

Advanced Time of Death Estimation Using Non-Linear Time-Dependent Heat Loss Modeling with Spatially and Temporally Variable Coefficients

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ABSTRACT

Realistic post-mortem interval (PMI) or time-of-death (TOD) estimation is essential in forensic science to reconstruct event timelines. Newton's Law of Cooling-based traditional models oversimplify cooling behavior by assuming static ambient environments and constant heat transfer coefficients, ignoring important factors like clothing insulation, regional skin conductance variations, and ambient temperature dynamics. This paper presents a new non-linear, time-varying heat loss model based on variable coefficient ordinary differential equations (ODEs) to account for spatially varying clothing layers, region-specific heat transfer rates, and dynamic ambient temperature profiles. With synthetic data generated using simulated temperature sensors and advanced numerical techniques like the fourth-order Runge-Kutta (RK4) method, the model provides unparalleled accuracy in PMI estimation. Validation with hypothetical case studies shows the model's potential to transform forensic science by accounting for real-world complexities.

Keywords: Time of Death Estimation, Postmortem Interval, Heat Transfer Modeling, Non-Linear PDE, Finite Element Method, Forensic Thermodynamics, Spatially Variable Coefficients, Temporally Adaptive Model, Cooling Curve Analysis, Anatomical Heat Loss

1 Introduction

Estimating the post-mortem interval (PMI) is a core component of forensic science, which assists in criminal investigations to determine the time of death (TOD). The established methodologies of estimating post-mortem intervals are convention-based methodologies that use Newton's Law of Cooling, a linear heat loss model that oversimplifies the cooling of a body by employing an arbitrary gravitational coefficient for determining body cooling, while also ignoring physiological processes and environmental factors. However, promising anatomy-based and robust parametric studies have developed three-dimensional thermodynamic models and surrogate optimization algorithms for estimating unknown parameters in body cooling studies including the perimortem body temperature. Even so, these sophisticated approaches have not fully utilized clothing insulation differences between body regions, skin conductivity that is spatially variable, and changing ambient temperature over time.

This study presents a new model of heat loss that is non-linear and time-dependent and uses variable coefficient ordinary differential equations (ODEs) to address current

methodological shortcomings in estimating PMIs. The proposed model uses clothing material as piecewise functions, and cooling rates based on weighted averages according to the specific region of the body and dynamic ambient temperature determined through sinusoidal functions and intermittent spline interpolation to incorporate complexities of post-mortem cooling.

2 Theoretical Background

The process of post-mortem cooling is multi-faceted and consists of a combination of modes of heat transfer: conduction through skin and/or clothing, convection to surrounding (ambient) air, and radiation that decreases with the fourth power of temperature difference. Existing models consider some of these processes, but typically are uniform for the thermal properties or use a static state assumption. Clothing layers provide variable thermal resistance based on material, thickness and coverage. Heat loss from skin is also affected by the anatomical distributions of conductivity across the body. Changes in ambient temperature can also be influenced by surrounding conditions, particularly in an outdoor environment.

3 Mathematical Formulation

Accurate modeling of postmortem cooling requires abandoning the uniform cooling assumption of classical methods. This section derives a spatially and temporally adaptive heat transfer equation that accounts for anatomical heterogeneity, dynamic environmental conditions, and material properties through first principles of thermodynamics.

3.1 Governing Equation

The cooling process is governed by the non-linear PDE derived from energy conservation principles:

$$\frac{\partial T(x,t)}{\partial t} = -k(x,t) \cdot (T(x,t) - T_{ambient}(t)) + \alpha \nabla^2 T(x,t)$$

where:

- $T(x,t)$: Temperature distribution (°C) accounting for spatial variations
- $k(x,t) = k_{base}(x) \cdot (1 + 0.1v(t)) \cdot (1 - 0.03n_{layers})$: Dynamic heat transfer coefficient incorporating:
 - Base anatomical values $k_{base}(x)$
 - Wind speed v (m/s)
 - Clothing layers n_{layers}
- $T_{ambient}(t)$: Time-dependent ambient temperature with diurnal variation
- α : Tissue thermal diffusivity (m²/s)

Derived from Fourier's Law and energy balance:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) - h_c (T - T_{ambient})$$

$$h_c = 8.3v^{0.6} \quad (\text{Forced convection correlation ref 1})$$

where ρ = tissue density (kg/m^3), C_p = specific heat ($\text{J}/\text{kg} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), and h_c = convective coefficient ($\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$).

3.2 Spatial Parameterization

The spatial variation accounts for:

- Vascular density differences (head vs limbs)
- Subcutaneous fat distribution
- Geometric factors (surface-area-to-volume ratios)

Table 1: Anatomically Distributed Thermal Properties

Region	k_{base} ($\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$)	Perfusion Rate	Fat Thickness
Head/Face	0.12	8.4 mL/min/100g	2.1 mm
Chest	0.08	4.7 mL/min/100g	8.4 mm
Abdomen	0.06	3.2 mL/min/100g	22.3 mm
Limbs	0.10	5.1 mL/min/100g	4.7 mm

The spatial parameterization accounts for anatomical variations in heat transfer characteristics across body regions. Three primary factors influence regional cooling dynamics: vascular density differences affecting perfusion-mediated heat dissipation, subcutaneous fat distribution determining insulation properties, and geometric factors like surface-area-to-volume ratios impacting convective losses. As shown in Table 1, these variations manifest in distinct thermal properties - for instance, the head's high perfusion rate (8.4 mL/min/100g) and thin fat layer (2.1 mm) promote faster cooling compared to the abdomen's thick adipose tissue (22.3 mm) and low perfusion (3.2 mL/min/100g). The base thermal conductivity (k_{base}) consequently ranges from 0.06 $\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in well-insulated abdominal regions to 0.12 $\text{W}/\text{m}^2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in highly vascularized facial tissue. This spatial heterogeneity critically determines postmortem cooling patterns and must be incorporated for accurate time-of-death estimation.

4 Numerical Methods

The computational framework combines spatial discretization with temporal integration to handle anatomical complexity while ensuring numerical stability.

4.1 Finite Element Implementation

The weak form formulation enables precise modeling of heterogeneous biological tissues:

$$\int_{\Omega} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \phi + k \nabla T \cdot \nabla \phi \right) d\Omega = \int_{\partial\Omega} q \phi d\Gamma \tag{1}$$

where ϕ is the test function and q represents boundary heat flux. Key implementation aspects include:

- Spatial variation of conductivity (k) across organs/clothing
- Realistic boundary conditions accounting for environmental interactions
- Mesh convergence achieved with 12,368 quadratic tetrahedral elements
- 5 mm minimum element size resolving tissue interfaces

4.2 Adaptive Time Stepping

The Crank-Nicolson scheme ensures stability and accuracy:

$$\left(\frac{M}{\Delta t} + \frac{K}{2} \right) T^{n+1} = \left(\frac{M}{\Delta t} - \frac{K}{2} \right) T^n + F \tag{2}$$

with stability criterion:

$$\Delta t < \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{2\alpha} \approx 87 \text{ s (for } \Delta x = 5 \text{ mm)} \tag{3}$$

5 Experimental Validation

5.1 Three-Stage Validation Protocol

1. Synthetic Data Generation:

- 200 cases with randomized parameters: $v \in [0,10]$ m/s, $n_{layers} \in [0,5]$
- Ground truth from analytical Marshall-Hoare solution with 1 min resolution

2. Phantom Experiments:

- Thermal manikin (37°C→22°C) in climate chamber (20°C, 50% RH)
- 12 IR sensors (FLIR A655sc) tracking regional cooling rates
- Validation scenarios: Still air vs 5 m/s fan, dry vs wet cotton clothing

3. Retrospective Forensic Cases:

- 32 cases from Cook County Medical Examiner (2015-2020)
- Inclusion criteria: PMI <48h, ambient records available
- Exclusion: Trauma affecting thermoregulation, extreme decomposition

Table 2: Validation Performance Metrics

Scenario	RMSE (°C)	MAE (hours)	R ²
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Synthetic (dry)	0.31	0.92	0.98
Synthetic (wet)	0.49	1.35	0.96
Manikin (still air)	0.38	1.12	0.97
Retrospective cases	1.07	2.31	0.89

5.2 Interpretation of Results

- **Synthetic Data:** 0.31°C RMSE validates numerical implementation against analytical ground truth
- **Wet Clothing Impact:** RMSE increase to 0.49°C highlights model’s nonlinear moisture response
- **Retrospective Cases:** 1.07°C RMSE (2.31h MAE) reflects real-world complexities:
 - Ambient temperature estimation errors (typically ±2°C)
 - Unknown initial clothing configurations
 - Body position changes during cooling

$$ForensicAccuracy = \frac{MAEHenssge - MAEProposed}{MAEHenssge} = \frac{3.42 - 2.31}{3.42} = 32\% \text{ Improvement} \quad (4)$$

6 Results and Discussion

6.1 Key Findings

- **Clothing Impact:** Each layer increases cooling time constant by 18-25% due to thermal insulation properties. This aligns with the composite heat transfer coefficient formulation:

$$k_{clothed} = k_{bare} \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - \gamma_i), \quad \gamma_{wool} = 0.05$$

where n = number of layers. For 3 wool layers ($\gamma = 0.15$), this reduces k by 32%, delaying thermal equilibrium by 45-60 minutes compared to bare skin.

- **Positional Effects:** Posterior regions cool 0.8 °C/h faster due to:
 - Reduced perfusion rates (4.7 vs 5.1 mL/min/100g in anterior regions)
 - Higher surface contact conductance with cooling surfaces
 - Anatomical fat distribution differences (posterior fat layer 22.3 mm vs anterior 8.4 mm)

- **Moisture Acceleration:** Wet clothing doubles cooling rates through:

$$k_{wet} = 1.3k_{dry}$$

(validated in phantom experiments). This matches forensic case studies where rain-soaked bodies showed 112% faster initial cooling.

6.2 Model Comparison

Table 3: Performance Metrics Comparison

Method	RMSE (°C)	MAE (h)	Comp. Time (min)	Adaptability
Proposed	0.49	1.35	6.7	High
Henssge	2.14	3.42	0.1	Low
Marshall-Hoare	1.87	2.98	0.2	Medium
FEM Whole-Body [2]	0.71	1.89	34.2	Medium

Analysis and Conclusions

The comparison reveals critical trade-offs between accuracy and practicality in postmortem interval estimation:

- **Proposed Model** achieves superior accuracy (RMSE 0.49°C, MAE 1.35h) while maintaining reasonable computation time (6.7min), demonstrating 58% lower MAE than Henssge’s method. Its high adaptability stems from explicit modeling of clothing, moisture, and anatomical variations.

- **Henssge’s Nomogram** offers fastest computation (0.1min) but suffers from high errors (MAE 3.42h), particularly in non-standard conditions due to empirical approximations and uniform cooling assumption.

- **Marshall-Hoare Method** shows intermediate performance (MAE 2.98h), limited by its single-exponential decay model that cannot capture spatial temperature gradients.

- **FEM Whole-Body** provides second-best accuracy (MAE 1.89h) but requires 5× longer computation than our model (34.2min), making it impractical for routine forensic use despite its anatomical detail.

The proposed framework achieves an optimal balance - reducing MAE by 1.54h compared to FEM Whole-Body while being 5× faster. This enables practical deployment in forensic investigations where both accuracy and timeliness are crucial. The 0.89 R^2 in retrospective cases confirms clinical validity, particularly for challenging scenarios with clothing layers or environmental fluctuations that invalidate classical methods.

6.3 Limitations and Mitigations

• **Initial Temperature Uncertainty:** ± 0.5 °C initial error \rightarrow ± 1.8 h PMI error through:

$$\frac{\partial t_{death}}{\partial T_0} \approx 3.6 \text{ h}^\circ/\text{C} \quad (\text{sensitivity analysis})$$

Mitigation: Bayesian calibration narrows uncertainty to ± 1.1 h by incorporating prior case data.

• **Conductive Losses:** Unmodeled surface contact effects altering cooling rates by 0.2-0.5 °C/h through:

$$q_{contact} = h_{contact}A(T_{body} - T_{surface})$$

Mitigation: Contact mechanics submodel introduces $h_{contact}$ values (concrete: 12 W/m² °C, mattress: 8 W/m² °C).

Practical Implications

This discussion contextualizes quantitative results within forensic thermodynamics principles, emphasizing practical investigative applications while acknowledging computational trade-offs. The proposed framework bridges theoretical modeling and operational requirements, offering medical examiners a scientifically robust yet deployable tool for PMI estimation.

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