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1	Shear Stress Rosettes Capture the Complex Flow Physics in Diseased
2	Arteries
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#### 1 Abstract

2 Wall shear stress (WSS) is an important parameter in arterial mechanobiology. Various flow 3 metrics, such as time averaged WSS (TAWSS), oscillatory shear index (OSI), and transWSS, 4 have been used to characterize and relate possible WSS variations in arterial diseases like 5 aneurysms and atherosclerosis. We use a graphical representation of WSS using shear 6 rosettes to map temporal changes in the flow dynamics during a cardiac cycle at any spatial 7 location on the vessel surface. The presence of secondary flows and flow reversals can be 8 interpreted directly from the shape of the shear rosette. The mean WSS is given by the rosette 9 centroid, the OSI by the splay around the rosette origin, and the transWSS by its width. We 10 define a new metric, anisotropy ratio (AR), as the ratio of the length to width of the shear 11 rosette to capture flow bi-directionality. We characterized the flow physics in controls and 12 patient specific geometries of the ascending aorta (AA) and internal carotid artery (ICA) 13 which have fundamentally different flow dynamics due to differences in the Reynolds and 14 Womersley numbers. The differences in the flow dynamics are well reflected in the shapes 15 of the WSS rosettes and the corresponding flow metrics.

16

17 KEYWORDS: arterial flows, secondary flows and bidirectionality, shear metrics, aneurysms
18

#### 1. Introduction

2 Arterial curvature, coupled with flow pulsatility (Berger et al 1996), results in 3 formation of a rich variety of vortical structures (Sudo et al 1992; Timité, Castelain and 4 Peerhossaini 2010; Jarrahi et al 2011; Glenn et al 2012; Bulusu and Plesniak 2013), flow 5 reversals (Chandran and Yearwood 1981; Yearwood and Chandran 1982; Talbot and Gong 6 1983; Komai and Tanishita 1997), flow separations (Talbot and Gong 1983; Hamakiotes and 7 Berger 1988), and WSS stagnation/ fixed points (Arzani et al 2016; Arzani and Shadden 8 2018). Hemodynamics plays a fundamental role in the initiation, growth, and rupture of 9 atherosclerotic plaques and aneurysms (Ku 1997; Chatzizisis et al 2007; Chien 2007; Chiu 10 and Chien 2011; Chen et al 2013; Robertson and Watton 2013; Baeyens and Schwartz 2016; 11 Baeyens et al 2016). Wall shear stress (WSS), imposed on the endothelial cell (EC) layer 12 lining the arterial lumen, is a critical factor in maintaining vascular homeostasis via the 13 transduction of mechanical signals into specific biochemical pathways (Caro et al 1971; 14 Zarins et al 1983; Asakura and Karino 1990; Malek et al 1999). Regions of low WSS creates 15 complex hemodynamics that induces the creation of oxygen free radicals in addition to 16 apoptosis and migration of the vascular smooth muscle cells in the arterial wall (Penn et al 17 2011). Elevated WSS and high positive spatial WSS gradient are both implicated in the 18 initiation and rupture of aneurysms (Kulcsár et al 2011).

Various shear metrics have been used to characterize possible links between
hemodynamic stimuli and vessel dysfunction. Oscillatory Shear Index (OSI), Aneurysm
Formation Indicator (AFI), Time Averaged Wall Shear Stress (TAWSS), Relative Residence
Time (RRT), and gradients in the WSS are some of the many indices, primarily defined based
on unidirectional flows, which are used to describe aneurysm growth rates (Mantha *et al*2006). A few metrics, such as Directional Oscillatory Shear Index (DOSI) and transWSS, are
based on bi-directional WSS (Chakraborty *et al* 2012; Peiffer *et al* 2013; Peiffer *et al* 2013;

Wang et al 2013; Morbiducci et al 2015). Each of the different shear metrics describe 1 2 different features of the complex changes in WSS. Polar plots or shear rosettes, showing 3 variations in the WSS at a given spatial location as a function of time, provide a more 4 complete and useful representation of the flow physics as compared to shear metrics alone. 5 Suo and colleagues were among the early researchers to present polar plots to explore the 6 differences in the magnitude and direction of the WSS in atherogenesis (Suo et al, 2007). 7 Their data showed the importance of changes in the WSS magnitude or direction which 8 correspond with higher expression of atherogenic proteins. More recent studies in orbital 9 shakers use shear rosettes to quantify the role of shear stress in the radial and tangential 10 directions in endothelial cell morphology (Potter et al, 2011; Weinberg et al, 2017; Weinberg 11 et al, 2018). However, there has been little discussion and interpretation of the rosettes and 12 their relationship to the different shear metrics and to physics of arterial flows. 13 In this study, we show how the shape and size of the shear rosette is a complementary 14 method that provides useful information on the complete details regarding the WSS 15 variations environment over a cardiac cycle. The rosette is not a substitute for any proposed 16 metrics in the literature but may be used to infer. We graphically relate the shear rosette to the 17 directions and values of the TAWSS variations, mean WSS, OSI and transWSS metrics at a 18 point in the flow during a cardiac cycle. We compute flows in two different geometries of 19 arteries corresponding to a large artery, the ascending aorta and a small artery, the internal 20 carotid artery (ICA). Flows in these vessels are different as they have significantly different 21 Reynolds numbers (Re) and Womersley number  $(\alpha)$ . We define the anisotropy ratio metric 22 (AR), intimately linked to the secondary flows, as an alternate method to capture the 23 bidirectionality in WSS and can be easily inferred from the shapes of the shear rosettes by 24 taking the ratio of the length to width of the rosette. Changes in the endothelial morphologies 25 under steady, oscillating, and disturbed flow conditions are causally linked to differential

inflammatory and atherogenic gene expression levels that lead to atherosclerotic plaque
formation (Chiu and Chien, 2011). The shear rosette may be used in studies to infer the
signaling pathways involved in the mechanosensing effects of shear stress magnitude, flow
frequency, and flow direction that contribute to athero-susceptibility (Baeyens and Schwartz,
2016). An understanding of the local flow conditions in arteries is a first step to exploring the
effects of mechanical factors on EC signalling that have the potential to aid in the diagnosis
and treatment options in cardiovascular disease (Chiu and Chien, 2011).

2. Methods

8

# 9 2.1 Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulations in patient specific models of AA 10 and ICA

11 We include patient specific geometries of an aortic aneurysm (AA) and ICA and the 12 corresponding control geometries for both these vessels. CT data from a 54 year old male 13 patient undergoing thoracic aortic repair *via* a Bentall procedure at the Narayana Health 14 hospital in Bangalore, India was used to construct the geometry of AA based on methods 15 described in Appendix A (Figure 1b). Informed consent was obtained based on established 16 IRB approved protocols at the Institute and hospital. Control AA geometry, consisted of a 17 180° curved circular pipe of diameter 32 mm and curvature ratio,  $\beta$  (a/R) = 0.38 (Figure 1a). We reconstructed a realistic model of ICA, sans sub-branches, using an open-source aneurisk 18 19 database (patient id: C0088b) to have a constant diameter from the centreline coordinates of 20 the artery (Aneurisk-Team, 2012). The control ICA geometry had a length of 72 mm from the 21 inlet, and curvatures in multiple planes such that the maximum curvature ratio  $\sim 0.7$  (Figure 22 1c). We also used the geometry of an ICA from a patient with sidewall intracranial aneurysm 23 (Figure1d) from the European @neurIST database (Villa-Uriol et al 2011, Chen et al 2013). 24 Typical Re,  $\alpha$ , Dean's numbers and  $\beta$  in the AA are ~3000, 34, ~1900 and ~0.38 whereas 25 these are ~450, 3, ~400 and range from 0.3-0.7 for the ICA.

1	Reconstructed geometries were imported into ANSYS® ICEM CFD 13.0 (ANSYS
2	Inc., Canonsburg, Pennsylvania) and unstructured meshes were created (Appendix A). Walls
3	were assumed to be rigid, and the fluid was modelled to be Newtonian with constant density
4	$(\rho = 1055 \ kg/m^3)$ and dynamic viscosity $(\mu = 0.0049 \ Ns/m^2)$ . We used mass flow
5	boundary condition at the inlet and constant pressure boundary condition at the outlet. The
6	volume flow rate in the AA geometries was specified (Figure 2a) corresponding to
7	physiological flow rates (Olufsen et al 2000). Regions marked blue correspond to the
8	acceleration, red the deceleration, and black, the dwell phase. Similarly, a physiological
9	volume flow rate corresponding to the ICA was specified at the inlets for the geometry
10	(Figure 1c) and are shown in Figure 2b. The dwell phase is clearly absent in the ICA case as
11	compared to AA which has dwell phase of 0.7s. The volume flow rate (inlet) and pressure
12	(outlet) waveforms used with the ICA were extracted from a 1D model of the artery from the
13	@neufuse software (Reymond et al 2009). The governing Navier-Stokes equations along
14	with the boundary conditions were solved using a commercial finite-volume based solver
15	(ANSYS <sup>®</sup> FLUENT 13.0). A time step of 10 <sup>-3</sup> s was used for all geometries and the criterion
16	for convergence for residuals was set below $10^{-5}$ for each of the continuity and the three
17	velocity components in each case. Grid independence studies were carried out based on the
18	following criterion: the RMS difference of WSS between successive meshes was less than
19	2% of the RMS of the WSS over one cardiac cycle. The number of cells were doubled until
20	this criterion was met. Flow cycle independence was also checked until the shear rosettes
21	were time periodic to eliminate the initial transient effects (details in Appendix A). Four
22	cardiac cycles were simulated and results corresponding to the last cycle are reported in this
23	study. Grid and flow cycle independence were achieved for the control aorta, ICA control,
24	and ICA aneurysm. The number of elements for each geometry are included in Appendix A.
25	

#### 3. Results and Discussion

2 There are two main contributions of this study. First, we map the fluid dynamics in 3 AA and ICA geometries where flows are very different. Pulsatility is higher in AA whereas 4 flow in smaller vessels, like ICA, are less pulsatile (Berger et al 1996). We show that the 5 different flows features are better represented using shear rosettes. Rosette size gives a 6 measure of the magnitude of WSS whereas its shape represents the bi-directionality extent. 7 Second, we show that the shear rosette allows us to obtain a graphical understanding of the 8 different hemodynamic metrics. Table I lists definitions of relevant metrics with brief 9 descriptions.

#### 10 3.1 Shear rosettes present a pictorial representation of the WSS

11 Figure 3 shows numerical simulations for control AA geometry that were done using -12 We used a toroidal coordinate system where  $\psi$ -direction is in the stream-wise direction and 13  $\phi$  is in the azimuth (Appendix A). Axial velocity contours with superimposed velocity 14 vectors are shown on three transverse planes (P45, P90 & P135) and the medial plane for 15 time points corresponding to peak velocity (Figure 3a) and at the end of systole (Figure 3b). 16 Strong secondary flows along the walls, continually changing in time, and caused by an 17 imbalance between the radial pressure gradient and centrifugal forces, are observed in the AA 18 (Krishna et al, 2017). During the diastolic phase, flow separations occur on the inner wall 19 which are clearly seen in the transverse plane (Figure 3b). Such separations are typical of 20 large arteries with curvatures (Chandran and Yearwood, 1981; Hamakiotes and Berger, 21 1988).

Figure 4 shows the shear rosettes at select points on the plane marked P135 corresponding to flow in the control AA geometry at the 135° plane. These points are individual grid elements in the geometry. WSS in a straight pipe with unsteady flow is aligned along the axial direction. Because of the presence of secondary flows and separations,

1 the shear stress in curved pipes need not be oriented along the axial direction. We choose two local reference directions  $\hat{s}$  and  $\hat{b}$  to characterize the shear rosettes at a given point on the 2 3 wall.  $\hat{s}$  was defined as the WSS direction at the first time step of the first cardiac cycle from the numerical simulations.  $\hat{b}$  was perpendicular to  $\hat{s}$  and is the local surface normal. 4 5 Secondary flows are absent at the start of the first cardiac cycle. Thus  $\hat{s}$  gives the direction of 6 flow before viscous effects manifest themselves. Other reference directions, such as the 7 direction of the average WSS, may also be chosen which would only change the orientation 8 of the rosette.

9 The WSS vector changes magnitude and direction through the cardiac cycle. 10 Component of the WSS vector in the axial direction ( $\tau_s$ ), marked 0°, is due to the axial flow whereas the component of the WSS vector along  $\hat{b}(\tau_b)$  is due to the secondary flows. In a 11 shear rosette, we plot the magnitude and direction of the WSS at each instant of the cardiac 12 13 cycle. Arrows in the rosette at location **H** B (Figure 1a) are at equally spaced time intervals 14 (Figure 4a). Rosette segments are color-coded for the different phases in the physiological 15 profile (Figure 2). Circles about the origin in the rosette plot indicate constant WSS magnitudes. The principal directions are labelled '1' and '2';  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  refer to the WSS 16 17 components in the principal directions (Appendix B).

#### 18 3.2 Relationship between rosette and the various shear metrics for the AA geometry

19 The secondary flow velocities in the AA are small during the initial phase of the 20 cardiac cycle (Krishna *et al*, 2017) and the WSS vectors at all spatial locations are hence 21 oriented in the axial direction,  $\theta=0^{\circ}$ . The angular position, indicated by  $\theta$ , is the polar 22 coordinate in the shear rosette marked in the anticlockwise direction starting from the 23 reference direction,  $\hat{s}$ . WSS values are shown for each rosette in magenta. Filled circles are 24 also indicated corresponding to points representing the maximum acceleration (red), 25 deceleration (blue), and mean value of WSS (black) in each rosette. Tabulated values show

1 the relevant flow metrics at these locations. Changes in the WSS magnitude and direction at 2 point H B (Figure 4b) are due to strong secondary flows (Krishna et al, 2017). The various 3 shear metrics are indicated for this rosette. TAWSS is calculated as the time average of the 4 WSS magnitude and represents the average length of the arrows in the shear rosette. Because 5 TAWSS is a time averaged quantity, a higher weightage is given to WSS values that occur 6 over longer time durations. The mean shear stress (meanWSS) is the time average of the 7 WSS vector, indicated with a magenta circle (Figure 4b) and is not at the rosette centroid 8 because ~60% of the cardiac cycle (Figure 2a) relates to the dwell phase (shown using black 9 in the figure 4) when flow rate and WSS values are very small (meanWSS~1.36 Pa, and 10 TAWSS ~1.71 Pa).

11 OSI relates oscillations in WSS about the origin along one direction (=0.09 for this 12 case) and does not reflect the presence of the disturbed flows (Ku et al 1985; Andersson et al 13 2017). A rosette that does not enclose the origin has an OSI =0 even though there may be 14 large variations in the WSS. The corresponding transWSS metric (=0.83), defined as the 15 time-averaged value of the transverse component of the WSS vector, is based on flow bi-16 directionality and is related to the width of the rosette when the principal direction is in the 17 direction of mean shear stress (Table I). For flows with 0 mean WSS vector, such as in 18 purely oscillatory flows, purely circular flows, or where the dominant flow is oscillatory, 19 transWSS gives artefactual values (Peiffer et al, 2013). Morbiducci and coworkers defined 20 the R measure as averaged ratio of the WSS in the secondary and axial directions over the 21 cardiac cycle (Morbiducci et al, 2015). Because this measure is an averaged quantity, it may 22 not give a complete description of the flow bidirectionality. An alternate metric to capture 23 WSS bidirectionality is the anisotropic ratio (AR) which is calculated by taking the ratio of 24 projections of the shear rosette along the minor to the major axes,

25 
$$AR = \frac{\tau_{2(max)} - \tau_{2(min)}}{\tau_{1(max)} - \tau_{1(min)}} = \frac{L_2}{L_1}$$
(1)

AR is the ratio of the width to length of the rosette along the principal directions. AR has a
 value of 0 for unidirectional flows and 1 for equibiaxial flows. AR=0.81 for the rosette in
 Figure 4b.

4 Figures 4c and 4d show rosettes at points G A and I C (Figure 1a) along with values 5 of relevant flow metrics. The flow is symmetric about the medial plane where secondary 6 flows are absent. There are marked differences in the rosette shapes as we traverse from the 7 outer to the inner wall for a given transverse plane. The maximum bidirectionality is at ~ 8  $\phi = 135^{\circ}$  (Figure 4b) where the secondary flow is the strongest. At  $\phi = 45^{\circ}$ , the secondary 9 flows are significantly weaker which results in a smaller rosette. The various shear metrics 10 are hence correspondingly smaller as compared to the rosette in Figure 4b. The shear rosette 11 at  $\phi = 180^{\circ}$  (point I) corresponds to a unidirectional, oscillatory flow, thus AR and transWSS 12 values are both zero. Because of shear stress reversals, the OSI value is high (=0.48) and is 13 close to the maximum possible value of 0.5. The low flow rates during the diastolic phase 14 lead to small values of WSS at these locations.

#### 15 3.3 Flow metrics in the control ICA and patient specific geometry of ICA with aneurysm

16 The flow in the control ICA is mainly quasi-steady and unidirectional in the absence 17 of branches and other geometric distortions due to aneurysms etc. Secondary flow, caused by 18 curvature, is however generally present. Figure 5a show streamlines at peak velocity in a 19 control geometry of ICA which includes regions with curvatures ranging from 0.3-0.7. 20 Although, the average velocities in the ICA are similar in magnitude to those in the AA, the 21 WSS is significantly higher. Helical streamlines clearly show the presence of both axial and 22 secondary components of velocity. Secondary flow is clearly visible in the transverse cross-23 section (Figure 5b) at point D corresponding to the point of high curvature where WSS value 24 is the maximum. We note that this flow is different from Dean's flow where we clearly see 25 the presence of two vortices with flow in the core moving radially outward (Berger et al,

1983). The shear rosette corresponding to this point demonstrates the unidirectional nature of
 flow with significantly higher WSS variations as compared to those seen for AA (Figure 4).
 Because the flow is unidirectional and the velocity magnitude is proportional to the flow rate
 at that time, the shear rosettes lie nearly along straight lines. The TAWSS value at this point
 (Table II) is lower than the rosette centroid value due to the low stress values which occur
 over longer time durations when the flow rates are small.

7 The quasi-steady flow in control ICA makes the shear rosettes very different from 8 those in control AA. Stress rosettes at the other three locations (Figure 5c-f) show varying 9 magnitudes of mean and fluctuations in the WSS in addition to indicating the unidirectional 10 flows. At point C, WSS is along  $\theta$ =315° which indicates similar contributions from the axial 11 and secondary components. The rosettes for ICA show significantly higher values of WSS as 12 compared to AA. Because the rosettes do not cross the origin, the OSI values are zero at all 13 these locations. The AR and transWSS values are low in the control ICA in comparison to the 14 control AA due to the unidirectional flows in the ICA.

15 Flows in patient specific geometries are more complicated due to changing cross-16 sections and the presence of branches that result in larger TAWSS variations. ICA with 17 aneurysm (Figure 6) has shear rosettes with irregular shapes as compared to AA. Rosettes 18 have nearly straight lines except at few locations that show some bi-directionality (e.g. points 19 A and C); the flow is nearly unidirectional at points B, D, and E. Figure 6d shows several 20 reversals in the transverse component of WSS about the principal axis. Within the aneurysm, 21 WSS values are low due to low velocities. In contrast, high values of WSS are seen 22 downstream of the aneurysm due to vessel lumen narrowing. The curvatures in the complex 23 patient specific ICA geometry model were in the similar range ( $0.3 \le \beta \le 0.7$ ) as the control 24 ICA geometry. However, the patient specific complex geometry shows higher values of 25 TAWSS, additional shear reversals, and the presence of shear stress bi-directionality as

1 compared to control ICA. These factors may be causally linked to mechanobiological

2 processes that ultimately lead to aneurysm rupture or stability in these vessels.

3 3.4 Spatial distributions of flow metrics for control and patient specific geometries of aorta

4 Spatial distributions of flow metrics (TAWSS, OSI, AR and transWSS) are shown for 5 the control AA and ICA in addition to patient specific geometries of AA and ICA in Figure7. 6 The regions of high OSI values, just downstream of the curved section in the AA geometry, 7 are correlated with regions of low TAWSS where the flow is likely to be highly disturbed. 8 There is hence little correspondence between the distributions of OSI and transWSS metrics. 9 OSI has been widely used to explore pulsatility effects of the flow (Ku et al 1985) and relate 10 them to mass transport (Ku et al 1985) (Arzani et.al, 2017). The OSI is related to WSS 11 fluctuation about the origin in the rosette and relates neither to the amplitude of WSS 12 fluctuations nor the flow bi-directionality. Large OSI values are linked to changes in the WSS 13 vector that induces mass accumulation; low OSI correlates with regions that have smaller 14 changes in the WSS vector. 15 Regions of elevated AR in the control AA geometry correspond to regions where the 16 secondary flows are high (points B, E, H in Figure 1a; Figure 5). There are no secondary 17 flows in straight sections of tubes where AR = 0. AR and transWSS account for flow

18 bidirectionality, and values of these metrics are higher in curved sections of the patient

19 specific AA geometry due to presence of secondary flows (Figure 7).

20 Many locations in the ICA with aneurysm have TAWSS values > 10 that appear red 21 in the figure. In most locations, the AR values are low. In contrast to the control ICA, the AR 22 values are higher for the ICA with aneurysm and the flows are more bi-directional. The 23 transWSS metric is similar to AR since both metrics are related to the transverse component 24 of WSS. However, transWSS measures only the component perpendicular to the mean shear 25 stress vector and is dimensional. In contrast, AR is a non-dimensional quantity that is a direct

measure of bidirectionality. For example, the large magnitude of WSS over the cardiac cycle
is responsible for the relatively high transWSS in regions where the secondary flows are
present although the rosette has low bi-directionality.

4 Shear rosette descriptions at critical locations, identified from spatial distributions of 5 the different metrics (example Figure 7), are essential in linking the flow physics to the 6 underlying endothelial mechanobiology. The endothelial cell monolayer provides a direct 7 link between fluid stress and the vessel wall constituents. EC morphology is elongated in the 8 direction of flow under unidirectional flow conditions (Davies et al, 1984; Chien, 2007; Chiu 9 and Chien, 2011; Baeyens and Schwartz, 2016). Disturbed blood flows, caused by flow 10 recirculation, separations, and other phenomena, play a critical role in vascular homeostasis 11 through changes to the gene expression levels of various atherogenic and thromogenic 12 signaling molecules in the EC monolayer. These changes are shown to enhance endothelial 13 turnover and modulate smooth muscle cell migrations in the arterial wall (Langille and 14 O'Donnell, 1986; Cheng et al, 2006; Chiu and Chien, 2011). Cellular morphology alters to a 15 less organized one with near-polygonal shapes in regions of disturbed flows that induce and 16 sustain the activation of several atherogenic genes (Davies, 1995; Chiu and Chien, 2011). Ku 17 and coworkers were among the earliest researchers to explore the correlations between 18 atherosclerosis-prone regions in arteries with disturbed flows (Ku et al, 1985). ECs do not 19 show their characteristic elongated phenotype in atheroprone regions which suggests a causal 20 role for cellular alignment in modulating inflammatory pathways. Based on these studies, 21 they hypothesized the importance of oscillatory shear reversals in plaque formation. In vitro 22 studies of perpendicular flows to aligned EC monolayers shows an increase in inflammatory 23 pathways as compared to flows in the aligned cell orientations that have anti-inflammatory 24 signaling (Wang et al, 2013). The transverse component of WSS may hence play a dominant 25 role in plaque formation rather than WSS oscillations (Peiffer et al., 2013; Mohamied et al.,

1	2015). Multidirectional flow metrics, including DOSI, transWSS, and decomposition of WSS
2	along the axial and secondary directions, have been used to characterize regions of disturbed
3	flow dynamics and linked to endothelial monolayer permeability, inflammatory markers, and
4	remodeling (Chakraborty et al, 2012; Peiffer et al, 2013; Morbiducci et al, 2015; Dabagh et
5	al, 2017). Changes in the flow dynamics near the wall affects species transport and increases
6	cell permeability. These lead to increased leucocyte transmigration in the wall and a
7	subsequent degradation of the extracellular matrix (Wilson et al, 2012; Babu et al, 2015;
8	Arzani and Shadden, 2016; Dabagh et al, 2017). Experimental studies show that the dominant
9	principal flow direction is a better predictor of cellular alignment under bidirectional flows;
10	EC align to minimize the shear stress along the transverse axis (Ghim et al, 2017;
11	Chakraborty et al, 2012). Mechanosensors that are hypothesized to mediate the endothelial
12	response to shear stress include the endothelial glycocalyx, G protein-coupled receptors, ion
13	channels, adherens junctions and integrin-mediated cell-matrix adhesions (Chiu and Chien,
14	2011; Baeyens et al, 2014; Peiffer et al., 2013). Recent studies show the importance of a
15	transmembrane proteoglycan, syndecan-4, in the directional mechano-sensing adaption
16	response of ECs (Baeyens et al, 2014). The specific mechanisms of directional WSS sensing
17	by EC and their links to plaque formation are, however, presently unknown. Shear rosettes
18	give detailed information of the flow dynamics allowing links between mechanics and
19	biology.

#### 20 **4.** Conclusions

We compared the distributions of TAWSS, OSI, and transWSS in control and patient specific geometries of AA with aneurysm and the ICA with aneurysm. We use a shear rosette representation to give a complete and immediate picture of the variations in the WSS over a cardiac cycle. Most existing metrics can be immediately assessed using the rosette geometric properties. The rosette centroid is related to the mean WSS, splay about the origin gives the

1 OSI values, it's width yields an estimate of transWSS value when the principal direction is in 2 the direction of mean shear stress, and the ratio of the length to the width of the rosette gives 3 the AR. TAWSS gives the time average of the WSS alone but does not characterize the 4 temporal variations of magnitude and direction of WSS which occur during the cardiac cycle. 5 OSI captures the pulsatility during the cardiac cycle only when the WSS values cross the 6 origin and also does not account for the flow bidirectionality. The AR metric proposed in this 7 study is a direct measure of the ratio of the two transverse components when resolved along 8 the principal directions. The transWSS and AR metrics capture the bi-directional nature of 9 the flow and hence yield similar distributions in the geometries considered in our study. 10 However, in contrast to transWSS, AR is a direct measure of bidirectionality, is bounded 11 between 0 and 1, and is non-dimensional. The shear rosette is a more fundamental and 12 complete representation of the flow dynamics in arteries and may be used to better assess the 13 correlation between WSS and EC morphologies.

14

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#### 6. Conflict of interest statement

2 None of the authors have any conflicts of interests to declare regarding the3 submission.

4

5

#### 7. Appendix A. Patient specific models of arteries

6 CT images were acquired before the surgical repair and the vessel geometries were 7 extracted using Mimics 10.01 (Materialise, Leuven, Belgium). The CT data has voxel 8 dimensions of 1.24 x 1.24 x 0.789 mm<sup>3</sup>. The images were segmented to isolate the aorta and 9 bones from the surrounding soft tissue, and a region growing algorithm was used to create a 10 mask for reconstructing the 3D model. The mask was truncated above the coronary arteries 11 and in the region below the descending aorta above the renal arteries. The Branchiocephalic 12 Artery (BCA), the Left Common Carotid Artery (LCCA), and the Left Subclavian Artery 13 (LSA), and all other intercoastal arteries were truncated; the latter accounts for less than 1% 14 of the blood flow (Olufsen et al 2000). In addition, the BCA, LCCA and LSA were clipped 15 where the BCA splits into the right common carotid artery and the right subclavian artery. 16 This cropped mask was used to construct the initial 3D geometry as an STL file using contour 17 interpolation between the CT scanned slices. Finally, each clipped branch was extended in 18 length by approximately one diameter. The inlet of the curved section was about 8 diameters 19 in length and the outlet was 4 diameters in length. Because the chosen inlet length was >  $U_i(t)dt$ , we expect the presence of fully developed flows in the curved section. $U_i(t)$  is  $\int_{0}^{T}$ 20 21 the area averaged axial velocity and T the time period of the cardiac cycle. The full extended 22 lengths at the inlet and outlet of the control AA used in the computation are not shown in 23 Figure 1a. Figure 1b shows the AA geometry with aneurysm before surgery. 24 In addition to the AA geometry, we used a realistic model (patient id: C0088b) of

25 ICA, available at open-source aneurisk database, that was reconstructed with constant

1	diameter from the centreline coordinates of the artery (Aneurisk-Team, 2012). The sub-
2	branches were removed, and the inlet and outlet sections were added similar to the procedure
3	for the control AA model. The final geometry had curvatures in multiple planes with no sub-
4	branches with a length of 72 mm from the inlet and served as a control ICA geometry (Figure
5	1c). The maximum curvature ratio was ~0.7 in the control geometry of the ICA. We also
6	selected the geometry of a patient with sidewall intracranial aneurysm (Figure1d) using the
7	European @neurIST project (Villa-Uriol <i>et al</i> , 2011, Chen <i>et al</i> , 2013). Typical Re, $\alpha$ and
8	Dean's numbers in the AA are $\sim$ 3000, 34 and $\sim$ 1900 whereas these are $\sim$ 450, 3 and $\sim$ 400 for
9	the ICA. The values of $\beta$ for the AA are ~0.38 and range from 0.3-0.7 in the ICA.
10	Reconstructed geometries were imported into ANSYS® ICEM CFD 13.0 (ANSYS
11	Inc., Canonsburg, Pennsylvania) and unstructured meshes for the control geometries were
12	created that contained hexahedral elements. The realistic Patient specific AA and ICA
13	geometries also contained tetrahedral elements. A finer mesh using prism layers was used to
14	resolve the unsteady boundary layer ( $\delta \sim \sqrt{\nu T}$ ; where $\nu$ is the kinematic viscosity of blood
15	and T is the time period of the cardiac cycle) in all the different geometries. The boundary
16	layer consisted of 20 prism layers with a first length of 14 $\mu m$ that corresponded to the
17	distance of first cell from the wall; subsequent cell sizes increased with growth rate of 1.2.
18	The boundary layer mesh hence transitioned uniformly into the core mesh. The total number
19	of elements were 2,691,000 in the AA control, 5,883,547 for the patient specific AA with
20	aneurysm, 2,362,320 elements for the control ICA, and 3,705,990 elements for the patient
21	specific ICA with aneurysm.
22	The governing Navier-Stokes equations were solved using a commercial finite-
23	volume based solver (ANSYS <sup>®</sup> FLUENT 13.0). Transient terms were integrated using a

volume based solver (ANSYS<sup>®</sup> FLUENT 13.0). Transient terms were integrated using a
second order implicit method. A second order upwind scheme was used to discretize the
convection terms, and the diffusion terms were central differenced to be accurate in their

1	second order. We use SIMPLEC algorithm for pressure velocity coupling and the flow was
2	assumed to be laminar within the domain (Mohamied et al, 2017, Vasava et al, 2011). We did
3	not include turbulence models in the AA cases as the flows are unsteady and do not become
4	fully turbulent. Grid and flow cycle independence were not achieved for the patient specific
5	AA geometry with aneurysm. (need to write something here to wrap up) The chosen time
6	step was $10^{-3}$ s and the criterion for convergence for residuals was set below $10^{-5}$ for each
7	of the continuity and the three velocity components in each case. Grid independence studies
8	were carried out based on the following criterion: the RMS difference of WSS between
9	successive meshes was less than 2% of the RMS of the WSS over one cardiac cycle. The
10	number of cells were doubled until this criterion was met. Flow cycle independence was also
11	checked until the shear rosettes were time periodic to eliminate the initial transient effects.
12	Four cardiac cycles were simulated and results corresponding to the last cycle are reported in
13	this study.
14	
15	

#### 8. Appendix B. Principal directions in the shear rosette

The rosette is represented using an orthogonal set of coordinates, ŝ and b̂, which are the axial and secondary flow directions respectively. Let '1' and '2' represent the two principal directions, θ be the angle between the instantaneous shear stress vector τ and ŝ, and φ be the angle between the directions '1' and ŝ. τ<sub>1</sub> is the projection of τ on direction 1 and τ<sub>2</sub> is the projection on direction 2. By definition (Chakraborty *et al.*, 2012),

$$\int_0^T \boldsymbol{\tau}_1 \boldsymbol{\tau}_2 \, dt = 0 \tag{1}$$

8 where T is the time period of the cardiac cycle. and  $\tau_{mag}$  is the magnitude of the  $\tau$ . We show 9 that the above relation is equivalent to either maximizing  $\int_0^T \tau_1^2 dt$  in one principal direction 10 and minimizing  $\int_0^T \tau_2^2 dt$  in the other principal direction, "2". We compute the principal 11 directions from the shear stress distributions.

12 
$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_1(t) = \boldsymbol{\tau}_{mag} \cos\left(\theta(t) - \phi\right) \tag{2}$$

13 
$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{2}(t) = \boldsymbol{\tau}_{mag} \sin\left(\theta(t) - \phi\right)$$
(3)

14 
$$\boldsymbol{\tau}_{mag}^2 = \boldsymbol{\tau}_1^2 + \boldsymbol{\tau}_2^2 \tag{4}$$

15 Substituting in equation 1, we get,

16 
$$\int_0^T \boldsymbol{\tau}^2_{mag}(t) \sin\left(2(\theta(t) - \phi)\right) dt = 0$$
 (5)

17 Because  $\phi$  is an independent variable, we can rewrite this expression as a maximization or a 18 minimization problem as:

19 
$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial}{\partial\phi}\left(\int_0^T \boldsymbol{\tau}_{mag}^2(t)\cos(2(\theta(t)-\phi))\,dt\right) = 0 \tag{6}$$

Thus, the integral in the above expression reaches an extremum at a particular value of  $\phi$  which gives the principal directions. The integral in equation (6) can be rewritten as,

22 
$$I = \int_0^T (\tau_{mag}^2(t) \cos^2(\theta(t) - \phi) - \tau_{mag}^2 \sin^2(\theta(t) - \phi)) dt$$
(7)

23 Using equations (2-4), we get

1 
$$I = \int_0^T (\boldsymbol{\tau}_1^2(t) - \boldsymbol{\tau}_2^2(t)) dt$$
 (8)

2 
$$I = \int_0^T \left( \tau_{mag}^2(t) - 2\tau_2^2(t) \right) dt$$
 (9)

3 
$$I = \int_0^T \left( 2\tau_1^2(t) - \tau_{mag}^2(t) \right) dt$$
 (10)

4 Because  $\tau_{mag}(t)$  is independent of the choice of reference direction,

5 
$$\int_0^T \boldsymbol{\tau}_{mag}^2(t) \, dt = const \tag{11}$$

6 This procedure takes into account the time spent by the WSS vector at each location over the7 cardiac cycle.

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2

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#### 1 **10. List of Figures**

Figure 1: Geometries of the arterial vessels used in CFD simulations are shown for (a) AA
(control) with 180° curved section (2a = 32 mm, β=0.38). (b) patient specific geometry of AA
with aneurysm, and (c) Control case of ICA reconstructed from aneurisk database (AneuriskTeam, 2012), and (d) patient specific geometry of ICA with aneurysm.

Figure 2: Inlet flow rate waveforms which were used in CFD simulations are indicated. (a)
Input waveforms for AA is shown along with flow rates in the branches with the
corresponding waveform for (b) ICA. The acceleration phase is marked in red and
deceleration phase is marked in blue. The inlet flow rate in the diastolic phase is marked in
black; the maximum acceleration and deceleration points are indicated using a cross. Filled
circles correspond to the maximum acceleration (red) and deceleration (blue) points.

12 Figure 3: Velocity contours with superimposed velocity vectors in the medial and three 13 transverse planes are shown for the control AA geometry. The full extended lengths at the 14 inlet and outlet used in the computation are not shown. The three transverse planes, labelled 15 as P45, P90, and P135, are 45°, 90°, and 135° respectively from the inlet. Results are shown 16 at two time points of the cardiac cycle corresponding to (a) peak velocity of systole (t = 0.14s), and (b) end of systole (t = 0.35 s), which are shown with a black cross in Figure 2. 17 18 Collision of the secondary flows in the medial plane causes a radially outward propagating jet 19 and a pair of vortices.

Figure 4: Shear rosettes show variations in shear stresses over one cardiac cycle for the accelerating (red), decelerating (blue), and stop phase of the cycle (black) for (a) AA control at point B in Figure 1a. The two perpendicular black lines are the principal directions of the rosette marked as  $\hat{s}$  and  $\hat{b}$ , shown in the figure, that correspond to the axial and secondary flow directions. Angular positions are marked at every  $30^{\circ}$  in the anticlockwise direction

1	starting from the reference direction, $\hat{s}$ (b) The shear rosette is shown for the same point B
2	with the mean WSS, transWSS, and AR metrics given by points marked on the rosette. (c)
3	Rosettes are shown at point A marked on plane P45 and (d) Point C marked on plane P45.
4	WSS values are shown for each rosette in magenta. Points corresponding to the maximum
5	acceleration (red), deceleration (blue), and mean value of WSS (black) are indicated using
6	filled circles. Values of the relevant flow metrics at these locations are also shown.
7	Figure 5: (a) Streamlines, corresponding to the peak velocity, are shown for the control ICA.
8	(b) Axial velocity contours with superimposed velocity vectors are shown for the highlighted
9	plane. (c-f) Shear stress rosettes are plotted corresponding to the points A-D marked in (a).
10	Figure 6: Streamlines are shown for the ICA with aneurysm. Shear stress rosettes are plotted
11	at points (A-E) indicated on the surface.
12	Figure 7: TAWSS, OSI, AR, transWSS metrics are plotted for (a) control, (b) patient specific
13	AA geometry with aneurysm, (c) Control ICA, and (d) patient specific model of ICA with
14	aneurysm.
15	
16	
17	11. List of Tables
18	<b>Table I:</b> Definitions and a brief description of select shear metrics in this study.
19	Table II: Values of the different shear metrics for control ICA geometry and patient specific
20	ICA with aneurysm are given at selected points in Figure 5 and Figure 6.
21	
22	

- Figure 1 2

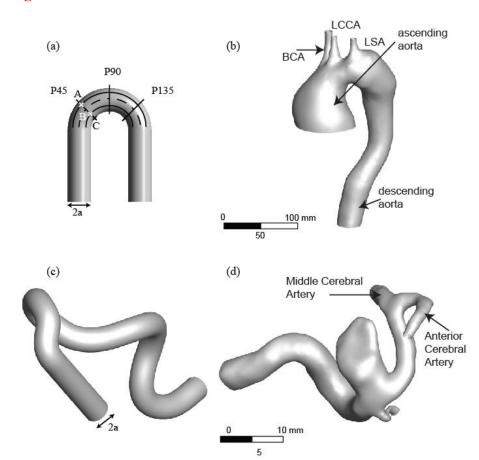
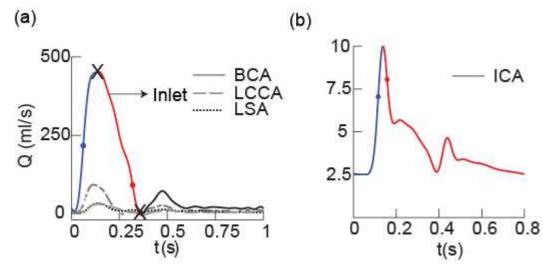
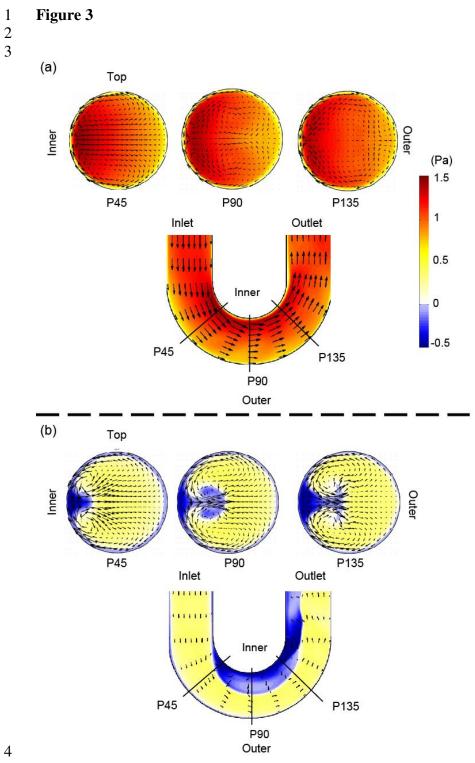


Figure 2

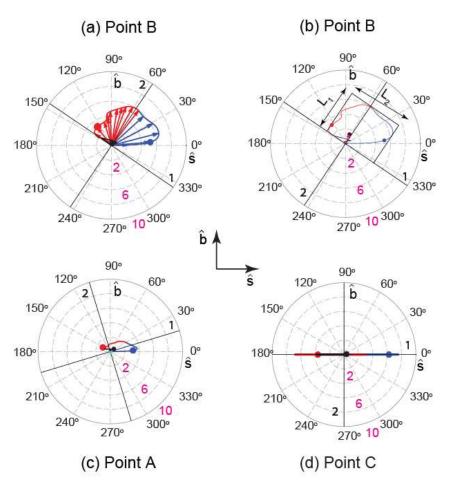




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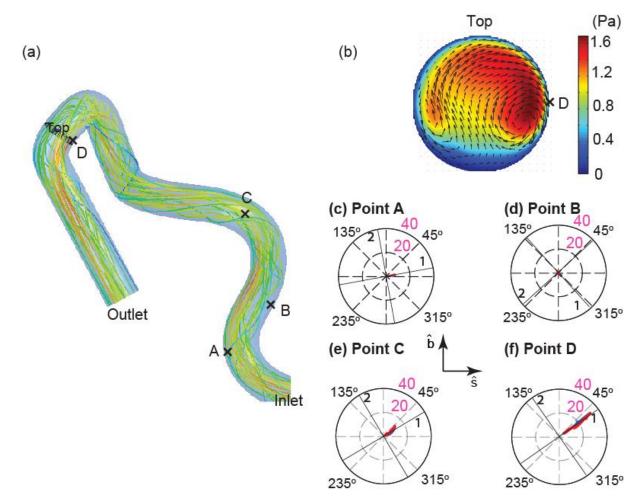
## 1 Figure 4





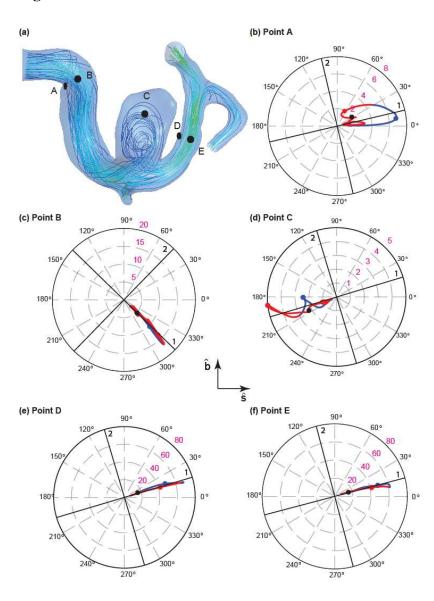
	WSS <sub>mean</sub>   (Pa)	TAWSS (Pa)	transWSS (Pa)	OSI	AR
Point A	0.54	0.76	0.4	0.15	0.4
Point B	1.36	1.71	0.83	0.09	0.81
Point C	0.06	1.34	0.0	0.48	0.0

- 2 Figure 5

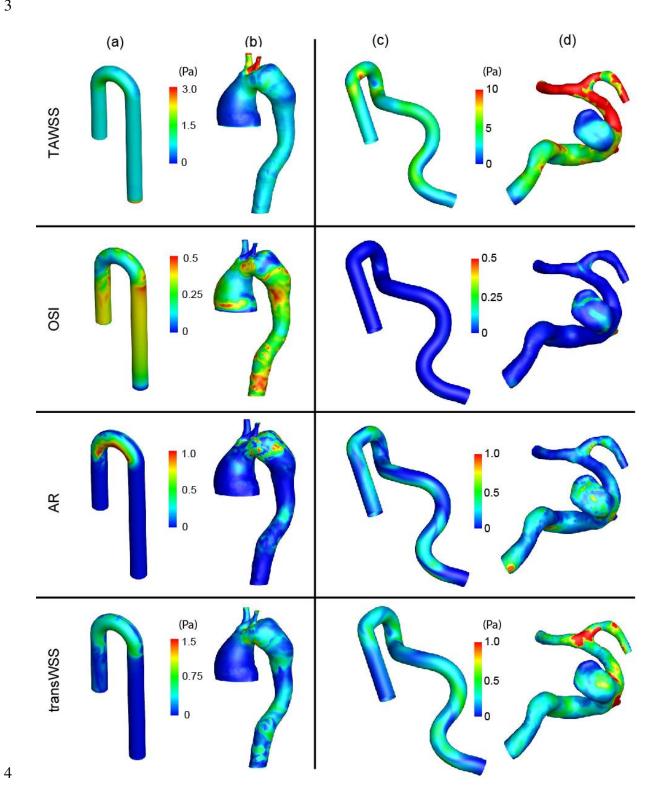


1 Figure 6





I Figure 7



### 1 Table I:

	Equation	Description	Reference
Time Averaged	$TAWSS = \frac{1}{T} \int_{nT}^{nT+T}  \vec{\tau}  dt$	Time average of the	(He and
Wall Shear	$T J_{nT}$	WSS magnitude over a	Ku, 1996)
Stress (TAWSS)		cardiac cycle	
Mean shear	$\vec{\tau}_{mean} = rac{1}{T} \int_{nT}^{nT+T} \vec{\tau} dt$	Time average of the	(Arzani
stress ( $\vec{\tau}_{mean}$ )	$T J_{nT}$	WSS vector over a	and
		cardiac cycle	Shadden,
			2016)
Oscillatory shear	$OSI = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 - \frac{ \vec{\tau}_{mean} }{TAWSS} \right\}$	Oscillatory variation in	(Ku et al,
index (OSI)	2(TAWSS)	the WSS	1985)
TransWSS	$transWSS = \frac{1}{T} \int_{nT}^{nT+T} \vec{\tau}$	Time averaged	(Peiffer et
	$\begin{array}{c} T J_{nT} \\ f \rightarrow \end{array} $	magnitude of WSS	al, 2013)
	$ \cdot \left( \vec{n} \\ \times \frac{\vec{\tau}_{mean}}{ \vec{\tau}_{mean} } \right) dt $	components normal to	
	$\times \frac{t_{mean}}{ \vec{\tau}_{mean} } \bigg) dt$	the mean shear stress	
		vector and the local	
		surface normal $(\vec{n})$	
Anisotropy ratio	$AR = \frac{\left(\tau_{2(max)} - \tau_{2(min)}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}}$	The minimum ratio of	Current
(A <b>R</b> )	$AR = \frac{1}{\left(\tau_{1(max)} - \tau_{1(min)}\right)}$	breadth to the length of	study
		a rectangular box	
		bounding the shear	
		rosette. 1 and 2 are	
		principal directions of	
		the shear rosette	

# 1 Table II

	Location	OSI	TAWSS	AR	transWSS
			( <b>Pa</b> )		(Pa)
Control	Α	0.00	2.43	0.11	0.11
ICA	В	0.00	1.03	0.1	0.04
	С	0.00	4.11	0.26	0.25
	D	0.00	9.61	0.08	0.21
	А	0.00	2.25	0.43	0.46
Aneurysm	В	0.00	5.29	0.13	0.16
ICA	С	0.00	2.44	0.31	0.28
	D	0.00	15.48	0.08	0.38
	Ε	0.00	16.51	0.13	0.50