

1 **Nasal High Flow Clears Anatomical Dead Space in Upper Airway Models**

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33 **ABSTRACT:**

34 Recent studies showed that Nasal High Flow (NHF) with or without supplemental oxygen can  
35 assist ventilation of patients with chronic respiratory and sleep disorders. The hypothesis of  
36 this study was to test whether NHF can clear dead-space in two different models of the  
37 upper nasal airways. The first was a simple tube model consisting of a nozzle to simulate the  
38 nasal valve area, connected to a cylindrical tube to simulate the nasal cavity. The second was  
39 a more complex anatomically representative upper airway model, constructed from  
40 segmented CT-scan images of a healthy volunteer. After filling the models with tracer-gases,  
41 NHF was delivered at rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min. The tracer gas clearance was determined  
42 using dynamic infrared CO<sub>2</sub> spectroscopy and <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas radioactive gamma camera imaging.  
43 There was a similar tracer-gas clearance characteristic in the tube model and the upper  
44 airway model: clearance half-times were below 1.0 s and decreased with increasing NHF  
45 rates. For both models, the anterior compartments demonstrated faster clearance levels  
46 (half-times < 0.5 s) and the posterior sections showed slower clearance (half-times < 1.0 s).  
47 Both imaging methods showed similar flow-dependent tracer-gas clearance in the models.  
48 For the anatomically-based model, there was complete tracer-gas removal from the nasal  
49 cavities within 1.0 s. The level of clearance in the nasal cavities increased by 1.8 mL/s for  
50 every 1.0 L/min increase in the rate of NHF. The study has demonstrated the fast-occurring  
51 clearance of nasal cavities by NHF therapy, which is capable of reducing of dead-space re-  
52 breathing.

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54 Keywords: nasal high flow, insufflation, NHF, upper airways, dead-space, carbon dioxide,

55 Krypton

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59 **INTRODUCTION**

60

61 Respiratory failure is a common complication in a range of pulmonary conditions (12).  
62 Recent studies report that an open nasal cannula system for delivering of Nasal High Flow  
63 (NHF) can assist ventilation in patients with chronic respiratory failure (2, 3, 5, 10) and sleep  
64 disorders (14, 18). The concept of delivering high flow through the open nasal cannula is not  
65 entirely new (24) but advancements in technology that efficiently warm and humidify  
66 respiratory gases have been the key factor for clinical application of NHF. This form of  
67 respiratory support is commonly used with a wide range of flow from 2 L/min in preterm  
68 newborns to 60 L/min in adults with or without supplemental oxygen (7, 25). NHF can also  
69 be combined with a delivery of aerosolized drugs into the airways (1, 4 ).

70

71 A number of clinically relevant benefits have been associated with NHF therapy: reduction in  
72 respiratory rate, an increase or decrease in minute ventilation, improved alveolar  
73 ventilation, a reduction of wasted ventilation and the work of breathing (5, 10). However,  
74 the mechanisms of how NHF produces these benefits are poorly understood. A mechanistic  
75 study of NHF proposed two different ventilatory responses, one when awake and another  
76 during sleep (16). The reduction of dead-space ventilation was proposed to be the principal  
77 driver for the response during sleep. The mechanisms of dead-space clearance are difficult  
78 to study due to the anatomical complexity and inability to visualize the gas flow in the upper  
79 airways. However, many researchers have proposed dead-space clearance during NHF as the  
80 major physiological mechanism that improves respiratory support (17, 20, 22).  
81 Measurement of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentration in the trachea confirmed this  
82 hypothesis (21), and other studies have also reported a reduction of arterial and tissue CO<sub>2</sub>  
83 in response to NHF therapy (3, 6).

84

85 In this study, the clearance of gas in dead-space with NHF was investigated using two upper  
86 airway models. The first was a simple Tube Model (TM), which consisted of a nozzle and a  
87 cylindrical tube. The nozzle represented the nasal valve area, which is the narrowest  
88 constriction of the upper airways, and the tube characterized the volume of the upper  
89 airways. The second was an Upper Airway Model (UAM), which more accurately represented  
90 the complexity of the upper airways. For the simple TM, the gas clearance rates were

91 quantified using both a Mid Wave Infra-Red (MWIR) CO<sub>2</sub> absorption spectroscopy and by  
92 radioactive Krypton (<sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas) gamma camera imaging. For the more anatomically accurate  
93 UAM, only the gamma camera imaging could be used due to the materials available for 3D  
94 printing being incompatible with MWIR spectroscopy.

95

96 The main hypothesis of this study was to experimentally demonstrate that NHF can clear  
97 tracer-gases from upper airway models independent of the tracer-gas, the imaging modality  
98 or the dimensional complexity of the models tested. It was also hypothesized that NHF flow  
99 rates would be a major factor in the level of clearance, with the anatomical complexity and  
100 inter-individual variability in the anatomy of the upper airways playing less important roles.

101

102

## 103 **METHODS**

104

### 105 *Nasal High Flow (NHF)*

106 NHF rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min of air were generated using a high flow blower-humidifier  
107 (AIRVO™ 2, Fisher & Paykel Healthcare, New Zealand). The delivered flow was measured by a  
108 low resistance pneumotachograph (Fleisch, Lausanne, Switzerland) and a differential  
109 pressure transducer carrier-amplifier system (Validyne, Northridge, CA, USA). The high-flow  
110 blower-humidifier was always on, to allow the system to be at stable operational  
111 temperatures and flow rates. A valve (Hans Rudolph, Shawnee, KS, USA) is used to alternate  
112 between two cannula, one delivering <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas for model filling and the other delivering NHF  
113 for clearance of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas. When measurements were taken, the tracer-gas was introduced  
114 into the model and then the Y-valve directed NHF through the cannula. For the simplified TM  
115 experiments (Figure 1A), a custom-made cannula (ID = 6.3 mm, OD = 7.0 mm, length = 40.0  
116 mm) was used to deliver the NHF, while for the UAM experiments an Optiflow™ cannula  
117 interface (OPT844, Fisher & Paykel Healthcare, New Zealand) was used.

118

119 Two upper airway models and two different imaging systems were used in this study. The  
120 first model was a simple Tube Model (TM) geometry that allowed both imaging systems to  
121 visualize the gas clearance, and a second one was a more complicated Upper Airway Model  
122 (UAM) that only allowed the radioactive <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas to be visualized. Therefore, the TM was

123 used to compare the imaging systems with different gas compositions, while the second  
124 imaging system enabled visualization in the more anatomically accurate geometry. CO<sub>2</sub>  
125 MWIR absorption spectroscopy and <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas radioactive gamma camera imaging were used  
126 as imaging systems in this study. The first imaging system used Carbogen, which better  
127 represented the expired gases, and the second used air labelled with <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas which could  
128 also be imaged through the more complex upper airway model.

129

### 130 *MWIR absorption spectroscopy*

131 The first imaging system used MWIR absorption spectroscopy to visualize CO<sub>2</sub> tracer-gas  
132 clearance. It comprised a custom-made blackbody (Figure 1A), controlled to 230 °C, to be  
133 used as the heat radiation source, and a MWIR camera system (SC7600, FLIR, France),  
134 together with a narrow-band pass filter 4260/20nm (Spectrogon, Sweden). The CO<sub>2</sub>-filled TM  
135 was placed between the IR heat source and the MWIR camera system (Figure 1A), which  
136 detected heat radiation absorption by CO<sub>2</sub> in the tube. A Carbogen gas mixture of similar  
137 composition to expired air (6% CO<sub>2</sub>, 21% O<sub>2</sub> and 73% N<sub>2</sub>, BOC Gases, Auckland, New Zealand)  
138 was used as a tracer-gas in order to closely represent gas behavior during NHF therapy.

139

### 140 *<sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas imaging*

141 The second imaging system used a planar gamma camera (Orbiter, Siemens, Erlangen,  
142 Germany) to visualize radioactive <sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas clearance. For these experiments, the  
143 <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas (TycoHC Covidien, Neustadt, Germany) was generated at a concentration of 1 to  
144 2% in the entrained air. The models filled with the <sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas were placed in front of  
145 the planar gamma camera. The gamma camera sampled images at a 25 Hz frame rate. The  
146 clearance curves were then fitted with exponential functions and the clearance half-times  
147 calculated. This data was corrected to allow for the level of natural <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas decay ( $T_{1/2} = 13$   
148 s) and presented as corrected clearance half-times.

149

### 150 *Tube Model (TM)*

151 The simplified geometry of the TM had two distinct compartments. The first was a single  
152 nozzle representing the combined nasal valve area (inner diameter of 12 mm) of both noses,  
153 machined from a single sodium chloride (NaCl) crystal. Directly coupled to the nozzle was the  
154 second tube compartment, which represented the volume of the upper airways. This was

155 fabricated from a grown sapphire crystal tube of dimension ID = 26 mm, OD = 31 mm, length  
156 = 130 mm (Figure 1A). This model was used for both CO<sub>2</sub> absorption spectroscopy imaging  
157 and <sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas X-ray imaging. Both the NaCl and sapphire compartments exhibited  
158 excellent transmission characteristics in the MWIR spectrum, allowing high-efficiency CO<sub>2</sub>  
159 imaging within the 4.26 μm absorption band, as well as the <sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas imaging. For  
160 both tracer-gases, the TM was filled with the tracer-gas from the side opposite to the nozzle.  
161 Then the administration of NHF was carried out via a cannula, which was placed coaxially in  
162 the nozzle of the TM (Figure 1A). The induced dilution and wash-out of the tracer-gases, or  
163 dead-space clearance, was recorded by the appropriate imaging system, allowing direct  
164 comparison of clearance rates within the TM.

165

166 As illustrated in Figure 1B, two regions of interest (ROIs) were defined in the simple TM,  
167 those being the anterior section of the nozzle (TM1, volume 28 cm<sup>3</sup>) and posterior part of  
168 the nozzle (TM2, volume 25 cm<sup>3</sup>). CO<sub>2</sub> clearance profiles for these ROIs were analyzed and  
169 characterized by fitting exponentially decaying functions. The CO<sub>2</sub> clearance half-times for  
170 these ROIs were then calculated. For the experiments using the <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas imaging system  
171 with the simplified TM, images were captured for both the <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas filling and subsequent  
172 15 s of NHF clearance. Similar ROIs to those used in the CO<sub>2</sub> imaging were applied to analyze  
173 the <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance characteristics from the TM (Figure 1B). Clearance rates were  
174 determined from the ROI volumes divided by the appropriate clearance time constants.

175

176 Figure 2A demonstrates exhalation flow profiles through the TM and visualization of expired  
177 CO<sub>2</sub>. Figure 2B shows clearance of CO<sub>2</sub> in the TM during 30 L/min flow through the cannula  
178 into the nozzle.

179

180

### 181 *Upper Airway Model (UAM)*

182 An anatomically accurate 3D upper airway model was developed to better represent the  
183 expected gas clearance when using NHF therapy in practice (Figure 3A). The UAM was based  
184 on segmented images from a Computer Tomography (CT) scan of a healthy volunteer, which  
185 was then constructed using a High Definition (HD) 3D printer (Projet HD3000, 3D Systems  
186 Inc., USA). Nasal valve area in both noses was 56 mm<sup>2</sup>. There was no anatomical structure

187 beyond the nasal cavity and the unit led into an 18 mm ID tubing, which exited at the  
188 bottom of the model. The material in the 3D printer is highly absorbent in the MWIR  
189 spectrum. Therefore, only the  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas gamma camera imaging was used. The UAM was  
190 then integrated into a plastic head model to enable the attachment of the cannula interface.  
191 The position of the UAM in front of the gamma camera and the attachment of the NHF  
192 cannula interface are shown in Figure 3A (left panel). The anterior and posterior ROIs (UAM1  
193 and UAM2, respectively), illustrated in Figure 3A (right panel), were overlaid with a CT image  
194 of the UAM (Figure 3B) showing the detailed anatomical accurate nasal cavity structures  
195 contained within the model. For this protocol, the UAM was filled with  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas, via the  
196 tubing from bottom, while the nasal cannula was located in the nares, in line with normal  
197 use. As for the TM experiments, both the filling and 15 s of  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas clearance were  
198 captured by dynamic gamma camera imaging.

199

200 Dynamic  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas activity profiles were constructed from the sagittal plane gamma camera  
201 imaging. For identification of anatomical markers in the gamma camera recordings, all serial  
202 images were superimposed and overlaid on a representative CT slice of the UAM, and ROIs  
203 were defined (Figure 3A) in the nasal cavities, which were divided into anterior (UAM1) and  
204 posterior (UAM2) ROIs. Clearance rates were calculated using the total volume ( $55\text{ cm}^3$ ) of  
205 the nasal cavities.

206

### 207 *Data analysis*

208 Every experimental condition was repeated five times. Statistical analyses were performed  
209 using Winstat 2009.1 (Microsoft Excel 2009), to determine the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation  
210 (SD), median, minimum and maximum values. Differences between each experimental  
211 condition were compared using a two-sided t-test with a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ . In  
212 addition, differences were assessed using a paired t-test with the same significance level. A  
213 Pearson correlation analysis was performed to assess correlations among study variables.

214

215

216 **RESULTS**

217

218 *CO<sub>2</sub> - and <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance in the TM*

219 The clearance half-times for the two ROIs versus the NHF rates for the CO<sub>2</sub> clearance  
220 experiments are shown in Table 1 and plotted in Figure 4A. The comparable clearance half-  
221 times of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas are shown in Table 2 and in Figure 4B. For either ROI in the TM, all NHF  
222 rates and both imaging techniques had clearance half-times of 0.6 s or less. For all flow rates  
223 and both tracer gases, the anterior ROI (TM1) clearance half-time was always faster than the  
224 posterior ROI (TM2) ( $p < 0.01$ ). For both tracer-gases and ROIs, the clearance half-times  
225 decreased with increasing NHF rates ( $r = -0.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). At 45 L/min NHF, the clearance  
226 half-time was approximately half that for an NHF of 15 L/min. The clearance half-times for  
227 the CO<sub>2</sub> experiments demonstrated a highly positive correlation with the <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance  
228 rates ( $r = 0.97$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) for both ROIs.

229

230 Tracer-gas (CO<sub>2</sub>) wash-out during exhalation through the TM and application of 30 L/min  
231 cannula flow revealed the onset of tracer-gas clearance early, before the end of exhalation  
232 (Figure 2). It is effective when the exhalation flow decreases below the cannula flow (time  
233 point ii in Figure 2).

234

235 *<sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance in the UAM*

236 Typical examples of the data from the UAM using the gamma camera can be seen in Figures  
237 3C and supplemental video SupplVideo-UAM-Kr.avi. The UAM was filled with <sup>81m</sup>Kr gas, from  
238 the trachea end, and NHF rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min were introduced through a nasal  
239 cannula interface. The images shown in Figure 3C were obtained from the dynamic stack and  
240 represent the tracer-gas distribution at three time periods (0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 s) following the  
241 introduction of NHF. The images show the rapid clearance of the <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas from the nasal  
242 cavity 0.5 s after the onset of NHF, and deeper clearance was associated with greater NHF  
243 rates and longer times.

244

245 The <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance half-times observed in the UAM at the NHF rates tested are  
246 summarized in Table 3 and illustrated in Figure 4C. The characteristic dependencies of gas



247 clearance from the UAM are comparable to those during use of the TM. Clearance half-time  
248 decreases by increasing the NHF rate ( $r = -0.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). For both the TM and UAM  
249 experiments, the anterior ROI (TM1 and UAM1, respectively) demonstrated the fastest  
250 clearance rates ( $p < 0.01$ ), and the clearance half-times decreased by increasing the NHF rate  
251 for both ROIs. In addition, clearance half-times of  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas from the UAM's ROIs correlates  
252 with the comparable TM's ROIs ( $r = 0.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

253

254 The total clearance rate from both UAM nasal cavity ROIs expressed in mL/s (Figure 5) has a  
255 linear relationship with the NHF rates (15, 30 and 45 L/min) tested ( $r = 0.92$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ):  
256 every 1 L/min increase in NHF results in 1.8 mL/s increased clearance in the nasal cavities.

257

258

259

260 **DISCUSSION**

261

262 Recent studies have reported clinical benefits of NHF (3, 15, 18), with the key mechanism  
263 being hypothesized as the clearance of dead-space resulting in a reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>-re-  
264 breathing (5, 13). However, dead-space clearance is very difficult to study *in vivo* due to the  
265 challenges of quantifying this rapid process in an anatomically complex environment.  
266 Animal models are of limited use because of their significant differences in the anatomy of  
267 their upper airways. In this study, the dead-space clearance rates for two very geometrically  
268 different models were studied. The effects of breathing on dead-space clearance were  
269 excluded in order to guarantee reproducible experimental conditions. Therefore, the studies  
270 were performed to simulate quasi-static breath-holding conditions. The tracer-gases had  
271 been introduced into the models before NHF was commenced, to record sequences of  
272 images.

273

274 The first tube model (TM) represented a simplified airway for the ease of clearance, but  
275 allowed both tracer-gases to be imaged in a consistent framework. A single nozzle  
276 represented the two nasal valve areas, which are the narrowest part in upper airways. A  
277 cannula with thin walls was positioned in the center of the nozzle and a tube behind the  
278 nozzle represented the dead-space volume in conducting airways. This was a similar airway  
279 model to that used in an earlier study to demonstrate the pressure/flow relationship during  
280 NHF therapy (16). The airway model was filled with either CO<sub>2</sub> or <sup>81m</sup>Kr tracer-gas, and then  
281 the wash-out and clearance characteristics caused by the delivery of high-flow air via the  
282 cannula were quantified using either dynamic MWIR or radioactive gamma camera imaging,  
283 respectively. Spectroscopic imaging of the Carbogen gas mixture within the TM allowed  
284 visualization of the gas flow at 1000 frames per second. This was then post-processed to  
285 allow quantification of the gas clearance rates, as CO<sub>2</sub> is a key component of the expired gas  
286 and imaging this gas is physiologically relevant. However, only a small number of materials  
287 that are very difficult to manufacture are transparent in the MWIR spectrum. This limited  
288 the complexity of the upper airway model to a simple tube, with a valve region. Therefore,  
289 the technique of gamma camera imaging of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas was used, as this allowed much more  
290 complex upper airway models to be imaged from a wider range of materials. One weakness

291 of the gamma camera imaging was that it had lower spatial and temporal resolution than  
292 the MWIR spectroscopy. Gamma camera imaging can also be used *in vivo* to visualize the  
293 airways in healthy volunteers because Krypton is an inert noble gas and the isotope  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$   
294 produces a very low radiation dose.

295

296 The results from both the  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas imaging have demonstrated very fast clearance  
297 of the tracer-gas following the application of high flow through the cannula. The clearance  
298 half-times in the simple TM *nasal cavity* were less than 0.6 s for both tracer-gases. There was  
299 a similar flow-rate dependency of the compartmental clearance half-time for both tracer-  
300 gases, and higher flow rates significantly reduced the clearance half-times. The gases leaked  
301 around the cannula and the clearance profiles suggest two specific characteristics: 1) for all  
302 flows studied, clearance is faster in the anterior ROI and slower in the posterior ROI; 2)  
303 clearance half-time decreases as the NHF rate increases for all ROIs. The strong correlation  
304 between the data from both gases in the TM experiments shows that the two imaging  
305 systems are comparable. The significantly slower acquisition rate of the  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas gamma  
306 camera imaging system can still be used to study kinetics of these very rapid processes in  
307 more complex anatomically realistic models where  $\text{CO}_2$  visualization is inhibited. These  
308 comparable results are not unexpected, as both tracer-gas mixtures had comparable  
309 physical properties. The Carbogen gas is similar to ambient air with an elevated  $\text{CO}_2$   
310 concentration of 6%, while the  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas concentration was only 1 to 2% with the remainder  
311 being ambient air.

312

313 In this study the upper airway models were filled with the tracer-gas. When flow of the  
314 tracer-gas was stopped NHF was introduced. This quasi-static setup allowed for comparable  
315 and reproducible experiments to be performed. This is in contrast to the condition *in vivo*,  
316 where clearance of dead-space already starts before the end of expiratory flow. This was  
317 demonstrated when expiring through the TM while a cannula flow of 30 L/min was applied  
318 (Figure 2B). Initially the model was always “filled” with exhaled  $\text{CO}_2$  (Figure 2A), but the  
319 same  $\text{CO}_2$  was significantly cleared at the end of expiration when a cannula flow such as 30  
320 L/min was present (Figure 2B). Fresh gas from a cannula was observed within the model  
321 even as the expiratory flow rate decreased from that of the peak flow, due to the difference  
322 of dynamic pressure between the nozzle and the cannula flows. This highlights that the

323 clearance of dead space can be significantly affected by the breathing pattern and that the  
324 static condition in the experiments did not include the effects of breathing, thus  
325 underestimating the speed and effectiveness of the clearance.

326

327 In the 3D-printed UAM, only the radioactive  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas tracer-gas clearance protocol was  
328 followed, as the materials used to fabricate the model were not MWIR transparent.  
329 Similarly, to the TM imaging analysis, the clearance rates were assessed in two adjoining  
330 ROIs, those being the anterior (UAM1) and posterior (UAM2) regions of the nasal cavities.  
331 The relationship between the clearance level and the NHF rate for the UAM was comparable  
332 to those obtained using the TM, with the clearance half-time of the  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas decreasing by  
333 increasing NHF rates. In both ROIs the change in clearance half-times was greater when the  
334 NHF was increased from 15 to 30 L/min than from 30 to 45 L/min. However, the clearance  
335 rates for both ROIs were calculated, and were shown to have a linear response to an  
336 increase of the NHF rate (Figure 5). An increased NHF rate of 1 L/min corresponded to  $\approx 1.8$   
337 mL/s increase in the cleared nasal cavities volume in the UAM. In the deeper compartments  
338 beyond the soft palate (oropharynx, trachea), clearance half-times were greater than 1 s  
339 (see also supplementary video SupplVideo-UAM-Kr.avi). These deeper regions of the  
340 conducting airways were not included in the data analyses, as clearance in these regions is  
341 more likely to be subjected to changes in flow restriction due to variability in the shape of  
342 the soft palate, the vocal cords or the mouth opening. Consequently, clearance of the  
343 deeper regions of conducting airways has to be studied *in vivo*.

344

#### 345 *Physiological and clinical implications*

346 It has been shown that NHF influences the gas exchange in the lungs with an increase in  
347 oxygen blood saturation (6, 17) and a reduction of arterial  $\text{CO}_2$  (17). A study on healthy  
348 volunteers revealed that the effects of NHF on ventilation was also dependent on whether  
349 the subject was awake or asleep: a reduction of tidal volume when awake and changes to  
350 minute ventilation when asleep (16). The authors of this paper speculated that the reduction  
351 of ventilation during sleep may be due to either a wash-out of anatomical dead-space or a  
352 reduction in  $\text{CO}_2$  production.

353

354 It is known that during normal breathing at rest approximately one third of tidal volume is  
355 re-breathed from the anatomical dead-space (11). At the end of expiration, the dead-space  
356 is filled with gas depleted in oxygen (15 to 16 % compared to 21 % in ambient air) and rich in  
357 CO<sub>2</sub> (5 to 6% compared to 0.04% in ambient air). Therefore, an NHF-induced reduction of re-  
358 breathed CO<sub>2</sub> volume should either decrease the tidal volume or respiratory rate to maintain  
359 the same alveolar ventilation. All of these conditions could eventually improve gas exchange.  
360 Improving the gas exchange through the reduction of dead-space may either affect arterial  
361 blood gases or reduce minute ventilation, with a potential reduction in the work of  
362 breathing. Our data is limited to the dead-space in the nasal cavities, but supports both the  
363 conclusions of Mundel et al. (16), that the reduction of dead-space is the primary  
364 mechanism of decreased tidal volume with minute ventilation during sleep, and of Bräunlich  
365 et al. (3) on the reduction of the respiratory rate and minute ventilation. Reduction of  
366 respiratory rate, either through a decrease in re-breathing or through pressure effects as  
367 previously described in detail (16), may lead to a further reduction of dead-space, as shown  
368 by the strong time dependence of clearance in this study. We speculate that a reduction in  
369 the respiratory rate may improve clearance by NHF therapy. Even in the absence of an end-  
370 expiratory pause, the slower respiration rate may lead to a more efficient clearance of dead-  
371 space and a reduction of re-breathing.

372

373 The ratio of dead-space to tidal volume ( $V_D/V_T$ ) increases during shallow breathing, which in  
374 turn requires an increase of breathing frequency to maintain an adequate level of alveolar  
375 ventilation. Physiological dead-space can be significantly increased in conditions like  
376 emphysema in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) or pulmonary embolism by  
377 the elevated alveolar dead-space volume (11) that would lead to a high  $V_D/V_T$  ratio, or in  
378 Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS) (9), which is associated with higher mortality. In  
379 these cases, even a small reduction of dead-space would lead to a relatively high increase in  
380 alveolar volume. In this study the ROIs were limited to the nasal cavities, which includes  
381 between the nasal valve area and the soft palate, and have a combined volume of 55 cm<sup>3</sup>.  
382 Typical nasal cavity volumes of 40 to 50 cm<sup>3</sup> were reported in healthy adults (23). Even this  
383 anatomical volume comprises at least one third of the anatomical dead-space (8) in adults  
384 and is significantly higher in children (19). Clearing this upper airway dead-space could  
385 therefore be quite significant for patients who have elevated  $V_D/V_T$  ratios. Similarly, the

386 reduction of dead-space volume has been proposed as a mechanism that improves  
387 ventilation during purse-lip breathing, through forcing the flow to be unidirectional and  
388 bypassing the nasal cavities when exhaling (8).

389

390 The effectiveness of clearing the nasal cavities in the UAM (Figure 5) has a linear positive  
391 dependency with NHF treatment. Therefore, the nasal cavity clearance level rises with  
392 increasing NHF rates, with every 1 L/min NHF increase leading to a 1.8 mL/s increased  
393 clearance in the nasal cavities. Independent of the variations between the geometries of the  
394 two upper airway models, the different tracer-gas properties, and imaging techniques used,  
395 all the results demonstrated very similar clearance levels during changes in the NHF rates.  
396 This further contributes to the notion that clearance of the dead-space, especially within the  
397 nasal cavities, is strongly affected by the NHF rates. The size of the cannula may also have an  
398 influence on dead-space clearance due to the higher velocity of gas for a given flow. Smaller  
399 cannula may lead to more efficient dead-space clearance due also to more space, and hence  
400 leak, around the cannula. However, Mundel *et al.* (16) reported that the use of larger  
401 cannula leads to higher expiratory pressures, which may potentially reduce the respiratory  
402 rate and increase the tidal volume during wakefulness; this may, in turn, improve the  
403 efficiency of clearance and alveolar ventilation.

404

405 This study has investigated dead-space clearance under a quasi-static breathing condition,  
406 which occurs in the period between expiration and inspiration. At this stage of the breathing  
407 cycle the flow rates are reduced from low to no flow, shortly before reversing direction.  
408 During a normal breathing cycle this may take between 0.5 and 1.0 s, which would allow  
409 sufficient time for a tracer-gas to be washed-out, based on the experimentally determined  
410 clearance half-times in the airway models used in this study (Figure 5 and Tables 1, 2 and 3).  
411 The quasi-static experimental condition resulted in an underestimation of the level of total  
412 clearance by NHF therapy, but allowed the clearance rates of these tracer-gases to be  
413 studied without the added complexity of respiration.

414

415 Overall, the clearance profiles in the TM and UAM experiments exhibited similar NHF  
416 dependencies and this may indicate that deviations in the upper airway anatomy may not  
417 significantly modify the dead-space clearance characteristics using NHF in different subjects

418 who share similar nasal cavity volumes. However, besides flow, the volume of the nasal  
419 cavities is an important parameter in describing NHF-induced clearance rates.

420

421

#### 422 *Strengths and limitations*

423 There are two key strengths in the current study. The first is the evaluation of upper airway  
424 dead-space clearance in two very different models of the upper airways: 1) a very simple  
425 airway model, with the geometry limited to a tube with a streamlined nozzle to represent  
426 the narrow nasal valve area; 2) a more realistic model based on CT scans of a healthy  
427 individual, which encapsulated all the anatomical complexities of the upper airways. This  
428 allowed a direct comparison between the two models using the same imaging equipment.  
429 The results showed that both models responded in a similar manner: an increase of the NHF  
430 rate improved the clearance of dead-space. This was demonstrated by the reduction of  
431 clearance half-times. Use of both models revealed that the anterior compartments cleared  
432 prior to the posterior sections. This adds weight to the argument that the geometry and  
433 dimension of the nasal cavities have less of an impact on dead-space clearance than the NHF  
434 rates. Clearance in the simple TM was only twice as fast as the very complex geometry of the  
435 UAM. The clearance of dead-space by NHF increases linearly with an increase of flow, which  
436 is of clinical significance for the administration of NHF therapy.

437

438 The second key strength is that the upper airway clearance has been investigated using two  
439 distinct imaging modalities that use different tracer-gases. Visualization and analysis of CO<sub>2</sub>  
440 using MWIR transmission spectroscopy provided high temporal and spatial resolution for  
441 studying the clearance rates in a model with a simple geometry. Gamma imaging of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-  
442 gas also produced comparable clearance rates in the same simple geometry model, as well  
443 as in a more complex but realistic upper airway model. Both methods and models produced  
444 comparable results that demonstrated the same clearance dynamics with increasing the NHF  
445 rates. The gamma ray imaging of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas is of particular importance as this technique can  
446 be implemented for *in vivo* experiments.

447

448 There are several limitations in this study. The main drawback is that all experiments were  
449 performed with *in vitro* models, and only static clearance rates in the absence of breathing

450 were quantified. The clearance responses to a range of tidal volumes and breathing patterns  
451 were not investigated during this study. The addition of breathing will only accelerate the  
452 clearance of the tracer-gas from dead-space; therefore, the results presented in this study  
453 underestimated the clearance levels. It was decided to limit the scope of this study to allow  
454 the accurate quantification of the NHF clearance rates in a simplified but repeatable  
455 protocol. Moreover, the effects of an open mouth, position of the soft palate, vocal cords  
456 and the effects of changing the nasal prong positions were also not investigated. The  
457 analyses of the ROIs in the UAM were limited to the nasal cavity areas. The experiments with  
458 the two imaging methods did not produce identical results in TM2, due mainly to different  
459 acquisition rates, but demonstrated similar time and flow dependencies.

460

461 In summary, this study has shown effective clearance of the tracer-gas, demonstrating  
462 similar dynamic characteristics despite the very different geometries of the upper airway  
463 models. The clearance is linearly related to the NHF rate with an anterior portion of the nasal  
464 cavities clearing faster than the posterior portion. We conclude that clearance of the nasal  
465 component of the anatomical dead-space with NHF therapy is a rapid process, which may  
466 significantly reduce CO<sub>2</sub> re-breathing.

467

468

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472

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479

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483

484 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:

485 WM, SF, PB, OE, OS and ST - conception and design of research;

486 WM, GC, SF, GM and ST - performance of experiments;

487 WM, GC, SF, OS and ST - analyses of data;

488 WM, SF and ST - interpretation of results of experiments;

489 WM, SF and ST - drafting of manuscript;

490 WM, SF, OS and ST - editing and revision of manuscript;

491 WM, GC, SF, PB, GM, OE, OS and ST - approval of final version of manuscript.

492

493

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- 566

567 **TABLES**

568

569 **Table 1:** Half-times ( $T_{1/2}$ ) of CO<sub>2</sub>-gas clearance (mean +/- standard deviation, medium,  
570 minimum and maximum) in the proximal (TM1) and medium (TM2) ROIs of the Tube Model  
571 (TM) during flow from a cannula for Nasal High Flow (NHF) rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min (\*\*:  
572  $p < 0.01$  compared to 15 L/min NHF, ++:  $p < 0.01$  for TM2 compared to TM1).

573

	Cannula Flow		
	15 L/min	30 L/min	45 L/min
TM1: $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.19+/-0.01	0.11+/-0.01**	0.08+/-0.01**
Med. (min, max)	0.2 (0.2, 0.2)	0.1 (0.1, 0.1)	0.1 (0.1, 0.1)
TM2: $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.60+/-0.04 <sup>++</sup>	0.31+/-0.03 <sup>**,++</sup>	0.26+/-0.01 <sup>**,++</sup>
Med. (min, max)	0.6 (0.5, 0.6)	0.3 (0.3, 0.4)	0.3 (0.2, 0.3)

574

575 **Table 2:** Half-times ( $T_{1/2}$ ) of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance (mean +/- standard deviation, medium,  
576 minimum and maximum) in the proximal (TM1) and medium (TM2) ROIs of the Tube Model  
577 during flow from a nasal cannula for Nasal High Flow (NHF) rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min (\*\*:  
578  $p < 0.01$  compared to 15 L/min NHF, ++:  $p < 0.01$  for TM2 compared to TM1).

579

	Cannula Flow		
	15 L/min	30 L/min	45 L/min
TM1: $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.13+/-0.02	0.09+/-0.01**	0.07+/-0.01**
Med. (min, max)	0.1 (0.1, 0.1)	0.1 (0.1, 0.1)	0.1 (0.1, 0.1)
TM2: $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.32+/-0.05 <sup>++</sup>	0.23+/-0.03 <sup>**,++</sup>	0.15+/-0.01 <sup>**,++</sup>
Med. (min, max)	0.3 (0.3, 0.4)	0.2 (0.2, 0.2)	0.1 (0.1, 0.2)

580

581 **Table 3:** Half-times ( $T_{1/2}$ ) of <sup>81m</sup>Kr-gas clearance (mean +/- standard deviation, medium,  
582 minimum and maximum) in the anterior (UAM1) and posterior (UAM2) ROIs of the nasal  
583 cavity of the upper airway model for Nasal High Flow (NHF) rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min (\*\*:  
584  $p < 0.01$  compared to 15 L/min NHF, ++:  $p < 0.01$  for UAM2 compared to UAM1).

585

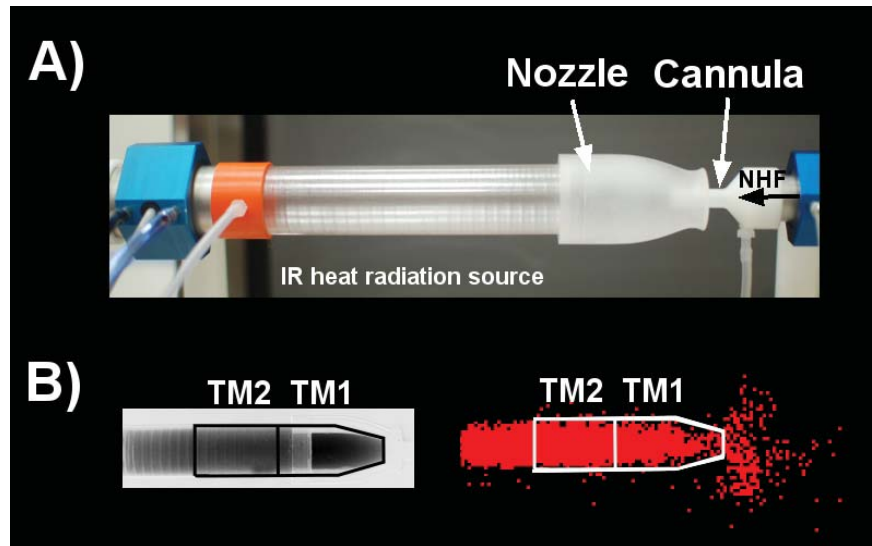
	NHF		
	15 L/min	30 L/min	45 L/min
UAM1, $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.58+/-0.15	0.32+/-0.09**	0.18+/-0.06**
Med. (min, max)	0.6 (0.4, 0.8)	0.3 (0.2, 0.4)	0.2 (0.1, 0.3)
UAM2, $T_{1/2}$ , s	0.88+/-0.17 <sup>++</sup>	0.46+/-0.07 <sup>**,++</sup>	0.32+/-0.02 <sup>**,++</sup>
Med. (min, max)	0.9 (0.7, 1.1)	0.5 (0.4, 0.6)	0.3 (0.3, 0.4)



587

588 **FIGURES**

589



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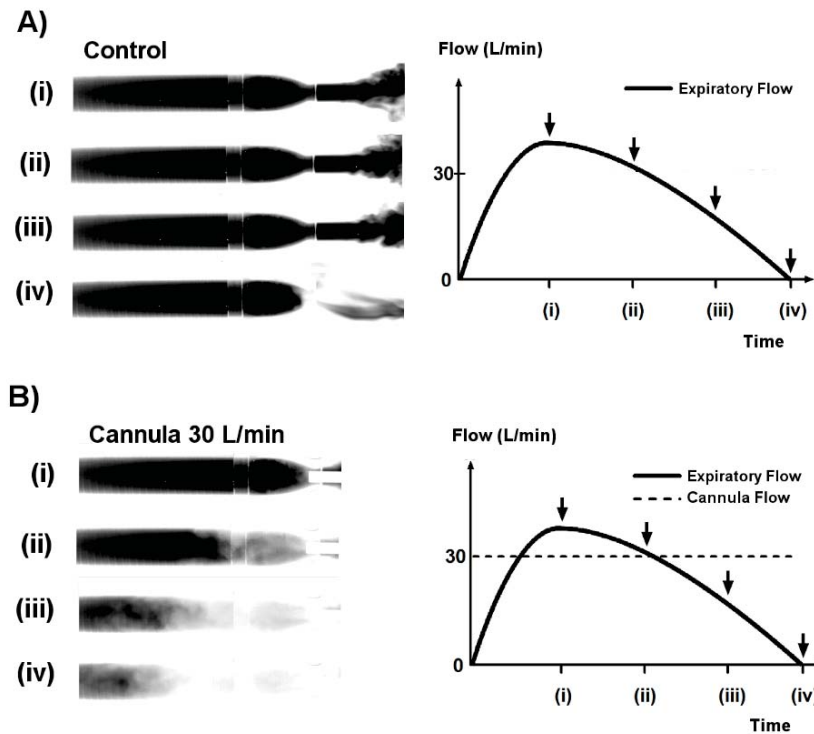
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592 **Figure 1:** A) Upper airway tube model (TM) made from a sapphire tube and a sodium  
 593 chloride (NaCl) nozzle with a cannula inserted into the nozzle in front of the IR-heat radiation  
 594 source (blackbody). Also shown are the pressure ports and the pneumotachographs to  
 595 monitor pressure and flow within the tube and the cannula. The cannula flow rates (NHF)  
 596 were delivered into the nozzle at 15, 30 and 45 L/min. B) An infrared absorption image (left)  
 597 and a gamma camera image (right) show the filling stage of the model with CO<sub>2</sub> and <sup>81m</sup>Kr-  
 598 gas before air was flushed into the cannula. Anterior (TM1) and posterior (TM2) ROIs were  
 599 defined for data analysis.

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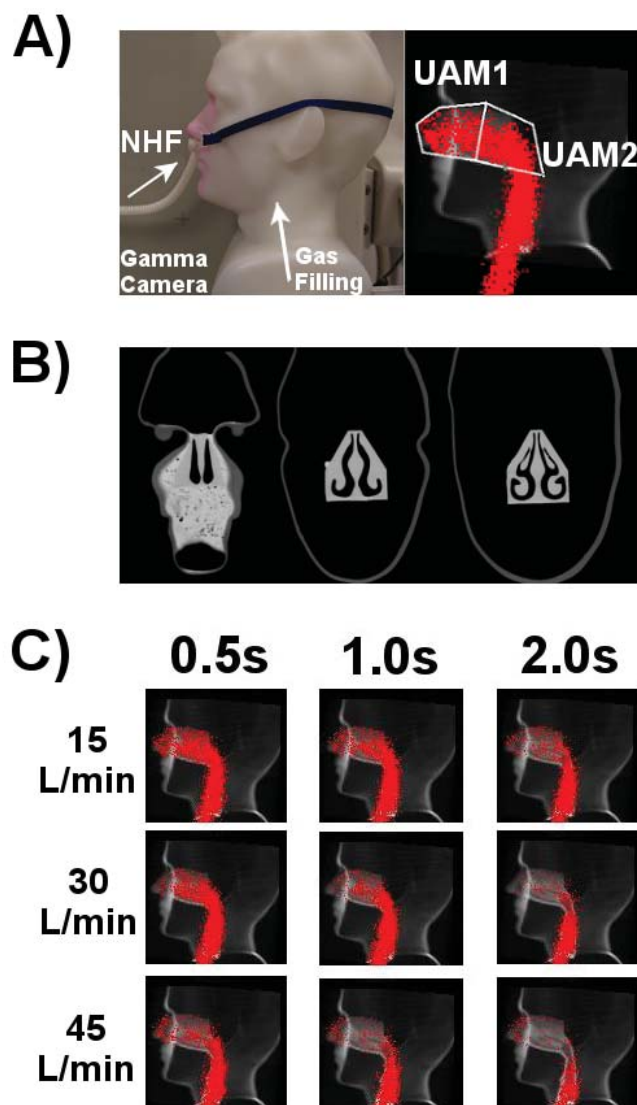
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605 **Figure 2:** Infrared absorption images of expiratory flow through a Tube Model (TM) of upper  
 606 airways demonstrate re-breathing from dead-space. The images show four stages of filling of  
 607 the model with exhaled CO<sub>2</sub> at: (i) peak expiratory flow, (ii) expiratory flow 30 L/min, (iii)  
 608 expiratory flow 15 L/min, and (iv) end of expiration. A) Control demonstrates filling of the  
 609 TM during the expiration phase without NHF from a cannula. At the beginning of inspiration  
 610 all gas from the TM will be re-breathed into the lungs. B) NHF from the cannula purges the  
 611 expired CO<sub>2</sub>-rich gas from the model and replaces it with fresh air. This results in a reduction  
 612 of CO<sub>2</sub> re-breathing. Breathing through the model demonstrates that the replacement of  
 613 expired gas with air starts before the end of expiration and that the static conditions used in  
 614 the experiments led to an underestimation of the speed of dead-space clearance during  
 615 respiration.

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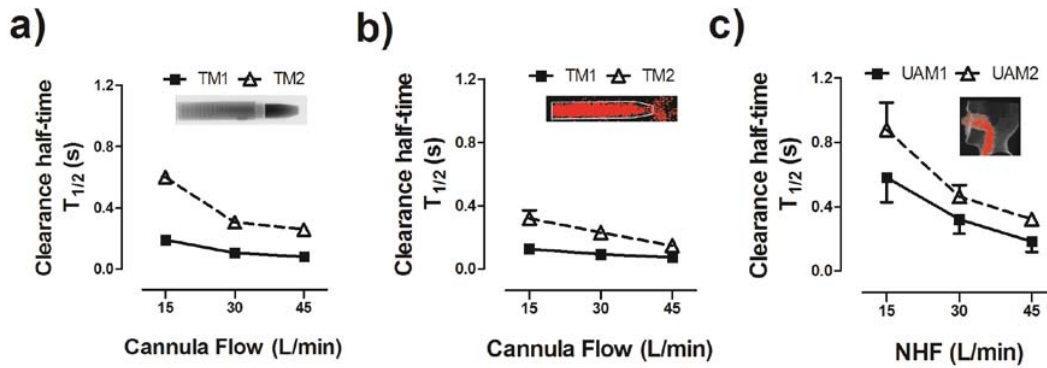
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621 **Figure 3:** A) Standard image of the Upper Airway Model (UAM) showing the setup of the  
 622 cannula interface (left panel) in the nostrils. The same image overlaid with the outlines of  
 623 the anterior (UAM1) and posterior (UAM2) ROIs in the nasal cavities, and data from the  
 624 planar gamma camera (right panel) when the UAM was filled from the trachea end with  
 625  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas. B) Coronal CT scans of the model, illustrating the complex internal anatomical  
 626 structure in the UAM. C) Lateral gamma camera images of  $^{81m}\text{Kr}$ -gas filling of UAM  
 627 superimposed onto a sagittal CT of the UAM. Series of images illustrate the tracer-gas  
 628 clearance at time points 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 s using NHF rates 15, 30 and 45 L/min.

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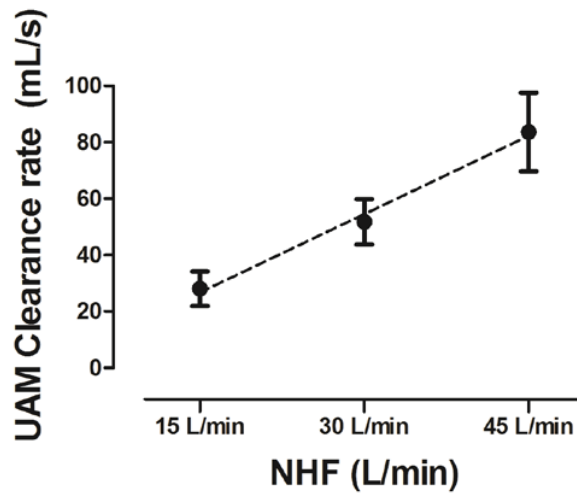
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632 **Figure 4:** Comparison of clearance profiles during flow rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min from a  
 633 custom-made cannula in the TM and a standard cannula interface in the UAM model using  
 634 comparable ROIs. A) Clearance half-time ( $T_{1/2}$ ) in the TM with  $\text{CO}_2$ -gas MWIR imaging  
 635 experiments. B) Clearance half-time ( $T_{1/2}$ ) in the TM with  $^{81\text{m}}\text{Kr}$ -gas gamma imaging  
 636 experiments. C) Clearance half-time ( $T_{1/2}$ ) in the UAM with  $^{81\text{m}}\text{Kr}$ -gas gamma imaging  
 637 experiments. The clearance profiles are similar in all three experiments. Anterior ROIs (TM1  
 638 and UAM1) are cleared faster than posterior ROIs (TM2 and UAM2). Clearance in posterior  
 639 ROIs is more flow dependent than in anterior ROIs.

640

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642



643

644

645 **Figure 5:** Clearance rates in nasal cavities (total volume 55 mL) of the Upper Airway Model  
646 (UAM) at NHF rates of 15, 30 and 45 L/min, calculated from the clearance half-times and  
647 corresponding volumes of UAM1 and UAM2's ROIs. The clearance rate linearly rises with an  
648 increase of NHF. The graph shows that in the static experimental setup NHF of 30 L/min  
649 clears the total volume of the nasal cavity within one second.

650

651