

Computational and experimental analysis of a Glaucoma flat drainage device

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Abstract

This paper presents a computational and experimental analysis of a glaucoma flat drainage device (FDD). The FDD consists of a metallic microplate placed into the eye sclerocorneal limbus, which creates a virtual path between the anterior chamber and its exterior, allowing the intraocular pressure (IOP) to be kept in a normal range. It also uses the surrounding tissue as a flow regulator in order to provide close values of IOP for a wide range of aqueous humor (AH) flow rates. The Neo Hookean hyperelastic model is used for the solid part, while the Reynolds thin film fluid model is used for the fluid part. On the other hand, a gravitational-driven flow test is implemented in order to validate the simulation process. An in-vitro experiment evaluated the flow characteristics of the device implanted in fourteen extirpated pig eyes, giving as a result the best-fit for the Young modulus of the tissue surrounding the device. Finally, according to the resulting computational model, for a range of 1.4-3.1 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$, the device presents a pressure variation range of 6-7.5 mmHg.

Keywords: Glaucoma, Fluid-structure interaction, Thin-film fluid, Glaucoma drainage device (GDD), Finite element method

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1 1. Introduction

2 The Glaucoma disease is affects to many humans around the world, being
3 mostly affected people residing in Asia and Africa (Tham et al. (2014)). This ill-
4 ness is defined as a progressive blindness caused by a lesion of the optic nerve due
5 to mainly an abnormal increment of IOP (Casson et al. (2012)). It can initially
6 be treated by using medications such as betablockers, carbonic anhydrase in-
7 hibitors, alpha-2 adrenergic agonists and prostaglandin analogs (Inga Samaniego
8 et al. (2017); Li et al. (2016)). However, there are cases where some patients do
9 not tolerate these medications (Mann (2019)), leading to the implantation of a
10 Glaucoma Drainage device (GDD) as last resort.

11 There is a wide gamma of these kind of implants, such as the Ahmed Glau-
12 coma Valve (AGV), Krupin implant, Molteno device, Baerveldt device, SolX
13 gold shunt, Ex-Press P-50, iStent, CyPass, Hydrus Stent and Glafkos; being the
14 AGV the most used due to its advantage of present the most favorable risk-
15 efficacy profile (Riva et al. (2017)). However, there are some shortcomings that
16 the AGV needs to improve, such as its elevated interval pressure control and
17 its tendency to present obstruction in the micro-pipe. Therefore, new design
18 proposals were presented, such as the Fermat-type spring-mounted micro check
19 valve design developed by Kara & Kutlar (2010), and the flat drainage device
20 invented by Velasquez & Ortiz (2017).

21 Most of these devices were evaluated by some in-vitro experimental pro-
22 cedures. The most common tests are named gravity-driven flow (GDF) test
23 and syringe-pump-driven flow (SPDF) test. The second one was firstly used
24 by Prata Jr et al. (1995), who analyzed the pressure-flow characteristics of the
25 AGV, Baerveldt device, Krupin disk device, the OptiMed glaucoma device and
26 the Molteno dual-chamber implant, being the last one implanted and tested
27 in live rabbits. Results from this research showed that the AGV and Krupin
28 implants worked as pressure regulator valves without a certain position where
29 they are opened or closed. Porter et al. (1997) utilized the gravity-driven flow
30 and syringe-pump-driven flow tests to analyze the drainage behavior of eighteen
31 valved and not valved drainage devices. It was observed that, for non-valved
32 devices, the only one viable test was the SPDF test due to a very reduced pres-
33 sure resistance presented in the GDF test. The valved devices could be tested
34 using both methods, being the most informative the SPDF test. In addition,
35 those results showed that the flow resistance for both valved and non-valved
36 devices were constant over the collected data range. Later, Estermann et al.
37 (2013) analyzed the flow characteristics of 3 different Ex-PRESS models (P-50,
38 R-50 and P-200) using the GDF test. The flow resistance values presented close
39 values for different pressure conditions, being this characteristic of non-valved
40 drainage devices.

41 Some researchers designed new tests sharing similarities with the GDF and
42 SPDF tests. For instance, Pan et al. (2003) tested the AGV using a microfluidic
43 modified SPDF test. In that case, three Anopore filters in series were connected
44 to the setup outlet in order to reproduce the in-vivo tissue capsule porosity
45 which encapsulates the AGV outlet. The experiment also worked as a validation

46 for a Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) simulation executed in ANSYS
47 FLUENT, whose results allowed to learn that the frictional pressure losses are
48 negligible. Likewise, Siewert et al. (2013) developed a microfluidic modified
49 GDF test using two hydrostatic fluid columns at the inlet and outlet of the setup,
50 and a flow sensor before the GDD chamber. Kara et al. (2019) pointed that there
51 are some situations that may affect the mentioned in-vitro tests, such as the
52 pipe system flexibility and unwanted syringe pump vibrations. In consequence,
53 they proposed a new microfluidic experimental test setup to overcome those
54 issues. That test included an air compressor connected to a flow control system
55 which let an AH-like fluid circulate from a reservoir to an isolated box in which a
56 GDD is placed. Test configurations are mainly dependent on the GDD structure,
57 being able to be tubular, non-tubular, valved or non-valved.

58 Additionally, computational simulations are necessary in order to analyze
59 the flow behavior through a GDD. It is well known that the GDD material and
60 the tissue around it play an important role in the flow behavior. This happens
61 due to the non-linear behavior of those materials. Hence, when a fluid-structure
62 analysis is performed, the possibility of a non-linearity of the solid part has to
63 be considered, such as the AGV case, where the solid part is the AGV structure
64 which is made of silicon, a non-linear material. The finite element method
65 (FEM) is one of the most used methods to solve the mentioned cases, including
66 linear materials in general; however, there are other methods that are being
67 studied such as the Galerkin's method, the Rayleigh-Ritz's method, etc. (Al-
68 Furjan et al. (2020); Alimirzaei et al. (2019); Chikr et al. (2020); Hussain et al.
69 (2020); Karami et al. (2019); Shariati et al. (2020a,b)).

70 Most researchers employed the fluid-structure interaction in order to obtain
71 the GDD flow characteristics. For example, Stay et al. (2005) evaluated the
72 AGV via an in-vitro SPDF test and used its results to validate a CFD model.
73 That model consisted on a fluid-structure analysis; where, for the solid part, a
74 Von Kármán model was considered; and, for the fluid part, a Reynolds model
75 was considered. In addition, the mentioned new GDD model presented by Kara
76 & Kutlar (2010) was also simulated using a software named ANSYS FLUENT.
77 They analyzed all the tubular structure and the compartment where the valve
78 is placed using 2.5D elements. A 3D CFD analysis of the eye was published
79 by Villamarin et al. (2012), where the more important internal parts of the eye
80 were reconstructed using histology images and a case trabeculectomy was also
81 simulated. Furthermore, Mauro et al. analyzed two non-valved GDD devices,
82 the SOLX Gold Micro Shunt and a novel Silicon Shunt device. Those cases were
83 calculated using the Navier-Stokes equations and the Characteristic Based Split
84 scheme Arpino et al. (2011) to analyse the fluid and porous medias.

85 As it was explained, there are several numbers of experimental tests oriented
86 to evaluate the GDDs flow characteristics. Some results from these tests are
87 employed to compare and improve existent designs or to create new devices.
88 For that reason, the authors believe that the present article would help other
89 researchers to improve new tests configurations and to create new devices based
90 on the GDD analyzed in the present work.

91 In the present research, experimental and computational analyses of the

92 FDD are presented. The GDF test is implemented in order to obtain its flow
93 characteristics and compare the results with a reduced fluid-solid coupled FEM
94 model. The experimental procedure considered the device in an extirpated pig
95 eye, with all the assemble submerged under saline solution. On the other hand,
96 the FEM models considered the fluid part to be the AH flowing around the solid
97 device; and the solid part corresponds to be the tissue surrounding the device,
98 which works as a flow regulator of the AH.

99 This paper is organized as follows. The experimental methodology is ex-
100 plained in Section 2. In Section 3, the numerical model used to represent the
101 physical phenomena in the device is detailed. Then, the results are discussed in
102 Section 4. Finally, the conclusion and representative references are provided.

103 2. Methodology

104 2.1. Flat drainage device

105 The FDD consists of a stainless-steel device inserted into the sclerocorneal
106 limbus. When it is folded on a plane, it has an external size of 4.2mm x 2mm x
107 0.12mm. This device allows the AH to create a virtual path between the metal
108 sheet and the tissue around it, as it shown in Fig. 1. From this figure, it has
109 to be pointed that the section A works as a tip to help the FDD pierce the
110 tissue; and the section C works as a support for the device and help the AH to
111 be drained through the sclera porosity. The tissue around the FDD section B,
112 shown in the mentioned figure, works as an AH flow regulator, just like the two
113 opposite-facing sheet in the AGV (Stay et al. (2005)). Hence, it is expected the
114 AH flow rate and the equilibrium pressure drop to keep a non-linear relation.
115 The virtual gap between the FDD and its surrounding tissue is created due to
116 a pressure gradient between the eye anterior chamber and the FDD section B
117 end. The AH flow start to increase until the system is in steady state, which
118 happens when the flow at the FDD section B entrance and exit have the same
119 value.

120 2.2. Gravitational-driven flow test

121 The GDF test implemented in this paper, consists on the FDD being sub-
122 jected to a column of fluid while it is implanted into an extirpated pig eye (Fig.
123 2). The fluid used is an isotonic serum, which is mainly pure water with 0.9%
124 of NaCl, due to its similarities with the AH. The fluid pressure forces the tissue
125 around the device to create a virtual path where the liquid can be drained. The
126 standpipe has a diameter of 4 mm and provides an initial fluid pressure of 40
127 mmHg.

128 While the pressure starts to decrease, its value is registered for different
129 values of time until a pressure of 20 mmHg. The data acquisition is done
130 by visual inspection. The justification for this procedure is because of a very
131 prolonged time, more than 1 hour, for the fluid column to be reduced to the
132 mentioned desired pressure value, which reduces drastically the measurement
133 error.

134 It should be emphasized that the couple eye-FDD (Fig. 3) is kept sub-
 135 merged into isotonic serum during the test to avoid the mechanical properties
 136 degradation of the tissue.

137 During the experiments, it was noticed that the fluid was draining through
 138 the device and the pig eye sclera porosity. Hence, the test is performed fol-
 139 lowing two stages. The first one is conducted by subjecting only the eye to a
 140 column of fluid, and the second one by using the same eye with the FDD im-
 141 planted. The fluid column refill between these two tests is executed with help
 142 of a discharge valve showed in Fig. 2; which is mainly a three-way valve that
 143 connects the standpipe with the couple eye-FDD when a test is performed, and
 144 with the exterior when a fluid column refill is needed for the second stage of the
 145 test. By considering the pressure variation results of the two tests, the pressure
 146 variation P_D originated by the drainage device is obtained with the following
 147 mathematical procedure:

$$Q_{D+S} = A \frac{dh_{D+S}}{dt} \quad (1a)$$

$$Q_D + Q_S = A \frac{dh_{D+S}}{dt} \quad (1b)$$

$$A \frac{dh_D}{dt} + A \frac{dh_S}{dt} = A \frac{dh_{D+S}}{dt} \quad (1c)$$

$$dh_D + dh_S = dh_{D+S} \quad (1d)$$

$$\rho g dh_D + \rho g dh_S = \rho g dh_{D+S} \quad (1e)$$

$$dP_D + dP_S = dP_{D+S} \quad (1f)$$

$$\int_{P_0}^{P_D} dP_D + \int_{P_0}^{P_S} dP_S = \int_{P_0}^{P_{D+S}} dP_{D+S} \quad (1g)$$

$$P_D - P_0 + P_S - P_0 = P_{D+S} - P_0 \quad (1h)$$

$$P_D = P_0 - (P_S - P_{D+S}) \quad (1i)$$

148 where "D" stands for device, "S" stands for sclera, Q represents the flow, A
 149 is the transversal area of the pipe, h is the height of the column of fluid, ρ is the
 150 fluid density and g is the acceleration due to gravity. P_0 is the initial pressure
 151 imposed by the column of fluid. P_{D+S} and P_S are the pressures registered in
 152 the two tests performed to the pig eye alone and the same pig eye with the
 153 device implanted respectively. Results of P_D as a function of time are obtained
 154 for a total of fourteen pig eyes (Fig. 4).

155 In order to obtain the pressure variation as a function of flow, the following
 156 mathematical procedure is utilized:

$$dP = \rho g dh \quad (2a)$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \rho g \frac{dh}{dt} \quad (2b)$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \rho g \frac{Q}{A} \quad (2c)$$

157 An exponential equation of P in function of time t is considered:

$$P = \alpha e^{\beta t} + \gamma \quad (3)$$

158 By using this expression, the following equation is obtained:

$$\alpha \beta e^{\beta t} = \rho g \frac{Q}{A} \quad (4a)$$

$$\beta(P - \gamma) = \rho g \frac{dQ}{dA} \quad (4b)$$

$$P = \rho g \frac{Q}{A\beta} + \gamma \quad (4c)$$

159 To obtain the values of α , β and γ , the main experimental curve shown in
 160 Fig. 4 is fitted with an exponential equation as it is shown in Fig. 5. The
 161 resulting relation between P and Q is shown in Fig. 6.

162 3. Numerical model

163 Due to the drainage effect occurring mainly in the FDD Section B (Fig. 1),
 164 only the flow behavior around that place is analyzed. The FDD dimensions
 165 are directly measured from a model donated by Velasquez & Ortiz (2017). As
 166 the tissue surrounding the device works as a flow regulator, a fluid-structure
 167 interaction analysis is performed. The interactions are executed between the
 168 tissue as the solid part, and the AH as the fluid part. The simulation is carried
 169 out in the commercial software Comsol Multiphysics 5.4 (COMSOL Inc. (2020)).
 170 The AH which flows through the device presents a very reduced thickness in
 171 contrary to its side dimensions. Therefore, the use of a 2D reduced model of
 172 the Navier-Stokes equation (Bird et al. (2007)) would be more suitable. For
 173 instance, the Reynolds equation (Eq. 5), which is mostly used for tribological
 174 studies, can be implemented for this study.

$$\nabla \cdot \left(-\frac{w^3}{2\mu^*} \nabla p \right) = 0 \quad (5)$$

175 where μ^* is the fluid viscosity and p is the value of load pressure. The fluid
 176 is considered to have a viscosity of $\mu^* = 1.1cP$ (AH at 25°C) and a density of
 177 $\rho = 1000kg/m^3$.

178 On the other hand, a Neo-Hookean hyperelastic model is utilized to analyze
 179 the section of the tissue surrounding the device. The strain energy function
 180 selected for this model is as follows:

$$W(I_1, J) = \frac{\mu}{2} (I_1 - 3) - \mu \ln(J) + \frac{\lambda}{2} (\ln(J))^2 \quad (6)$$

181 where μ and λ are the Lamé parameters, I_1 is the first invariant and J is
 182 the volume ratio. The Lamé parameters are calculated from a specific value of
 183 Young modulus E and a Poisson ratio ν , through the following equations:

$$\lambda = \frac{E\nu}{(1 + \nu)(1 - 2\nu)} \quad (7)$$

$$\mu = \frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)} \quad (8)$$

184 As the tissue behaves like a nearly incompressible material, a Poisson ratio
 185 of $\nu = 0.45$ is assumed (Choi & Zheng (2005)). The Young modulus E is
 186 calculated by an inverse analysis of the resulting pressures and flows obtained
 187 from the GDF test (Fig. 6). This analysis consisted of selecting the pressure of
 188 each point of the mentioned plot as an input value for the fluid part, and then
 189 performing several runs for a set of E values. The outlet pressure is assumed
 190 to be the atmospheric manometric pressure. The modulus value in function of
 191 the flow is plotted for each of the mentioned selected points (Fig. 7). Each
 192 case in that figure has a different pressure value from the following set of values:
 193 40.0021 mmHg, 35.4284 mmHg, 31.0610 mmHg, 26.9381 mmHg, 25.3708 mmHg,
 194 23.1058 mmHg. After fitting each curve with a 4 order polynomial equation,
 195 E is obtained for the corresponding flow value of the previously selected point.
 196 Finally, the main value of the resulting modulus group is obtained and used to
 197 calculate the Lamé parameters.

198 The Young modulus obtained from the inverse analysis is $E = 0.0344$ MPa.
 199 Therefore, the Lamé Parameters are $\lambda = 0.107$ MPa and $\mu = 0.012$ MPa.

200 4. Discussions

201 The experimental and computational analyses of the FDD is performed. For
 202 the experimental process, the GDF test is implemented by using extirpated pig
 203 eyes with the FDD being implanted. All eye-device couples are pressurized with
 204 isotonic serum due to its similarities with the AH. It is ensured that the couple
 205 is kept hydrated during the test by filling its support with isotonic serum to
 206 avoid a degradation of the eye tissue mechanical properties.

207 Taking all of these considerations into account, the pressure as a function of
 208 time is obtained and shown in Fig. 4. It can be noticed that there are some
 209 uncertainties in the results, which are showed as error bars. As the test process
 210 is very slow, the acquisition data error are put down at a minimum; however,
 211 the error bars are increasing as time goes by. The error increasing is mainly due
 212 to variation in the tissue microstructure of the set of pig eyes. As a consequence,
 213 it is perceived that at low pressures, the gap between the FDD and the tissue
 214 around it is not fully expanded; hence, the gap shape becomes very dependent
 215 on the tissue collagen fibers orientation.

216 Then, it is followed the mathematical process explained in the methodology,
 217 in order to obtain the pressure in function of the AH flow rate (Fig. 6). It can be
 218 noticed that the pressure and flow present a linear relation. This behavior seems
 219 to contradict the variable characteristic variable of the hydraulic resistance of
 220 the tissue surrounding the device. However, as these values are obtained from a
 221 considerable elevated range of pressures (20-40 mmHg), it is reasonable to obtain
 222 a pressure-flow linear relation and consequently a constant hydraulic resistance,
 223 due to the fact that the majority of the sclera collagen fibers stopped being
 224 wavy to be stretched at those pressure values. Also, it should be noted that

225 some components of the experimental setup such as the standpipe, the needle
226 and the support provide a pressure drop due to its constant hydraulic resistance.
227 However, considering the mathematical procedure shown in the methodology
228 section, these drops can be included in the expression that represent the pressure
229 variation due to the sclera porosity, which can be cancelled ones the pressure
230 variation due to only the drainage device is obtained.

231 On the other hand, a non-linear FEM model is implemented in order to
232 obtain the characteristic curve of the drainage device. It is considered a reduced
233 model of the "section B" shown in Fig. 1 which is where the fluid is drained.
234 The reduced model considered the tissue around the device as a Neo-Hookean
235 hyperelastic material. Also, a Poisson coefficient value of 0.45 is considered
236 due to the nearly incompressible behavior of the tissue. The AH is assumed
237 to have a tribological behavior due to a thin film flow created through the
238 tissue and the drainage device. The Reynold equation is implemented as a
239 mathematical expression to represent this behavior. It is considered the fluid to
240 have a viscosity of $\mu^* = 1.1cP$ (AH at $25^\circ C$) and a density of $\rho = 1000kg/m^3$.
241 The Lamé parameters which correspond to the sclera section included in the
242 reduced model are obtained from an inverse analysis detailed in the numerical
243 model section.

244 The simulations are performed using the mesh shown in Fig. 8. The solid
245 part mesh is composed of 13890 hexahedral elements; while the fluid part, whose
246 mesh is taken from the solid part internal surface, is composed of 1200 rectangle
247 elements.

248 Considering an inlet pressure of 6.5 mmHg and the manometric atmospheric
249 pressure at the outlet, the tissue surrounding the device creates a virtual path
250 of $9.55 \mu m$ at each side (Fig. 9). Also, in this case, an AH flow of 1.8663
251 $\mu L/min$ is obtained. As it is reported by other researchers, the AH production
252 flow presents a value of $2.4 \pm 0.6 \mu L/min$, being greater at the morning and
253 lower at night (Goel et al. (2010)). Hence, the obtained flow value is within the
254 range of a normal eye drainage.

255 Then, the predicted curve of the pressure variation in function of the fluid
256 flow rate is built. This plot, in conjunction with its experimental counterpart,
257 is shown in Fig. 10. As it can be noticed, the predicted pressure-flow relation
258 keeps a non-linear behavior, being very notorious at low pressures and nearly
259 linear at high values. This nearly linearity at that zone is in accordance with
260 the linear behavior obtained from the experimental process; and, as it was pre-
261 viously explained, this phenomenon is a consequence of multiple tissue collagen
262 fiber stretching at those pressure values. Further, a zoomed area of the low
263 pressure zone from the previously mentioned plot is shown in Fig. 11. For a
264 range of 1.4-3.1 $\mu L/min$, the FDD presents a pressure variation range of 6-7.5
265 mmHg approximately. According to Villamarin et al. (2012), the static pressure
266 imposed at the collecting channels, which is where the AH is conducted after it is
267 drained from the eye anterior chamber, is estimated to be 7 mmHg. Hence, after
268 considering the pressure at the FDD end, the IOP can be obtained by summing
269 the collecting channels pressure to the pressure variation values obtained from
270 the experimental procedure and the simulation. Therefore, the corresponding

271 IOP of the mentioned pressure variation range of 6-7.5 is 13-14.5 mmHg, which
272 is in agreement with a safety eye IOP condition. Also, in the same figure, the
273 AGV curve, taken from the experimental results of Stay et al. (2005), is su-
274 perposed. It can be noticed that in the required range of pressure mentioned
275 before, both GDD present nearly the same values; which demonstrate that the
276 FDD can mitigate the glaucoma with the same efficacy of the AGV; however, as
277 the FDD is a non-tubular, it has the advantage of not presenting obstruction.

278 5. Conclusion

279 The FDD fluid-structure interaction simulation and its experimental valida-
280 tion using the GDF test was explained. The methodology used in this article
281 allowed to obtain the flow characteristics of the FDD by using a GDF of two
282 stages. This method has the advantage of being very simple, not too much
283 expensive and have low uncertainty in measurements due its large duration;
284 however, it has the main disadvantage of being dependent of the availability of
285 extirpated pig eyes and its results present good accuracy only at high pressures.

286 According to the results, it is evidenced that the non-linear relation between
287 the FDD and the AH fluid is mainly due to a variable hydraulic resistance
288 imposed by the tissue around the device. However, as the tissue is mainly
289 composed of collagen fibers, they trend to be stretched at high pressures leading
290 to a constant hydraulic resistance at these conditions as it was shown in the
291 experimental and computational results. The FDD is capable of maintain the
292 eye at safety levels of IOP. Also, with help of this study, it was demonstrated that
293 the FDD is as efficient as the AGV, which is the most used GDD. Nevertheless,
294 an in-vivo test would be very useful for a better modelling of the phenomena
295 in the analysis such as a post-operative inflammatory stresses imposed by the
296 tissue in contact with the drainage device.

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299 nancial support during the course of this work.

300 **Nomenclature**

- FDD* = Flat drainage device
IOP = Internal ocular pressure
AH = Aqueous humor
GDD = Glaucoma drainage device
AGV = Ahmed glaucoma valve
GDF = Gravity – driven flow
SPDF = Syringe – pump – driven flow
CFD = Computational fluid dynamics
FEM = Finite element method
P = Pressure [MPa]
Q = Fluid flow [$\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$]
D = Reference to only the device
S = Reference to only the sclera
A = Transversal area of the standpipe [mm^2]
h = Height of the column of fluid [mm]
 ρ = Fluid density [kg/m^3]
g = Acceleration due to gravity [m/s^2]
*P*₀ = Initial pressure imposed by the column of fluid [MPa]
t = Time [s]
w = Vertical displacement [μm]
 μ^* = Fluid Viscosity [cP]
W = Strain energy function [J/m^3]
*I*₁ = First invariant
 μ, λ = Lamé parameters [MPa]
J = Volume ratio or Jacobian
 ν = Poisson ratio
E = Young modulus [MPa]

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414 **Figures**

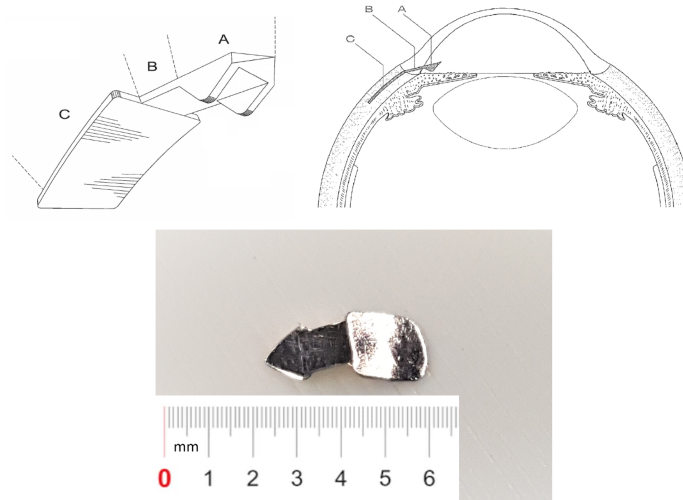


Figure 1: Isometric view of the FDD on the left, FDD placement on the right (Velasquez & Ortiz (2017)) and the donated FDD used in this research on the bottom.

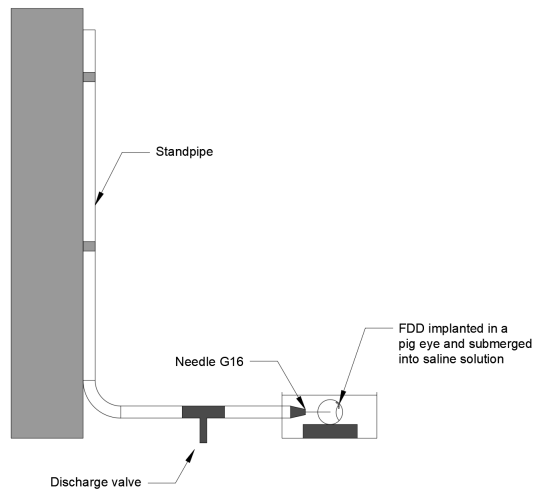


Figure 2: Gravitational-driven flow test setup.

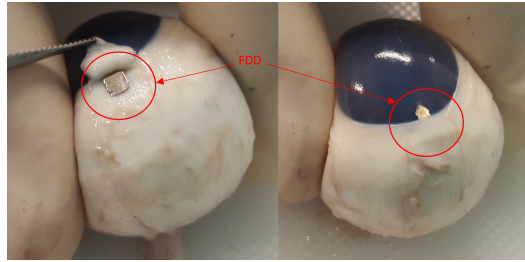


Figure 3: Couple eye-FDD.

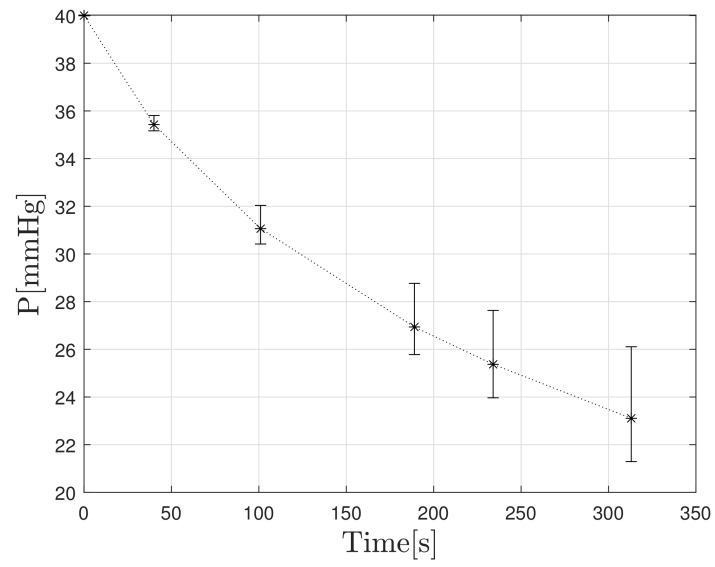


Figure 4: Gravitational-driven flow test experimental results.

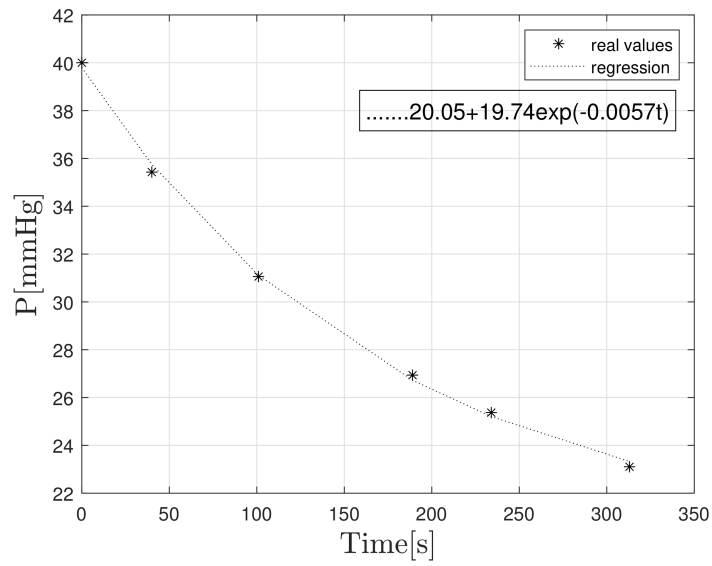


Figure 5: Fitted curve of the gravitational flow test results.

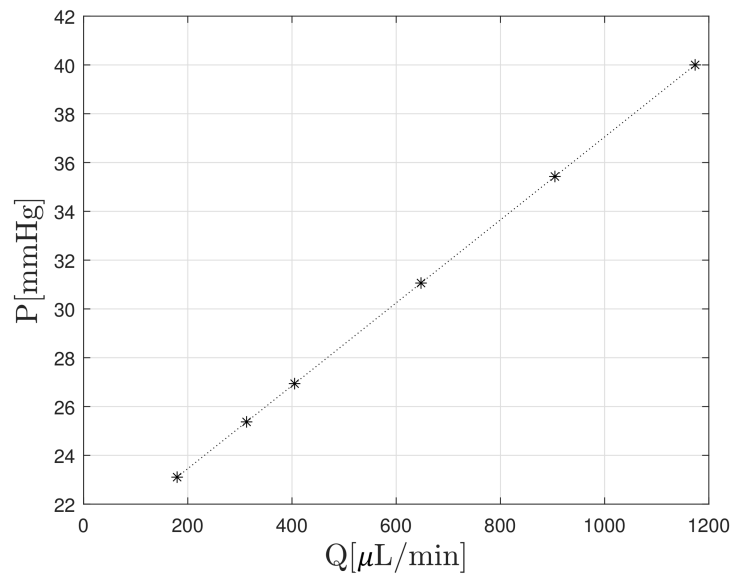


Figure 6: Pressure variation in function of the flow rate obtained from the test results.

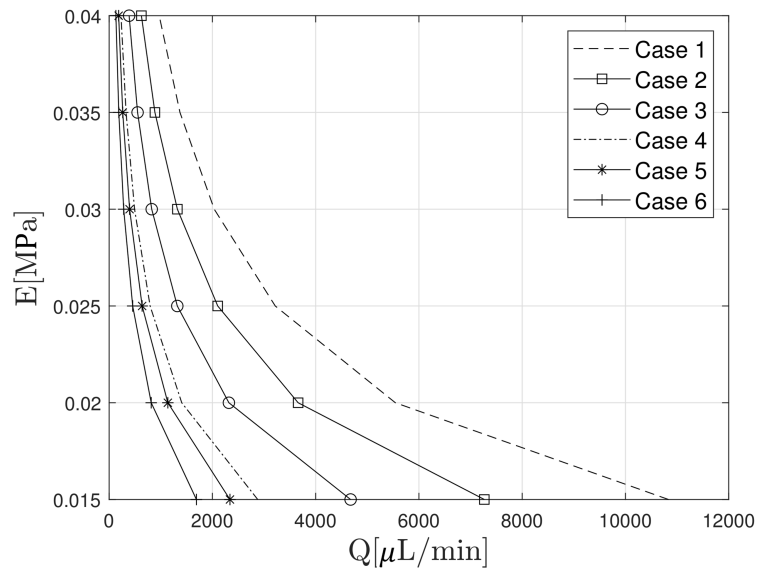


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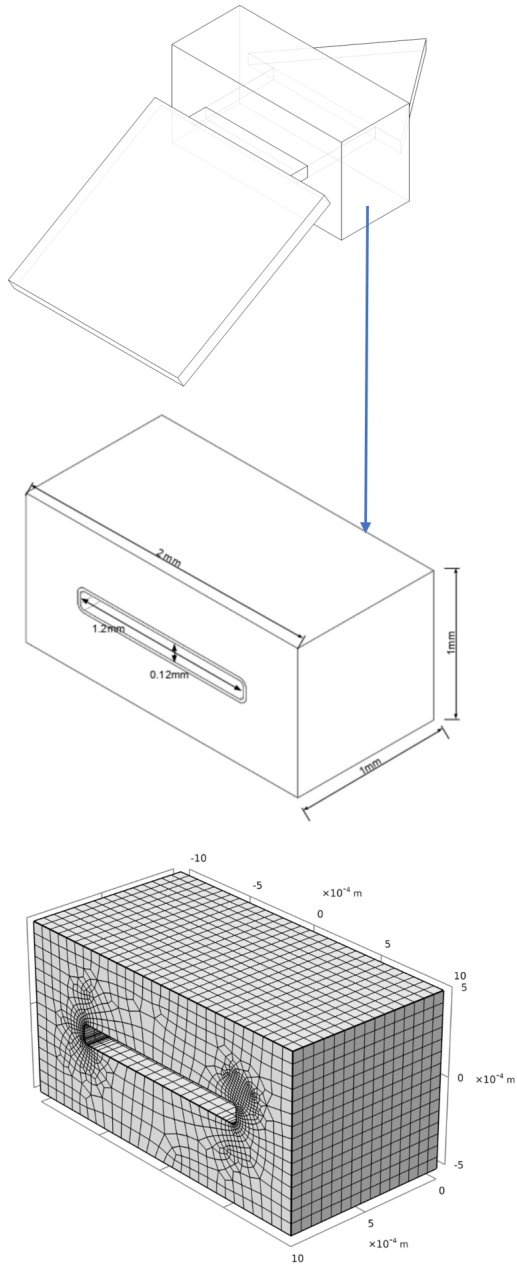


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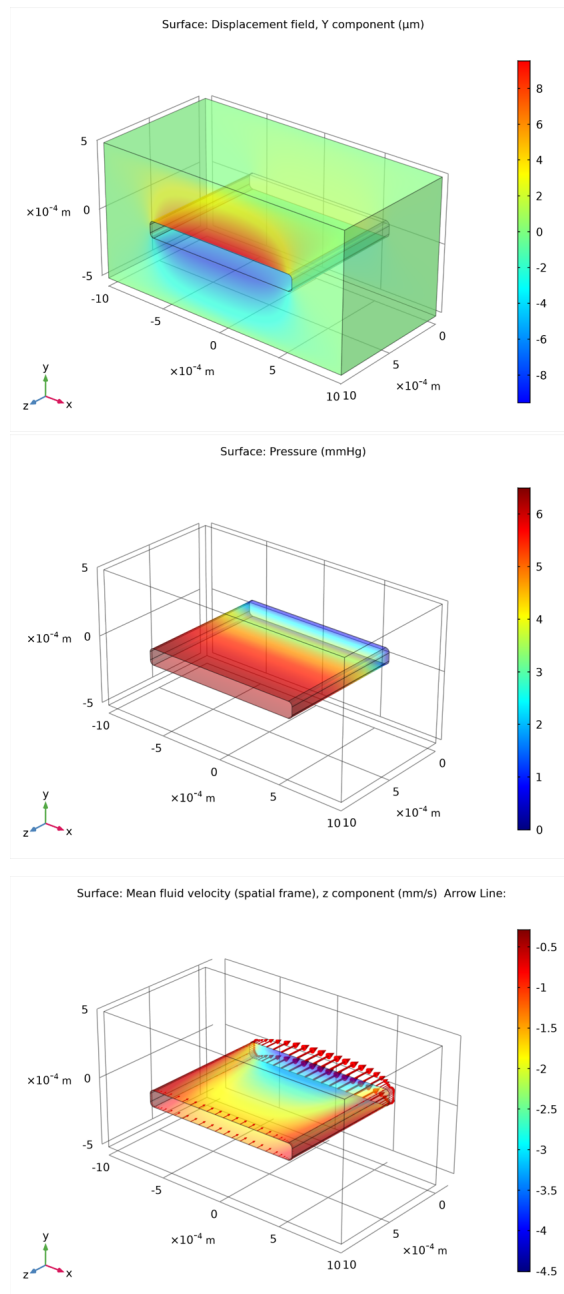


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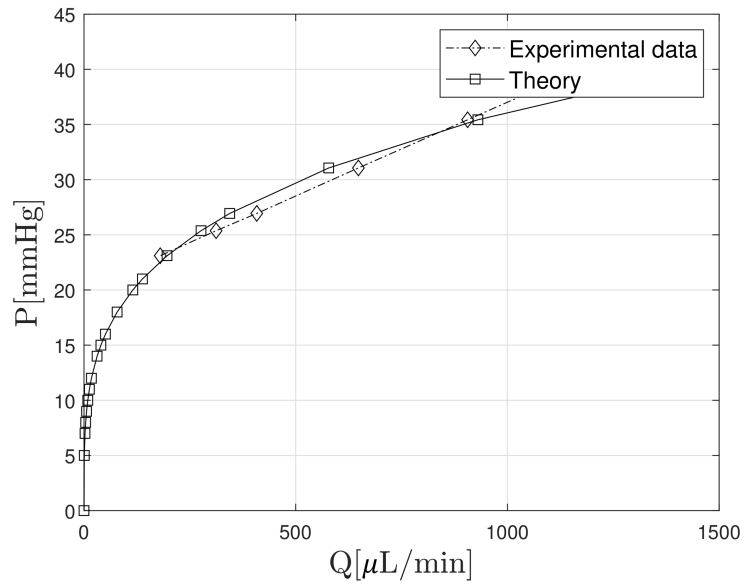


Figure 10: Pressure variation in function of the flow rate obtained from the test results and the computational simulation.

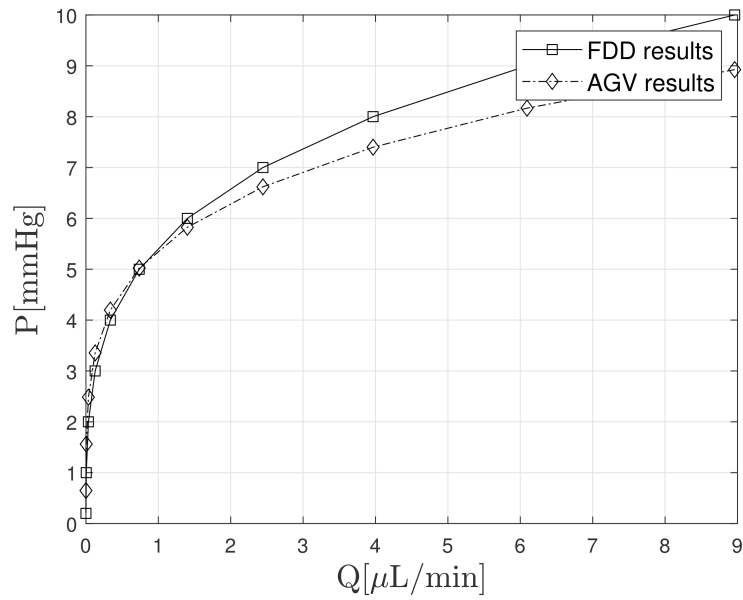


Figure 11: Pressure variation in function of the flow rate obtained from the computational simulation for a range of 0-10 mmHg.