

A physics-based machine learning technique rapidly reconstructs the wall-shear stress and pressure fields in coronary arteries

Benjamin Morgan^{1,*}, Amal Roy Murali², George Preston¹, Yidnekachew Ayele Sima¹, Luis Marcelo Chamorro¹, Christos Bourantas³, Ryo Torii⁴, Anthony Mathur³, Andreas Baumbach³, Marc C. Jacob², Sergey Karabasov¹, and Rob Krams¹

¹Department of Science and Engineering, Queen Mary University of London

²Laboratoire de Mécanique des Fluides et d'Acoustique UMR5509, INSA Lyon, Ecole Centrale de Lyon, University of Lyon, University of Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, 69130, Ecully, France.

³Bart's Heart Centre, London

⁴Dept. of Mechanical Engineering, University College London

Correspondence*:

Rob Krams

r.krams@qmul.ac.uk

2 ABSTRACT

3 With the global rise of cardiovascular disease including atherosclerosis, there is a high demand
4 for accurate diagnostic tools that can be used during a short consultation. [In view of pathology,](#)
5 [abnormal blood flow patterns have been demonstrated to be strong predictors of atherosclerotic](#)
6 [lesion incidence, location, progression, and rupture.](#) Prediction of patient-specific blood flow
7 [patterns can hence enable fast clinical diagnosis.](#) However, the current state of art for the
8 [technique is by employing 3D-imaging-based Computational Fluid Dynamics \(CFD\).](#) The high
9 [computational cost renders these methods impractical.](#) In this work, we present a novel method
10 to expedite the reconstruction of 3D pressure and shear stress fields using a combination of
11 a reduced-order CFD modelling technique together with non-linear regression tools from the
12 Machine Learning (ML) paradigm. Specifically, we develop a proof-of-concept automated pipeline
13 that uses randomised perturbations of an atherosclerotic pig coronary artery to produce a large
14 dataset of unique mesh geometries with variable blood flow. A total of 1407 geometries were
15 generated from seven reference arteries and were used to simulate blood flow using the CFD
16 solver Abaqus. This CFD dataset was then post-processed using the mesh-domain common-
17 base Proper Orthogonal Decomposition (cPOD) method to obtain Eigen functions and principal
18 coefficients, the latter of which is a product of the individual mesh flow solutions with the POD
19 Eigenvectors. Being a data-reduction method, the POD enables the data to be represented using
20 only the ten most significant modes, which captures cumulatively greater than 95% of variance
21 of flow features due to mesh variations. Next, the node coordinate data of the meshes were
22 embedded in a two-dimensional coordinate system using the t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor
23 Embedding (t-SNE) algorithm. The reduced dataset for t-SNE coordinates and corresponding
24 vector of POD coefficients were then used to train a Random Forest Regressor (RFR) model.

25 The same methodology was applied to both the volumetric pressure solution and the wall shear
26 stress. The predicted pattern of blood pressure, and shear stress in unseen arterial geometries
27 were compared with the ground truth CFD solutions on 'unseen' meshes. The new method was
28 able to reliably reproduce the 3D coronary artery haemodynamics in less than 10 seconds.

29 **Keywords:** Arterial Blood Flow, Shear stress, Pressure drop, Reduced Order Modelling, Machine Learning

1 INTRODUCTION

30 Atherosclerosis is the leading cause of death in the developed world, accounting for more than 40% of
31 total mortalities per year. While it has been accepted that risk factors like hypertension, high cholesterol
32 and diabetes play a pivotal role in the progression of the disease, they do not explain the predilection of
33 atherosclerotic plaque formation near sites of arterial bifurcation, side branching and curvature (Wentzel
34 et al., 2005). These predilection sites have been associated with disturbed blood flow and endothelial shear
35 stress patterns (Siasos et al., 2018). Numerous experimental and clinical studies in the last few decades have
36 posited an essential role for disturbed shear stress in initiating atherosclerosis, in progression from simple
37 to advanced plaques, and in rupture of advanced, vulnerable plaques (Siasos et al., 2018). Furthermore,
38 disturbed shear stress patterns are also associated with in-stent restenosis and atherosclerosis (Chiu and
39 Chien, 2011). Despite the overwhelming number of studies demonstrating the decisive role of blood flow in
40 clinical atherosclerosis, disturbed shear stress patterns have not yet been considered whilst making clinical
41 decisions during catheterization or surgery. This is mainly due to the high computational cost and long
42 convergence times required for sufficiently accurate numerical solutions. Several propositions have been
43 made to reduce time requirements, of which one of the earliest attempts was by applying supercomputers
44 to the numerical solvers (Krievins et al., 2020). While this reduced convergence time from a full day
45 to a few hours, a condition now met by standard modern computers, this is still not sufficient to aid in
46 diagnostics. Clinical decisions depend on data which can be reliably obtained within minutes, preferably
47 seconds. Hence, newer statistical modelling methods were used to further reduce convergence time of
48 Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulations based on machine learning (Arzani et al., 2022). These
49 can roughly be divided into two categories, the classical machine learning methods and physics-based
50 machine learning methods. Classical machine learning methods use the power of deep learning to estimate
51 wall shear stress profiles (Arzani et al., 2022). The advantage of these methods is the flexibility of the
52 feature space to predict these wall shear profiles primarily due to the high expressivity of Deep Neural
53 Networks (DNN) and their ability to identify high dimensional features. However, such methods are not
54 based on capturing the inherent physical conservation laws of the governing fluid flow. Consequently, any
55 change in feature space will necessitate a DNN recalibration cycle.

56 To overcome the above, physics-based machine learning technologies have raised interest recently.
57 These methods are predicated on capturing the underlying physics either via incorporation of the actual
58 conservation laws (Raissi et al., 2018) or by data-driven extraction of physically interpretable flow
59 characteristics (Wolf and Lele, 2012) as features for regression. For instance, Reduced-order modelling
60 of CFD simulations are motivated by the presence of coherent structures, identified from their statistical
61 moments in the datasets available from short duration simulations (Sieber et al., 2016; Towne et al., 2018).
62 By applying orthogonal decomposition theory, it is possible to identify high energy Eigenvectors, also
63 known as modes, of these coherent structures using essential information of the flow solution field (e.g. 3D
64 velocity and pressure) while reducing dimensionality of the data. Initial studies used both temporal and
65 spatial information of the velocity field to reduce its dimensions in non-health related areas (Wolf and Lele,
66 2012). The first health applications used these methods to study coherent structures in the velocity field of

67 idealised phantoms of bifurcations, saccular and aortic aneurysm (Pegolotti et al., 2021). Patient-specific
68 applications, which are noisier, have been successfully studied by accounting for such noise in the signal
69 (Girfoglio et al., 2022). In order to apply these reduced order flow solution fields to novel objects, an
70 interpolation needs to be carried out.

71 [In light of these advances in closely related fields of research](#), this paper establishes the foundation of our
72 novel method amalgamating these techniques and applies it to a well-characterised experimental dataset of
73 atherosclerotic pig coronary arteries (Pedrigi et al., 2015). We will show how to modify classical POD,
74 introduce a shape optimizer for blood vessels, and present a suitable Random Forest Regressor (RFR)
75 model to predict flow fields in novel arteries.

2 OUTLINE OF METHODOLOGY

76 We have developed an automatic pipeline which generates synthetic data from existing 3D reconstructed
77 blood vessels (Pedrigi et al., 2015), performs proper orthogonal decomposition (POD) on the shear stress
78 and pressure field solutions, and t-distributed Stochastic Neighbour Embedding (t-SNE) on the mesh
79 coordinate data to enable feature reduction. The reduced mesh and flow parameter fields are then used
80 to train, validate and test a RFR model to perform interpolation; [thereby enabling a fast reconstruction](#)
81 [of CFD solution in a given geometry. In the case of an unseen geometry as test input, the position of](#)
82 [the corresponding geometry in the t-SNE space is calculated analytically, and the mode coefficients are](#)
83 [predicted using RFR. Recombination of the previously extracted mesh-wise modes along with the newly](#)
84 [predicted POD mode coefficients is then used to produce the flow field solutions for the new geometry. The](#)
85 [pipeline is summarised in the form of a flowchart as shown in Figure 1, and the methods are described in](#)
86 [sections 3, 4, 5 and 6.](#)

3 CREATING A WELL-ANNOTATED SYNTHETIC DATA REPOSITORY

87 Synthetic data has been proposed to meet the huge data requirement of artificial intelligence (AI) (Savage,
88 2023). Here, we developed a hybrid technique which uses a combination of realistic and synthetic data.
89 The realistic data was obtained from a validated 3D reconstruction method of coronary arteries based
90 upon a pullback of OCT images and angiography (Figure 2). This 3D vessel anatomy was then used as a
91 seed to generate synthetic data by applying random spatial perturbations to the original mesh. To prevent
92 unnatural, discontinuous geometric differences within each mesh phantom, the perturbations are based
93 on the amplitude of a sinusoid, which distributed the perturbation lengthwise. The sinusoid components
94 have independently randomised amplitude, frequency, phase and vertical offset. With this method, 200
95 phantom meshes per each of the 7 unique blood vessels available were generated. [Including the 7 natural](#)
96 [artery shapes, this results in a total of 1407 3D meshes in this preliminary dataset. These geometries were](#)
97 [then input to the CFD solver Abaqus \(v16.2\) to obtain the pressure and shear stress field by solving the](#)
98 [governing steady-state incompressible Navier-Stokes equations. In the solver, the governing equations](#)
99 [were discretised on \$\sim 100,000\$ mixed hexahedral and triangular prismatic elements in accordance with](#)
100 [the second order of approximation. The advection term in the momentum equation was discretised using](#)
101 [second-order least squares. To accelerate convergence of the steady solution with imposing the divergence](#)
102 [free velocity field, the pressure-correction method \(SIMPLE\) was used with an efficient solution of the](#)
103 [Poisson pressure equation. Boundary conditions were imposed as constant inflow \(100 cm/s\), and zero](#)
104 [pressure outflow. On all vessel walls, a zero velocity and logarithmic wall function boundary condition was](#)
105 [specified. Blood rheology was modelled as a non-Newtonian fluid following the Carreau-Yasuda model,](#)

$\nu_\infty, \text{m}^2/\text{s} \times 10^6$	$\nu_0, \text{m}^2/\text{s} \times 10^6$	τ, s	α	n
3.45	56	3.313	2	0.3568

Table 1. Parameters of the Carreau-Yasuda model

106 which at high strain rates incorporates the effect of shear thinning in the definition of kinematic viscosity
107 as:

$$\nu = \nu_\infty + (\nu_0 - \nu_\infty) (1 + (\tau\dot{\gamma})^\alpha)^{\frac{n-1}{\alpha}},$$

108 where $\dot{\gamma} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ is the flow shear gradient near the wall, and the model coefficients are summarised in
109 Table 1. For turbulence modelling, the standard k- ϵ RANS (Reynolds Averaged Navier Stokes) model was
110 used. All calculations were performed using APOCRITA, the HPC cluster of Queen Mary University of
111 London (King et al., 2017).

4 DATA REDUCTION OF THE CFD SOLUTION FIELDS USING PROPER ORTHOGONAL DECOMPOSITION

112 POD is a tool in CFD post processing and is derived from the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) method
113 for matrix factorisation commonly used in statistical analysis. The method finds correlations in the vector
114 flow solution field, which contains small linear perturbations, to obtain an Eigenbasis onto which the
115 mesh flow data can be projected. In classical POD, the correlations are obtained in the time domain to
116 identify flow structures that are most dynamically important in time during the evolution of turbulence.
117 The same methodology is also extended to varying flow cases based on different experimental setups (e.g.
118 considering a number of unsteady flow experiments performed on the same CFD mesh), this is known
119 as common base POD (cPOD) (Kriegseis et al., 2010). In our methodology for obtaining common mode
120 functions underlying multiple meshes, the time domain is replaced with the domain of the mesh geometries.
121 It is assumed that a few smoothly varying variables can be used to represent the mesh cases. The goal
122 is to obtain the hidden common modes in the stationary solutions, on multiple meshes, while the mesh
123 is smoothly varied. To obtain the modes underlying the variations in pressure and shear stress fields, we
124 use the method of SVD. We begin with a dataset of CFD simulated steady-state flow solutions. For one
125 simulation, the chosen output variable (e.g. pressure and wall shear) is organised into a N-length vector,
126 where N is the number of nodes in the mesh. These vectors are oriented horizontally and then stacked
127 vertically. With M meshes, the resulting 2D solution matrix A has the dimensions M x N. Our application
128 of SVD follows the theory of snapshots (Weiss, 2019), similar to other use cases. However, each snapshot
129 (stacked vector) in our solution matrix is not a different time frame of the same simulation, but rather a
130 steady state solution ran with identical conditions on a different, uniquely shaped mesh. SVD factors the
131 matrix into a product of three matrices $A = UDV^T$, where the columns of U and V are orthonormal (V
132 is transpose), and the singular matrix D is diagonal with positive real numbers, organised by magnitude
133 in descending order. The sum of the singular values represents the total amount of information in the
134 system. They are analogous to the Eigenvalues of the Eigen decomposition, and represent the magnitude,
135 or significance, of each Eigenvector, or POD mode. The singular values can then be used to estimate the
136 number of modes needed to reconstruct the flow solutions without significant loss of information (Weiss,
137 2019). Both vector matrices U and V are organised in terms of the singular values, from most to least

138 significant. The summed energy of each leading mode, being their corresponding singular values, are then
139 used to define a tolerance threshold for information loss. Due to spatial coherence of particular modes of
140 variation of the flow with respect to the mesh shape, the number of modes that capture the majority of
141 useful information are the first few, as compared to the full dataset. Modes that fall outside of a chosen
142 threshold in terms of correlative significance can be truncated from the dataset, drastically reducing the
143 dimensionality of the data whilst incurring a tolerable underestimation of the concerned node-wise flow
144 parameter. Additionally, although not implemented in the current case, explicit smoothing can also be
145 applied in the correlation matrix space to enhance numerical properties of the mesh-wise POD coefficients
146 (Sieber et al., 2016). In this case, the leading 10 modes were found to capture >95% of total information
147 about both the pressure and wall shear stress, and thus were deemed sufficient for accurate reconstruction.

5 DATA REDUCTION OF THE SYNTHETIC MESHES OF CORONARY BLOOD VESSELS.

148 Several shape optimizers have been proposed in the literature, of which t-SNE has acquired a lot of attention
149 (Hao et al., 2022). The t-SNE is a statistical method for visualising high-dimensional data by embedding
150 each N-dimensional data point in a reduced space, typically of two or three dimensions. A higher number
151 of embedding dimensions will retain a greater accuracy of clustering, but also increase the sparsity of
152 data within the space. More specifically, t-SNE generates the joint Gaussian distribution of the conditional
153 chance that a nearby mesh coordinate is sufficiently close in terms of Euclidean distance to an initial mesh
154 coordinate. The unknown variance of the Gaussian distribution is obtained from the Shannon entropy. This
155 step creates a matrix of each mesh coordinate with all other mesh coordinates where a chance is provided
156 on the basis of distance.

157 As a next step, a reduced order mapping is obtained by minimizing the Kullback-Leibler divergence
158 between the Gaussian distribution of the original points and a Student's t-distribution of points in a reduced
159 dimensional space. The resulting vectors are then used to fill the feature space. In a sense, the space is
160 "seeded" with the meshes produced from the natural OCT images. The space around each image is then
161 populated with the synthetic mesh vectors, which have a small but significant geometrical difference from
162 the parent mesh. The goal being to fill the feature space and bridge the empty regions between the clusters.
163 Given that the principal coefficients are physics-based, they should maintain a causal link to the values of
164 the embedding coordinates, which represent variability in mesh shape. A filled feature space with an intact
165 causal link will aid an interpolative machine learning model to make accurate coefficient predictions for
166 an unseen geometry (figures 5 and 6). It is worth noting that what constitutes a "filled" feature space is
167 highly dependent on the chosen t-SNE parameters and the natural limits of the data that is being reduced.
168 The "natural limit" is in reference to the fact that a hypothetical dataset containing all possible natural
169 variations of the artery shape will produce a "filled" feature space, and the regions that are not populated
170 will represent shapes that do not occur naturally, and thus may not be useful for a diagnostic tool. Hence,
171 we aim to produce synthetic data, which is not so different from the natural data as to have its shape fall
172 outside of this hypothetical set. It is for this same reason that it is better to bolster the dataset with natural
173 shapes wherever possible, with synthetic data playing a supplemental role. Integration of human OCT
174 patient data is forthcoming in future research.

6 RANDOM FOREST REGRESSOR AND REGRESSOR CHAIN

175 SVD re-organizes the modes based on their energy level content and the number of modes are truncated
176 when $>95\%$ of the variance of the field is preserved. This resulted in the first 10 modes for the pressure
177 field and the shear stress field for the dataset we use for this study, which when used for reconstructing the
178 solution leads to a root mean squared error less than 5%. In order to interpolate the POD principal coefficient
179 field that enables predictions of future objects, simple feed-forward neural networks and classical machine
180 learning methods were compared. It was found that the RFR algorithm combined with the Regressor Chain
181 algorithm were best suited for this task.

182 The RFR algorithm is a supervised machine learning technique that integrates multiple independent
183 decision trees on a training data set: the obtained results are ensembled to obtain a more robust single
184 model compared to the results of each tree separately (Breiman, 2001). RFR is a supervised learning
185 method in the sense that during training it identifies mappings between inputs and outputs. In our setup,
186 the t-SNE coordinates of the meshes are the input and the cPOD principal coefficients are the output. In
187 our approach, an independent RFR regressor is employed for each of the 10 coefficients. The Random
188 Forest Regression algorithm utilised in our work is obtained from the popular Machine Learning library
189 Scikit-learn. Scikit-learn is built to facilitate the use of Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning
190 algorithms, and is used in regression, classification, and clustering tasks. The model is imported as
191 “`sklearn.ensemble.RandomForestRegressor`”. Additionally, a Regressor Chain architecture is used to obtain
192 a multiple output model that organises the regression of individual modes in a chained fashion. Thus, RFR
193 creates a regression model for each pressure coefficient, where each model makes a prediction for its
194 coefficient specified by the chain by using all the t-SNE features provided to the model and the predictions
195 of previous outputs in the chain. [This ensures that the correlation between the features are taken into](#)
196 [account to enhance the regression.](#)

7 RESULTS

197 An automatic pipeline was implemented to perform highly accurate 3D reconstruction from biplane
198 angiograms and an OCT pullback (Panda et al., 2022), to automatically generate a mesh and on basis
199 thereof, and to generate small perturbations in the topology of meshes. The latter was then used to generate
200 a full stationary solution of the shear stress and pressure fields using the Navier-Stokes solver in Abaqus.
201 The perturbation parameters were bounded to induce small but significant changes in the accompanying
202 geometry of the meshes (Figure 2). This also resulted in appreciable changes to the pressure and wall shear
203 fields (Figure 3). The cumulative wall shear stress and pressure fields were then further analysed with the
204 cPOD procedure. The first 10 modes of the pressure and shear stress fields were sufficient to reproduce
205 $>95\%$ of the variance of both fields, leading to modest errors in the reproduction of the original fields of
206 $<1\%$ (Figures 4 and 5).

207 Next was a reduction in the dimensions of the mesh topology using t-SNE (Figures 6 and 7) for utilisation
208 in a low-dimensional regression task. The t-SNE algorithm enables control over the clustering behaviour
209 based on similarity through its perplexity parameter. This was fine tuned to obtain an approximately
210 homogeneous distribution of the mesh cases, whilst preserving noticeable clustering features. This allows
211 for a smooth geometrical representation suitable for regression. As can be observed, the t-SNE features
212 resolve to seven clusters corresponding to seven natural artery shapes. To which, random perturbations are
213 introduced to generate quantitatively distinct synthetic datapoints. Additionally, within each of the t-SNE

214 clusters, the variation of the principal coefficients are also smooth and continuous since their values are
215 correlated with variation in mesh shape.

216 The 1407 t-SNE data points with their respective pressure and shear stress modes were shuffled and
217 divided into a training data set (80% of the overall data) and a validation data set (remaining 20%). The
218 training dataset was used for ten iterations to train the RFR model, where the best maximum tree depth was
219 found to be 20, and the best maximum number of trees for the model was found to be 70. The machine
220 learning model was applied for the test data set as well. Figures 8 and 9 show the results for shear stress and
221 pressure for the two most significant POD modes respectively. The mean Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)
222 of the prediction of the dominant mode coefficient was 15.2% for pressure and 19.7% for shear stress.

223 With the regression for cPOD principal coefficients completed, the mesh-wise modes previously generated
224 by the cPOD method together with the newly predicted coefficients are used to reconstruct the flow field.
225 Results of the 3D reconstruction of the shear stress and pressure fields for the CFD method (“ground truth”)
226 the cPOD reconstruction alone, and the RFR prediction are shown in Figure 10. These were used for
227 further error quantification of the flow solution in the physical space, relative L_1 and L_2 norm errors, which
228 are analogues to the normalised mean absolute errors (NMAE) and normalised root mean square errors
229 (NRMSE), respectively, considered in other studies (Liang et al., 2020). The errors were calculated using
230 the dominant 10 POD modes for the test dataset of 20% of the meshes in accordance with the following
231 definitions:

$$232 \quad \text{NMAE}(i = 1, \dots, \text{imeshmax}) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{j=\text{jnodemax}} |f_{ij}^{ML} - f_{ij}^{GT}|}{\text{jnodemax} \cdot (\max(f) - \min(f))} \cdot 100\%$$

$$\text{NRMSE}(i = 1, \dots, \text{imeshmax}) = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{j=\text{jnodemax}} (f_{ij}^{ML} - f_{ij}^{GT})^2}}{\text{jnodemax} \cdot (\max(f) - \min(f))} \cdot 100\%$$

233 where jnodemax is the total number of CFD data points in the considered volumetric/surface distributions,
234 imeshmax is the number of meshes in the test dataset, ML and GT denote the machine learning and
235 the ground truth (CFD) solutions respectively, and f stands for the pressure or wall shear stress solution
236 component. The mean values and the corresponding standard deviations of computed errors are summarised
237 in Tables 2 and 3. It should be noted that the range of NMAE and NRMSE for pressure is within the
238 accuracy reported for the machine learning models of pressure in aortic flows based on autoencoders and
239 Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) (Liang et al., 2020). It can also be noticed that the standard deviation and
240 the mean error values are of the same order of magnitude in all cases, which suggests that the populated
241 parameter space for the considered coronary artery problem is relatively sparse. The latter is in agreement
242 with sparsity of the t-SNE maps (Figures 6 and 7). The error variation is particularly large for the shear
243 stresses, which can be explained by a much smaller statistical ensemble of the wall shear surface points in
244 comparison with the volume points where pressure was computed. This is supported by an estimate based
245 on the central limit theorem (Montgomery and Runger, 2010), which suggests that the ratio of statistical
246 errors of the pressure and wall shear stresses should scale as a square root of the ratio of the number of
247 surface points to that of the volume points, and which is about 1:4.5 for all considered meshes.

NMAE, %	NRMSE, %	NMAE, %	NRMSE, %
2.96 ± 2.84	3.51 ± 3.2	11.2 ± 11.8	11.2 ± 11.8

Table 2. Mean errors and standard deviations of reconstructed pressure solution (Left), and of the reconstructed shear stress solution (Right).

8 DISCUSSION

248 Rheological theories of Atherosclerosis have been shown to successfully predict plaque location, plaque
 249 progression, and plaque rupture (Zhou et al., 2023). They have not been used to infer clinical decisions.
 250 Current developments in physics-based artificial intelligence allow us to accelerate these methods so that
 251 clinical interventions in the cath lab can be evaluated on novel parameters such as shear stress, pressure
 252 drop, and/or velocity field. The main findings of the current paper are that a) synthetic perturbation is an
 253 effective way to generate additional surrogate data, which can help satisfy the large volumes required by
 254 AI algorithms, b) cPOD, a time-independent variation of POD, can be used to substantially reduce the
 255 dimensions of pressure and shear stress field data in simulated blood vessels, c) metrics for quantifying the
 256 shape of a blood vessel mesh, such as t-SNE, are effective schemes to drastically reduce the degrees of
 257 freedom corresponding to variations in vessel geometry, and d) an interpolative method based on a RFR
 258 model was able to predict new pressure fields within seconds, with mean relative L_1 and L_2 errors (NMAE
 259 and NRMSE) of 2.96% and 3.51% respectively. The errors of the wall shear stress reconstruction show an
 260 approximately 4 times larger scatter in comparison with the pressure calculation, in statistical agreement
 261 with the smaller number of mesh surface points in comparison with the volume points.

262 Synthetic manipulations have recently been introduced to Machine Learning to overcome the excessive
 263 requirement of well annotated data for AI algorithms (Savage, 2023). We have developed a hybrid
 264 approach which took into account the natural variation between blood vessels and applied random synthetic
 265 perturbations to produce variants of this original data, with the aim of populating the t-SNE feature space
 266 (Figure 2). It was noted that full feature space homogenisation would require significantly more drastic and
 267 exotic synthetic manipulation of the OCT data, which would likely negatively impact the ability of the
 268 data to represent reality. A better balance between number of real data versus synthetic data is required to
 269 bring this technique closer to real-world application. In future, a systematic procedure can be adapted to
 270 generate the synthetic meshes in an optimal way by exploiting sensitivity of the coronary flow response to
 271 perturbations of the baseline vessel geometry, similar to the deformation matrix method recently developed
 272 for aortic flow simulations (Pajaziti et al., 2023).

273 In unsteady fluid mechanics problems on a fixed mesh, a 1D time coordinate is typically used as an
 274 evolutionary variable to characterise the snapshots of the POD method. Here, this approach is generalised
 275 to a set of 2D t-SNE coordinates, which are cognate with time for the purpose of POD snapshots and
 276 were found sufficient to reconstruct the pressure and wall shear stress fields in any specified blood vessel
 277 shape. The t-SNE technique was applied to reduce the complexity of each mesh whilst preserving their
 278 characteristic features. In doing so, their relative similarity necessarily remains intact (Hinton and Roweis,
 279 2002) due to the fact that, prior to the embedding step, t-SNE computes the difference between the input
 280 meshes based on Euclidean distance between the node coordinates. Therefore, the clustering of the variable
 281 phantom meshes around their respective reference shapes arises naturally. Notably, the entire process of
 282 meshing the OCT contour domain, embedding this geometry in 2D t-SNE space, predicting the coefficients
 283 and constructing the pressure and wall shear stress fields cumulatively takes no more than 2 minutes, which

284 underpins the success of this method. Furthermore, the applicability of 2D t-SNE coordinates to describe
285 $\sim 100,000$ degrees of freedom corresponding to the number of CFD mesh elements implies a factor of 10^5
286 dimensionality reduction. In the future, to model multiple solution components in space and time, use of a
287 higher dimensional t-SNE space instead of 2D t-SNE may be reconsidered, and the relationship between
288 clustering accuracy and data sparsity will be investigated.

289 The standard RFR algorithm was found to be a suitable option for non-linear regression to reconstruct the
290 POD signals from the t-SNE space. Despite the simplicity of the RFR model, the accuracy of predictions
291 was encouraging. Essentially, the model uses the calculated t-SNE co-ordinates and their associated
292 principal coefficients to interpolate the coefficient values over the whole embedding space. The RFR
293 segregates feature data into groups before interpolating within each group, which is particularly suitable
294 for the clustered t-SNE features. Notably, the distribution of mode coefficients in the t-SNE space (Figure
295 6 and 7) demonstrates smooth variations due to the inherent correlation between the shape of a mesh and
296 the major flow patterns captured by the dominant POD modes.

9 LIMITATIONS OF THE METHOD AND CONCLUSION

297 To translate the current method to clinical applications, several limitations must be addressed. First, the
298 current implementation assumes that shape variations are the most important factor affecting velocity fields
299 and their derived parameters. This is corroborated by theoretical arguments, as well as observations that
300 velocity, shear stress and pressure drop strongly scale with diameter. However, the artery flow field also
301 scales with the inflow velocity, which changes throughout the cardiac cycle. To systematically account
302 for the unsteady velocity variation, future developments include extending the scope of the AI model by
303 re-adding the time evolution input. In the meantime, the current simplified steady model may already
304 be sufficient if the flow features of interest are slow compared to the viscous effects, i.e. the flow in the
305 coronary vessel is quasi-steady. In this case, the time history of inflow velocity variation can be decoupled
306 into a series of time frames, where each frame may be represented by a steady process at a different inlet
307 velocity scale. In turn, the shear stress and pressure fields at each frame can be rapidly reconstructed from
308 the inflow velocity and the shear stress and pressure fields of a baseline dataset using the scaling law
309 introduced by Taylor et al. (2022).

310 A more serious limitation of the current study is the neglect of the natural flexibility and heterogeneity
311 of vessel walls in the flow modelling process. Whilst the rigid wall assumption significantly accelerates
312 the solution of the governing Navier-Stokes equations, modelling of the Fluid Structure Interaction (FSI)
313 is essential to correctly capture the coronary artery flow behaviour (Fogell et al., 2023). Hence, future
314 developments will incorporate the FSI model into the simulation driven dataset of the suggested cPOD-tSNE
315 framework.

316 Despite the overall salutary results of the RFR method, to further refine accuracy of the machine learning
317 model predictions in future, the RFR algorithm may be replaced by more advanced methods such as those
318 based on Gaussian processes; one advantage of which being uncertainty quantification to provide an overall
319 error estimate for the user. Such estimations would be an invaluable addition to a model that is intended for
320 use as a diagnostic tool for clinicians.

321 Finally, in line with many recent works devoted to the proof-of-concept data-driven modelling of cardio-
322 vascular flows (Liang et al., 2020), we simplified the model by considering the vessel without side branches.
323 However, it is known that bifurcations occur in the main stem of the left coronary artery, which might
324 affect the inflow conditions. Hence, to reduce the effect of the bifurcation in the current study, the starting

325 site of the 7 catheterised segments was deliberately located 5 vessel diameters downstream of the main
326 stem. Nevertheless, to account for general topology of coronary vessels, which may be of practical interest,
327 the suggested reduced order modelling approach will be extended to side branches in future work.

328 Despite the above-mentioned limitations of the current work, it can be concluded, using t-SNE and cPOD
329 to perform interpolation by Machine Learning was very successful for the proof-of-concept modelling
330 of coronary artery flows. The speed and accuracy obtained were highly motivating and were able to
331 calculate the pressure and shear stress fields of an unknown vessel within seconds. Rheological theories of
332 Atherosclerosis have been shown to successfully predict plaque location, plaque progression, and plaque
333 rupture (Zhou et al., 2023), but they have not been used to infer clinical decisions. Current developments in
334 physics-based AI allow us to accelerate these methods such that clinical interventions in the cath lab can be
335 evaluated on novel parameters such as shear stress, pressure drop and 3D velocity field.

336 To conclude, we developed a method to produce a very fast solution to the Navier-Stokes equations, as
337 we aimed to focus on applying this method in a clinical environment with high demand for rapid solutions.
338 We are currently working towards newer methods enabling time dependent flows that incorporate solid
339 state interactions, as well as higher accuracy AI modelling functions with corresponding error estimates.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

340 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
341 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

342 All authors contributed to manuscript revision, read, and approved the submitted version.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

343 The BHF (FS/PhD/22/29316) is appreciated for their funding of this project. This study was conducted
344 with the assistance of the Research Software Engineering team in ITS Research at Queen Mary University
345 of London.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

346 The datasets used in this study are available with the corresponding author and can be shared upon
347 reasonable request.

REFERENCES

- 348 Arzani, A., Wang, J.-X., Sacks, M. S., and Shadden, S. C. (2022). Machine Learning for Cardiovascular
349 Biomechanics Modeling: Challenges and Beyond. *Annals of Biomedical Engineering* 50, 615–627.
350 doi:10.1007/s10439-022-02967-4
- 351 Breiman, L. (2001). Random forests. *Machine learning* 45, 5–32
- 352 Chiu, J.-J. and Chien, S. (2011). Effects of disturbed flow on vascular endothelium: pathophysiological
353 basis and clinical perspectives. *Physiological reviews* 91, 327–387

- 354 Fogell, N. A., Patel, M., Yang, P., Ruis, R. M., Garcia, D. B., Naser, J., et al. (2023). Considering the
355 influence of coronary motion on artery-specific biomechanics using fluid–structure interaction simulation.
356 *Annals of biomedical engineering* , 1–15
- 357 Girfoglio, M., Ballarin, F., Infantino, G., Nicoló, F., Montalto, A., Rozza, G., et al. (2022). Non-intrusive
358 PODI-ROM for patient-specific aortic blood flow in presence of a LVAD device. *Medical Engineering
359 & Physics* 107, 103849. doi:10.1016/j.medengphy.2022.103849
- 360 Hao, Y., Zhang, C., Li, X., and Lei, Z. (2022). Establishment of online deep learning model for insect-
361 affected pests in "Yali" pears based on visible-near-infrared spectroscopy. *Frontiers in Nutrition* 9,
362 1026730. doi:10.3389/fnut.2022.1026730
- 363 Hinton, G. E. and Roweis, S. (2002). Stochastic neighbor embedding. *Advances in neural information
364 processing systems* 15
- 365 King, T., Butcher, S., and Zalewski, L. (2017). *Apocrita - High Performance Computing Cluster for Queen
366 Mary University of London*. doi:10.5281/zenodo.438045
- 367 Kriegseis, J., Dehler, T., Gnirß, M., and Tropea, C. (2010). Common-base proper orthogonal decomposition
368 as a means of quantitative data comparison. *Measurement Science and Technology* 21. doi:10.1088/
369 0957-0233/21/8/085403
- 370 Krievins, D., Zellans, E., Latkovskis, G., Erglis, A., Zvaigzne, L., Kumsars, I., et al. (2020). Pre-operative
371 Diagnosis of Silent Coronary Ischaemia May Reduce Post-operative Death and Myocardial Infarction
372 and Improve Survival of Patients Undergoing Lower Extremity Surgical Revascularisation. *European
373 Journal of Vascular and Endovascular Surgery: The Official Journal of the European Society for Vascular
374 Surgery* 60, 411–420. doi:10.1016/j.ejvs.2020.05.027
- 375 Liang, L., Mao, W., and Sun, W. (2020). A feasibility study of deep learning for predicting hemodynamics
376 of human thoracic aorta. *Journal of biomechanics* 99, 109544
- 377 Montgomery, D. C. and Runger, G. C. (2010). *Applied statistics and probability for engineers* (John Wiley
378 & sons)
- 379 Pajaziti, E., Montalt-Tordera, J., Capelli, C., Sivera, R., Sauvage, E., Quail, M., et al. (2023). Shape-
380 driven deep neural networks for fast acquisition of aortic 3d pressure and velocity flow fields. *PLOS
381 Computational Biology* 19, e1011055
- 382 Panda, S., Khijmatgar, S., Arbildo-Vega, H., Das, A. C., Kumar, M., Das, M., et al. (2022). Stability of
383 biomaterials used in adjunct to coronally advanced flap: A systematic review and network meta-analysis.
384 *Clinical and Experimental Dental Research* 8, 421–438. doi:10.1002/cre2.461
- 385 Pedrigo, R. M., Poulsen, C. B., Mehta, V. V., Ramsing Holm, N., Pareek, N., Post, A. L., et al. (2015).
386 Inducing Persistent Flow Disturbances Accelerates Atherogenesis and Promotes Thin Cap Fibroatheroma
387 Development in D374Y-PCSK9 Hypercholesterolemic Minipigs. *Circulation* 132, 1003–1012. doi:10.
388 1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.115.016270
- 389 Pegolotti, L., Pfaller, M. R., Marsden, A. L., and Deparis, S. (2021). Model order reduction of flow based
390 on a modular geometrical approximation of blood vessels. *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics
391 and Engineering* 380, 113762. doi:10.1016/j.cma.2021.113762
- 392 Raissi, M., Yazdani, A., and Karniadakis, G. E. (2018). Hidden Fluid Mechanics: A Navier-Stokes
393 Informed Deep Learning Framework for Assimilating Flow Visualization Data
- 394 Savage, N. (2023). Synthetic data could be better than real data. *Nature* doi:10.1038/d41586-023-01445-8
- 395 Siasos, G., Tsigkou, V., Zaromytidou, M., Sara, J. D., Varshney, A., Coskun, A. U., et al. (2018). Role of
396 local coronary blood flow patterns and shear stress on the development of microvascular and epicardial
397 endothelial dysfunction and coronary plaque. *Current opinion in cardiology* 33, 638–644

- 398 Sieber, M., Paschereit, C. O., and Oberleithner, K. (2016). Spectral proper orthogonal decomposition.
399 *Journal of Fluid Mechanics* 792, 798–828. doi:10.1017/jfm.2016.103
- 400 Taylor, D. J., Feher, J., Halliday, I., Hose, D. R., Gosling, R., Aubiniere-Robb, L., et al. (2022). Refining
401 our understanding of the flow through coronary artery branches; revisiting murray’s law in human
402 epicardial coronary arteries. *Frontiers in Physiology* 13, 527
- 403 Towne, A., Schmidt, O. T., and Colonius, T. (2018). Spectral proper orthogonal decomposition and its
404 relationship to dynamic mode decomposition and resolvent analysis. *Journal of Fluid Mechanics* 847,
405 821–867. doi:10.1017/jfm.2018.283
- 406 Weiss, J. (2019). A tutorial on the proper orthogonal decomposition. *AIAA Aviation 2019 Forum* ,
407 1–21doi:10.2514/6.2019-3333
- 408 Wentzel, J. J., Corti, R., Fayad, Z. A., Wisdom, P., Macaluso, F., Winkelman, M. O., et al. (2005). Does
409 shear stress modulate both plaque progression and regression in the thoracic aorta? human study using
410 serial magnetic resonance imaging. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology* 45, 846–854
- 411 Wolf, W. R. and Lele, S. K. (2012). Trailing-edge noise predictions using compressible large-eddy
412 simulation and acoustic analogy. *AIAA Journal* 50, 2423–2434. doi:10.2514/1.J051638
- 413 Zhou, M., Yu, Y., Chen, R., Liu, X., Hu, Y., Ma, Z., et al. (2023). Wall shear stress and its role in
414 atherosclerosis. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine* 10, 1083547. doi:10.3389/fcvm.2023.1083547

FIGURE CAPTIONS

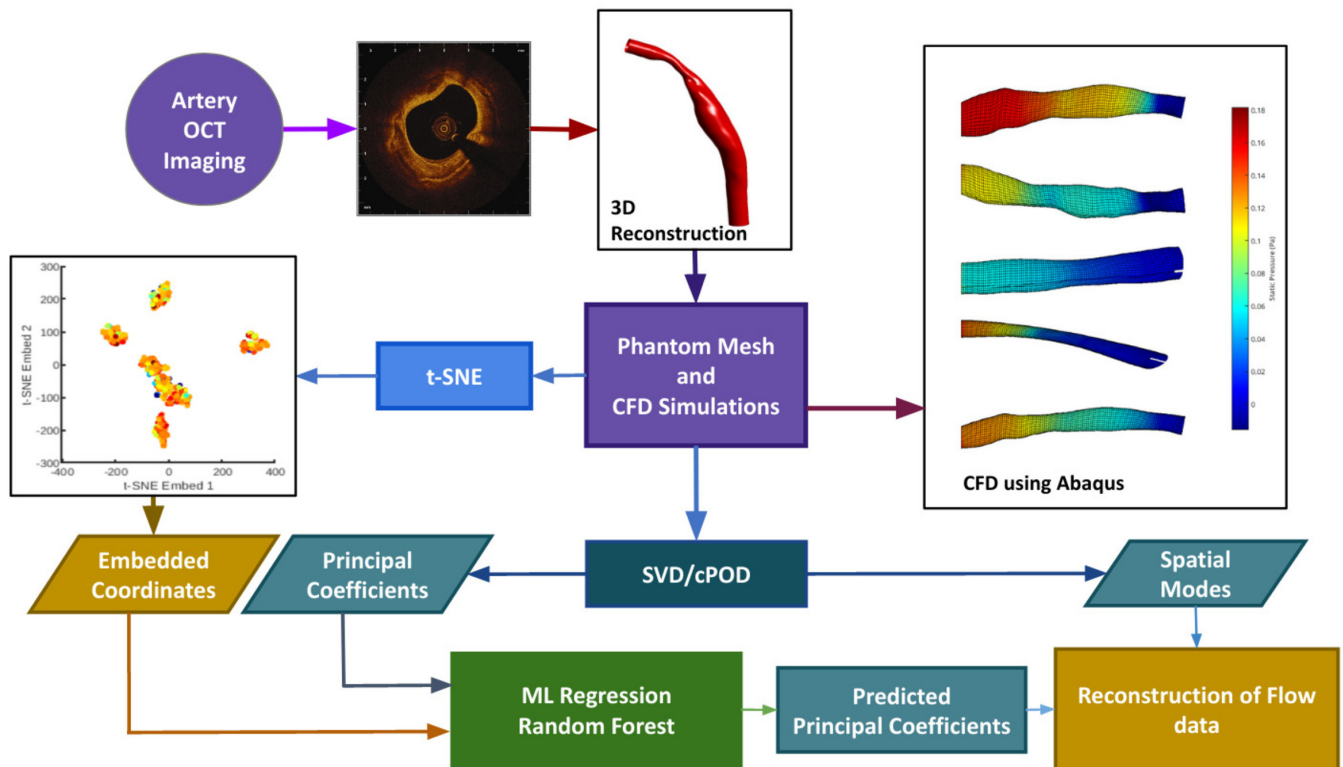


Figure 1. The data processing pipeline is summarized in this flowchart. OCT images are obtained in the cath. lab. and used to extrapolate a 3D contour. Mesh generation and Computational Fluid Dynamics are done through an automatic pipeline. The velocity profiles obtained from CFD will act as the ground truth. Synthetic data generation ($n=1407$) is done by random, but continuous perturbation of the length-wise diameter of each independent blood vessel ($n=7$). Data reduction is performed on the shear stress, and pressure fields obtained from CFD, via POD (see text for details), and on the input meshes through t-SNE (see text for details). These reduced data sets are used to train (90%) and validate (10%) the machine learning module.

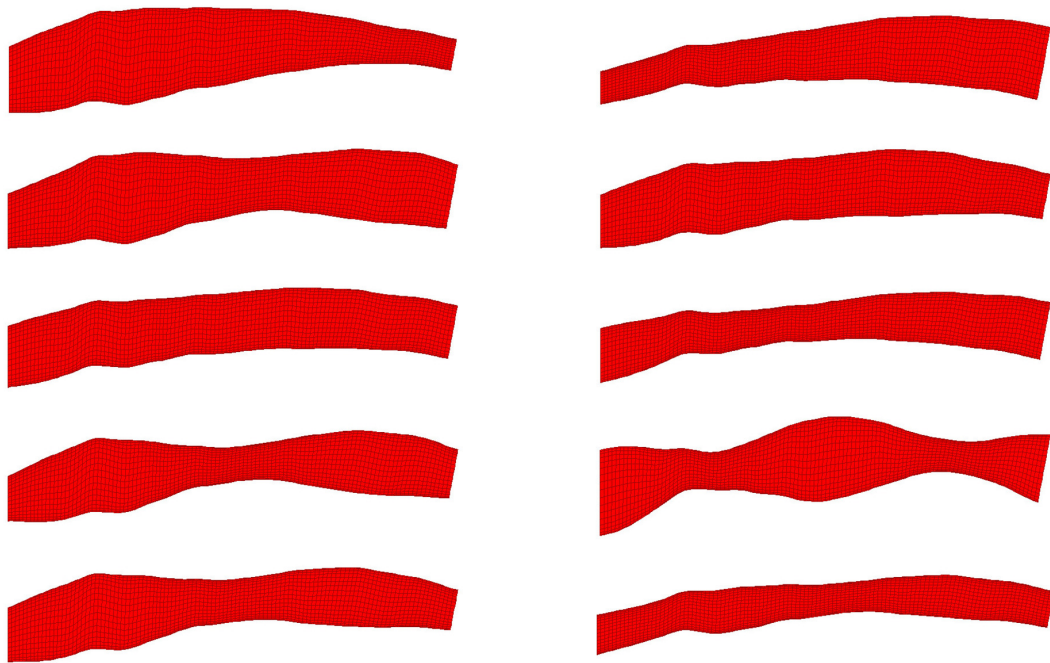


Figure 2. 10 randomly selected phantom geometries from the dataset are visualised. All phantoms shown were generated from the same OCT image. Variation in shape is due to random synthetic perturbations applied to the artery diameter. The function of which is a composite of two sinusoids with randomised amplitude, frequency, phase and vertical displacement. This ensures smooth, continuous variation along the length of the artery regardless of input parameters.

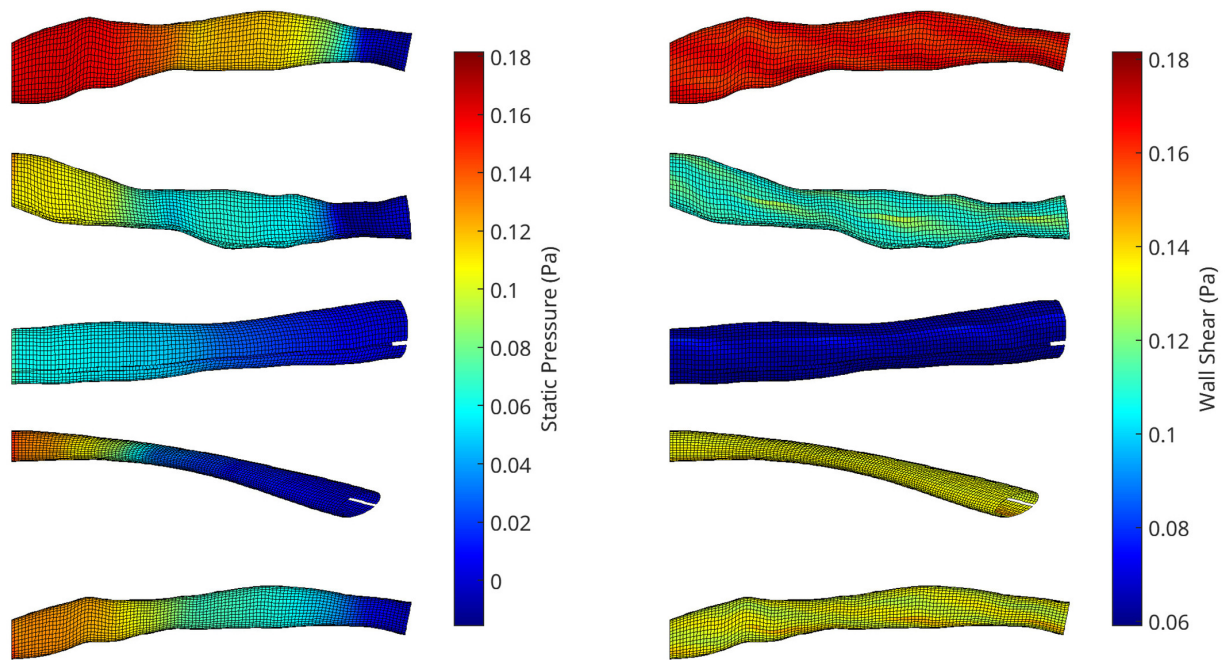


Figure 3. A collection of meshes generated using various OCT images and perturbation parameters, coloured by the pressure (left) and wall shear (right) solutions from CFD simulations. The mesh dimensions are normalised for the sake of visualisation

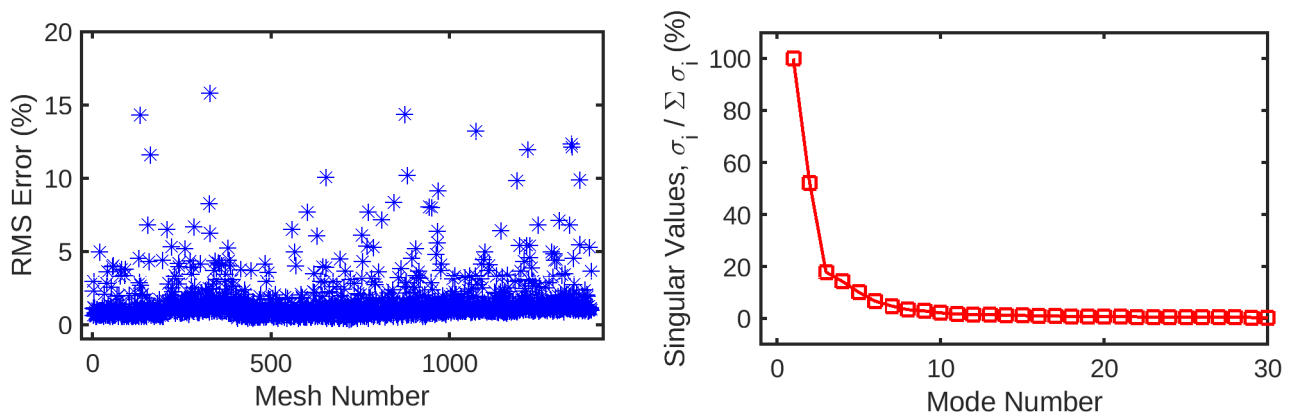


Figure 4. (left) Root-mean-squared error for the reconstruction of the original mesh-wise pressure solution from a truncated set of 10 principal coefficients per mesh. The error is normalised against the range of pressure values across all meshes. (right) Singular values for the decomposition of the pressure solution, normalised against the largest value. These singular values are ordered by magnitude and represent the relative contribution of each POD mode to the energy of the overall pressure solution. Subsequent values quickly decay to $<1\%$ of the highest value, as the first several modes represent the overwhelming majority of the information in the pressure field. This indicates that many of these trailing modes can be safely discarded from the dataset without losing a significant amount of information.

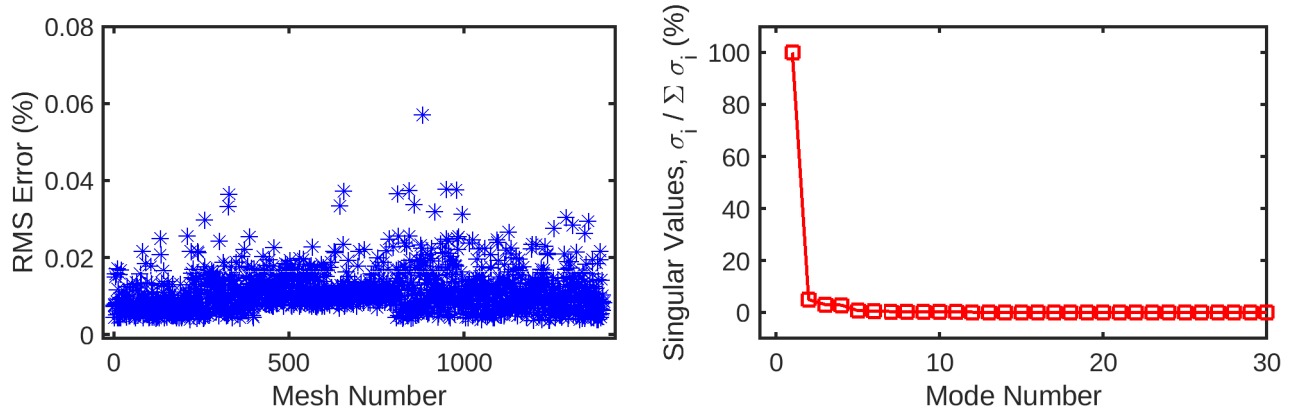


Figure 5. The mesh-wise reconstruction error for wall shear (left) is much lower than pressure reconstruction using the same number of coefficients. Additionally, the singular values (right) decay to 0 in a fewer number of modes compared to the pressure decomposition. These factors are indicative of the wall shear solution being easier for the POD method to decompose than static pressure, possibly due to the fewer number CFD nodes for which it is computed.

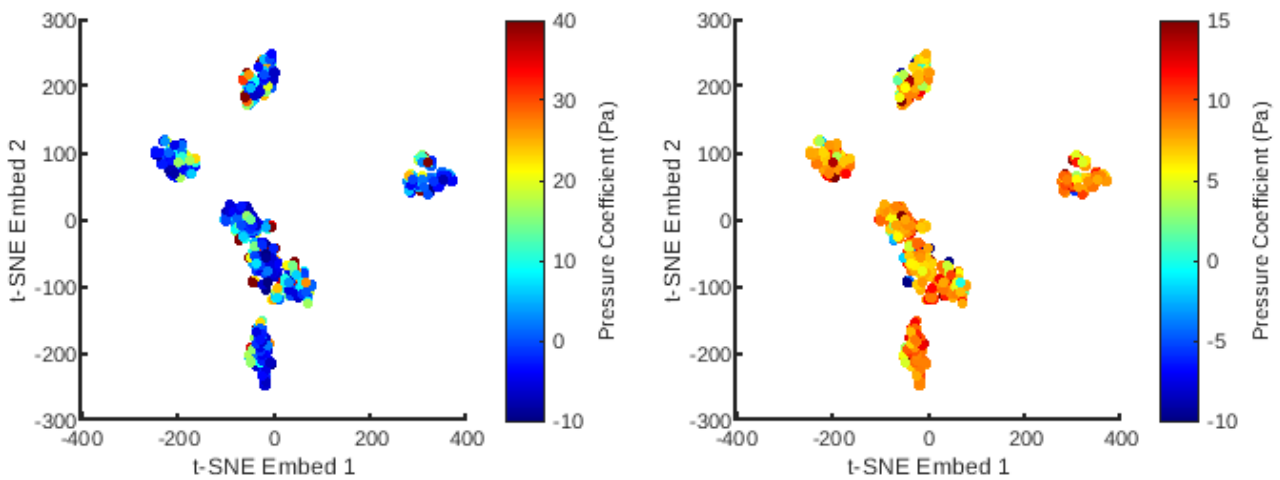


Figure 6. The distribution of all meshes in the database embedded in 2D t-SNE space with colours representing the principal coefficients of the static pressure solutions for the first (left) and second (right) mesh wise POD modes.

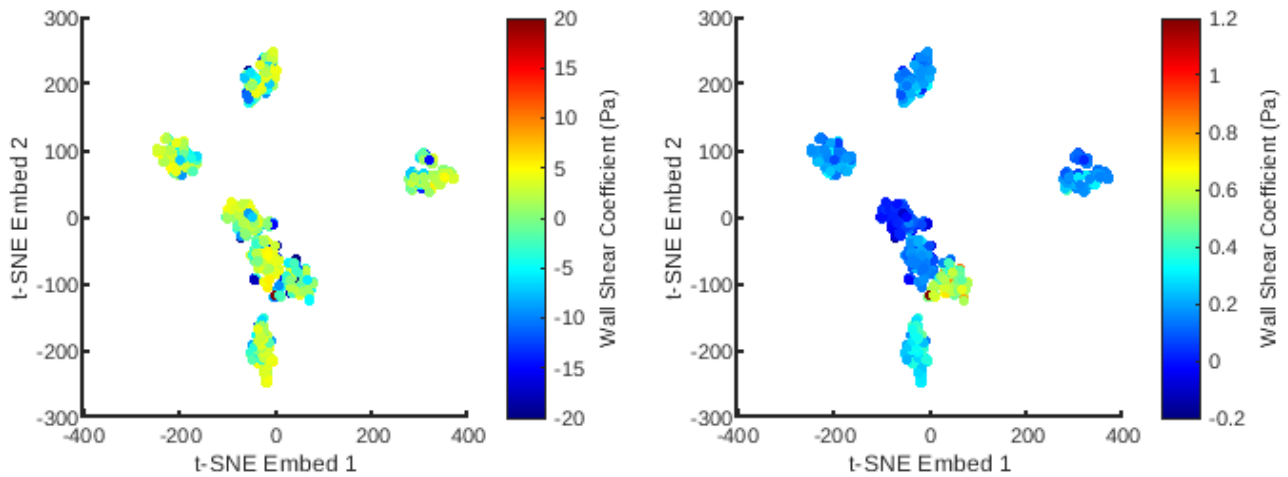


Figure 7. The distribution of all meshes in the database embedded in 2D t-SNE space with colours representing the principal coefficients of the wall shear solutions for the first (left) and second (right) mesh wise POD modes.

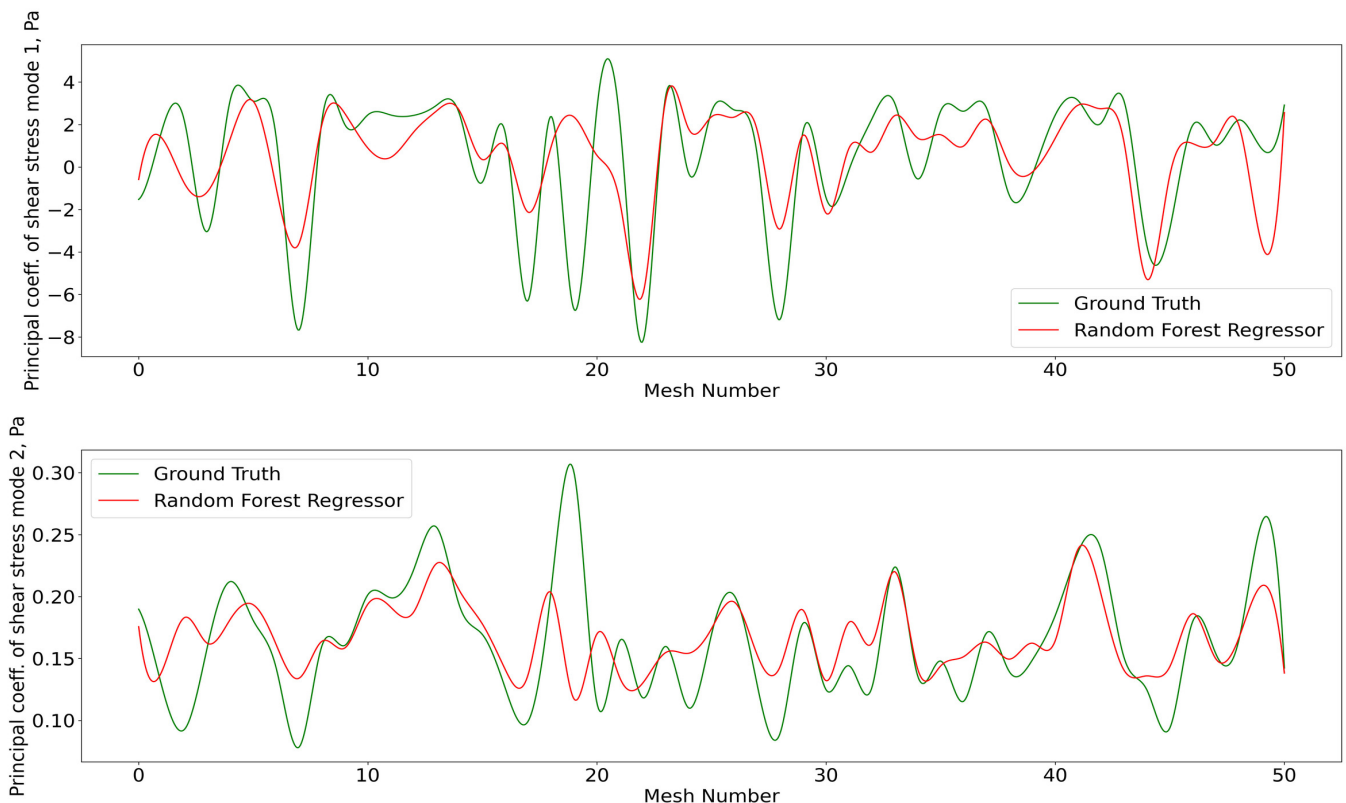


Figure 8. Predictions of POD principal coefficients of shear stress for first two modes using the proposed framework, compared to the ground truth for the test data set. The first part of the same data set was used for training via the RFR. The regression was performed on the 2D t-SNE representation of the meshes against the principal coefficients.

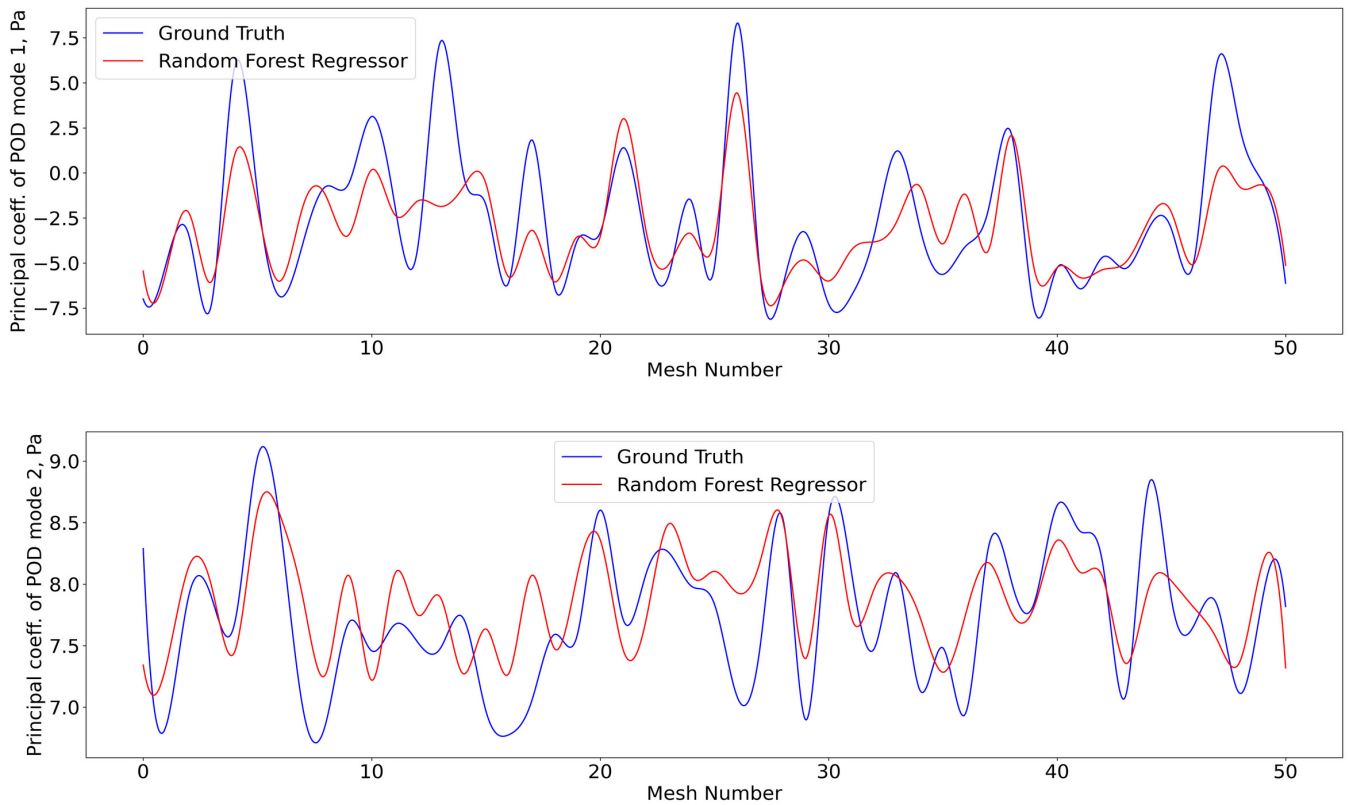


Figure 9. Predictions of POD principal coefficients of pressure for first two modes using the proposed framework, compared to the ground truth for the test data set. Training and testing of the RFR model for pressure utilised the same algorithm, configuration, and optimization as shear stress.

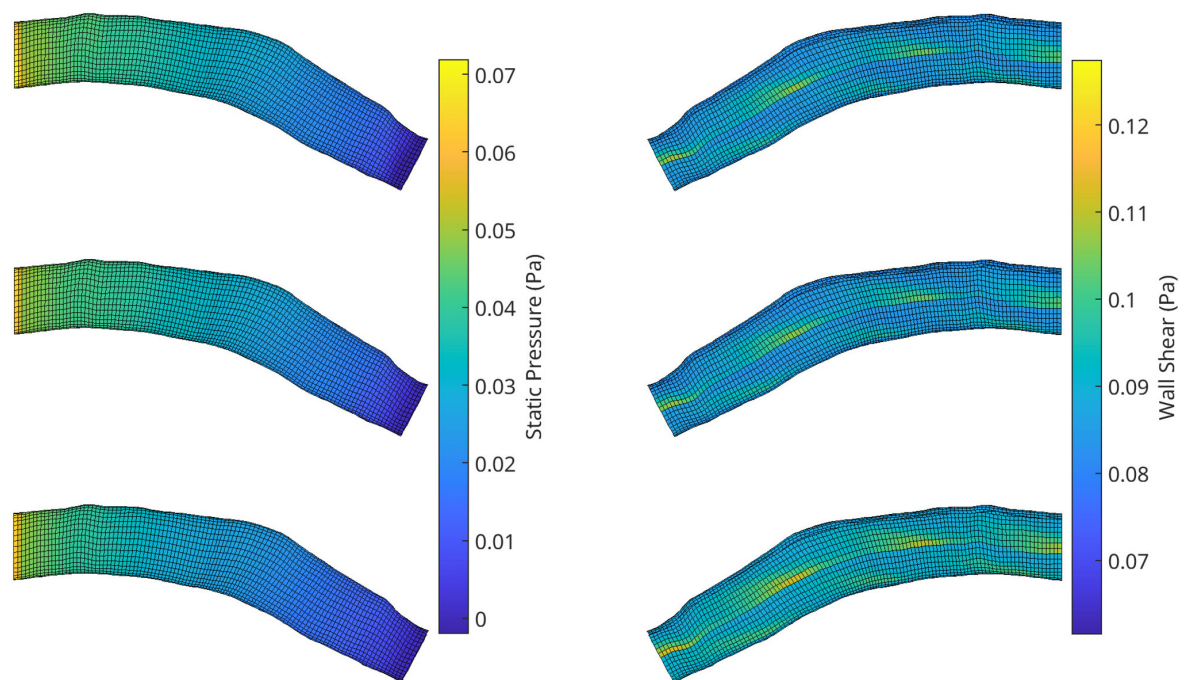


Figure 10. A visualisation of the flow field solution for pressure (left) and wall shear (right) of two test meshes. Shown is the ground truth CFD simulation data (top), the reconstructed POD solution using the 10 most dominant coefficients calculated from the CFD solution (middle) and the reconstruction using the RFR predicted coefficients (bottom).