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In Vitro Evaluation of Right Ventricular Outflow Tract Reconstruction With Bicuspid Valved Polytetrafluoroethylene Conduit

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Abstract: Conduits available for right ventricular outflow tract (RVOT) reconstruction eventually become stenotic and/or insufficient due to calcification. In order to reduce the incidence of reoperations we have developed and used a bicuspid valved polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) conduit for the RVOT reconstruction. The purpose of this study is to investigate the hemodynamic performance of the new design using a pediatric in vitro right heart mock loop. PTFE conduit has been used for the complete biventricular repair of 20 patients (age 1.7 ± 6 years) with cyanotic congenital defects. To account for the large variability of conduit sizes, 14, 16, 22, and 24-mm conduit sizes were evaluated using in vitro flow loop comprised of a pulsatile pump with cardiac output (CO) of 1.2–3.2 LPM, bicuspid valved RVOT conduit, pulmonary artery, venous compartments, and the flow visualization setup. We recorded the diastolic valve leakage and pre- and post-conduit pressures in static and pulsatile settings. In vitro valve function and overall hemodynamic performance was evaluated using high-speed cameras and ultrasonic flow probes. Three-dimensional flow fields for different in vivo conduit curvatures and inflow regimes were calculated by computational fluid dynamics (CFD) analysis to further aid the conduit design process. The average pressure drop over the valved conduits was 0.8 ± 1.7 mm Hg for the CO range tested. Typical values for regurgitant fraction, peak-to-peak pressure gradient, and effective orifice area were $23 \pm 2.1\%$, 13 ± 2.4 mm Hg, and 1.56 ± 0.2 cm², respectively. High-speed videos captured the intact valve motion with asymmetrical valve opening during the systole. CFD simulations demonstrated the flow skewness toward the major curvature of the conduit based on the pulmonary curvature. In vitro evaluation of the bicuspid valved PTFE conduit coincides well with acceptable early clinical performance (mild insufficiency), with relatively low pressure drop, and intact valve motion independent from the conduit curvature, orientation or valve location, but at the expense of increased diastolic flow regurgitation. These findings benchmark the baseline performance of the bicuspid valved conduit and will be used for future designs to improve valve competency. **Key Words:** Heart valve—Congenital heart disease—Right ventricle outflow track reconstruction—Bicuspid valved conduit—Pulmonary valve—In vitro experimentation—Computational fluid dynamics—Hemodynamics/physiology—Regurgitant fraction.

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Conduit selection for right ventricle outflow tract (RVOT) reconstruction presents a major challenge in the treatment of many congenital heart diseases (1) and in autograft pulmonary valve substitution, that is, Ross procedure (2). Bioprosthetic conduits available for RVOT reconstruction, that is, both xenografts and homografts, are insufficient due to poor hemodynamic performance and long-term complications associated with thrombosis and calcification, especially in very young patients (3–5). Replacement of the bioprosthetic valve is required when the individual reaches late adolescence or early adulthood. Mechanical

1 valves have higher longevity but require aggressive
2 anticoagulant therapy and pose a higher risk of throm-
3 bosis in the pulmonary position compared with
4 left heart implantation (6,7). Lack of ideal conduit
5 and the increasing need for valved conduits
6 (especially at smaller diameters) demand alternative
7 options.

8 To expand current conduit alternatives and to
9 reduce the incidence of reoperation, we have devel-
10 oped and utilized a valved polytetrafluoroethylene
11 (PTFE) conduit using standard stretch PTFE graft
12 and 0.1 mm-thick PTFE membrane (WL Gore &
13 Associates, Inc, Flagstaff, AZ, USA) for the recon-
14 struction of the RVOT. Utility of PTFE has been
15 previously demonstrated in monocuspid (8) and tri-
16 cuspid (9) valved RVOT reconstruction with no sig-
17 nificant calcification in any cases. Our preliminary
18 clinical data indicated an acceptable early perfor-
19 mance level with a low incidence of valve insuffi-
20 ciency and no conduit stenosis (10).

21 In vitro set-ups for testing prostatic valve perfor-
22 mance focus primarily on the left heart hemody-
23 namics to evaluate aortic valve replacements.
24 Whereas, pulmonary arterial pressures and imped-
25 ances are significantly lower than those in the left
26 heart, which will affect the valve performance.
27 Among the few published right heart (right ven-
28 tricle [RV]) models, Gohean et al. (11) and Camp
29 et al. (12) evaluated different aortic mechanical
30 valves in the pulmonary position. Their results indi-
31 cated aberrant valve closure for lower pulmonary
32 impedance, which was related to their suboptimal in
33 vivo performance. In contrast to mechanical valves
34 and aortic root reconstructs, the performance of
35 conduit-mounted synthetic valves has been investi-
36 gated solely in clinical settings, according to our
37 knowledge. To evaluate alternative valved conduit
38 designs, a reliable bench-top pulsatile right heart
39 model, which can produce a realistic local hemody-
40 namic environment, is required.

41 The purpose of this study is to investigate the
42 hemodynamic performance of the new design using
43 in vitro experimentation coupled with numerical
44 modeling of the RVOT conduit. The effect of the
45 pulmonic curvature on local hemodynamics inside
46 the “curved” conduit is investigated using computa-
47 tional fluid dynamics (CFD). Effect of several geo-
48 metric parameters such as conduit curvature, location
49 of the valve, and conduit orientation on the bicuspid
50 valve competency is investigated using a pediatric in
51 vitro right heart mock-up loop. The core objective of
52 this study is to establish the baseline performance
53 parameters for the bicuspid valve design in pulmo-
54 nary position.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patient selection

55 Since October 2008 to September 2009, we have
56 implanted bicuspid valved PTFE conduits in 20
57 patients with a median age of 1.7 years (6 days–16
58 years). Their diagnoses include: tetralogy of Fallot
59 with pulmonary atresia in 10 patients, truncus arte-
60 riosus in 6 patients, congenital aortic stenosis in 2
61 patients, transposition of great arteries in 1 patient,
62 and interrupted aortic arch with a ventricular septal
63 defect in 1 patient. In 18 patients, a complete biven-
64 tricular repair was performed. In the other two cases,
65 the conduit was used for palliative right ventricular
66 outflow reconstruction. The conduit sizes varied from
67 10 to 24 mm in diameter based on the patient body
68 weight (10).

Mock circulation loop

69 The bench-top pediatric right heart circulation is
70 comprised of (i) an RV chamber, that is, a silicon
71 membrane bulb-shaped chamber within a fluid filled
72 outer-chamber; (ii) a positive displacement pump to
73 actuate the ventricle chamber; (iii) the bicuspid
74 valved RVOT conduit; (iv) the flow visualization
75 setup; (v) the variable resistance flow clamps and
76 trapped air compliance chambers to set the pulmo-
77 nary vascular impedance; (vi) a tricuspid valve before
78 the ventricle chamber; (vii) a pulmonic head tank to
79 set the diastolic pressure level; (viii) a static head
80 pump; and (ix) an atrial head tank to ensure adequate
81 filling to the ventricle during diastole, as shown in
82 Fig. 1. Pulmonary impedance is adjusted based on the
83 clinical catheter data from single ventricle patients
84 (13) and summarized in Table 1. Ventricle chamber
85 was driven by a positive displacement pulse duplica-
86 tor (Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA, USA) with
87 variable stroke volume (20–100 mL), heart rate (80–
88 100 bpm), and ejection fraction (EF). In order to
89 visualize the valve motion, a transparent bifurcation
90 cell with borosilicate walls and optical flat ends was
91 placed after the conduit.

92 Pressure measurements were performed before
93 and after the conduit, at the ventricle and compliance
94 chambers, yielding five simultaneous pressure mea-
95 surements using TruWave disposable pressure trans-
96 ducers (Edwards Life Sciences, Irvine, CA, USA)
97 attached to a multichannel differential amplifier
98 (WPI Inc., Sarasota, FL, USA) in full bridge
99 configuration. Flow rate through each tubing
100 segment was measured using transonic flow probes
101 (6XL and 9XL, Transonic Inc., Ithaca, MA, USA). A
102 dedicated data acquisition module NI USB-6229 (NI
103 Inc., Austin, TX, USA) with 16-bit resolution and
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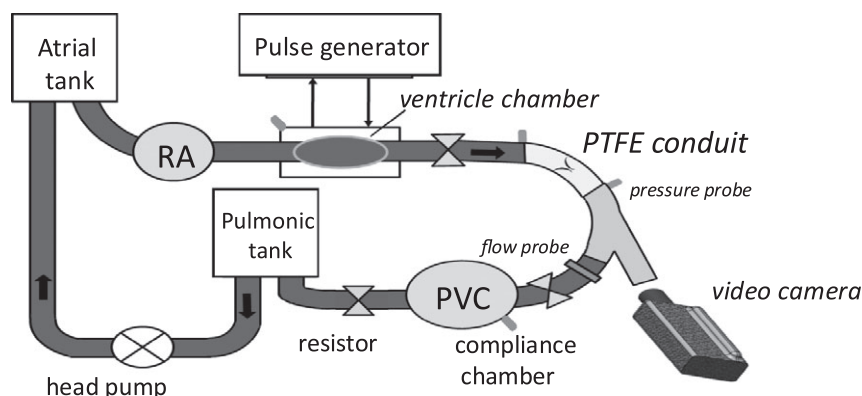


FIG. 1. Schematic representation of the pulmonary circulation mock loop bicuspid valved PTFE conduit attached to RV outflow. The in vitro flow loop was comprised of (i) RV chamber; (ii) positive displacement pump; (iii) the bicuspid valved RVOT conduit; (iv) flow visualization setup; (v) pulmonary resistance elements and compliance chambers; (vi) tricuspid valve before the ventricle chamber; (vii) pulmonic head tank; (viii) static head pump; and (ix) atrial head tank. The compliance chambers are represented by the ellipses. The double triangles, slender rectangles and small rectangles represent the flow resistors, velocity, and pressure measurement ports, respectively.

multiplexing capabilities was employed for sampling and recording data at 100 Hz. Distilled water ($\rho = 998 \text{ kg/m}^3$) was used as the working fluid. Details of the compartment characterization are described previously by Dur et al. (14)

Experimental procedure

To account for the large variability of conduit sizes, four conduit diameter sizes—14 mm (C14), 16 mm (C16), 22 mm (C22), and 24 mm (C24)—were evaluated using the in vitro flow loop. The diastolic valve leakage was recorded under constant diastolic hydrostatic pressure gradient (ΔP) at four physiological pressure levels ($\Delta P = 5, 10, 15, \text{ and } 20 \text{ mm Hg}$). Pre- and postconduit (pulmonary artery [PA]), and ventricle pressures and flow were recorded in pulsatile settings. Pediatric EF was set to 45% (15) and cardiac output (CO) was adjusted between 1.2 and 3.2 LPM depending on the conduit size (10). Each conduit was analyzed under the same pulmonary vascular

impedance. In vitro valve function and overall hemodynamic performance was evaluated using high-speed cameras and ultrasonic flow probes. The transparent cell and the camera were aligned with the conduit curvature to acquire the valve motion as shown in Fig. 2a.

Geometric effects were evaluated by comparing the valve competency when the conduit was oriented: (i) at the pulmonic curvature in comparison to the straight conduit; (ii) such that valve was located at the upstream, medial, and distal site along the conduit curvature; and (iii) similar to the anatomical orientation, that is, upright with an anterior to posterior curvature as shown in Fig. 2b. The conduit curvature was set based on the typical anatomical orientation of the RVOT conduit with a radius of curvature, $R = 8.2 \text{ cm}$, which corresponds to 70 degrees offset between the inlet and the outlet of the conduit. Conduits were oriented such that the missing lower cusp lies on the lower curvature. Performance of the different conduit designs were evaluated based on regurgitant fraction (RF), peak-to-peak transvalvular pressure gradient (PPG), and effective orifice area (EAO) (12), which are defined below.

TABLE 1. Vascular parameters of the mock system simulating pulmonary circulation

Parameter	Pulmonary circulation impedance
C_{RV}	0.4
C_{LA}	10
C_{PAVB}	10
R_{PAB}	1.4
R_{PVB}	1.1

Shown are the parameters implemented on the mock loop. Parameters are taken from patient data presented in Sundareswaran et al. (13).

C, compliance (mL/mmHg); R, resistance (mmHg L/min); LA, left atria; PAB, pulmonary arterial bed; PVB, pulmonary venous bed; PAVB, combined PA-venous bed.

$$RF = \frac{Q_{\text{regurgitate}}}{Q_{\text{anterograde}}} \quad (1)$$

$$PPG = RVP_{\text{peak}} - PAP_{\text{peak}} \quad (2)$$

$$EAO = \frac{Q_{\text{rms}}}{49.92\sqrt{\Delta P}} \quad (3)$$

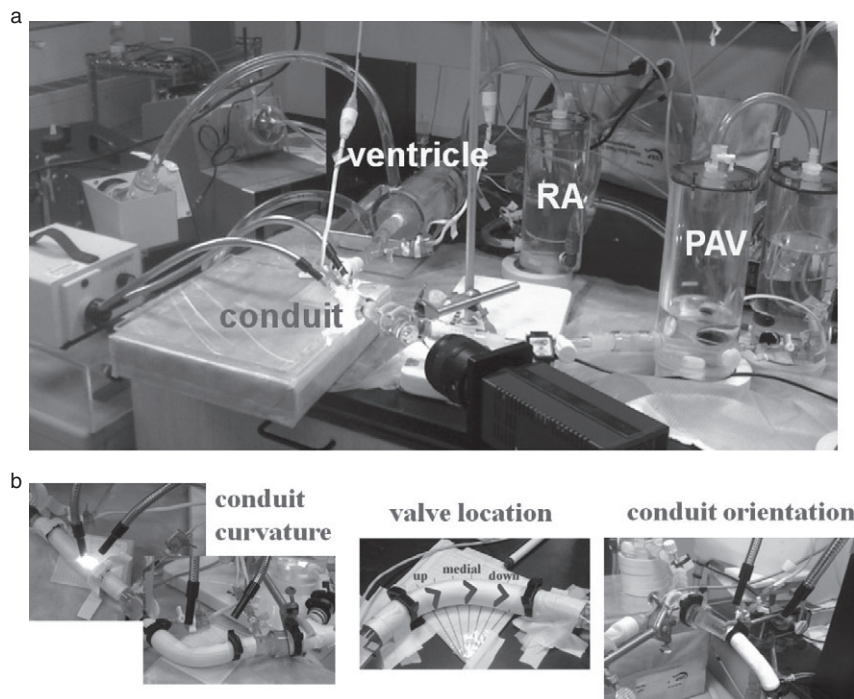


FIG. 2. In vitro pulmonary circulation flow loop shown during data acquisition (a). Valve motion is recorded using a camera placed downstream of the transparent bifurcation. Effect of conduit curvature, valve location, and conduit orientation on valve competency is evaluated (b).

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1 Regurgitate and anterograde flows are calculated
 2 using the instantaneous flow waveforms. PPG is
 3 defined as the difference of peak RV and PA pressure
 4 pulse. Based on blood analog fluid assumption, EAO
 5 was estimated using root-mean-square flow rate
 6 (Q_{rms}) and mean systolic-to-diastolic pressure drop.
 7 Performance parameters were reported based on the
 8 time-averaging over 15 cycles and the \pm values refer
 9 to the combined 85% uncertainty intervals.

10
11 **Computational fluid dynamics**

12 The three-dimensional flow fields for different in
 13 vivo conduit curvatures and inflow regimes were cal-
 14 culated by CFD analysis to further aid the conduit
 15 design process. Pulsatile blood flow was simulated
 16 inside the curved RVOT conduit using the second-
 17 order accurate CFD solver (FLUENT 6.3.26. ANSYS
 18 Inc., Canonsburg, PA, USA), which was originally
 19 developed for investigating the reconstructive surger-
 20 ies for single ventricle palliation (16,17). Two con-
 21 duits, C14 and C22, were evaluated based on the body
 22 surface area (0.5 and 1.35 m², respectively) and the
 23 corresponding COs (1.2 and 3.2 L/min, respectively).
 24 Analogous to the experiment settings, the baseline
 25 and smaller curvature were analyzed. Blood was
 26 chosen as Newtonian fluid with a viscosity of
 27 3.71×10^{-3} N s/m² and a density of 1060 kg/m³. Flow
 28 waveforms measured using the in vitro setup for the
 29 corresponding conduits and blunt flow profile

(typical for ventricle) was assigned at the inlet of the
 conduit. Computational domain of each conduit
 design was discretized using 100 000 tetrahedral
 elements.

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43 **RESULTS**

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45 **In vitro performance of bicuspid valved conduit**

46 The bicuspid valved conduit reconstructed RVOT
 47 experiments produced physiological pulsatile flow
 48 and pressure waveforms in pulmonary circulation in
 49 agreement with the clinical data (18). RV and PA
 50 flow and pressure pulses measured at the pre- and
 51 postconduit sites for the pulmonic curvature of C16
 52 (at the medial valve location) are shown in Fig. 3.
 53 Characteristic dirotic notch, phase-lag between flow
 54 and pressure waveforms, and diastolic flow regurgi-
 55 tation are clearly visible in the PA pulse traces. Cross-
 56 over of RV and PA pressure signals leads the onset of
 57 flow regurgitation.

58 Based on the static measurements, pressure drop
 59 across the valved conduit was calculated as $0.8 \pm$
 60 1.7 mm Hg for all conduit sizes, which appears con-
 61 siderably lower than the echocardiography-derived
 62 values reported previously (10). Pressure drop across
 63 the conduit was essentially insensitive to valve loca-
 64 tion or the curvature of the conduit. Leakage flow
 65 measured during the complete closure of bicuspid
 66 valve was increased with the increasing diastolic

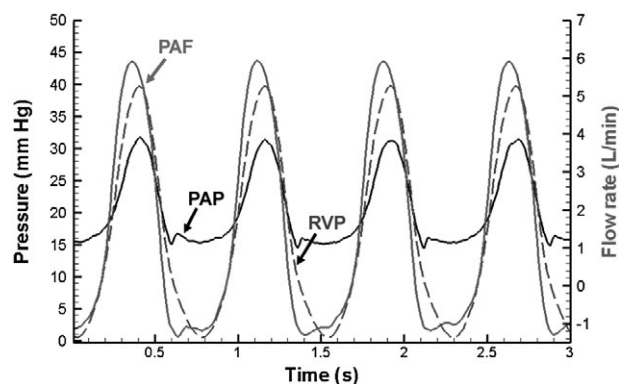


FIG. 3. Physiological PA flow (PAF) and pressure (PAP) waveforms and RV pressure (RVP) recorded at 1.5 L/min CO within conduit with 16 mm (C16) oriented in pulmonic curvature, that is, R = 8.2 cm, placed at the medial location along the curvature.

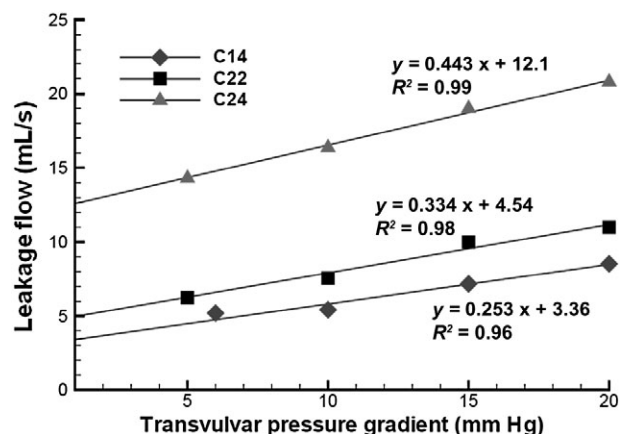


FIG. 4. Leakage flow across the fully closed bicuspid valve for four constant diastolic pressure gradients evaluated for conduits with diameters 14 mm (C14), 22 mm (C22), and 24 mm (C24). Mean leakage flow was calculated to be 0.34 ± 0.1 L/min/mm Hg.

pressure gradient as shown in Fig. 4. Diastolic valve regurgitation based on static transvalvular pressure gradient was calculated to be 0.34 ± 0.1 L/min/mm Hg. Diastolic valve regurgitation was higher for larger the size of the conduit.

High-speed videos captured the diastolic valve closure and asymmetrical valve opening, which indicated the unbalanced opening forces on leaflets during the systole (Fig. 5). An important surgical consideration for the design of the conduit-mounted valves is to assess the optimum valve location within the conduit. Results summarized in Table 2 show that

the baseline RF, PPG, and EAO for C16 were $23 \pm 2.1\%$, 13 ± 2.4 mm Hg, and 1.56 ± 0.2 cm². Distal valve location size was favored due to slightly decreased RF and increased EAO. There was no statistically significant relation between valve location or valve curvature and any of the performance parameters for bicuspid valve design. PPG increased by $23 \pm 20\%$ and EAO decreased by $3.9 \pm 4.1\%$ in the anatomical upright conduit orientation compared

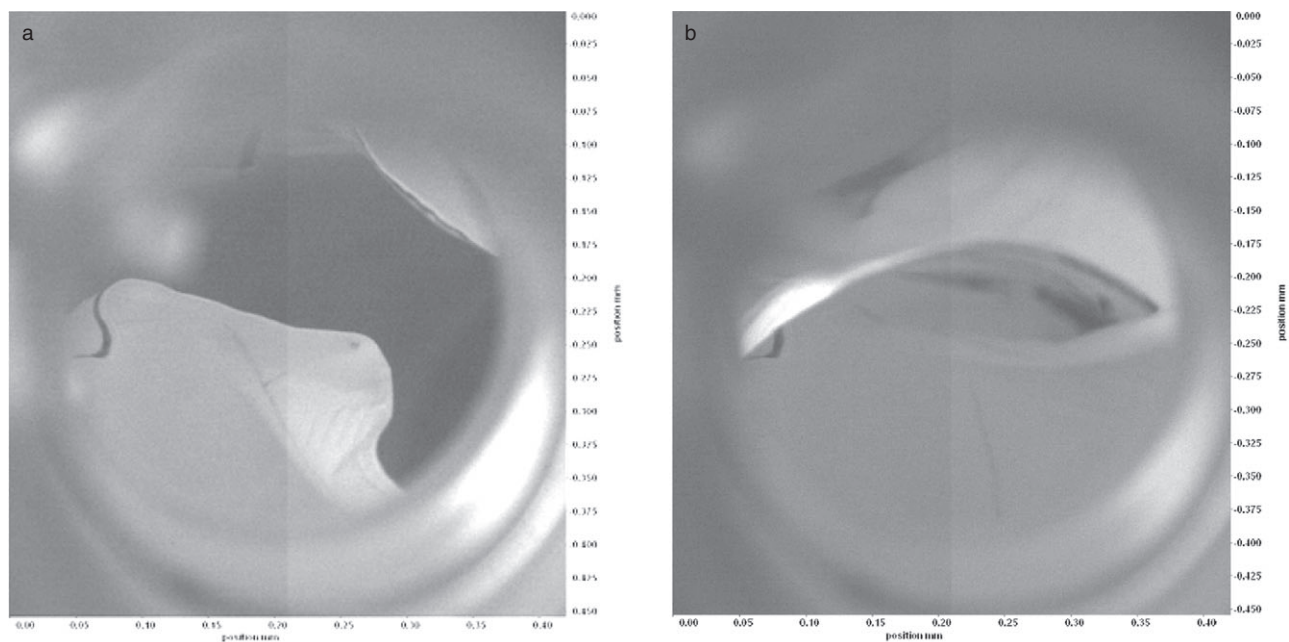


FIG. 5. Screen captures of C22 mm valve motion during systole (a) and diastole (b) phases indicated intact valve motion with asymmetrical valve motion.

TABLE 2. Summary of valve performance parameters for the evaluation of valve location along the conduit curvature ($R = 8.2\text{ cm}$) for 16-mm diameter conduit (C16) tested under 1.5 L/min CO

	Valve location			Curvature	Straight	Anatomical
	Proximal	Medial	Distal			
RF (%)	23 (2.1)	25 (2.2)	22 (1.8)	23 (2.1)	20 (2.0)	22 (1.7)
PPG (mm Hg)	11 (2.4)	14 (2.4)	14 (2.6)	13 (2.4)	12 (2.4)	16 (2.7)
EAO (cm ²)	1.51 (0.1)	1.55 (0.1)	1.56 (0.1)	1.54 (0.1)	1.47 (0.1)	1.48 (0.1)

* Errors spans given in parenthesis are calculated based on one standard deviation for 85% confidence interval and accounts for the cycle-to-cycle variations, transducer sensitivity, and repeatability error.

to the baseline horizontally oriented conduit ($P < 0.05$). These results indicate the competency of the bicuspid RVOT valve regardless of the conduit curvature or valve location along the conduit.

Three-dimensional conduit flow field

The CFD simulation demonstrated the flow skewness toward the major curvature of the conduit about 1 diameter distal from the inlet, based on the pulmonary conduit curvature. Hence, the flow velocity at the lesser curvature of conduit was slower than that at the major curvature during systole. Simulations indicated that lower curvature hosts the major back-flow regime throughout late systole and diastole. Furthermore, flow profile was almost symmetrical along the curvature axis, which indicates balanced opening forces are exerted on each leaflet during the systole (Fig. 6). This result disagrees with the in vitro observations and may be caused by the blunt flow profile assumption imposed at the ventricle outlet.

DISCUSSION

The RV model demonstrated its utility by generating physiological flow and pressure waveforms. Trans-

vulvar pressure measurements indicated significantly lower pressure drop, in turn lower flow impedance, for PTFE bicuspid valved conduits in comparison to the published mechanical valves tested in pulmonary position (12). However, it is important to note that the transvalvular pressure drop reported here indicates solely the hydraulic pressure drop due to viscous dissipation, as opposed to the pressure drop due to flow contraction at the valve outlet (i.e., vena contracta) measured by echocardiogram (19).

For a typical average diastolic pressure gradient ($\Delta P \sim 10\text{ mm Hg}$ and systole-to-diastole ratio, $T_{\text{sys/dys}} \sim 0.7$), RF was estimated as a function of the operating CO, as shown in Fig. 7. The operating curves given for each conduit can be used as a new criterion for conduit selection, which will allow limitation of the RF under a desired threshold. For the conduits evaluated, the RF was limited under 20%, assuming full closure of valve under mean diastolic transvalvular pressure gradient of 10 mm Hg. We assumed that ΔP remains constant regardless of the change in operating CO. Future studies should investigate the actual relation between ΔP and CO for the cyanotic patient cohort in order to improve the accuracy of the proposed conduit selection method.

CFD simulations indicated lower flow in the lesser curvature of the conduit in the pulmonary position. These results agree with the author’s clinical experience in the operating room as the lower leaflet of the previously designed tricuspid valved conduits were “stucked” due to insufficient forward momentum over the lower curvature (10).

The in vitro experiments demonstrated the competency of the bicuspid RVOT valve independent from the conduit curvature or valve location along the conduit. Current clinical understanding, which favors the distal valve placement with the hope of isolating the valve from the complex ventricle outflow, requires valve motion sensitivity analysis to the ventricle outflow profile. It may also be critical to determine if the valve location with respect to the

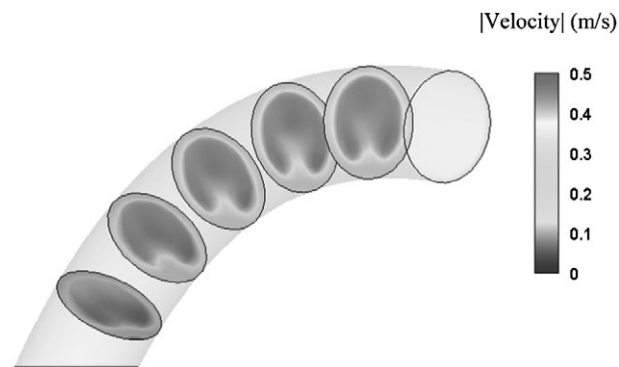


Fig. 6. Newtonian pulsatile blood simulated inside the 14 mm conduit for a CO of 1.2 LPM using second-order CFD solver. Time-averaged velocity contours shown during systole indicated lower velocity at the lesser curvature of the conduit.

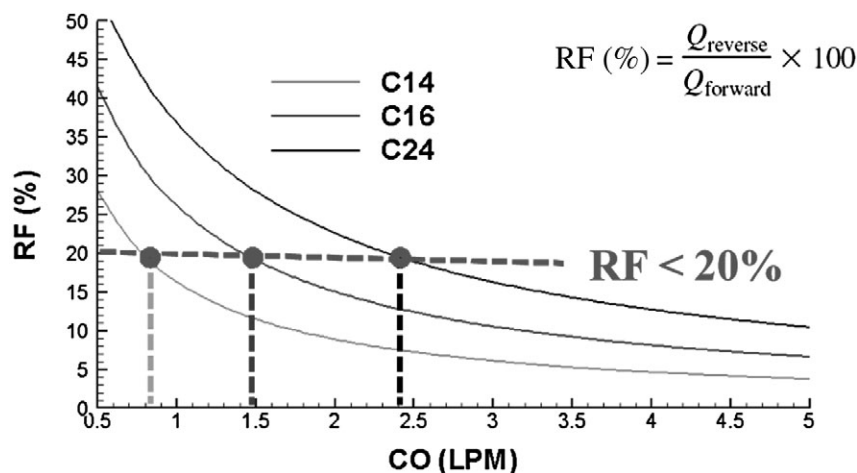


FIG. 7. Operating curves given for each conduit for estimating the RF based on constant diastolic pressure gradient (~10 mm Hg) and CO. This approach is proposed for conduit selection and allows limiting the RF under a desired threshold (<20%) as shown with the dashed line.

pulmonary bifurcation also affects the functional opening and closing of the valve, which should be addressed in the future. Improved numerical models incorporating the valve motion will help systematical analysis of each of the factors identified in this study and improve our understanding of valve behavior.

CONCLUSION

In vitro data with the bicuspid valved PTFE conduit coincides well with acceptable early clinical performance (mild insufficiency), with intact valve motion independent from the conduit curvature, orientation, or valve location, at the expense of increased diastolic flow regurgitation (25%). These findings document the baseline performance of the bicuspid valved conduit and will be used in future designs to improve valve competency.

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