes in the morphology. The minimum aperture or the degree of obstruction
438 on the pressure drop is systematically varied in order to explore the influence of small
439 geometrical changes as e.g. caused by surgery. In addition, the applied ‘in-vitro’ method-
440 ology allows validation of major theoretical hypothesis and quantification of the flow
441 model performance. Since measuring flow characteristics and hence theoretical model
442 validation inside an oscillating elastic tube is a difficult task, the presented study is a ne-
443 cessary step towards flow modeling in case of a non-rigid collapsible replica. Experimental
444 validation under controlled and measurable experimental conditions on a non-rigid elastic
445 replica is the next crucial step before extending the findings to a true human pharynx
446 and prediction of surgical interventions.

447 **6. Conclusion**

448 As a first step towards the physical modelling of obstructive sleep apnea, some flow
449 assumptions and resulting flow predictions are experimentally and quantitatively assessed.

450 A rigid ‘in-vitro’ pharyngeal tongue replica was developed in order to study the flow
451 through a characteristic asymmetrical constriction.

452 It is shown from a dimensionless analysis that, in first approximation, the fluid flow
453 through the ‘in-vitro’ replica can be described as steady and incompressible. Measured
454 velocity profiles and measured pressures at different places along the converging part of

455 the constriction confirmed the relevance of a bidimensionnal flow description whereas
456 the viscous pressure losses can be neglected outside the boundary layer. Furthermore the
457 velocity profiles reveal an asymmetry of the flow downstream of the constriction due to the
458 geometrical asymmetry. However transversal pressure measurements on both sides of the
459 constriction show that the influence of the asymmetry on the measured pressure within the
460 constriction is negligible. This point is further confirmed by considering the predictions
461 obtained by a two dimensional flow description from the boundary layer solution and
462 Reduced Navier Stokes simulations. The use of these two dimensional flow descriptions
463 result in a physical prediction of the position of flow separation.

464 It is found that the general behaviour of the 'in-vitro' model is different from the classical
465 Starling resistor (LAMBERT and WILSON 1972). As a matter of fact, the outcome
466 of a classical one dimensional flow description is sufficient in applications where only
467 prediction of the volume flow is strived, but fails to predict the pressure distribution.
468 Therefore the one dimensional flow description is not suitable to describe the forces acted
469 by the flow on surrounding structures which is aimed when considering obstructive sleep
470 apnea. Quantitative experimental validation shows that both for the bulk velocity as
471 for the pressure distribution two dimensional flow descriptions yield pressure predictions
472 within an accuracy of 15%. Application of the Reduced Navier Stokes equations are
473 slightly favored since they allow to account for the asymmetry in the geometry.
474 Further work is needed to evaluate theoretically and experimentally unsteady effects due
475 to flow fluctuation or wall deformation.

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562 **TABLES**

Table 1

Characteristic conditions during obstructive sleep apnea. (*) Estimated from typical volume flow velocity of 30 l.min^{-1} .

| | | |
|----------|-----------------------------------|---|
| L_0 | tongue length | 5 cm |
| W_0 | pharyngeal width | 3 cm |
| h_0 | minimum aperture | 2 mm |
| c_0 | speed of sound | 350 m.s^{-1} |
| ρ_0 | mean density | 1.2 kg.m^{-3} |
| μ_0 | dynamic viscosity | $1.5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2.\text{s}^{-1}$ |
| t_0 | period of breathing (inspiratory) | 4 s |
| U_0 | flow velocity(*) | 8 m.s^{-1} |

Table 2

Overall Thwaites and RNSP prediction performance of steady pressure measurements at positions p_1 , p_2 and p_3 averaged for all assessed minimum apertures $h_{min} = 1.45mm$, $h_{min} = 1.90mm$, $h_{min} = 2.30mm$ and $h_{min} = 3.00mm$ and indicated ranges of volume flow velocity.

| ϕ [l/min], Re [-], R^2 [-] | R^2 for p_1 | R^2 for p_2 | R^2 for p_3 |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| $\phi \leq 120$ (Re ≤ 4719) | | | |
| Thwaites | 0.48 | 0.68 | 0.99 |
| RNSP | 0.50 | 0.71 | 0.97 |
| $\phi \leq 100$ (Re ≤ 3140) | | | |
| Thwaites | 0.48 | 0.69 | 0.98 |
| RNSP | 0.52 | 0.71 | 0.97 |
| $\phi \leq 80$ (Re ≤ 2510) | | | |
| Thwaites | 0.48 | 0.74 | 0.99 |
| RNSP | 0.57 | 0.77 | 0.97 |
| $\phi \leq 60$ (Re ≤ 1888) | | | |
| Thwaites | 0.48 | 0.76 | 0.99 |
| RNSP | 0.61 | 0.82 | 0.98 |
| $\phi \leq 30$ (Re ≤ 940) | | | |
| Thwaites | 0.53 | 0.80 | 0.99 |
| RNSP | 0.72 | 0.86 | 0.98 |

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606 **FIGURES**

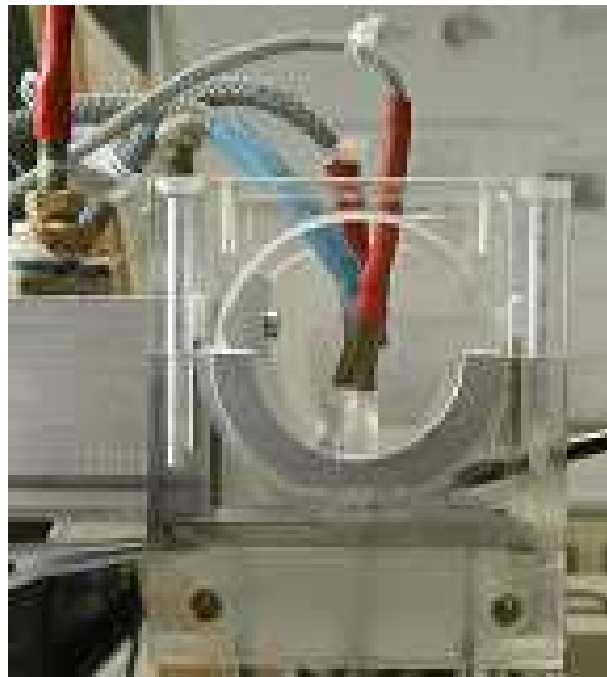


Figure 1. Photograph of the in-vitro pharyngeal tongue replica, mounted pressure transducers and hot film.

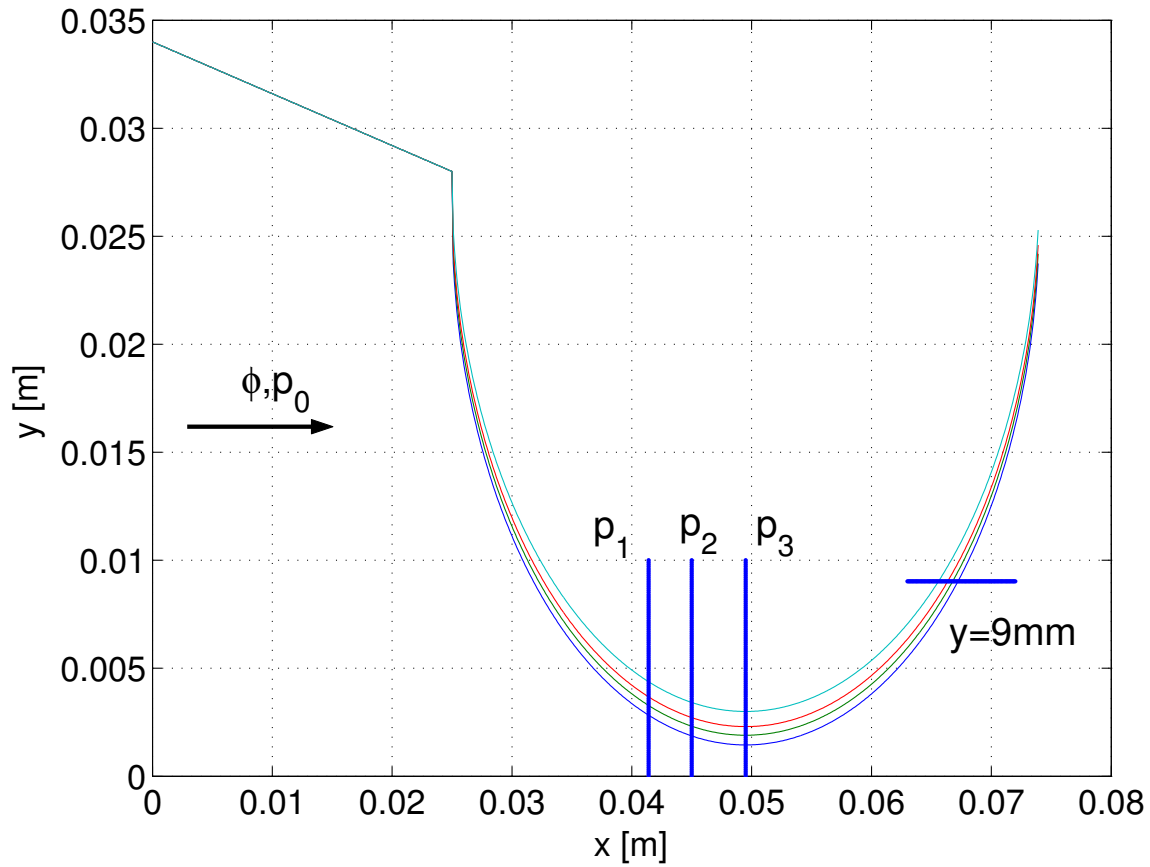


Figure 2. Schematic overview of the in-vitro pharyngeal tongue replica, mounted pressure transducers and hot film. The pharyngeal cavity geometry is represented by a flat bottom plate corresponding to $y=0$ and half cylinders with diameter $d=49\text{mm}$ for the assessed h_{min} 's (1.45, 1.90, 2.30 and 3.00mm). The y-axis corresponds with the distance between the flat plate and the half cylinder. The x-axis presents the distance along the longitudinal axis of the replica. The sensor sites are indicated with a solid blue line. The direction of incoming airflow is indicated with an arrow.

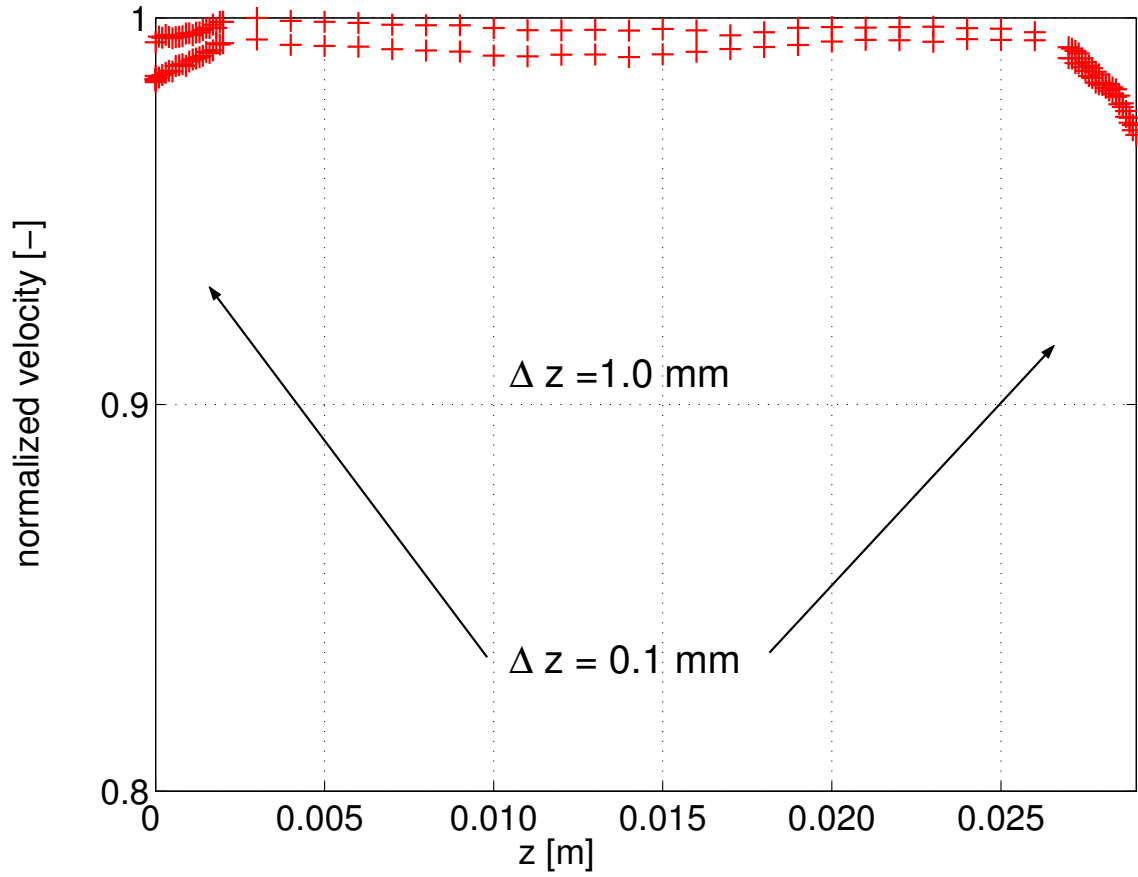


Figure 3. Normalized horizontal velocity profile (0 up to 30mm and 30 down to 0mm) for $h_{min} = 2.3mm$ and a steady flow of 60 l/min.

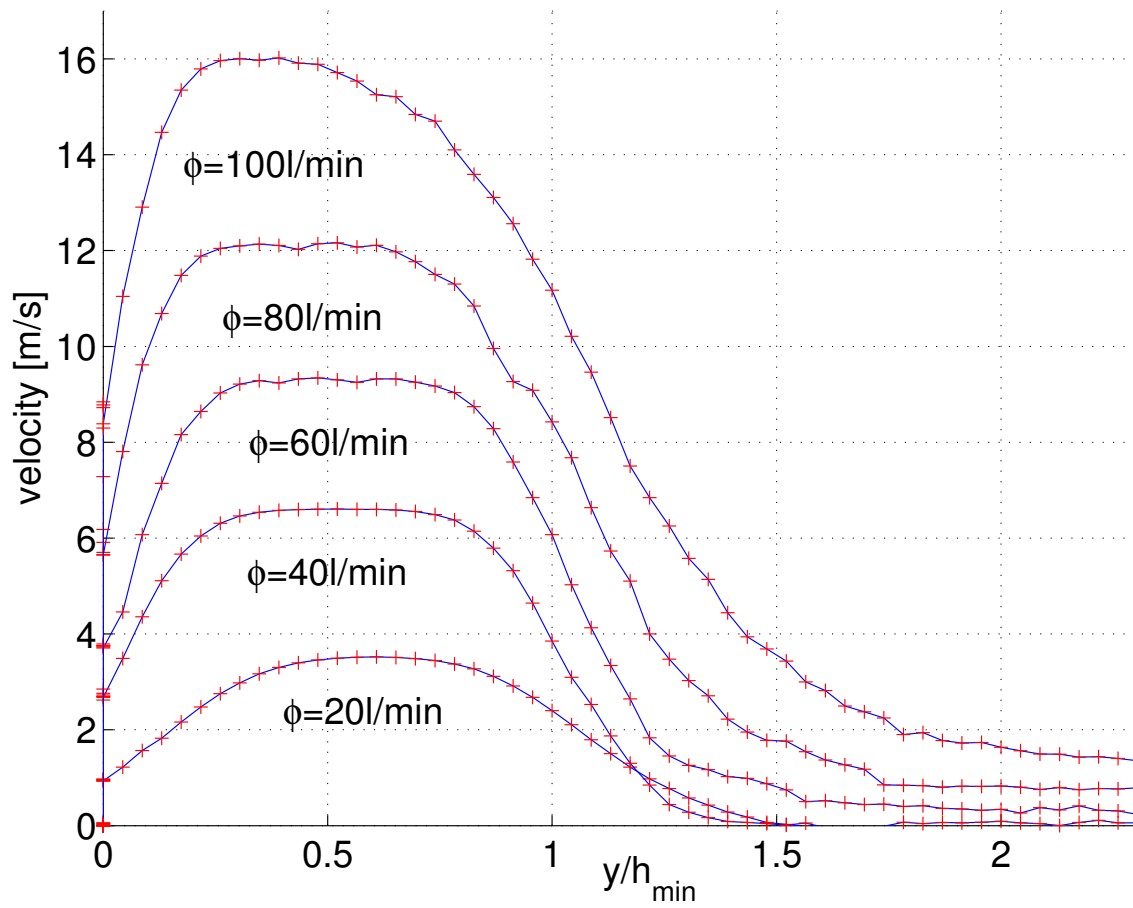


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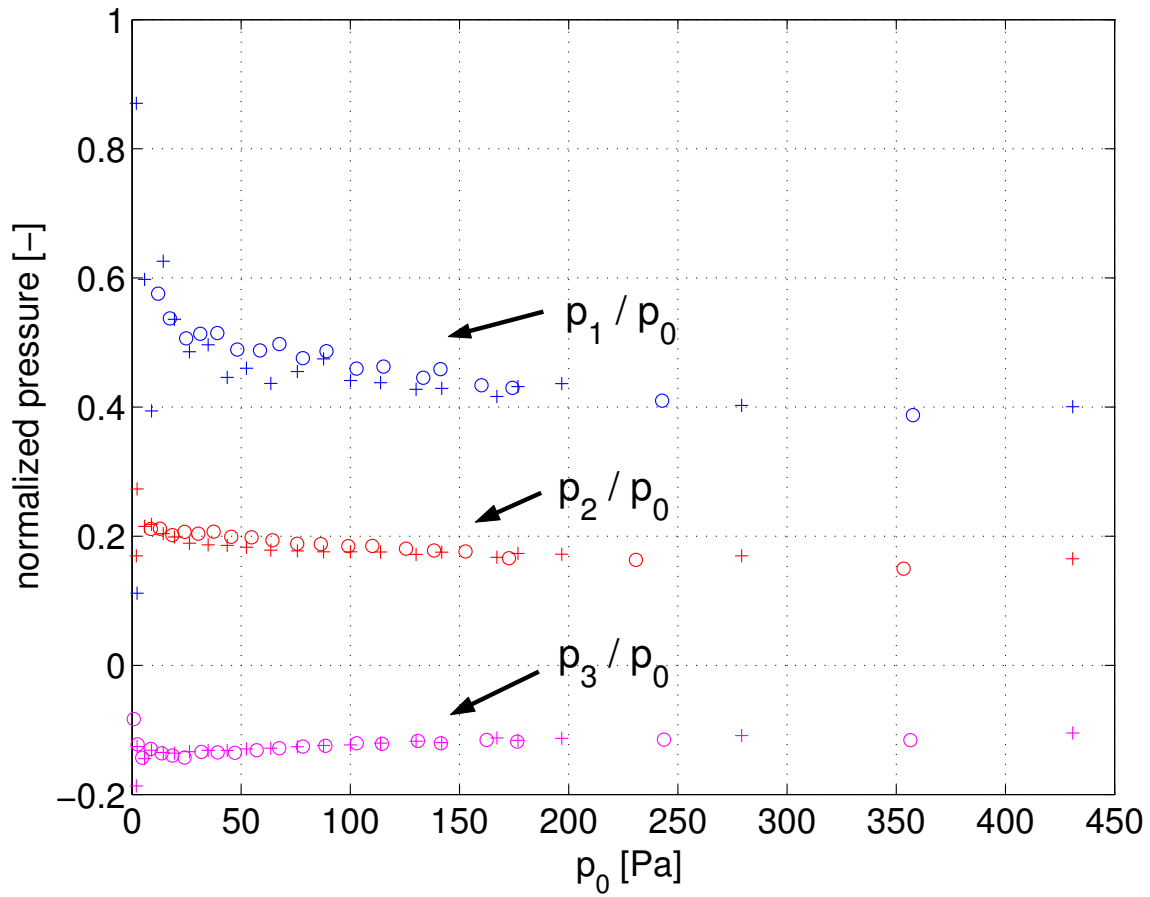


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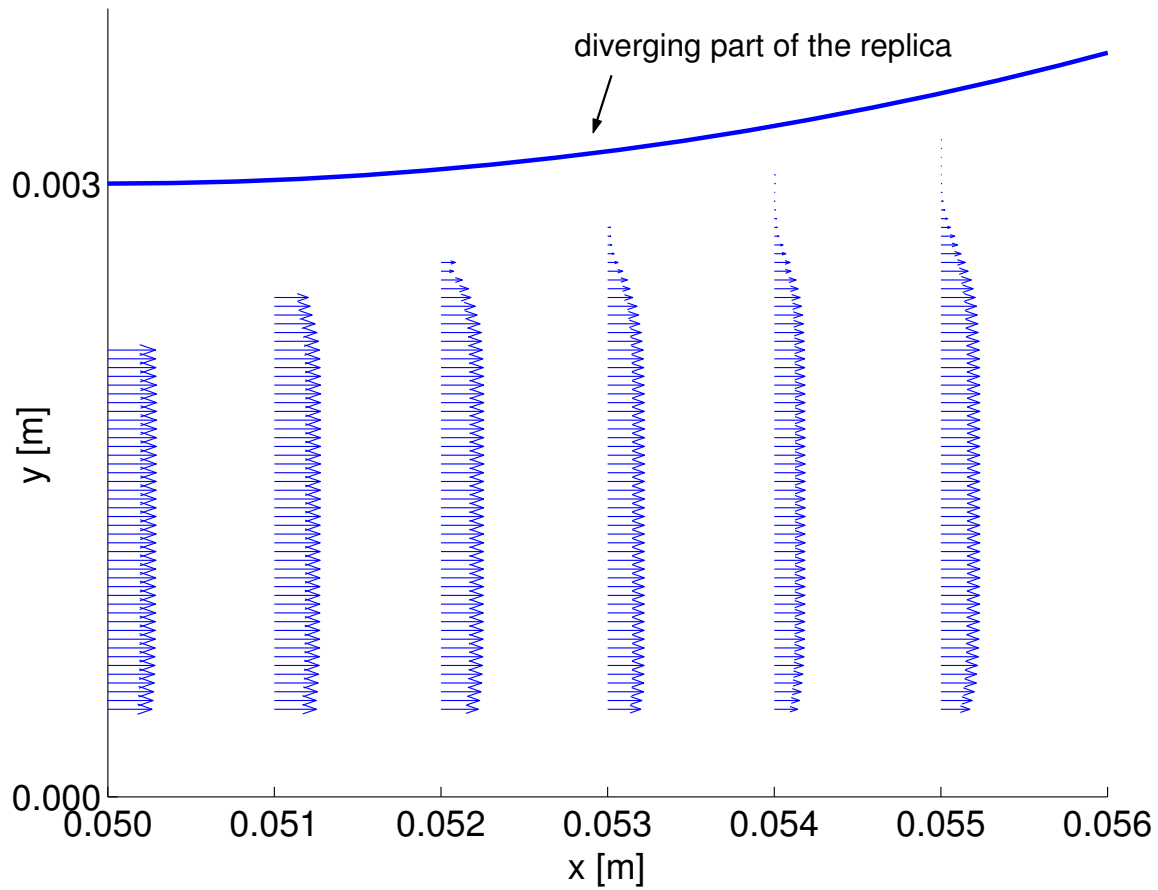


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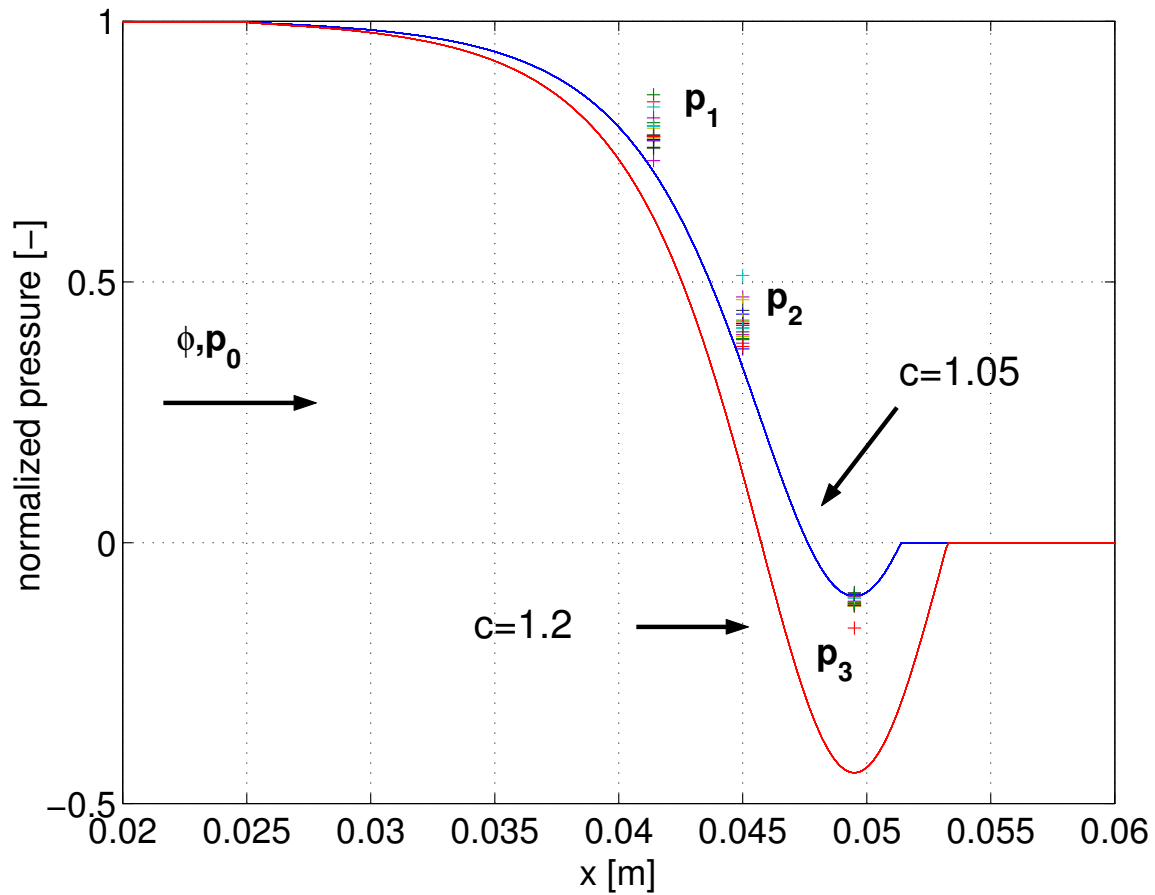


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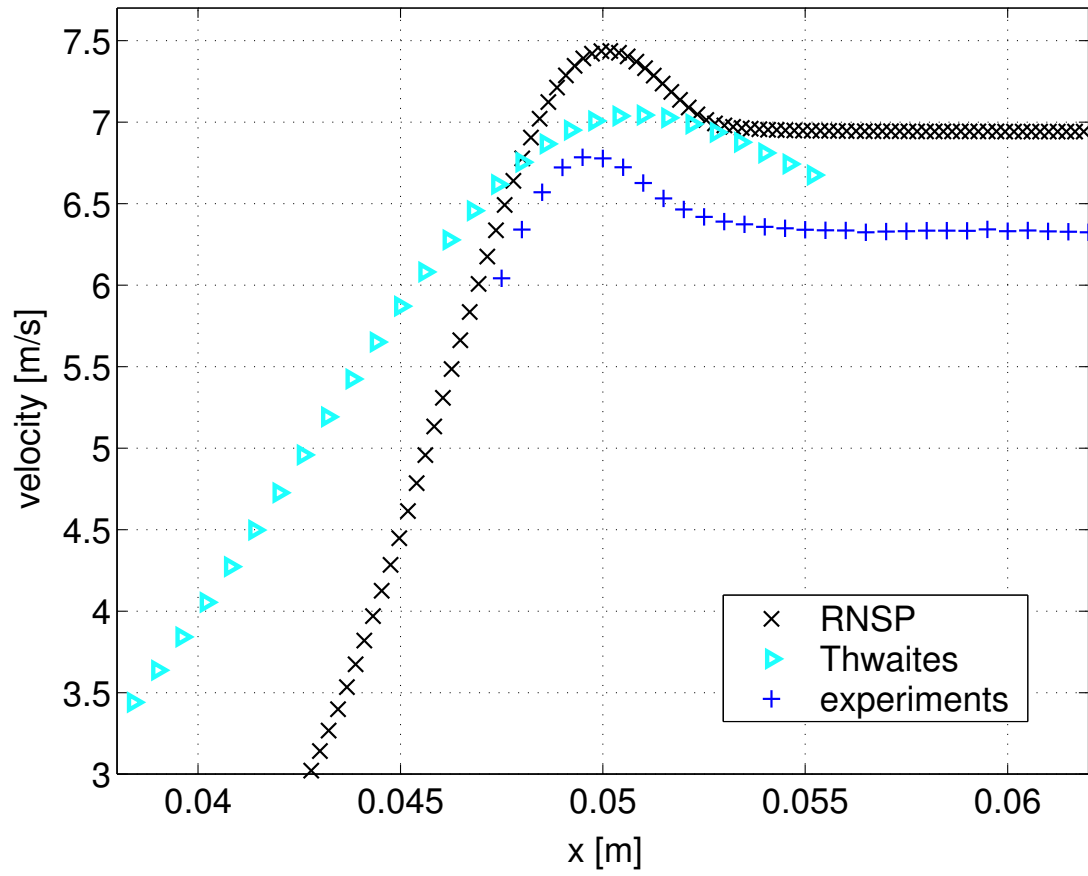


Figure 8. Longitudinal velocity profile with a step of $\Delta x = 1.0\text{mm}$ for $h_{min} = 3.00\text{mm}$ and $\phi=40\text{l/min}$: measured data (+), Thwaites (\triangleright) and RNSP (x).

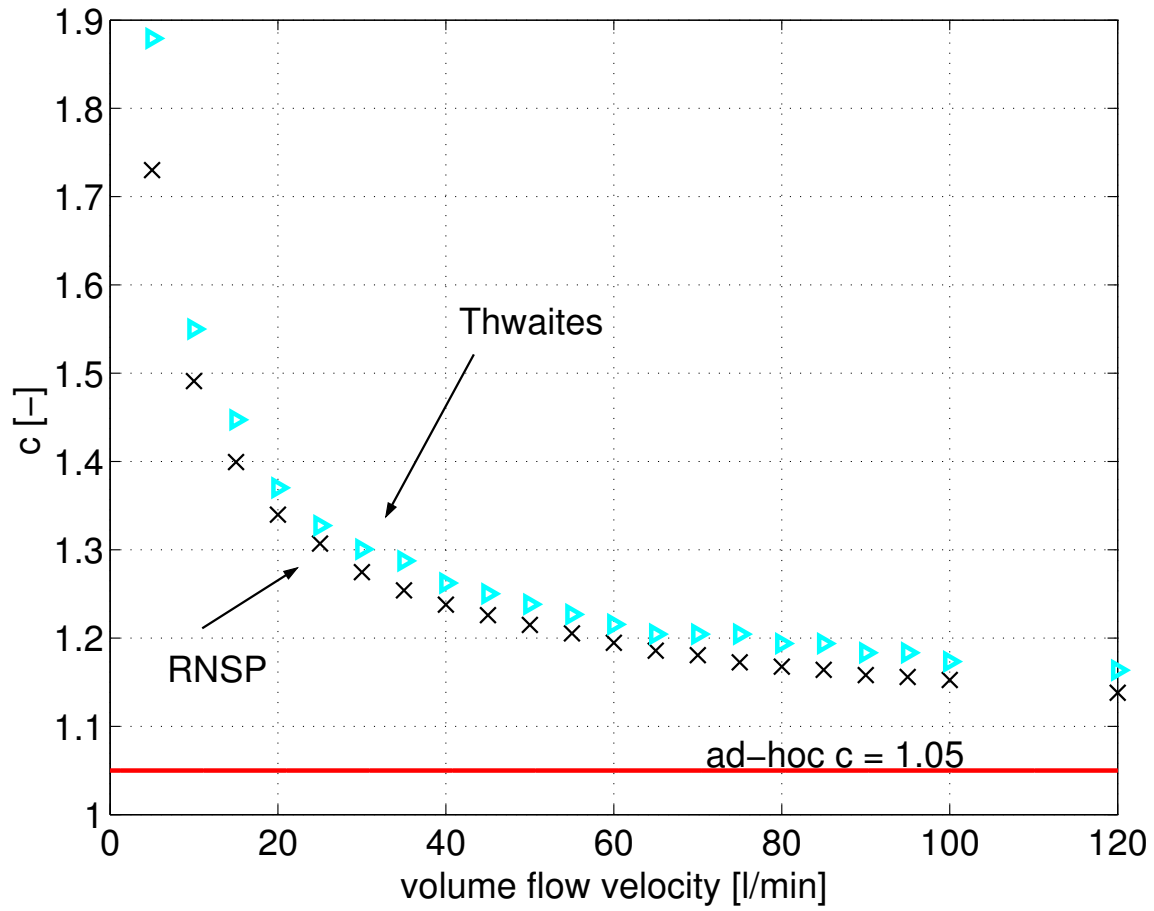


Figure 9. $c [-]$ as function of ϕ predicted from Thwaites (\triangleright), RNSP (\times) and the ad hoc constant $c=1.05$ (full line) for $h_{min} = 1.45mm$.

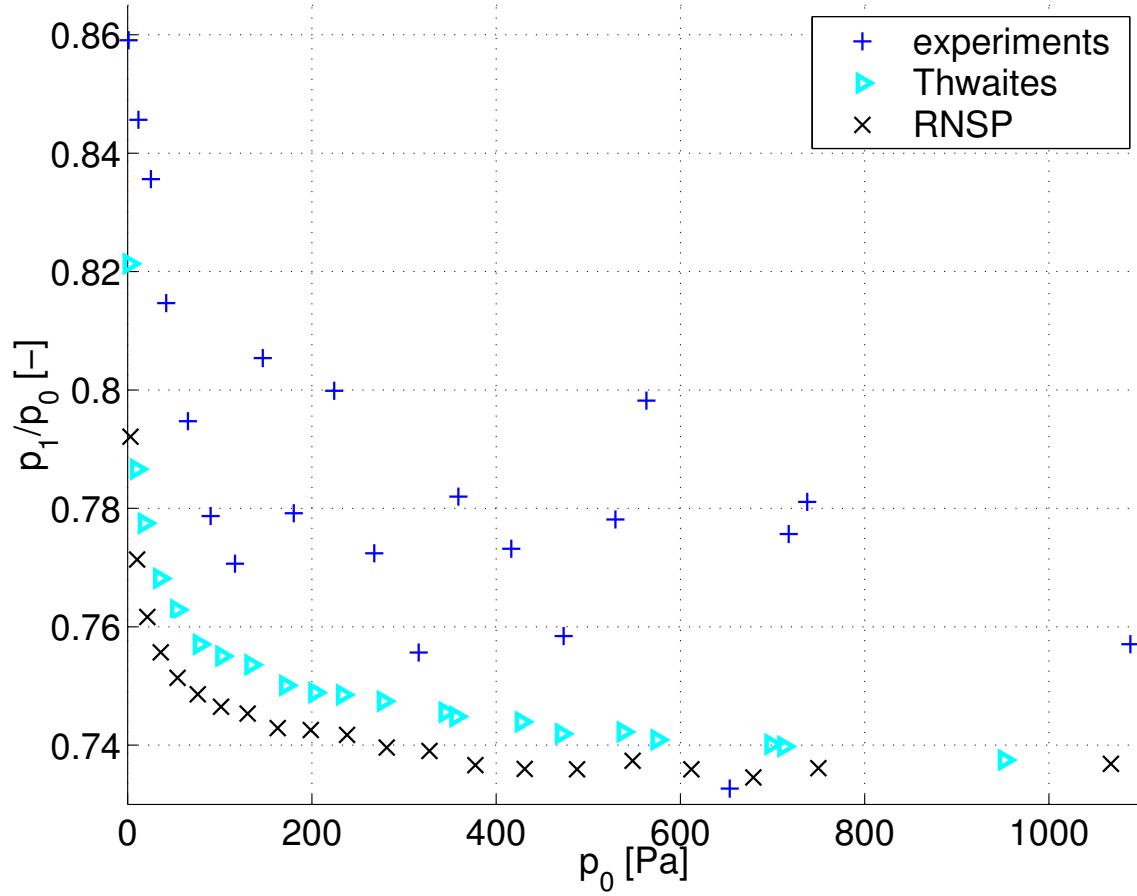


Figure 10. Normalized pressure at position p_1 for $h_{min} = 1.45mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (>) and RNSP (x).

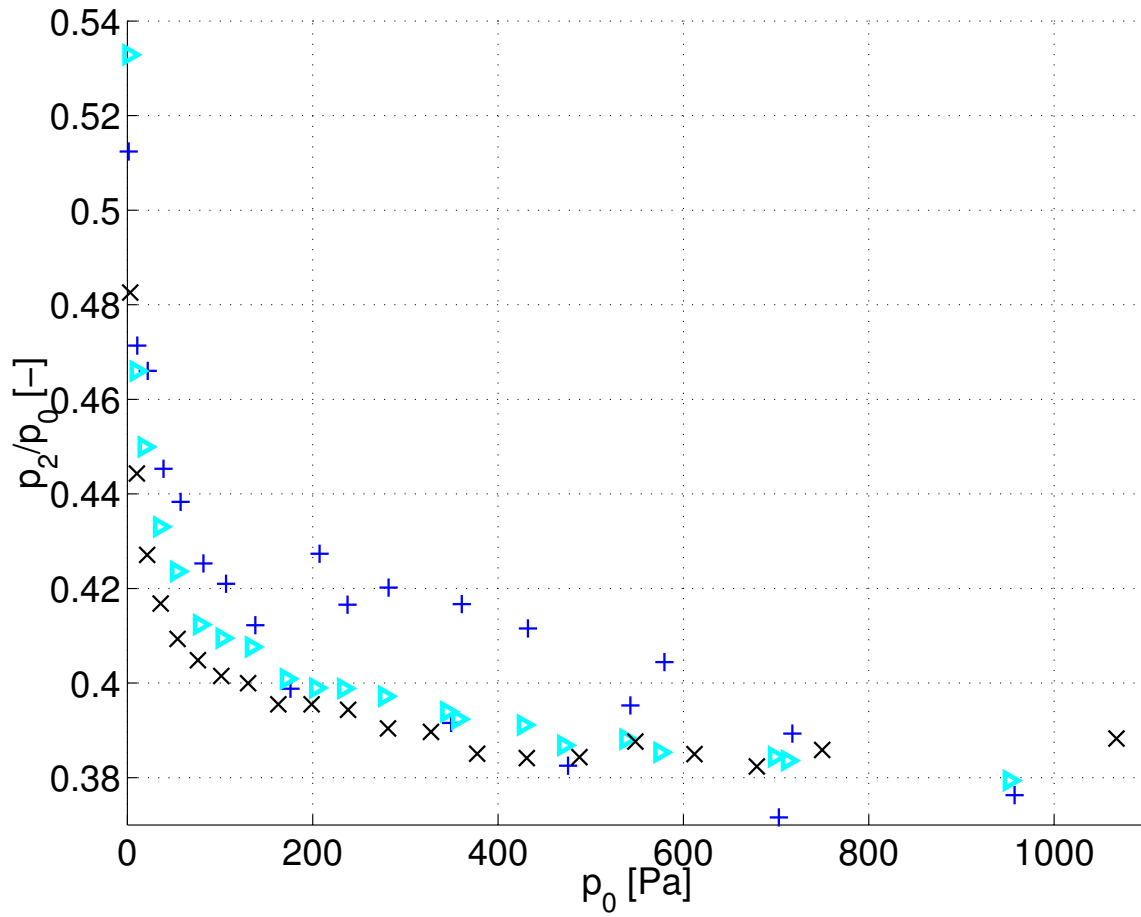


Figure 11. Normalized pressure at position p_2 for $h_{min} = 1.45mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (▷) and RNSP (x).

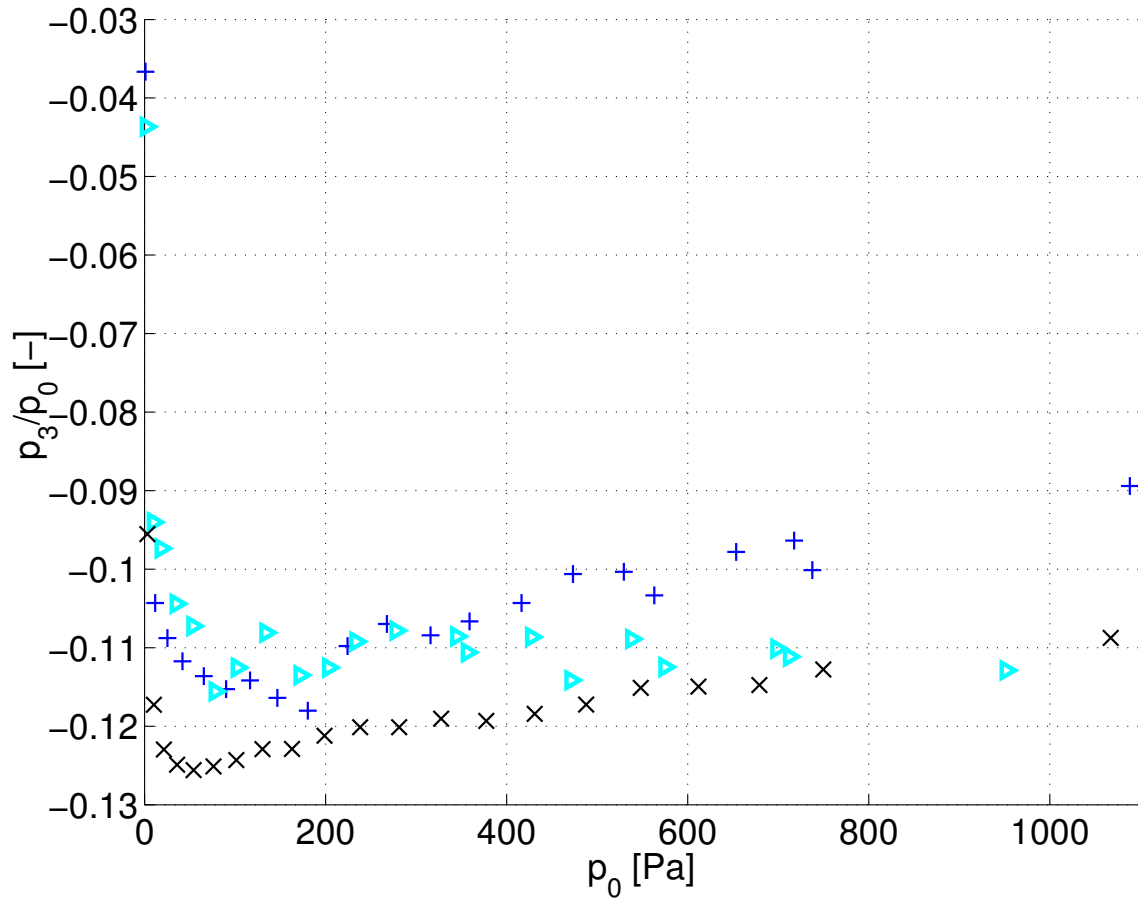


Figure 12. Normalized pressure position p_3 for $h_{min} = 1.45mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (▷) and RNSP (x).

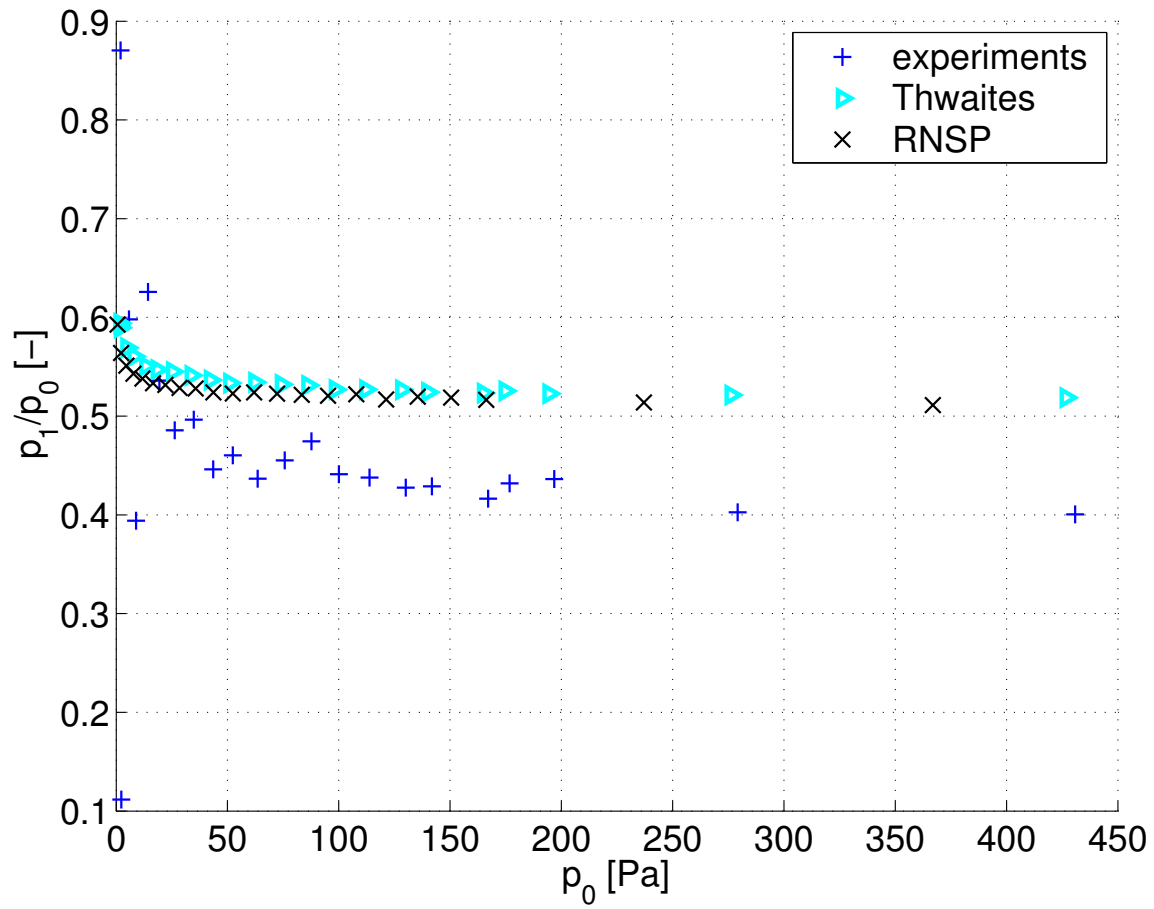


Figure 13. Normalized pressure at position p_1 for $h_{min} = 3.00mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (\triangleright) and RNSP (x).

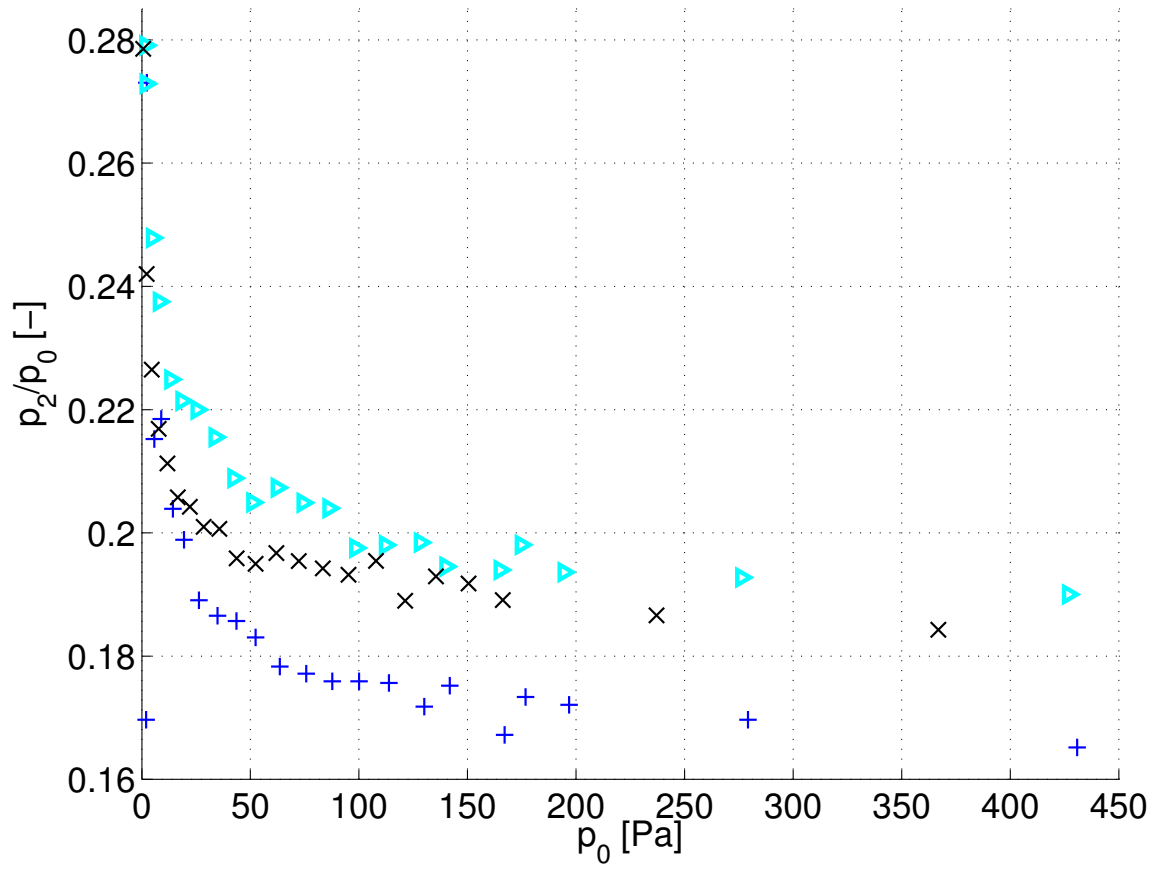


Figure 14. Normalized pressure at position p_2 for $h_{min} = 3.00mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (▷) and RNSP (x).

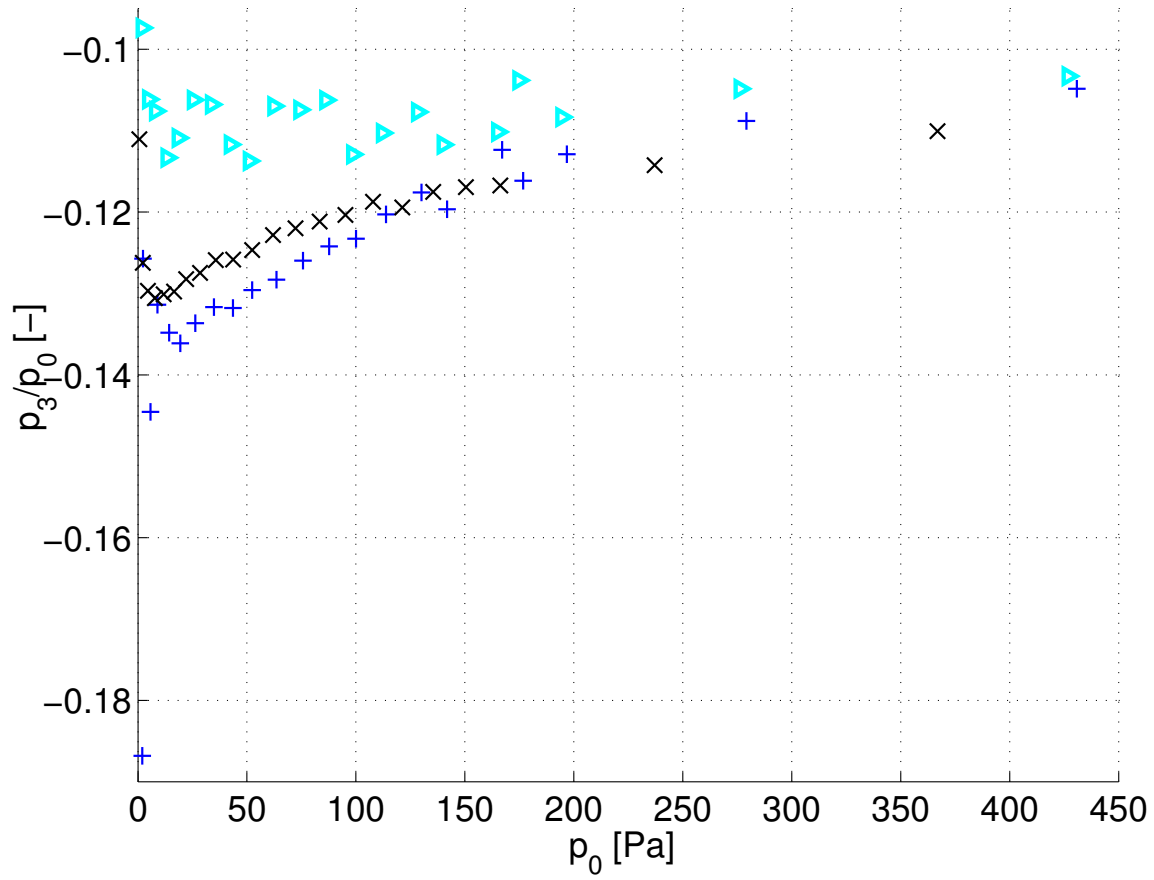


Figure 15. Normalized pressure at position p_3 for $h_{min} = 3.00mm$: measured data (+), Thwaites (\triangleright) and RNSP (x).

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