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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2018.03.026>

PUBLISHER

© Elsevier

VERSION

AM (Accepted Manuscript)

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Davoodi, Farzin, Hassan Hassanzadeh, Seyed A. Zolfaghari, George Havenith, and Mehdi Maerefat. 2019. "A New Individualized Thermoregulatory Bio-heat Model for Evaluating the Effects of Personal Characteristics on Human Body Thermal Response". figshare. <https://hdl.handle.net/2134/32488>.

Graphical Abstract:

BAE-D-17-01947, “A new individualized thermoregulatory bio-heat model for evaluating the effects of personal characteristics on human body thermal response”

Farzin Davoodi, Hassan Hassanzadeh, Seyed Alireza Zolfaghari, George Havenith and Mehdi Maerefat).

Building and Environment, accepted 2018

**A new individualized thermoregulatory bio-heat model for
evaluating the effects of personal characteristics on human body
thermal response**

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Abstract

Personal factors such as weight, height, gender, age, and basal metabolic rate (BMR) all have significant effects on body temperature distribution and thermal sensation. A large number of well-known human body thermoregulatory models are population-based however, and cannot evaluate the impact of individual characteristics on human thermal responses. Further, the standard thermal models of the human body, including Fanger's and Gagge's, are based on the energy balance approach. However, a person's thermal sensation is affected by the thermal response of cutaneous thermoreceptors relative to the environmental thermal conditions, and it is not necessarily related to the energy balance of the human body. Thus, these simplified standard models have some limitations under various individual conditions and are not in conformity with the physiology of individual thermoregulatory mechanisms. This study proposes a new Individualized Thermoregulatory Bio-heat (ITB) model on the basis of Pennes' equation and Gagge's 2-node model to determine heat transfer in living tissue layers. In developing this model, the effects of individual parameters such as age, gender, body mass index (BMI), and BMR on determining the temperature and its derivatives at cutaneous thermoreceptor locations were considered. Afterward, the present model was validated against the published empirical data, simulated standard model results, and analytical results under various environmental conditions and a good agreement was found.

Keywords: Bio-heat model, Individual parameters, STB model, Thermoreceptors, human body thermoregulation

1. Introduction

Modeling the thermoregulatory systems of the human body and analyzing thermal comfort are complex processes, yet they attract a lot of research interest as they relate to numerous practical issues for researchers in physiological as well as in building comfort. Issues such as heterogeneous vascular layout, blood flow in the complex network of veins and arteries, metabolic heat production rate, and effects of individual physiological characteristics of human body tissues in thermal models are difficult to appraise. The combination of conduction, convection, radiation, and blood perfusion heat transfer methods in tissues are factors that increase this complexity [1]. There are many thermophysiological models to predict the mean skin temperature and thermoregulatory mechanisms of each body segment. But, these models do not directly evaluate the body thermal sensation and comfort. Therefore, thermal sensation and comfort models are used to translate thermophysiological and environmental information into perceived comfort sensation for people. Today, the accurate prediction of thermal comfort conditions is needed for a variety of applications, such as designing HVAC systems for buildings or personalized air conditioning in transport vehicles, for the textile and automotive industries, and for medical, aerospace, and military applications. To this end, over the years researchers have developed numerous human body heat balance and thermoregulatory models [2]. These models can be divided into two major groups: energy balance based models and combined energy balance-thermoregulation models. The Fanger's steady state [3] is the most well-known energy balance model that has been widely utilized for predicting thermal sensations in the common standards of thermal comfort [4, 5]. Another example of such energy balance models is the required clothing Insulation Index (I_{req}), looking at energy balance in the cold. Gagge's transient 2-node [6] model is probably the best example of a simple thermophysiological model used to assess thermal comfort, combining the external heat exchange energy model with a simple, two compartment passive body model as well as a physiological control model that regulates thermoregulatory responses based on input parameters like skin and core temperature (i.e. the temperature of the two compartments). Most examples listed below are based on the same principle but expand the complexity in different ways. Zolfaghari and Maerefat [7] also developed a simplified 3-node model (three lumped compartments: core, bare skin, and clothed skin) based on Gagge's model to evaluate critical thermal sensations. Moreover, several multi-segments models have been developed to provide more accurate predictions, especially for cold exposure, of the human body's thermal conditions.

One of the most important and influential multi-segment models of the human body was developed by Stolwijk [8]. In this model, the body is divided into five cylindrical parts with four layers (central core, muscle, fat, skin). Based on this model principle, several other multi-segment models, including the Berkeley model [9], Tanabe model [10], ThermoSEM model [11], Kaynakli model [12], and Fiala model [13] were developed. A few of these models include some of individual differences like Berkeley model [9], Fiala model [14] and ThermoSEM[11] model, but they do not comprehensively cover all impacts of personal characteristics. It should be noted that despite their accuracy, using the mentioned models is considerably complex and serious limitations can arise in applying them. For example, determining the values of some input parameters in the mentioned models is not simple and easy-to-implement.

Individual characteristics can significantly affect the human body's thermoregulatory mechanisms. Differences in age, fitness, gender, body fat content, BMI, and BMR can significantly affect temperature distribution in body tissue and an individual's thermal sensations[15]. A large number of studies have purposed to determine relationships existing between individual characteristics, comfort and thermal responses: Havenith [16, 17] built on the Lotens [18] clothing model and the 2-node Gagge model, considering the impact of individual parameters (fitness, body mass, body fat content, acclimatization, sex and age) on the passive system and various control functions. Zhang et al. [19] proposed relationships for evaluating body fat, density, and BMR as functions of measurable parameters (height, weight, and gender). Van Marken Lichtenbelt et al. [20], Karjalainen et al. [21, 22], and Holopainen [23, 24] studied individual differences and their effects on human body thermoregulation and thermal comfort. Zhou et al. [25] reported that there are considerable differences in body size and composition between Chinese and Western adults, and they developed an individual native model to predict body temperature. Choi and Yeom [26] expressed that the conventional thermal sensation models have limitations in predicting individual thermal sensation levels, because they are not consider the effects of personal physiological characteristics. Results of their experimental study revealed that gender and BMI have a significant influence on the overall thermal sensation. Kim et al. [27] explored that personal comfort models based on occupants' heating and cooling behavior can estimate individual thermal preference and can provide more accurate representations of occupants' comfort needs. Also, Kim et al. [28], having reviewed existing thermal comfort models and their limitations, described that personal comfort models can benefit the building industry by improving the level of thermal comfort among

1 occupants and optimizing energy consumption in building. Chaudhuri et al. [29] presented the
2 predicted thermal state (PTS) model to determine the overall thermal state by considering two
3 individual factors: body surface area and clothing insulation. Finally, the authors of the present
4 study, Davoodi et al. [30], developed an individual 3-node body thermoregulatory model based on
5 energy balance equations in which individual differences such as age, gender, BMI, and BMR
6 were considered. This model can accurately estimate the thermal sensations of bare and clothed
7 parts of the body with regard to individual characteristics in different environmental conditions.

8 Thermal sensation, however, is not necessarily related to the energy balance of the human body or
9 to the average temperature of specific body compartments like core and skin. Actually, one's
10 thermal sensation is affected by the thermal response of cutaneous thermoreceptors relative to
11 environmental thermal conditions [31]. Therefore, energy balance-based models and models
12 working with few and large compartments are not in conformity with the physiology of an
13 individual's thermoregulatory system and are therefore not able to directly evaluate local thermal
14 dissatisfaction (draught, asymmetric radiation, etc.). The thermal responses of warm and cold
15 receptors depend on the temperature of the thermoreceptor and its time derivative [31]. In 1991,
16 Ring and de Dear [32, 33] developed a human thermal response model based on static and dynamic
17 thermal responses of cutaneous thermoreceptors. In a series of related studies in 2005 and 2007,
18 Lv and Liu [34, 35] presented a new model based on the Ring and de Dear model [32] and its
19 combination with a suitable bio-heat model. They used the well-known Pennes equation [36, 37]
20 to compute the temperature distribution in the body tissue so as to evaluate the effect of transient
21 temperature on thermoreceptors. In 2010, Zolfaghari and Maerefat [38] proposed a new simplified
22 thermoregulatory bio-heat model (STB model). This model was a combination of the well-known
23 Pennes' equation [36] and Gagge's 2-node model [6] and took into account thermoregulation
24 mechanisms such as sweating, shivering, and vaso-motion. In 2011, Zolfaghari and Maerefat [39]
25 identified a relationship between the thermal response index and the ASHRAE thermal sensation
26 scale. Although this model can overcome some limitations of the energy balance-based models, it
27 was developed for an average human population, similar to most other common models. Therefore,
28 the effects of individual parameters are neglected in the mentioned human body models. Hence, it
29 seems that a new individualized thermoregulatory model must be developed to evaluate the
30 thermal conditions of living biological tissue while considering individual differences as well as
31 calculating the actual temperature profiles at the receptor locations.

This paper presents a novel individual human body thermoregulatory model based on the thermal responses of cutaneous thermoreceptors in which the effects of individual characteristics are considered. As noted, the temperature and the temperature change rates at the depth of cutaneous receptors play a significant role in thermal response of occupants. So the main objective of this study is to develop a thermoregulatory bio-heat model to accurately determine the temperature at the thermoreceptors' location by considering the effects of personal characteristics (such as age, gender, body mass index (BMI) and BMR) on human body thermal response. This paper is organized to first provide a background for merits of STB model as a base model. Then the development of the individual thermoregulatory bio-heat (ITB) model is explained in methodology part in detail. Finally, the new individualized model is validated under various steady-state and transient environmental conditions and the performance of the model is investigated for exposure to both cold and heat stress.

2. Background

2.1. STB as a base model

As previously mentioned, Zolfaghari and Maerefat [38] developed a simplified thermoregulatory bio-heat (STB) model by combining the well-known Pennes' equation and Gagge's 2-node model. In their model, thermoregulatory mechanisms such as shivering, sweating, vasodilatation, and vasoconstriction are considered. Core temperature is defined as a variable dependent upon body energy balance. Most importantly, the STB model can accurately compute the temperature at the location of time-dependent thermoreceptors. Also, in the STB model, the obtained physiological responses are utilized to evaluate the thermal sensation.

2.2. Thermoreceptors

Cutaneous thermoreceptors are able to detect heat and cold and determine the sensitivity of skin to the thermal environment. Thermal information of the environment is received by these sensors and transmitted through neural cells to the body's thermoregulatory center. The thermoreceptor response to thermal stimuli is called the frequency response. Hensel [31] found that the frequency response includes two parts, one static and one dynamic; the static part is related to the temperature

of the receptor's location (T), and the dynamic part is dependent upon the temperature change rates ($\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$) at the depth of the receptors. Based on Hensel's findings, Ring and de Dear [32] developed a model for assessing thermoreceptor responses. They provided relationships for the frequency response of receptors as follows:

Cold receptors:

$$RS_{cR}(t) = -k_s(T(x_{cR}, t) - T_{n,cR}) - k_d \min \left\{ 0.0, \left(\frac{\partial T(x, t)}{\partial t} \right)_{x=x_{cR}} \right\} \quad (1)$$

Warm receptors:

$$RS_{wR}(t) = k_s(T(x_{wR}, t) - T_{n,wR}) - k_d \max \left\{ 0.0, \left(\frac{\partial T(x, t)}{\partial t} \right)_{x=x_{wR}} \right\} \quad (2)$$

where $RS(t)$ is the frequency response of a thermoreceptor (Hz), and k_s and k_d are proportionality constant for the static and dynamic response ($K^{-1}s^{-1}$), respectively. Subscripts cR and wR are related to cold and warm receptors, respectively. It is noteworthy that cold receptors are generally located at a depth of 0.2 mm and warm receptors are found at a depth of approximately 0.5 mm from the skin surface [35].

2.3. Structure of the STB model

As shown in Fig. 1, in the STB model, the thickness of skin is subdivided into 3 main layers (epidermis, dermis, and subcutaneous). Each of these layers has different thermal properties which are used in Pennes' equation. The outer layer of skin is very thin, and in it, the rate of blood perfusion is almost zero. This layer is called the epidermis or outer skin. The layer under the outer skin is called the dermis, and the nerve endings related to cold and warm receptors are located in it. The layer under the dermis is called the subcutaneous and connects the skin to muscle tissue.

Fig. 1 schematic geometry of skin layers [38].

The main governing equation of the model with time-dependent boundary conditions is as follows:

$$\rho_b C_{pb} \frac{\partial T(x, t)}{\partial t} = k_b \frac{\partial^2 T(x, t)}{\partial x^2} + \dot{W}_{bl} C_{pbl} (T_{art} - T(x, t)) + \dot{Q}_m \quad (3)$$

where ρ_b is the density (kg/m^3), C_{pb} is the specific heat capacity (J/kgK), k_b is the thermal conductivity of tissue (W/mK), $\dot{W}_{bl}$ is the blood perfusion rate ($\text{m}^3/\text{s m}^3$), C_{pbl} is the specific heat capacity of blood (J/kgK), T_{art} is the arterial temperature (K), and $\dot{Q}_m$ is the metabolic heat production (W/m^3). In order to solve Equation (3), two boundary conditions and an initial condition are required.

Boundary conditions at skin surface:

$$-k_b \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = h_t(T - T_a) + \sigma \varepsilon (T^4 - T_{rd}^4) + (3.054 + 16.7 h w_{sk})(0.256T - 3.37 - P_a) \quad (4)$$

Boundary conditions at body core:

$$T_{cr}^{new} = T_{cr}^{old} + \frac{\Delta t}{(1 - \alpha) \rho_b C_{pb}} \left[r_m \dot{Q}_m - \frac{(k_{eff} + C_{pbl} \dot{m}_{bl})(T_{cr}^{old} - T_{sk}^{old})}{l_b} \right] \quad (5)$$

Furthermore, l_b represents the ratio of volume of the human body volume (m^3) to its surface area (m^2). The amount of the remaining metabolic coefficient (r_m) is calculated from Equation (7), and η_m is the external mechanical efficiency that can be calculated from Equation (8).

$$l_b = \frac{V_b}{A_D} \quad (6)$$

$$r_m = 1 - \eta_m - 0.0014(34 - T_a) - 0.0173(5.87 - P_a) \quad (7)$$

$$\eta_m = \frac{W}{M} \quad (8)$$

In Equations 3, 4, and 5, the physiological parameters such as $\dot{Q}_m$, α , w_{sk} and $\dot{m}_{bl}$ can vary depending on the individual and environmental conditions. Therefore, these parameters are simulated thermoregulatory mechanisms (sweating, shivering, vasodilation, and vasoconstriction). To calculate these parameters, the thermal signals must be defined as similar to Gagge's model.

$$WSIG_{cr} = \text{Max}\{0, T_{cr} - T_{cr,n}\} \quad (9)$$

$$CSIG_{cr} = \text{Max}\{0, T_{cr,n} - T_{cr}\} \quad (10)$$

$$WSIG_{sk} = \text{Max}\{0, T_{sk} - T_{sk,n}\} \quad (11)$$

$$CSIG_{sk} = \text{Max}\{0, T_{sk,n} - T_{sk}\} \quad (12)$$

Cold and warm thermal conditions cause vasomotion of the blood vessels in the human body. This thermoregulatory mechanism (vasoconstriction and vasodilation) changes the rate of blood flow and the fraction of body mass concentrated in the skin to control body temperature. According to the definition of warm and cold signals of body parts, the blood flow rate between the skin and the core and the fraction of mass accumulation in the skin can be calculated from the following equations [4]:

$$\dot{m}_{bl} = \frac{6.3 + 200WSIG_{cr}}{3600(1 + 0.5CSIG_{sk})} \quad (13)$$

$$\alpha = 0.0418 + 0.745/(3600\dot{m}_{bl} + 0.585) \quad (14)$$

The total skin wettedness level (w_{sk}) that presents in Equation (4) can be calculated from the following equation [40]:

$$w_{sk} = 0.06 + 0.94\left(\frac{\dot{m}_{rsw}h_{fg}}{\dot{Q}_{evap,max}}\right) \quad (15)$$

The maximum evaporative potential ($\dot{Q}_{evap,max}$) is estimated from the following equation:

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{evap,max}} = (P_{sk(s)} - P_a)/R_{e,t} \quad (16)$$

Sweating is another thermal regulation mechanism that controls body temperature under hot conditions by raising skin wettedness. With regard to the thermal signals defined for body temperature, the sweat rate can be calculated as follows:

$$\dot{m}_{\text{rsw}} = 4.7 \times 10^{-5} W SIG_b \exp(W SIG_{sk}/10.7) \quad (17)$$

where:

$$W SIG_b = \text{Max}\{0, T_b - T_{b,n}\} \quad (18)$$

and:

$$T_b = \alpha T_{sk} + (1 - \alpha) T_{cr} \quad (19)$$

$$T_{b,n} = \alpha T_{sk,n} + (1 - \alpha) T_{cr,n} \quad (20)$$

Shivering is another important physiological mechanism that regulates body temperature under cold conditions by increasing the metabolic rate. Shivering can be estimated using the following equation:

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{m,shiv}} = \frac{19.4 C SIG_{sk} C SIG_{cr}}{l_b} \quad (21)$$

$$\dot{Q}_m = \dot{Q}_{\text{m,act}} + \dot{Q}_{\text{m,shiv}} \quad (22)$$

It must be noted that the governing equations of the STB model should be solved numerically in a one-dimensional computational field.

3. Methodology

3.1. New Individualized Thermoregulatory Bio-heat (ITB) model

As shown in Fig. 2, individual characteristics (e.g., weight, height, body fat percentage, maximum cardiac output, acclimation, fitness, and gender) can affect the three main parts of thermoregulatory models: 1) heat transfer between body and environment (passive system) through convection, conduction, radiation, and evaporation mechanisms; 2) thermoregulatory mechanisms (active system), such as shivering and vasoconstriction in cold conditions, sweating and vasodilation in warm conditions; and 3) the thermal response of the thermoreceptor system. All these issues must be considered in the new model.

Fig. 2 The schematic for modeling individual characteristics

3.2. Investigation of individual factors

As previously mentioned, the time-dependent temperatures at the depth of the warm and cold receptors must be determined accurately in order to utilize the frequency response of the thermoreceptors. Previous studies have clearly shown that individual differences can play a significant role in the body thermoregulatory system. Thus, a person's individual characteristics can significantly affect temperature distribution in human tissue. The necessity of developing a bio-heat model that can accurately predict body temperature while taking into account individual parameters is evident. In order to consider the effects of individual factors in the new model, some personal properties, such as blood perfusion rate in tissue, BMR, specific heat capacity, thermal conductivity, sweat production rate, thickness of each body layer (skin, fat, muscle, and bone), and body fat percentage (BF%) are evaluated as functions of measurable and available data, i.e. height, weight, and gender, using existing empirical relationships. Subsequently, the time-dependent body temperature is computed using the modified and individualized bio-heat equation. Finally, by utilizing this individual thermoregulatory model, the thermal responses of thermoreceptors can be defined for predicting a person's thermal sensation index under transient conditions.

As presented in Fig. 3, dependent individual affective factors were modeled using independent individual characteristics, and their roles in the bio-heat equation and related boundary conditions were evaluated. Then, the individual physiological characteristics were utilized in the new model.

3.3. Individualized physical model for the human body

1 According to previous bio-heat models, body tissue can be divided into four main layers: core,
2 muscle, fat, and skin [10]. As shown in Fig. 1, in the STB model, body tissue is subdivided into
3 the human skin as three stratified layers (epidermis, dermis, and subcutaneous) and one layer as
4 inner tissue. In the mentioned model, the geometric information (layer thicknesses) and thermal
5 properties were suggested as an average for the human population.

6 People have different body compositions. The thicknesses of living tissue layers differ for obese
7 and lean people and depend on age and gender [41]. By utilizing individual parameters, the
8 thickness of each main layer of the body and the thermal properties of each layer can be calculated
9 in order to solve the bio-heat equation (Fig. 4). Also, parameters such as total body surface area,
10 BMI, and BF% can be calculated. Using the individual dependent parameters, the thicknesses of
11 the various layers of the body tissue are obtained from confirmed empirical correlations. Finally,
12 the governing equations are rewritten and should be solved at the new individualized
13 computational domain.

Fig. 3 Schematic diagram for individual parameters and their affection, AD = Body surface area, BF = Body fat percentage, TNZ = Thermal neutral zone, BMR = Basal metabolic rate BMR^* = Modified basal metabolic rate, BMI = Body mass index

Fig. 4 schematic geometry of heat transfer equation solution domain in tissue layers with variable thickness depend on individual.

In most common thermoregulatory models, the characteristics of a standard human body are considered in simulations and individual characteristics are ignored. The specifications of a standard body are a height of 1.83 (m), mass of 75 (kg), basal metabolic rate of 58.15 (W/m²), and male gender [13].

The total body surface area is A_D , which is obtained from the following equation [42].

$$A_D = 0.202m^{0.425}l^{0.725} \quad (23)$$

Moreover, the gender-based correlations for evaluating the body surface area are as follows [43]:

$$(A_D)_{male} = 0.0057l + 0.0121m + 0.0882 \quad (24)$$

$$(A_D)_{female} = 0.0073l + 0.0121m - 0.2106 \quad (25)$$

Body mass index is a statistical index for comparing peoples' body compositions, and it can be obtained by dividing an individual's body mass (kg) by his/her square height (m) as follows [44]:

$$BMI = \frac{m}{l^2} \quad (26)$$

The thickness of the subcutaneous fat layer plays a significant role in determining body temperature distribution. This parameter can affect thermal conductivity, specific heat capacity, and blood flow rate. First, the BF% should be obtained from the available values. Among the recommended relationships in various studies, the following equation is in very good agreement with the empirical results [45].

$$BF = c_{bf,b} \cdot BMI + c_{bf,a} \cdot age + c_{bf,0} \quad (27)$$

In the above equation, BF is the body fat percentage, BMI stands for body mass index, and age is the age of the subject in years. The coefficients $c_{bf,b}$, $c_{bf,a}$, and $c_{bf,0}$ are 1.330, 0.236 and -20.20, for males and 1.210, 0.262 and -6.70 for females, respectively. Moreover, the thickness of the fat layer can be calculated from the following equation:

$$\delta_{fat+skin} = 0.5 \cdot ASF \quad (28)$$

where ASF stands for the average skinfold value. This parameter should be obtained through an indirect method by means of density and body fat values. As can be seen, there is a relationship between body density and body fat:

$$BF = \left[\frac{4.95}{D} - 4.50 \right] \cdot 100 \quad (29)$$

where D indicates body density. The following equations were proposed to calculate body densities as a relation between skinfolds (SF) or the sum of seven skinfolds (chest, armpit, triceps, shoulders, abdomen, flanks, and thighs) and age while considering gender [46].

For males:

$$D_m = 1.112 - 10^{-6}(434.99 SF + 0.55 SF^2 - 288.26 age) \quad (30)$$

For females:

$$D_f = 1.097 - 10^{-6}(469.71 SF + 0.56 SF^2 - 128.28 age) \quad (31)$$

First, body fat should be evaluated from Equation (27). Afterward, body density is calculated from Equation (29), and then SF can be indirectly obtained from Equation (30) for males and Equation (31) for females. The value of ASF can be calculated as follows:

$$ASF = SF/7 \quad (32)$$

Now, the thickness of the fat layer can be obtained from Equation (28). As can be seen, this parameter depends completely upon personal factors (height, weight, age, and gender). Modified thermal resistance and the heat transfer coefficient can also be calculated from the thickness of the fat layer.

The thicknesses of the other layers can be determined using the following relationships [47] based on individual parameters:

$$\delta_i = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^4 V_i}{\pi L_p}} \quad (33)$$

$$m_i = \alpha_{m,i} W \quad (34)$$

$$V_i = m_i / \rho_i \quad (35)$$

$$L_p = \frac{A_D^2}{(4\pi \sum_{i=1}^4 V_i)} \quad (36)$$

The subscripts $i=1, 2, 3, 4$ in the above equations correspond to the central core, muscle, fat, and skin layers, respectively. V_i indicates the volume of each layer (m^3), m_i is the mass of each layer (kg), and $\alpha_{m,i}$ is the proportion of the weight of each layer (total fat and muscle = 73%, core = 22%, and body skin = 5%) [8].

The skin structure includes two main layers, the epidermis and the dermis. The epidermis is thin, about 0.075-0.15 mm, and there is no blood perfusion in this layer. The dermis is much thicker than the epidermis and contains sweat glands, thermoregulatory nerves, and vascular systems [48].

Thus, we have:

$$\delta_{skin} = \delta_{epidermis} + \delta_{dermis} \quad (37)$$

Therefore, the solution domain of the bio-heat equation in human body tissue with respect to individual characteristics can be defined as follows:

$$\delta_t = \delta_{epidermis} + \delta_{dermis} + \delta_{fat} + \delta_{muscle} + \delta_{core} \quad (38)$$

The thermal properties of each layer are specified in Table 1.

Table 1 Thermal properties of tissue layers [8, 35, 47].

Properties	Density	Specific heat	Conductivity
Layer	$\rho \left(\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}\right)$	$c \left(\frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg K}}\right)$	$k \left(\frac{\text{W}}{\text{mK}}\right)$
Epidermis	1200	3600	0.24
Dermis	1000	3300	0.45
Fat	850	2510	0.21
Muscle	1115	3105	0.66
Bone	977	2960	0.42

It should be noted that all of the terms available in the energy balance equations of the 2-node model, which are used in the core boundary condition, have a dimension of power per unit of surface area on the human body (W/m^2), while the Pennes' bio-heat equation is written in units of power per volume of the body (W/m^3). Therefore, in order to combine the above equations, the individual body characteristic length $(l_b)_{ind}$ must be defined as follows:

$$(V_b)_{ind} = m/D \quad (39)$$

$$(l_b)_{ind} = \frac{V_b}{A_D} \quad (40)$$

In the next step, each term of Equations (3), (4), and (5) should be rewritten based on individual characteristics. The schematic diagram for human body thermoregulation is shown in Fig 5. Different thermal terms, such as body thermal conductivity, skin wettedness, the amount of blood perfusion, metabolic rate, blood flow rate between core and skin, etc., are modeled based on personal factors. As shown in Fig. 5, each mentioned term plays a significant role in the human body heat transfer system and in thermoregulatory mechanisms. A new thermoregulatory model can be developed by individualizing these terms.

Fig. 5 Schematic diagram for human body thermoregulation by active and passive systems.

3.4. Individualized thermal coefficients of human body

The specific heat capacity for the human body can be modified and related to individual parameters as follows:

$$C_{p,b} = \left(\frac{fat\ mass}{m}\right)C_{b,fat} + \left(\frac{m - fat\ mass}{m}\right)C_{b,other} \quad (41)$$

To calculate heat transfer through the conduction mechanism, the thermal resistance between the body core and the skin must be estimated. As shown in Fig. 6, thermal resistance between the body core and skin is influenced by individual parameters such as activity level and fat layer thickness, which is expressed by the following equations [17]:

$$R_{core-skin} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{R_{skin\ blood\ flow}} + \frac{1}{R_{muscle} + R_{fat+skin}}\right)} \quad (42)$$

where,

$$R_{\text{muscle}} = \frac{0.05}{1 + \left(\frac{Met - 65}{130}\right)} \quad (43)$$

$$R_{\text{skin blood flow}} = \frac{1}{\eta \cdot C_{p,bl} \cdot \dot{m}_{bl}} \quad (44)$$

$$R_{\text{fat+skin}} = 0.0048(\delta_{\text{fat+skin}} - 2) + 0.0044 \quad (45)$$

1 where R is thermal resistance ($\text{m}^2\text{K/W}$), η is blood heat exchange efficiency, $C_{p,bl}$ is blood heat
2 capacity (J/kgK), $\dot{m}_{bl}$ is skin-blood flow rate (kg/s), and Met is metabolic rate (W/m^2).

3 By means of the mentioned thermal resistance, an individual effective conductivity can be replaced
4 in Equation (5) instead of the average value as follows:

$$(k_{\text{eff}})_{\text{ind}} = \frac{1}{R_{\text{core-skin}}} \times \frac{l_b}{\delta_t} \quad (46)$$

5 These modified coefficients can be rewritten in the main bio-heat equation and also in boundary
6 condition equations.

Fig. 6 Schematic of resistors involved in core to skin heat transfer [17].

7

8 3.5. Individualized human body thermoregulatory mechanisms

9 In the STB model, blood flow rate was used to determine mass accumulation in the skin (α).
10 Now, by obtaining the individual thermal resistance between the body core and the skin [49], α
11 can be modified in the model structure.

$$(\alpha)_{ind} = 0.08 + 2 R_{core-skin} \quad (47)$$

It should be noted that some thermal parameters, such as sweat rate and blood flow rate, are directly affected by the body surface area. These factors have been modeled linearly through correction factor analysis (CFA):

$$CFA = \left(\frac{A_D}{A_{D-standard}} \right) \quad (48)$$

Thus, the sweat rate and blood flow rate can be modified as in the following equations:

$$(\dot{m}_{rs})_{ind} = CFA \times 4.7 \times 10^{-5} W SIG_b \exp\left(\frac{W SIG_{sk}}{10.7}\right) \quad (49)$$

$$(\dot{m}_{bl})_{ind} = CFA \times \frac{6.3 + 200 W SIG_{cr}}{3600(1 + 0.5 C SIG_{sk})} \quad (50)$$

In Equation (49), the body's warm signal value can be calculated from Equation (18). The neutral body temperature $T_{b,n}$ must be defined with regard to the gender and age of the subject. It should be noted that neutral skin and core temperatures ($T_{sk,n}$ and $T_{cr,n}$) can be determined by considering different subpopulations like adult, young, or elderly; obese or lean; and male or female [50, 51]. In this study, neutral skin and core temperature values for standard subject are respectively assumed to be 33.7°C and 36.8°C. Also, the neutral body temperature can be estimated by Eq (20).

BMR is another individual factor which significantly affects the body's thermoregulatory system. This parameter can be calculated based on gender, age, and body composition [52]. Among the proposed correlations, the following equation is in very good agreement with the experimental data [25, 53]:

$$(BMR)_{ind} = 58 \times m + 1741 \times l - 14 \times Age - 470 \times sex + 227 \quad (51)$$

where gender is coded as a dummy variable (man is 0 and woman is 1). In this equation, the unit kJ/day should be converted to Watt (W). The value of heat production per unit area is initialized by considering the person's physical activity level (sedentary or lightly active lifestyle, active or moderately active lifestyle, and vigorous or vigorously active lifestyle) [52]. Then, it can be modified as follows:

$$CFB = \left(\frac{BMR_{ind}}{BMR_{st}} \right) \quad (52)$$

1

2 Therefore,

$$\dot{Q}_m = CFB \times \dot{Q}_{m,act} + \frac{19.4CSIG_{sk}CSIG_{cr}}{(l_b)_{ind}} \quad (53)$$

3 The second term of the equation above expresses the additional metabolic rate caused by the
 4 body's shivering mechanism under cold conditions. Cold signals of the skin and core should be
 5 determined based on the neutral temperatures associated with the age and gender of the person.

6 In the discussed equations, the cardiac output can significantly influence blood perfusion ($\dot{W}_{bl}$) in
 7 Pennes' equation and blood flow rate ($\dot{m}_{bl}$) which appears in Gagge's model. The cardiac output
 8 is the product of heart rate or, simply, is the amount of blood pumped by the heart. Thus, cardiac
 9 output is an individual parameter that can play an important role in human body thermoregulation.
 10 In the following equation, the cardiac output is obtained based on individual characteristics [14,
 11 25]:

$$(CO)_{ind} = 0.024 \times m - 0.057 \times Age - 0.305 \times sex + 4.544 \quad (54)$$

12 A correction factor is obtained from the following equation:

$$COF = \left(\frac{CO_{ind}}{CO_{st}} \right) \quad (55)$$

13 Now,

$$(\dot{m}_{bl})_{ind} = COF \times \left(\frac{6.3 + 200WSIG_{cr}}{3600(1 + 0.5CSIG_{sk})} \right) \quad (56)$$

14

$$(\dot{W}_{bl})_{ind} = COF \times \begin{cases} 0 & x < \delta_e \\ 0.5 \times 0.00125 & \delta_e \leq x \leq \delta_e + \delta_d \\ 0.00125 & \delta_e + \delta_d \leq x \leq \delta_e + \delta_d + \delta_f \\ 0.00125 & \delta_e + \delta_d + \delta_f \leq x \leq \delta_e + \delta_d + \delta_f + \delta_m \end{cases} \quad (57)$$

15

16 3.6. The new individual thermoregulatory (ITB) model algorithm

17 The schematic diagram provided in Fig. 7 shows the procedure of the thermoregulatory model
 18 based on thermoreceptor responses. As illustrated, the time-dependent temperature at the depth of
 19 the warm and cold cutaneous receptors is computed while considering the boundary conditions at

skin surface and core. The thermoreceptor response has static and dynamic parts. The static part is related to the temperature of the thermoreceptor $T(x_R, t)$, and the dynamic part is dependent upon the rate of temperature change at the depth of the thermoreceptors $(\frac{\partial T(x, t)}{\partial t})_{x=x_R}$. By receiving these responses from cutaneous thermoreceptors, the brain can analyze the body's thermal conditions and order the necessary actions to achieve thermal satisfaction.

The process flowchart of the new individual model is outlined in Fig. 8. In this model, a number of available and measurable personal factors are given as input data. Next, the main equations are rewritten according to individual characteristics and resolved at any time step. It is worth noting that, in the present study, the governing equations (main and auxiliary) are solved numerically in a one-dimensional computational field. For this purpose, the implicit finite differences method was used. Ultimately, the time-dependent temperature distribution in tissue is determined.

Fig. 7 Conceptual diagram of new individualized model and the geometry of tissue layers with warm and cold receptors.

Fig. 8 Flow chart for the present individual thermoregulatory bio-heat (ITB) model

3.7. Validation statistics

For the evaluation of the model changes in terms of model improvements against experimental data, several parameters were calculated in the comparison of the data with different studies that is to follow:

A: Maximum Errors

B: Mean absolute error (MAE):

$$(\sum_1^n |actual\ data - simulated\ data|)/n$$

C: Mean absolute percentage error (MAPE):

$$\frac{100}{n} \times \left(\sum_1^n \frac{|actual\ data - simulated\ data|}{|actual\ data|} \right)$$

D: Change in error:

$$((MAE_{old\ model} - MAE_{new\ model})/MAE_{old\ model}) \times 100$$

In addition, for those datasets where sufficient individual conditions were available, a statistical comparison was made of the improvement in the mean absolute error for that dataset, by using pairwise comparison t-tests. A p-value of 0.05 was chosen to define significance of the improvements. Some paired samples t-tests were conducted to compare mean absolute error for datasets that simulated by the present model and a standard model.

4. Results and Discussion

In this section, the new developed model is validated against experimental data and simulated results from other models. It should be noted that mean skin temperature and core temperature are strongly related to human body thermoregulation and they are significant indicators of the thermal sensation index [54]. Therefore, they are used to validate the accuracy of the new model.

The new individual model was evaluated under various steady-state and transient environmental conditions. The performance of the model was investigated for exposure to both cold and hot stress.

In the first case, the subjects were exposed to various steady-state warm conditions as in the study of Li et al. [47]. The individual characteristics and thermal conditions (categorized in three series of A, B, and C) of the participants are listed in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. Participants were exposed to the mentioned thermal conditions for 120 min to reach steady-state conditions. During the experiments of Li et al. [47], the subjects had normal sedentary office activities (≈ 1.2 met) and their clothing insulation was estimated to be about 0.26 clo (short-sleeved shirts, shorts, and lightweight shoes). At the end of the experiment time for each mentioned environmental condition, the mean skin temperature simulated by the present individualized model was compared with the results of the STB model and the empirical results [47]. These comparisons are illustrated in Figs. 9, 10, and 11 for conditions A, B, and C, respectively.

Table 2. Individual characteristics of participants in the experiment [47].

Subject	Am	Af	Bm	Bf	Cm	Cf
Gender	Male (n=10)	Female (n=10)	Male (n=10)	Female (n=10)	Male (n=10)	Female (n=10)
Age (year)	24 $\pm$ 1	24 $\pm$ 1	23 $\pm$ 1	24 $\pm$ 1	23 $\pm$ 1	24 $\pm$ 1
Height (cm)	173 $\pm$ 5	160 $\pm$ 7	175 $\pm$ 5	159 $\pm$ 4	172 $\pm$ 6	160 $\pm$ 3
Weight (kg)	61 $\pm$ 4	50 $\pm$ 6	67 $\pm$ 10	46 $\pm$ 4	63 $\pm$ 9	48 $\pm$ 5

Table 3 Experiment schedule and conditions [47].

Series	A			B			C		
Conditions	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Air temperature (°C)	26.9	28.9	31.0	25.6	28.0	29.9	28.0	28.1	32.0
Relative humidity (%)	54	55	51	41	40	60	90	90	80
Air velocity (m/s)	0.11	0.11	0.14	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.6	0.79	0.79
Clothing insulation (clo)	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26
Activity level (met)	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2

As shown in Figs. 9-11, the results of the present model are in good agreement with the experimental data. Also, in Table 4 mean absolute errors, margin of errors and mean absolute percentage errors between measurement data and simulated results from the present model and STB model are calculated. For example, in Table 4, by using the ITB model instead of the STB model, the mean absolute error was reduced from 0.51 °C to 0.12 °C, 0.48 °C to 0.13 °C, and 0.3 °C to 0.1 °C for cases Am-con1, Bf-con2, and Cf-con1, respectively. In other words, all mean absolute percentage errors of the present model are lower than STB model. This was confirmed in the result of the statistical comparison of the two model's results over 18 conditions, which indicated the present model to have significantly lower errors ($t(17) = 6.94, p < 0.001$). According statistical validation, all obtained results from the present model in eighteen compared cases, lie within the confidence interval of the population means.

Moreover, the new ITB model can predict the mean skin temperature of both males and females more accurately than the STB model. As can be seen, the results obtained from the non-individualized model (STB model) are the same for both male and female subjects (Am-Af, Bm-Bf, and Cm-Cf) under various conditions, while the simulation results of the present model are closer to the measured data of Li et al. [47].

It should be noted in the Li et al. [47] study beside experimental researches, they have worked on a thermoregulatory model that focused on average population of Chinese people under warm conditions and used energy equation in a one-dimensional cylindrical coordinate. The ITB model is more accurate and can estimate the human body thermoregulation in wider range of environment

conditions in relation to the Li et al. [47] model. In addition, the ITB model be able to predict the thermal response of the cutaneous receptors individually.

Fig. 9 Comparison of the measured mean skin temperatures [47] with the results of STB model and the present model for Am and Af cases (the error bars show the 95% confidence interval for the population means).

Fig.10 Comparison of the measured mean skin temperatures [47] with the results of STB model and the present model for Bm and Bf cases (the error bars show the 95% confidence interval for the population means).

Fig.11 Comparison of the measured mean skin temperatures [47] with the results of STB model and the present model for Cm and Cf cases (the error bars show the 95% confidence interval for the population means).

Table 4 Mean absolute errors (MAE), margin of errors (ME) and mean absolute percentage errors (MAPE) between measurement data and simulated results from the present model (ITB model) and STB model for mean skin temperature ($T_{sk,mean}$). (✓ : lie within the confidence interval, ✗ : Don't lie within the confidence interval)

Subject	Condition	Mean Absolute Error MAE (°C)		Margin of Error (°C) 95% confidence interval		Mean Absolute Percentage Error MAPE (%)	
		STB Model	Present Model	ME	Models	STB Model	Present Model
Am	1	0.51	0.12	0.35	STB✗ ITB✓	1.51	0.35
	2	0.27	0.12	0.26	STB✗ ITB✓	0.78	0.35
	3	0.26	0.14	0.3	STB✓ ITB✓	0.74	0.40
Af	1	0.19	0.11	0.19	STB✓ ITB✓	0.56	0.32
	2	0.5	0.15	0.32	STB✗ ITB✓	1.47	0.44
	3	0.25	0.1	0.21	STB✗ ITB✓	0.71	0.28
Bm	1	0.3	0.1	0.42	STB✓ ITB✓	0.90	0.30
	2	0.23	0.06	0.26	STB✓ ITB✓	0.67	0.17
	3	0.125	0.15	0.25	STB✓ ITB✓	0.36	0.43
Bf	1	0.52	0.15	0.37	STB✗ ITB✓	1.55	0.44
	2	0.48	0.13	0.2	STB✗ ITB✓	1.40	0.38
	3	0.375	0.1	0.24	STB✗ ITB✓	1.08	0.28

Cm	1	0.24	0.02	0.19	STB✗	ITB✓	0.70	0.05
	2	0.09	0.04	0.15	STB✓	ITB✓	0.26	0.11
	3	0.25	0.1	0.24	STB✗	ITB✓	0.71	0.28
Cf	1	0.3	0.1	0.26	STB✗	ITB✓	0.87	0.29
	2	0.34	0.11	0.26	STB✗	ITB✓	1.02	0.33
	3	0.18	0.12	0.17	STB✗	ITB✓	0.51	0.34

Another case used to examine the performance of the present model is the study of Li et al. [47], the empirical conditions of which considered ten male and ten female healthy subjects with different body compositions under a transient warm step change. Table 5 presents the individual characteristics of the experiment participants. The experiment schedule and environmental conditions are illustrated in Fig. 12. In the mentioned test case, participants first experienced the step change from a neutral to a typically warm condition; they stayed in this situation for 1800 s. Finally, they returned to the neutral environment through another step-change thermal process.

In Fig. 13, the mean skin temperature predicted by the new individual model for different subjects (S1 and S2) is compared with the measured data [47] and simulated results obtained using Gagge's model (non-individual model) during the experiment. It can be seen that the results of the new model are in good agreement with the empirical results. In Table 6, mean absolute errors and maximum errors between measured data and simulated results from the present model and Gagge's model as a standard model are shown. As illustrated in Fig. 13, the Gagge's model as a population-based thermal comfort model cannot estimate the mean skin temperature for S1 and S2 (males and females with specified personal parameters) individually. Also, the maximum error for S1 and S2 in the prediction of mean skin temperature is decreased from 0.54 °C to 0.39 °C and from 0.89 °C to 0.48 °C, respectively (Table 6). Moreover, the mean absolute error for the results of the new individual model is decreased from 0.52 °C to 0.39 °C (S2). As illustrated in Table 6, in this case we can improve our predictions by simulating with the present model instead of Gagge model 19% and 25% for the mean of S1 group and S2 group respectively.

Table 5 Individual characteristics of volunteers who participated in Li et al.'s [47] experiment.

Subject Groups	S1	S2
Gender	Male (n=10)	Female (n=10)
Age (year)	24±1	24±1
Height (cm)	170±7	159±6
Weight (kg)	58±5	51±8
Activity level (met)	1.0	1.0
Clothing insulation (clo)	0.4	0.4

1

Fig. 12 Schedule and conditions of Li et al. [47] experiment.

2

3

Fig.13 Comparison of the measured mean skin temperatures [47] with the results of Gagge model and the present ITB model for subjects S1 and S2.

Table 6 Mean absolute errors (MAE) and maximum errors between measurement data and simulated results from the present model and Gagge's model for mean skin temperature ($T_{sk,mean}$).

Subject Groups	Mean Absolute Error (MAE) (°C)		Maximum Error (°C)		Change in Error (%)
	Gagge Model	Present Model	Gagge Model	Present Model	$\frac{(MAE_{Gagge} - MAE_{Present})}{MAE_{Gagge}} \times 100$
S1	0.42	0.34	0.54	0.39	19
S2	0.52	0.39	0.89	0.48	25

To evaluate the performance of the newly developed ITB model at different activity levels, the core temperatures predicted by the new individual model were compared with the results of Yokota

et al. [55] in which the subjects were wearing a battle dress uniform (BDU) and walking at 1.34 m/s (2.6 met) during a schedule as shown in Fig. 14. In addition, the results obtained from the ITB model (Fig. 15) were compared with the results of Yokota et al. [55] regarding four different body forms (A: tall-fat, B: tall-lean, C: short-lean, D: short-fat). It can be seen that the results of the ITB model are in good agreement with the mentioned results. The results of the ITB model accurately followed the trend of core temperature graphs for all subjects (A, B, C, D). In Table 7, the mean absolute errors and maximum errors of the present model are compared with the results that simulated by Gagge model. In addition, the mean absolute errors are determined as 0.16, 0.11, 0.18, and 0.15 for A, B, C and D, while these mean absolute errors are reduced in compare with Gagge model, 27%, 21%, 14% and 31% respectively. A pair samples *t*-test was conducted to determine how effective the ITB model was at reducing mean absolute errors. There was a significant difference in mean absolute errors for Gagge model ($M=0.20$, $SD=0.04$) and ITB model ($M=0.15$, $SD=0.02$) simulations; $t(3)=4.08$, $p = 0.02$. Specifically, our results suggest that the present model can predict the core body temperature more accurate.

Fig. 14 Schedule and conditions of Yokota et al. [55] study.

1

Fig. 15 Comparison of the core temperature [55] results with simulated by the present model among four different body forms (A: tall-fat, B: tall-lean, C: short-lean, D: short-fat).

2

3

4

Table 7 Mean absolute errors (MAE) and maximum errors between measurement data and simulated results from the present model and Gagge's model for core temperature (T_{cr}).

6

Subject Groups	Mean Absolute Error (MAE) (°C)		Maximum Error (°C)		Change in Error (%)
	Gagge Model	Present Model	Gagge Model	Present Model	$\frac{(MAE_{Gagge} - MAE_{Present})}{MAE_{Gagge}} \times 100$
A	0.22	0.16	0.20	0.18	27
B	0.14	0.11	0.19	0.16	21
C	0.21	0.18	0.24	0.21	14
D	0.23	0.15	0.20	0.17	34

7

As another test case, the results of the new ITB model, Gagge's 2-node model, the STB model, and the measured data of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] were compared. In Table 8, the personal factors of participants in the experiment of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] are presented. The experiment schedule of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] is shown in Fig. 16. In the mentioned experiment, the subjects were exposed to a mildly cold environment (15 °C) for 3 hours. Fig. 17 compares the mean skin temperature obtained from the ITB model with the results of the STB model [38], Gagge's model [6] and the empirical data of Lichtenbelt et al. [56]. It should be mentioned that the participants in the study of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] had two obvious differences with the subjects considered in standard population-based models: they had lower body weights, and they were all female. Previous empirical studies have reported that the skin temperature of obese subjects shows a slower reaction to cold exposure conditions than lean ones [57-59]. Moreover, many studies have revealed that the skin temperature of females is usually lower than that of males, and females are more sensitive to warm and cold thermal conditions [60, 61]. These results are in conformity with previously published data. On the other hand, in Table 9 mean absolute errors and mean absolute percentage error between measurement data and simulated results from the present model, STB model and Gagge's model have been compared. As can be seen, in this case, mean absolute errors can be reduced 38% and 31% which simulation has been done by ITB model instead of Gagge model and STB model respectively. Therefore, predictions from ITB model are superior to Gagge model and STB model in this case.

Table 8 Individual characteristics of volunteers that participated in the experiment of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] for 10 female and 10 male.

Female (n=10) and Male (n=10)	Mean $\pm$ SD	Min	Max
Age (years)	30	19	36
Weight (kg)	71.1 $\pm$ 14.4	51.2	107.2
Height (m)	1.74 $\pm$ 0.09	1.55	1.85
Body fat (%)	22.5 $\pm$ 8.4	8.2	36

Fig. 16 Schedule and conditions of Lichtenbelt et al. [56] experiment.

Fig. 17 Comparison of the measured and simulated mean skin temperatures [56] using Gagge's model, STB model and the present model.

Table 9 Mean absolute errors (MAE) and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) between measurement data and simulated results from the present model, STB model and Gagge's model for mean skin temperature ($T_{sk,mean}$).

Mean Absolute Error (MAE) (°C)			Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) (%)			Change in Error (%)	
Gagge Model	STB Model	Present Model	Gagge Model	STB Model	Present Model	ITB model instead Gagge model	ITB model instead STB model
0.40	0.36	0.24	1.42	1.26	0.84	38	31

To observe the capability of the ITB model to predict the body thermoregulatory responses for different genders, the empirical results of Fournet et al. [62] were applied. In the mentioned experiment, 8 males and 8 females took part in a laboratory-simulated hike for 110 minutes under the conditions shown in Fig. 18. The experiment schedule was divided into four main stages: standing rest (Preparation), ascent (Climb), seated rest (Summit), and descent (Downhill walking). The participants' clothing insulation was estimated to be ≈ 0.26 clo (T-shirts, fleece tops, and trousers) and they carried a backpack (10% body mass) during a simulated hike in a 15 °C environment.

In Table 10, the results of the ITB model and Gagge model for mean skin temperature are compared with the empirical data from the study of Fournet et al. [62]. As can be seen, the ITB model can predict mean skin temperature for both males and females by considering individual parameters with very good accuracy. In all four main stages, the results revealed that females have a lower mean skin temperature than males under cold environmental conditions. The maximum and minimum of mean absolute errors for the ITB model simulated mean skin temperature and the experimental results were 0.24 °C (female - climb stage) and 0.06 °C (male – preparation stage), respectively. A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare mean absolute error that obtained from Gagge model and ITB model for the conditions of this dataset. Results indicated that mean absolute errors of ITB model ($M = 0.14$, $SD = 0.06$) were significantly lower than the mean absolute errors for the Gagge model ($M = 0.49$, $SD = 0.37$) as a standard model ($t(7) = 2.91$, $p <$

0.05), indicating that predictions from the ITB model are more accurate in comparison with Gagge model in these datasets.

Fig. 18 Experiment schedule and conditions in the study of Fournet et al. [62].

Table 10 Comparison of the measured [62] and simulated mean skin temperatures (male=8, female=8) and mean absolute errors.

Phase	Gender	Mean skin Temperature (°C)			Mean Absolute Error (°C)	
		Experiment	Gagge	Present	Gagge	Present
			Model	Model	Model	Model
Preparation (1.2 met)	Male	28.58	28.73	28.64	0.15	0.06
	Female	28.18	28.73	28.33	0.55	0.15
Climb (3.5 met)	Male	28.88	29.13	29.01	0.25	0.13
	Female	27.96	29.13	28.20	1.17	0.24
Summit	Male	28.71	28.87	28.82	0.16	0.11

(1.0 met)	Female	27.94	28.87	28.12	0.93	0.18
Down	Male	29.55	29.86	29.78	0.31	0.23
(3.5 met)	Female	29.45	29.86	29.52	0.41	0.07

To validate the results obtained from the new individualized model for both the elderly and young adults, the differences in mean skin temperature between the new model and the measured data were compared in 7 different cases [63-65]. The subjects' characteristics and the environmental conditions for all 7 experimental cases are presented in Table 11. Table 12 shows the absolute mean temperature differences between measured data and the standard Gagge's model, and the individualized model results for mean skin temperature are also shown. The results indicate that the new ITB model can predict mean skin temperature with a good accuracy. Moreover, previous studies have reported that elderly people have a generally higher core temperature and lower mean skin temperature under warm exposure. Conversely, elderly people have a lower core temperature and higher mean skin temperature when exposed to cold ambient temperatures in comparison with young adults [30, 66]. These mentioned points were also confirmed by the results obtained with the present model. It should be noted that the elderly cannot reduce heat loss in low temperatures as rapidly as young adults can; nor can they increase heat loss in high temperatures with the thermoregulatory system as rapidly as young people (active system) [67]. As seen in Table 12, the standard Gagge's model predicts the same value of mean skin temperature for both the elderly and young adults. Moreover, the new ITB model can accurately predict mean skin temperature for the elderly and young adults, and there is good agreement with published experimental results. Obviously, the symptom of this good agreement is clarified in Table 12 where the mean skin temperature that estimated by the ITB model (as individualized model) is closer to measured data in comparison with the results of Gagge's model (as non-individual model). This improvement is mentioned in Table 12 as change in error (between 14% to 42% for different cases). T-test confirmed that for these datasets the ITB model's mean absolute errors is reduced compared to the Gagge model ($t(11)=5.67, p < 0.001$).

Table 11 Summary of subjects' individual characteristics and environmental conditions in different experimental cases.

Reference	Case A,B&C (Tsuzuki and Ohfuku, 2002)[64]	Case D & E (Inoue et al., 1992) [63]	Case F &G (Ting Ma et al., 2017) [65]
Sample size (Elderly /Young Adult)	2009 (109/100)	19 (10/9)	5 (5/0)
Activity Level (met)	1.3	1.0	1.0
Clothing (clo)	0.63	0.06	1.2
Relative humidity (%)	60	45	30
Air velocity (m/s)	≤0.2	0.1	0.05
Air temperature (°C)	A=23, B=27 & C=31	D=12 & E=17	F=19 & G=21

Table 12 Mean absolute temperature differences between the results of the new individual model and measured data for mean skin temperature($T_{sk,mean}$).

Case	Age Range	Mean absolute temperature difference (°C)		Change in Error (%)
		Standard Model	Individualized model	$\frac{(MAE_{Gagge} - MAE_{Present})}{MAE_{Gagge}}$
		(Gagge Model)	(Present Model)	× 100
A	Elderly	0.38	0.22	42
	Young Adult	0.24	0.15	37
B	Elderly	0.14	0.11	21
	Young Adult	0.12	0.10	16
C	Elderly	0.46	0.28	39

	Young Adult	0.32	0.21	34
D	Elderly	0.56	0.33	41
	Young Adult	0.21	0.18	14
E	Elderly	0.48	0.30	37
	Young Adult	0.18	0.11	38
F	Elderly	0.37	0.26	29
G	Elderly	0.34	0.23	32

5. Conclusion

In this study, a new individualized thermoregulatory bio-heat model was developed based on the STB model to predict the time-dependent temperature distribution in living tissue layers and to evaluate thermal responses of the human body to environmental conditions. The STB model was established by utilizing Pennes' equation and Gagge's standard 2-node model, and it was capable of accurately estimating the temperature and its time derivative at the depth of the cutaneous thermoreceptors. It should be noted that individual parameters, such as anthropometric characteristics, age, gender, and basal metabolic rate, play significant roles in human body thermoregulation. The present individual model tried to utilize personal factors in the model structure. Subsequently, it was validated against the published empirical data, with which a good agreement was achieved. In conclusion, the results illustrate that the present model can estimate the thermal responses of cutaneous thermoreceptors under various steady/transient conditions individually and with very good accuracy. The present model is able to make a reasonably accurate prediction of individuals' thermoregulatory responses. Also, the results of this model can be utilized to estimate each individuals' thermal sensation level. Future research should focus more on introducing a new predictive index for evaluating individual thermal sensation and thermal response of the body (i.e., similar to what was done by Zolfaghari and Maerefat [39]). The mentioned index can be helpful for engineers to design personalize ventilation systems and even design of building for various subjects, such as children, men, women, the elderly, patients, etc. Moreover, the model can be used for better understanding the comfort needs of occupants. It also can be utilized to design and control optimal conditioning besides improving satisfaction for spaces like vehicle, aircraft, and personal comfort system.

Nomenclature

A_D	DuBios surface area of nude body, (m^2)
ASF	Average skinfold value, (mm)
BF	Body fat percent, (%)
$C_{p,b}$	Specific heat of body, ($Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}$)
$C_{p,bl}$	Specific heat of blood, ($Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}$)
CSIG	Cold signal, (n.d.)
D	Density of body, (kgm^{-3})
f_{cl}	Clothing area factor, (n.d.)
f_r	Radiative reduction factor, (n.d.)
h_c	Convective heat transfer coefficient, ($Wm^{-2}^{\circ}C^{-1}$)
h_r	Radiative heat transfer coefficient, ($Wm^{-2}^{\circ}C^{-1}$)
l	Body height, (m)
m	Body mass, (kg)
M	Metabolic rate, (Wm^{-2})
M_{act}	Metabolic rate due to activity, (Wm^{-2})
M_{shiv}	Shivering metabolic rate, (Wm^{-2})
$\dot{m}_{bl}$	Rate of blood flow, ($kgs^{-1}m^{-2}$)
$\dot{m}_{rsw}$	Rate of the sweat production per unit of skin area, ($kgs^{-1}m^{-2}$)
Q	Heat flow rate, (Wm^{-2})
Q_{Cr-sk}	Heat flow rate from core to skin, (Wm^{-2})
R_{cl}	The total thermal resistance of clothing system, ($m^2^{\circ}C W^{-1}$)
S	Heat storage rate, (Wm^{-2})
t	Time, (s)
T	Temperature, ($^{\circ}C$)
$\bar{T}_r$	Mean radiant temperature, ($^{\circ}C$)
TSENS	Thermal sensation, (n.d.)
W	External work, (Wm^{-2})
WSIG	Warm signal, (n.d.)

Greek symbols

α	Fraction of body mass concentrated in skin compartment, (n.d.)
η	Efficiency, (n.d.)
Λ	Summation of surface area fraction of bare segments of body, (n.d.)
μ	Summation of mass fraction of bare segments of body, (n.d.)

Subscripts

a	Air
act	Body activity
b	Body
bl	Blood
cl	Clothed
conv	Convective
cr	Core
cR	Cold receptors

evap	Evaporative
F	Female
M	Male
n	Neutral
ov	Overall
rad	Radiation
res	Respiration
sk	Skin
wR	Warm receptor

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