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2 **Computational fluid dynamics simulation of changes in the**  
3 **morphology and airflow dynamics of the upper airways in OSAHS**  
4 **patients after treatment with oral appliances**

5 **Short title : oral appliances and OSAHS**

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19

## 20 **Abstract**

21 **Objectives:** To explore the changes of morphology and internal airflow in upper  
22 airways (UA) after the use of oral appliances (OAs) in patients with obstructive sleep  
23 apnea hypopnea syndrome (OSAHS), and investigate the mechanisms by which OAs  
24 function as a therapy for OSAHS.

25 **Methods:** Eight OSAHS patients (all male, aged 37-58, mean age 46.25) underwent  
26 CT scans before and after OA use. Then, computational fluid dynamics(CFD) models  
27 were built on the base of the CT scans using Mimics and ANSYS ICEM CFD software.  
28 The internal airflow of the upper airways was simulated using ANSYS-FLUENT and  
29 the results were analyzed using ANSYS-CFD-Post. The data were analyzed to identify  
30 the most important changes of biomechanical properties between patients with and  
31 without OA intervention. Upper airway morphology and the internal airflow changes  
32 were compared using *t*-tests and Spearman correlation coefficient analysis.

33 **Results:** The narrowest area of upper airways was found to be located in the lower  
34 bound of velopharynx, where the volume and pressure were statistically significantly  
35 increased ( $P<0.05$ ) and the air velocity was statistically significantly decreased ( $P<0.05$ )  
36 in the presence of the OA( $P<0.05$ ). After wearing OA, pharyngeal resistance was  
37 significantly decreased ( $P<0.05$ ), from 290.63 to 186.25Pa/L, and the airflow resistance  
38 of the pharynx has reduced by 35.9%.

39 **Conclusion:** The enlargement of the upper airway after wearing the OA changed its  
40 airflow dynamics, which decreased the negative pressure and resistance in narrow areas  
41 of the upper airways. Thus, the collapsibility of the upper airways was reduced and  
42 patency was sustained.

43

44 **Keywords** Obstructive sleep apnea hypopnea syndrome; Computational fluid  
45 dynamics; Three-dimensional reconstruction; Upper airways; Oral appliance

46

## 47 **Introduction**

48           The obstructive sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome (OSAHS) is a common  
49 respiratory sleep disorder that is characterized by repeated partial or complete  
50 obstruction of upper airway at the end-expiratory phase during sleep<sup>[1]</sup>. OSAHS is a  
51 highly prevalent disorder which can have serious effects on daily functioning, social  
52 life and general health and may even have potentially life-threatening consequences.  
53 Prevalence studies estimate that 24% of men and 9% of women in middle age are  
54 affected by OSAHS<sup>[2]</sup>. Furthermore, the prevalence of OSAHS increases with age and  
55 in older persons ( $\geq 65$  years) there is a 2- to 3-fold higher prevalence compared with  
56 those in middle age (30–64 years)<sup>[3]</sup>. There is increasing evidence that untreated  
57 OSAHS is associated with ischemic heart disease, arterial hypertension stroke<sup>[4,5]</sup>,  
58 hypertension<sup>[6]</sup>, daytime sleepiness, and road traffic accidents<sup>[7]</sup>. Thus, it is now  
59 recognized that OSAHS is a serious public health problem.

60           Treatment modalities for OSAHS includes non-surgical treatments such as  
61 weight loss, nasal continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) and oral appliance (OA)  
62<sup>[8-10]</sup>, as well as surgical treatments such as uvulopalatopharyngoplasty (UPPP), hyoid  
63 myotomy and suspension, mandibular osteotomy with genioglossus advancement,  
64 adenotonsillectomy and maxillomandibular surgery<sup>[11-12]</sup>. Since Sullivan et al. first  
65 reported the use of CPAP therapy in OSAHS in 1981<sup>[9]</sup>, CPAP has been considered as  
66 an effective method for the treatment of OSAHS. However, its clinical effectiveness is  
67 limited by poor acceptance and tolerance, as well as suboptimal compliance of patients  
68<sup>[13-14]</sup>. Disadvantages of UPPP surgery include the pain and expense of the procedure,  
69 but also a relatively poor long-term success rate<sup>[15]</sup>. Since Robin et al. first introduced  
70 an intraoral appliance to treat upper airway obstruction in 1934<sup>[10]</sup>, OAs have

71 increasingly been used in the treatment of OSAHS as a viable alternative to CPAP.  
72 While the curative effect of OAs was affirmed by increasing numbers of studies<sup>[16]</sup>, the  
73 recent research on the specific mechanism by which OAs affect OSAHS is mainly  
74 limited to morphological descriptions<sup>[17-19]</sup>. It is generally believed that after wearing  
75 an OA, the tissue surrounding the upper airways of OSAHS patients is pulled out, and  
76 the upper airways are expanded, so that local stenosis is released or entirely abrogated.  
77 Hence, the patient can breathe easily and have a higher blood oxygen saturation, a lower  
78 snoring sound or even no snoring. However, what happens to the flow dynamics of the  
79 upper airways after wearing the OA is still not clear. This study therefore probed the  
80 flow dynamics of the upper airways of patients with OSAHS in order to understand the  
81 relationship between the morphology of upper airways and their function. Ultimately,  
82 the data gathered here improves the understanding of the pathogenesis of OSAHS and  
83 the therapeutic mechanism of OA.

## 84 **Materials and Methods**

### 85 **Participants**

86 This study protocol was approved by the Ethics Review Committee at the  
87 College of Stomatology, Fourth Military Medical University. It conforms to relevant  
88 national and international guidelines. Written informed consent was obtained from each  
89 patient. In this study 8 Chinese adult OSAHS patients, aged 37 to 58 years (mean age  
90 46.25 years), were selected. All OSAHS patients had an AHI index higher than 5 and  
91 lower than 40 per hour on standard polysomnography (PSG). Those who had active  
92 temporo-mandibular dysfunction were excluded from the study as well as patients

93 suffering from untreated caries and periodontal disease, completely edentulous patients  
94 and those having an insufficient number of remaining teeth.

## 95 **Three-dimensional reconstruction of upper airways**

96 All patients underwent a PSG detection and a CT scan before and three months  
97 after wearing the OAs. CT scans from the lower rim of the epiglottis to the supraorbital  
98 margin were performed with a spatial resolution of 512×512 pixels and zero space,  
99 1.25mm thickness, to obtain DICOM (Digital Imaging and Communication in  
100 Medicine) format images. Scanning was performed with the patients awake, in supine  
101 and neutral position during one breath hold at the end of a normal inspiration. All  
102 patients were scanned by the same radiology technicians in the Department of  
103 Radiology, Fourth Military Medical University, Xi'an, China. The CT scans were used  
104 to construct three-dimensional models for the analysis of fluid dynamics.

105 The DICOM image data of the patients was then loaded into Mimics 10.0  
106 (Materialise NV, Leuven, Belgium). Subsequently, a segmentation of the upper airways  
107 was done based on the Hounsfield unit (HU), a measure of the electron density of the  
108 tissue, assigned to each pixel in the series of DICOM images. The HU had values from  
109 1024 to 3071. For the upper airways, a range of HU between -1024 to -400 is regarded  
110 as very good results <sup>[20]</sup>. The segmented region was successfully converted to a 3D  
111 model, smoothed in Magics9.9 (Materialise, Leuven, Belgium), and finally exported  
112 for further analysis (Fig 1).

113

114 **Fig 1. Three-dimensional reconstruction of a patient's upper airways, without(a)**  
115 **and with (b) an oral appliance.**

## 116 **Three-dimensional mesh model building**

117 To prepare the segmented upper airway model for CFD calculations, a  
118 computational grid was created using ICEM-CFD 14.0 (ANSYS, Canonsburg, PA,  
119 USA), in which both global and local mesh controls were used to improve mesh quality  
120 (Fig 2), followed by a mesh-independent test.

121

122 **Fig 2. Three-dimensional mesh model of the upper airways.**

## 123 **Numerical simulation of the upper airways**

124 The ANSYS 14.0-Fluid Dynamics-FLUENT 14.0 commercial code was used to  
125 solve the Reynolds averaged Navier–Stokes equations for the steady airflow simulation.  
126 The flow was assumed to be steady, homogeneous, incompressible, adiabatic and  
127 Newtonian. The density of air was set at  $1.225 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , and the viscosity was assumed  
128 to be  $1.789 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . We applied the Reynolds averaged Navier-Stokes equation  
129 (RNG k-epsilon turbulence model) to simulate the airflow status. A second-order  
130 pressure discretization scheme was used for the pressure calculations, and a second-  
131 order upwind scheme was used for the momentum and turbulence transport equations.  
132 We used the SIMPLE algorithm to solve the pressure–velocity coupling. Atmospheric  
133 pressure was imposed at both nostrils, and a constant flow rate of 200 ml/s was applied  
134 at the planes in the pharynx. The upper airway wall was assumed to be no-slip ( $u=v=0$ ).

135 To obtain a better initialization field and convergence acceleration, multigrid  
136 initialization was used to optimize the flow field.

137 The results obtained using Fluent were post-processed using CFD-Post  
138 (ANSYS, Canonsburg, PA, USA) to obtain the contours and vectors, and the function  
139 calculator was used to acquire values for the pressure gradient, pressure and velocity in  
140 cross-sectional planes at specified points in the upper airways.

### 141 **Cross-sections selection of the CFD model**

142 The magnitude of airflow velocity in the upper airways was calculated at the  
143 five different cross-sections shown in Fig 3. Section 1 constitutes the beginning of the  
144 nasopharynx, section 2 is located at the lower bound of the nasopharynx (upper bound  
145 of the palatopharynx), and section 3 at the lower bound of the palatopharynx (upper  
146 bound of the glossopharynx). Sections 4 and 5 are located the top and the base of the  
147 epiglottis, respectively.

148

149 **Fig 3. Selected sections of the CFD model.**

### 150 **Statistical analyses**

151 Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 17.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY,  
152 USA). The paired *t*-test was adopted to compare the changes of the cross-sectional area,  
153 volume, velocity, pressure and resistance before and three months after wearing the  
154 OAs. The association between AHI change, volume change and resistance change were  
155 analyzed using the coefficient of product moment correlation (Pearson's correlation



156 coefficient). For all analyses, a probability value of  $P < 0.05$  was considered to indicate  
157 differences that are statistically significant.

## 158 **Results**

### 159 **Morphological changes in the upper airways after use of the** 160 **OAs**

161 As shown in Tables 1 and 2, the volume of the nasopharynx region of patients  
162 with and without OAs use showed no significant difference ( $P > 0.05$ ), while that of the  
163 palatopharynx, glossopharynx and hypopharynx increased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ).  
164 Prominent changes occurred mainly in the palatopharynx (increased by 39.54%) and  
165 glossopharynx (increased by 44.48%). The narrowest region of the upper airway was  
166 located at section 3 (the lower bound of the palatopharynx). Notably, its cross-sectional  
167 area increased significantly by 129.06% with the OAs ( $P < 0.05$ ).

168 **Table 1. Volumetric changes in the airways with and without the OAs (cm<sup>3</sup>).**

region	Without OAs	With OAs	<i>p</i> -value	Deformation rate
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD		
nasopharynx	2.3333±0.7377	2.3523±0.8019	0.542	0.81
palatopharynx	2.4482±0.8352	3.4161±0.5426	< 0.001**	39.54
glossopharynx	2.2759±0.3638	3.2882±0.6140	0.001**	44.48
hypopharynx	3.6281±0.8202	4.0505±0.6589	0.047*	11.64

total volume    10.6854±2.2740    13.1071±2.180    < 0.001\*\*    22.67

169    \* P<0.05; \*\* P<0.01

170

171    **Table 2. Changes in the cross-sectional area of selected upper airway sections from**  
172    **patients with and without OAs (cm<sup>2</sup>).**

Section	Without OAs	With OAs	p-value	Deformation rate
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD		
A	3.1441±0.7028	3.1643±0.6017	0.283	0.64
B	2.1608±0.9456	2.3389±0.5536	0.058	8.24
C	0.2150±0.1032	0.4925±0.1018	0.001**	129.06
D	1.6430±0.6109	2.5817±0.5691	0.018*	57.13
E	2.3573±0.4370	2.6032±0.4092	0.035*	10.43

173    \* P<0.05; \*\* P<0.01

## 174    **Airflow velocity changes in the upper airways**

175            The change tendencies of airflow velocity in the UAs of 8 patients were similar  
176 to those illustrated in Fig 4. Without the OA, the airflow velocity was turbulent, while  
177 it became smooth and steady after using OAs. The maximum airflow velocity in the  
178 narrowest part of the pharynx, i.e. the palatopharyngeal region, was determined both  
179 pre- and post-treatment. As can be seen in Table 3, there was no difference in the airflow  
180 velocity in the nasopharynx and epiglottis pre- and post-treatment (P>0.05), while that

181 of palatopharynx and glossopharynx decreased significantly( $p<0.05$ ), from 11.55 m/s  
182 to 8.81 m/s post-treatment, representing a decline of 23.7%. The dif  
183 ference was especially significant in the lower bound of palatopharynx ( $p<0.01$ ).

184 **Fig 4. Velocity vectors in the mid-sagittal plane of a patient's upper airways.**

185 Table 3. Airflow velocity changes in different selected sections of the upper airways  
186 form patients with and without the OAs (m/s).

section	Without OAs	With OAs	p-value	Deformation rate
	Mean $\pm$ SD	Mean $\pm$ SD		
A	0.84 $\pm$ 0.31	0.78 $\pm$ 0.24	0.183	-7.14
B	1.24 $\pm$ 0.43	1.03 $\pm$ 0.55	0.048*	-16.94
C	11.55 $\pm$ 2.18	8.81 $\pm$ 2.47	0.007**	-23.72
D	4.86 $\pm$ 1.17	4.34 $\pm$ 1.53	0.036*	-10.70
E	2.75 $\pm$ 0.74	2.60 $\pm$ 0.40	0.095	-5.45

187

188 **Pressure changes in the upper airways of patients before and**  
189 **after using OAs**

190 The pressure change trends in the UA of 8 subjects were similar to what was  
191 outlined in Fig 5. The pressure distribution in the UA became steady with OA. Both the  
192 initial and final minimum pressure was detected at the lower boundary of the  
193 palatopharynx, a narrow region in the UA. Moreover, the maximum flow rate was  
194 observed at this point, conforming with Bernoulli's equation. As shown in Table 4, after

195 wearing the OAs, no statistically significant difference of pressure was observed in the  
196 nasopharynx and epiglottis ( $P<0.05$ ), while pressure in the palatopharynx and  
197 glossopharynx increased remarkably( $P<0.05$ ), especially at the lower boundary of the  
198 palatopharynx( $P<0.01$ ), rising from 101240.25 to 101264.13Pa. The pressure in the  
199 inlet of the nasal cavity was defined as the baseline (the practical atmospheric pressure  
200 is 101325Pa), the pressure at the lower boundary of the palatopharynx without AOs  
201 was calculated as -84.75Pa, and it transformed into -60.87Pa with the AOs, thus  
202 denoting a pressure drop of 28.2% in the narrowest part of the UAs.

203

204 **Fig 5. Pressure contours in the mid–sagittal plane of a patient's upper airways.**

205 Table4. Pressure changes in different sections of the upper airways from patients with  
206 and without OAs(Pa).

Section	Without OAs	With OAs	p-value
	Mean $\pm$ SD	Mean $\pm$ SD	
A	101303.61 $\pm$ 18.37	101305.24 $\pm$ 16.79	0.093
B	101308.52 $\pm$ 8.46	101313.48 $\pm$ 6.37	0.065
C	101240.25 $\pm$ 16.24	101264.13 $\pm$ 23.10	0.005**
D	101263.49 $\pm$ 12.12	101272.34 $\pm$ 13.47	0.039*
E	101255.58 $\pm$ 20.66	101261.73 $\pm$ 18.36	0.063

207

208 **Changes of resistance in the upper airways**

209 Airflow resistance denotes the specific pressure needed to push a defined  
210 volume of gas over a designated distance in a defined time. It can be described using  
211 the formula:  $R=\Delta P/Q$ , where  $\Delta P$  indicates the pressure drop,  $Q$  indicate the gas flow,  
212 which had a set value of 0.2L/s. As shown in Table 5, with the effect of the OAs, the  
213 pharyngeal resistance decreased significantly( $p<0.05$ ), from 290.63Pas/L to  
214 186.25Pas/L, a decline of 35.9%.

215 Table 5. Changes of resistance in the pharynx of patients with and without OAs (Pas/L).

Patient	Without OAs		With OAs	
	$\Delta P$	R	$\Delta P$	R
1	50	250	29	145
2	42	210	35	175
3	85	425	32	160
4	58	290	56	280
5	82	410	53	265
6	36	180	33	165
7	43	215	31	155
8	69	345	29	145
Mean $\pm$ SD	-	290.63 $\pm$ 93.63	-	186.25 $\pm$ 54.30

216 Note:  $t=3.182$   $p=0.015$

## 217 **Correlations among AHI, pharyngeal volume and resistance** 218 **changes in the pharynx with and without OAs**

219 The detailed data on AHI, pharyngeal volume and pharyngeal resistance  
220 changes which was collected before and after the 8 patients used OAs is shown in Table

221 6. Fig 6 shows that there was a negative correlation between pharyngeal resistance  
 222 changes and pharyngeal volume changes ( $r = -0.786$   $p = 0.0218$ , Fig 6-a) as well as  
 223 pharyngeal volume changes and AHI changes ( $r = -0.81$   $p = 0.0158$ , Fig 6-b), while there  
 224 was a positive correlation between pharyngeal resistance changes and AHI changes  
 225 ( $r = 0.976$   $p = 0.0008$ , Fig 6-c).

226 Table 6. The changes of AHI, pharyngeal volume and pharyngeal resistance in OSAHS  
 227 Patients with and without OAs (cm<sup>2</sup>).

patient	Without OAs	With OAs	Deformation rate of pharyngeal volume with OAs (%)	Deformation rate of pharyngeal resistance with OAs (%)
	AHI	AHI		
1	21.3	2.2	35.45	-42.00
2	23.2	5.1	28.08	-16.67
3	27.6	1.8	29.82	-62.35
4	16.1	16.0	13.73	-3.45
5	21.8	3.4	17.32	-35.37
6	14.3	12.1	10.31	-8.33
7	17.5	1.9	20.45	-27.9
8	24.2	1.4	34.46	-57.97

228

229

230 **Fig 6. The correlation analysis between the pharyngeal volume changes and**  
231 **pharynx resistance changes(a); between AHI changes and pharyngeal volume**  
232 **changes (b); between AHI changes and pharyngeal resistance changes(c).**

## 233 **Discussion**

### 234 **airflow dynamics of the upper airways and OA**

235 The nasopharyngeal airways almost remained unchanged after using OAs, while  
236 the cross-section of the glossopharyngeal and palatopharyngeal airways significantly  
237 increased, and that of the hypopharyngeal airway increased slightly. These results  
238 demonstrate that OAs mainly act on the glossopharyngeal and palatopharyngeal  
239 airways. In the narrow region behind the soft palate, the CSA increased obviously by  
240 129.06% ( $P < 0.05$ ). Airway enlargement decreased the possibility of a collapse and  
241 obstruction of the UAs during the respiratory process, thus providing better flow  
242 conditions. This was confirmed by the analysis of velocity and pressure.

243 After wearing the appliance, the respiratory flow rate becomes more balanced,  
244 especially in the palatopharynx and glossopharynx, where it decreased from 11.55 m/s  
245 to 8.81 m/s, resulting in a reduced impact of the airflow on the pharyngeal cavity wall  
246 and thus preventing damage to the airway mucosa. The reduced impact will  
247 correspondingly reduce the patient's snoring which arises from high frequency  
248 vibrations of soft tissue under the conditions of violent airflow impact on the pharyngeal  
249 cavity wall. In the presence of the OA, negative pressure in the narrow area of the  
250 palatopharynx decreased significantly from -84.75Pa to -60.87Pa. Within the entire  
251 upper respiratory tract, only the palatopharyngeal region consists of soft tissue without  
252 bone support, and thus can collapse under the effect of negative pressure. Reducing the

253 negative pressure diminishes airway compliance, and therefore reduces the  
254 collapsibility of airways and improves the patients' symptoms.

255 Air resistance in the upper respiratory tract is an important index for the  
256 evaluation of the ventilation degree, and the resistance value determines the difficulty  
257 of inspiration. High resistance indicates that it is difficult for gas to flow in the upper  
258 airways, while the converse indicates that it is easy. Resistance in the pharynx decreased  
259 significantly by 35.9% ( $P < 0.05$ ), which eased the air circulation in the UAs, further  
260 reducing the probability of airway collapse.

261 By enlarging the upper airways, the OA altered the dynamic characteristics of  
262 airflow in the upper respiratory tract, and bringing the morphology into correspondence  
263 with function is the fundamental element for the success of OSAHS therapy. Therefore,  
264 when devising an OA, one should consider how to achieve changes in airflow pressure  
265 and resistance, not merely changes of morphology.

## 266 **AHI, total volume and resistance of the pharynx**

267 AHI, introduced in the 1980s, is widely applied as an important indicator in the  
268 diagnosis, classification and efficiency evaluation of OSAHS, both in clinical and  
269 academic settings. However, investigators found some deficiencies in using AHI to  
270 assess efficiency. A study indicates that, after the use of OA, different patients obtained  
271 the same AHI, but they suffered from different degrees of hypoxemia<sup>[21]</sup>. Similar studies  
272 have also shown that although patients obtain the same AHI after the use of OA, the  
273 probability of cardiovascular disease events was actually different<sup>[22]</sup>. Hence, we aimed  
274 to identify auxiliary indicators to inspect OA efficacy. We conducted a correlation  
275 analysis among the AHI, total volume and resistance of the pharynx before and after



276 the use of OA. There was a negative relationship between pharyngeal volume changes  
277 and AHI changes in patients with OA, as well as a positive relationship between  
278 pharyngeal resistance changes and AHI changes. Therefore, we extrapolated that the  
279 changes of pharyngeal volume and resistance may be auxiliary indicators to test the  
280 effect of OAs on OSAHS. Nevertheless, a multitude of clinical data still needs to be  
281 gathered and a thorough correlation analysis between these indicators and clinical  
282 outcomes needs to be conducted to verify this deduction.

### 283 **limitations of the study**

284 Nevertheless, some deficiencies of this study should also be considered. Firstly,  
285 the CT data was obtained with patients in the waking state, while respiratory collapse  
286 in OSAHS patients mainly occurs during sleep. Secondly, the study ignores the  
287 influence of soft tissues, such as muscle tension, which is vital for the stability of the  
288 respiratory tract during sleep, as well as changes and movement of the soft palate,  
289 tongue root and other soft tissues related to the respiratory tract may be important  
290 factors related to the pathophysiology of OSAHS. While in this study we failed to take  
291 the effect of soft tissue into consideration, the most likely site of collapse in the  
292 respiratory tract depends on respiratory compliance, a certain degree of muscularization,  
293 the so-called “tissue stress” and internal respiratory pressure. Therefore, high-  
294 resolution CT data and fluid-structure interaction (FSI) numerical simulation  
295 technology can be used to further support the present results. However, FSI technology  
296 is still in the early research phase and has been applied only to two-dimensional models  
297 [23]. To be applied in practical research on the oropharyngeal tract, FSI technology  
298 needs to overcome a major problem of data availability for particular material properties  
299 of tissues such as tongue and soft palate. In addition, the elastic modulus and Poisson's

300 ratio of tissues measured in vitro may not have a close correlation with tissue  
301 deformability in vivo. Therefore, recording CT images of patients in the sleeping state  
302 and attaining reliable soft tissue material properties for use in conjunction with Fluid-  
303 structure interaction technology(FSI) could enable the analysis of the impact coefficient  
304 of soft tissue surrounding the airways and air in the respiratory tract. The effects of  
305 these properties on respiratory stability will be the focus of our future research.

306 In spite of these limitations, our results show that analyzing the dynamic airflow  
307 changes in the upper airways in the presence of OAs by applying CFD technology helps  
308 us to recognize the mechanism by which OAs exert their effect in OSAHS treatment  
309 and the interactive relationship between structure and function of the upper airways,  
310 providing theoretical basis for clinical application of OA in OSAHS treatment.

## 311 **Conclusions**

312 In OSAHS that received OA treatment, changes in the morphology and flow  
313 dynamics of the upper airways were mainly observed in the palatopharyngeal and  
314 glossopharyngeal region. When wearing the OA, the upper airway was enlarged,  
315 dynamic airflow characters were changed, and negative pressure as well as resistance  
316 in the narrow area of the UAs was diminished, thus making the upper airways more  
317 resilient to collapse as well as maintaining their patency.

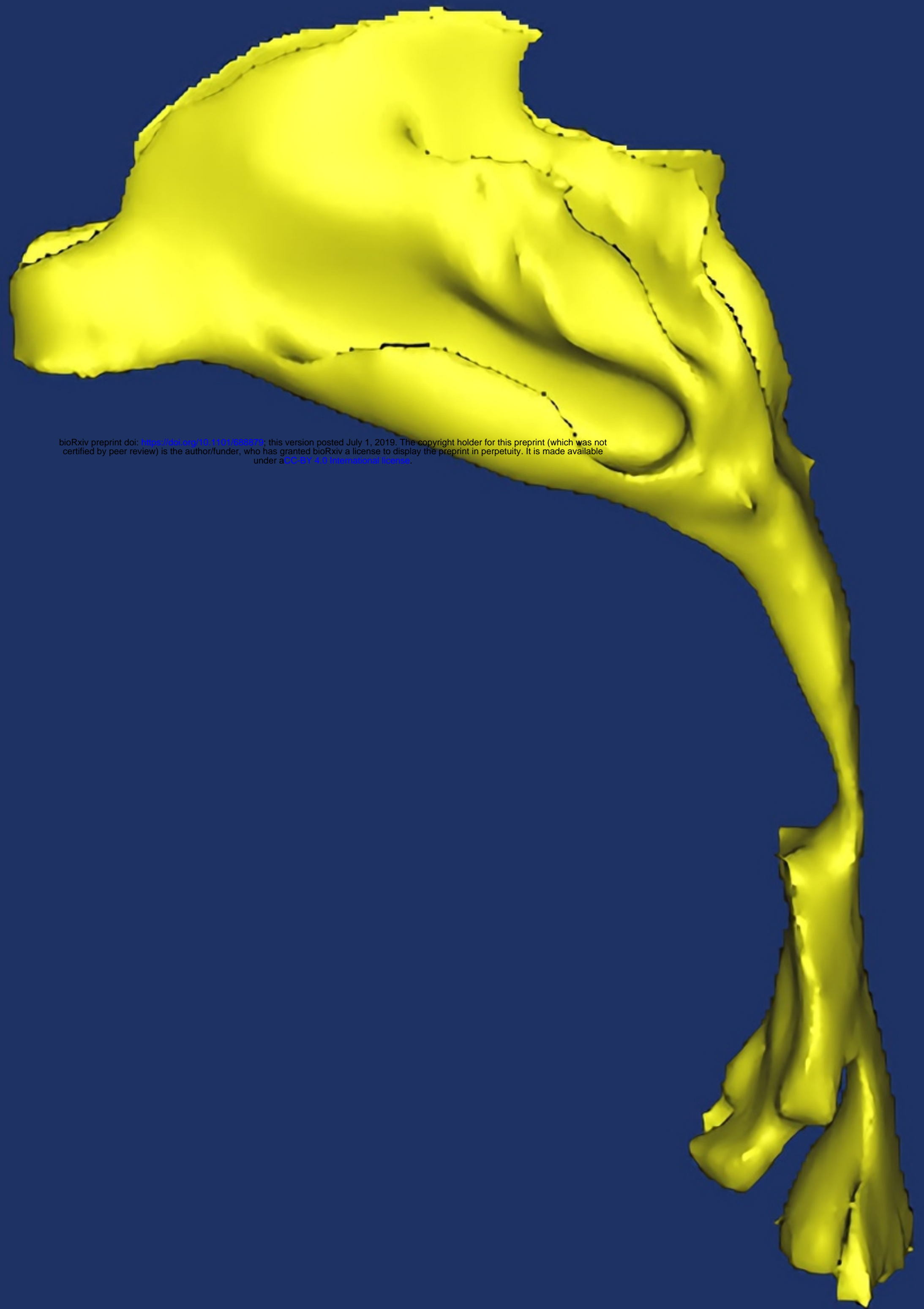
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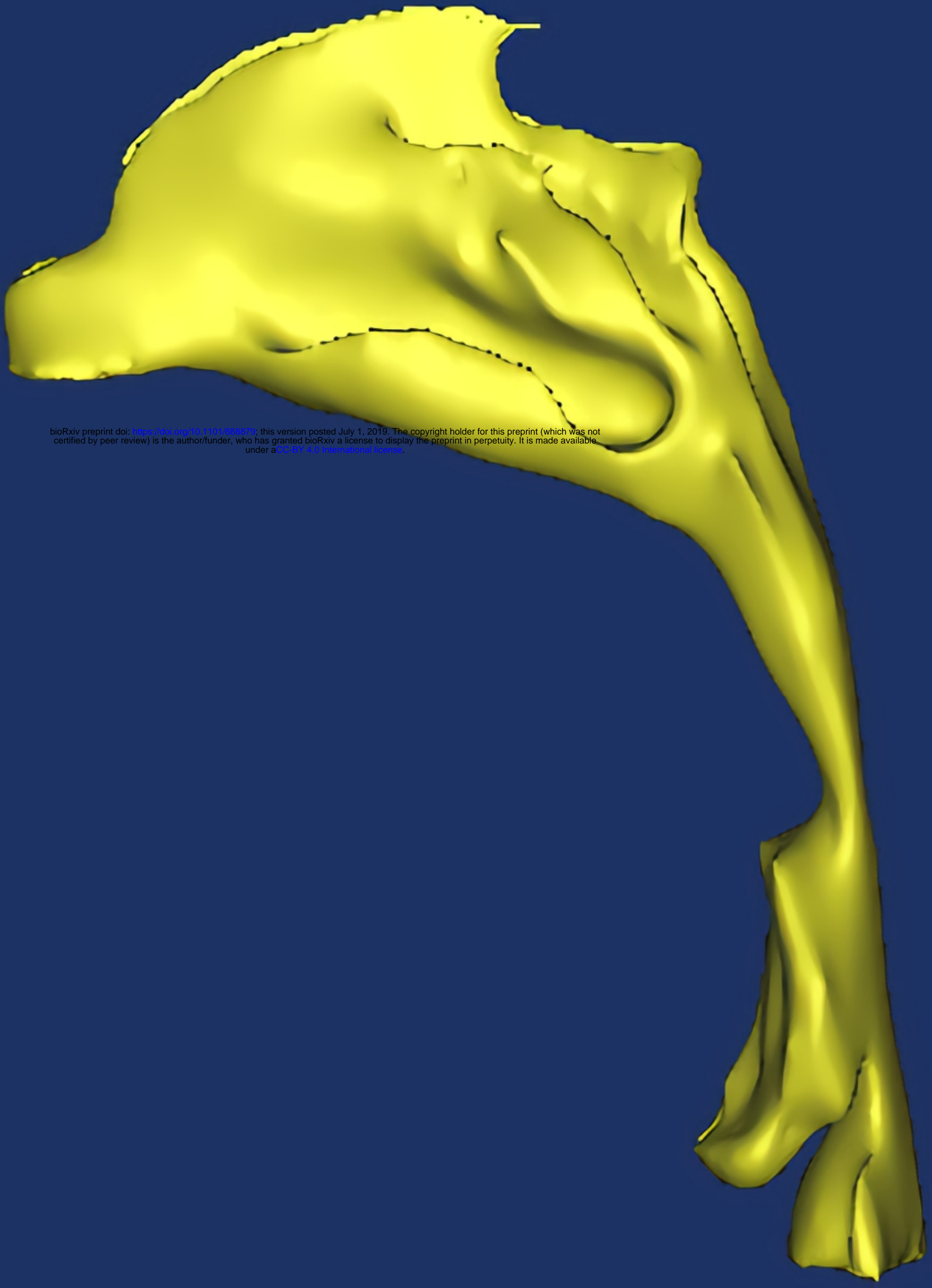
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Figure 1-a





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Figure 1-b

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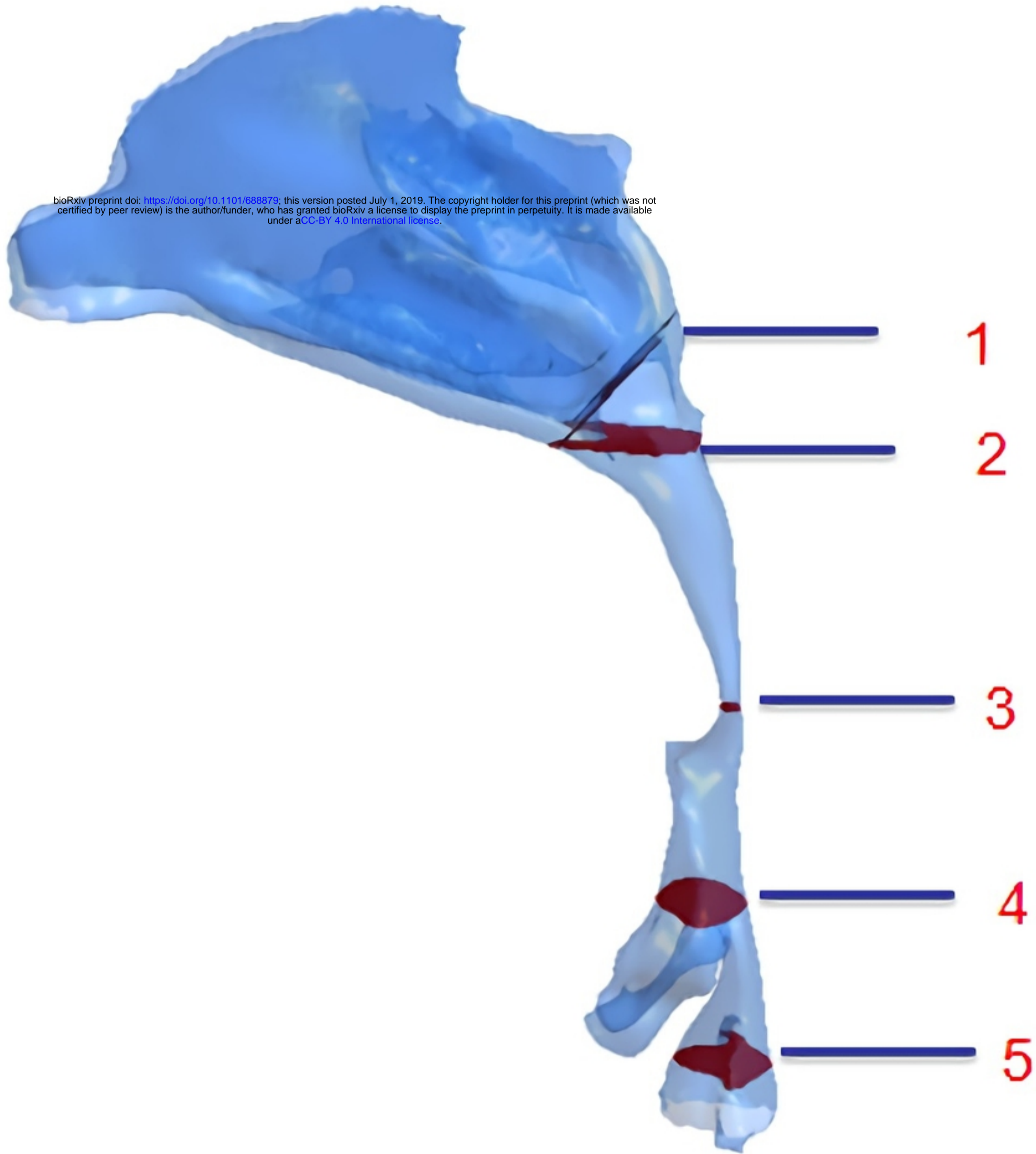


Figure 3



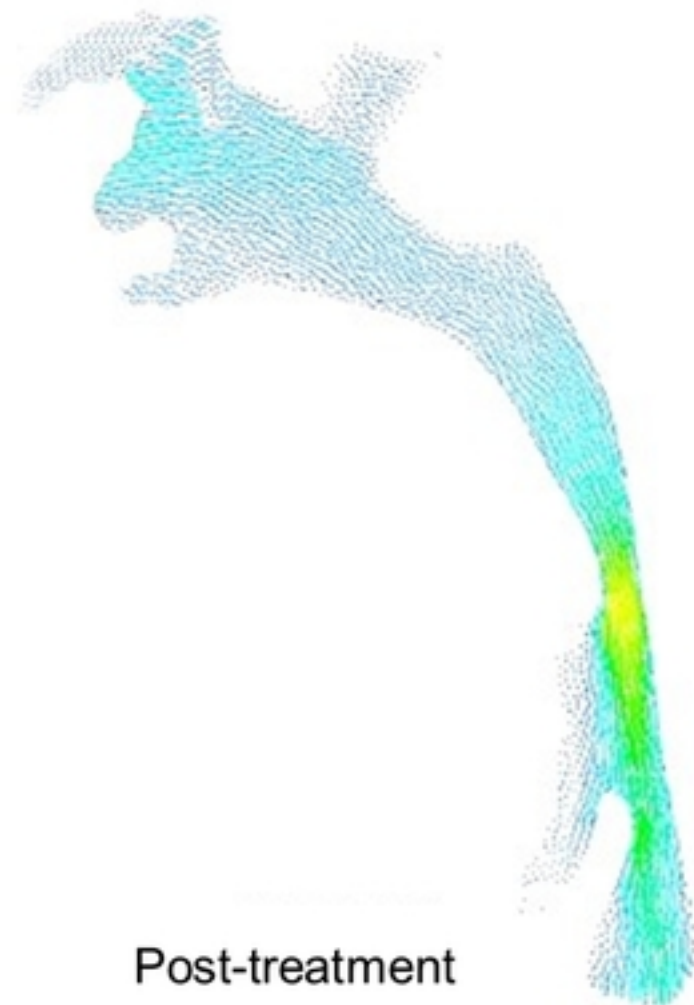
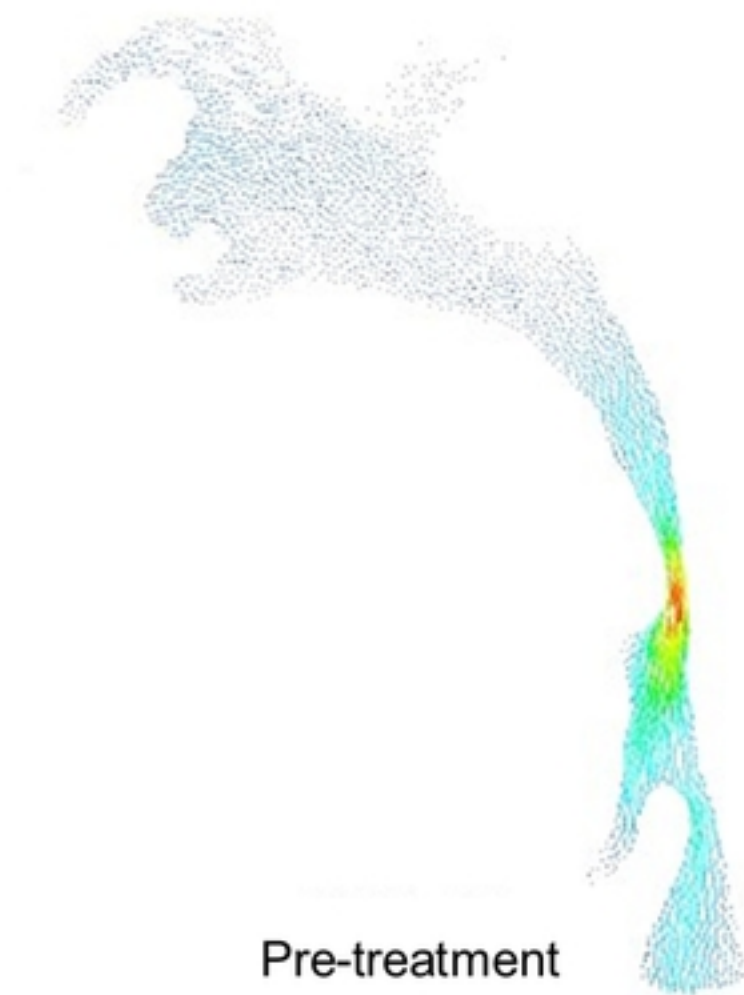
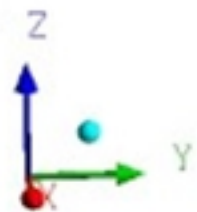
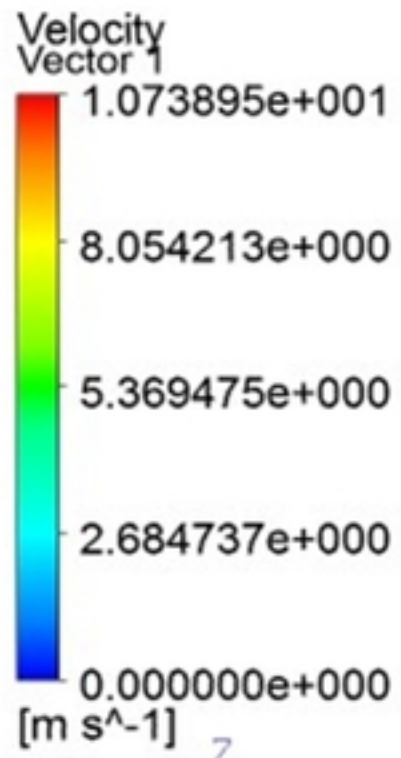


Figure 4

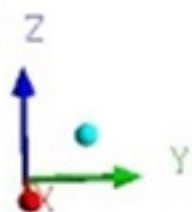
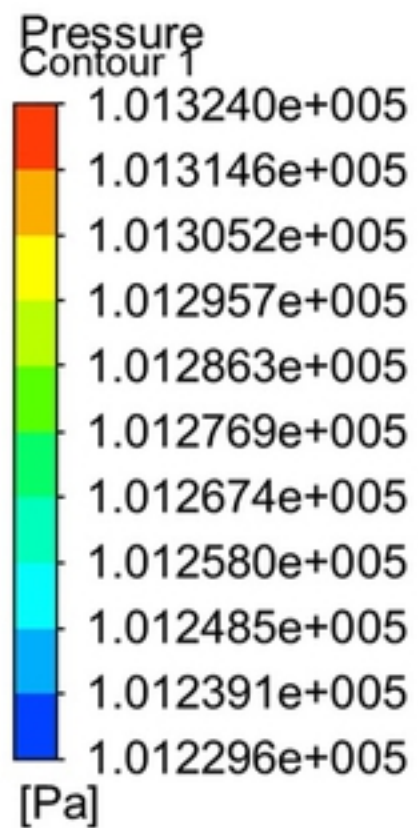


Figure 5

$r = -0.786$

$p = 0.0218$

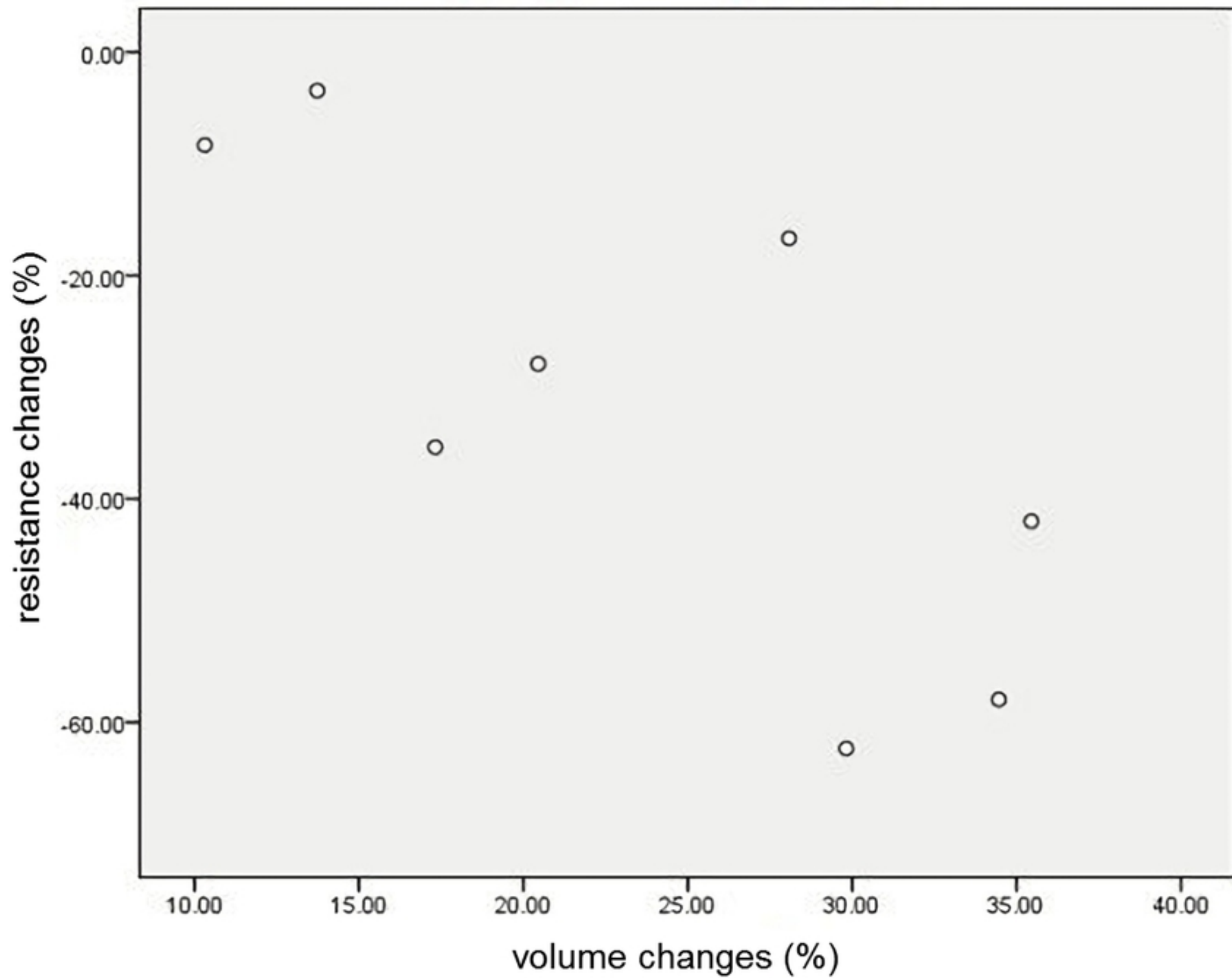


Figure 6-a

$r = -0.81$

$p = 0.0158$

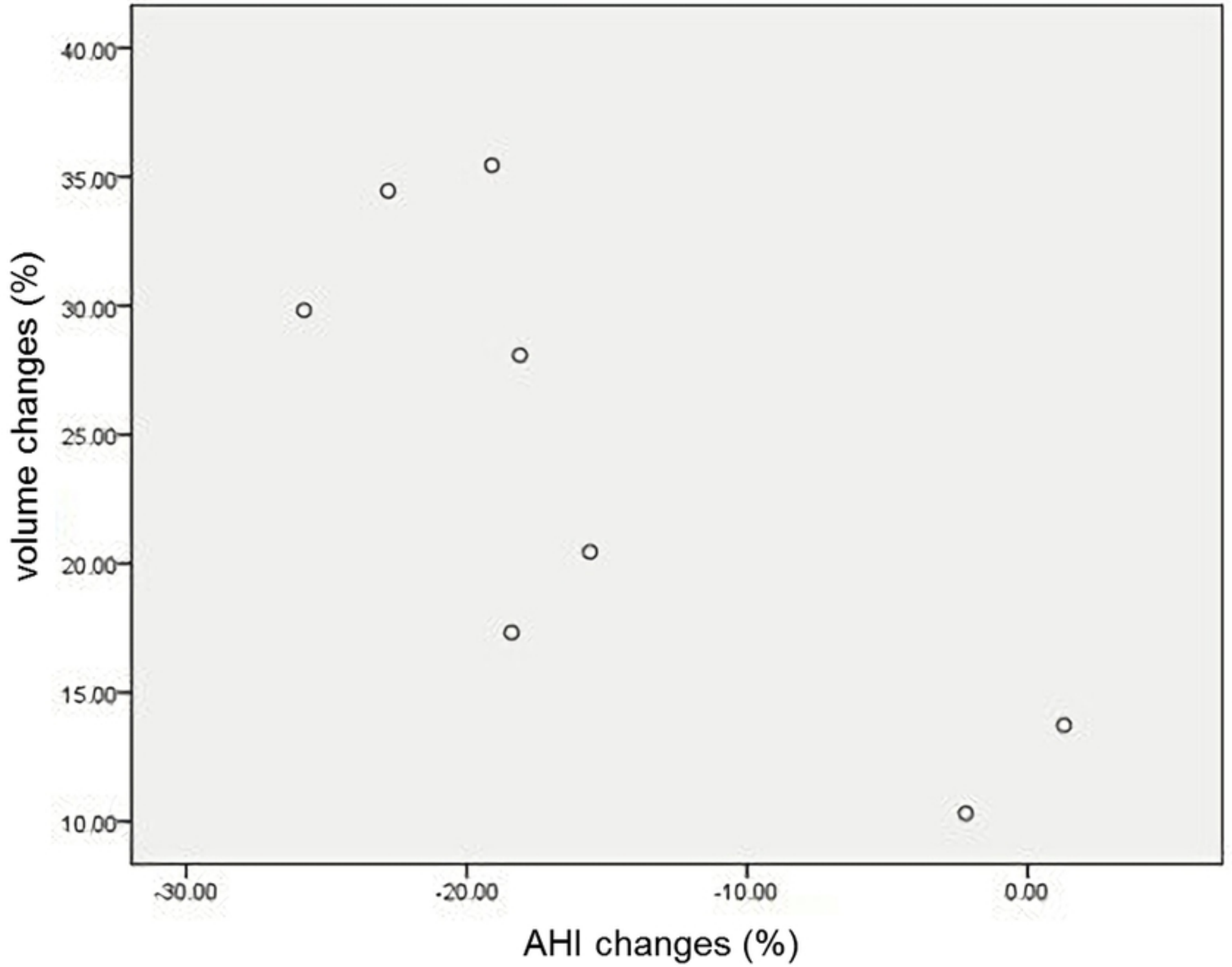


Figure 6-b

$r=0.976$

$p=0.0008$

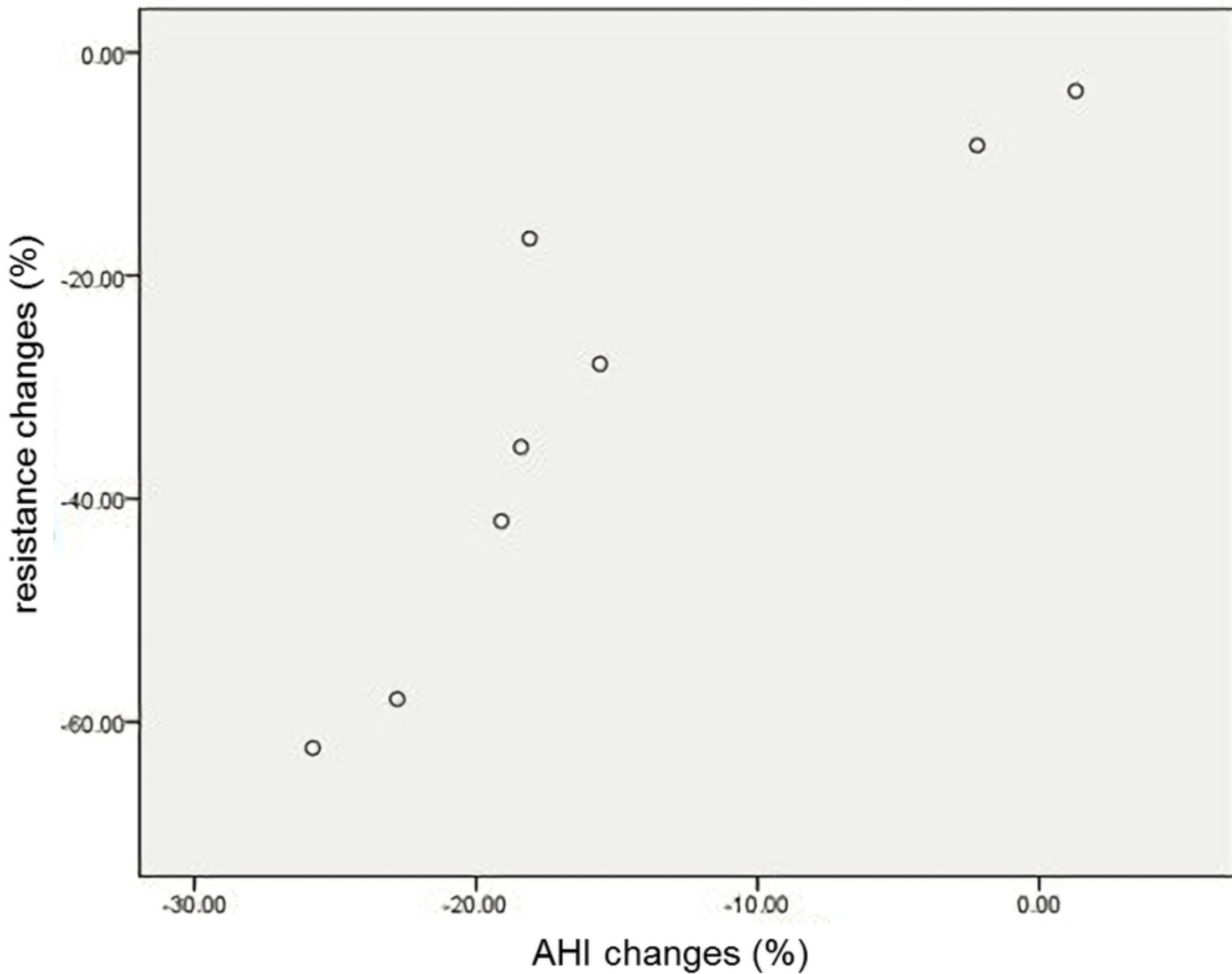


Figure 6-c

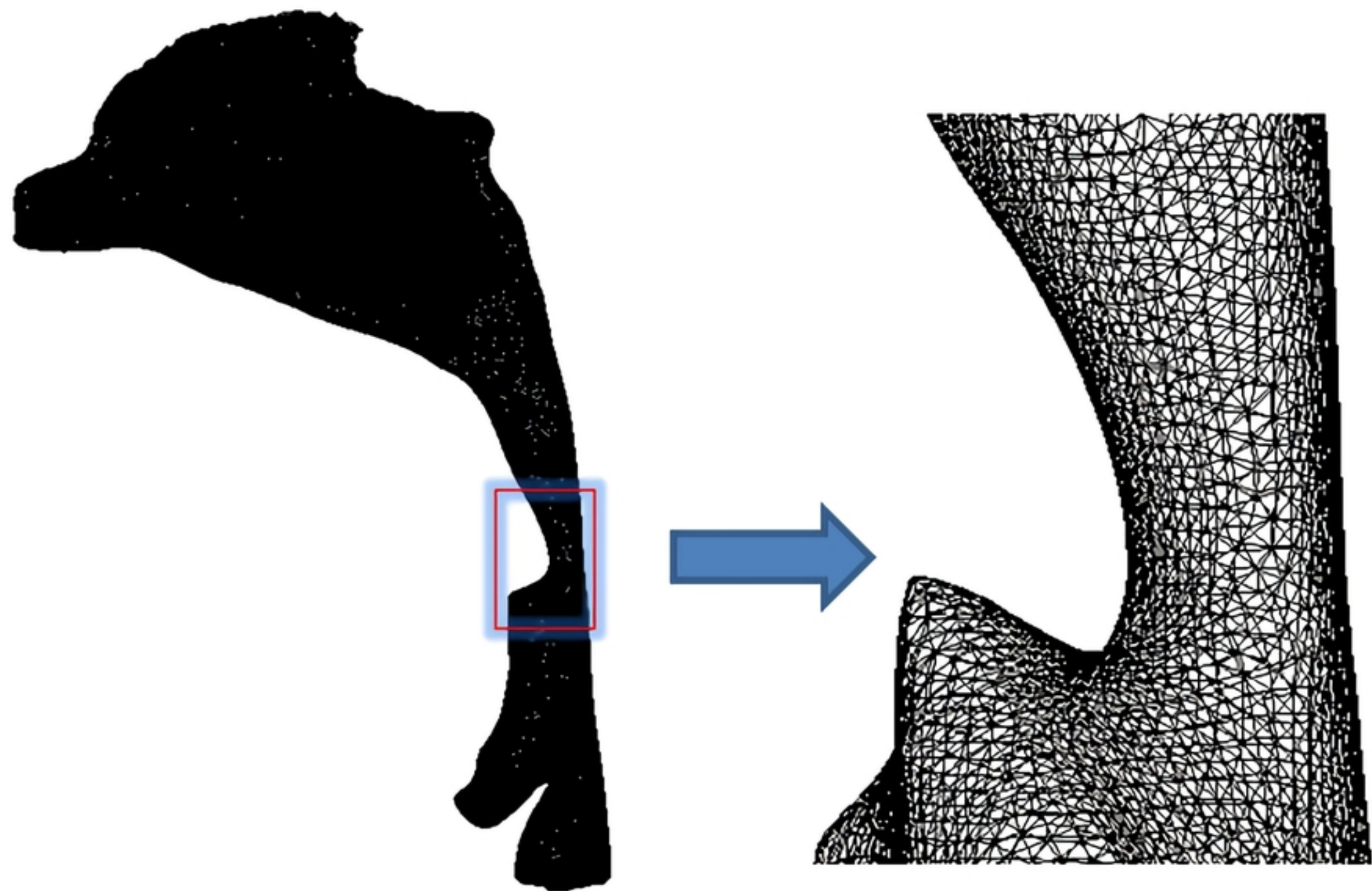


Figure 2