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Experimental and Numerical Assessments of Injury Criteria for Short-Duration, High-Force Impact Loading of the Tibia

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EXPERIMENTAL AND NUMERICAL ASSESSMENTS OF INJURY
CRITERIA FOR SHORT-DURATION, HIGH-FORCE IMPACT LOADING
OF THE TIBIA

(SPINE TITLE: INJURY CRITERIA FOR SHORT-DURATION HIGH-FORCE TIBIAL IMPACTS)

(Thesis format: Integrated-Article)

by

Cheryl Elizabeth Quenneville

Graduate Program in Engineering Science
Department of Mechanical and Materials Engineering

2

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
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Doctor of Philosophy

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada
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ABSTRACT

Short-duration, high-force loading of the lower leg occurs during a variety of events, including indirect (*i.e.*, in-vehicle) contact with landmines. To date, the majority of research on impact loading of the lower extremities has been conducted by the car crash industry. From this, the current standard for designing protective measures for high-impulse scenarios has been selected - a maximum axial load of 5.4 kN measured in an Anthropomorphic Test Device (ATD). This force value, however, gives no indication of the load duration or injury severity. Furthermore, its applicability to high-impulse situations, with higher forces over shorter durations, is not known. The overall objective of this thesis was to investigate the appropriateness of this value for short-duration impulsive loading of the tibia (*i.e.*, lower leg bone) using both cadaveric specimens and test surrogates. Surrogates that were considered for injury prediction were synthetic bones, ATDs, and finite element models.

Experimental testing was accomplished through the development of a pneumatic testing apparatus capable of applying axial loads to test specimens over a large range of magnitudes and velocities. This apparatus was validated to replicate the loading caused by anti-vehicular mine blasts, and was initially used to conduct load-to-failure tests on cadaveric tibias. A new injury criterion was proposed, with a higher force limit (7.9 kN) and inclusion of kinetic energy as a fracture risk factor. Synthetic composite bones were similarly tested, but demonstrated lower impact tolerance and non-biofidelic fracture patterns compared to cadavers. Critical load values from ATDs (12.6 kN) were determined which correspond to injury levels from the cadaveric tests.

To allow computer simulations of survivability analyses, a finite element model of a representative cadaveric specimen was developed using TrueGrid® and LS-Dyna® softwares. The model was evaluated by comparing to experimental results, with refinements to best represent the experimental axial load, load duration, and strains for both non-fracture and fracture scenarios.

Through experimental testing and development of a finite element model, this thesis investigated the injury criteria for tibias exposed to short-duration, high-force axial loading. Overall, this research will contribute to improved standards for better protection of occupants from lower leg injuries.

Keywords: tibia, impulse loading, impact test apparatus, lower limb, anthropomorphic test device, injury criteria, composite bone, fracture, test surrogate, anatomical finite element model, bone material properties, strain gauge analysis, *in-vitro* biomechanical testing.

CO-AUTHORSHIP

Each study in this thesis was a collaborative effort which could not have been completed without the assistance of others. The contributions that each individual made are detailed below.

CHAPTER 1: Cheryl Quenneville – wrote manuscript; Cynthia Dunning – reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 2: Cheryl Quenneville – study design, wrote manuscript; Gillian Fraser – study design; Cynthia Dunning – study design, reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 3: Cheryl Quenneville – study design, data collection and analysis, wrote manuscript; Gillian Fraser – study design; Stewart McLachlin – data collection; Cynthia Dunning – study design, reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 4: Cheryl Quenneville – study design, data collection and analysis, wrote manuscript; Gillian Fraser – study design; Cynthia Dunning – study design, reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 5: Cheryl Quenneville – study design, data analysis, wrote manuscript; Cynthia Dunning – study design, reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 6: Cheryl Quenneville – study design, data analysis, wrote manuscript; Cynthia Dunning – study design, reviewed manuscript.

CHAPTER 7: Cheryl Quenneville – wrote manuscript; Cynthia Dunning – reviewed manuscript.

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A big thank you to the members of the Jack McBain Biomechanical Testing Laboratory, past and present, who have made this experience so enjoyable: Angela, Stew, Yara, Mark, Becky, Brendon, Vega, Sarah, and Pencilla. It's been a blast! Special thanks to Stew McLachlin for his help through the frustrations of the experimental testing with the 'quirky' apparatus.

This project was conducted in an industrial partnership with General Dynamics Land Systems – Canada, and I would like to thank them for their financial support and expertise in this field. The contributions of Ms. Gillian Fraser and Mr. Brendon Beaton to this project were especially invaluable.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, SYMBOLS, AND NOMENCLATURE

"	inch
°	degree
%	percent
2D	two-dimensional
3D	three-dimensional
α	level of significance
σ	stress
γ	shear strain
τ	shear stress
ε	strain
ρ	density
$\mu\varepsilon$	microstrain
μm	micrometer
ν	Poisson's ratio
A	age
AIS	Abbreviated Injury Scale
ANOVA	analysis of variance
AT	Achilles tension
AV	anti-vehicular
CAD	computer aided design
CLL	Complex Lower Leg
cm	centimeter
CT	Computed Tomography

DAQ	data acquisition system
DICOM	Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine
E	elastic modulus
E_{tan}	tangent (plastic) modulus
F	force
F_c	critical force
f_c	cutoff frequency
FEA	finite element analysis
FSL	Frangible Surrogate Leg
FSLM	Frangible Surrogate Leg (Modified)
G	acceleration due to gravity
G	gender (in risk equation)
GPa	gigaPascal
HU	Hounsfield units
IARV	Injury Assessment Reference Values
IGES	Initial Graphics Exchange Specification
IR	infrared
J	Joule
kg	kilogram
KE	kinetic energy
kHz	kiloHertz
kN	kiloNewton
kVp	peak kilovoltage
LLth	Lower Leg Threshold
m	meter

mA	milliampere
M	moment
M_c	critical moment
mm	millimeter
ms	millisecond
MPa	megaPascal
N	Newton
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NI	National Instruments
P	patched canal
P+, P-	power to a bridge circuit
PMMA	polymethyl-methacrylate
psi	pounds per square inch
PVC	polyvinyl chloride
R	loading rate
RTI	Revised Tibia Index
s	second
S+, S-	signal from a bridge circuit
STL	Stereolithography file format
TI	Tibia Index
TROSS	test rig for occupant safety system
txt	text file
V	volt
W	weight

CHAPTER 1 – Introduction

Overview: Large energy pulses transferred through the floor from anti-vehicular (AV) landmine blasts can lead to debilitating injuries of the lower leg. Current protective standards are based on limits from car crash studies, whose type of loading has not been validated to be applicable to these scenarios. This introductory chapter details the bony anatomy of the lower leg and its vulnerability to in-vehicle AV mine blasts, surrogates that can be used to assess lower leg damage, impact injury limits that have been developed for the lower leg, and specific studies both experimental and finite element-based pertaining to the tolerance of the lower leg. It concludes with the study rationale, objectives, hypotheses, and a thesis overview.¹

1.1 THE LOWER LEG

The lower leg describes the region of the body below the knee, consisting of the shank (the region from the knee to the ankle joint) and the foot combined.

1.1.1 BONY ANATOMY

The two bones which make up the shank are the tibia and the fibula (Figure 1.1). The tibia is the larger of the two, and is the primary weight-bearing bone. The tibia articulates proximally with the femur of the thigh at the knee, and distally with the talus of the foot

¹ Due to the interdisciplinary nature of this work, a glossary of anatomical terms is included as Appendix A.

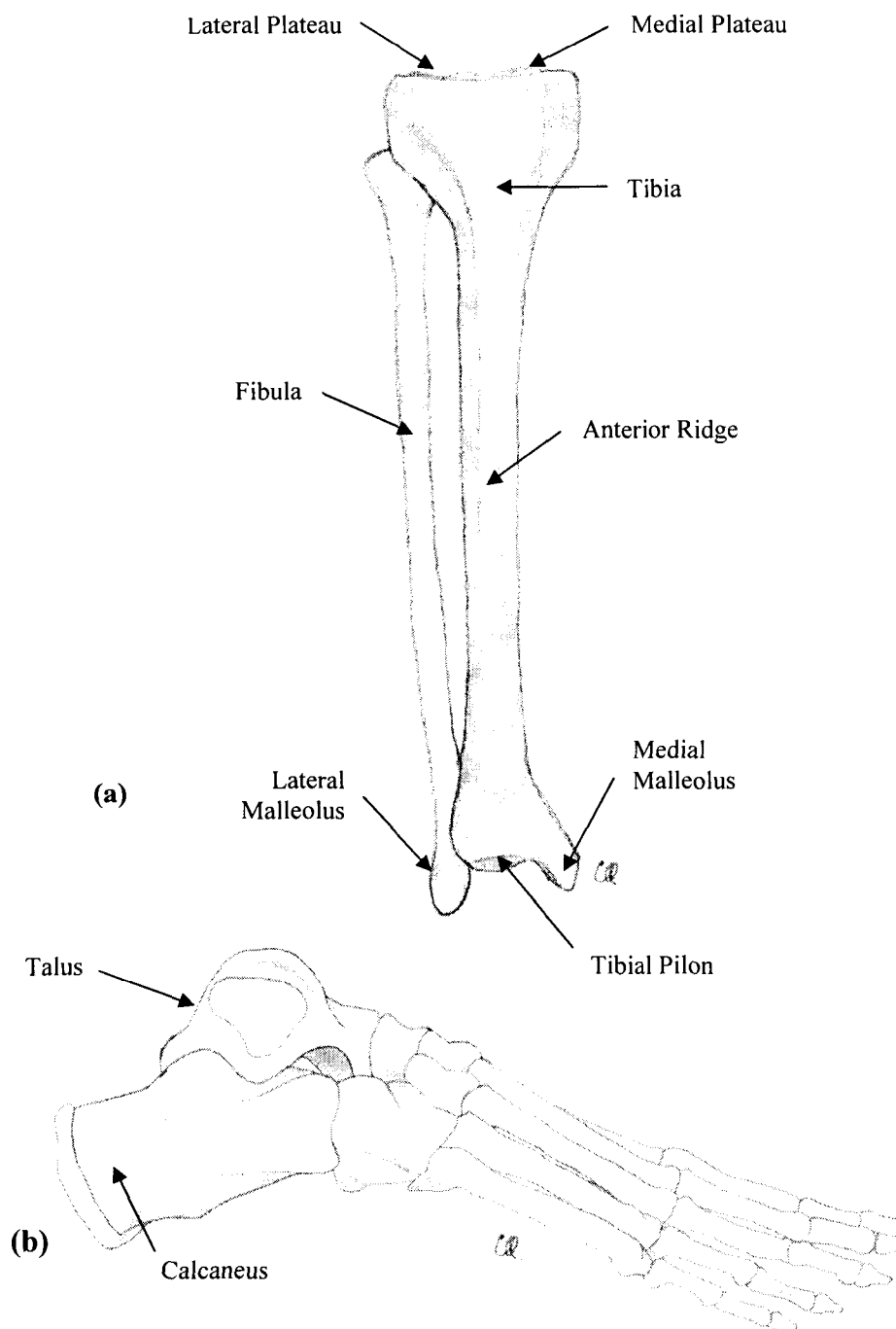


Figure 1.1: Lower Limb Anatomy

(a) Anterior view and (b) lateral view, right leg. The larger bone in the lower leg is the tibia, and the smaller bone is the fibula. The tibia articulates with the talus of the foot. Fractures of the calcaneus, talus and tibia are common in axial impacts.

at the ankle. Proximally the two articular regions are the medial and lateral plateaus. Along the anterior border of the tibia shaft is the sharp anterior ridge. At the distal end is the medial malleolus, a protrusion which serves as an attachment site for soft tissues. The distal region of the tibia, the pilon (or plafond), has a relatively flat surface where it articulates with the talus.

The fibula, located laterally within the shank, articulates with the tibia proximally and distally, forming tibiofibular joints; however, these joints have very little movement. The fibula does not contribute to the knee, but provides stabilization to the ankle joint via the talus (which, along with the distal tibia, forms the talocrural joint), and serves as the origin for several muscles. It has been estimated that the fibula carries approximately 7 - 15% of the axial load through the lower leg (Crandall *et al.*, 1996; Kuppia *et al.*, 2001b).

The talus is an irregularly shaped bone forming the lower part of the ankle joint that is largely covered with cartilage. The talus provides much of the range of motion of the ankle due to its joints (including the talocrural joint), and receives loading from the foot through contact with the calcaneus as well as from the tarsal bones of the foot.

1.1.2 BONE STRUCTURE AND MATERIAL PROPERTIES

Bone is made up of two different microstructures – cortical and cancellous (Figure 1.2). The structure that is present depends on the location and function of the bone. Cortical (or compact) bone is the denser of the two. It forms a shell over bones, and is also the main component of the diaphysis (*i.e.*, shaft) of long bones. In the cortical structure, many microscopic cylindrical structures made mostly of collagen, called osteons, are tightly packed and aligned parallel to the major axis in long bones in order to

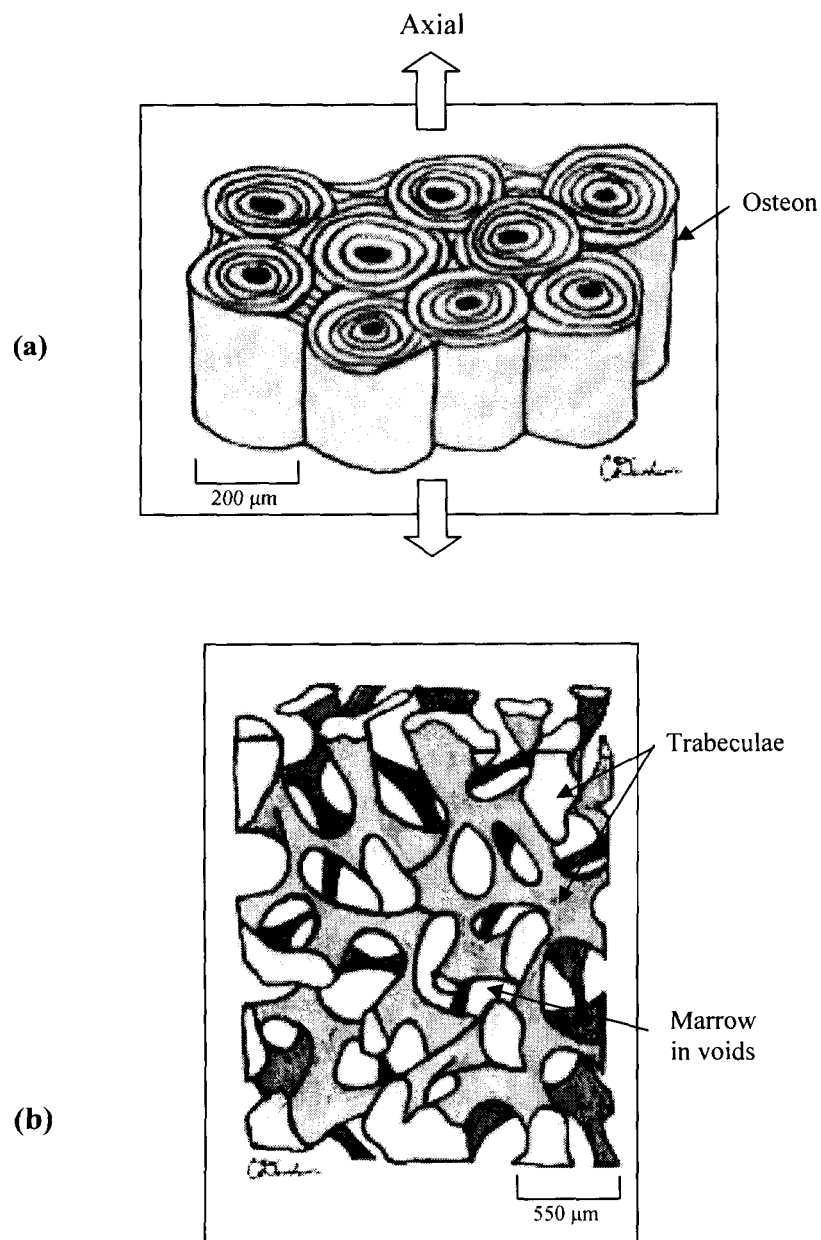


Figure 1.2: Bone Structures

(a) Cortical bone is made of many microscopic cylindrical structures called osteons, which are aligned axially to best support loads. (b) Cancellous bone is a lattice-like structure composed of struts of bone, called trabeculae, oriented in a web and filled with marrow. (Adapted from Dunham, 2005)

support axially-directed loads. Cancellous bone (also referred to as trabecular bone) is much less dense than cortical, and has a lattice-like structure. It is composed of small needle-like struts of bone called trabeculae, in a three-dimensional web. Cancellous bone forms the epiphyses (*i.e.*, ends) of bones, where loads are applied through joints in the body. Through the center of long bones is a medullary canal filled with marrow.

Bone is a complex material, and is inhomogeneous and anisotropic (*e.g.*, Marieb, 2004). It has been shown to display characteristics similar to elastic-plastic materials, including an elastic modulus, yield stress, plastic modulus, and ultimate stress (Burstein *et al.*, 1976) (Figure 1.3). Cortical bone is also viscoelastic, and as such the modulus and strength are approximately proportional to strain rate raised to the 0.06 power, as determined through compressive tests (Carter and Hayes, 1977). This can be attributed to the presence of the polymer collagen within cortical bone, and void collapse in cancellous bone. The presence of marrow in cancellous bone was similarly found to only affect the properties of bone at strain rates higher than 10 per second.

The properties of bone vary greatly in the literature, and are dependent on gender, age, location and method of testing. For example, the modulus of cortical bone in the literature has been reported to range from 12 – 21 GPa (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Takahashi *et al.*, 2000), and for cancellous bone range from 250 – 530 MPa (Kim *et al.*, 2005; Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997). One study found that for 20 – 39 year olds, cortical bone of the tibia has an elastic modulus of 18.4 GPa, an ultimate tensile strength of 140 MPa, and an ultimate compressive strength of 159 MPa (Yamada, 1970). These properties tend to decrease by approximately 2 – 5% per decade of age (Burstein *et al.*, 1976). Cancellous

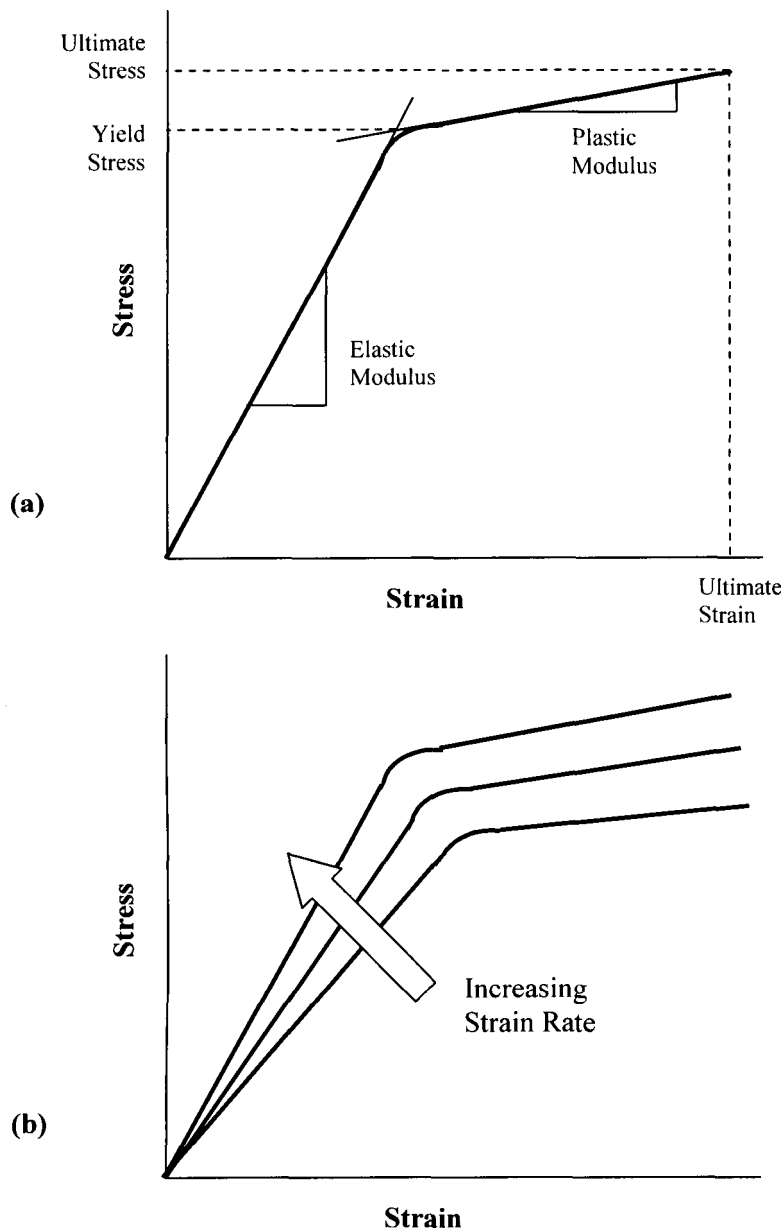


Figure 1.3: Bone Material Properties

(a) Bone has properties similar to elastic-plastic materials, and as such the stress-strain curve can be approximated as bilinear, including an elastic modulus and a plastic (or tangent) modulus. The yield stress defines the point of permanent deformation, and ultimate stress and strain occur at the point of fracture. (b) Increasing strain rate increases the slope (elastic modulus) as well as the yield stress.

bone of the tibia has been reported to have an elastic modulus of 445 MPa, with an ultimate strength of 5.3 MPa (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005).

1.1.3 HIGH ENERGY FRACTURES

Fractures of the calcaneus, talus and tibia are especially devastating injuries due to the poor vascularization of the smaller bones of the foot. Pilon fractures of the distal tibia can be caused by the talus being driven into the tibia, as commonly associated with high-energy traumas. Due to its distance from the torso, the distal tibia has a relatively poor blood supply. Fractures of the distal tibia are often badly displaced due to low supporting musculature, and frequently are compound or open, with high risk of infections (Bergeron *et al.*, 2006). As a result of the severity of injuries and the low blood supply, fractures of this region can heal poorly, leading to impairment.

1.2 IN-VEHICLE MINE DETONATION LOADING

The primary cause of injury to the lower limb during an anti-vehicle (AV) mine blast is the energy transfer through the deformation of the floor, which can cause significant lower limb injuries (Manseau and Keown, 2005). While these injuries typically are not life-threatening, they can lead to long-term impairment or the need for lower limb amputation (Radonic *et al.*, 2004; Medin *et al.*, 1998). The resulting axial loading can lead to injuries similar to those from car crashes, but the loading conditions are quite different. AV blast impacts achieve higher forces over shorter durations than car crashes (<10 ms vs. > 100 ms) (van der Horst *et al.*, 2005), from which experimental results have formed the current basis for protective measures (*e.g.*, Funk *et al.*, 2002; Yoganandan *et*

al., 1996). Local floor accelerations and peak velocity changes may typically exceed 100 G as a result of an AV mine blast (Wang *et al.*, 2001), whereas car crashes have been reported to achieve accelerations of approximately 40 G (Bir *et al.*, 2008).

The loading as a result of an AV mine blast on the lower leg is not well quantified. Typical tibia loadings recorded during such blast events on light armoured vehicles have durations of approximately 10 – 20 ms and loading rates of approximately 1.5 – 5 kN/s (Manseau and Keown, 2005). Others have shown loading durations to be between 3 – 10 ms in duration (Bir *et al.*, 2008). One study analyzed an event where soldiers were injured (Medin *et al.*, 1998), and calculated that the vehicle had experienced an impulse of 25 kNs over 0.3 ms.

The Test Rig for Occupant Safety System (TROSS) was developed by IABG Germany to reproduce typical floor loadings as a result of AV mine blasts through the use of scaled detonations (Bir *et al.*, 2008). In 2003, TROSS was used to quantify the motion of the floor, and generated a velocity profile showing a peak velocity of 4.5 m/s occurring within 6 ms (Keown and Anctil, 2004).

1.3 MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES

In order to assess the injury potential as the result of a blast, the strains, forces and accelerations experienced by the occupant need to be quantified. They can then be compared to established injury limits based on these measurable values. The following types of instrumentation are commonly used to assess the loading applied to the body.

1.3.1 STRAIN GAUGES

Load through a structure such as bone can be measured using strain gauges applied to the surface. The most common type of strain gauge is a metallic foil gauge, which has a strain-sensitive pattern of wire sandwiched between two insulating sheets (Figure 1.4). Gauges must be securely attached to the object being studied, typically using a cyanoacrylate adhesive, in order to achieve an accurate measurement. As the object is deformed, the foil pattern is also deformed, causing the resistance of the wire to change proportionally to the strain. Strain gauges are appealing in their ability to measure the state of strain at a location, but are limited in the fact that strain can only be measured at discrete locations that are accessible for application.

Strain gauges are sensitive to strain in only one direction, and cannot be used to measure shear strain directly. To quantify the two plane strains and one shear strain, strain gauges can be combined to create a rosette (Figure 1.5). Considering a rosette with three gauges, a, b, and c at angles α , $\alpha+\beta$, and $\alpha+\beta+\gamma$ from the x-axis, these strains can be related to ϵ_x , ϵ_y , and γ_{xy} through the following equations (e.g., Beckwith *et al.*, 1993):

$$\epsilon_a = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2\alpha + \gamma_{xy} \sin 2\alpha \quad (\text{Eq. 1.1})$$

$$\epsilon_b = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2(\alpha + \beta) + \gamma_{xy} \sin 2(\alpha + \beta) \quad (\text{Eq. 1.2})$$

$$\epsilon_c = \frac{\epsilon_x + \epsilon_y}{2} + \frac{\epsilon_x - \epsilon_y}{2} \cos 2(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) + \gamma_{xy} \sin 2(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) \quad (\text{Eq. 1.3})$$

When a 45° rosette is used, and gauge 'a' is aligned with the x-axis, these equations simplify to:

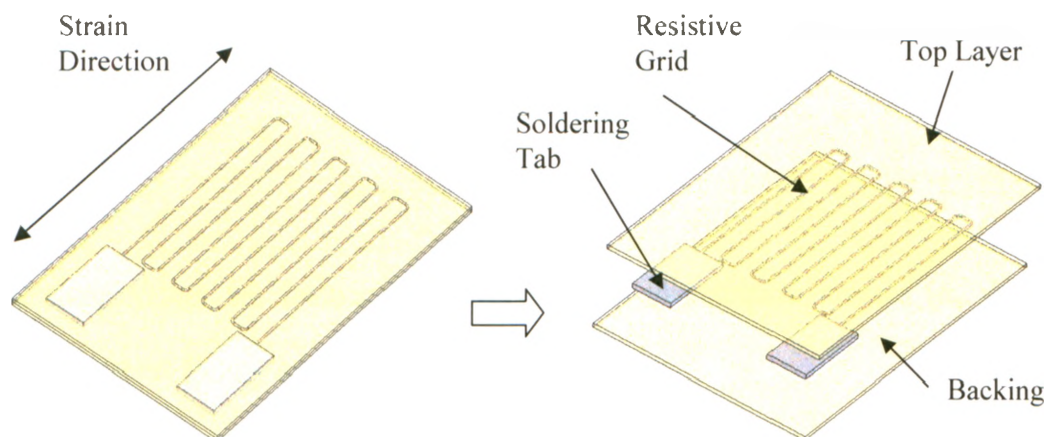


Figure 1.4: Strain Gauge Structure

A strain gauge consists of a protective backing, a resistive grid (whose resistance changes proportionately to the strain it experiences), and a top protective layer. Soldering tabs at the ends of the resistive grid are used to attach lead wires. Strain is measured along the longitudinal grid direction. (From Dunham, 2005)

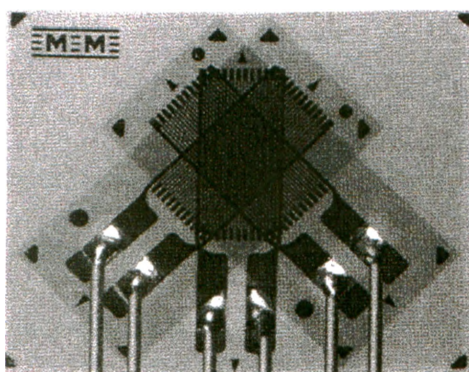


Figure 1.5: Strain Gauge Rosette

A rosette with three strain gauges at angles to one another allows for the full state of strain to be measured. (Vishay Micro-Measurements)

$$\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_a \quad (\text{Eq. 1.4})$$

$$\varepsilon_y = \varepsilon_c \quad (\text{Eq. 1.5})$$

$$\gamma_{xy} = \varepsilon_b - \frac{\varepsilon_a + \varepsilon_c}{2} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.6})$$

Once these values are known, they may be used to calculate stresses (σ_x , σ_y , τ_{xy}) or principal strains (ε_1 , ε_2) as given below:

$$\varepsilon_{1,2} = \frac{\varepsilon_x + \varepsilon_y}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\right)^2} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.7})$$

$$\frac{\gamma_{\max}}{2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{2}\right)^2} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.8})$$

$$\alpha = -\frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\gamma_{xy}}{\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y} \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 1.9})$$

1.3.2 LOAD CELLS

A load cell is an electronic transducer that converts force into an electric signal. Load cells are most commonly instrumented with strain gauges in various Wheatstone Bridge configurations, used to isolate and amplify different components of load. For example, an axial load cell might consist of four strain gauges, two aligned with the direction of loading and two perpendicularly oriented (Figure 1.6).

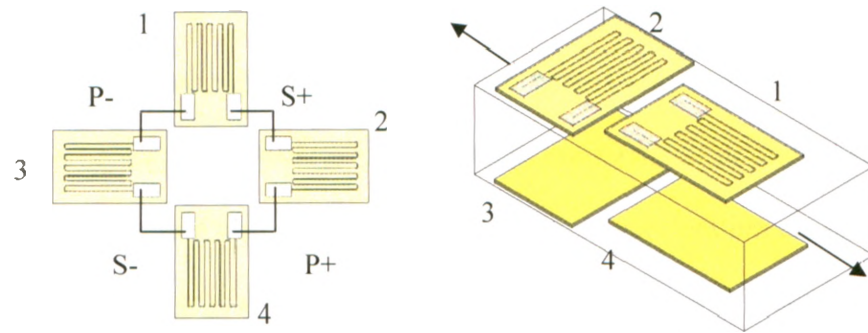


Figure 1.6: Wheatstone Bridge Circuit for Axial Load Cells

Through the combination and arrangement of several strain gauges, different components of load can be isolated and amplified, such as axial loading as shown. The gain from this bridge circuit is $2 + 2\nu$ (From Dunham, 2005)

1.3.3 ACCELEROMETERS

Accelerometers are sensors that detect the acceleration of a body relative to free fall, and are frequently used for dynamically measuring the motion and vibration of structures. They can be single or multi-axis, and are tuned to be sensitive to specific ranges of accelerations. The principle of operation of an accelerometer is the same as a mass-spring-damper system. When the mass experiences an external force such as gravity, it is displaced until it is balanced by the spring force. This displacement is measured most commonly via a capacitance change between fixed beams and beams mounted to the mass, but can also be measured using piezoresistors in the spring or through piezoelectric crystals. It is then converted into acceleration. The units of acceleration are m/s^2 , but are commonly reported in units of g-force, or 'Gs', where 1 G equals 9.81 m/s^2 (acceleration due to gravity).

1.4 LOWER LEG SURROGATES

Measurement techniques such as those previously discussed are useful for evaluating loading of the human body when subjected to impacts. Often it is not practical or feasible to apply these tools direction to cadaveric specimens. For this purpose, surrogates representing the response of the human body are used to evaluate protective measures. These surrogates can be instrumented with various measurement systems, and in several cases can be reused for many tests, making them a consistent benchmark for evaluating loading of the body. However, their response needs to be correlated to the actual human response for them to be an appropriate method for assessing injury risk.

1.4.1 ANTHROPOMORPHIC TEST DEVICES

The current method for evaluating anti-tank land mine blast injuries involves the use of a Hybrid III (HIII) (Denton ATD, Inc, Rochester Hills, MI, USA) anthropomorphic test device (ATD) – commonly known as a crash test dummy. These devices were originally designed by the automotive industry to evaluate injury risk during frontal crashes. They are sized in both geometry and mass to represent different anthropometric populations, and the most commonly used is scaled to the dimensions of the 50th percentile male. In practice, ATDs are placed inside an actual vehicle and instrumentation on them is monitored while the vehicle is subjected to various explosive events.

1.4.1.1 DENTON LEG

The most commonly used ATD lower leg in automotive safety assessment is the Denton leg (Denton ATD, Inc, Rochester Hills, MI, USA). This leg is mandated to be instrumented with a 5-axis lower tibia load cell for AV mine blast tests, and is recommended to have a 5-axis upper tibia load cell included as well (Manseau, 2005). The Denton leg attaches to the knee of the HIII ATD via a clevis, and has a ball joint to approximate motion of the human ankle joints. It is a simple steel shaft that is mounted on an angle from the ankle to attach in front of the knee (Figure 1.7, right). The axial response of the Denton leg has been evaluated in comparison with cadaveric specimens in several studies (Crandall *et al.*, 1996; Kuppa *et al.*, 1998; Owen, 2001; Petit and Trosseille, 1999; Kuppa *et al.*, 2001a). It has been shown to induce bending moments under axial loading (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001a). Under pendulum loading, it was between 1.8

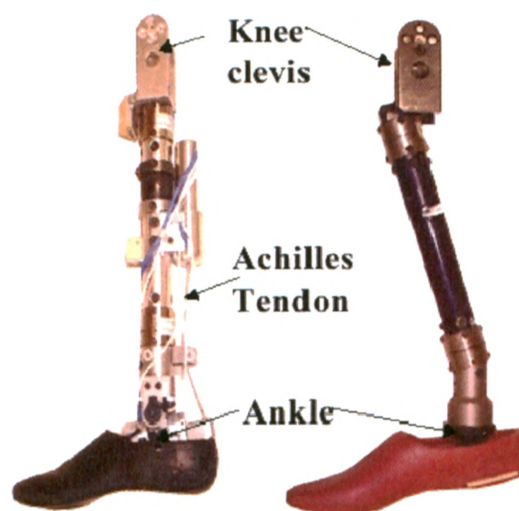


Figure 1.7: Mechanical Structure of the Thor-Lx and Denton Leg

The Thor-Lx (left) is the most recent attempt at a biofidelic Anthropomorphic Test Device. It includes more instrumentation than the Denton leg (right), as well as a component to represent the Achilles tendon, but the Denton remains the most widely used device for assessing injury risk to the lower leg. (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001a, see Appendix M for letter of permission)

and 2.8 times stiffer, had rise times 2 – 3 times faster, and showed greater rate dependency than cadaveric specimens (Crandall *et al.*, 1996; Kuppa *et al.*, 1998; Bir *et al.*, 2008). This has raised many concerns about the biofidelity of this ATD leg model, and led to further attempts to develop a more accurate representation.

1.4.1.2 THOR

The Test device for Human Occupant Restraint (THOR) ATD was developed by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration to be a more biofidelic device than the Hybrid III. The lower extremity, the THOR-Lx, has improvements in both mechanical structure and level of instrumentation. The shaft of the THOR-Lx is straight, and includes a rubber element to allow a small amount of compression (Figure 1.7, left). An Achilles tendon is included to simulate the resistance provided by musculature of the lower leg often present when braking during car crashes. The THOR-Lx has the same knee clevis as the Denton leg, and as such is interchangeable on the Hybrid III ATD. There are two 5-axis load cells (one distal and one proximal) and a uniaxial load cell built into the Achilles tendon, as well as 3-axis rotary potentiometers in the ankle. Further instrumentation can include accelerometers in the foot and at two locations on the tibia.

Several studies have examined the response of this lower leg model to axial impact in order to evaluate its biofidelity (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001a; Owen, 2001). The THOR-Lx was found to have closer response to cadaveric specimens when tested using a pendulum system, with equivalent peak loads being accurately measured. During full-scale vehicle crashes, the THOR-Lx exhibited lower stiffness and slower rise times than the Denton

leg, proving to be more representative of cadaveric response. Despite this, the Denton model remains the most widely used leg currently.

1.4.2 SYNTHETIC COMPOSITE BONES

Composite synthetic bones are widely used in orthopaedic research. They offer many advantages over cadaveric specimens, including low inter-specimen variability in both geometry and material properties, ready availability, and ease of handling, storage, and disposal. For these bones to be an appropriate surrogate for fracture testing, the fracture strength and failure mechanics need to be consistent with the natural bone response under impact conditions (Funk *et al.*, 2002; Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996).

1.4.2.1 COMPLEX LOWER LEG

The Complex Lower Leg (CLL) was designed by Defence Research and Development Canada for evaluation of anti-personnel landmine injury risk. This synthetic surrogate is made of polymeric bones (a tibia/fibula, talus, and calcaneus) encased in ballistic gelatin representing soft tissues, covered with a latex skin. Silicone rubber is used to make cartilage pads and a heel pad. The geometry was taken from the Visible Human Database (National Library of Medicine), and accounts for loading through the hind-foot via the calcaneus only. As such, there is no representation of the rest of the bones of the foot (Keown and Anctil, 2004), and a two piece calcaneus was included to provide symmetry about the two vertical axes. A tendon wraps the two calcanei to provide stability of the foot. The CLL is not instrumented with a load cell, but can be instrumented with strain gauges. To assess the biofidelity of these surrogates,

they were subjected to axial impact loads and assessed for damage (Manseau and Keown, 2005). The resulting injuries were compared to similar impact tests previously reported (Funk *et al.*, 2002). At low loading levels satisfactory results were found, but at high severity tests, representative of an AV mine blast, there was a lack of consistency in injury patterns and severity. As well, unrealistic fracture locations were observed. Recommendations for improvement were made (Manseau and Keown, 2005), but no known further versions of this leg have been produced to date.

1.4.2.2 FRANGIBLE SURROGATE LEG

The Frangible Surrogate Leg (FSL) was designed by the Defense Science and Technology Organization of Australia in the late 1990s for the purposes of assessing protective measures for anti-personnel and anti-vehicular mine blasts (Footner *et al.*, 2006). This synthetic surrogate is also made of polymeric composite bones representing the lower leg and foot, connected by highly flexible polyamide glue (simulating cartilage), and encased in ballistic gelatin representing soft tissues.

The FSL has been used to assess the efficacy of foot protection for anti-personnel landmines (Bergeron *et al.*, 2001), and fractures were compared to cadaveric results previously reported (Harris *et al.*, 2000). It was found that the calcaneus was too strong, as it survived blasts known to cause injury. This study removed a portion of the tibia to insert a load cell, which may have altered the load response, and therefore a need for an integrated load cell was identified.

A modified FSL (FSLM) has since been developed which is instrumented with strain gauges and calibrated to act as a load cell that can measure both bending moments and

compressive loads. The FSLM was shortened for compatibility with a Hybrid III ATD, but the distal half (the foot and ankle region) remained unchanged. The response of the FSLM was evaluated under drop test and explosive loading, and softening of the glue of the joints was observed after the first impact. Large variations in response among legs were noted, and accuracy was assessed to be on the order of 15%, likely as a result of manufacturing and calibration difficulties (Footner *et al.*, 2006).

The latest version of this model is the MK IV FSL, which includes flat and tubular polymeric materials to simulate tendons. Biofidelity of these bones was assessed only qualitatively, based on previously reported experiences using cadaveric specimens, and was found to be somewhat limited in its ability to predict injuries (Bergeron *et al.*, 2006).

1.4.2.3 SAWBONES[®]

The most widely used commercially-available composite bones are Sawbones[®] (Pacific Research Laboratories, Inc., Vashon, WA, USA). The tibia models were first examined in their second generation version, which was made of fiberglass-fabric-reinforced epoxy and polyurethane foam (Cristofolini and Viceconti, 2000). The external and internal geometry of the bones were compared to cadaveric specimens, and were found to be relatively close, except for a difference in width of the diaphysis. They were subsequently compared under axial and torsional whole bone loading (potted in cement at both ends), as well as in bending in both anatomical planes. The bones were validated for bending, but were overly stiff under torsion and were too difficult to align for axial assessment. The third generation of tibias was manufactured using short-glass-fiber-reinforced epoxy as the cortical analogue in order to improve the uniformity of

mechanical properties, add greater anatomical detail, and facilitate easier fabrication (Heiner and Brown, 2001). An intramedullary canal was also introduced, which aided with alignment issues. These bones were similarly tested, and found to have lower variability under axial testing. Stiffnesses were found to reasonably approximate natural human bones from other studies.

The currently-available models are fourth generation, and are made using a short glass fiber reinforced epoxy resin injected around a core of rigid polyurethane foam (Figure 1.8). Changes were made to the cortical analogue to improve fracture toughness, fatigue life, tensile strength and modulus, and thermal stability (www.sawbones.com, visited October 12, 2009). Third generation bones were prone to crack formation and early fatigue failure, making them unsuitable for cyclic studies (Chong *et al.*, 2007). The fourth generation cortical analogue was tested for static mechanical properties, fracture toughness, and fatigue crack propagation resistance, and compared to the third generation and human properties from the literature. Strength and modulus were found to be close to human cortical bone (but still lower), as well as fracture toughness (within the range reported). The fatigue life of the fourth generation material was better than the third, but as synthetic materials cannot remodel like bone, higher fatigue life is always desired (Chong *et al.*, 2007). The fourth generation bones were also tested for whole-bone response in the same manner as the third generation ones were previously (Heiner, 2008), and were validated to be close to natural human structural properties for bending and torsion (axial stiffness values were not available for comparison). No known studies have looked at the fracture response of Sawbones® to impacts, as they have only been validated for quasi-static loading rates.

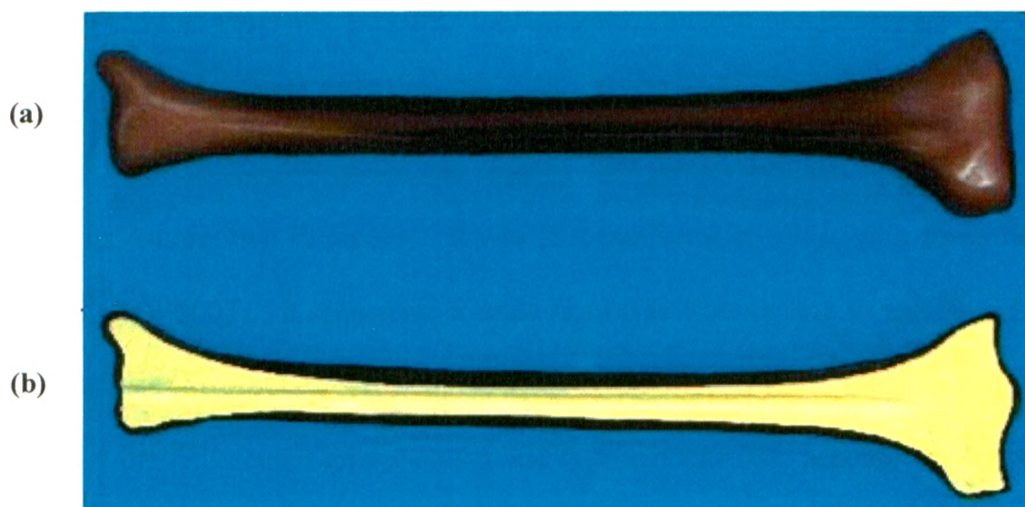


Figure 1.8: Sawbone® Synthetic Composite Tibia

Sawbone® composite tibias are made of a short fibre reinforced epoxy resin over a polyurethane foam core. Shown are a whole bone (a) and cross-section (b). Bones are shown from an anterior view of a left specimen, with the distal end oriented to the left. (www.sawbones.com, see Appendix M for letter of permission)

1.5 EXISTING INJURY CRITERIA

Injury criteria have been developed for a variety of regions of the body. Those that pertain to the lower leg are described in detail below. Commonly used criteria that apply to other areas of the body have been included as Appendix B for completeness.

1.5.1 ABBREVIATED INJURY SCALE

In order to quantify the severity of a traumatic injury at any location in the body, the Abbreviated Injury Scale (AIS) can be used. The AIS was developed by the American Medical Association, the American Association for Automotive Medicine, and the Society of Automotive Engineers. It was first published in 1971, with several revisions since (NATO, 2007). It represents a scale from 0 to 6 according to anatomical injuries. The severities corresponding to the AIS scale levels are shown in Table 1.1. It should be noted that the AIS scores injuries only, and does not take into account the consequences of these injuries such as disabilities. AIS 2+ (moderate and greater) is considered to be the cutoff for acceptable potential injury in defense research (van der Horst *et al.*, 2005), as life-altering injuries are avoided. A 10% risk of AIS 2+ has been adopted as the protection limit by the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO, 2007), and thus is the significant severity level for this project. Table 1.2 gives examples of injuries that may occur to the lower leg, along with an estimate of recovery time and risk of impairment.

1.5.2 AO CLASSIFICATION

Distal tibia fractures can be classified in order of severity using the AO universal classification system. Type A fractures consist of extra-articular injuries, which do not

Table 1.1: AIS Severity Levels

The AIS is a useful scale for assessing severity of an injury, and considers post-injury aspects such as quality of life. Injuries of AIS level 2 and above (corresponding to moderate and higher) are to be avoided in order to minimize life-altering effects (Bogosian and Der Avanessian, 2004).

AIS Level	Severity	Type of Injury
0	None	Non
1	Minor	Superficial
2	Moderate	Reversible injuries; medical attention required
3	Serious	Reversible injuries; hospitalization required
4	Severe	Life threatening; not fully recoverable without care
5	Critical	Non-reversible injury; not fully recoverable even with medical care
6	Virtually unsurvivable	Fatal

Table 1.2: Lower Leg Injuries

Injuries to the lower leg and their corresponding AIS level. AIS levels 2 and above have long recovery times and higher risks of long-term impairment (NATO, 2007).

Examples of Injuries	AIS	Recovery	Risk of Impairment
Ankle sprain	1	2 – 3 months	Low
Simple fracture of the tibia	2	3 months	Low
Simple or comminuted fracture of the talus	2	3 months or +	Medium
Simple or comminuted fracture of the calcaneus	2	3 months or +	Medium – High
Open fracture of the tibia	3	3 months or +	Low – Medium
Fracture of the fibula with affected artery or nerve	3	3 months or +	Medium – High
Traumatic amputation	4	3 months or +	High

interrupt the articular surface of the tibio-talar joint. Type B fractures are partial articular fractures, with some connection between the joint surface and the diaphysis. Type C can be considered the most devastating, and the most common type of pilon fracture, and consists of complete articular fractures, with no connection between the joint surface and the diaphysis of the tibia. Increasing severity on the AO classification scale can be associated with increasing difficulty of repair.

1.5.3 TIBIA CRITERIA

1.5.3.1 TIBIA INDEX

A method of evaluating the injury tolerance for leg shaft fractures commonly used in the automotive industry is the Tibia Index (TI) (Mertz, 1993). The TI is an injury tolerance criterion for combined bending and axial compressive loads on the tibia, where a value of 1.0 is the pass/fail threshold for injury.

The equation for calculating the Tibia Index is given as follows (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001b):

$$TI = \frac{F}{F_c} + \frac{M}{M_c} < 1 \quad (\text{Eq. 1.10})$$

where F is the measured compressive axial force (kN), and M is the measured bending moment (Nm) in the leg (defined as the resultant moment of the medial-lateral and the anterior-posterior moments). M_c and F_c , the critical values of bending moment and axial compressive force in the tibia, were recommended by Mertz (1993) to be equal to 225 Nm and 35.9 kN for the 50th percentile male. These values, however, have subsequently been changed as the result of further cadaveric and experimental testing to be 240 Nm for M_c and 12 kN for F_c (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001b), referred to as the “Revised Tibia Index”. An RTI of 0.75 corresponds to a 10% probability of an AIS 2+ injury (NATO, 2007).

The Insurance Institute for Highway Safety (IIHS) (2004) uses adjusted bending moments to account for the fact that the shape of the Denton leg induces bending when exposed to pure axial forces (see Section 1.4.1.1). This adjustment was developed by Zuby *et al.* (2001), and is applied to moments about the y -axis. The adjusted bending moments as measured by the tibia load cells are calculated from the measured ones as follows:

$$M_{upperadj} = M_{uppermeas} - (F_z * 0.02832) \quad (\text{Eq. 1.11})$$

$$M_{loweradj} = M_{lowermeas} + (F_z * 0.006398) \quad (\text{Eq. 1.12})$$

1.5.3.2 INJURY ASSESSMENT REFERENCE VALUES

The IIHS published Injury Assessment Reference Values (IARV) for significant injury-related parameters (Insurance Institute for Highway Safety, 2004). IARVs refer to “a human response level below which a specified significant injury is considered unlikely to occur for the given size individual” (Mertz, 1993). For the lower leg, limits on the tibia axial force and foot accelerations were specified. The foot acceleration limit is 150 G, which is based on non-injurious volunteer tests. The IIHS defines this as good-acceptable, 200 G as acceptable-marginal acceleration, and 250 G as marginal-poor. Similarly, tibia axial forces levels are defined, with 8.0 kN as the recommended IARV (corresponding to marginal-poor), 6.0 kN is acceptable-marginal, and 4.0 kN is good-acceptable. IARVs must be used with caution, as they have not been investigated for all mechanisms of injury.

1.5.3.3 LOWER LEG THRESHOLD

The Lower Leg Threshold (LLth) was developed as a time-dependent lower leg injury criterion based on tibia loading duration (Nies, 2004). This criterion was developed to correlate lower leg injury with impulse magnitude and duration, an important factor not often included in tibia injury criteria which differs between AV mine-blast and car crash loading. Acceleration-injury data from Hirsch (1964) were used to develop this threshold, and 5 and 10% risk curves were generated for both acceleration and force-based limits (Figure 1.9). The LLth states that an acceleration limit of 20 G can safely be tolerated for durations longer than 20 ms (Nies, 2004). The previously proposed force limit of 5.4 kN (see section 1.5.3.1) corresponds well with loading durations on the order of 10 ms, but no further validation studies have been published on this injury threshold.

1.5.4 *REVIEW OF EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES EXAMINING LOWER LEG INJURY TOLERANCE*

Most of the previous research on the tolerance of the lower leg to axial impacts has been conducted for car crashes. These incidents are slower than in-vehicle AV mine blasts, and as such the proposed tolerances could be inappropriate for this application. However, they provide insight into parameters that affect the tolerance of the lower leg to impact, and form a basis for current injury standards in the defence community. The following studies (sorted from oldest to newest by research laboratory) have examined the injury tolerance of the lower leg to axial loading, and key findings are summarized in Table 1.3 at the end of this section.

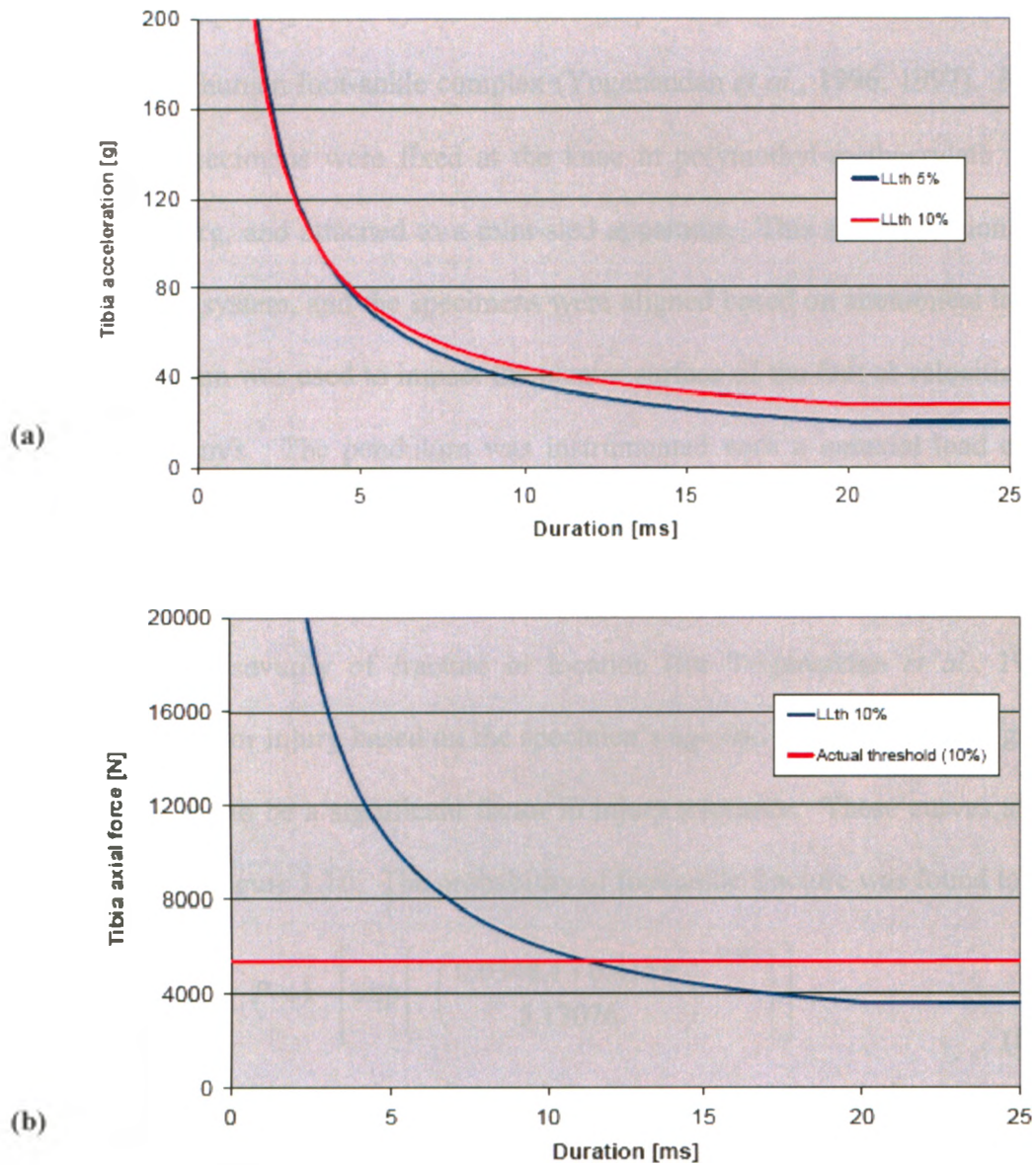


Figure 1.9: Lower Leg Threshold for Acceleration and Force
 Injury tolerance curves are defined based on both (a) acceleration and (b) force levels. (NATO, 2007) See Appendix M for permission.

1.5.4.1 MEDICAL COLLEGE OF WISCONSIN: 1996-97

The most frequently cited dynamic axial injury study was conducted to quantify the tolerance of the human foot-ankle complex (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; 1997). Full lower leg cadaveric specimens were fixed at the knee in polymethyl-methacrylate (PMMA), ballasted to 16 kg, and attached to a mini-sled apparatus. This sled rode along a linear rail and bearing system, and the specimens were aligned based on anatomical landmarks. A 24 kg pendulum was used to impact the plantar surface of the foot at velocities ranging from 2.2 – 7.6 m/s. The pendulum was instrumented with a uniaxial load cell and a uniaxial accelerometer, and a second load cell was located at the proximal end of the sled (behind the PMMA block). Fracture forces ranged from 4.3 to 13.0 kN, but with no indication of the severity of fracture or location (for Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). A probability curve for injury based on the specimen's age and impact force was generated, as age was found to be a significant factor in injury tolerance. These curves are shown for three ages in Figure 1.10. The probability of foot/ankle fracture was found to be:

$$P = 1 - \left[\exp \left\{ - \left(\frac{0.0348A + 0.415F}{5.13076} \right)^{7.42582} \right\} \right] \quad (\text{Eq. 1.13})$$

where A is the age in years and F is the tibia axial force in kN (from NATO, 2007). To select a tolerance value for protective measures, a 10% risk of injury for a 45 year old was chosen as most representative of the average military population, corresponding to a force level of 5.4 kN (NATO, 2007).

The data from Yoganandan *et al.* (1996) were analyzed by Kuppa *et al.* using a logistic regression analysis to define an alternate injury prediction equation (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001b). The probability of fracture as a function of lower tibia axial force:

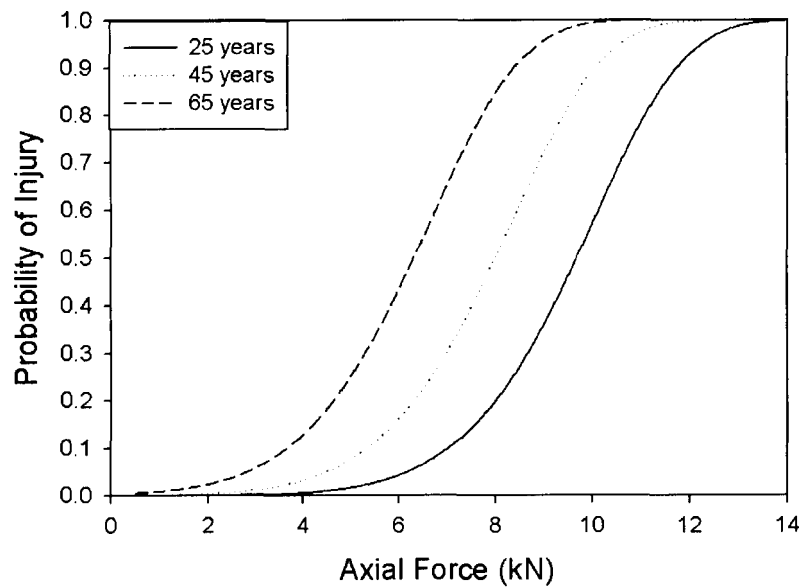


Figure 1.10: Injury Probability Curves by Age, Yoganandan Model
The injury risk equation from Yoganandan *et al.* (1996) was plotted for 25, 45, and 65 years to demonstrate the effect of age.

$$P = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(4.572 - 0.670F)} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.14})$$

where F is the lower tibia axial force in N. This resulted in a force of 3.6 kN corresponding to a 10% risk of fracture. This equation is more straightforward in application, but does not include the effect of age on bone tolerance.

1.5.4.2 WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY / NISSAN MOTOR CO: 1998

A study by Kitagawa *et al.* (1998) introduced the concept of including Achilles tension to simulate braking force in an attempt to create tibial pilon fractures. Paired cadaveric lower legs were potted at the proximal end of the tibia, and the Achilles tendon pulled with 1.8 kN of force. A rigid pendulum (mass = 18 kg) was used to impact the plantar surface of the foot at approximately 3 m/s. A load cell and accelerometer were mounted to the pendulum, and a 6-axis load cell fixed to the proximal end of the tibia. Average failure loads measured by the impactor and proximal tibia load cells for tibial pilon fractures were 4.9 and 7.2 kN, respectively, and 5.2 and 7.9 kN for calcaneus fractures. The distal tibia and the calcaneus were concluded to have strengths very close to each other.

1.5.4.3 CALIFORNIA POLYTECHNIC STATE UNIVERSITY: 2001

The objective of the study by Griffin *et al.* (2001) was to determine predictors of lower extremity injury as a result of anti-personnel landmines, and assess the efficacy of protective footwear. Twenty fresh-frozen cadavers were used, and instrumented with a proximal tibia load cell and strain gauges on the distal tibia and calcaneus. They were then loaded by placing the heel over a landmine. Impulse (defined as the area under the

force-time curve), loading rate, and pulse width were calculated. It was found that statistically significant predictors of pilon fractures are axial loading rate, axial impulse, axial peak force, and subject weight. This was formulated in terms of a risk of pilon fracture equation, given as:

$$P = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-8.39 - 0.078R + 0.073W + 5.2 \times 10^{-5} Fz)} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.15})$$

where R is the axial loading rate (kN/ms), W is the subject weight (lbs), and Fz is the peak Z force (N). Based on this, probability curves were plotted for various loading rates, for a 75 kg subject, and an impulse of 30 Ns (the average value from the tests) (Figure 1.11). Loading rate was found to be the strongest predictor of pilon fracture, but rates tested were in the range of 5 – 116 kN/ms. As AV blast loading rates are typically below 5 kN/ms, the validity of this model is questionable.

1.5.4.4 MEDICAL COLLEGE OF WISCONSIN: 2001

Calcaneal fractures are a common injury to the lower extremity, and can heal poorly as a result of low vascularization. Seipel *et al.* (2001) subjected 22 cadaveric lower extremities to axial impacts representative of car crash events in an attempt to quantify the tolerance of the calcaneus. The impacting apparatus was the same pendulum system as in Yoganandan *et al.* (1996), and strikes occurred with velocities of 2.2 to 6.7 m/s, and with energies from 58 to 540 J. Fractures were created at forces ranging from 3.6 – 11.4 kN. A risk curve for calcaneal fracture was generated based on axial force, showing a 25% risk of fracture at a force of 4.0 kN, and 50% risk at 5.5 kN.

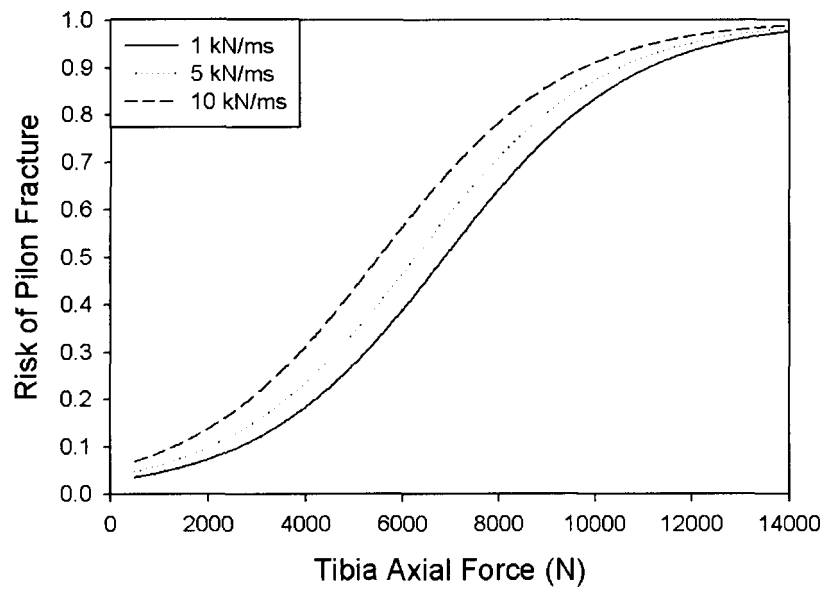


Figure 1.11: Risk of Pilon Fracture Curves, Griffin Model

Using the Griffin equation (2001), risk curves were generated for a 75 kg person at various loading rates.

1.5.4.5 UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA: 2002

One of the most comprehensive axial injury tolerance equations was developed by Funk *et al.* (2002). This study examined the axial response of intact lower legs to simulated car crash loading, with particular investigation into the effect of Achilles tension (representative of bracing prior to impact). Muscle pre-tensioning is not considered a factor in AV blast impacts, as the occupants do not expect the event, and muscle contraction is too slow to respond (NATO, 2007). Specimens were mounted in a test apparatus, and received axial impacts via a transfer piston resulting in footplate velocities of approximately 5 m/s. A load cell measured the load imparted to the footplate, and a tibia load cell was implanted in each specimen. A multivariate Weibull model was used to describe the probability of injury using the best subset of predictors:

$$P = 1 - [\exp\{-\exp(4.99 \ln F - 43.7 - 0.964G + 0.0793A - 0.0552W - 0.473AT)\}] \quad (\text{Eq. 1.16})$$

where F is the tibia axial force in N, G is the subject gender (1 if male, 0 if female), A is the subject age in years, W is the subject body weight in kg, and AT is the Achilles tension in N. This equation is plotted for the average 45 year old male population in Figure 1.12.

1.6 FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS OF BONE

While cadaveric studies of lower leg injury tolerance are numerous, there are several limitations inherent in the type of testing. Due to limited numbers, only a small number of parameters can be examined with statistical significance, especially with this type of destructive testing. Computer modeling through the use of finite element analyses offers

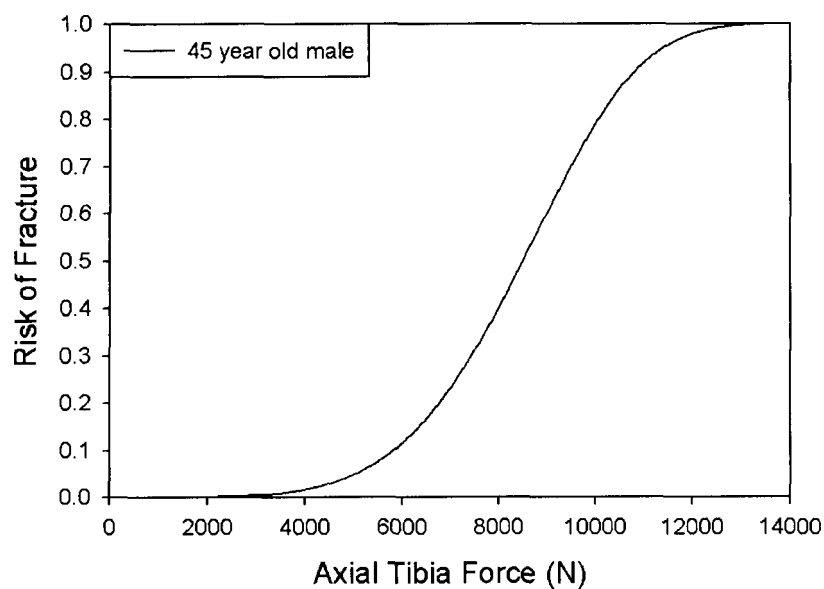


Figure 1.12: Injury Risk, Funk Model

Injury risk function for the American 50th percentile male at 45 years old, assuming no Achilles tension, using the equation from Funk *et al.* (2002).

Table 1.3: Summary of Previous Injury Tolerance Studies

The significant injury risk factors and recommended 10% injury risk force level (for an average male) are summarized. The current standard is highlighted in blue.

Study	Significant Injury Risk Factors	10% Injury Risk Force
Yoganandan <i>et al.</i> (1996, 1997)	Axial force, age	5.4 kN
Kuppa <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Axial force	3.6 kN
Kitagawa <i>et al.</i> (1998)	Axial force	-
Griffin <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Axial loading rate, axial impulse, axial peak force, subject weight	2.1 kN
Seipel <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Axial force	2.5 kN
Funk <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Axial force, gender, age, body weight, Achilles tension	5.8 kN

the advantage of being able to simulate a large number of loading protocols. It is also a primary method of injury assessment used by automotive and defence industry members.

1.6.1 APPLICATION OF FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS

Finite element analysis (FEA) is a powerful tool that can be used to analyze biomechanical response to loading (among other things). FEA consists of subdividing structures into simple shapes in order to compute the stresses and strains at any location through the structure. Once the finite element model has been validated, a primary advantage FEA has over cadaveric experimental testing is the ability to test multiple loading conditions on a single specimen, which is especially useful in destructive fracture analyses.

The geometric shapes used to construct the model are termed elements, and are joined together at points called nodes. The continuum of elements which forms the model is called a mesh. Once a mesh is built, material properties are assigned to the elements, and boundary conditions and loads can be applied. There are two main shapes of elements: tetrahedral and hexahedral (Figure 1.13). For dynamic simulations hexahedral elements have been shown to be computationally more accurate than tetrahedral elements (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). Within this element geometry there are two element structures that are frequently used, shells and solids. Shell elements have very small thickness relative to their other dimensions, and as such are useful for studies where stresses occur in-plane with the element. Shell elements are also less computationally intensive than solid elements, which allow for three-dimensional loading. Solid elements are used more

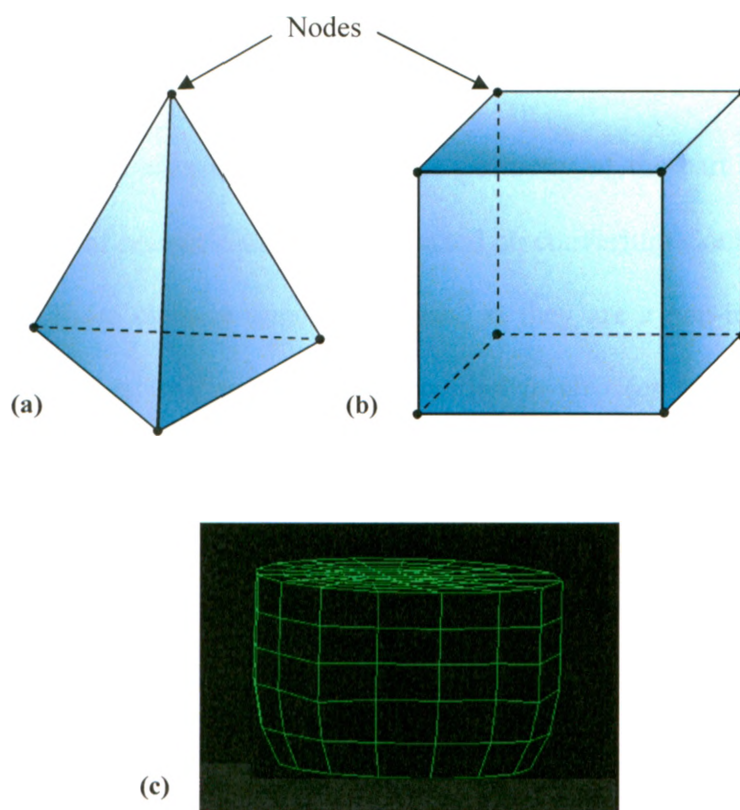


Figure 1.13: Tetrahedral and Hexahedral Elements

Two types of solid elements used in finite element modeling are (a) tetrahedral and (b) hexahedrals. Nodes are indicated with dots. The combination of elements forms a mesh (c).

frequently for general finite element analyses, especially when the state of stress is unknown.

Once a model is built it can be analyzed, typically using a computer-based solver. Most of these solvers compute the displacements of the nodes of the mesh based on the stiffness of the structure and the applied loading, and also calculate the state of stress for each element.

The mesh requires accurately knowing the geometry of the part to be analyzed. A significant amount of research has been conducted on converting Computed Tomography (CT) scans into finite element models of bones, as they are a non-invasive method for obtaining geometry as well as density information *in-vivo* (or *in-vitro*) from which to develop patient-specific models (Taddei *et al.*, 2006). As such, the process has been well established, but is complex and time-consuming (Valle and Ray, 2005). The steps involved include extraction of the 3D bone surface from the CT images to establish the geometry of the model, generation of the finite element mesh based on these surface definitions, and assignment of mechanical properties to the mesh prior to application of simulated loads and boundary conditions. Due to the complicated geometry of bones, meshes created using automatic mesh generators are of a much lower quality than those manually generated (Valle and Ray, 2005). Analyses have been conducted to identify fracture locations of bones in finite element models; however, most studies simulate quasi-static and not dynamic loading (Imai *et al.*, 2006). The focus of the current thesis is dynamic, and as a review only these types of studies are described herein.

1.6.2 PREVIOUS TIBIA IMPACT SIMULATIONS

Most of the previous finite element models of the lower limb have been developed by the car crash industry. The existing models have several limitations in both development and validation. Numerous simplifications have been made as a result of the complex nature of this type of simulation, including geometrical and material property definitions. As well, validation has been limited due to the lack of experimental cadaveric testing for comparison purposes. A summary of key parameters is provided at the end of this section in Table 1.4.

1.6.2.1 GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY / NHTSA: 1996

The most commonly referenced experimental study on axial impact tolerance of the lower leg (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996) was the basis of validation of a finite element model by Tannous *et al.* (1996). A representative foot and ankle were digitized to generate IGES files describing the surface geometry of the bones. The bone was meshed using deformable 8-noded hexagonal solid elements, with an average thickness estimated for cortical bone. Both cortical and cancellous bone were considered to be homogenous, isotropic, and linear elastic, with the cortical modulus taken from the literature (Cowin, 1991) and the cancellous modulus based on average apparent density (Carter and Hayes, 1977). LS-Dyna[®] was used to run the simulation, with friction of contact between the bone and impactor selected to be 0.02, similar to that of cartilage. Non-injurious simulations were run, with a rigid plate impactor constrained to move only in one direction. At the proximal end a rigid mass simulated the weight of the experimental slider, and was similarly constrained. The forces were found to be higher than those

experimentally, but the shape and durations were in good agreement. Stresses and strains were compared to ultimate values from the literature used to evaluate fracture risk. A number of future improvements were identified, including the use of CT scans for more accurate geometry.

1.6.2.2 TOYOTA CENTRAL R&D LABS, INC. / WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY: 2000

A full lower limb model was developed by Iwamoto *et al.* (2000) for the purposes of injury prediction during frontal automobile impacts. The geometry was taken from a 50th percentile male, and was modeled using crushable solid elements for cancellous bone and damageable shell elements for cortical bone, with properties from Yamada (1970). Joints were modeled with contacts and major ligaments and tendons. Simulations were run using the solver PAM-CRASH[®], and were evaluated for validation purposes in comparison with quasi-static three-point bending tests (Yamada, 1970) and dynamic impact tests simulating braking (Kitagawa *et al.*, 1998). Force values were compared and showed generally good agreement, although some differences were noted. Fractures occurred in the calcaneus and the distal tibia, regardless of the Tibia Index (TI) being calculated to be less than 0.5 (suggesting no injury). The authors concluded that the TI may underestimate the injury in frontal impact. The material definition for this model was later improved through the development of an anisotropic inelastic constitutive model with damage evolution, strain rate dependency, and asymmetry of tension and compression, which showed improved results over the previous, more simplified isotropic elasto-viscoplastic material model as implemented in LS-Dyna[®] (Iwamoto *et al.*, 2005).

1.6.2.3 WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY / FORD MOTOR COMPANY: 2001

A further finite element model of the lower limb was developed for automotive crash injury prediction, and validated against cadaveric tests (Beillas *et al.*, 2001). This model was developed from a CT scan of a 50th percentile male, and the internal and external boundaries of the cortical shell were identified, along with soft tissues. Shell elements were used to model the cortical bone, and cancellous bone was modeled using solid hexahedral elements. The two material types were joined using a tied contact interface in order to accelerate the meshing process. Both cortical and cancellous materials were modeled using an elastic-plastic material representation. Impact simulations were compared to previous studies in the literature (Haut and Atkinson, 1995; Banglmaier *et al.*, 1999). Injury locations were observed to correlate with experimental results, but crushing of the distal region (observed during cadaveric tests) could not be simulated due to the deletion of elements, and as such the failure appeared to be brittle.

1.6.2.4 UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA / GENERAL MOTORS: 2005

One of the most detailed reports of a validated finite element model of the leg was presented by Untaroiu *et al.* (2005). This model was built for the purposes of assessing pedestrian impacts, and the geometry of the bones and soft tissues were based on the Visible Human Male Project (The National Library of Medicine). Transverse contour lines were identified for the exterior and interior surfaces of the bones, and in the epiphyseal regions only the exterior contours obtained (assuming the interior was filled with cancellous bone). It was meshed using TrueGrid[®] (XYZ Scientific Applications, Inc, Livermore, CA, USA), a hexahedral mesh generator, and the diaphyseal cortical

bone and epiphyseal cancellous bone modeled with solid elements, and the epiphyseal cortical bone with shell elements. The solids and shells were joined using a transition region.

The mesh was verified for geometric parameters to assess its quality. LS-Dyna[®] (Livermore Software Technology Corp., Livermore, CA, USA) was used as the FE solver (more detail in Section 6.2.1). Cortical and cancellous bones were assumed to be isotropic elastic-plastic materials, and the cortical bone assigned a tangent stiffness of 100 MPa, and cancellous bone modeled as elastic-perfectly plastic. Strain rate sensitivity was included using explicit load curves. Assumptions made due to the limitations of the material models available included the material being isotropic and having properties equal in tension and compression. Fracture was modeled using element elimination (*i.e.*, an LS-Dyna[®] technique to be described in more detail in Chapter 6), and all elements formulated using one-point integration. The model was evaluated by comparing force-deflection curves for three-point bending with quasi-static and dynamic cadaveric tests from the literature (*e.g.*, Yamada, 1970).

1.7 STUDY RATIONALE

Axial impulse loading to the lower leg can lead to devastating injuries. Currently-applied injury criteria have yet to be examined for their applicability to the loading scenarios found in anti-vehicle blasts, and as such may not define appropriate protective limits. An investigation into the current injury threshold, along with evaluation of surrogates for assessing injury risk would help to better define the tolerance of the lower leg to impact, ultimately leading to better safety standards.

Table 1.4: Summary of Previous Impact Simulations

The key parameters used in previous studies are summarized here.

Study	Element Type	MAT type	Failure Criteria
Tannous <i>et al.</i> (1996)	Solids	Isotropic, linear elastic	Max principal strain
Iwamoto <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Cancellous: solids; cortical: shells	Isotropic, linear elastic	Max stress
Beillas <i>et al.</i> (2001)	Cancellous: solids; cortical: shells	Isotropic elastic-plastic	Element Elimination
Untaroiu <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Cancellous, diaphyseal cortical: solids; Epiphyseal cortical: shells	Isotropic elastic-plastic	Element Elimination

Through impact testing of isolated cadaveric tibias using a custom-built testing apparatus, it is expected that injuries of varying degrees can be created by adjusting the loading parameters (*i.e.*, force, momentum, energy). The regions of the tibia which are most susceptible to fracture as a result of axial compression will be identified, and strain data during fractures collected. It is hoped that by determining a relationship between loading parameters and injury level, an improved injury tolerance equation can be developed in order to identify safe loading limits for the lower leg.

Test surrogates which have the potential to be useful tools for quantifying injury risks will be similarly subjected to impact loading. The currently used Anthropomorphic Test Device, along with Sawbone[®] synthetic tibias will be assessed for their ability to represent cadaveric bone response. A validated finite element model of a representative tibia will be developed based on the results of the experimental testing as a final method for assessing injury risk. This model will be correlated to experimental data from impact tests. This will allow for further loading mechanisms to be analyzed without the costly and time consuming need for cadaveric testing, and can be used for future survivability analyses.

This research will provide further characterization of the shank and its material properties and fracture mechanisms. It will be used to define injury tolerance levels for occupants subjected to anti-vehicle land mines, which will be used in the development of protection systems, and ultimately to reduce lifestyle changing injuries and the need for traumatic amputations.

1.8 OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The objectives of this thesis were:

1. To develop a testing apparatus that would allow ATD, cadaveric, and synthetic tibias to be subjected to various impact loads with momentum/energy being controlled independently of force;
2. To experimentally determine an injury criterion for the isolated tibia specific to short-duration high-force axial loading scenarios;
3. To investigate the applicability of the ATD and Sawbone[®] synthetic bone model for injury prediction; and
4. To develop a finite element model of a representative cadaveric specimen using computed tomography scans, and to directly compare it to experimentally-obtained data.

The corresponding hypotheses were:

1. An apparatus could be developed that would allow impacts to be applied with different energies, momentums, forces, and impulses, in order to vary these parameters independently.
2. The force tolerance of the tibia would be higher than previously reported whole-leg studies due to the shorter duration and isolation from other bones, and the injury tolerance of the tibia would be dependent on an additional parameter such as kinetic energy or momentum.

3. The ATD would be useful for measuring loads, but not for predicting fractures.

The synthetic bone model would be too weak to be considered a biofidelic representation of the cadaveric tibia.

4. A finite element model of a cadaveric bone could be developed that matched the experimental tests in fracture pattern and location, load, load duration, and cortical bone strains.

1.9 THESIS OVERVIEW

This thesis is written in an integrated article format. Chapter 2 describes the testing apparatus that was developed and validated to allow impacts to be applied to specimens, along with the associated instrumentation. Chapter 3 outlines the experimental study that was conducted on cadaveric tibias to develop an axial injury criterion, with a comparison to ATD measured outputs. Chapter 4 describes the corresponding experimental study that was conducted on synthetic tibias to assess their ability to represent cadaveric bones. In Chapter 5 the methods that were used to create a finite element mesh from Computed Tomography scans are presented. Chapter 6 presents the finite element model that was generated and evaluated for a representative cadaveric tibia. Chapter 7 summarizes the conclusions of this thesis, as well as discusses potential future work related to these studies.

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CHAPTER 2 – Development of a Pneumatic Test Apparatus

***Overview:** This chapter details the development and validation of the custom-built testing apparatus to be used for the experimental studies found in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4.²*

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Numerous previous studies have quantified tolerance values for lower leg injuries (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001; Funk *et al.*, 2002; Griffin *et al.*, 2001; Seipel *et al.*, 2001; Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). Based on the work of Yoganandan *et al.* (1996), NATO (2007) has adopted a standard for vehicle mine testing to be a maximum axial compressive load of 5.4 kN. This force value, however, was determined from cadaveric tests performed to mimic a car crash event (slower in duration than AV mine events), (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Yoganandan *et al.*, 1997). It is therefore desirable to investigate the appropriateness of this load value for controlled short-duration high-impulse scenarios.

AV mine blast events have been shown to occur between 3 – 10 ms, and have been simulated in the range of 5 – 12 m/s (Bir *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2001). Axial tibia injuries have been shown in previous studies to occur for forces up to 12 kN (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). These parameters comprise the range for investigation in the current study. In addition to force, the current authors have postulated that impact velocity may be a secondary and important injury factor, as it influences both momentum

² A version of this work has been published: Quenneville CE, Fraser GS, and Dunning CE. (2010). Development of an Apparatus to Produce Fractures From Short-Duration High-Impulse Loading With an Application in the Lower Leg, *Journal of Biomechanical Engineering* (132): 014502.

and energy imparted to the lower leg. Therefore, it is of interest to be able to impart a range of impact forces with varied velocity levels to examine the possibility of velocity-dependency.

In order for the effect of these factors on injury tolerance to be examined, a controllable test apparatus is required. The devices used to conduct the previous studies were either pendulum or piston-driven (Section 1.5.3). Some specimens were mounted on bearings, and free to move following impact (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996), while others had the knee rigidly held (Owen, 2001; Funk *et al.*, 2002). Instrumentation on the test devices often included load cells, which could be located between the impactor and the foot (Funk *et al.*, 2002) or at the proximal mounting of the knee (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). The high-impulse loading being examined in the current study achieves higher speeds and forces over shorter durations than the previous studies, and as such a robust and controllable specialized test apparatus instrumented to fully quantify the events is required.

The purpose of this study was to design and develop a testing apparatus that applies controlled impulse loads over a large range of magnitudes and velocities to cadaveric, synthetic, or Anthropomorphic Test Device (ATD) tibias; and to evaluate the capability of this system to recreate an AV mine blast scenario.

2.2 TEST APPARATUS

The apparatus described in this chapter is composed of several systems (Figure 2.1). The mechanical structure consists of the testing area, and is operated using a system of pneumatics. Electronic instrumentation on the structure is used to collect data using a

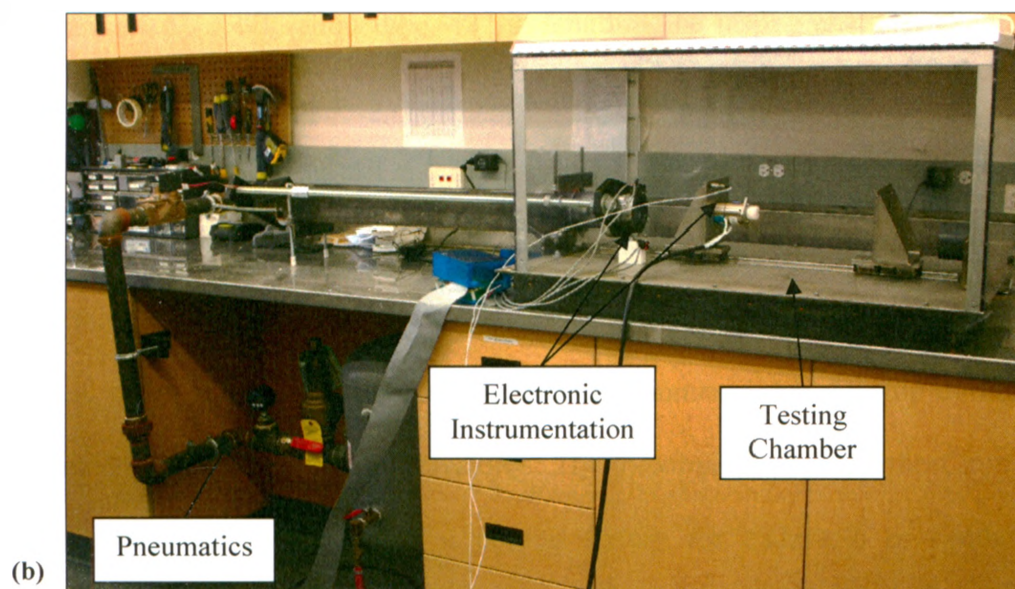
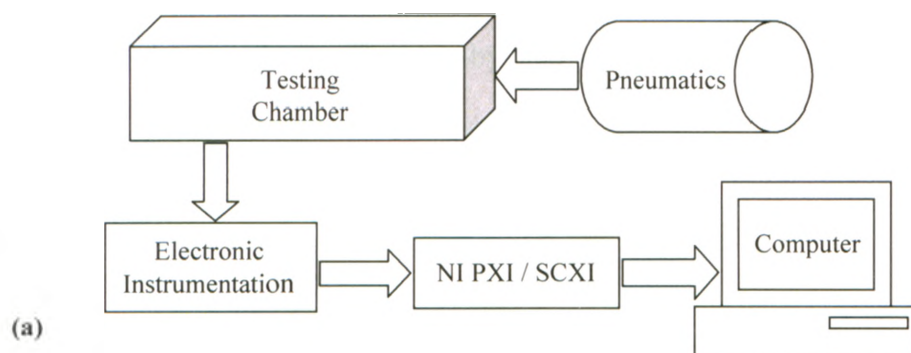


Figure 2.1: Test Apparatus Systems

A schematic (a) and photograph (b) of the test apparatus are given. Tests were conducted within the mechanical structure, which operated off a pneumatic system. Electronic instrumentation on the structure was measured using a National Instruments (NI) PXI data acquisition system complete with a SCXI 1010 chassis, and recorded on a computer.

National Instruments data acquisition system (NI – PXI 1050 and SCXI 1010) via a computer and custom-written LabVIEW[®] programming. Each of the subsystems will be discussed in detail below. The step-by-step operation of the apparatus is detailed in Appendix C.

2.2.1 *MECHANICAL STRUCTURE*

The apparatus consists of a pneumatic system connected to a testing chamber via a 3” diameter Lexan[®] acceleration tube, 42” in length. The testing chamber (Figure 2.2) is made of a 24” x 36” stainless steel sheet surrounded by protective Lexan[®] shielding. This sheet supports a linear rail and ball bearing system, which connects to two brackets used to support both ends of a test specimen in a horizontal orientation (see Appendix D for Technical Drawings). Each bracket is attached to two bearings separated by 1” using a plate in order to counteract the strong bending moments that develop during impact, thus protecting the bearings from breaking. The proximal bracket (furthest from impact) has attachment points for either a potting fixture for cadaveric or synthetic bone specimens, or an angled support for an ATD lower leg (Figure 2.3). The details of the design of the angled support can be found in Restorick (2007). The distal bracket, which receives the impulse, is covered with a piece of ½” urethane foam ($E = 2.5 \text{ MPa}$) in order to control the duration of load application. The impulse is transferred from the distal bracket to the distal surface of the tibia via an artificial talus made of polyethylene that attaches to the load cell (see section 2.2.3). The mounting plate for the talus allows precise adjustment of the location to best sit within the articular surface of the distal tibia,

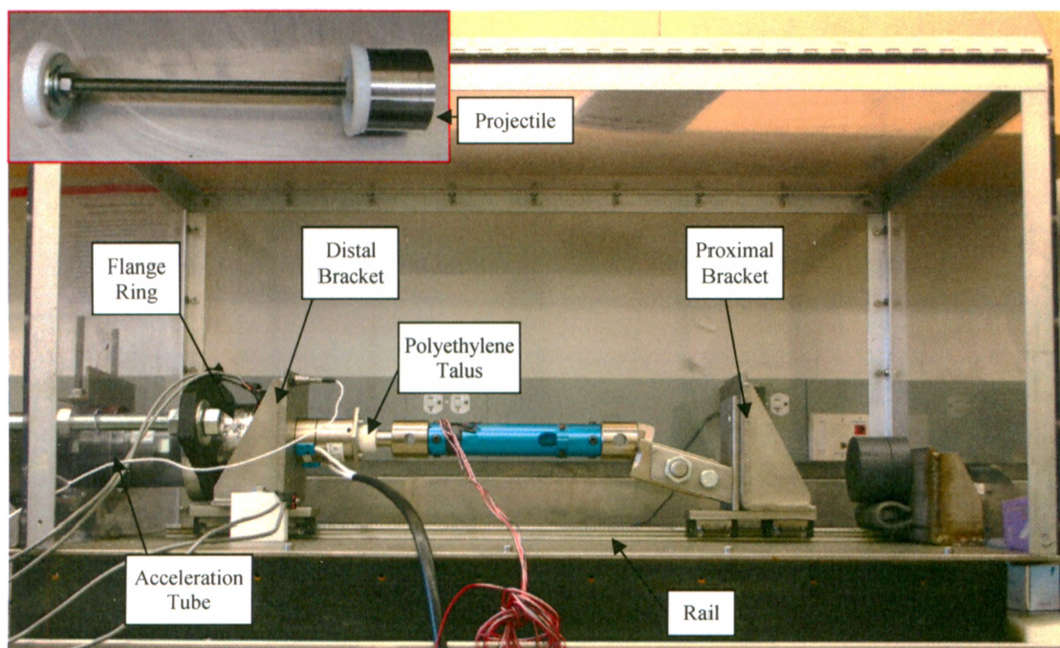


Figure 2.2: Testing Chamber

A projectile (inset) passes through the acceleration tube and strikes the distal bracket. Both the distal and proximal brackets travel on bearings on a rail, and support a lower limb specimen. The impulsive load is passed to the specimen via a polyethylene talus. The flange ring restricts the projectile from fully exiting the tube. The entire chamber is enclosed in Lexan shielding, with a hinged front door for access to the specimen.

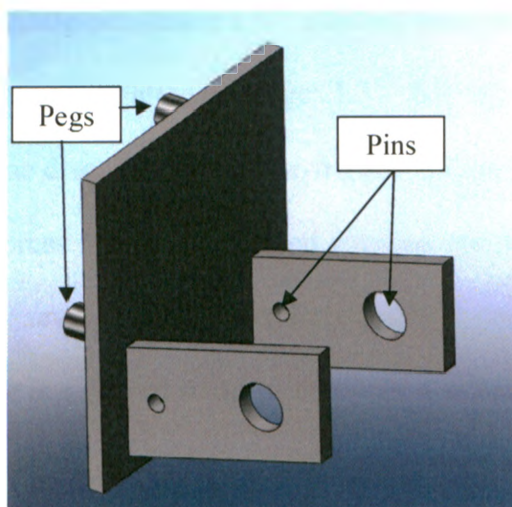


Figure 2.3: Angled Bracket for ATD Attachment

The knee clevis of the ATD lower leg was mounted on the proximal bracket via two pegs on the back of the angled bracket, which held the leg in a horizontal orientation using two pins.

and the edges are rounded to eliminate any sharp contact points that may act as stress concentrators.

A projectile (Figure 2.2, inset) is propelled through the acceleration tube, and supplies the required impulse to the distal end of the specimen. The distance it travels along the tube can be varied between 5 – 85 cm, thereby altering its exit velocity at a given pressure level. This projectile consists of a $\frac{3}{4}$ " stainless steel threaded rod with a number of discs, allowing its mass to be altered (range: 1.3 – 6.8 kg). At the back end of the projectile is a polyethylene disc, ensuring a low-friction sliding fit within the acceleration tube. Due to the large forces that develop when arresting the projectile after impact, the front end is supported by several 3" steel Fender washers instead of a polyethylene disc. The front of the projectile is a curved stainless steel disc that ensures a consistent point of impact. At the exit end of the acceleration tube is an aluminum flange ring, which fits over the end of the acceleration tube, but has a lip that is sized to allow the front of the projectile to strike the bracket, but not fully exit the tube (*i.e.* as a safety precaution). Again, due to the large forces required to arrest the projectile, the flange ring is clamped to the pneumatics using two reinforcing pieces connected by 1" steel threaded rods, effectively sandwiching the acceleration tube between the flange ring and the pneumatic system.

2.2.2 *PNEUMATIC SYSTEM*

The pneumatics supply a fast burst of pressurized air to propel the projectile through the acceleration tube (Figure 2.4). The system uses 100 psi air fed through an electrically-controlled pressure regulator (500-AG, ControlAir Inc., Amherst, NH, USA)

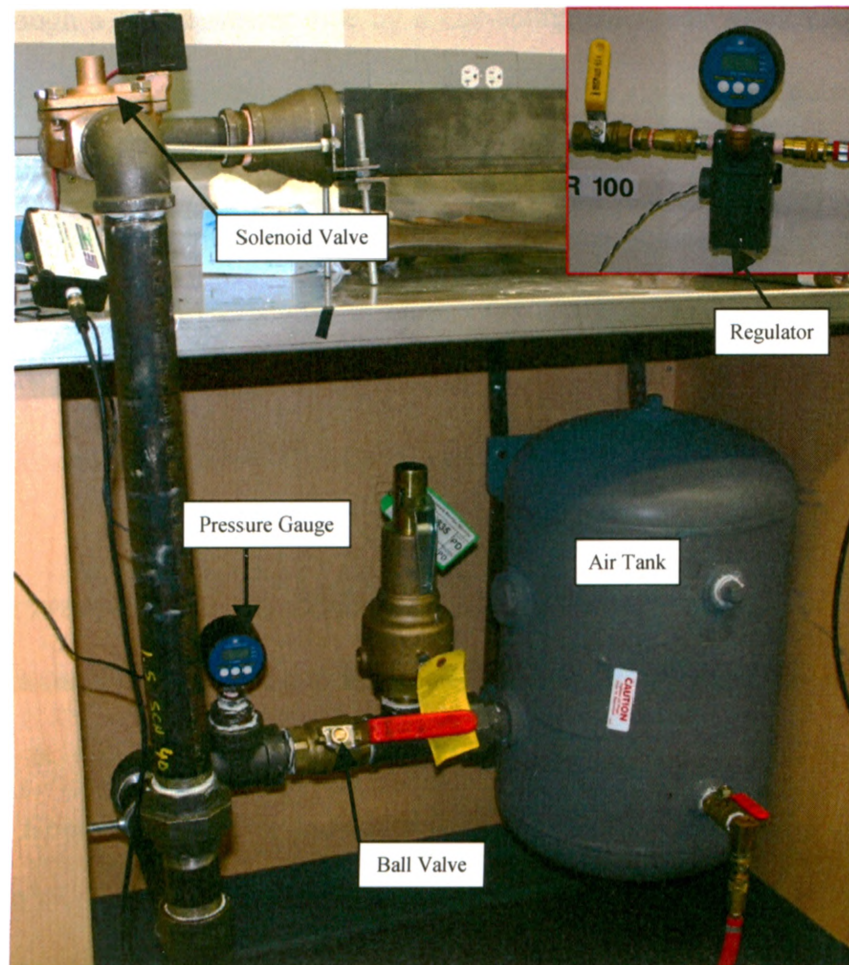


Figure 2.4: Pneumatics of the Test Apparatus

Air at 100 psi is supplied to the regulator, which controls the pressure to the air tank. A ball valve is included for safety purposes, and the pressure of the air prior to release is recorded from the digital pressure gauge. A fast-acting solenoid valve releases the air to the acceleration tube.

to an air tank (capacity = 13 gallons). This regulator operates by providing a pressure that is proportional to an input voltage, which is generated using a LabVIEW[®] program (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) (Appendix E). Compressed air is released from the tank through a 1.5" diameter pipe by a fast-acting solenoid valve (VXR2380, SMC Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) that is electronically triggered via a 5VDC pulse. The signal to activate the valve is generated using a second LabVIEW[®] program (Appendix E) that connected to an electronics control box built by the University Electronics Shop (Appendix F). This 5VDC signal is output for 0.25s, as this provides a consistent pressure for the entire duration of the projectile's travel. Varying the pressure allows further control over the projectile's exit velocity.

2.2.3 *ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENTATION*

The apparatus is instrumented to fully quantify each test (Figure 2.5). Attached to the flange ring at the end of the acceleration tube are two reflective optical sensors (HOA0149, Honeywell Sensing and Control, Golden Valley, MN, USA) that determine the projectile's velocity immediately prior to impact. These optical sensors consist of an infrared (IR) emitting diode and a phototransistor, which responds to the IR light when a reflective object passes in front of it. The velocity of the projectile is determined using a microcontroller program which detects the difference in activation times between the two reflective sensors, and is subsequently divided by their separation distance. This was integrated into the electronics box that was built by the Electronics Shop at The University of Western Ontario (Appendix F). The calculated time is outputted in two ways: firstly, as a voltage signal that was proportional to the time ($1\text{ V} = 4\text{ ms}$), and

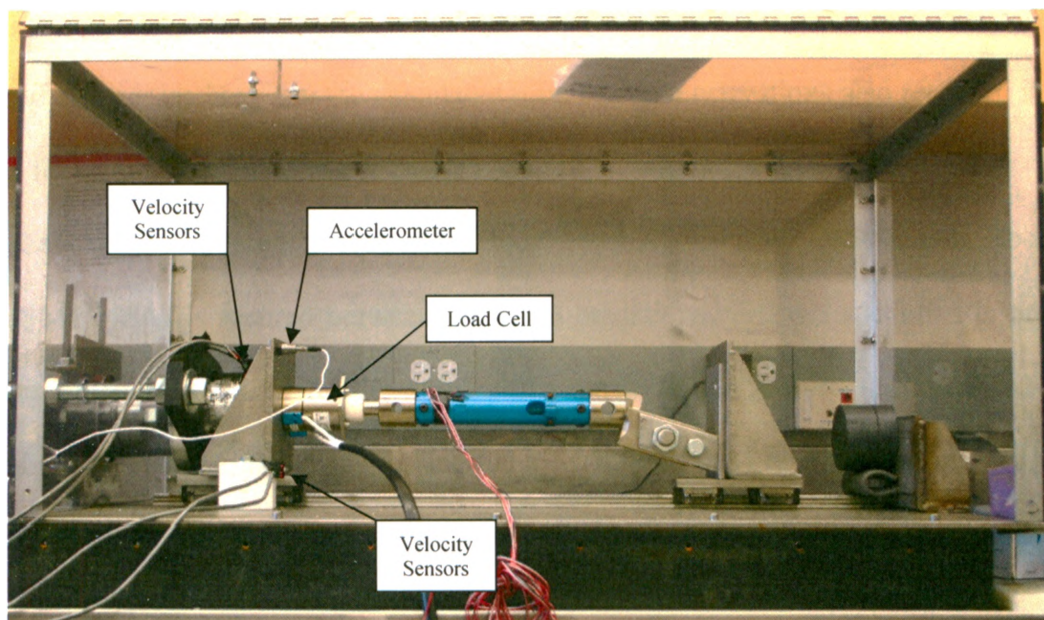


Figure 2.5: Electronic Instrumentation of Apparatus

The flange ring was instrumented with optical sensors to detect the velocity of the projectile immediately prior to impact. A second set of sensors was used to measure the velocity of the distal bracket immediately following impact. The distal bracket was instrumented with a uniaxial accelerometer, and load was transferred to the tibia via a six-degree-of-freedom load cell. All signals were recorded at 15 kHz.

secondly as a 5 V square pulse of 1000x the duration in length. Both methods were collected separately for redundancy. A second set of velocity sensors is attached to the base of the testing chamber via a polyethylene block in order to measure the velocity of the distal bracket immediately following impact. These sensors are connected to a second electronics box, and the calculated time between activations also recorded in both ways for redundancy.

A six degree-of-freedom load cell (Model 1914D, Robert A. Denton, Inc., Rochester Hills, MI, USA) is secured between the distal bracket and the test specimen in order to measure the load imparted to the tibia, with a maximum axial force limit of 22 kN. By locating it adjacent to the specimen inertial effects of the load cell were minimized. Also mounted to the distal bracket is a 500 G uniaxial accelerometer (PCB Piezotronics, Depew, NY, USA), selected based on accelerations reported in Nies (2004).

The signals from the instrumentation (two sets of velocity sensors, load cell, and accelerometer) are fed to the electronics box and passed through a ribbon cable to a data acquisition system (PXI 1050 / SCXI 1010, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA). This operated in conjunction with a custom-written LabVIEW[®] program (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) at a sampling rate of 15 kHz (Appendix E). The entire impact event is also recorded using a black and white high speed camera (Motionscope M2, Redlake Inc., Tucson, AZ, USA) at 1000 frames per second.

2.2.4 **VALIDATION PROTOCOL**

To verify the apparatus' ability to create a suitable impulse (*i.e.* 1 – 12 kN, 5 – 10 m/s, 3 – 10 ms duration) (Wang *et al.*, 2001), a test protocol was developed to examine

the role of the independent variables (pressure, projectile mass, and projectile travel distance) on the dependent variables of interest (projectile exit velocity, force imparted to the distal leg, and acceleration of the distal bracket). Three projectile masses (1.3, 3.9 and 6.8 kg) were each tested at a minimum of 4 different pressures (range: 6 – 17 psi) from three initial starting distances (24, 40 and 56 cm from the end of the acceleration tube). All tests were performed against a Denton ATD lower leg (Robert A. Denton, Inc., Rochester Hills, MI, USA) (Appendix G), which can be exchanged for a cadaveric or synthetic bone in future tests without altering the test setup. The load cells in the ATD tibia were removed and replaced with structural blanks in order to protect the lower load limits of these components. The momentum and kinetic energy that could be applied to a specimen as a result of these impacts were calculated from the measured impact velocity. System repeatability was quantified by the standard deviation in both velocity and force over five trials for a single pressure and travel distance for each mass (8.6 psi and 40 cm, respectively). A custom-written LabVIEW[®] program (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) calculated the momentum and energy of the projectile, as well as filtered the acceleration signal ($f_c = 1000$ Hz) and integrated the force in the axial direction to compute the impulse received by the tibia (Appendix E).

2.3 RESULTS

For all mass-distance combinations, projectile velocity varied quadratically with pressure (Figure 2.6, $R^2 > 0.99$), and force also varied quadratically with pressure (Figure 2.7, $R^2 > 0.96$). Overall, the projectile exit velocities ranged between 1.3 and 10.2 m/s. The axial forces imparted to the load cell ranged between 1.2 and 15.9 kN; however, the

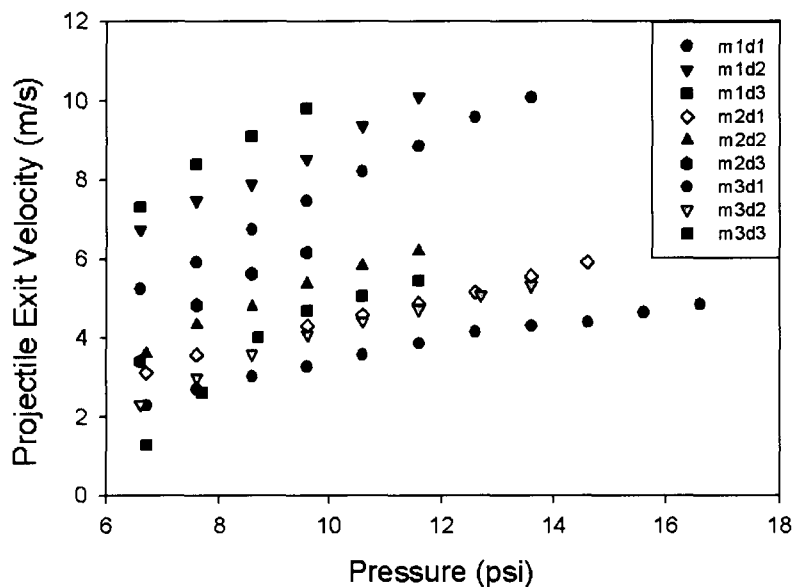


Figure 2.6: Effect of Pressure on Projectile Exit Velocity

Projectile velocity was quadratically dependent on pressure ($R^2 > 0.99$) and is presented for each mass ($m_1 = 1.3$, $m_2 = 3.9$, and $m_3 = 6.8$ kg) over the three travel distances ($d_1 = 24$, $d_2 = 40$, and $d_3 = 56$ cm). Velocity decreased with increased projectile mass and increased with distance.

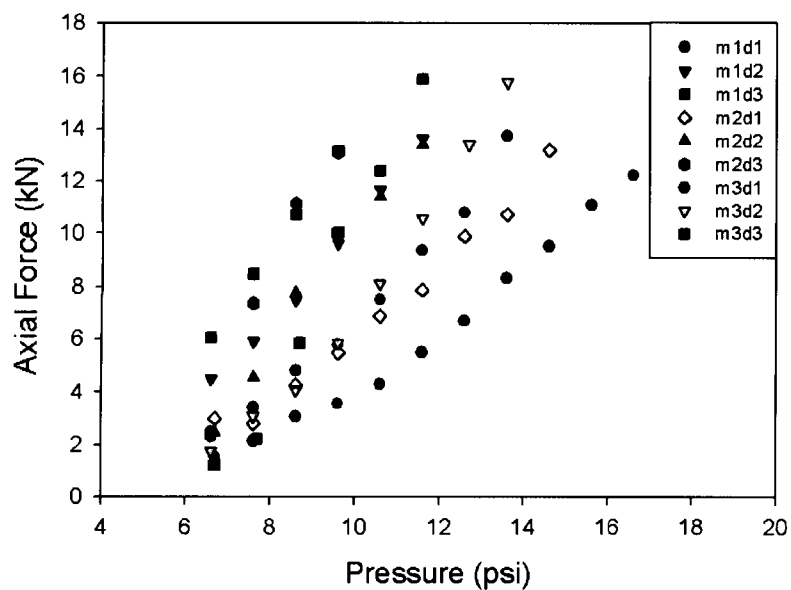


Figure 2.7: Effect of Pressure on Axial Force

Axial force varied quadratically with pressure ($R^2 > 0.96$) for each mass ($m_1 = 1.3$, $m_2 = 3.9$, and $m_3 = 6.8$ kg) over the three travel distances ($d_1 = 24$, $d_2 = 40$, and $d_3 = 56$ cm). Axial force decreased with increased projectile mass and increased with travel distance.

magnitude of force is dependent upon the properties of the specimen being impacted, and as such these values are applicable only to the currently-tested ATD lower leg. Increasing projectile mass for a given pressure decreased both velocity and force; whereas increasing travel distance increased both velocity and force. The standard deviation among repeated trials ranged between 0 – 2% for exit velocity and 2 – 7% for force. The durations of the applied impulses over the entire range of testing were between 2.9 and 13.1 ms. At the repeated tests, the average impact duration was 6.0 ms, with a standard deviation of 0.5 ms.

Figure 2.8 shows that for a given exit velocity, force can be controlled by varying the mass of the projectile. Against the ATD lower leg, a force of 5.4 kN (*i.e.*, the current injury limit for the lower leg) can be achieved at velocities of 3.7, 4.3 or 7.0 m/s for the masses tested. Similar relationships are achieved when examining force versus momentum applied to the leg (Figure 2.9), with momentums being created between 6.8 and 37.1 Ns. For the current injury limit of a force of 5.4 kN, momentums can be created at 9.1, 16.6, and 24.7 Ns (with the highest being achieved using the heaviest mass). This allowed a 63% variation in momentum applied to the specimen. These momentums created corresponding impulses (as measured by integrating the force-time curve from the load cell) that ranged from 1.9 to 14.7 Ns.

Kinetic energies that were imparted to the leg ranged from 5.6 to 101.0 J. Figure 2.10 graphs kinetic energy versus impact force, which has a quadratic relationship ($R^2 > 0.97$) and was dependent on projectile mass but not travel distance. The current injury standard of 5.4 kN could be generated with kinetic energies of 32.5, 35.5, or 46.1 J for the current masses tested.

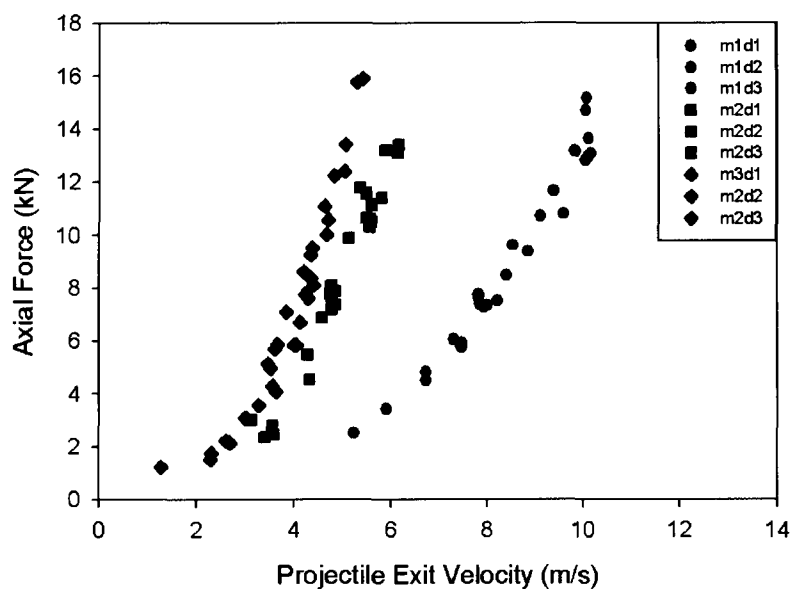


Figure 2.8: Effect of Projectile Exit Velocity on Axial Force

Axial force was quadratically dependent on projectile velocity ($R^2 > 0.97$) for each mass ($m1 = 1.3$, $m2 = 3.9$, and $m3 = 6.8$ kg) over the three travel distances ($d1 = 24$, $d2 = 40$, and $d3 = 56$ cm). Axial force increased for a given exit velocity with increasing projectile mass, but was unaffected by travel distance.

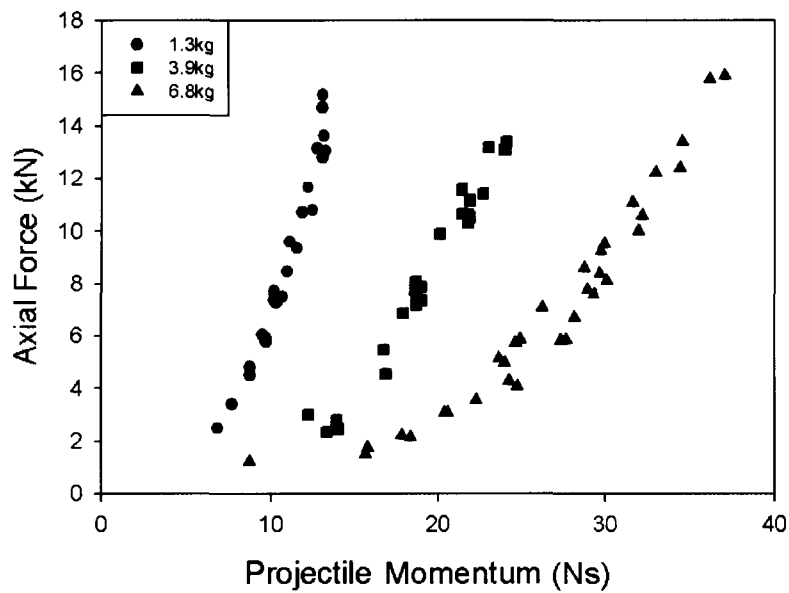


Figure 2.9: Effect of Projectile Momentum on Axial Force

Axial force was quadratically dependent on projectile momentum ($R^2 > 0.95$). The highest momentum for a given force was achieved using the heaviest projectile mass.

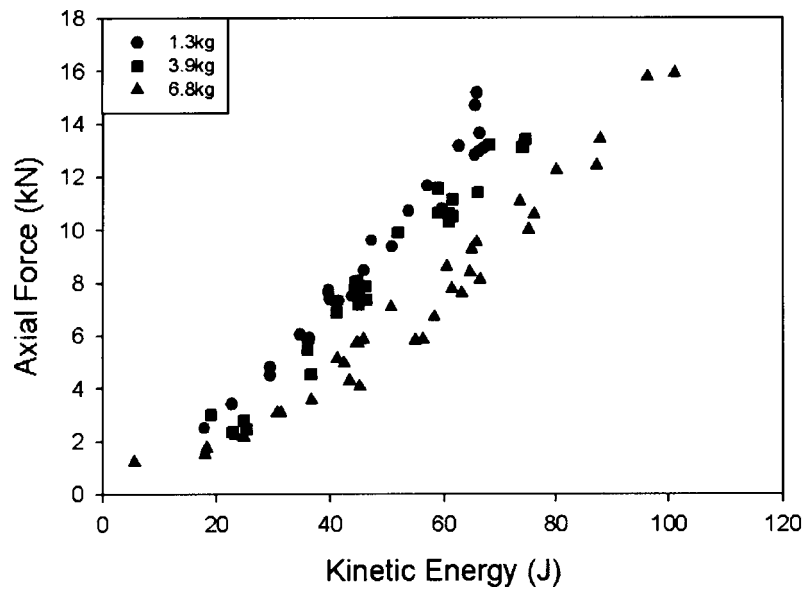


Figure 2.10: Effect of Kinetic Energy on Axial Force

Axial force was quadratically dependent on kinetic energy ($R^2 > 0.97$).

The relationship was dependent on projectile mass, but not on distance.

Distal bracket velocities ranged from 0.46 m/s to 2.28 m/s (Figure 2.11), and were linearly related to exit velocity, for a given mass ($R^2 > 0.90$). As mass increased, the distal bracket velocity for a given exit velocity increased, due to the increased momentum input to the system.

While accelerations were collected, they were lower than previously anticipated (ranging from 0.25 to 11.01 G), and were therefore highly unreliable and inconsistent. It is hypothesized that this is the result of working in the lowest portion of the range of the accelerometer. As such, acceleration data are not presented here.

2.4 DISCUSSION

Lower leg damage resulting from high-impulse loading can be lifestyle-altering. By properly defining thresholds, these devastating injuries may be avoided through the design of appropriate protective measures. This device is an important tool in this assessment, as it will allow experimental tests covering a span of impulse levels to be conducted in a controlled environment, correlating injuries to applied loading.

A number of previous systems have been used to investigate the injury tolerance of the lower limb. These systems were typically operated at slower velocities (2.2 to 7.6 m/s) (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Funk *et al.*, 2002) than are anticipated to be required in the current research. These studies have also not reported load durations that occurred during their testing. McKay (2008) identified that impact velocity is a critical factor and found that 8.4 m/s and 10.8 m/s produces a 10% and 50% probability of severe leg injury, respectively. However, further details on this (including impact duration and injury location) have yet to be published.

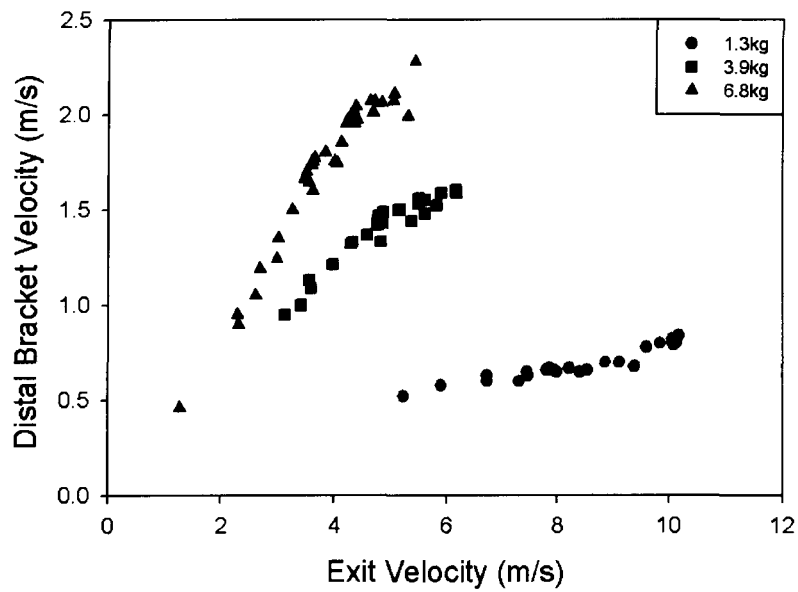


Figure 2.11: Relationship Between Exit Velocity and Distal Bracket Velocity

Distal bracket velocity was linearly dependent on exit velocity and projectile mass (due to momentum balance) ($R^2 > 0.90$).

For indirect mine blast events in particular, velocities are known to be approximately 5 - 12 m/s (Manseau and Keown, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2001) and current injury limits suggest forces must be below 5.4 kN (NATO/PfP, 2006). Others have shown lower leg injuries to occur for axial forces between 4.5 and 10.1 kN (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). Validation of this device shows that it is capable of producing impulse events within the range of these parameters in a controlled, repeatable manner.

While the lower velocity and force limits of this device have been defined within this testing protocol, the upper limits have not. By further increasing the pressure and/or distance to the system's maximums (60 psi and 85 cm, respectively), the device can impart larger forces at higher velocities, but this could not be tested without exceeding the safe operating limits of the load cell. The accelerometer used in the present study was selected for a high level of accelerations, based on the acceleration limits proposed in the Lower Leg Threshold (Figure 1.9). Accelerations attained in the present study were much lower than anticipated, resulting in low-quality signals being collected.

This device is able to apply impact loads to specimens over a wide range of forces, velocities and momentums. Tests over longer loading durations could be performed by increasing the thickness of the foam on the distal bracket, which would allow for simulations of various alternate injury events. This apparatus will serve as a powerful tool for linking human injuries to the outputs obtained from an Anthropomorphic Test Device, the current standard for injury prediction. It will also be useful for evaluating potential surrogates such as synthetic bones for studies of these events. It will be used in future studies to quantify the fracture strength of cadaveric tibias (Chapter 3) and develop an injury criterion specifically for these short-duration high-impulse events.

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CHAPTER 3 – Injury Tolerance Criteria for Short-Duration Axial Impulse Loading of the Tibia

Overview: This chapter details the experimental study conducted to quantify the injury tolerance of the isolated cadaveric tibia. Using the apparatus from Chapter 2, injury parameters such as force, momentum and energy were examined. The results from this study will be used for the assessment of surrogates such as the Sawbone[®] synthetic tibia, evaluated in Chapter 4.³

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Axial loading of the lower leg during short-duration impulse loading events, such as ejection seat and parachute landings, or in-vehicle landmine blasts, can cause significant lower leg injuries. While these injuries typically are not life-threatening, they can lead to long-term impairment or the need for lower leg amputation (Radonic *et al.*, 2004; Medin *et al.*, 1998). To date, most of the research investigating the axial injury tolerance levels of the lower limb has been conducted by the car crash industry (e.g. Funk *et al.*, 2002; Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996). Impulsive events of interest to the current investigation achieve higher forces over shorter durations than car crashes (< 10 ms vs. > 100 ms) (van der Horst *et al.*, 2005), and as such, investigation into the applicability of the current injury criterion is required.

³ A version of this work has been submitted for publication: Quenneville CE, McLachlin SD, Fraser GS, and Dunning CE. Injury Tolerance Criteria for Short-Duration Axial Impulse Loading of the Tibia. *Journal of Trauma, Injury, Infection and Care*, September 2009, and was presented at the American Society of Biomechanics Meeting, University Park, PA, USA, August 2009.

Several previous studies have attempted to identify such injury tolerance levels for the shank by developing various lower leg models (Funk *et al.*, 2002; Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Griffin *et al.*, 2001; Kuppa *et al.*, 2001; Seipel *et al.*, 2001). These studies, using post-mortem human specimens, proposed peak axial force criteria ranging from 2.4 kN (Seipel *et al.*, 2001) to 5.5 kN (Funk *et al.*, 2002), corresponding to a 10% risk of fracture. The current standard used for assessing lower leg risk to short-duration impulsive loading comes from protective measures for anti-vehicular (AV) landmines (NATO, 2007) and uses the risk curve generated by Yoganandan *et al.* (1996). This is a maximum axial compressive load of 5.4 kN, as measured with an Anthropomorphic Test Device (ATD), which corresponds to a 10% risk of moderate injury in cadaveric subjects. This force value, however, gives no indication of the duration of load application (*i.e.*, impulse). As well, this load value was taken from cadaveric tests and directly applied to ATD measurements, with no adjustment for the difference in stiffness and load response between the ATD and cadaveric specimens. It should be noted that these previous studies used whole lower-leg specimens, and as such fractures occurred in areas including the calcaneus, talus, and tibia. The variation in strength of these bones, combined with the degrees of freedom involved in consistently orienting specimens for axial loading suggests that these injury criteria may not accurately represent the tolerance of the tibia alone.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the applicability of the current injury standard to short-duration high-impulse loading scenarios, specifically for the tibia. Through the use of paired specimens, other potential factors controlling injury risk will be examined. The hypotheses of this study were: 1) that the injury tolerance of the

isolated tibia to short-duration axial loading is higher than in previous studies, and 2) that secondary parameters such as momentum or kinetic energy are significant for fracture tolerance in addition to force.

3.2 SPECIMENS

Impact testing was conducted on fourteen (*i.e.*, seven pairs) fresh-frozen isolated cadaveric tibias stripped of all soft tissues, from males with a mean age of 48 ± 5 years (range: 41 – 57 years). The mean height of donors was 184.6 ± 6.3 cm, and the mean body mass was 80.0 ± 19.0 kg (see Table H.1 for donor information). Paired specimens were used to allow side-by-side comparison of the force-momentum-kinetic energy relationships. Specimens were tested within eight hours of being thawed.

Each tibia was supported in a vertical orientation with the proximal end centered within a section of 4" PVC tube (Figure 3.1). Proper alignment was achieved based on the anterior ridge of the tibia at mid-shaft and the center of the medial malleolus being aligned with laser levels attached to the potting fixture at 90° to one another. The proximal end of the tibia was then embedded in cement to a depth of 2", and allowed to cure. The anterior laser line was transcribed onto the surface for alignment of strain gauges, and the PVC pot flipped end-for-end and the void in the cement beneath the specimen was filled in and levelled with more cement. Each potted specimen was then weighed.

Specimens were instrumented with tri-axial stacked strain gauge rosettes (C2A-13-125WW-350, Vishay Micro-Measurements, Raleigh, NC, USA) along the anterior line as transcribed from the laser in order to characterize the strain patterns during impact (see

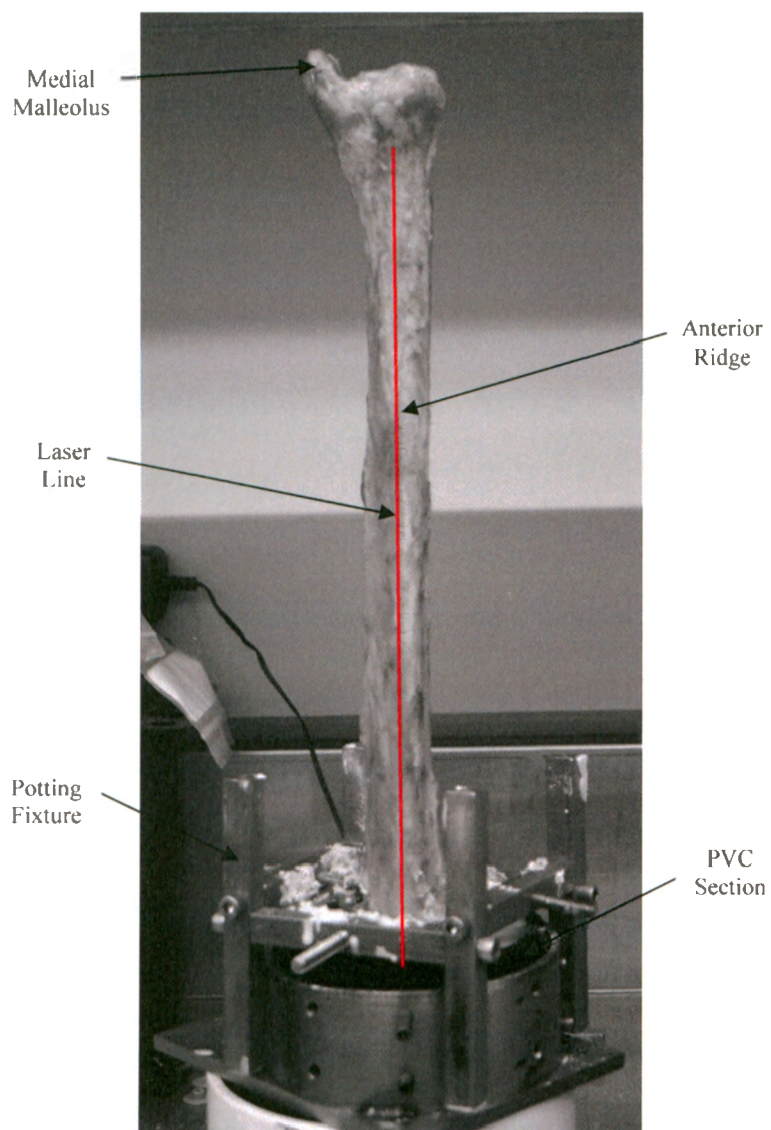


Figure 3.1: Alignment and Potting

Each tibia was supported vertically using a potting fixture, aligned using a laser level based on anatomical landmarks, and embedded in a section of PVC pipe using cement. The anterior laser line was then transcribed onto the surface of the bone.

Appendix I for application protocol). Three rosettes were located distally, with the first being located 6 mm from the tibial plafond, and the second and third similarly spaced with 6 mm gaps between gauges (Figure 3.2). A fourth rosette was located approximately 1 cm from the surface of the cement at the proximal end, in order to determine strain changes over the length of the bone. The centre gauge of each rosette was aligned with the anterior laser from potting, and each gauge was independently wired into a quarter-bridge completion circuit (SCXI 1314, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA).

3.3 TEST PROTOCOL

The impacting apparatus previously designed and validated to apply short-duration axial forces to the tibiae with varying momentum levels (Chapter 2) was used. The distal end of the tibia rested against an artificial talus machined from polyethylene attached to the load cell on the distal bracket. A travel distance of 40 cm was used for all tests, and the distal bracket was covered with a ½" piece of urethane foam to control the loading impact duration.

The force that develops during an impact is dependent on the stiffness of the object being struck, and so force levels are variable and unpredictable for cadaveric bones. Therefore kinetic energy levels of the projectile were used as the target inputs as these were controllable. To determine appropriate loading levels, preliminary testing was conducted on two pairs of specimens (Protocol 1), which impacted specimens in energy increments of 50 J (Table 3.1a). To vary the momentum applied to the specimens by the projectile, and allow examination of this variable as an injury risk factor, one specimen

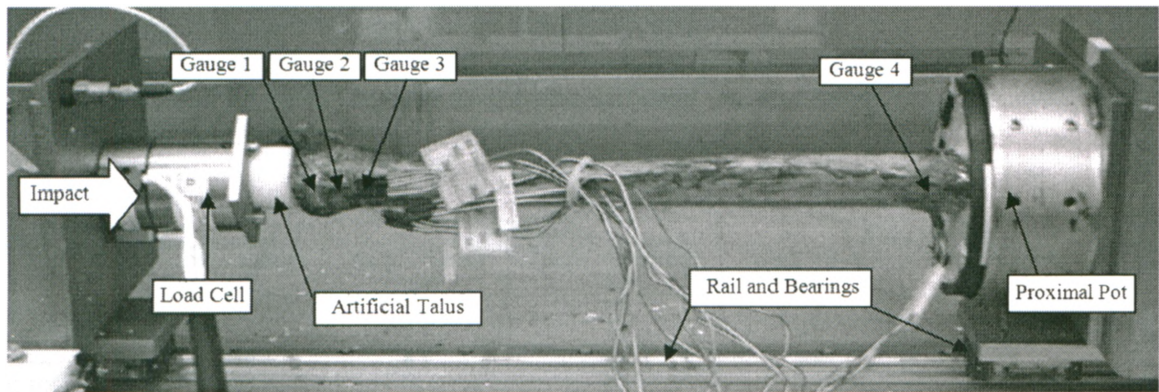


Figure 3.2: Instrumented Cadaveric Tibia in Testing Configuration

Each tibia was embedded proximally in cement in the proximal pot, and instrumented along the anterior line with triaxial strain gauge rosettes. The three distal gauges (Gauges 1-3) were spaced 6 mm apart, and the proximal gauge (Gauge 4) was 1 cm from the cement surface. The impact load (shown with an arrow) was transferred to the distal articular surface via a polyethylene talus mounted on a load cell.

Table 3.1: (a) Protocol 1, and (b) Protocol 2

Kinetic energy levels were selected as the target inputs, as they were controllable and would result in different momentums for the two projectile masses.

(a)

Test #	Target Energy (J)	3.9 kg Projectile		6.8 kg Projectile	
		Target Velocity (m/s)	Target Momentum (Ns)	Target Velocity (m/s)	Target Momentum (Ns)
1	50	5.1	20	3.8	26
2	100	7.2	28	5.4	37
3	150	8.8	34	6.6	45
4	200	10.1	39	7.7	52
5	250	11.3	44	8.6	58

(b)

Test #	Target Energy (J)	3.9 kg Projectile		6.8 kg Projectile	
		Target Velocity (m/s)	Target Momentum (Ns)	Target Velocity (m/s)	Target Momentum (Ns)
1	150	8.8	34	6.6	45
2	250	11.3	44	8.6	58
3	300	12.4	48	9.4	64

from each pair was tested using a 3.9 kg (light) projectile mass, and the contralateral tested using a 6.8 kg (heavy) projectile mass, with right-left selection randomized. This protocol suggested that failure (defined as a fracture separating the tibia into at least two distinct pieces) would occur in the 200 – 250 J range, with two specimens failing at 200 J and two specimens failing at 250 J. Protocol 2 was then developed using the same two masses, which impacted the remaining five pairs of specimens in energy increments of 100 J, starting at 150 J (Table 3.1b). This was selected in an effort to limit each specimen to only two impacts (one pre-fracture and one at failure), minimizing any cumulative damage effects.

As injury risk is often assessed using an ATD, and the current protective standard is based on ATD loading, a Hybrid III Anthropomorphic Test Device tibia (Denton ATD Inc., Rochester Hills, MI, USA) was similarly impacted to define its velocity-force response curve. The relationship between cadaveric response and this standard injury assessment tool was thus quantified.

Impulse to the tibia was calculated by integrating the force-time profile from the load cell over the impact duration. Results were analyzed using paired t-tests to determine differences in force, momentum and kinetic energy levels at fracture between the two test masses, and a one-way ANOVA was used to determine differences between Protocol 1 and Protocol 2 (50 J and 100 J increments, respectively). Statistical tests were performed with significance defined at $\alpha = 0.05$. A best subsets regression analysis was performed to determine the variables that predicted injury risk and the associated equation. A multivariate Weibull model was used to establish a probability of injury curve based on

the injury risk equation, as well as based on axial force for comparison with previous studies.

3.4 RESULTS

In each specimen, fracture occurred in the distal region (Figure 3.3), and primarily corresponded to damage at the 'C' level of the AO scale (see Section 1.5.2). The force-time curve for a representative specimen is shown in Figure 3.4. The light mass (3.9 kg) caused average peak impact forces of 12563 ± 1982 N, and the heavier mass (6.8 kg) caused average peak impact forces of 12581 ± 2277 N (Figure 3.5). There were no differences in peak force between the two masses tested ($p = 0.98$). The two pairs that were impacted using Protocol 1 (increasing impacts in 50 J steps) had a peak load that was not different from those impacted using Protocol 2 ($p = 0.80$). Overall impact time durations averaged 3.7 ± 0.9 ms, and imparted an average impulse of 17.6 ± 3.7 Ns to the tibia at failure.

The average impact velocity to cause fracture was 11.0 ± 1.1 m/s for the 3.9 kg mass, which was higher than the 8.4 ± 0.5 m/s for the 6.8 kg mass ($p = 0.03$). These corresponded to impact momentums of 43.0 ± 4.4 Ns and 57.1 ± 3.6 Ns and kinetic energies of 239 ± 45 J and 241 ± 30 J for the light and heavy masses, respectively (Table 3.2). Momentum was different between projectile masses ($p < 0.001$); however, kinetic energy was not ($p = 0.94$).

Principal strains were calculated from the strain gauge rosettes for each test using Eq. 1.7. Many of the gauges were damaged during the fracture strike; as such the principal strains during the 150 J impact tests were averaged for all specimens that survived the

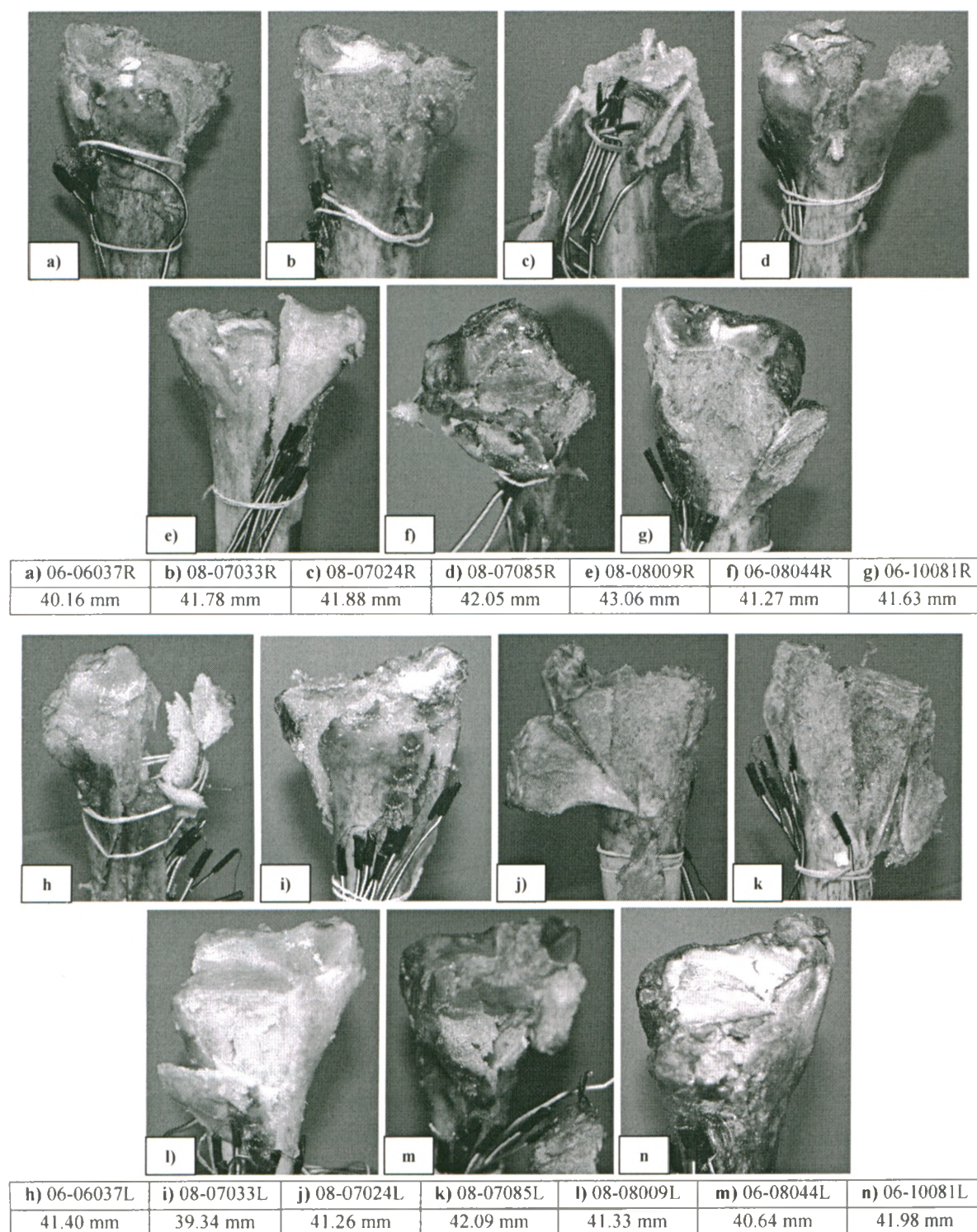


Figure 3.3: All Specimens Post-Fracture

Photos were taken of all specimens, and their distal width measured prior to testing and presented in mm. See Appendix N for width information.

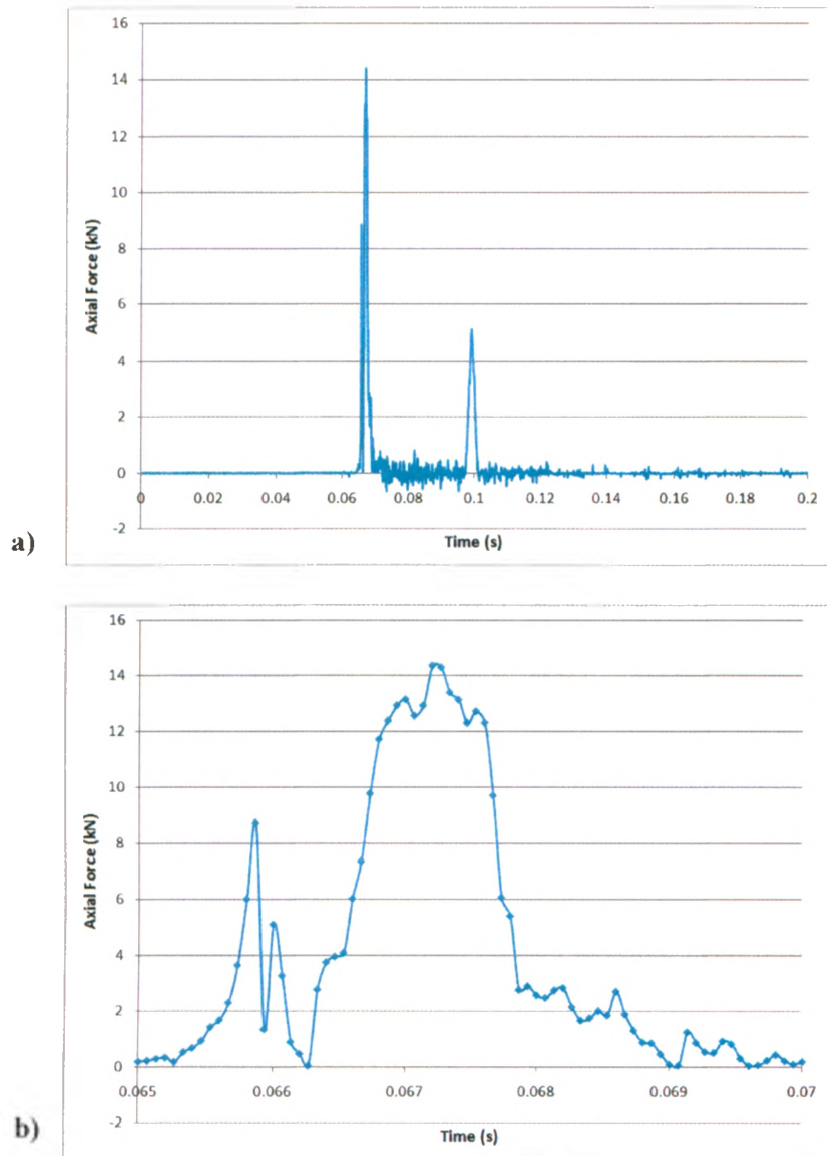


Figure 3.4: Force-Time Curve

Axial force is plotted vs. time for a representative impact test. **a)** Curve for the entire test duration, showing initial strike and the second, smaller strike associated with stopping the moving specimen. **b)** Enlargement of the force during the initial impact event.

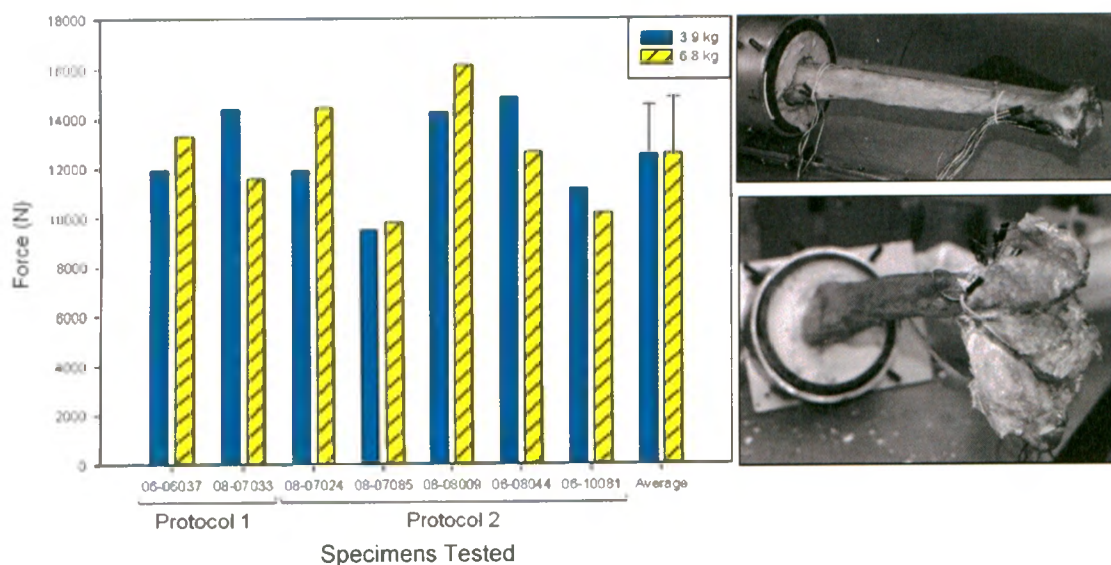


Figure 3.5: Peak Impact Force

Across both protocols the 3.9 kg mass caused average peak impact forces of 12563 ± 1982 N, and the 6.8 kg mass caused average peak impact forces of 12581 ± 2277 N. These forces resulted in substantial distal fractures, as shown to the right (intact, top; fractured, bottom).

Table 3.2: Specimen Data and Fracture Information

Each factor as well as specimen age, height and weight (Appendix H; Table H.1) was examined for statistical significance in failure.

3.9 kg mass	Specimen	Velocity (m/s)	Kinetic Energy (J)	Momentum (Ns)	Force (N)	Impulse (Ns)
1	06-06037	11.08	239.4	43.2	11936	10.4
	08-07033	11.37	252.1	44.3	14375	19.4
2	08-07024	11.00	236.0	42.9	11895	-
	08-07085	11.47	256.5	44.7	9481	12.6
	08-08009	11.29	248.6	44.0	14257	19.6
	06-08044	12.29	294.5	47.9	14831	19.8
	06-10081	8.68	146.9	33.9	11168	18.5
Average (\pmS.D.)		11.03 (1.12)	239.1 (45.0)	43.0 (4.3)	12563 (1982)	16.7 (4.1)

6.8 kg mass	Specimen	Velocity (m/s)	Kinetic Energy (J)	Momentum (Ns)	Force (N)	Impulse (Ns)
1	06-06037	7.63	197.9	51.9	13307	15.2
	08-07033	7.83	208.5	53.2	11586	17.6
2	08-07024	8.60	251.5	58.5	14435	18.5
	08-07085	8.48	244.5	57.7	9791	19.7
	08-08009	8.38	238.8	57.0	16131	25.1
	06-08044	9.18	286.5	62.4	12637	16.8
	06-10081	8.70	257.3	59.2	10182	15.8
Average (\pmS.D.)		8.4 (0.53)	240.7 (29.9)	57.1 (3.6)	12581 (2277)	18.4 (3.3)

trial, less the two with data collection errors ($n = 11$) (Figure 3.6). Principal strains ranged from 0.0002 to 0.0041 strain, and were highest at the second gauge from the distal end (Gauge 2). Individual strain data for each specimen are included in Appendix H (Tables H.2 and H.3).

To determine the most appropriate survival equation, the effect of each variable was tested using a best subsets regression. Factors that were examined included projectile mass, projectile velocity, impact momentum, impact kinetic energy, impact duration, impulse, axial force, donor age, height, and body mass. From these variables, the adjusted R^2 was used to determine the best model, which included the natural log of axial force (F) in Newtons ($p = 0.003$), kinetic energy (KE) in joules ($p < 0.001$), age in years ($p = 0.008$) and height of donor in centimeters ($p = 0.017$) as significant independent variables (Eq. (3.2)).

$$\text{Injury risk} = -2.123 - 0.666 * \ln(F) + 0.0104 * KE + 0.0397 * Age + 0.026 * Height \quad (\text{Eq. 3.2})$$

This model proved to be a good fit of the data (standard $R^2 = 0.73$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.69$). All variables independently contributed to the equation ($p < 0.05$). A Weibull analysis was performed to develop a survivability curve based on this risk equation (Figure 3.7) ($R^2 = 0.95$). As force is usually the primary factor measured during an impact (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Kuppa *et al.*, 2001; Griffin *et al.*, 2001; Funk *et al.*, 2002), a second Weibull analysis was performed to develop a survivability curve for applied axial force only. This indicated that a 10% risk of failure corresponded to a load of 7.9 kN ($R^2 = 0.86$). Previous injury risk equations based on axial force were graphed for comparison (Figure 3.8). Tibia Index values were also computed for both the non-fracture and fracture tests (Table 3.3).

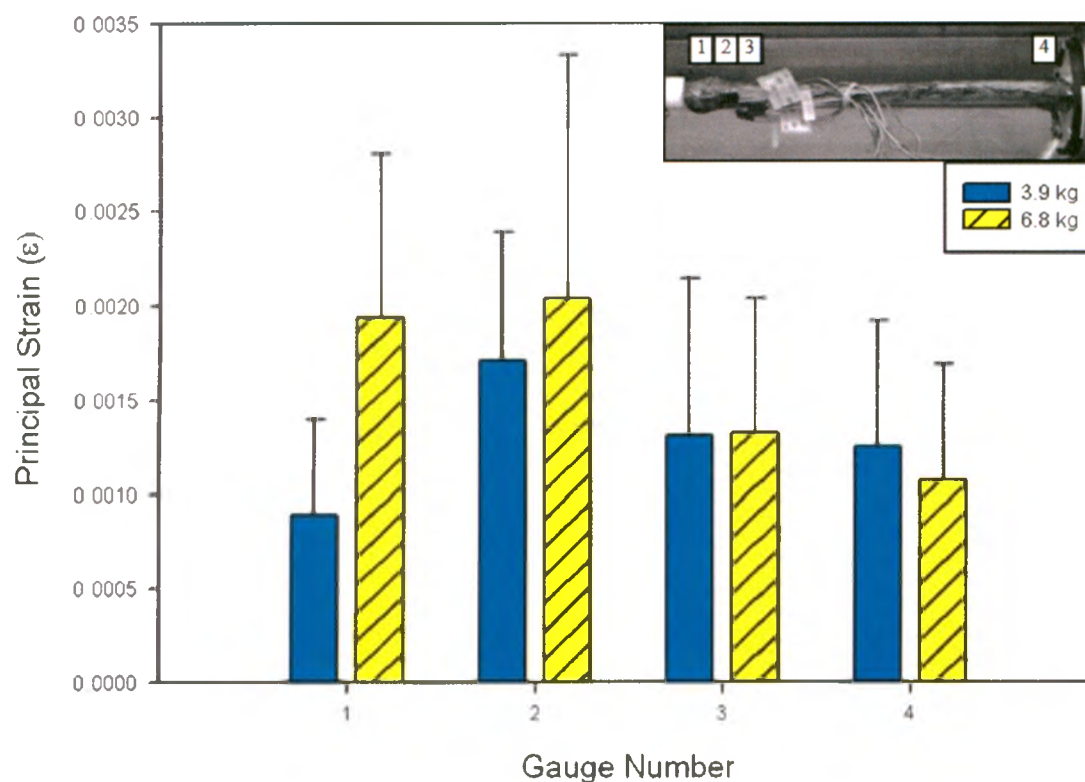


Figure 3.6: Principal Strains at 150 J Impact Tests

Peak strains during the 150 J impact test were averaged for all specimens (except the one which fractured). Strain values and standard deviations are presented for the four levels of gauging (1-3 are distal, and 4 is proximal, as shown in the inset).

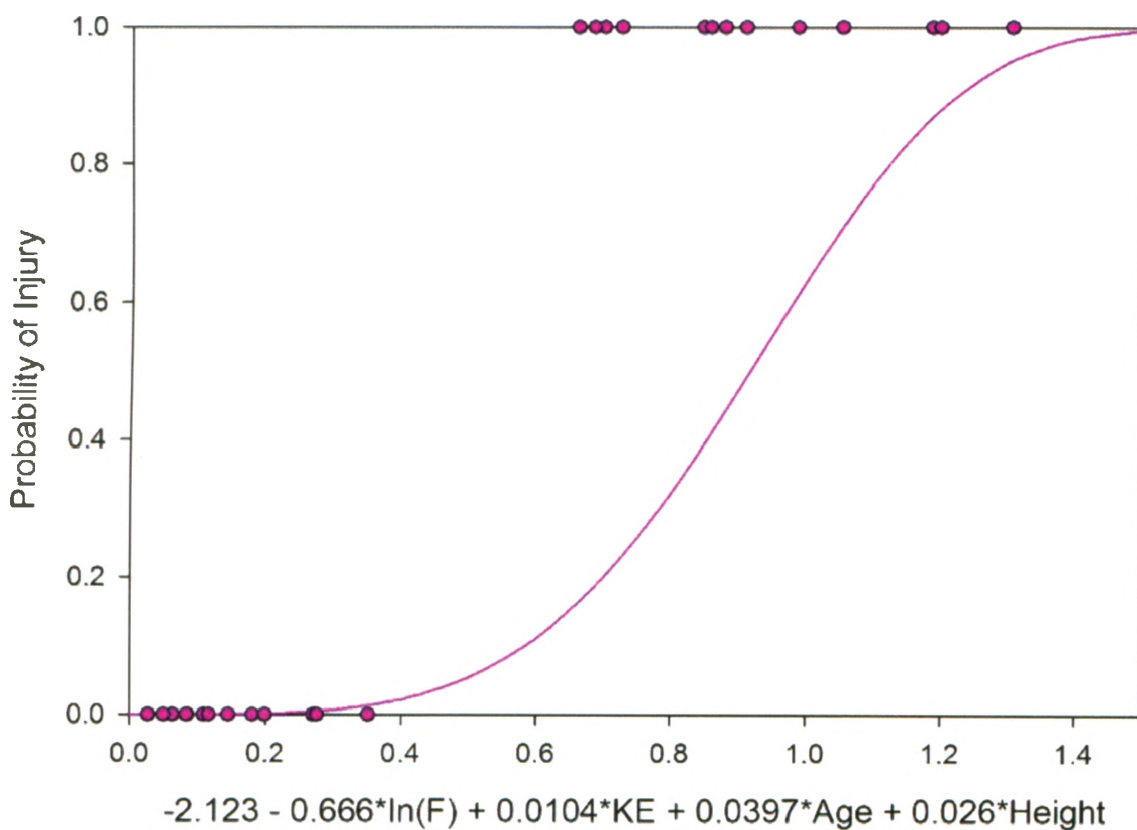


Figure 3.7: Probability Distribution for Injury

Probability of injury is a function of the natural log of axial force (F) in Newtons, kinetic energy (KE) in joules, age of the donor (in years) and height of the donor (in centimeters).

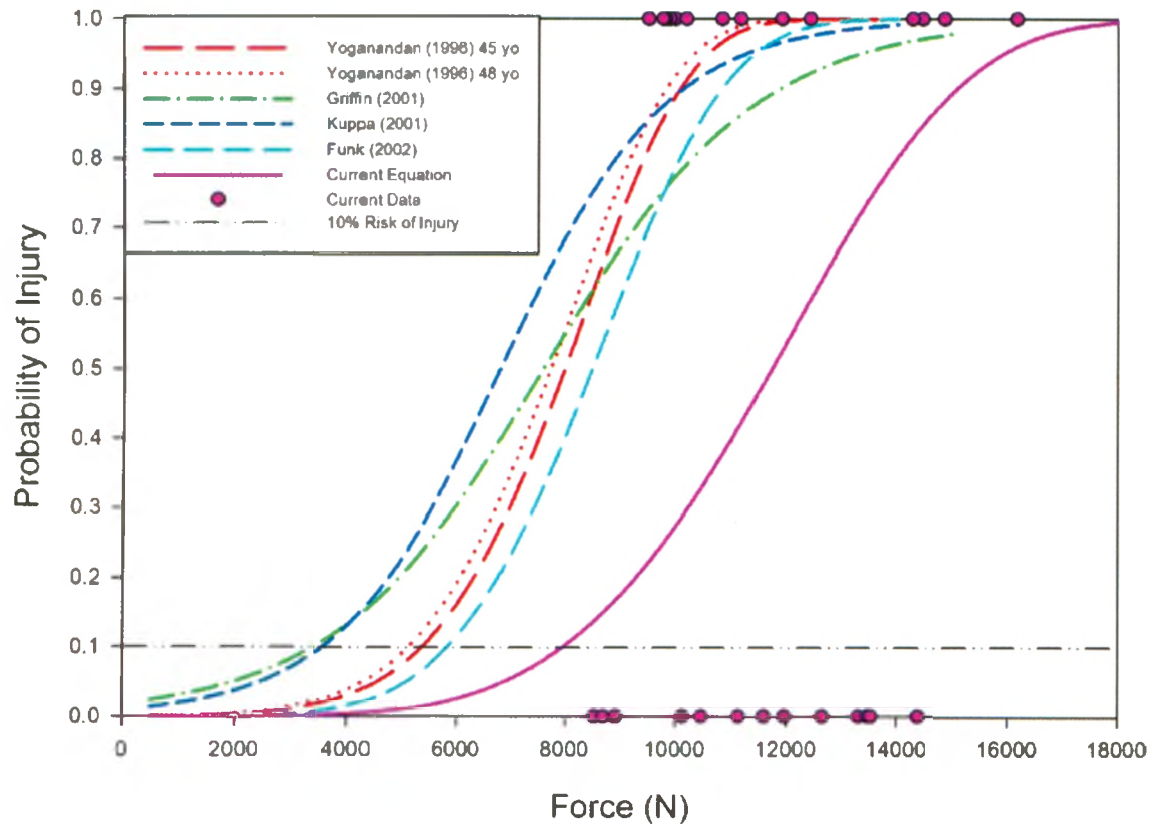


Figure 3.8: Comparison of Injury Risk Equations

Injury probability curves based on force only from previous studies are shown, along with 10% risk of injury line. The current force-based equation was developed from the shown data points using a Weibull analysis.

Table 3.3: Tibia Index Values

TI Values were computed using $F_c = 12$ kN and $M_c = 240$ Nm for both non-fracture and fracture tests.

Specimen	TI (Non-Fracture)	TI (Fracture)
08-07033R	1.48	1.76
08-07033L	1.37	1.27
08-07024L	-	-
08-07024R	1.14	1.66
08-07085R	1.07	1.28
08-07085L	1.19	1.35
08-08009R	1.30	1.86
08-08009L	1.51	1.90
06-08044R	1.94	1.98
06-08044L	1.60	1.22
06-10081L	-	1.37
06-10081R	1.17	1.32

Forces against the ATD measured as much as 2.8 times those measured during cadaveric impacts for the same impact conditions (*i.e.*, projectile mass and velocity). As exact duplication of the test protocol ran the risk of damaging the load cell (load limit = 11 kN), a velocity-force curve was generated for the ATD response at low velocities and extrapolated to the higher levels tested in the cadaveric specimens (Figure 3.9). For the 150 and 250 J tests run in the current study, an ATD would receive loads of approximately 31 kN and 67 kN. The kinetic energy corresponding to the 7.9 kN force limit as measured in a cadaveric tibia was used to predict the analogous forces that would develop in an ATD, and found to be 12.6 kN.

3.5 DISCUSSION

This study subjected pairs of isolated cadaveric tibias to short-duration (< 10 ms) axial impulse loads for the purpose of re-evaluating the current injury criterion. Impact time durations, velocities, and loading rates were consistent with those measured during AV landmine blasts (Wang *et al.*, 2001; NATO, 2007), and fractures were achieved in all specimens. The injuries were mostly of the 'C' level on the AO scale, which is clinically relevant. These tests were conducted on younger, male specimens, representative of the population most frequently exposed to anti-vehicle land mine blasts. This allowed the current injury standard to be examined, and secondary criteria identified for the development of an injury risk curve.

Previous efforts to develop an injury criterion for the lower leg have been conducted on full lower leg specimens. By focusing on isolated tibias, the current study has been able to identify the tolerance of this bone specifically, reducing the degrees of freedom

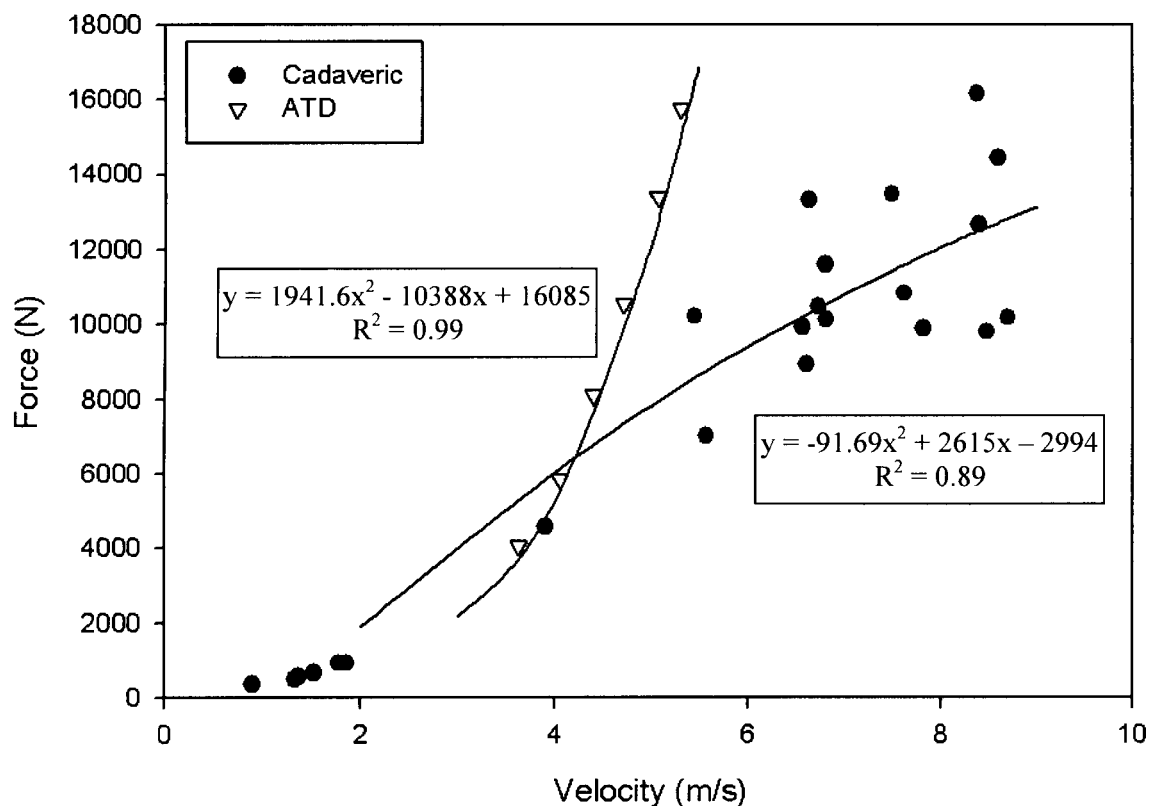


Figure 3.9: Velocity-Force Curves for Cadaveric and ATD Tibias

Non-injurious tests using the 6.8 kg mass were used to extrapolate load response for the cadaveric and ATD tibias for the target energies, as well as the proposed injury criterion of 7.9 kN.

and complexity of alignment that is present in full lower leg testing. However, this study gives no indication of injury risk to bones such as the talus and calcaneus, which are often damaged during these types of loading events. Injury limits that take these into account could therefore be lower, and should be examined in future studies. The impact protocols were designed to minimize the number of strikes to each specimen prior to failure, but there was the potential for cumulative injury effects. However, the lack of statistical difference between the peak forces attained in Protocol 1 (50 J steps), which had twice the number of strikes of Protocol 2 (100 J steps), suggests that the number of strikes likely had no cumulative damaging effects on the specimens.

The peak forces required to cause fractures in the present study were higher than those attained in previous studies designed to simulate car crash injuries. This resulted in a 10% risk of injury corresponding to 7.9 kN; higher than those proposed in previous studies of 5.4 kN (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996), 3.6 kN (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001), 2.7 kN (Griffin *et al.*, 2001), 2.4 kN (Seipel *et al.*, 2001) and 5.5 kN (Funk *et al.*, 2002). Differences between the current and previous results may be partially attributed to testing variations, including impact velocities and masses, anatomical alignment of the lower leg, testing of full lower legs versus isolated tibias, and the use of factors such as age, gender, body mass, and Achilles tension in the development of risk curves (Table 3.4). The inclusion of tibia load cells via osteotomies (Funk *et al.*, 2002) may have also altered the overall response of the tibia, as well as inducing artifactual fractures. Previous studies also gave no indication of injury severity.

Momentum to cause fracture was significantly different between different projectile masses, but kinetic energy was not. The momentums achieved in the present study also

Table 3.4: Summary of Test Parameters From Previous Studies

Study	Impact Velocity (m/s)	Impactor Mass (kg)	Fracture Force (kN)
Yoganandan <i>et al.</i> (1996, 1997)	2.2 – 7.6	24	4.3 – 13.0
Kitagawa <i>et al.</i> (1998)	3	18	4.9 (average)
Seipel <i>et al.</i> (2001)	2.2 – 6.7	24	3.6 – 11.4
Funk <i>et al.</i> (2002)	5	- (piston)	3.8 – 11.9

are on the low end of those reported by Yoganandan *et al.* (1996), which the current authors have calculated to range from 82 – 182 Ns. This variation suggests that fracture is not controlled by a specific momentum level. Kinetic energy at failure had no differences between the light and heavy masses, and was in the same range as those found by Yoganandan *et al.* (1996), which ranged from 139 – 693 J, even though the current study achieved higher fracture forces. The best subsets regression analysis also found kinetic energy to be a significant factor in failure, and as such kinetic energy should be considered an important factor to consider in injury risk assessment, in addition to force. While this may provide a more accurate injury risk curve, kinetic energy is not a factor that is easily or often measured in experimental tests, suggesting additional measurement may be necessary for accurate injury prediction. In the injury risk equation (Eq. 3.2) the coefficient of axial force is negative, which may appear counter-intuitive. This demonstrates the inherent link between force and kinetic energy, as the increase in the kinetic energy term of the equation more than compensates for the negative effect of the force term. This is the first known study to propose the use of kinetic energy and height as terms in an injury risk curve.

Based on the developed injury risk curves in the current study, the accepted injury standard of 5.4 kN used for these events corresponds to a 2% risk of injury. This suggests that the previously adopted force limit may be too conservative for short-duration impacts of the isolated tibia. It is possible that higher forces were tolerated due to the decreased loading duration in the current impact events, and this may indicate that impulse (characterized by integrating the force profile over the impact time) could be an important factor in the injury tolerance of the tibia if compared with car crash data.

Impulse values are included here, but were not reported in previous studies, and so cannot be compared. This would be an important subject for future research on the lower leg, requiring further testing of additional specimens.

The artificial talus used in the present study was the same for each specimen, and had a diameter of 32 mm. This meant that the testing apparatus was consistent among specimens, but may have led to tibia-talus size mismatching. The diameter of each tibia was thus measured to determine if any relationship between size and injury existed, but none was observed. This simplification was therefore determined to be acceptable.

Denton ATD legs are the current method used in a variety of industries to assess injury risk to the lower leg. Due to their increased stiffness, an adjustment factor must be included to relate the measured loads to those which would have developed during impact of human bone. Previous studies have found ATD to cadaveric ratios between 1.8 and 2.8 (Bir *et al.*, 2008; Kuppa *et al.*, 1998). The present study attained a ratio of ATD to cadaveric forces up to 2.8, which agrees with these previous studies. The present study found a 10% risk of tibia injury would register as an ATD force of approximately 12.6 kN, which is 2.3 times the currently used limit of 5.4 kN as measured with an ATD. This new value may be a more appropriate force-based injury criterion when risk is assessed using an ATD. It should be noted, however, that the load cells that are sold with this ATD are not of a large enough capacity to tolerate these loads (maximum of 11.12 kN), and as such would need to be modified in order to protect them from damage. The Tibia Index values computed for both the non-fracture and fracture tests all exceeded the critical value of 1, indicating that this is not a useful criterion for assessing this type of injury risk. The Lower Leg Threshold (LLth) (section 1.5.2.3) was qualitatively

evaluated for the average load duration of 3.7 ms (due to the lack of a published equation for the threshold) to be approximately 13.5 kN. This value is higher than the 7.9 kN recommended in the present study, and as such may be inappropriate for this application.

This study isolated the fracture tolerance of the cadaveric tibia under short-duration (<10 ms) axial impulse loading. For these types of events, it has been shown that higher forces can be withstood prior to fractures occurring, and suggests that a higher injury limit may be acceptable for these loading profiles. It is the first study of its kind to propose the use of kinetic energy and impulse to further define the injury criteria for the lower leg. A revised injury force standard has been proposed for short-duration loading, along with the corresponding load values that would be measured using an ATD for this injury risk level. Significant progress has also been made toward defining energy and impulse-based secondary injury criteria.

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CHAPTER 4 – Evaluation of Synthetic Composite Tibias for Fracture Testing Using Impact Loads

Overview: This chapter details the experimental testing of synthetic composite tibias using the apparatus developed in Chapter 2, and using the methods described in Chapter 3. The results are compared to those from the experimental cadaveric testing to assess their ability to represent the response of natural bone to impact loads causing fracture.⁴

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Composite synthetic bones are widely used in orthopaedic research. They offer many advantages over post-mortem human specimens, including low inter-specimen variability in both geometry and material properties, ready availability, and ease of handling, storage, and disposal. Fourth generation models of Sawbones[®] (Pacific Research Laboratories, Inc., Vashon, WA, USA) are made using a short glass fibre reinforced epoxy resin injected around a core of rigid polyurethane foam (see Figure 1.8). These composite bones have been previously validated to replicate natural bone response at a quasi-static rate (Heiner, 2008).

Fracture studies for the purpose of injury prediction due to impulsive loading are an important area of research that could benefit from the advantages of synthetic bones. For these bones to be an appropriate surrogate, the fracture strength and failure mechanics

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need to be consistent with the natural bone response under impact conditions (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Funk *et al.*, 2002).

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the current fourth generation of Sawbones[®] tibias for fracture tolerance and strain distribution when exposed to short-duration axial impacts. Additionally, the effects of varied impact momentum and energy levels on failure were examined and compared to previous cadaveric data (Chapter 3).

4.2 SPECIMEN PREPARATION

Impact testing was conducted on nine large Sawbone[®] tibias (Model #3402). Eight of the specimens were the manufacturer's standard model, with an open canal and hole in the distal cortex. The ninth bone had the canal filled with polyurethane foam and the distal hole patched with epoxy resin by the manufacturer, to allow the effect of the stress concentration of the canal to be examined. Each tibia was anatomically aligned, potted in cement, and instrumented with triaxial strain gauge rosettes in the same method as in Chapter 3 (Figure 4.1).

4.3 TEST PROTOCOL

The test apparatus detailed in Chapter 2 was used to apply axial impact loads to the tibias. As noted in Chapter 3, impact force is specimen-dependent, and could therefore not be used as the input target for testing. Therefore, kinetic energy levels were targeted. Four standard specimens were tested using a 3.9 kg (light) projectile mass and four standard specimens plus the canal-filled specimen were tested using a 6.8 kg (heavy) projectile mass. Energy values for the impacts were based on a preliminary test

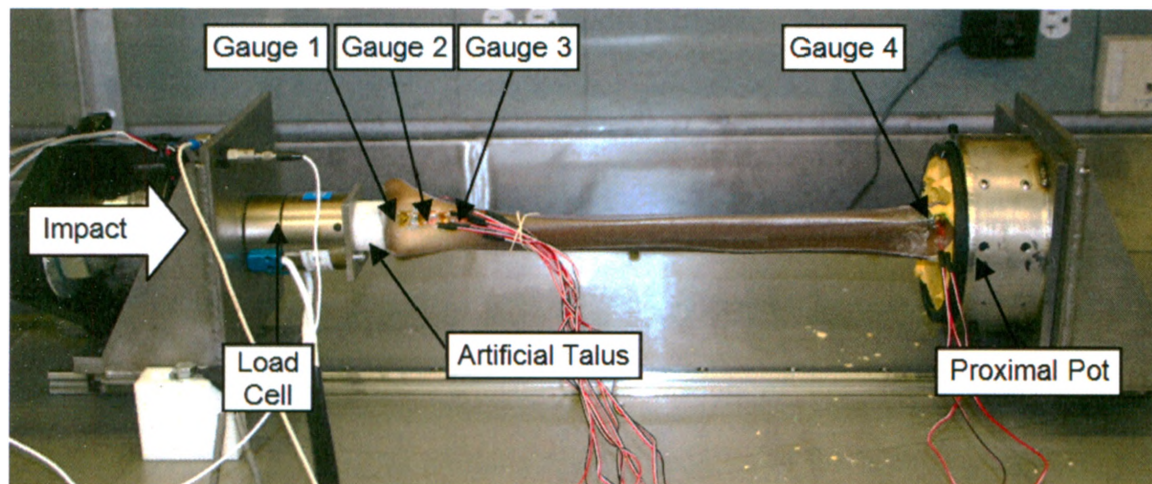


Figure 4.1: Instrumented Synthetic Tibia in Testing Configuration

Each synthetic tibia was embedded proximally in cement, and instrumented along the anterior line with triaxial strain gauge rosettes. The three distal gauges (Gauges 1-3) were spaced 6 mm apart, and the proximal gauge (Gauge 4) was approximately 1 cm from the cement surface. The impact load (shown with an arrow) was transferred to the distal articular surface via a polyethylene talus mounted on a load cell.

specimen, which fractured at 50 J, and were therefore increased in 20 J steps to average three strikes before failure, in an effort to minimize cumulative damage effects (Table 4.1). Failure was defined as a fracture separating the tibia into at least two distinct pieces. A Weibull analysis was used to establish a probability of injury curve based on axial force at failure. Results were also analyzed using paired t-tests to determine differences in failure energy and momentum levels based on the masses tested ($\alpha = 0.05$).

4.4 RESULTS

Failure occurred in all specimens, with damage concentrated in the distal region, and primarily corresponding to the 'B' level of the AO scale (see Section 1.5.2). Damage occurred in two manners concurrently: delamination of the epoxy resin from the polyurethane foam, as well as breaking apart of sections of the bone (Figure 4.2). The 3.9 kg mass caused average peak forces of 4702 ± 509 N, and the 6.8 kg mass caused average peak impact forces of 5718 ± 642 N (Figure 4.2). These differences were just at the level of significance ($p = 0.05$). The specimen with the canal filled fractured at a peak force of 5761 N, which was not different than the standard specimens obtained from the manufacturer ($p = 0.95$). A Weibull analysis based on axial force at failure was conducted in order to generate a survivability curve for the synthetic composite bones (Figure 4.3). This curve had an $R^2 = 0.97$.

Impact durations averaged 7.85 ± 0.67 ms, and imparted an average impulse of 14.65 ± 1.28 Ns to the distal end of the tibia (Figure 4.4). The average impact velocity to cause fracture was 5.64 ± 0.02 m/s for the light mass, which was higher than the 4.65 ± 0.31 m/s needed for the heavy mass ($p = 0.03$). Average impact momentums of 22.0 ± 0.1 Ns

Table 4.1: Test Protocol for Two Masses Used

Kinetic energies were targeted to be the same for both masses, allowing for investigation of both energy and momentum as fracture risk parameters. Tests were increased in 20 J steps to minimize cumulative effects.

Test #	Target Energy (J)	Light Mass (3.9 kg)		Heavy Mass (6.8 kg)	
		Velocity (m/s)	Momentum (Ns)	Velocity (m/s)	Momentum (Ns)
1	20	3.20	12.5	2.43	16.5
2	40	4.53	17.7	3.43	23.3
3	60	5.55	21.6	4.20	28.6
4	80	6.41	25.0	4.85	33.0

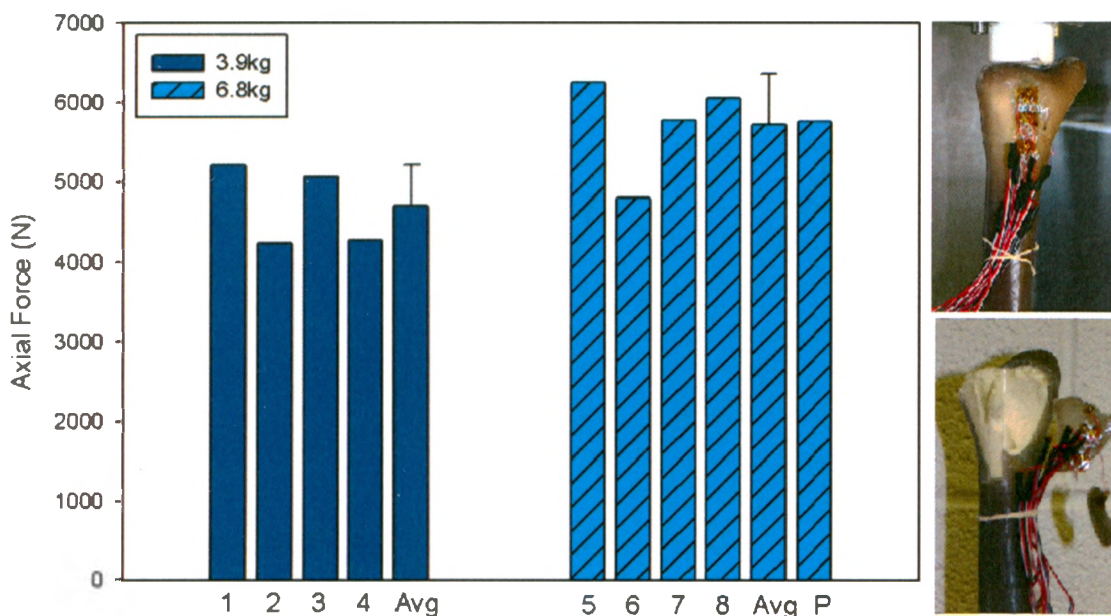


Figure 4.2: Peak Axial Impact Force

Damage was concentrated in the distal region of each specimen (right, upper is pre-test, lower is post-test), and consisted of both shattering of the epoxy resin as it delaminated from the polyurethane foam, as well as fracture of the foam into multiple pieces. The 3.9 kg mass caused average peak forces of 4702 ± 509 N, and the 6.8 kg mass caused average peak forces of 5718 ± 642 N ($p = 0.05$). The specimen with the patched canal (P) was struck with the 6.8 kg mass, and fractured at a force of 5761 N.

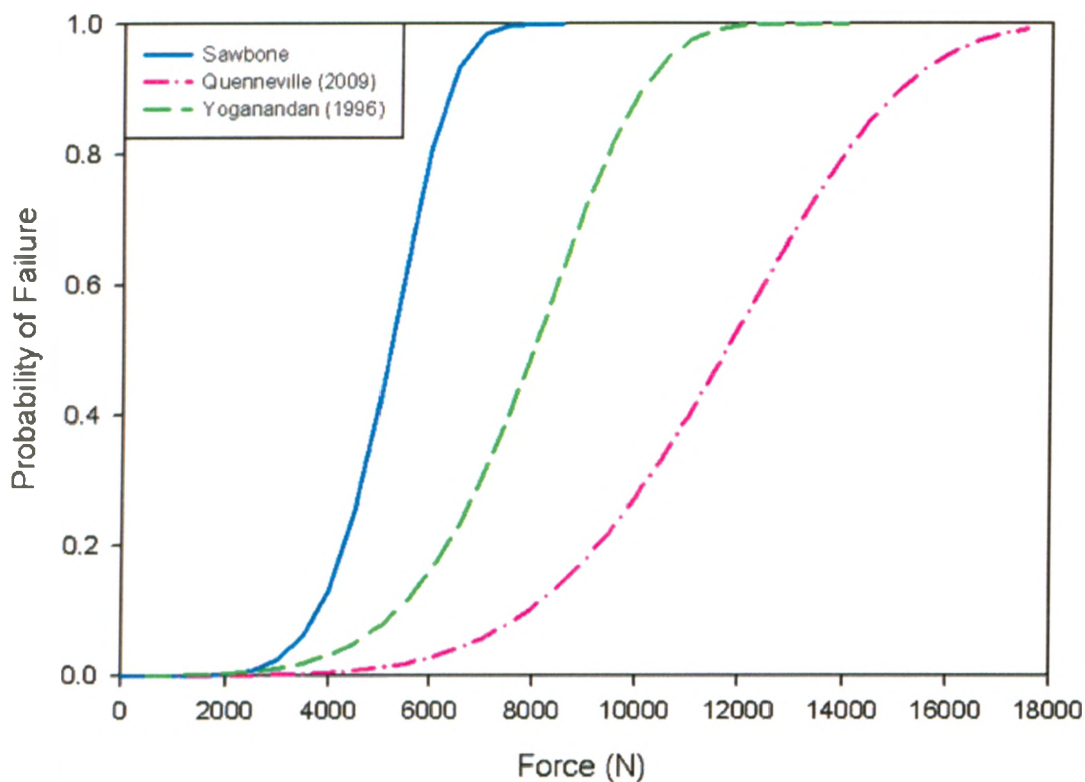


Figure 4.3: Survivability Curves for Synthetic and Cadaveric Tibias

A Weibull analysis generated a survivability curve for the specimens tested based on axial force. The curves from the previously tested cadaveric specimens (Chapter 3) and the current standard from the literature (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996) are also plotted for comparison.

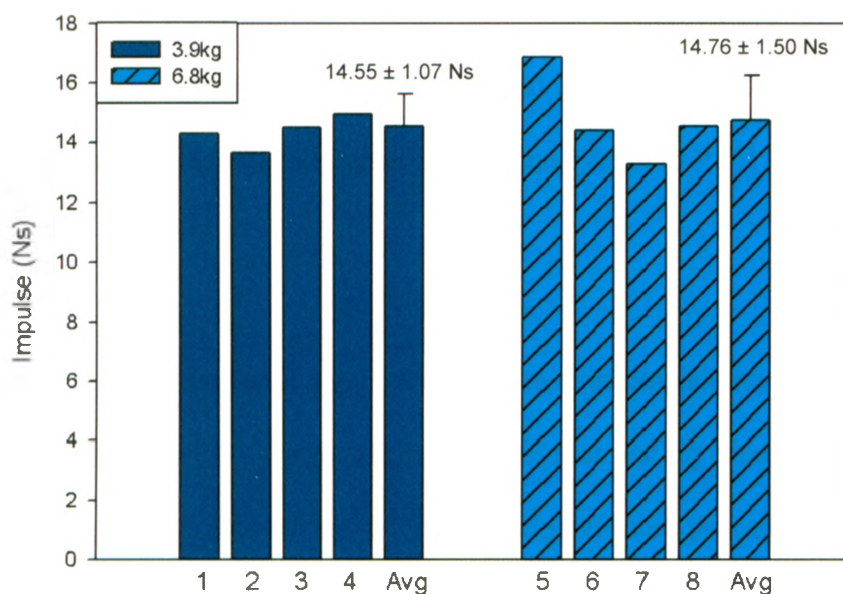


Figure 4.4: Impulse at Fracture

Impulse was computed by integrating the axial force signal (F_z) over the impact duration. The average impulse for all specimens was 14.55 Ns, with a range of 13.27 to 16.85 Ns.

and 31.6 ± 2.1 Ns, and kinetic energies of 61.9 ± 0.4 J and 73.8 ± 9.8 J occurred for the light and heavy masses, respectively. Momentum and kinetic energy were different between projectile masses ($p = 0.03$).

Principal strains were calculated from each strain gauge rosette for the 40 J impact tests, and averaged for all specimens (Figure 4.5). The highest strains were recorded at the distal-most gauge level (averaging $4000 \mu\epsilon$), and decreased proximally. There were no differences in strain between the masses at any gauge level ($p > 0.11$).

4.5 DISCUSSION

This study subjected synthetic composite tibias to axial impact loading representative of short-duration impulses in the same manner as previous testing conducted on cadaveric tibias (Chapter 3). The use of the same testing equipment and procedures allowed for a true comparison between synthetic and cadaveric bones. This is the first study to examine the impact fracture characteristics of composite bones. Previous generations of these synthetic composite bones were examined under quasi-static loading rates (Cristofolini *et al.*, 1996; Cristofolini and Viceconti, 2000; Heiner and Brown, 2001). They were found to have low inter-specimen variability, and reasonably approximated the response of cadaveric bones. The material properties of the cortical analogue were changed in the current fourth generation in an attempt to provide better fatigue resistance. These models have previously been validated a surrogate for biomechanical experiments (Heiner, 2008), but also only at quasi-static loading rates. The fracture tolerance of the cortical analogue has previously been examined, with the current material having a higher ultimate strength than previous models, but still lower than cortical bone (Chong

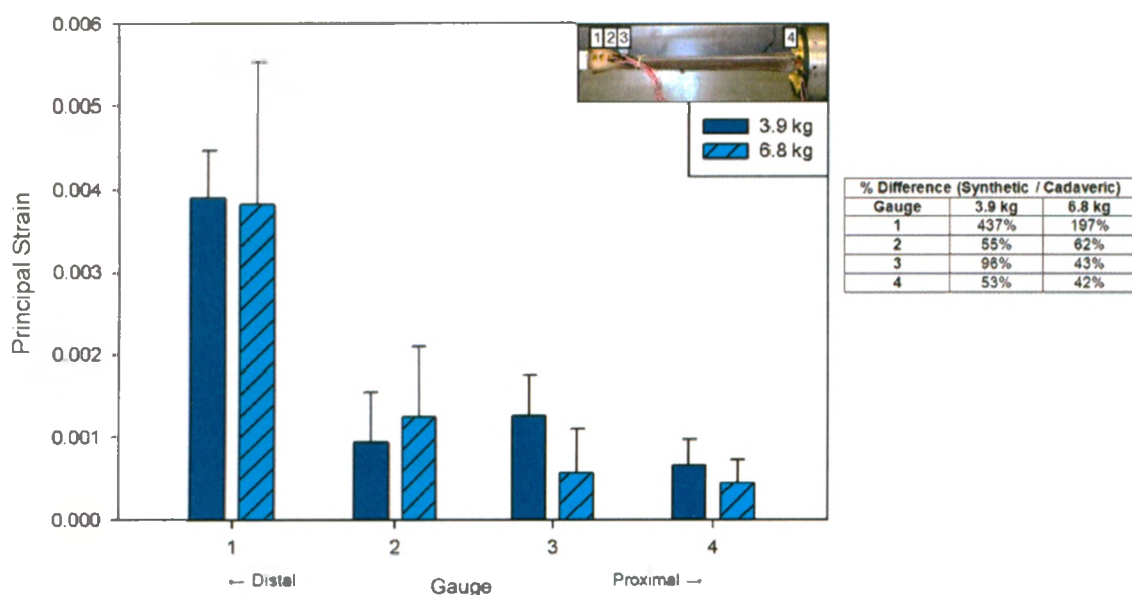


Figure 4.5: Principal Strains at 40 J Impact Tests

Peak principal strains during the 40 J impact test were averaged. Strain values are presented for the four levels of gauging (1-3 are distal, and 4 is proximal, as shown in the inset). There were no differences between the masses ($p > 0.11$). Strain values in the synthetic tibias were higher than those in the cadaveric tibias (Chapter 3) at the distal-most gauge level, but lower at all other gauges, as detailed in the table shown to the right.

et al., 2007). The overall failure response of the synthetic bones was found in the current study to differ greatly from that of cadaveric bones.

Fracture force was found to vary with projectile mass; however, with a $p = 0.05$, this is just within the significant range. Impact velocity, momentum, and kinetic energy at failure were all mass-dependent, and as no single injury level was identified for these parameters, this suggests that they are not factors which define the fracture tolerance of these synthetic tibias. All of these parameters had noticeably low variation among specimens, demonstrating one of the desirable features of synthetic bones.

Previous testing of cadaveric tibias (Chapter 3) showed that force and kinetic energy were significant factors in the definition of fracture tolerance. The average force at fracture for the synthetic bones was 37 – 45% of that for the cadaveric tibias, and the average kinetic energy at fracture for the synthetic bones was 26 – 31% of that for the cadaveric specimens. A Weibull analysis based on axial force at failure was conducted in order to generate a survivability curve to be compared to those generated based on previous cadaveric studies (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996; Chapter 3). The synthetic curve lies to the left of both of these previous studies, demonstrating its lower resistance to fracture (Figure 4.3).

It was hypothesized that the lower fracture tolerance of these synthetic bones could be the result of a stress concentration around the canal; however, patching with epoxy resin provided no improvement. Through the course of testing, it was observed that the distal articular surface of the composite tibias had a convex curvature, which differed from the flat or concave geometry observed on the cadaveric tibias. This curvature could have resulted in point loading from the artificial talus, thus lowering the resistance to failure.

It is recommended that future generations of these synthetic composite tibias include a revision to the distal geometry to better match the concave nature of the distal articular surface.

In comparison to a previous study with cadaveric specimens (Chapter 3), strains in the synthetic bones were higher than those in the cadavers at the distal-most gauge level, but were lower at all other gauge levels. This shows the difference in overall response between the two types of tibias to impact loads. The higher strains at the distal-most level could also possibly be attributed to the geometry of the distal region.

As discussed in Chapter 1, Sawbones[®] are not the only synthetic composite bone model available to researchers, but they are widely used in orthopaedic research. Models such as the Complex Lower Leg (CLL) and Frangible Surrogate Leg (FSL) were not examined in the current study due to their limited availability, but it is possible that they may have more biofidelic response to this type of axial impact loading, and could be examined in future studies.

The current fourth generation synthetic composite tibias do not accurately represent the response of natural tibias to axial impact loading of this short-duration nature. Studies with slower loading rates (such as car crash simulations) may yield different results. The relatively low tolerance to impact loads, parameters that dictate fracture response, and modes of failure are all different from those found in cadaveric bone. Were it not for the difference in failure mechanisms, a scaling factor could possibly have been applied to the forces experienced by these synthetic bones to represent those of cadaveric bones. As such, they cannot be recommended as a tool for injury investigations under impact loads.

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CHAPTER 5 – Generation of a Finite Element Mesh of a Cadaveric Tibia

Overview: Finite element models can be a useful companion to cadaveric testing for computer simulations of impact loading. These models allow experimental testing (such as that conducted in Chapter 3) to be replicated under a variety of conditions. A high quality model, however, is important for obtaining accurate results. This requires careful development, with attention given to proper geometric representation of the bone. This chapter details the techniques used to develop a finite element mesh of a cadaveric tibia from CT scans using the software packages Mimics[®] and TrueGrid[®], and evaluation of its quality.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Cadaveric specimens are one method often used to assess risk of injury due to impact loading. Destructive testing, such as that conducted in Chapters 3 and 4, limits the number of impact tests that can be conducted on a single specimen. Validated finite element models developed for the purpose of assessing injury risk would therefore be advantageous. A variety of impact loading conditions (*i.e.*, different impulses, input energies, etc.) could be evaluated for the stresses and strains that develop within the bone.

In order to obtain accurate outputs from models run using finite element analysis, a high quality mesh must be developed. Due to the complex geometry inherent in bones, elements with large amounts of distortion often occur, and are potential sources of low accuracy or instability of a solution (Valle and Ray, 2005). Surprisingly, in dynamic

modeling only one known previous study presents an assessment of the quality of the mesh used (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). This raises concerns about the applicability of results from other studies where the mesh has not been so carefully constructed or evaluated.

This chapter details the development of a representative finite element model of the tibia. Its response to short-duration, high-force axial loading will be validated in Chapter 6 via comparison with results from cadaveric testing (Chapter 3). The model was produced using Mimics[®] (Materialise, Leuven, Belgium) to extract the geometry of the bone from Computed Tomography (CT) scans, TrueGrid[®] (XYZ Scientific Inc., Livermore, CA, USA) to build a hexahedral mesh defining the different components required for the simulation, and exported in LS-DYNA[®] format (LSTC, Livermore, CA, USA) for future analysis. Detailed instructions on the step-by-step process used to generate the model using the various software packages are given in Appendix J, and the overall process is described below.

5.2 CT SCANNING

CT scans were taken of each of the cadaveric specimens tested experimentally prior to impact loading. All specimens had been potted proximally in a PVC pipe filled with dental cement, and instrumented with strain gauges before scanning. Axial scans were taken using a GE LightSpeed VCT (General Electric Healthcare, Chalfont St. Giles, United Kingdom), with 120 kVp and 100 mA, with a 0.625 mm slice thickness.

From the fourteen CT scans obtained, one representative specimen was selected from which to build the finite element model. Selection was based on an evaluation considering donor age, height and weight, and the impact force required to achieve

fracture during the experimental testing phase. In an effort to choose the specimen that would be most representative, the specimen for which these variables most closely matched the average values of all specimens tested was chosen. This was specimen 08-07033R (Table 5.1).

5.3 SURFACE GEOMETRY EXTRACTION AND ALIGNMENT

The CT scan images from 08-07033R were imported into Mimics[®] medical imaging software (Materialise, Leuven, Belgium) (Figure 5.1). A mask was applied to the scan to threshold the bone based on the Hounsfield Units (HU) of each voxel. This identified the densest region, which was then defined as cortical bone (HU between 492 and 2561). The mask required minimal manual manipulation for each scan slice, such that a single region was defined for the cortical bone (*i.e.*, fill in missing voxels and remove extraneous ones). Polylines were then generated based on the mask, creating a line on the exterior and interior of the cortical regions (Figure 5.2). The exterior and interior polylines were moved to separate sets, and they were cavity filled with 3D solids (Figure 5.3). These solids were then exported as STL files. STL was selected as the format for surface representation of the bone as it allowed for the best capture of the geometry without artificially smoothing the curvature, as would have occurred using an IGES file. While IGES is the standard CAD format, it only does wireframes and surfaces, not solids. STL files contain triangular facets that represent 2D or 3D shapes.

The inner region (as defined by the interior polylines) was broken into two material types – cancellous bone near the distal and proximal ends, and marrow filling the intramedullary canal. Anatomically, this transition is not clearly defined, with portions of

Table 5.1: Selection of Most Representative Specimen

Specimens were ranked according to their force at fracture, height, weight, and age of donor being closest to the average of all specimens tested. From this, specimen 08-07033R was selected to be the most representative of the average population, and formed the basis of the finite element model.

Specimen	Force (N):	F Rank:	Height (cm)	H Rank:	Weight (kg):	W Rank:	Age (yrs):	A Rank:	SUM:	OVERALL RANK:
06-06037L	9929	6	180.3	7	67.6	7	57	13	33	9
06-06037R	10820	4	180.3	7	67.6	7	57	13	31	7
08-07033R	12405	3	185.4	1	78.0	1	49	1	6	1
08-07033L	9862	7	185.4	1	78.0	1	49	1	10	3
08-07024L	11895	1	185.4	1	70.3	5	49	1	8	2
08-07024R	14435	12	185.4	1	70.3	5	49	1	19	4
08-07085R	9481	10	188.0	5	59.6	11	47	7	33	9
08-07085L	9791	8	188.0	5	59.6	11	47	7	31	7
08-08009R	14257	11	190.5	9	114.5	13	47	7	40	12
08-08009L	16131	14	190.5	9	114.5	13	47	7	43	14
06-08044R	14831	13	172.7	13	73.5	3	41	11	40	12
06-08044L	9745	9	172.7	13	73.5	3	41	11	36	11
06-10081L	11168	2	190.5	9	96.2	9	49	1	21	5
06-10081R	10181	5	190.5	9	96.2	9	49	1	24	6
Average:	11781		184.7		80.0		48			

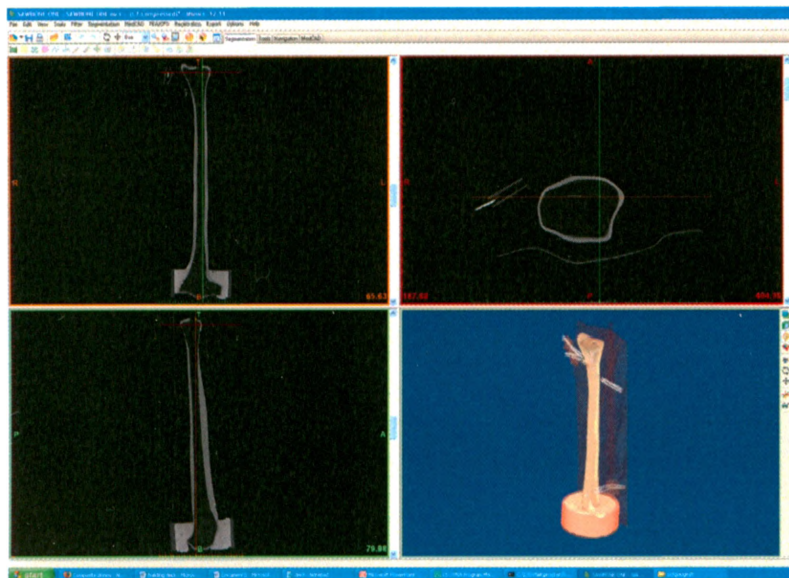


Figure 5.1: CT Scan of Tibia

The selected specimen was imported into Mimics[®] medical imaging software, which allowed the bone to be viewed in three planes (top left = frontal plane, top right = transverse plane, bottom left = sagittal plane), and thresholding conducted to isolate cortical bone based on Hounsfield Unit.

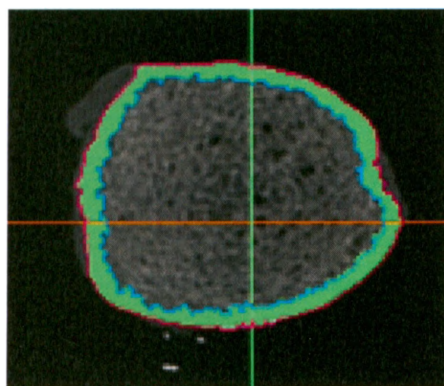


Figure 5.2: Cortical Mask and Corresponding Polygons

The region corresponding to the density of cortical bone was separated using a mask (green), and polygons generated to identify the exterior (purple) and interior (blue) contours.

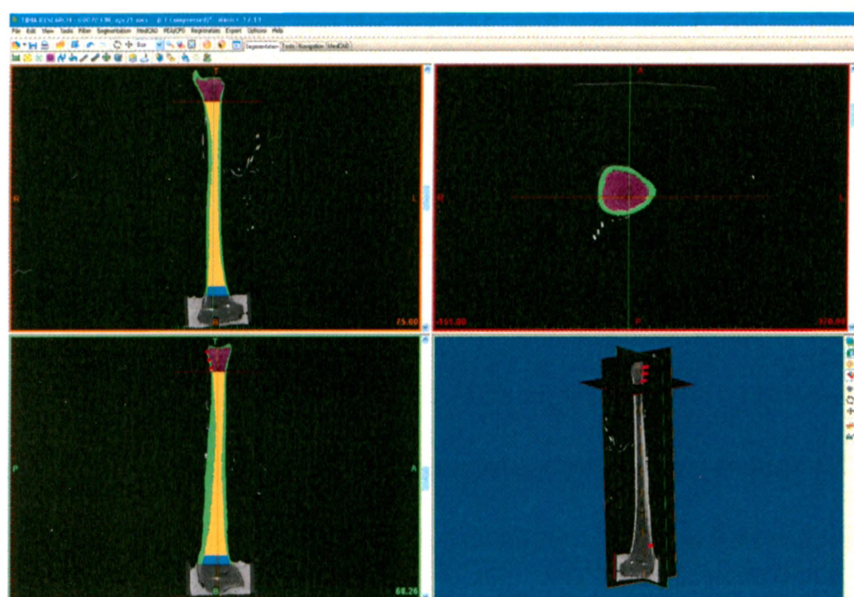


Figure 5.3: 3D Solids

A 3D solid was generated representing the cortical bone based on the polyline contours (green), and others similarly generated for the cancellous (purple and blue) and marrow (orange) regions of the specimen.

cancellous bone appearing in varying amounts throughout the canal, and pockets of marrow extending into the epiphyses of cancellous bone. As such, it is very difficult to draw a distinction between these two regions. As an assumption, two axial locations were selected as the boundaries between canal and cancellous bone regions: one between the distal cancellous bone region and the marrow, and a second between the marrow and the proximal cancellous bone region. These axial locations were defined as the first (*i.e.*, distal) and last (*i.e.*, proximal) CT slice images that were not entirely filled with cancellous bone. While this may have underestimated the portion of cancellous bone slightly, the structural contribution of the cancellous region over the thickness of a slice or two is not substantial, and was considered to be an acceptable simplification. As was previously done for the exterior surfaces, the relevant polylines were copied into distinct sets for each material region, and filled with 3D solids. These solids were also exported as STL files.

To allow comparison between finite element model strains and those obtained experimentally, the locations of the strain gauges on the bone were needed. These were identified in Mimics[®] by the position of the solder balls on the strain gauge rosettes that were visible in the CT scans (Figure 5.4). These points were subsequently exported as a txt file containing their *x-y-z* positions.

Because the long axis of the specimen was not perfectly aligned with the axis of the CT scanner, the angle between the side of the PVC pot and the axial axis of the scan was measured in both the frontal and sagittal planes (Figure 5.5). This allowed for any offset in angle to be corrected in the finite element simulation, such that it would correspond to

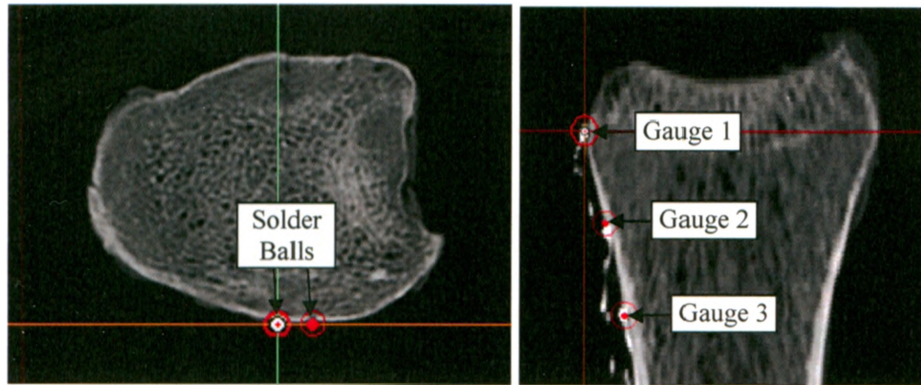


Figure 5.4: Identification of Strain Gauges

Points were defined in Mimics® at the center of the two outer solder balls for each strain gauge rosette (left = transverse plane, right = frontal plane), and were exported as x-y-z coordinates to a txt file.

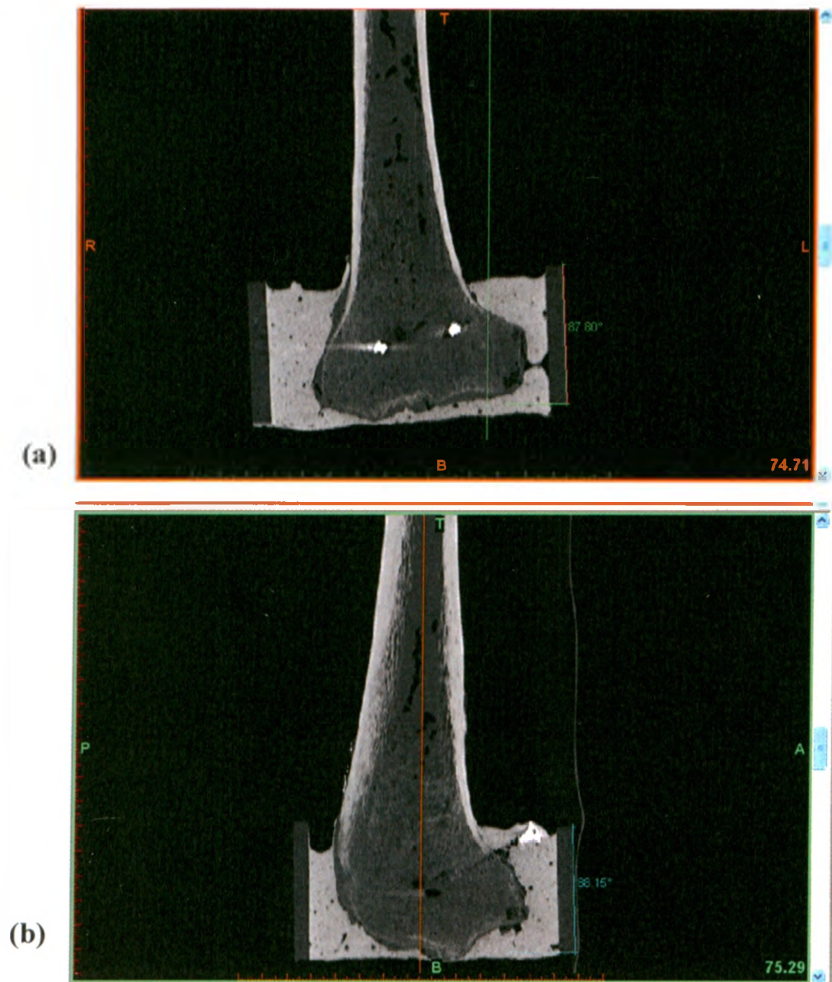


Figure 5.5: Identification of Angle of Tip

Deviations from the z-axis based on the sides of the PVC pot were calculated in two planes: (a) frontal and (b) sagittal.

the experimental setup in which the bone was supported horizontally and subjected to axial impact.

5.4 MESH GENERATION

5.4.1 MESHING TECHNIQUES

The mesh of the bone was created using TrueGrid[®] mesh generator (XYZ Scientific Inc., Livermore, CA, USA). TrueGrid[®] is a high quality hexahedral meshing program that allows the user to manipulate the mesh through the use of curves and surfaces. It uses a projection method to allow the mesh to best match the geometry of the part being built. This involves the creation of blocks of mesh, which are manipulated and positioned prior to being “projected” to surfaces and curves. This projection method allows small gaps and imperfections to be easily accommodated. The mesh is constructed using a block structure, where each block consists of numerous elements interconnected by nodes. Each block has six faces, which are connected by edges, which join at the corners to form vertices. Many blocks are used to build the mesh structure, and are separated by partitions. Partitions allow each block to be assigned a differing number of elements, as well as different material properties. Figure 5.6 shows the working environment of TrueGrid[®], with the computational view (which shows the block structure) on the right and the physical view (which shows the positions and shapes of the elements) on the left.

As there are many areas of high curvature in the geometry of the tibia, it was important to select the appropriate topology to be used for the mesh. Figure 5.7 shows how applying a hexahedral mesh to a circular cross-section can result in elements that are

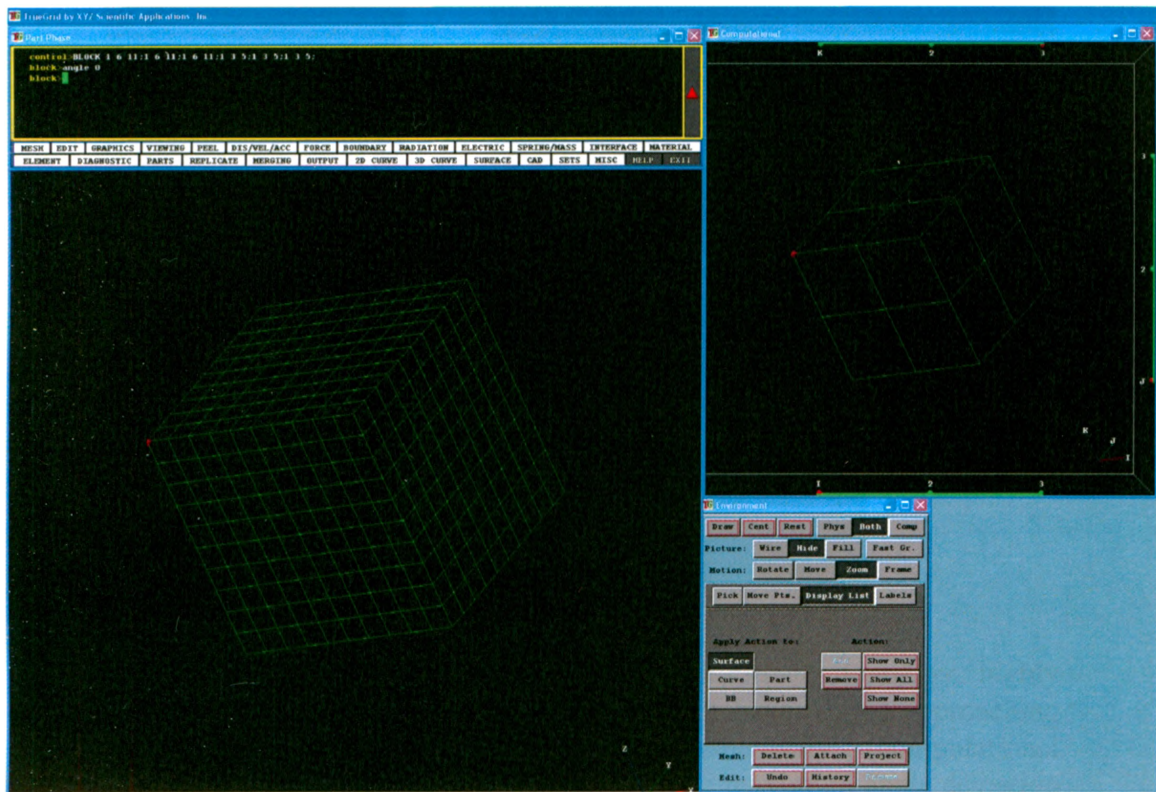


Figure 5.6: TrueGrid[®] Environment

Blocks of elements are built and manipulated using the computational view (right), and the positions and shapes of the elements relative to other parts and elements and nodes are shown in the physical view (left). At the top is the dialog box for inputting commands.

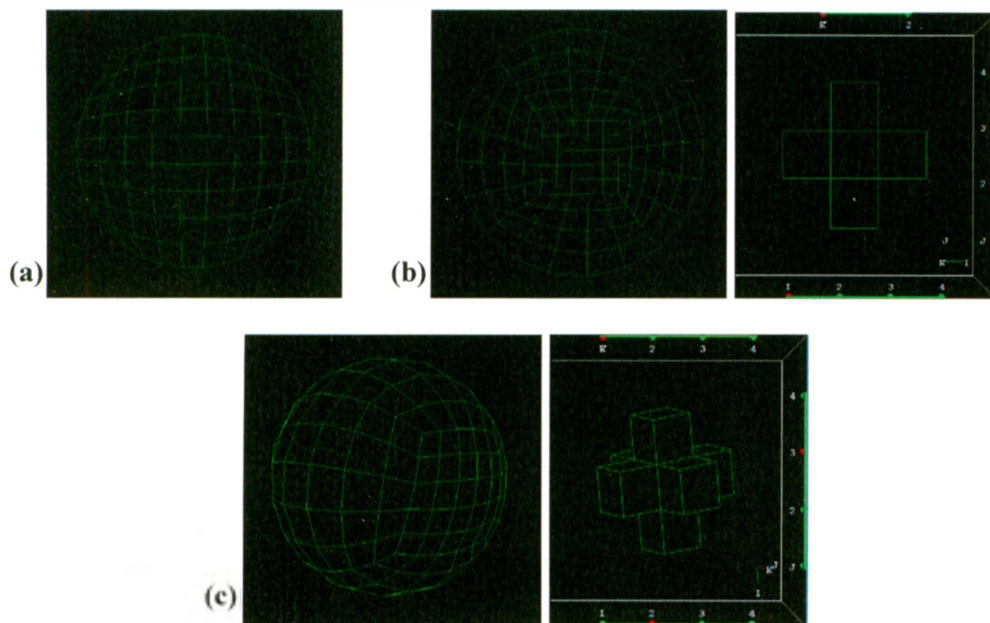


Figure 5.7: The Butterfly Technique

(a) When a hexahedral mesh is applied to a circular topology, highly distorted elements occur at the corners, which have angles approaching 180° . (b) By combining several blocks in a “butterfly”, (computational view on the right, physical view on the left) the maximum angle deviation can be reduced substantially. (c) When this is translated into 3D and multiple butterflies applied, a sphere can be correctly meshed with minimal angle deviations.

extremely distorted, with distortion angles up to 180° at the corners. To reduce this distortion, multiple blocks are combined in what is known as the “butterfly technique”. To build a butterfly, a grid of three blocks by three blocks is built, and the corner blocks removed. The corners of the remaining exterior blocks are then manually moved to be at approximately a 45° angle. After the initial positioning of the vertices, the faces where the corner blocks were removed are then glued together using a block boundary command. This results in a mesh where the most distorted elements are significantly improved.

5.4.2 *TIBIA MESHING*

The STLs that were exported from Mimics[®] were imported into TrueGrid[®] as surfaces (Figure 5.8). The surfaces were rotated as required to align the longitudinal axis with the direction of loading (*i.e.*, the angle correction mentioned in Section 5.3). Meshing was started from the distal portion of the bone as this had the most anatomical detail, the highest degree of curvature, and was the area of most interest. The interior cancellous and marrow regions were meshed first, before the cortical layer was added.

The topology of the distal-most region was similar to a cylinder, and as such butterflies were used at each quadrant of the bone. 3D splines were interactively created along the distal ridge around the circumference of the bone at both the cortical and cancellous levels to attach the edge to the outermost area of the bone. Further splines were created along the length of the bone at each quadrant (Figure 5.9). The inner cancellous region was projected to the inner STL surface, and several smoothing algorithms applied to the surfaces (to relax the faces) and volumes (to uniformly smooth

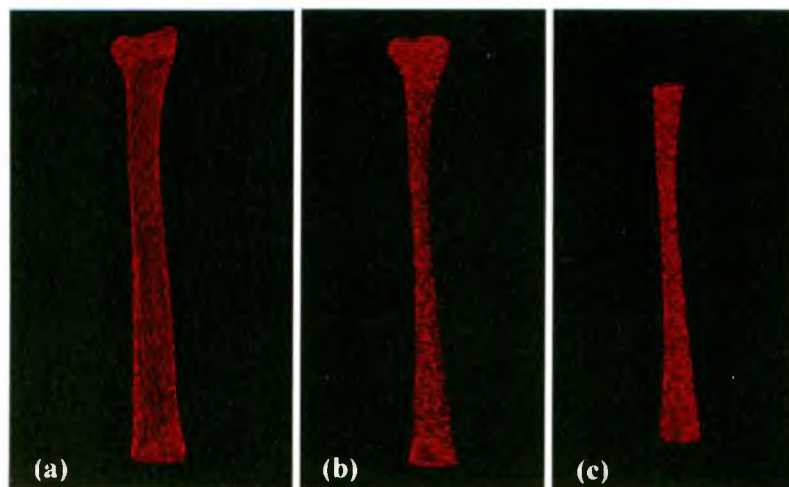


Figure 5.8: STL Surfaces in TrueGrid[®]

STL surfaces describing (a) the exterior of the cortical bone, (b) the interface between cortical and cancellous bone, and (c) the region defining the intramedullary canal.

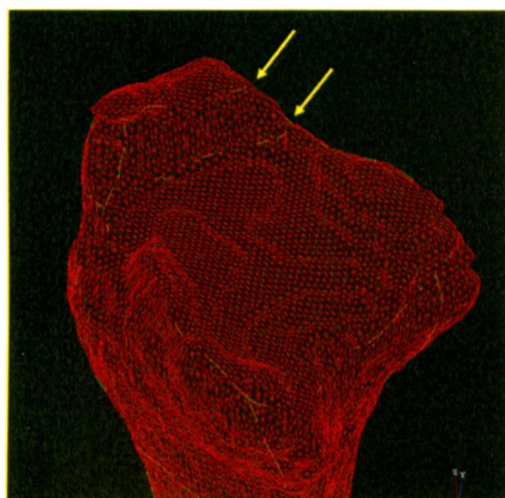


Figure 5.9: Generation of Splines in TrueGrid[®]

Splines were generated along areas of high curvature based on the STLs for attachment of the edges of blocks.

the regions) of the bone. Blocks were then added to the exterior of the cancellous region to represent the cortical bone. Due to the small thickness, a single element depth was used, and splines were similarly used to control the placement of the edges of the blocks. The cortical region was projected to the outer STL surface, and smoothing algorithms applied. The distal region of the bone has large changes in geometry, and so the distal-most section focused on the epiphysis prior to where it started to taper. An x - y surface was generated that marked this level, and the proximal edges of each of the regions were attached to it. A relatively fine mesh was used to characterize the detail present in this region, resulting in 4480 brick elements. The distal-most region of the tibia mesh can be seen in Figure 5.10.

The second most-distal region was constructed as a second part attached to the first, but incorporated a transition zone joining the two (Figure 5.11). This transition zone reduced the number of elements by a factor of two in each of the x and y -directions due to the narrowing of the bone's geometry. This reduced the number of distorted elements, and also improved the aspect ratio (which was high due to fitting a large number of elements through a relatively small corridor). The second level continued until the point where the transition from cancellous to marrow was defined. The diaphysis of the bone was continued in the same manner, with similar smoothing algorithms as previously described. At the proximal end a transition zone was again incorporated due to the expansion of the geometry, resulting in twice as many elements in each of the x and y -directions. The complete mesh is shown in Figure 5.12. A merge tolerance was applied to eliminate duplicate nodes between the parts, resulting in a continuous mesh for the bone with 14848 linear 8-node hexahedral elements.

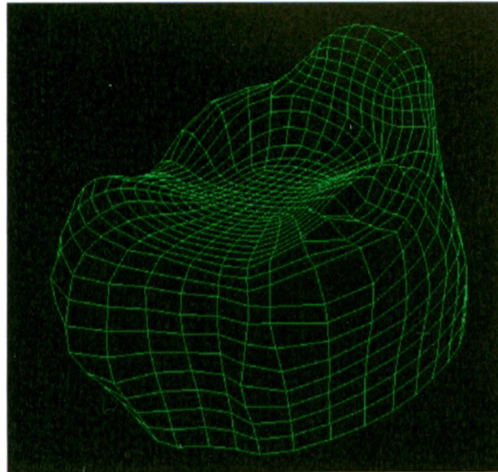


Figure 5.10: Distal-Most Mesh

The mesh was started at the distal end due to the high changes in geometry and interest in this area. Faces of the mesh were projected to the STL surfaces representing the bone's geometry.

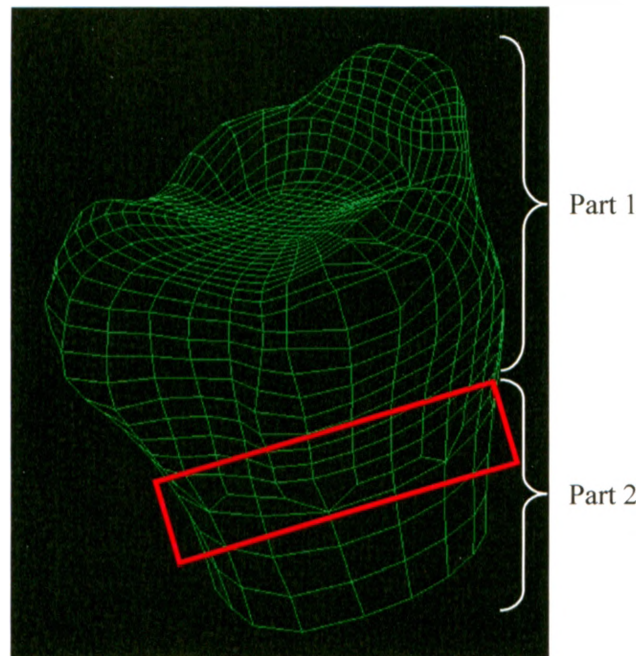


Figure 5.11: Transition Region

A transition zone (highlighted in red) between the distal-most part and the second part was used to reduce the number of elements that would become distorted as the cross-section of the bone tapered. The number of elements was reduced by a factor of two in each direction.

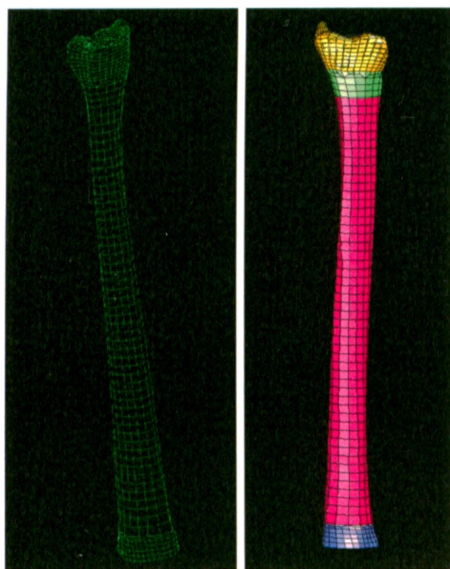


Figure 5.12: Complete Bone Mesh

The complete bone mesh consisted of 14848 hexahedral solid elements, with mesh density higher at the distal and proximal ends. The coloured regions represent the different parts that were built to achieve proper meshing.

5.4.3 MESH EVALUATION

Several diagnostic techniques were used to evaluate the quality of the mesh prior to analysis. The Jacobian of an element is a measure of its deviation from an ideally shaped element (computed as the determinant of the Jacobian matrix). The Jacobian of an extremely distorted element becomes negative, and will prevent analysis from continuing. The Jacobian was measured for each element in the bone mesh, and ranged from 0.102 to 8.001, with a mean of 0.7. The criterion for Jacobian in this study was that it be a positive value, and preferably greater than 0.25 (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The Jacobian distribution can be seen in Figure 5.13, with elements with the smallest Jacobians (those less than 0.2 and therefore most at risk of failure) highlighted.

The orthogonality of the mesh (measured as the interior angle deviation from 90°) was also assessed, as elements that have large deviations can have unrealistic deformation responses. The deviation angle in the current mesh was found to range from -77° to 87° (corresponding to interior angles of 13° to 177°). The orthogonality distribution can be seen in Figure 5.14, and the goal was to avoid angular deviation values greater than an absolute magnitude of 70° (highlighted in pink in the figure for diagnostic purposes). The mean deviation angle was approximately zero, and the small number of distorted elements occurred primarily at the transition zones. It was not possible to completely eliminate elements with large deviation angles, although attempts were made to minimize the number present.

The final method of mesh quality assessment was aspect ratio. In TrueGrid[®], the aspect ratio is computed as the ratio of the longest diagonal to the shortest diagonal in the element. For a solid element, the most numerically accurate solution is obtained when

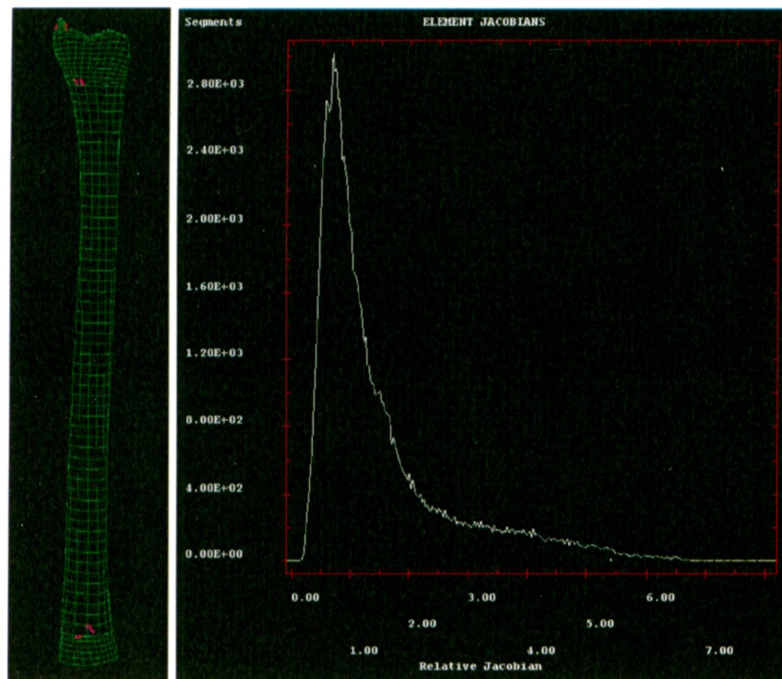


Figure 5.13: Element Jacobians

The average Jacobian in the mesh was 0.7, with a range of 0.1 to 8.0, Jacobians less than 0.2 are shown in pink. The closer to zero a Jacobian, the higher the risk of the simulation failing.

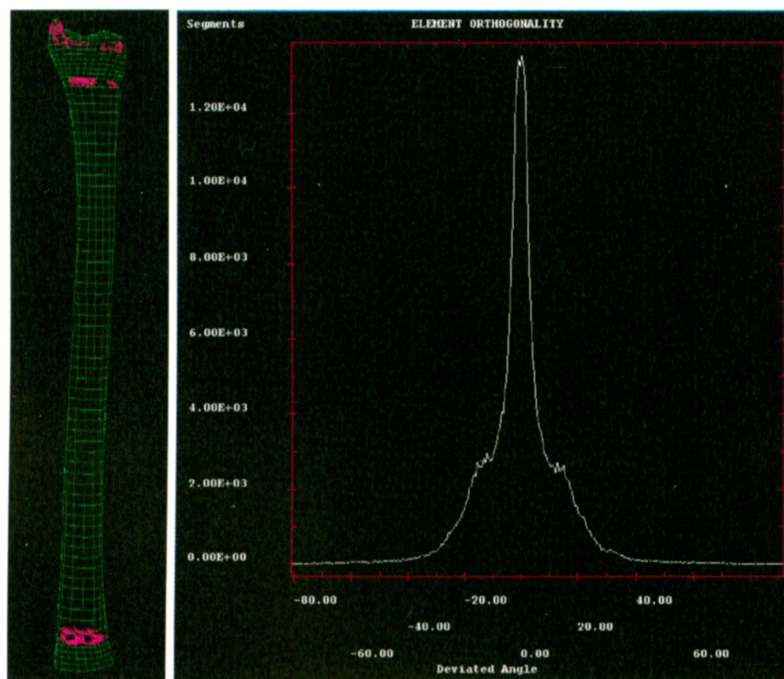


Figure 5.14: Element Orthogonality – Deviation Angle

Element angles deviation from 90° are shown in the distribution graph to the right. The average angle of deviation was zero, ranging from -77° to 87° . Elements with angles deviated between $70 - 90^\circ$ (interior element angles less than 20° or greater than 160°) are shown in pink.

the elements' edges are equal in length. However, due to irregular geometry and features, this is not always possible, and when large differences occur the accuracy is reduced. Aspect ratios were found to range from 1.1 to 13.4. Ratios greater than 10 were to be avoided (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005), and were only present in a small number of the elements in the final mesh and in regions of little interest (Figure 5.15). After the bone mesh was deemed of a sufficient quality, meshing of the other components (*i.e.*, projectile, brackets, talus and foam) could proceed.

5.4.4 OTHER COMPONENTS

Experimentally, the load applied to the distal surface of the tibia was transmitted via an artificial polyethylene talus. This was located to touch the articular surface, and adjusted to best sit within the distal curvature. For the finite element analysis, this talus was modeled as a distinct part using TrueGrid[®]. From the CT scan in Mimics[®], a circle with the same diameter as the talus was drawn on an axial slice best approximating where the talus would have been centered. The *x-y-z* coordinates of this circle were exported as a txt file. A cylinder was created as a surface in TrueGrid[®] that matched this, and the talus part was generated such that it didn't touch the surface of the bone (Figure 5.16). From the surface of the talus, another part was extruded to represent the distal bracket. The geometry of the steel bracket was not modeled, only a block was constructed to represent the mass, as deformations of the bracket were presumed to be negligible. Off the distal bracket was built a third part representing the urethane foam used in testing to control the duration of load application. Another part was built just off the surface of the foam (but not attached) representing the projectile (with its front curvature matching that

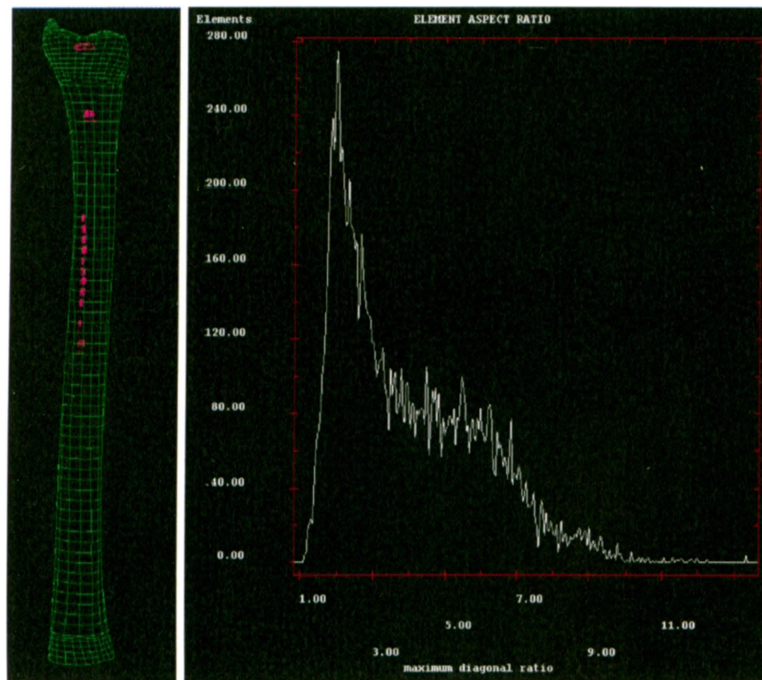


Figure 5.15: Aspect Ratio

Aspect ratios ranged from 1.1 to 13.4, with a mean of 2. Element aspect ratios are shown, with those greater than 10 highlighted in pink.

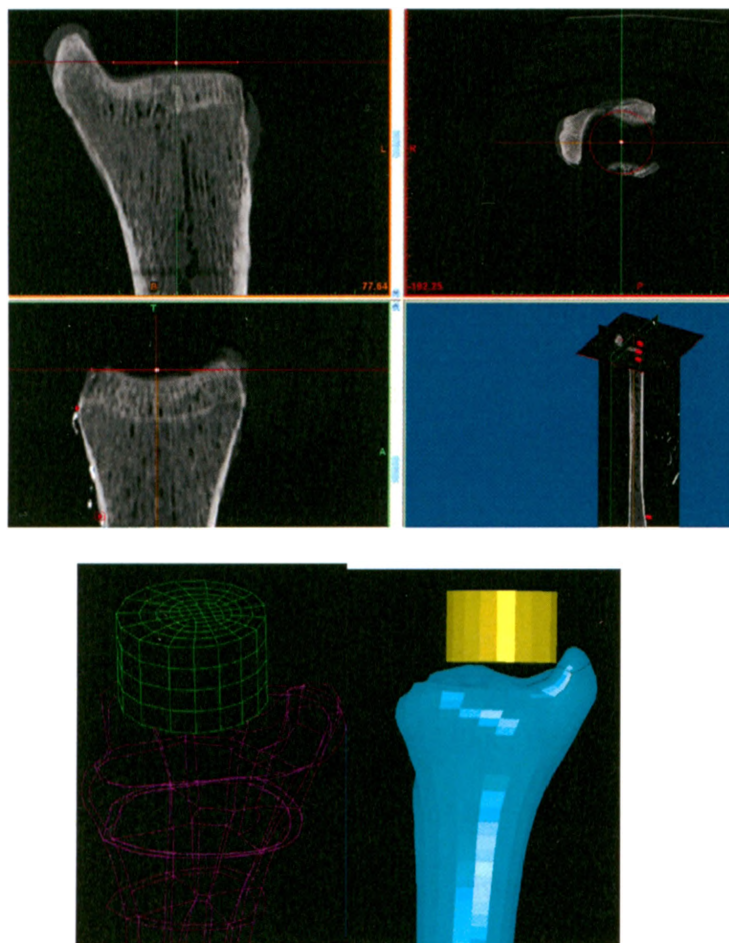


Figure 5.16: Creation of the Talus

A circle was stamped on the CT scan representing the best fit as would have been done experimentally. The coordinates of this circle were used to build a cylinder in TrueGrid[®] representing the talus.

of the projectile used experimentally). Finally, a block was built at the surface of the proximal cut end of the tibia, representing the proximal bracket. All components are shown in Figure 5.17, with a comparison to experimental setup. The TrueGrid[®] file for creating the mesh is included as Appendix K. The entire setup was exported in LS-Dyna[®] format. The model was then imported into LS-PrePost[®] (the preprocessor for LS-Dyna[®]), and the parts initialized to be in contact with one another. The elements representing the strain gauges were also identified using the *x-y-z* coordinates (from Section 5.3) and assigned to separate sets for each gauge.

5.5 SUMMARY

Finite element models are a potentially useful tool for assessing injury risk to the body through simulations. Previous studies have used these models to predict lower limb response to impulsive loading (*e.g.*, Iwamoto *et al.*, 2000; Beillas *et al.*, 2001; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005), but with very little or no assessment of the quality of the mesh. Elements which have large aspect ratios or which are highly distorted are sources of error which may result in poor accuracy or instability of the analysis (Valle and Ray, 2005).

The mesh described in this chapter was developed with accurate representation of the bone geometry being the highest priority. The geometry of the bone regions was directly computed from CT scans, and through control curves and the projection method a mesh was built that represents these surfaces. Most elements met the diagnostic targets, and were deemed to be of sufficient quality to properly characterize the bone. All of the relevant components used in the experimental tests (Chapter 3) were also meshed and aligned with the long axis of the bone. This mesh will be used in Chapter 6 to simulate the impact tests that were conducted experimentally, which will complete the evaluation

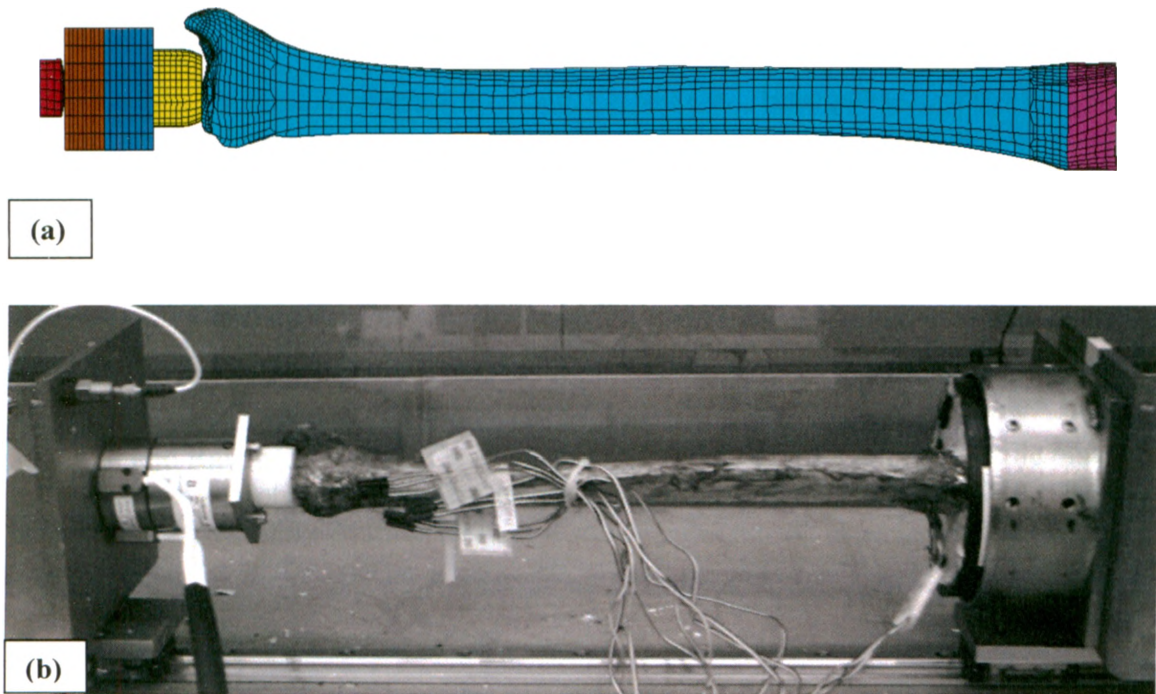


Figure 5.17: Completed Mesh of all Components Compared to Experimental Setup

(a) From left to right: projectile (red), foam (brown), distal bracket (dark blue), talus (yellow), tibia (light blue), and proximal bracket (purple). The components were all attached together except for the projectile-foam and the talus-bone interfaces. **(b)** Experimental setup with corresponding components (projectile and foam not shown).

of the model as a tool for injury prediction applications.

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CHAPTER 6 – Finite Element Model of a Tibia for Impact Analysis

Overview: This chapter provides details on the finite element simulations of the experimental testing of one cadaveric specimen from Chapter 3, using the mesh developed in Chapter 5. The iterative process followed to obtain the model that is most representative of the response of the experimental results is described in detail.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Experimental testing of cadaveric specimens may provide the most realistic representation of the natural human response to loading, but they are often not a practical option for injury assessment, particularly in an industrial setting. Automotive and defence manufacturers conduct the majority of their designs and safety assessments using computer simulations; as such, finite element models offer a useful method for evaluating injury risk. The models are advantageous in that they allow a variety of experimental variables to be investigated simulating destructive tests relatively quickly and at a relatively low cost once properly developed. These provide an alternative for injury assessment that can be implemented in survivability analyses.

Development of a good quality mesh (as discussed in Chapter 5) is extremely important for obtaining accurate results, but many other parameters need to be properly determined in the model construction. A critical component of a finite element model that must be decided *a priori* is the selection of appropriate material properties for bone. Accepted values for bone material properties vary through the literature (*e.g.*, Tannous *et*

al., 1996; Takahashi *et al.*, 2000). In some cases, the properties are allowed to vary throughout the bone, based on a density-elastic modulus relationship, where the density is obtained via a CT scan on an element-by-element basis (*e.g.*, Taddei *et al.*, 2006; Austman *et al.*, 2008). Alternatively, the bone is divided into gross regions (*i.e.*, cortical vs. cancellous) and each region is assigned a bulk property. Due to the complex computational nature of dynamic tests, the latter method (*i.e.*, bulk properties) is typically selected (*e.g.*, Iwamoto *et al.*, 2000; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2004). However, the range of bulk properties found in the literature is great, and the properties chosen to be modeled (*i.e.*, the inclusion of a plastic region or strain rate effects) also vary from study to study. A further parameter that requires definition in a model is the element formulation (*i.e.*, single-point or multi-point integration), which dictates how the stress is computed through an element. The appropriateness of bone material definition has received little attention in the literature, and further investigation is required.

Several previous studies have attempted to generate an injury-predicting finite element model (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Iwamoto *et al.*, 2000; Takahashi *et al.*, 2000; Beillas *et al.*, 2001; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005), but with very little validation. This would involve comparing the response of the model to that measured experimentally for the same loading and boundary conditions. The material properties can be varied within the range reported in the literature until best agreement is achieved. Comparisons can be made for both low-force (non-fracture) and high-force (fracture) tests.

The purpose of this study was to construct a finite element model based on a representative cadaveric tibia selected from the experimental impact tests (Chapter 3),

and meshed using TrueGrid[®] software (Chapter 5). Axial load magnitude, duration, velocity, impulse, and bone strains were compared to experimentally-obtained values and failure criteria were examined for obtaining the most representative model.

6.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

6.2.1 SOFTWARE OVERVIEW

The dynamic finite element software used in this study was LS-Dyna[®] (LSTC, Livermore, CA, USA). LS-Dyna[®] is widely used in the automotive and defence industries due to its ability to handle large strain dynamic simulations. This makes it a good solver for examining crashworthiness. The first version of LS-Dyna[®] was DYNA3D, which was initially developed in 1976. This was developed into the commercial software package LS-Dyna[®] in 1988, and has since undergone many iterations and further developments. The complimentary model editor and post-processor for the LS-Dyna[®] solver is LS-PrePost[®], which is used for initial setup of the model and plotting of outputs following simulation. Outputs can be in the form of 2D plots, 3D plots, and animations.

The LS-Dyna[®] solver runs text files called decks as the input code, which follow a specific format. Each command in the deck (*e.g.*, material definition, boundary condition, etc.) is termed a “card”, and has a pre-defined structure for parameter input. There are over 150 different material models available for solids and shells (MAT #), and the descriptions are available in the LS-Dyna[®] Keyword User’s Manual (LSTC, 2003). Numerous solid element formulations are likewise available, which affect how the stress is computed through an element. These include the default constant stress solid

(ELFORM 1), which has a single integration point, the fully integrated selective reduced solid (ELFORM 2), which has eight integration points, and the fully integrated quadratic 8 node element with nodal rotations (ELFORM 3), which has fourteen integration points. These are listed in increasing accuracy as well as computational cost.

6.2.2 DECK CREATION

The mesh developed in Chapter 5 and output in LS-Dyna[®] format (Appendix K) was used for the finite element model described within this chapter. Several commands had to be manually written into the deck for proper functioning. All units were selected to be consistent, with mm, ms, kg, and kN. Each component (cortical bone, cancellous bone, marrow, talus, distal bracket, foam, proximal bracket, projectile) was assigned a unique part, section, and material number.

As the nodes between the foam/distal bracket and distal bracket/talus were coincident and merged, they formed a continuous mesh, so no contact parameters were required. Contact was defined between the projectile and foam; an automatic surface-to-surface contact prevented nodes of one part from penetrating the surface of the other. A similar contact was defined between the talus and cortical bone, as well as between the talus and cancellous bone (for trials involving fracture). An additional contact card was defined preventing the nodes of the foam from penetrating its own faces (contact interior).

Boundary conditions were also written into the deck. The projectile, distal and proximal bracket parts were constrained to only move in the z -direction, mimicking the motion along the rail in the experimental setup (see Section 2.2.1). The projectile was given an initial velocity in the z -direction equal to the velocity achieved in the

experimental testing. This velocity was varied, so as to mimic the testing conditions for both the non-fracture and fracture tests (8.58 m/s and 11.37 m/s, respectively, corresponding to input target energies of 150 J and 250 J). A force was applied to the distal bracket in the negative z -direction to simulate the frictional forces that develop as a result of the large bending moment resisted by the bearings. The magnitude of this force was estimated using a frictional coefficient of 0.5, which was selected based on the measured distal bracket velocity (against the ATD leg in Chapter 3) compared to the theoretical velocity in a perfectly elastic collision. Outputs were written to record the nodal forces at the talus, and element information for each of the strain gauge sets described in Section 5.5.

6.2.3 EXPERIMENTAL COMPONENTS

The components used in the experimental testing were defined based on their known material properties.

6.2.3.1 RIGID COMPONENTS

There were three stainless steel components in the current model – the projectile and the distal and proximal brackets. The projectile was modeled using the curvature of the experimental projectile, but the brackets were modeled as blocks as their purpose was purely for inertial effects. As stainless steel is more than 10 times as stiff as cortical bone, it was decided that these components would experience negligible deformations, and could therefore be modeled using rigid materials (LS-Dyna[®] material model MAT 20). This has the advantage of reducing computational complexity, as the nodes in these

parts do not move relative to each other. The volumes of each “block” of rigid material were measured using LS-PrePost[®] and densities were assigned as needed to achieve masses matching the corresponding components used experimentally.

6.2.3.2 POLYURETHANE FOAM

Simulation of foam is challenging due to the variability in material properties and the large deformations that can be experienced. Several material models exist in LS-Dyna[®] for modeling foams. A low density foam model is recommended as an appropriate formulation that has shown good correlation with physical test values (Sambamoorthy and Halder, 2001). This model is appropriate for simulating highly compressible, low density foams, and typically is used for seat cushions (LSTC, 2003). However, this resulted in unrealistically large compressions during initial trials of the model due to the concentrated load application. As such, the polyurethane was modeled as a simple elastic material, and the modulus was determined from experimental testing on the foam in an Instron[®] materials testing machine (*i.e.*, $E = 2.5$ MPa). A selective reduced integrated solid element formulation was used for the foam (ELFORM 2), which is recommended as it prevents pressure locking (Sambamoorthy and Halder, 2001).

6.2.3.3 POLYETHYLENE TALUS

The artificial talus was machined from high-density polyethylene, and was modeled using an elastic material model. The talus experienced relatively small deformations during the tests (on the order of $2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$), but could not be modeled as a rigid material since such materials do not provide force output in LS-Dyna[®], and this was the required

location for force measurement. A constant stress solid element formulation (ELFORM 1), the least computationally intensive, was used for this component to increase analysis speed due to the relatively small deformations experienced.

6.2.4 BONE OPTIMIZATION

The representation of cortical and cancellous bone in previous LS-Dyna[®] studies has varied greatly. For this purpose, numerous parameters were investigated in order to assess their influence on the bone response (Figure 6.1), with the aim of optimizing the model to best represent the experimental response.

6.2.4.1 MATERIAL PROPERTIES

The properties required to define the cortical bone model were the density, elastic modulus, Poisson's ratio, yield stress, and tangent modulus. Densities from the literature ranged from 1500 to 2100 kg/m³ (Beillas *et al.*, 2001; Kim *et al.*, 2005), with the most commonly used value approximately 1850 kg/m³ (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997; Beillas *et al.*, 2001). The elastic modulus used for previous tibia models ranged from 12 – 20 GPa (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997). As the specimen being modeled was from a young donor, an elastic modulus of 20 GPa was selected. This is similar to the modulus reported by Yamada *et al.* (1970). Poisson's ratio in nearly all previous finite element tibia studies is 0.3 (*e.g.* Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005), and was used for the present model as well. The yield stress of cortical bone has been consistently reported in the literature to be approximately 0.120 – 0.129 GPa (Burstein *et al.*, 1976; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). Again, due to the specimen being from a young donor, the yield

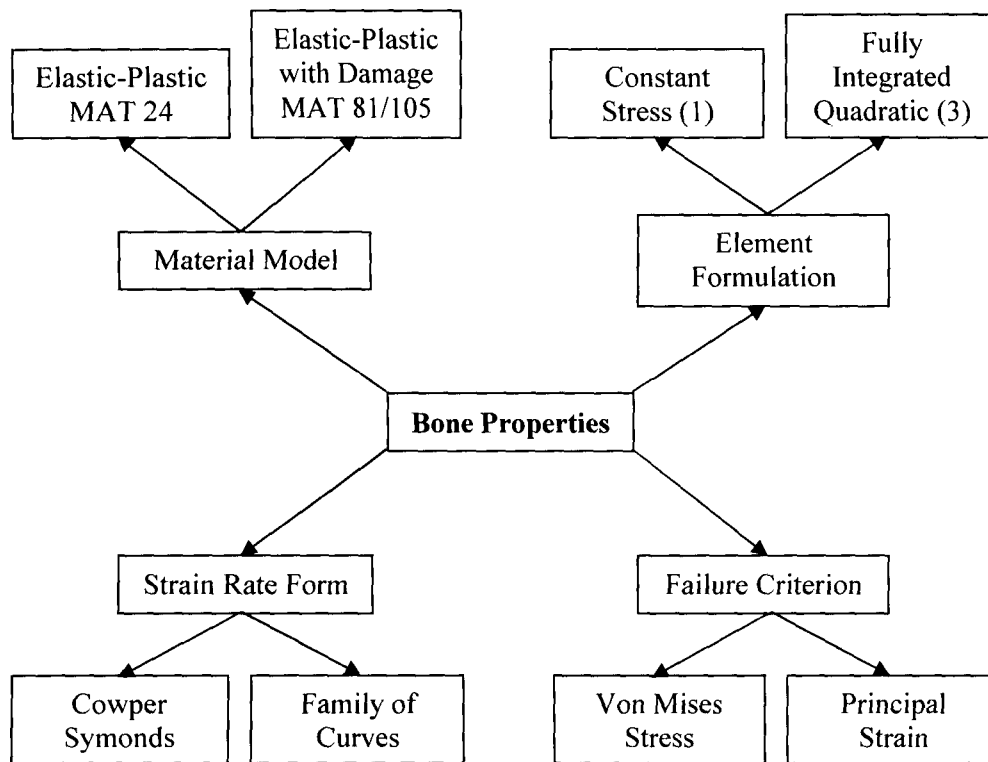


Figure 6.1: Parameters Investigated for Bone Properties

Two material models, two element formulations, two strain rate effect formulations, and two failure criteria were examined to determine the optimal bone properties.

stress was selected to be at the upper end, at 0.129 GPa. The plastic modulus (E_{tan}) was selected as 1 GPa (Burstein *et al.*, 1976), which is the recommended value of 5% of the elastic modulus (Imai *et al.*, 2006).

The same properties were defined for the cancellous bone component. Densities from the literature ranged from 454 to 1500 kg/m³ (Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997; Kim *et al.*, 2005), with the most commonly used value approximately 1000 kg/m³ (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The elastic modulus in previous tibia models ranged from 0.25 – 0.53 GPa (Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997; Kim *et al.*, 2005), and 0.5 GPa was selected due to specimen age. Poisson's ratio was again selected to be 0.3 and yield stress was defined as 10 MPa (Kim *et al.*, 2005). The plastic modulus (E_{tan}) was selected as 5% of the elastic modulus (*i.e.*, 0.025 GPa).

Marrow is often neglected in finite element models of bone due to its low load transmission properties. However, the presence of this material can have an effect on the bone response to high strain rate loading (Carter and Hayes, 1977), and as such was included in the present study. Marrow was defined simply as an elastic material, with a density of 1000 kg/m³, a modulus of 20 MPa, and a Poisson's ratio of 0.499 (Peng *et al.*, 2006).

6.2.4.2 MATERIAL MODEL

In previously-reported finite element models, cortical and cancellous bone have been modeled as one of three LS-Dyna[®] material types: linear elastic (MAT 1), elastic-plastic (MAT 24) and elastic-plastic with damage (MAT 81 and MAT 105 for cortical and cancellous, respectively). Linear elastic models were used in early modeling of this type

(Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Beaugonin *et al.*, 1997). This had the limitations of no yielding, no plastic deformation, and no strain rate effects. To better model bone, an elastic-plastic material model has become the new standard (Beillas *et al.*, 2001; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). This material consists of a bilinear modulus curve, with optional inclusion of strain rate effects (LSTC, 2003). A final material model that was used in a previous study was elastic-plastic with damage effects (Kim *et al.*, 2005). This included all the parameters of the previous material, but formulated with continuum damage mechanics, and includes a failure strain. Once the plastic strain in an element reaches this level, the element is deleted and no longer bears any load. It is hypothesized that this could realistically mimic fractures. For the elastic-plastic with damage model, a failure strain of 0.016 was used as the element deletion criteria for cortical bone, and 0.134 for cancellous bone (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The elastic-plastic and the elastic-plastic with damage materials were both investigated in the current work.

6.2.4.3 ELEMENT FORMULATION

A constant stress solid element formulation (ELFORM 1) offers the fastest analysis speed (due to its low computational requirements), but is at risk of a phenomenon called hourglassing. The stress in this type of element is only computed at the center of the element, and as such the element may experience deformation that results in a state of zero stress. The use of this type of element is preferable if the accuracy sacrificed is minimal, due to the reduction in simulation time.

An element formulation which is not prone to hourglassing is the fully integrated quadratic 8 node element with nodal rotations (ELFORM 3). This element formulation

has fourteen integration points, and as such can be more accurate (and computationally expensive) than the constant stress type (Valle and Ray, 2005).

6.2.4.4 STRAIN RATE FORMULATION

Bone is a viscoelastic material, and therefore has a variable response depending on strain rate. Two different strain rate effect formulations were examined in this thesis. The first was the Cowper-Symonds model, which scales the yield stress according to the factor:

$$1 + \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{C} \right)^{1/p} \quad (\text{Eq. 6.1})$$

Where $\dot{\epsilon}$ is the strain rate, $C = 360.7$, and $p = 4.605$ (LSTC, 2003; Iwamoto *et al.*, 2005) for both cortical and cancellous bone components (Figure 6.2). The second strain rate formulation examined was through the definition of a family of curves for a series of strain rates. These curves have been previously defined for the tibia (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2004) (Figure 6.3). Intermediate strain rates are found by interpolating between the curves defined, and strain rates above the maximum level provided (1/s) use the highest curve. This strain rate formulation was only tested for cortical bone, as a set of strain rate curves for cancellous bone were not presented in the literature.

6.2.4.5 FAILURE CRITERIA

Maximum principal strain and Von Mises stress have both been previously used as failure criteria for finite element models which do not simulate fracture via element deletion (Takahashi *et al.*, 2000; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The applicability of these parameters to assess the fracture risk in the present model was examined by plotting the

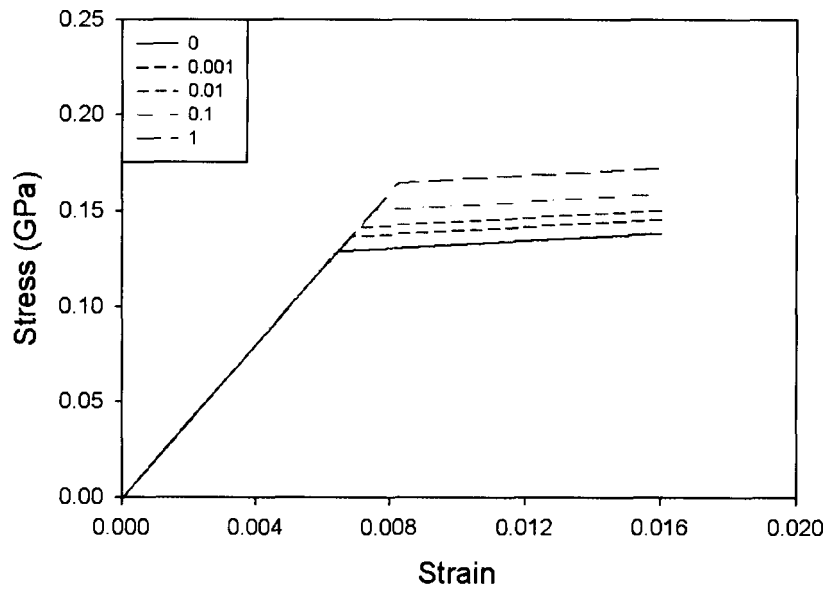


Figure 6.2: Cowper-Symonds Strain Rate

A series of strain rate curves (s^{-1}) demonstrates the Cowper-Symonds strain rate effect model (Eq. 6.1), which alters the yield stress only.

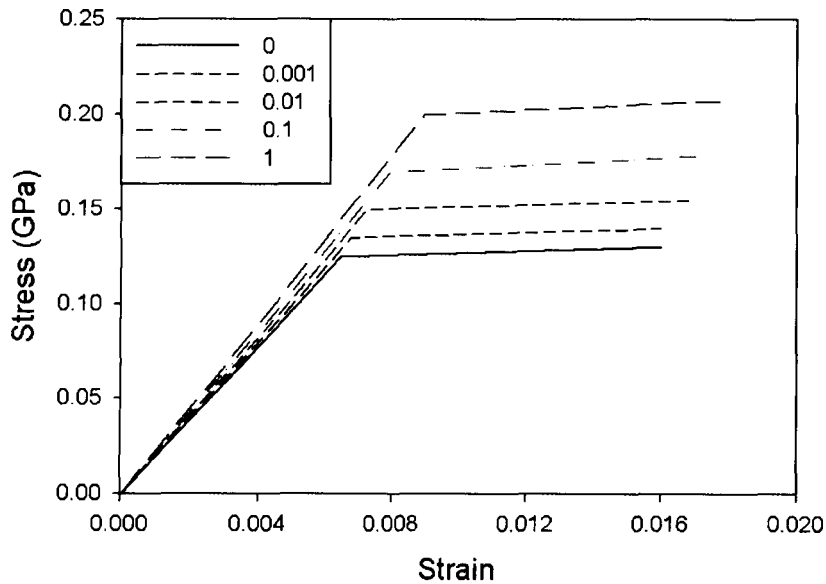


Figure 6.3: Strain Rate Family of Curves

A series of strain rate curves (s^{-1}) was defined based on a previous study (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2004). Strain rates above the maximum rate defined ($1/s$) used the curve for the $1/s$ rate.

maximum principal strain and the Von Mises stress for the non-fracture (*i.e.*, 150 J) and fracture (*i.e.*, 250 J) simulations. The critical strain level in cancellous bone was 0.134, and for cortical bone was 0.016 (Takahashi *et al.*, 2000; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The ultimate stress for the cancellous region was 5.3 MPa, and for the cortical bone was 134 MPa (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The injury risk equation developed in Chapter 3 (Eq. 3.2) was also applied to assess the simulations (using the peak axial force, applied kinetic energy, and height and age of the specimen donor).

6.2.5 SUMMARY

The values used for the components described in Sections 6.2.3 and 6.2.4 are summarized in Table 6.1.

6.3 RESULTS

Several outputs formed the basis of comparison between the finite element simulations and the experimental tests (Chapter 3). The axial force (as measured at the talus node set and with the load cell) and impact duration were the primary basis of comparison, as this is what has been used in previous studies. The values presented throughout this section are given with their percentage of experimental value in brackets immediately following. The corresponding impulses and distal bracket velocities were also examined, and the principal strains calculated for the locations of the strain gauges (for the non-fracture test only, as was done in Chapter 3). These points of comparison were used to select the set of properties for the bone that best matched the impact tests simulated. For the best model parameters selected, failure criteria (Von Mises stress and

Table 6.1: Material Properties

Properties for the tibia were taken from the literature, and the brackets and projectile were modeled with properties of steel and densities calculated to give the appropriate masses to the general blocks built in the mesh (both 6.8 kg and 3.9 kg projectile properties are included).

	Mass Density (kg/m ³)	Rigid Part Volume (mm ³)	Elastic Modulus (MPa)	Plastic Modulus (MPa)	Poisson's Ratio	Yield Stress (MPa)
Cortical Bone	1850	-	20000	1000	0.3	129
Cancellous Bone	1000	-	500	26.5	0.3	10
Marrow	1000	-	20	-	0.499	-
Polyethylene Talus	1000	-	1700	-	0.35	-
Distal Bracket	9590	44995	210000	-	0.3	-
Foam	40	-	2.5	-	0.2	-
Proximal Bracket	147600	37964	210000	-	0.3	-
Projectile (6.8 kg)	1690000	4017	210000	-	0.3	-
Projectile (3.9 kg)	971000	4017	210000	-	0.3	-

maximum principal strain) and the injury risk equation developed in Chapter 3 were evaluated.

6.3.1 BONE MATERIAL MODEL

The evaluation of material models was conducted using the fully integrated element formulation (ELFORM 3) and Cowper-Symonds strain rate effects.

6.3.1.1 ELASTIC-PLASTIC MATERIAL

The elastic-plastic material model achieved a peak axial force for the non-fracture simulation of 8.9 kN (74% of experimental), over a time duration of 3.2 ms (89%) (Figure 6.4). This resulted in an applied impulse, calculated by integrating the force-time curve, of 14.5 Ns (91%). The velocity of the distal bracket in the simulation was 2.45 m/s (122%).

For the fracture simulation, this model reached a peak force of 15.1 kN (121%), over a time duration of 3.1 ms (103%) (Figure 6.5). The corresponding impulse was 23.8 Ns (123%). The velocity of the distal bracket was 4 m/s (400%).

6.3.1.2 ELASTIC-PLASTIC WITH DAMAGE MATERIAL

The elastic-plastic with damage material model (which allowed element erosion) resulted in elements being deleted in both the non-fracture and fracture tests (Figure 6.6). Because the eroded elements could no longer carry any load, the axial force resulting from these tests was vastly different from those found experimentally (2.8 kN (23%) for the non-fracture, 4.4 kN (35%) for the fracture) (see Figures 6.4 and 6.5). Due to this

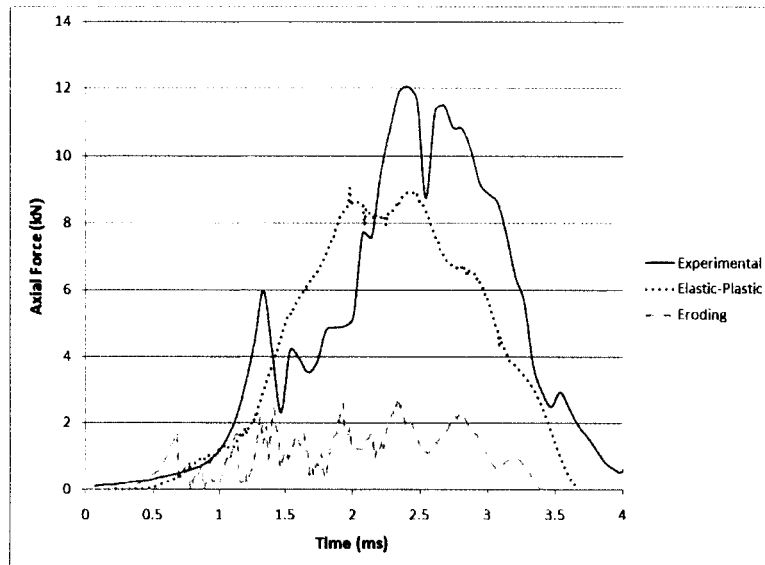


Figure 6.4: Axial Force for Material Models, Non-Fracture

The peak force using the elastic-plastic material model was 74% of that attained experimentally, whereas the peak force using the elastic-plastic with damage material model (*i.e.*, eroding) was 23%.

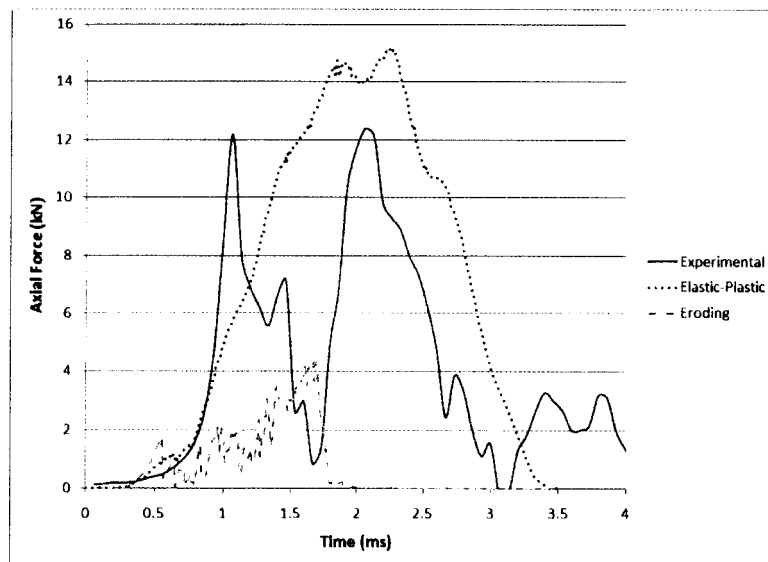


Figure 6.5: Axial Force for Material Models, Fracture

The peak force using the elastic-plastic material model was 121% of that attained experimentally, whereas the peak force using the elastic-plastic with damage material model (*i.e.*, eroding) was 35%.

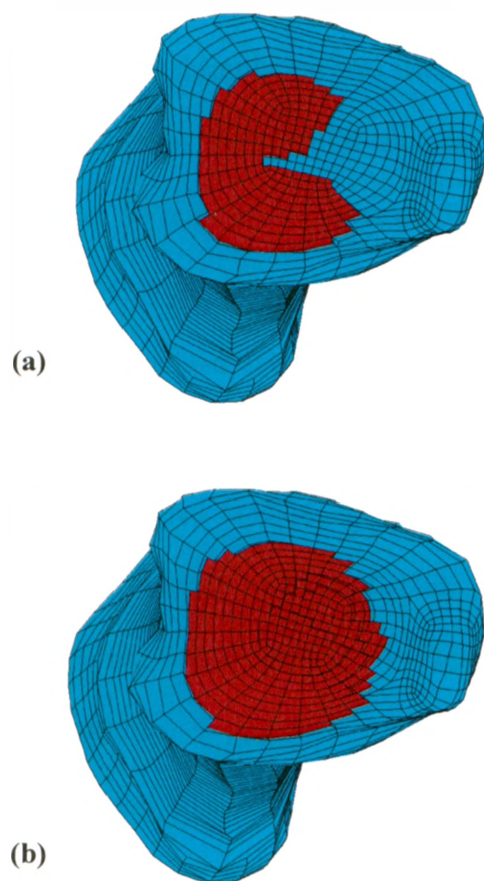


Figure 6.6: Element Erosion

Blue elements represent cortical bone, and pink represents cancellous bone. In both (a) the non-fracture and (b) the fracture simulations cortical elements exceeded the failure strain criterion (0.016). They were then eroded, exposing the cancellous bone. In the fracture simulation (b), cancellous elements exceeded the failure strain criterion (0.134) and were eroded (*i.e.*, step-downs in pink region).

dramatic difference, the elastic-plastic material model (Section 6.3.1.1) was used for all other parameter assessments.

6.3.2 *ELEMENT FORMULATION*

The family of curves strain rate formulation was used for evaluation of the effect of element formulation. The constant stress solid element formulation (ELFORM 1) simulation ran in an average of 30 minutes, whereas the fully integrated 8 node element with nodal rotations (ELFORM 3) ran in an average of 3 hours. For the non-fracture simulation, ELFORM 1 achieved a peak force of 8.9 kN (74% of experimental) over a load duration of 3.2 ms (89%), resulting in an impulse of 14.5 Ns (91%) (Figure 6.7). This was with a corresponding distal bracket velocity of 2.45 m/s (122%). For the fracture simulation, ELFORM 1 reached 15.1 kN (121%), with a loading time of 3.1 ms (103%), and an applied impulse of 23.8 Ns (123%) (Figure 6.8). The velocity of the distal bracket reached 4 m/s (400%).

For the non-fracture simulation, ELFORM 3 achieved a peak force of 10.4 kN (87%), lasting 3.1 ms (86%), with an impulse of 17.0 Ns (106%). The distal bracket reached a speed of 2.86 m/s (143%). In the fracture case, the axial force reached 15.7 kN (125%), loading was applied over 3.3 ms (110%), creating an impulse of 25.4 Ns (132%). The distal bracket reached a peak velocity of 4.27 m/s (427%). ELFORM 3 was used for assessment of strain rate effects.

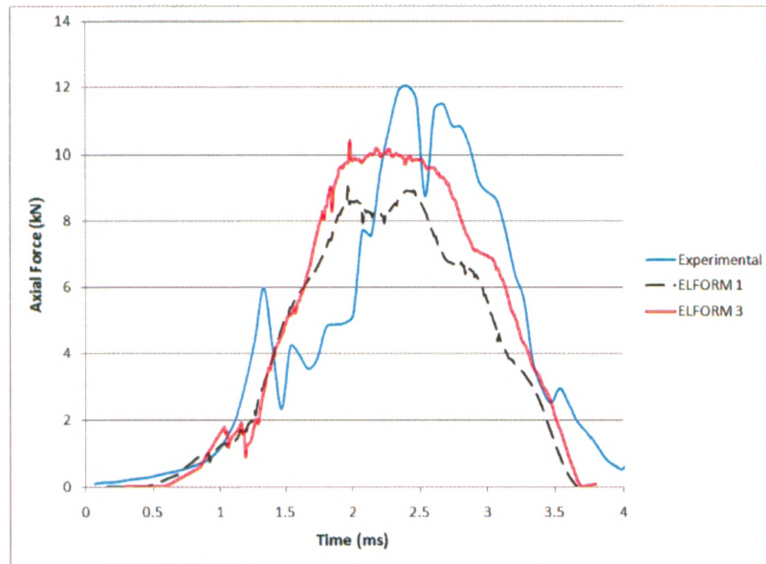


Figure 6.7: Axial Force for Element Formulation, Non-Fracture

The constant stress formulation (ELFORM 1) achieved a peak force 74% of that experimentally, whereas the fully integrated quadratic formulation (ELFORM 3) achieved a peak force 87% of the experimental.

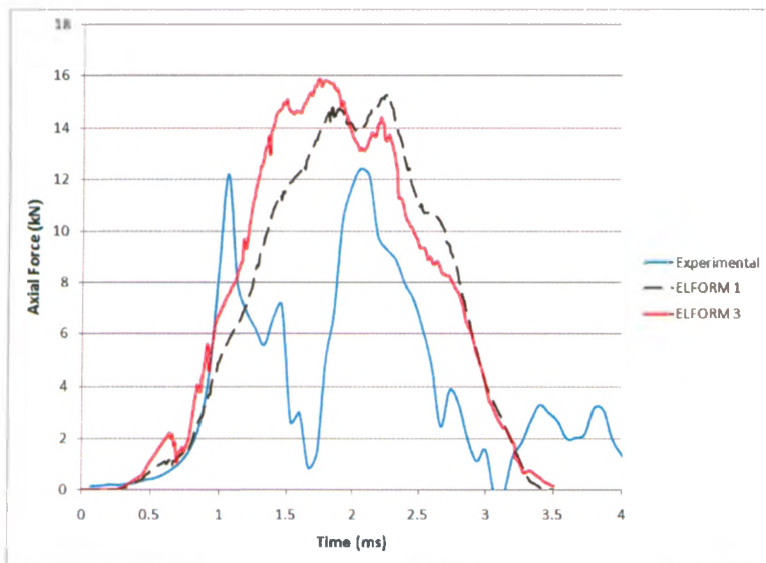


Figure 6.8: Axial Force for Element Formulation, Fracture

The constant stress formulation (ELFORM 1) achieved a peak force 121% of that experimentally, whereas the fully integrated quadratic formulation (ELFORM 3) achieved a peak force 125% of the experimental.

6.3.3 *STRAIN RATE FORMULATION*

6.3.3.1 COWPER-SYMONDS EQUATION APPROACH

The elastic-plastic material model with strain rate effects using the Cowper-Symonds yield stress scaling equation (Eq. 6.1) reached a peak axial force of 12.5 kN for the non-fracture simulation (104% of experimental) over a duration of 3 ms (83%), resulting in an impulse of 18.8 Ns (117%) (Figure 6.9). The distal bracket velocity attained in the simulation was 3.1 m/s (155%). For the fracture simulation, this formulation reached a peak force of 17.9 kN (143%) over a duration of 2.9 ms (97%) with a corresponding impulse of 27.0 Ns (140%) (Figure 6.10). The distal bracket velocity in the simulation was 4.5 m/s (450%).

6.3.3.2 FAMILY OF STRAIN CURVES APPROACH

The family of strain rate curves attained a peak axial force for the non-fracture simulation of 10.4 kN (87%), with a loading duration of 3.1 ms (86%), resulting in an impulse of 17.0 Ns (106%). The distal bracket velocity was 2.9 m/s (143%). Likewise, for the fracture simulation, the peak force was 15.7 kN (126%), over a time span of 3.3 ms (110%), creating an impulse of 25.4 Ns (132%). The bracket velocity in this simulation reached 4.3 m/s (427%).

6.3.3.3 EFFECT ON STRAINS AT STRAIN GAUGE LOCATIONS

At the distal-most gauge (Gauge 1) neither strain rate formulation predicted the strains well, with the Cowper-Symonds method overestimating the experimental principal strains by as much as 8 times, and the family of curves overestimating them by as much

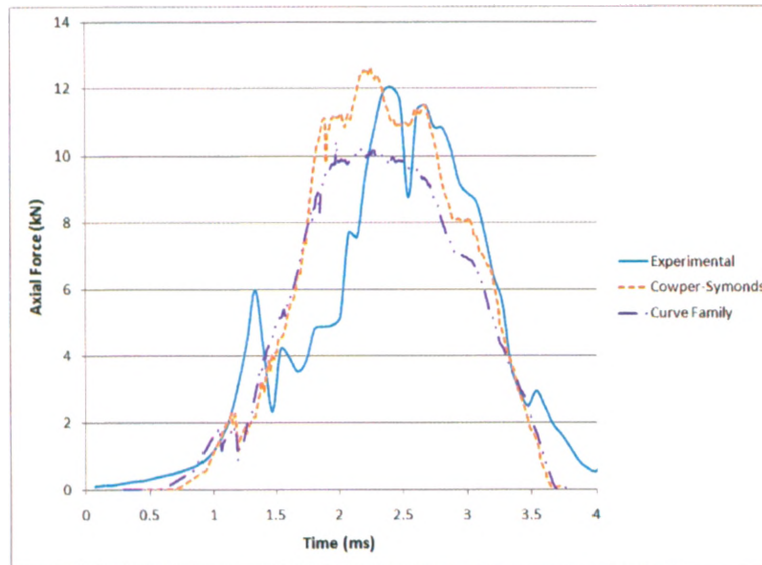


Figure 6.9: Axial Force for Strain Rate Formulations, Non-Fracture

The peak force using the Cowper-Symonds formulation was 104% of that attained experimentally, whereas the peak force using the family of strain rate curves was 87%.

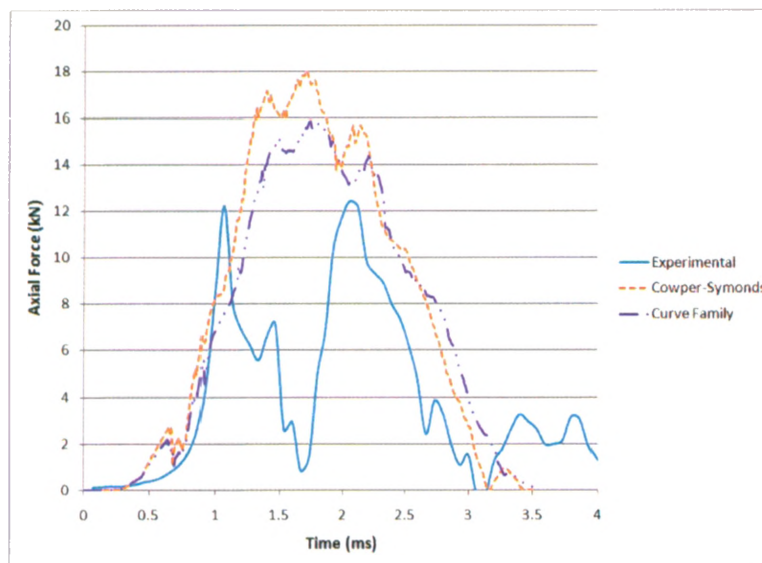


Figure 6.10: Axial Force for Strain Rate Formulations, Fracture

The peak force using the Cowper-Symonds formulation was 143% of that attained experimentally, whereas the peak force using the family of strain rate curves was 126%.

as 6 times (Figure 6.11). At the second gauge (Gauge 2), the Cowper-Symonds method overestimated the principal strains by a factor of 5, whereas the family of curves was worse, with predicted strains being up to 8.5 times the strains measured experimentally. At the third gauge (Gauge 3) the Cowper-Symonds formulation aligned well with experimental strains, with predicted values of 0.7 times the experimental values. The family of curves was closer as well, yet continued to over-predict the strains by a factor of 2. At the fourth strain gauge (Gauge 4) strains were negligible, and no difference between strain rate formulations was evident.

6.3.4 OPTIMAL BONE PARAMETERS

The results from the non-fracture studies conducted in sections 6.3.2 and 6.3.3 are summarized in Table 6.2, with the percent difference from experimental given in brackets. As it was understood that the fracture simulation would have limitations in its ability to represent the energy absorbed during a fracture, it was decided to select the optimal parameters based on the non-fracture study. The parameter closest to experimental for each factor examined is thus highlighted. The best material model was determined in section 6.3.1 to be an elastic-plastic material model. The fully integrated element formulation (ELFORM 3) appeared to better match experimental values than the constant stress solid (Section 6.3.2), and as such was selected for the final model. The best formulation for strain rate effects as presented in section 6.3.3 was selected to be the use of a family of strain rate curves defining viscoelastic effects, with the Cowper-Symonds scaling equation performing nearly as well.

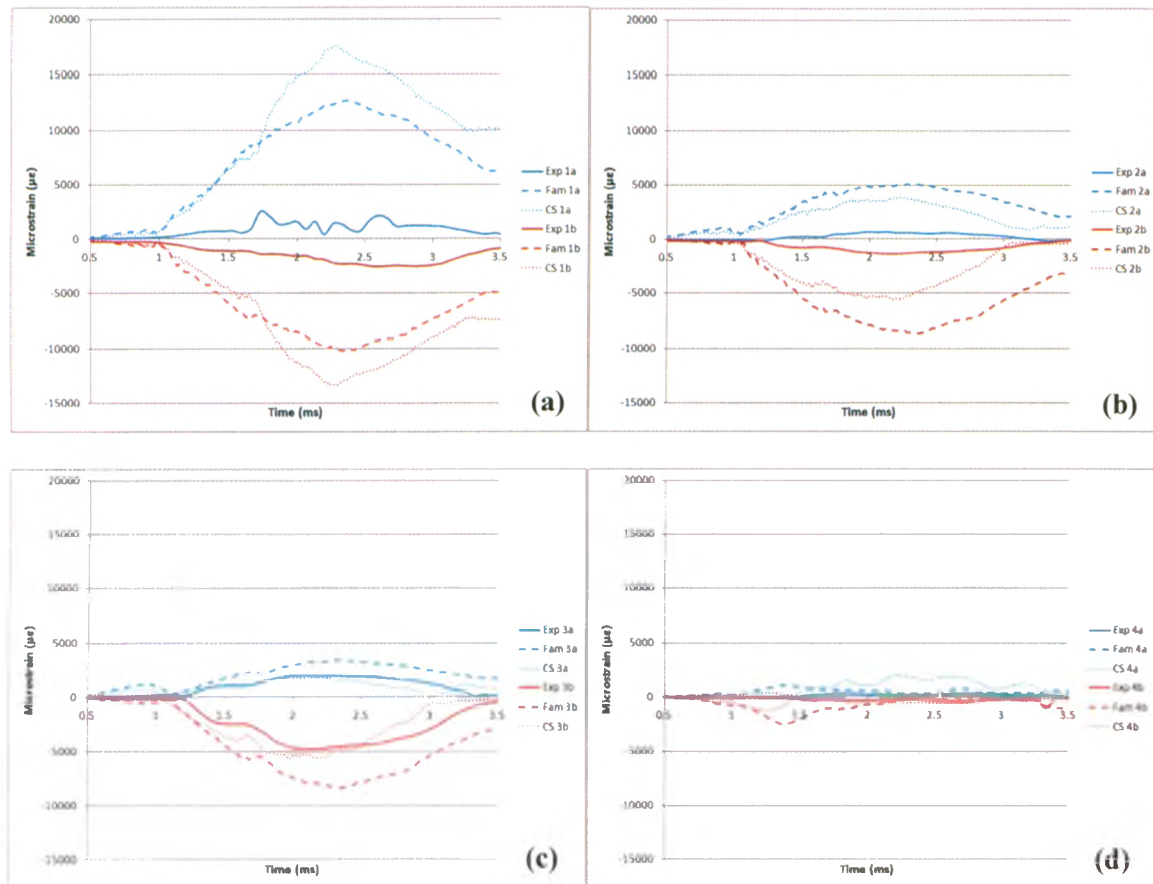


Figure 6.11: Principal Strains, Strain Rate Formulations

The principal strains corresponding to the gauges (a) Gauge 1, (b) Gauge 2, (c) Gauge 3, and (d) Gauge 4 for experimental (solid lines) and Cowper-Symonds and family of curve strain rate formulations. At Gauge 1 the family of curves was closer to experimental; while at Gauges 2 and 3 the Cowper-Symonds equation provided the best representation. There was little difference at Gauge 4.

Table 6.2: Summary of Parameters Evaluated

The two element formulations and the two strain rate formulations were compared to experimental values for peak axial force (F), impact duration (t), impulse (Imp), and bracket velocity (V). Values are presented with percentages of experimental values listed in brackets immediately following. The parameter which was closest to experimental is highlighted in blue. From this ELFORM 3 and the Family of Curves strain rate formulation were selected.

	F (kN)	t (ms)	Imp (Ns)	V (m/s)
ELFORM 1	8.9 (74)	3.2 (89)	14.5 (91)	2.4 (122)
ELFORM 3	10.4 (87)	3.1 (86)	17.0 (106)	2.9 (143)
Cowper-Symonds	12.5 (104)	3 (83)	18.8 (117)	3.1 (155)
Family of Curves	10.4 (87)	3.1 (86)	17.0 (106)	2.9 (143)

6.3.5 FAILURE CRITERIA

The two failure criteria (Von Mises stress and maximum principal strain) were assessed by plotting both the non-fracture and fracture conditions for the final model parameters (*i.e.*, elastic-plastic material, family of curves strain rate formulation, and fully integrated elements). Regions which exceeded the ultimate strain values (as defined in Section 6.2.4.4) were highlighted in red (Figure 6.12). A small number of elements exceeded the maximum principal strain level in the cortical bone in the non-fracture test, and a larger number in the fracture test. Cancellous strains never exceeded the critical level. A similar trend was noticed in the cortical bone for Von Mises stress (Figure 6.13), with a small number ‘failing’ in the non-fracture test and a larger number in the fracture simulation. The cancellous bone, however, exceeded the Von Mises criteria in a large number of elements for both tests.

Using the force-based injury curve (Figure 3.8), the injury risk from the non-fracture simulation was 32% and for the fracture simulation was 95%. Using the injury risk equation developed in Chapter 3 (Eq. 3.2, Figure 3.7), and the force and kinetic energy values from the present model, the injury risk from the non-fracture simulation was <1% and for the fracture simulation was 33% (Figure 6.14).

6.4 DISCUSSION

Finite element models are a promising tool for assessing injury potential to humans and for the design of protective measures. Many researchers have reported models to represent the response and injury risk to the lower leg (*e.g.*, Iwamoto *et al.*, 2005; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005) but with very little validation. In order for the results from the

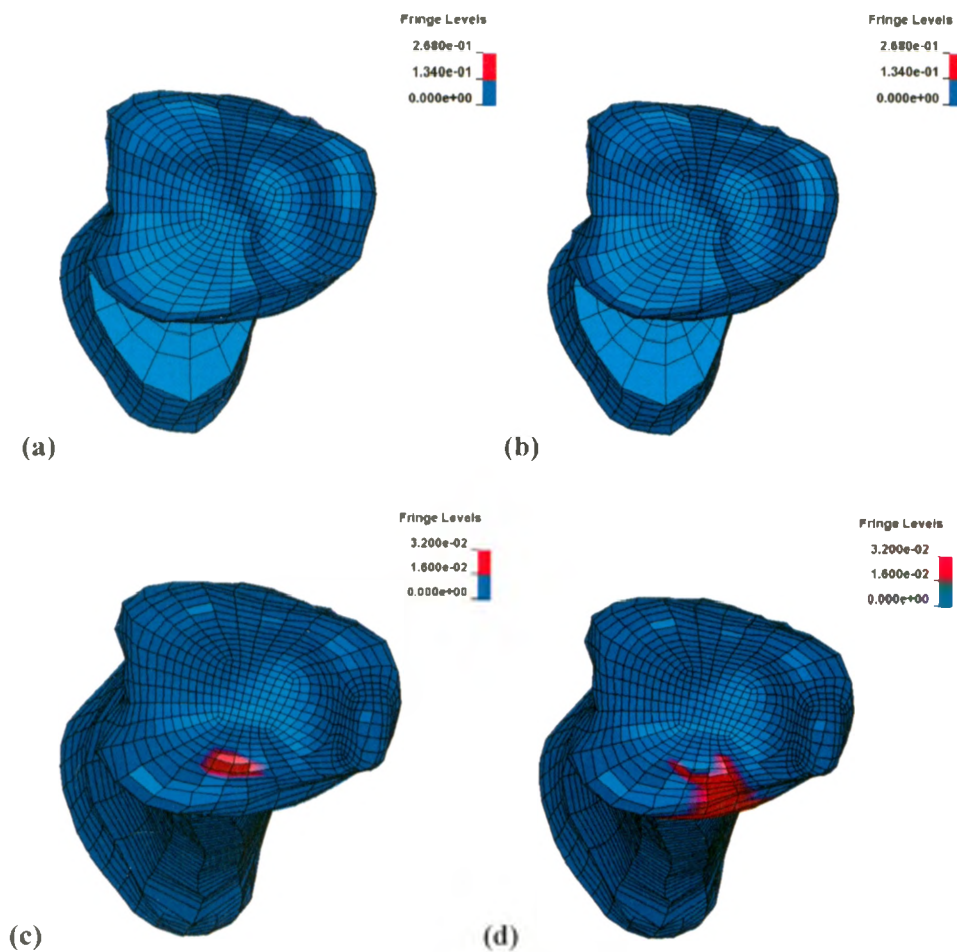


Figure 6.12: Maximum Principal Strains

Maximum principal strains which exceeded the critical level are shown in red. (a) non-fracture, cancellous (b) fracture, cancellous (c) non-fracture cortical (d) fracture, cortical. The critical cortical strain level was 0.016, and cancellous was 0.134.

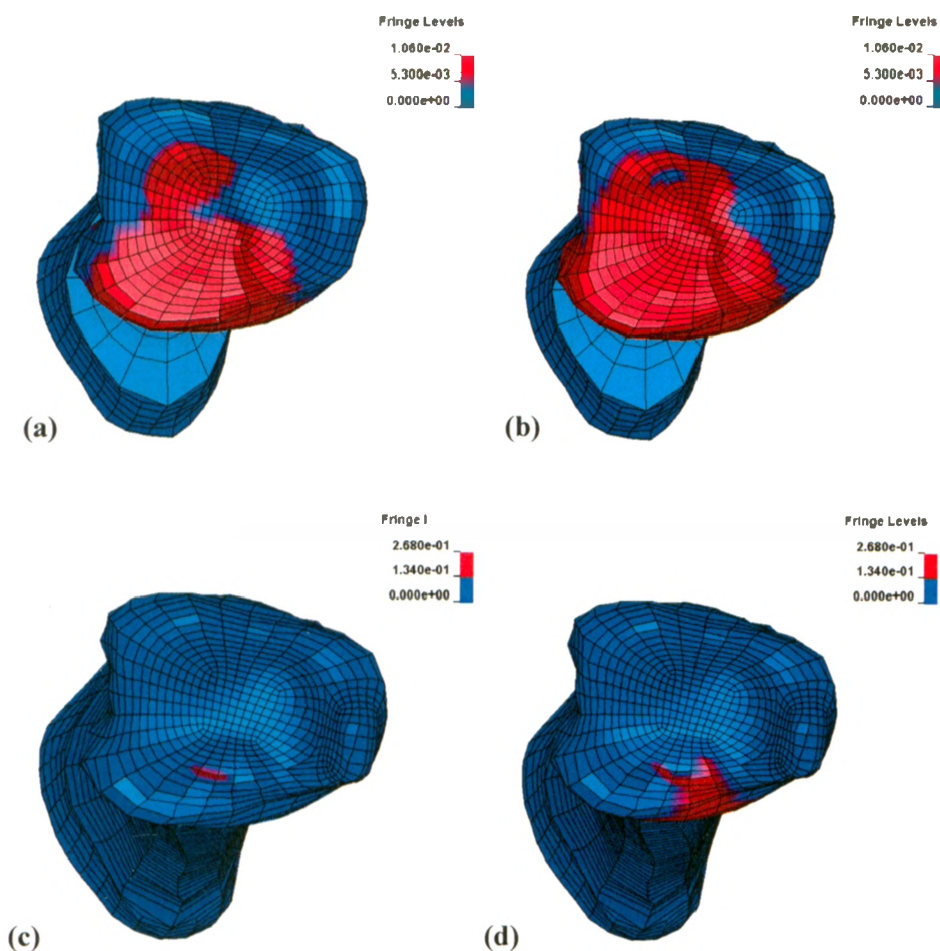


Figure 6.13: Von Mises Stress

Maximum Von Mises stresses which exceeded the critical level are shown in red. (a) non-fracture, cancellous (b) fracture, cancellous (c) non-fracture cortical (d) fracture, cortical. The critical cortical stress was 134 MPa, and was 5.3 MPa for cancellous bone.

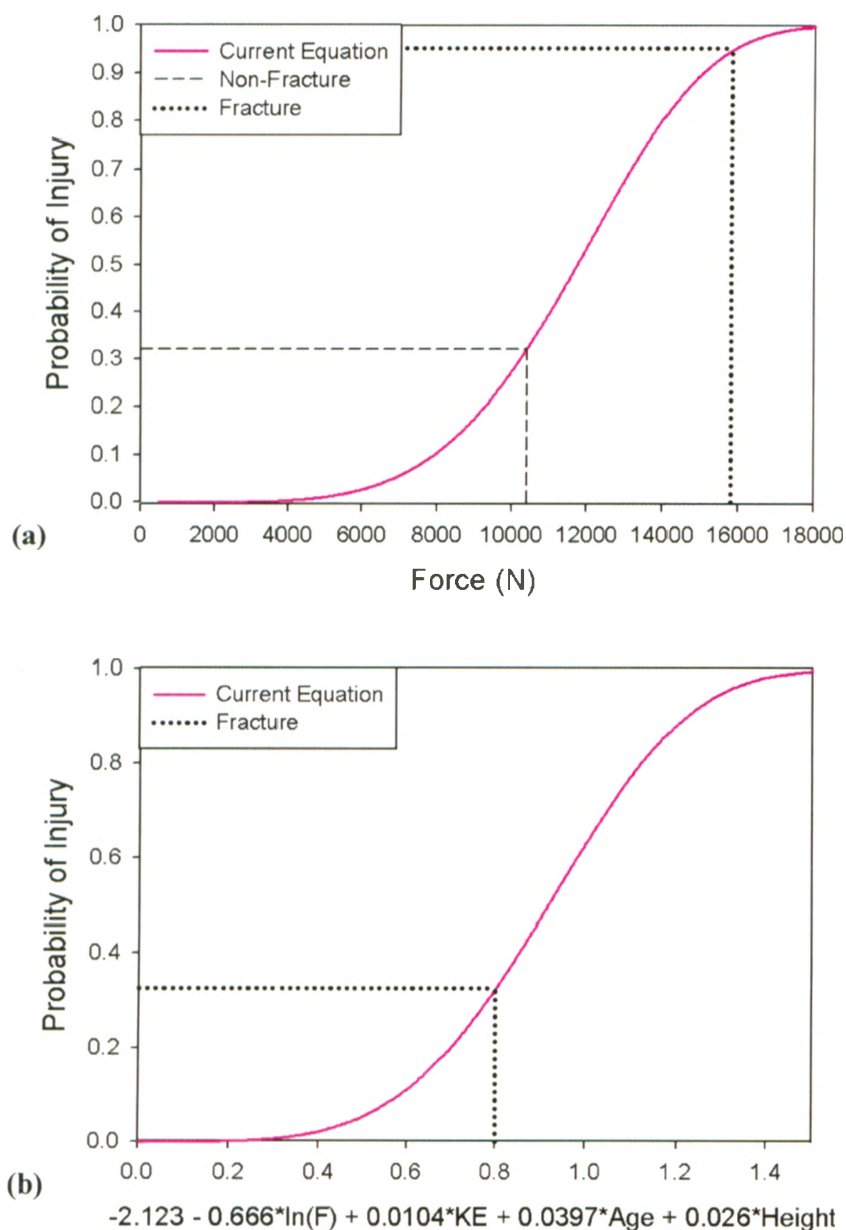


Figure 6.14: Application of Injury Risk Curves

The injury risk curves from Chapter 3 were applied to the non-fracture and fracture simulations, for (a) the force-only curve, and (b) the newly developed equation (Eq. 3.2).

model to be meaningful, a thorough investigation of its ability to represent the natural response of bone must be conducted.

The model built in this study has been developed to most represent natural cadaveric bone, as well as to predict the occurrence of injury in the specimen. It has the advantage of the geometry being taken from CT scans of the specimen which was actually tested, rather than from the Visible Human Project (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005). It was compared to the actual dynamic data from its impact testing (Chapter 3), rather than against previously published whole-bone response data (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005), allowing for a more precise investigation into its response.

The representation of fracture, and the effect it has on geometry and energy absorption, is a difficult challenge in finite element modeling. The use of element deletion beyond a failure strain level was examined, but was found to be inappropriate. In the experimental testing conducted in Chapter 3, a crushing type of failure mechanism was noted. In such a case energy would be absorbed during the fracture, and then the resistance to loading would increase again as the “crushed” material built up behind the talus. This is the likely source of the double-hump of the experimental fracture curve (*e.g.*, Figure 6.5). If the elements are deleted, they cannot allow this “build up” of material to occur, and thus the ability to carry load is limited.

For the non-fracture impact level, the force, time duration, velocity, and impulse showed qualitatively good agreement between model and experimental responses. As evidenced by the small dip in the experimental curve, it is possible that small amounts of damage were occurring at this testing severity, which weren't represented in the model response. The model exceeded the experimental force for the fracture test, which is

unsurprising, but matched the time duration well. The velocity was likely higher in the model than experimentally for the fracture test because of the lack of energy absorption in combination with the “sticking” that occurred during the injury (as the talus drove into the distal region). Previous finite element models compared predicted fracture forces to experimentally obtained values, with an average difference of 10 – 15% (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2004; Iwamoto *et al.*, 2005) that could range up to 30 – 40% (Tannous *et al.*, 1996; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The present model predicted experimentally-measured values within a maximum of 20%.

The agreement between experimental strain gauges and strains obtained in the simulation was not as good as expected; however, this could be attributed to the lack of regional variations in the model material properties. As well, strain rates as high as 5 per second were noted in the non-fracture simulation, so a family of strain rate curves that encompassed this range would likely improve accuracy of this formulation. LS-Dyna[®] presents maximum and minimum strains for the 3D volume, and in the current version of the software is unable to output surface strains. This may have contributed to the lack of agreement with the strain gauges. Strain gauge placement was limited experimentally, and as such only provided information about discrete locations for the non-fracture tests. Better agreement may have been attained at other locations along the bone which were not instrumented. Only one previous finite element investigation has looked at principal strains in comparison with a strain gauge experimentally (Untaroiu *et al.*, 2004; Untaroiu *et al.*, 2005). The maximum principal strain from this finite element study was compared to results from an experimental group, and was a maximum of 25% higher or lower than experimental strains (as calculated by the present author).

There were a number of limitations to this study, many of which are common with this type of dynamic finite element modeling. The bone properties were simplified for computational ease. Both cortical and cancellous bone models were isotropic and homogeneous, which is not a true representation of the properties of bone; however, this allowed a minimum number of materials to be defined. These are simplifications that have been used by most others in the dynamic modeling community (*e.g.*, Untaroiu, 2005; Iwamoto 2005), and has been shown to have little effect (Peng *et al.*, 2006). Only one specimen was examined, but it was selected as the most representative of those tested experimentally. As well, this model has only been validated for axial impact loads, and as such should not be used to simulate bending impacts such as those present in pedestrian strikes without further investigation. Finally, a convergence study to assess whether the mesh density was adequate should be performed, as decreasing the element size may improve the response of the model.

For the injury curves that were applied to the simulations, the force-only injury curve proved to be a good indicator of fracture risk. The poor performance of the newly-developed curve was the result of artificially high forces in the model (due to the inability to simulate fracture). Therefore, the model performs best for non-fracture scenarios.

As fractures cannot be actually simulated with the model, the maximum principal strain and the Von Mises stress values were examined for their applicability to determining injury risk. The cancellous values were not useful for predicting fractures, but the presence of 'failed' elements in the cortical bone for both criteria suggests that cortical values may be good indicators of injury risk.

This study has resulted in an optimized finite element model of the tibia's response to axial impact loading. The force-time profile represents the response of natural cadaveric bone up to the failure point, which is recommended to be defined as a maximal principal strain value for each bone material. This model can be implemented into future injury risk assessment studies, allowing better investigation into the effect of protective systems on injury potential.

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CHAPTER 7 – General Discussion and Conclusions

Overview: In this chapter, the objectives and hypotheses from Chapter 1 are reviewed, and a summary of the main outcomes of the studies from this thesis is provided. The overall strengths and limitations of this work are discussed, and future directions for further investigations are presented.

7.1 SUMMARY

Short-duration high-force axial loading of the tibia can lead to debilitating injuries, and the potential need for lower limb amputation. The current AV blast safety standard is taken from the car crash industry, but its applicability to these events was not previously examined. In order to properly assess the risk of tibia injury, an appropriate criterion and biofidelic surrogate are needed. The overall purpose of the studies presented in this thesis was to improve the assessment of tibia injury risk as a result of axial loading through the use of experimental and finite element techniques.

The first component of this research involved developing a testing apparatus capable of delivering these types of impact loads to specimens (*i.e.*, Objective #1, Chapter 2). A specialized pneumatic system was developed to apply impulses to cadaveric, synthetic, or ATD tibias over the range of forces, speeds, and time durations specified to represent anti-vehicular mine blasts (*i.e.*, 1 – 12 kN, 3 – 10 ms, 5 – 10 m/s). This system was instrumented to fully quantify the events, and was shown to be highly controllable and repeatable. This apparatus also allowed for forces to be applied at different velocities,

which permitted impulsive loads to be generated with different forces, momentums, and kinetic energies (*i.e.*, Hypothesis #1 accepted).

This apparatus was then used to investigate the injury tolerance of cadaveric tibias (*i.e.*, Objective #2, Chapter 3). Paired specimens were impacted until failure; one from each pair being impacted with a light projectile mass and the contralateral with a heavier mass. This allowed isolation of force effects from velocity-based (momentum and kinetic energy) effects on fracture tolerance. The average fracture force for all specimens was 12.6 kN, and a 10% risk of tibia fracture (according to the survivability curve generated) corresponded to an axial load of 7.9 kN. Other factors were examined for their influence on failure, and an injury equation was developed based on axial force, kinetic energy, age and height of the subject (*i.e.*, Hypothesis #2 accepted). The relationship between cadaveric and ATD response was also quantified, and a new ATD-based injury criterion of 12.6 kN proposed. This was much higher than the previous tolerance load of 5.4 kN in an ATD (Yoganandan *et al.*, 1996).

The results from the cadaveric specimens comprise the standard against which surrogates such as synthetic bones can be evaluated for their ability to represent natural response. Sawbone[®] synthetic bones were tested in a similar manner to the cadaveric tibias (*i.e.*, Objective #3, Chapter 4). Their fracture tolerance was much lower than cadaveric, and with altered strain distributions. Their failure was also dependent on different factors (such as momentum). Failure in the Sawbone[®] tibia consisted of fractures of the bone in combination with delamination of the epoxy resin cortical shell from interior cancellous foam. For these reasons, these surrogates were deemed

unacceptable for representing the response of human bones to impulse loading causing fracture (*i.e.*, Hypothesis #3 accepted).

After investigating the response of cadaveric, synthetic, and ATD tibias to impulse loading, the building of a finite element model of the tibia that could serve as a useful method for future assessments of injury risk was undertaken. Finite element modeling is the basis of many safety assessments in industry, and as such, a tibia model which correctly represented the natural lower leg would be a useful tool for their analyses. The construction of the necessary mesh of a representative tibia using TrueGrid® software was described in Chapter 5. It was rigorously evaluated to provide accurate and stable outputs during simulations. A finite element model was then developed using this mesh (*i.e.*, Objective #4, Chapter 6) to replicate the experimental tests that were conducted on the bone (Chapter 3). Numerous model parameters were examined to obtain the model which best represented both the non-fracture and fracture conditions, with particular emphasis on the non-fracture case. Peak axial force, load duration, impulse, and strain data were all used to optimize the model (*i.e.*, Hypothesis #4 accepted).

7.2 STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

Specific strengths and limitations of each study were discussed in their respective chapters, but there were some that are generally applicable to this thesis. A major strength of this work is the large number of cadaveric specimens tested, and the use of paired specimens. This allowed investigation into the influence of parameters such as momentum and energy (which had not been previously examined) on fracture tolerance. The pneumatic testing apparatus developed in this work was designed specifically to

represent short-duration, high-impulse scenarios. The injury risk curves generated from this work demonstrated that previous car crash studies are not directly applicable to these events. This is also the only known study that has examined the impact response of Sawbone® synthetic bones, a feature that is of interest to many, including the manufacturer (personal communication).

The finite element model developed for dynamic simulations was rigorously tested, both for mesh quality and for evaluation of the parameters which influence a model's output. This type of evaluation is rarely seen in published dynamic finite element studies, and is a strength of the current work.

While this research addressed many of the problems in the literature pertaining to injury tolerance of the tibia, there are also several limitations. The use of *in-vitro* testing to approximate the *in-vivo* response is an approximation, but is a necessary one for the testing of fracture tolerance. Both the experimental and finite element tests examined loading in the axial direction only. In most impact scenarios, the loads applied to the tibia are combined with bending moments, which would dramatically alter the injury risk. The results from the current study are only applicable to axial loading events.

The research studies conducted within this thesis were all focused on the isolated cadaveric tibia. This allowed reduction in the complexity associated with full lower limb tests, and provided a more direct comparison to surrogates such as the ATD leg and the Sawbone® tibia. However, injuries to the bones of the foot (*e.g.*, the calcaneus and talus) are not insignificant, and can lead to debilitating injuries. The investigations in the current studies do not give any indication of the risk to these bones, which may have lower injury tolerances.

A final limitation of the results of this thesis is the large number of approximations necessary in the finite element model. The material properties (*e.g.*, modulus, Poisson's ratio) were selected using values from previous studies, but were not optimized for the specific specimen used in this study. As well, bone was modeled as homogeneous and isotropic, which were necessary assumptions to reduce the computational complexity of the model. Better agreement with experimental data may be obtained by further investigation and refinement of the material properties used.

7.3 FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The research conducted in this thesis has examined many aspects of tibia response to impulse loading, but there are many others still remaining to be investigated. This work on injury biomechanics represents a new area of research for the Jack McBain Biomechanical Testing Laboratory, and the equipment and methods developed within this thesis can be expanded to a wide variety of future studies on other regions of the body or different loading scenarios.

In order to better quantify the injury tolerance of the tibia, studies examining the tolerance of the lower leg to combined (axial + bending) loading would prove beneficial, and may result in injuries at different locations in the tibias. As well, further cadaveric testing examining the effect of varying the applied impulse on fracture tolerance could contribute to the injury criteria proposed herein, as this parameter was relatively constant in the current work (*i.e.*, to model in-vehicle mine blast events). Testing of full lower leg specimens would also provide a better appreciation of injury risk to other bones of the

lower leg (in particular the talus, calcaneus, and fibula), which may have different injury tolerances than those identified in the present work.

The ATD leg examined in the present study has been previously criticized for its ability to represent the response of a human lower leg (Kuppa *et al.*, 2001). The Denton leg is still widely used, but other options such as the Thor-Lx are growing in popularity. A new lower leg model, the Thor-Mx, has recently been released, and has been specifically designed for evaluation of the effects of landmine blasts. This leg has yet to be investigated, and testing of it using the methods described in this thesis would allow evaluation of its ability to represent cadaveric response.

The finite element model developed in this thesis was based on CT scans of a representative tibia, but models built from other scans would allow investigation into the range of responses present in the general population. As well, simulations using the other projectile mass used experimentally could provide further insight into the effect of momentum on bone response. The model will be used by our industrial collaborator for safety assessments using computer simulations.

7.4 SIGNIFICANCE

In conclusion, this work has contributed to the understanding of the response and tolerance of the tibia to axial impulsive loading. A new injury standard has been proposed that is specific to these types of short-duration, high-force loading events. Surrogates including the ATD and Sawbone[®] synthetic bones were examined for their ability to represent the body's response to loads at the fracture severity level. A finite element model of a representative cadaveric tibia was constructed and evaluated for its

quality and ability to match the parameters examined experimentally. The methods developed in this research, both experimental and finite element, can be easily applied to other areas of the body for future studies of injury risk. It is hoped that the results from this body of work will aid in the development of protective measures for the human body undergoing impulsive loading, to reduce the incidence of devastating lower leg fractures.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – Glossary of Medical Terms

This appendix contains a list of the medical terms used through this thesis, to provide assistance to the reader who is unfamiliar with this terminology.

Achilles Tendon: A tendon of the posterior leg, attaches the calf muscles to the calcaneus.

Amputation: The removal of a body extremity by trauma or surgery.

Anatomical Position: Body upright, with the face and palms forward and the upper limbs placed at the sides.

Anterior: Situated towards the front of the body when in anatomical position.

Articulation: The contact junction between two bones.

Biofidelity: Ability to accurately represent the natural biological properties.

Cadaveric: Of, or pertaining to, a dead body preserved for anatomical study.

Calcaneus: The large bone of the heel.

Cancellous Bone: A spongy, lattice-like structure of bone. Synonymous with trabecular bone.

Cartilage: Connective tissue covering surfaces in joints, allows low-friction motion and absorbs shocks.

Collagen: The main protein in connective tissue.

Contralateral: Pertaining to the other side of the body (*i.e.*, left-right).

Cortical Bone: A dense bone structure. Synonymous with compact bone.

Diaphysis: The shaft of a long bone, a tube made of cortical bone.

Distal: Further from the point of reference; away from the midline of the body.

Epiphysis: The expanded articular end of a long bone; made of cancellous bone.

Femur: The large bone in the upper leg, extending from the pelvis to the knee.

Fibula: The smaller bone of the lower leg, extending between the knee and the ankle.

Frontal: The plane parallel to the long axis of the body separating the body into front and back portions.

Hind-foot: The portion of the foot comprising the talus and calcaneus.

In Vitro: In an artificial environment outside a living body.

In Vivo: In a living body of a plant or animal.

Intramedullary Canal: The canal down the center of a bone filled with marrow.

Joint: The location at which two bones make contact, permits relative movement.

Lateral: A position further away from the midline of the body.

Lower Leg: The portion of the leg between the knee and ankle joints.

Malleolus: A bony prominence on each side of the ankle.

Marrow: The soft tissue filling the cavities of bones.

Medial: A position closer to the midline of the body.

Osteon: The cylindrical structure forming the basis of cortical bone.

Pilon: The distal surface of the tibia, where articulation with the talus occurs.

Synonymous with Plafond.

Plafond: The distal surface of the tibia, where articulation with the talus occurs.

Synonymous with Pilon.

Plantar: Towards the bottom of the foot.

Plateau: A relatively flat surface in a joint, such as the knee.

Posterior: Located towards the back of the body.

Proximal: Closer to the point of reference; towards the center of the body.

Sagittal: The plane parallel to the long axis of the body separating the body into left and right portions.

Shank: The lower leg and foot.

Talocrural Joint: The joint between the talus and the tibia/fibula, allows the primary motion of the ankle.

Talus: The bone of the lower ankle, forms joints with the talus, fibula, calcaneus, and mid-foot.

Tarsal: Bone of the foot.

Tendon: A band of connective tissue connecting muscle to bone.

Tibia: The larger bone of the lower leg, extending between the knee and the ankle; the shinbone.

Tibiofibular Joint: The joint between the tibia and fibula (proximal and distal).

Trabecular: See cancellous bone.

Transverse: Placed crosswise, at a right angle to the long axis of a part.

Vascularization: Supply of blood vessels.

APPENDIX B – Injury Criteria for Various Areas of the Body

This appendix includes descriptions of some key injury criteria that have previously been developed for areas of the body other than the lower leg.

B.1 HEAD INJURY CRITERION

The Head Injury Criterion (HIC) is an index of injury as a result of head acceleration over a period of time (Mertz *et al.*, 1997). This weighted impulse criterion is widely used in a variety of industries, and is a linear fit to tolerance data from various cadaveric and animal injury studies plotting injury as a function of acceleration and time.

The HIC is calculated as follows:

$$HIC = MAX \left\{ \left[\frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} a(t) dt \right]^{2.5} (t_2 - t_1) \right\} \quad (\text{Eq. B.1})$$

Where $a(t)$ is the head center of gravity resultant acceleration expressed in G's and t_1 and t_2 are the beginning and end points of time of the impulse (Bogosian and Der Avanessian, 2004).

Airbag regulations define a maximum HIC of 700 over a 15 ms period marks the border between acceptable and marginal, estimated to represent a 5% risk of a severe injury (Insurance Institute for Highway Safety, 2004). A HIC of 1000 is considered to represent the threshold of skull fracture for a large surface area. The HIC is only applicable for periods of acceleration greater than 2 ms. For shorter duration impulses, the peak acceleration is used as an injury predictor (Bogosian and Der Avanessian, 2004). As the

HIC was developed to predict injuries as a result of impacts (rather than inertial loading), no standard level is defined for the defense community (Manseau, 2005; NATO, 2007).

B.2 SPINE – DYNAMIC RESPONSE INDEX

The current method of predicting thoraco-lumbar spine injuries is the Dynamic Response Index (DRI), which was developed by the aircraft industry for ejection seats of pilots (Axelsson and Sundqvist, 2003). The DRI represents the maximum dynamic compression of the vertebral column by modeling the human body with a mass, spring and damper system (NATO, 2007).

The mathematical model of the spine is as follows:

$$\ddot{z}(t) = \ddot{\delta} + 2 \cdot \zeta \cdot \omega_n \cdot \dot{\delta} + \omega_n^2 \cdot \delta \quad (\text{Eq. B.2})$$

Where $\ddot{z}(t)$ is the pelvis acceleration in the vertical direction, δ is the compression of the spinal column, ζ is the damping coefficient with $\zeta = c/(2 \cdot m \cdot \omega_n)$, and ω_n is the natural frequency of the spine with $\omega_n = \sqrt{k/m}$. For the human body, the natural frequency (ω_n) has been determined to be 52.9 rad/s (8.4 Hz), and damping ratio (c) to be 0.224 (Axelsson and Sundqvist, 2003), and were determined using compressive tests on cadaveric vertebrae.

The DRI is calculated as follows:

$$DRI_z = \frac{\omega_n^2 \cdot \delta_{\max}}{g} \quad (\text{Eq. B.3})$$

Where δ_{\max} is the maximum compression of the spine, and g is the acceleration due to gravity (9.81 m/s²).

Based on operational ejection seat experience, a DRI of 16 was found to correspond to a 1% risk of a fracture to the spine (Axelsson and Sundqvist, 2003). For a 10% risk of AIS 2+, the acceptable level for defense protection, the injury limit has been defined as a DRI of 17.7, which corresponds to a maximal spine compression of 6.2 cm (Manseau, 2005). The DRI is only applicable for axial head-ward acceleration, and is recommended to be used in conjunction with the Lumbar Load threshold, as factors such as position of the spine may impact susceptibility to vertebral injury. The Lumbar Load threshold is the peak force in pounds between the pelvis and lumbar spine, and equals 2065 pounds for a 50th percentile male test dummy (Department of Army, 2000).

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APPENDIX C – Detailed Operation of Apparatus

This appendix details the steps that should be taken to properly operate the test apparatus described in Chapter 2. These steps were used for the experimental studies conducted in Chapters 3 and 4.

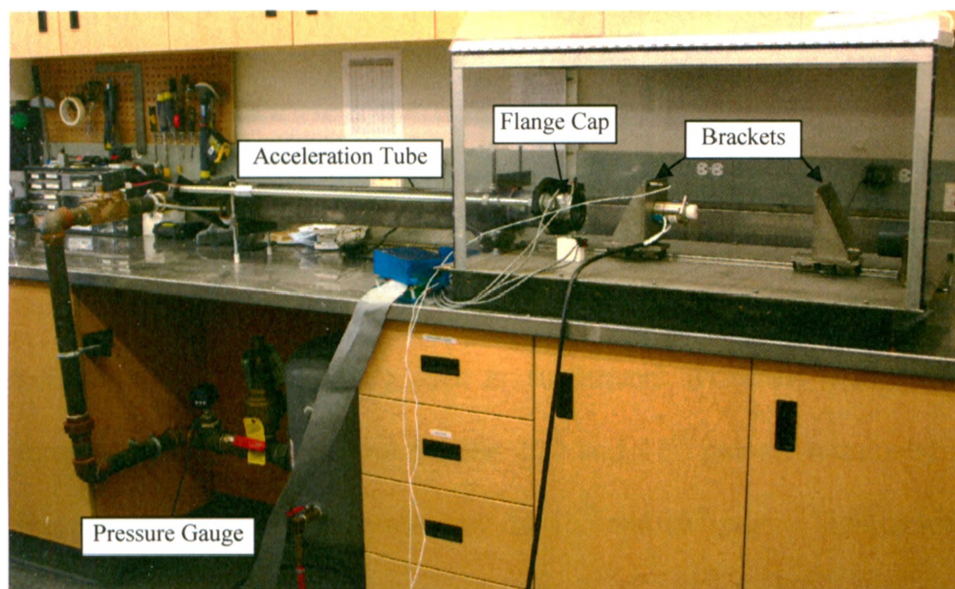


Figure C.1: Test Apparatus

Step 1: Initial Setup

- a. Turn on PXI 1050 / SCXI 1010. Then turn on NI computer. Turn on second computer (connected to pressure regulator and cameras).
- b. Select the projectile mass required. Typically leave a nut immediately behind the head of the projectile to ensure exits far enough to strike bracket. Use three large Fender washers for front support, polyethylene wiper for rear support. Double-nut as required.

- c. Place projectile in tube, attach flange-cap. Tighten all nuts, double-nut as required. Only tighten down strapping over acceleration tube to finger-tight level – if you tighten this too much it will compress the tube, which will throw out all your calibration and you will lose the fine control over exit velocity.
- d. Plug in two electronics boxes, ensure velocity sensors on cap are detecting reflective projectile (using indicator LEDs). If they don't activate, they may be turned on the peg they're mounted on. May require fine adjustment.

Step 2: Specimen Mounting

- a. Connect instrumentation (strain gauges). Electronics box (Appendix F) is currently connected to the DAQ system with the accelerometer wired into the first two terminals, and strain gauges in subsequent terminals. The screw-down terminals for gauges 3c and 4a (the 10th and 11th pair of terminals) are to be skipped, and those gauges wired into the 15th and 16th pairs. Tighten screw-down terminals tightly – often a source of problems.
- b. Mount specimen in potting jig, loosely mount to proximal bracket. Align within pot such that the distal articular surface of the tibia lines up with the polyethylene talus. Hand-tighten set screws, remove from bracket, fully tighten set screws. Remount on bracket and verify alignment is correct before tightening nuts.
- c. Open Measurement & Automation Explorer, using task “cadaveric tibs”. Calibrate strain gauges, not using shunt calibration.

- d. If gauges don't calibrate, verify the screw-down terminals first. Secondly remove the gauge wires from the terminals and measure resistance of gauges to ensure they weren't damaged during installation.

Step 3: Software Initialization

- a. On second computer, open vi that controls solenoid (solenoid.vi). On control box for the solenoid, set to "automatic". In LabVIEW[®], set the solenoid vi to activate for 0.25 seconds. The first time it either won't run, or will stay open for several seconds, so make sure air tank pressure is zero first. Cycle a few times to make sure it's running smoothly.
- b. On same computer, open vi that controls regulator (regulator.vi). Open valve to wall air, open ball valve next to air tank. Select AO1 from the drop-down menu, and set the voltage. Hit run. It's best if you aim lower than your final target pressure, and slowly build up so that you don't overshoot.
- c. On same computer, open Measurement & Automation Explorer, activate the Sony Camera. Turn on the pressure gauge under the counter, turn on the light on it, and track the pressure using the camera while adjusting the voltage to the regulator.
- d. Once pressure is stabilized, stop the camera acquisition.
- e. On NI computer, open the vi for data collection (cadaverictibias.vi). Enter a folder and file name to save to, test it to make sure it collects and saves properly.

Note: if there is an error in the file directory, it won't save. If you don't change the name of the file, it will overwrite it. Be careful.

Step 4: Testing Process

- a. Push the projectile to the appropriate distance (easiest using a measuring tape).
Apply two new layers of foam to the distal bracket (glue with strain gauge glue, replace after every 20 strikes or so). Push everything up so that the brackets are in contact with the end cap and the specimen is sandwiched. Close the shielding door.
- b. The MotionScope camera needs to be started immediately prior to the tests (runs off a third computer). Set the frame rate (and thus the capture area), and preview it to center on the relevant area.
- c. For the test itself, trigger the camera (as required), then the data collection (cadaverictibias.vi), followed by the solenoid (solenoid.vi). Always do a 3-2-1 countdown, wear hearing protection, and warn others in the lab prior to tests.
- d. Use the data recording sheet to record the test parameters and results presented on the front panel, just in case files get erased (Figure C.2).

Testing Date _____ Specimen _____

Program running _____ Pulse _____

Files saved location _____

Sampling frequency _____ Tank pressure (wall) _____

Accelerometer range _____

File Name	Mass (kg)	Pressure (psi)	Distance (m)	Comments

Figure C.2: Testing Sheet

- e. Every few hits, re-tighten everything.

Step 5: Shut Down

- a. To close down, turn off the air at the wall, and then set the voltage going to the regulator to zero. Allow it to bleed out until not audible. Turn off the solenoid trigger, unplug the electronics boxes, turn off the computers, and clean up.

APPENDIX D – Technical Drawings

The detailed and dimensioned drawings of components for the apparatus described in Chapter 2 were created in Solidworks (Dessault Systems, Concord, Massachusetts, USA). The components were machined by The University of Western Ontario's University Machine Services (UMS). A list of components is also included.

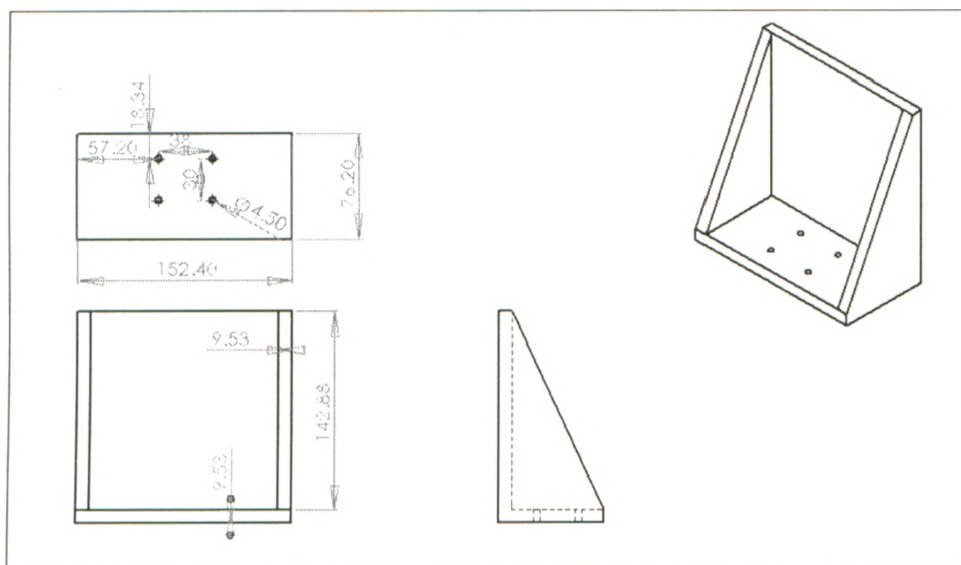


Figure D.1: Dimensioned Drawing of Bracket

All dimensions in mm, made of stainless steel.

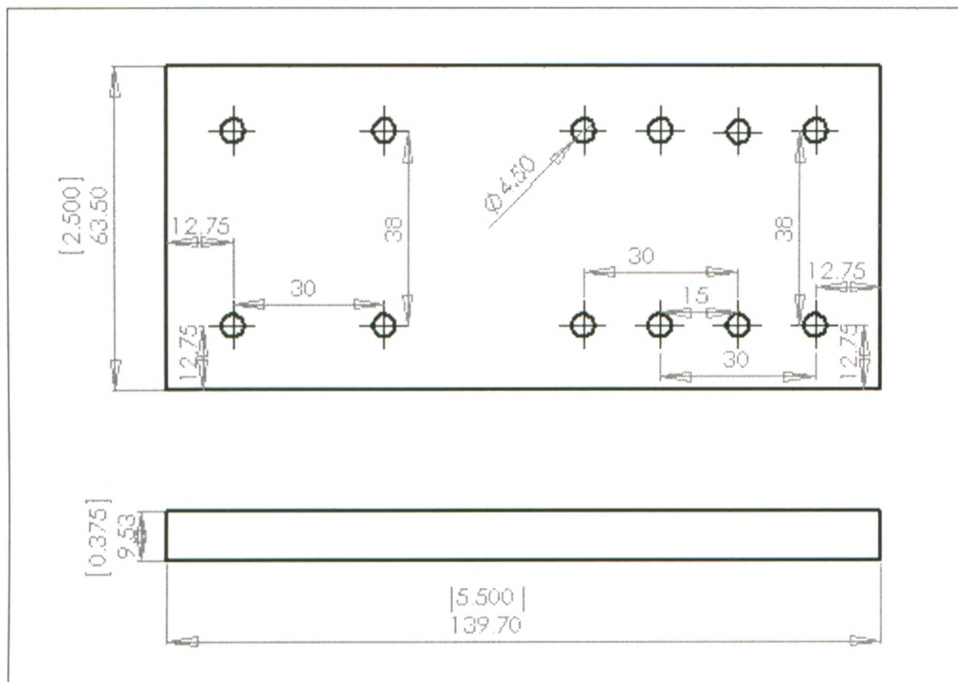


Figure D.2: Dimensioned Drawing of Bearing Plate
All dimensions in mm [inches], made of stainless steel.

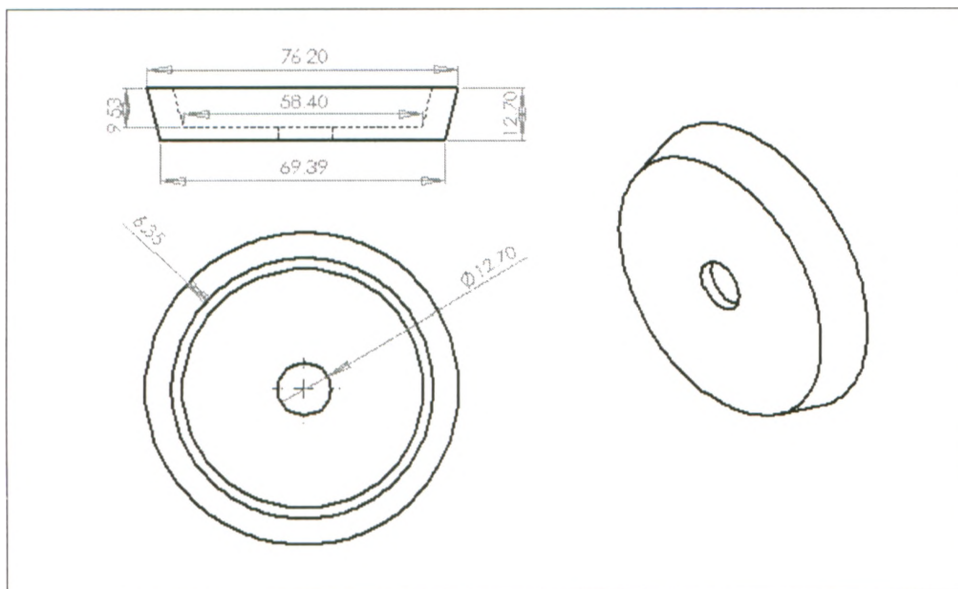


Figure D.3: Dimensioned Drawing of Wiper Disks
All dimensions in mm, made of polyethylene.

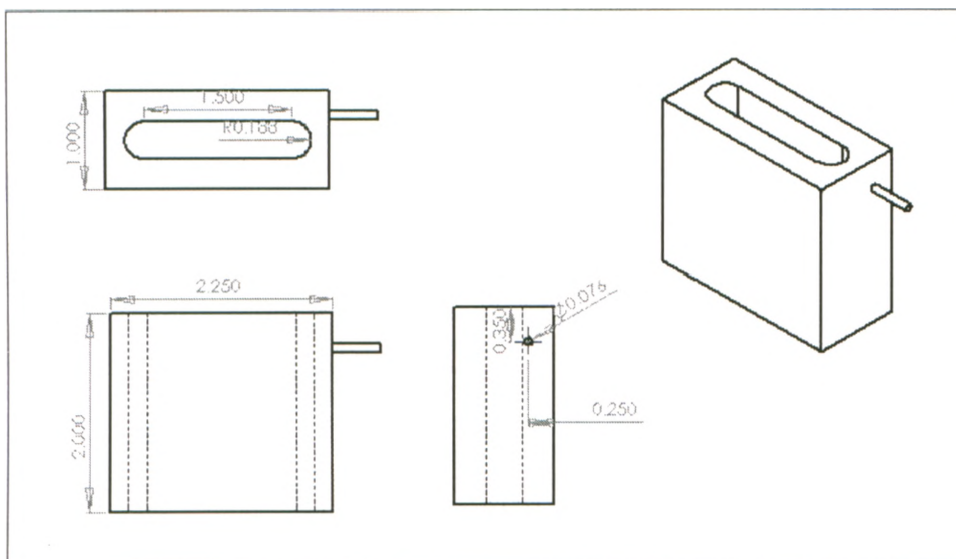


Figure D.4: Dimensioned Drawing of Velocity Block
All dimensions in inches, made of Delrin.

Table D.1: Itemized List of Components

Component	Description	Source
Bearings	6709K12	McMaster-Carr
Rail	6709K33, 820mm	McMaster-Carr
Acceleration Tube	100" long, 3" diameter, Lexan	UMS
Shielding	Lexan	UMS
Brackets (2)	Stainless Steel	UMS
Flange Cap	Aluminum	UMS
Digital Pressure Gauges (2)	2798K22, 0-100 psi	McMaster-Carr

APPENDIX E – LabVIEW® Programs

This appendix details the programming (i.e., LabVIEW back panels) for the custom-written software used for the operation of the regulator and solenoid, data collection, and analysis for Chapters 2 – 4.

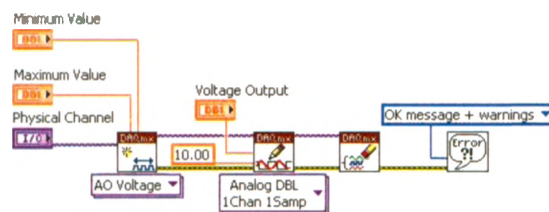


Figure E.1: Regulator Control Program Back Panel

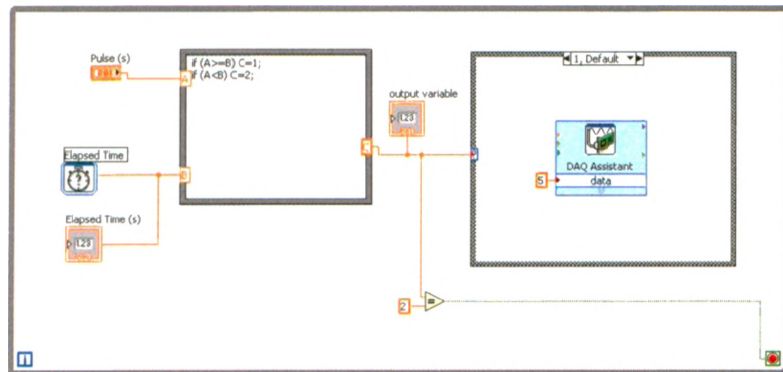


Figure E.2: Solenoid Triggering Program Back Panel

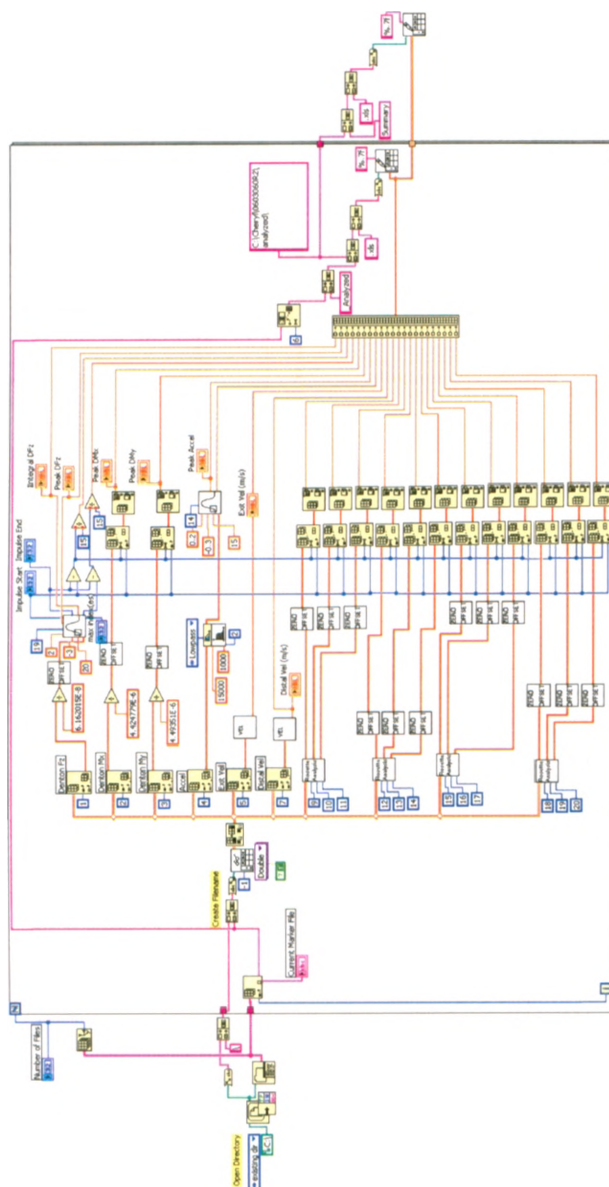


Figure E.4: Main Analysis Program Back Panel

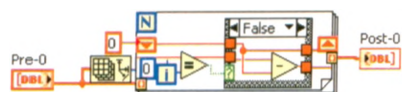


Figure E.5: Zero Offset Sub Program

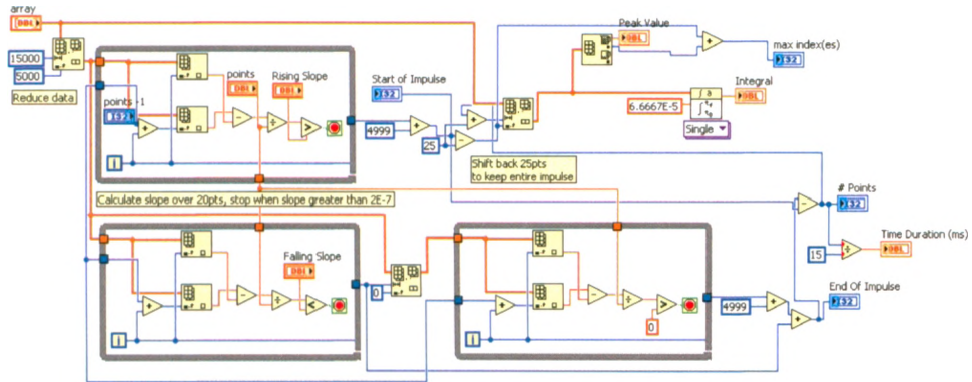


Figure E.6: Impulse Computing Sub Program

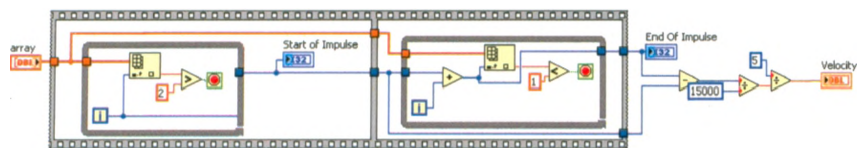


Figure E.7: Velocity Calculation Sub Program

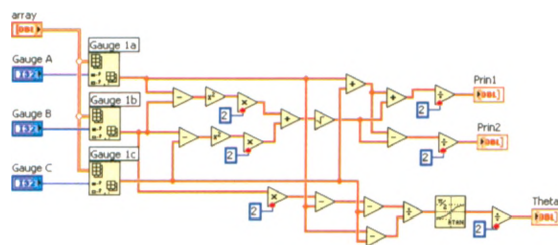


Figure E.8: Strain Gauge Rosette Analysis Sub Program

APPENDIX F – Electronics Box Schematics

This appendix details the schematics of the electronics box described in Chapter 2, and used throughout the experimental tests.

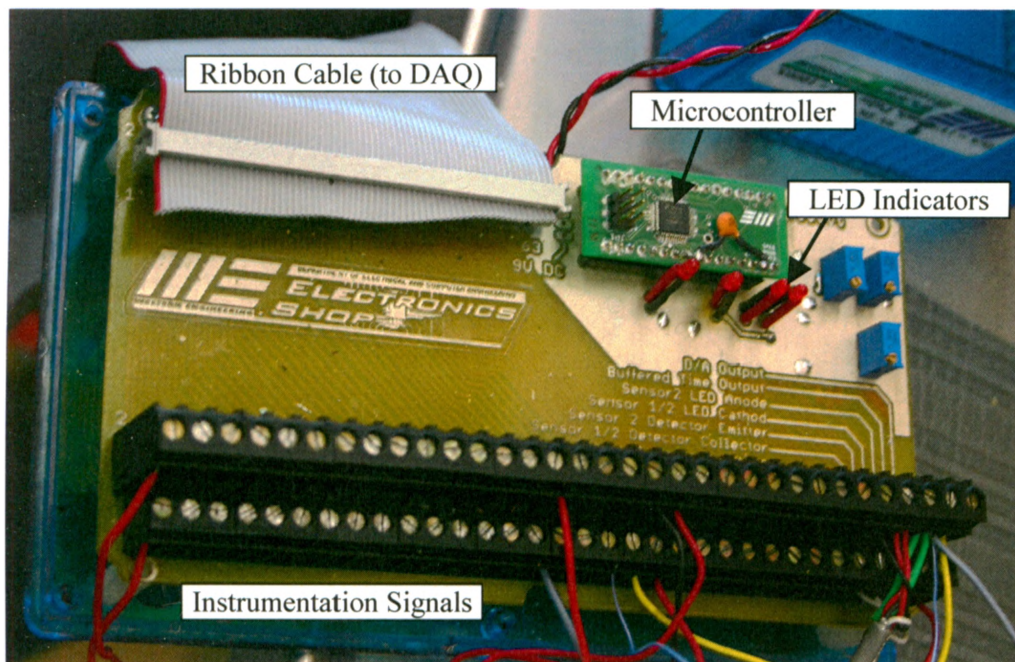
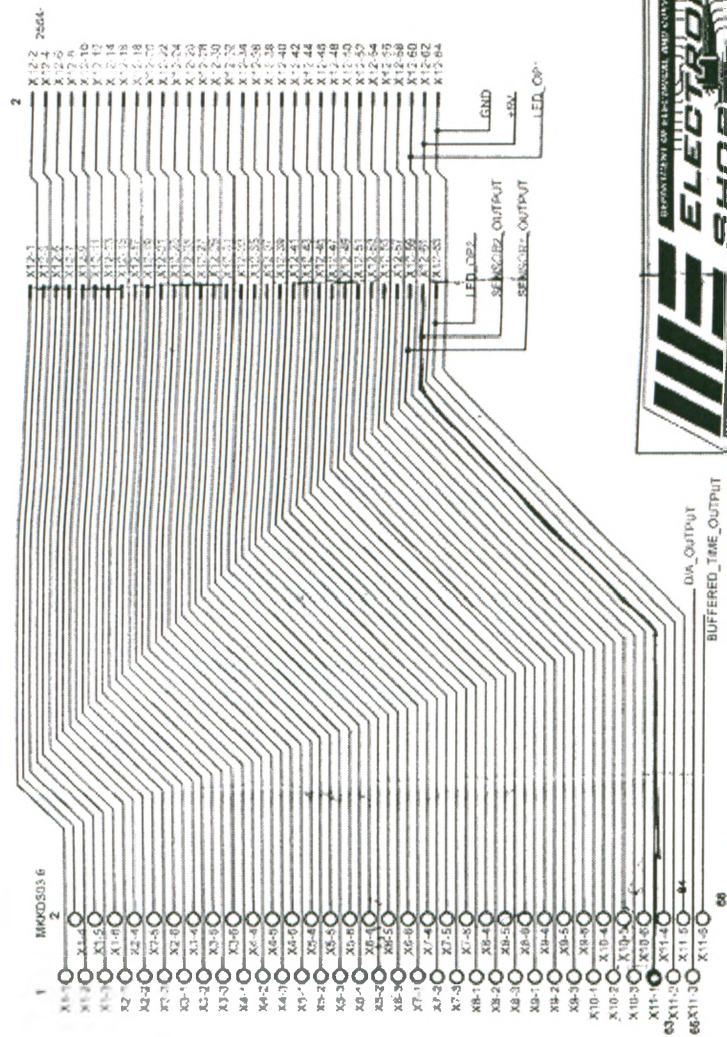


Figure F.1: Electronics Box

A custom-built electronics box collects the signals from all instrumentation (with room for further addition of signals) and passes them through a ribbon cable to the data collection system. A microcontroller on the box computes the velocity of the projectile, and LEDs are included to indicate the activation of the two reflective sensors for troubleshooting purposes.



III ELECTRONICS
SPECIALTY OF ELECTRONIC AND COMPUTER ENGINEERING

TITLE: S457 61 pin Break out box b

Drawn By: E Pofar

Document Number: S457

Date: 3/23/2007 02:38:31p

REU: 1.0

Sheet: 1/2

Figure F.2: Electronics Box Connection Terminals

PROJECT DETAILS

TITLE: S457 64 pin Break out box b	
Drawn By: E Porter	
Document Number:	S457
Date:	3/28/2007 02:38:31p
Sheet: 2/2	REV: 1.0

PATENT 4,488,433

INSTRUMENTED LOWER LEG

LOWER LEG SHIFT

UPPER TIERA LOGS CELL

LOWER TIERA LOGS CELL

AXIS CENTER

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AXIS F2 - 2500 LBS.

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Figure G.1: Mechanical Structure of ATD Leg

APPENDIX H – Detailed Specimen Information

The specimen number, age, height, weight, and cause of death of each tibia that was tested in Chapter 3 are provided. All donors were male, and each provided a pair of tibias. Tabulated principle strain data are also provided for each specimen.

Table H.1: Donor Demographics

Specimen Number	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Cause of Death
06-06037	57	180.3	67.6	Prostate Cancer
08-07033	49	185.4	78.0	Congestive Heart Failure
08-07024	49	185.4	70.3	Cirrhosis
08-07085	47	188.0	59.6	Colon Cancer
08-08009	47	190.5	114.5	Renal Failure
06-08044	41	172.7	73.5	Heart Attack
06-10081	49	190.5	96.2	Melanoma
Average (\pmS.D.)	48 (4.7)	184.7 (6.3)	80.0 (19.0)	

Table H.2: 150 J Principal Strain Data

Principal strain values are presented for the 150 J tests, and are in the units of microstrain.

Specimen	1a	1b	2a	2b	3a	3b	4a	4b
06-06037L	11112	-10993	1943	-3952	318	-4525	462	-2214
06-06037R	2653	-6707	4023	-2382	1065	-1333	1677	-1514
08-07033L	3191	-4258	3304	-4734	2344	-5159	1269	-1463
08-07033R	2538	-3002	669	-1375	2095	-4838	1812	-1347
08-07024L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
08-07024R	1532	-1538	608	-755	498	-732	420	-963
08-07085L	1723	-2806	1962	-3337	724	-4440	233	-327
08-07085R	1049	-1017	1852	-2394	1098	-1499	521	-1838
08-08009L	1993	-3729	2108	-3263	962	-3668	248	-657
08-08009R	244	-2308	1251	-1795	1761	-3079	1508	-1863
06-08044L	2962	-2375	764	-3845	2214	-3884	1680	-1392
06-08044R	1155	-1851	2501	-3909	631	-1928	1534	-1256
06-10081L	1258	-8449	2783	-2197	1250	-3025	1694	-1417
06-10081R	1102	-1864	1161	-1147	812	-1951	1084	-1107

Table H.3: 250 J Principal Strain Data

Principal strain values are presented for the 250 J tests, and are in the units of microstrain.

Specimen	1a	1b	2a	2b	3a	3b	4a	4b
06-06037L	10976	-11227	4804	-13294	4440	-13486	668	-22345
06-06037R	1249	-3074	1780	-4910	1789	-1856	204	-415
08-07033L	1144	-3352	378	-622	1305	-2772	1706	-1476
08-07033R	3611	-13268	511	-1255	1758	-5082	1698	-1392
08-07024L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
08-07024R	5531	-1486	1834	-4991	7901	-19722	766	-876
08-07085L	204	-2400	1574	-3127	2554	-3869	290	-1255
08-07085R	161	-274	-41	-323	16	-117	-17	-132
08-08009L	5327	-4244	2962	-3717	1935	-4201	247	-733
08-08009R	13744	-7094	1178	-2065	2736	-4101	1127	-2447
06-08044L	781	-2223	1371	-4340	3019	-8404	12381	-10915
06-08044R	836	-2614	7311	-17559	747	-2139	1567	-1372
06-10081L	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
06-10081R	15724	-5014	1334	-1092	1448	-2586	1171	-865

APPENDIX I – Strain Gauge Application Technique

The following technique was used for application of all strain gauges to bone (both synthetic and cadaveric). It was developed based on previous studies on strain gauging bone (Finlay et al., 1982; Wright and Hayes, 1979) and further modified in the Jack McBain Biomechanical Testing Laboratory (Dunham, 2005). All supplies were purchased from Vishay Micro-Measurements (Raleigh, NC, USA).

1. Sand the surface of the bone where the gauge is to be laid with 400 grit sandpaper, rub with an alcohol pad to degrease.
2. Apply a thin layer of M-Bond 200 catalyst, let dry for 1 minute.
3. Add 2 drops of M-Bond 200 to the area and press into a thin layer using tape and finger pressure. Hold for 1 minute.
4. Wait 5 minutes.
5. Remove the tape, sand lightly to even surface. Wipe again with alcohol pad.
6. Place the strain gauge on a clean surface, and press a piece of installation tape onto top. Pick up gauge using tape.
7. Apply a thin layer of M-Bond 200 catalyst to both the back surface of the gauge and the surface of the bone, let dry for 1 minute.
8. Align the grid of the gauge with the laser line, and apply 1 drop of M-Bond 200 adhesive to the attachment site. Press down evenly, hold with finger pressure for 1 minute, pressing on all corners of the gauge.

9. Let sit for 5 minutes, remove tape.
10. Apply M-Coat A polyurethane coating to gauge and lead wire attachment points.
11. Let sit for 5 minutes.

References

Dunham, C.E. (2005) Biomechanical assessments of synthetic and cadaveric distal humeri for laboratory-based investigations. M.E.Sc. Thesis, *The University of Western Ontario*.

Finlay, J.B., Bourne, R.B., and McLean, J. (1982) A technique for the in vitro measurement of principal strains in the human tibia. *Journal of Biomechanics*. **15**, 723-729.

Wright, T.M. and Hayes, W.C. (1979) Strain gage application on compact bone. *Journal of Biomechanics*. **12**, 471-475.

APPENDIX J – Detailed Steps to Build a Bone Model

This appendix outlines the step-by-step methodology used to create a finite element model of a bone, as done in Chapter 5.

Mimics®:

Step 1: Defining Bone Regions

- Import images from CT scan by creating a new project, selecting "Import Images", and navigating to the folder where the scan is located, then select "Convert". Assign a "top" and "bottom" to the model.
- The model appears in three views, with a 3D rendering in the fourth quadrant. Adjust the contrast sliders (lower right corner of the screen) until the detail in the model is best visible.

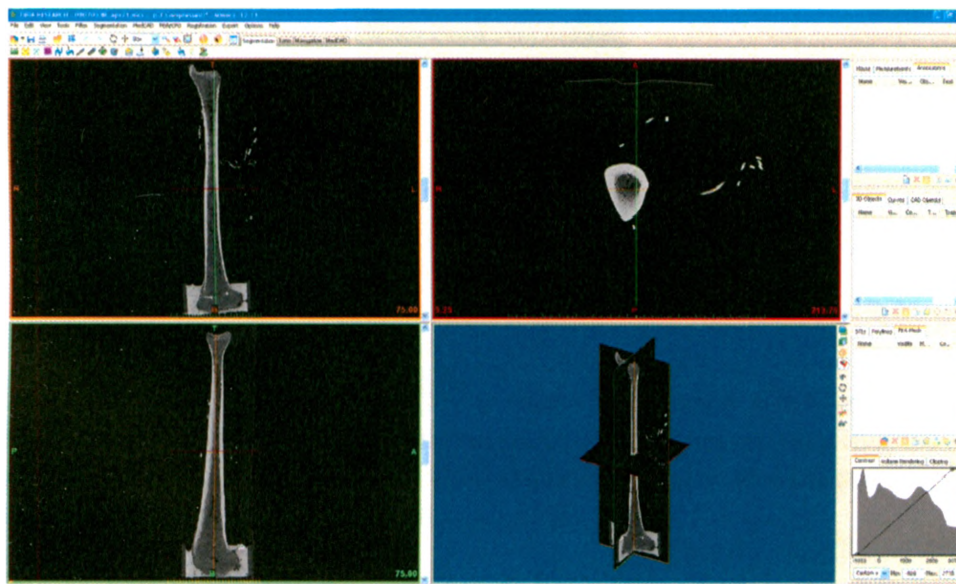



Figure J.1: The CT Scans in the Mimics Environment

- Select the "Thresholding" tool (upper left corner of the screen)  to create a new mask based on the HU values in the model. This allows regions to be isolated based on certain density ranges. Adjust the slider bars until primarily cortical bone is highlighted, and select "Apply". This will segment the bone using a coloured mask.



Select the "Crop Mask" tool  and adjust cropping mask in all directions to leave only the bone region masked (eliminate the pot also).



Figure J.2: Thresholded Bone with Cortical Mask

- d. Zoom in on the axial slices, and use the "Edit Mask" tool  to remove extra pixels from the mask and fill in any holes in the mask such that only cortical bone is included, and is one continuous region.



- e. Once the bone is thresholded, polylines need to be generated defining the outer and inner surfaces of the bone. On the "Polylines" tab select "New" and select the mask generated in the previous step (d).

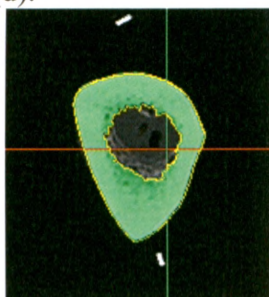



Figure J.3: Polyines Based on Cortical Mask

- f. Select the "Polyline Growing" tool  to move the exterior polylines to a unique set and the interior polylines to a second unique set. This involves selecting the polyline, which will auto multi-select, but as the geometry changes several polylines may be needed to be selected in order to capture all of the required polylines.



- g. To define the transition from cancellous bone to marrow, scan through the axial slices until a hole larger than a few pixels is present. This defines the level where the transition occurs. Repeat at the proximal end, defining the transition back to cancellous bone. Copy the interior polylines from this area to a separate set.

- h. Select the "Cavity Fill from Polyines" tool  and generate a mask for each set of polylines: outside, inside, and marrow.

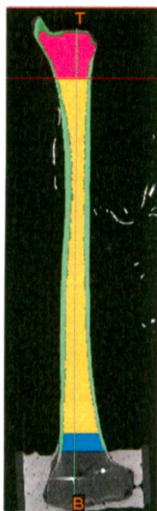



Figure J.4: Masks Defining Regions of the Bone

- i. To output these regions so that they can be imported into TrueGrid® for mesh development, select the "STL+ Module" tool  and create a binary STL file for each of the masks created in the previous step (h). Use "High Quality" settings.

Step 2: Strain Gauge Identification

- a. To compare strains in the finite element model with those measured experimentally, the locations of the gauges need to be identified. On the "CAD Objects" tab select "New", "Point", "Draw". Navigate through the axial CT slices until the solder balls of the strain gauges are visible. Select the slice where the balls appear the largest (presumably the center slice) and place a point on each of the outer two solder balls. Repeat for each strain gauge.



Figure J.5: Solder Ball Identification

- b. On the "CAD Objects" tab select "Export txt" and add all points. This file will include the *x-y-z* coordinates of each point.

Step 3: Angle of Tip

- a. Within the CT scanner the bone may not have been precisely aligned with the planes. In order to correct this, on the "Measurements" tab select "New", "Measure Angle". In the sagittal and frontal views measure the angle that the PVC pot makes with the horizontal (see Figure 5.5). If not perfectly 90 degrees, this will be adjusted by rotating the STL files in TrueGrid®.

Step 4: Orient the Talus

- a. Experimentally the talus sat within the depression of the distal articular surface. To locate the talus on the CT scans, on the "CAD Objects" tab select "New", "Circle", "Draw". Find a slice that is just off the articular surface of the bone, but still has some contours of the surrounding bone visible. Draw a circle, and go to the "Properties" of it to fix the radius to 1.25 inches.
- b. Grab and drag the center point of the circle until it best approximates where the talus would sit experimentally (such that it doesn't penetrate the malleolus and sits in the slightly concave articular surface). Export the circle as a txt like was done for the strain gauges in Step 2.

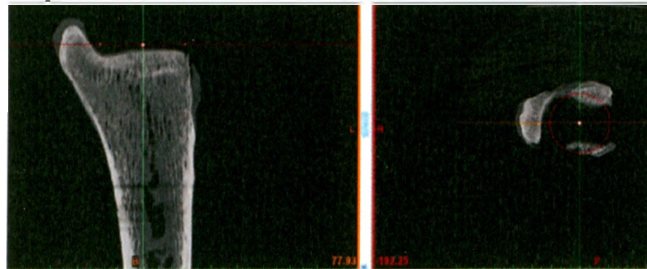


Figure J.6: Locating the Talus

TrueGrid[®]:

Step 5: Building the Distal Region

- a. Import and number the three surfaces: inner, outside, and marrow.stl (*command: sd*).
- b. Create a part that is 3 blocks by 3 blocks by 1 block. Delete the corner blocks (*commands: block, dei*).
- c. Position blocks in area of distal-most bone, move vertices to approximate 45° angle and glue faces together (*commands: pb, mbi, bb*).

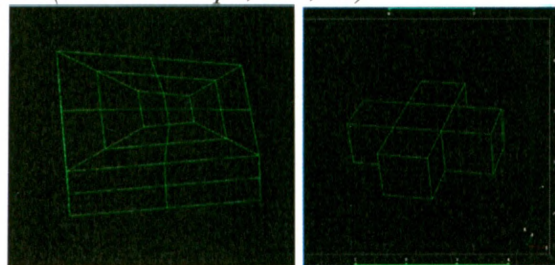


Figure J.7: Environment and Computation Views of Blocks

- d. Create 3D splines on inner surface and outer surface approximating the distal ridge of the tibia, as well as the level at which the epiphysis begins to taper, and the level defining the transition from cancellous bone to marrow (and back). Also define

splines around the areas of curvature of the malleolus for future control of blocks (*command: curd*).

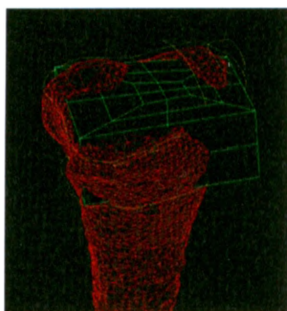


Figure J.8: Splines on a Surface

- e. Create surfaces which describe the level at which transition regions will be implemented by offsetting the x-y plane (*command: sd*).
- f. Attach the edges of the blocks to the cancellous curves defined in part (d). Project the outer faces onto the inner surface defined in part (a) (*commands: curs, sfi*).
- g. Increase the mesh density in each direction, and apply smoothing algorithms to the faces and the volumes of the mesh (*commands: mseq, relax, unifm*).

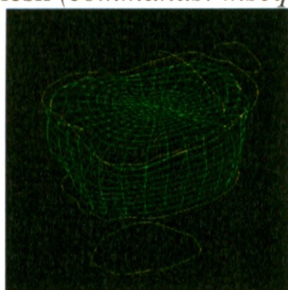


Figure J.9: The Cancellous Mesh

- h. Insert a block on each exterior surface (x and y directions) that is one element thick, and a block in the distal z -direction for the cortical shell. Remove extraneous blocks (*commands: insprt, dei*).
- i. Position vertices of faces on 45° angles (in all directions). Glue faces together to make continuous surface, attach edges to the curves previously defined (cortical curves), project exterior faces to the outside surface. Apply smoothing algorithms to the faces and the volumes of the cortical mesh (*commands: ph, mbi, bh, curs, sfi, relax, unifm*).

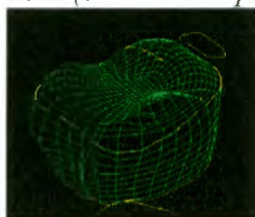


Figure J.10: The Cortical Mesh

- j. Insert a block in the distal z-direction to represent the malleolus. Remove extraneous blocks, and attach edges to the curves, and project the exterior faces to the outside surface. Apply smoothing algorithms to the faces and volume (*commands: insprt, dei, pb, curs, sfi, relax, unifm*)
- k. Assign material properties to individual blocks: cancellous blocks are material 1, cortical blocks are material 2 (*commands: mate, mt*)
- l. Assign block boundary numbers to the regions on the proximal surface of the mesh, which will be attached to the next part (*command: bb*)

Step 6: The Second Part

- a. Create a new part to represent the tapering section of the epiphysis. This new part is 5 blocks by 5 blocks by 1 block, and delete the corner blocks so it forms a cross shape. The exterior blocks (in x and y directions) are 1 element thick, and the interior ones (which will form the cancellous region) have 1/2 the elements as the cancellous blocks in the first distal-most region (*commands: merge, block, dei*)
- b. Move vertices to 45° angles and glue corner faces together. Position blocks to be within appropriate region of the bone. Attach the edges to the previously-defined curves, and project the faces to the surfaces defined in Step 5(a). Assign block boundary numbers to the distal surfaces of the mesh to match those created in Step 5(l) to glue the parts together (as the number of elements is 1/2 that of the mating face, use transition block boundary command). Apply smoothing algorithms as before, and assign material properties as before. Assign block boundary numbers to regions on the proximal surface of the mesh, which will be attached to the next part (*commands: pb, mbi, bb, curs, sfi, trbb, relax, unifm, mt*)

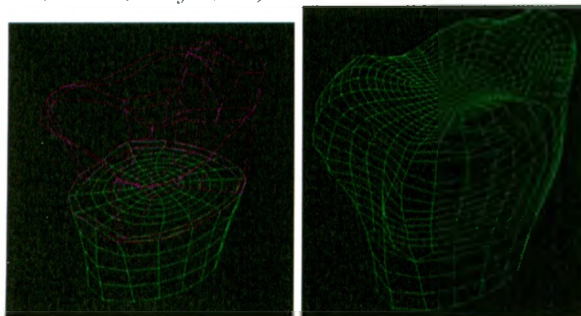


Figure J.11: Meshing the Second Part

Step 7: The Rest of the Bone

- a. Create a new part to represent the diaphysis of the bone. This part is 5 blocks by 5 blocks by 1 block, with the same number of elements in each block as the previous part. Delete the corner blocks so it forms a cross shape (*commands: merge, block, dei, mbi, pb*)

- b. Repeat Step 6(b). Increase the mesh density in the z-direction until elements are fairly square, apply smoothing algorithms and assign material properties as before (marrow is material 3). Assign block boundary numbers to regions on the proximal surface of the mesh, which will be attached to the next part (*commands: pb, mbi, bh, curs, sfi, mseq, relax, unifm, mt*)
- c. Create a new part to represent the proximal-most region of the bone. This part is 5 blocks by 5 blocks by 1 block, with the same number of elements in the cortical blocks as the previous part, but double the elements in the cancellous region (due to the expansion in cross-section). Delete the corner blocks so it forms a cross shape (*commands: merge, block, dei, mbi, pb*)
- d. Repeat Step 6(b). Apply smoothing algorithms and assign material properties as before. Assign block boundary numbers to regions on the proximal surface of the mesh, which will be attached to the proximal bracket (*commands: pb, mbi, bh, curs, sfi, trbb, relax, unifm, mt*)
- e. Enter merge phase. Define merged nodes tolerance as 0.0001 to remove duplicate nodes where blocks were glued together. Create a node set defining the nodes within 1.1mm of the proximal cut surface (*commands: merge, stp, nset*)

Step 8: Other Components

- a. Create a part that is 3 blocks by 3 blocks by 1 block that will represent the polyethylene talus. Create a new cylindrical surface that is centered over the x-y-z coordinates as measured using Mimics[®], with the same diameter as the experimental talus. Create two planar surfaces, the first being just off the distal articular surface of the bone, and the second being 1 inch distal to the first. Delete the corner blocks, position the vertices at 45° angles, and glue the faces together. Position the mesh within the newly created region, and project all faces of the talus to the surfaces. (*commands: block, dei, pb, mbi, sd, bh, sfi*)
- b. Define a sphere centered within the talus to fillet the edge of the talus. Insert a partition 2 elements through the talus (in the z-direction) and project the proximal parts to the sphere. Apply smoothing algorithms, define the material (polyethylene is material 4), and assign block boundary numbers to the distal face of the talus where it will attach to the distal bracket (*commands: sd, sfi, relax, unifm, mt*).

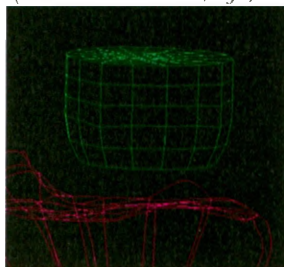


Figure J.12: The Talus

- c. Create a node set at the distal face of the talus where it will attach to the distal bracket (where the load cell was positioned experimentally) (*command: nset*).
- d. To create the distal bracket, create a part that is 3 blocks by 4 blocks by 1 block, delete the corners such that it forms a cross shape. Convert the short end into a cylinder shape by positioning the vertices and gluing faces, and attach it to the talus using the boundary numbers defined in part (b). Create a *x-z* surface that is offset in the *y* direction, and attach the face of the last block to it, representing the attachment point for bearings. Define a material (material 7 for the distal bracket) and apply smoothing algorithms. Assign block boundary numbers for the distal face (portion that forms the cylinder) for attachment to the foam (*commands: block, mbi, pb, dei, bb, sd, mt, relax, unifm*)
- e. To create the foam, create a part that is 3 blocks by 3 blocks by 1 block, convert to a cylinder by deleting corners, positioning vertices and gluing faces. Attach it to the distal bracket using block boundary numbers. Create a *x-y* surface that is offset by 0.625 inches from the surface of the bracket, and project the faces of the mesh to the cylinder and the new surface. Define a material (material 5 for foam) and apply smoothing algorithms (*commands: block, mbi, pb, dei, bb, sd, mt, relax, unifm*)
- f. To create the proximal bracket, create a part that is 5 blocks by 5 blocks by 1 block, convert to a cylinder by deleting corners, positioning vertices and gluing faces. Attach it to the block boundaries created in step 7(d). Define a *x-y* surface that is offset from the proximal surface of the bone, and project the faces of the mesh to this surface. Apply several smoothing algorithms, and define a material (material 16 for proximal bracket) (*commands: block, mbi, pb, dei, bb, sd, mt, relax, unifm*)
- g. To create the projectile, create a part that is 3 blocks by 3 blocks by 2 blocks, convert to a hemisphere by deleting corners, positioning vertices and gluing faces (*commands: block, mbi, pb, dei, bb*)

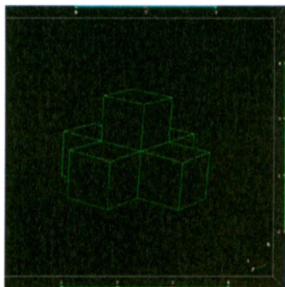


Figure J.13: Projectile Block Structure

- h. Define a spherical surface located just off the surface of the foam with a diameter $3/4$ that of the foam. Define a *x-y* surface that cuts through the center of the sphere. Project exterior faces of the mesh to these surfaces, apply smoothing algorithms, and assign a material (material 6 is the projectile). Define a node set that contains the nodes on the flat surface of the hemisphere (*commands: sd, sfi, unifm, relax, mt, nset*)

- i. Write the output file containing node, element, and part information in LS-DYNA Keyword format (*commands: lsdyna keyword, write*)

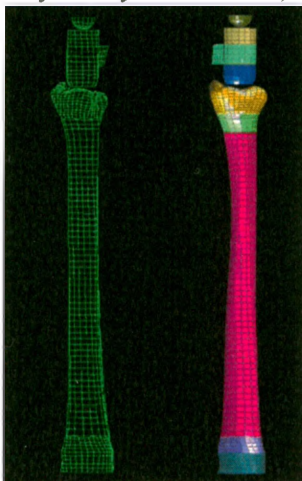


Figure J.14: The Complete Mesh

LS-DYNA®:

Step 9: Writing the Deck

- a. Start writing a deck in notepad. Use *KEYWORD to define this as a keyword-written deck, *TITLE to define the title of the study, and *INCLUDE to reference the node and element data as output from TrueGrid®. Use *CONTROL_TERMINATION to set the simulated duration.
- b. Write *DATABASE cards to output node data (*DATABASE_HISTORY_NODE) for specific nodes on components, force data for the set where the load cell was located (*DATABASE_NODAL_FORCE_GROUP) and element data for elements located underneath the strain gauges (*DATABASE_HISTORY_SOLID_SET).
- c. Write a *PART card, a *SECTION card, and a *MAT card for each component. Select the appropriate mass for whichever projectile (3.9kg or 6.8kg) being simulated.
- d. Using the *x-y-z* locations of the solder points of each strain gauge, compute the *x-y-z* coordinates of the corners of the strain sensing area of the gauge. In PrePost® import the keyword node and element file as output from TrueGrid®. Using the "Ident" feature, input the *x-y-z* coordinates of the corners of the strain sensing area of each gauge.
- e. Using the "Ident" feature set to "Element" pick the elements that lie beneath the set of points. Create a set card for each strain gauge (*SET_SOLID_TITLE).

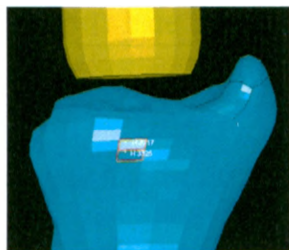


Figure J.15: Strain Gauge Element Identification

- f. Write a `*INITIAL_VELOCITY_RIGID_BODY` card to specify the velocity of the projectile.
- g. Define `*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE` cards between all components that will come into contact (projectile-foam, talus-cortical bone, talus-cancellous bone, projectile-distal bracket).
- h. Conclude with `*END`.

APPENDIX K – TrueGrid® Input File

This appendix includes the input file for the mesh that was constructed in Chapter 5. This input file is included as it is necessary to run further tests or alter the mesh in any way. It was also requested by the industrial collaborator on this project, General Dynamics Land Systems – Canada.

```
sd 1 stl inner.stl ;
sd 2 stl Marrow.stl ;
sd 3 stl outside.stl ;
sd 5 pl3 rt 7.6587270e+01 -8.0521985e+01 -1.5039968e+02
rt 8.7514178e+01 -7.0569206e+01 -1.5026136e+02 rt
9.5283942e+01 -8.1343137e+01 -1.5009658e+02 ;
sd 7 pl3 rt 75.671627 -54.868678 147.06598 rt 86.204893 -
75.45137 147.09288 rt 68.499807 -83.380167 147.12409 ;
sd 30 pl3 rt 8.0978298e+01 -4.6433953e+01 1.6345682e+02
rt 9.1057752e+01 -8.0185922e+01 1.6338828e+02 rt
6.0105103e+01 -7.9269842e+01 1.6347128e+02 ;
```

```
curd 1
```

```
csp3 00
```

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8.4909510e+01 -5.9423919e+01 -1.8552969e+02
8.2363709e+01 -5.9249503e+01 -1.8581836e+02
7.5163665e+01 -5.9002083e+01 -1.8552953e+02
7.0605865e+01 -6.1239596e+01 -1.8432106e+02
6.6363787e+01 -6.4498247e+01 -1.8441223e+02
6.6570895e+01 -7.3826961e+01 -1.8535071e+02
6.7853050e+01 -7.6613912e+01 -1.8571329e+02
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1.0029294e+02 -6.4166643e+01 -1.8390858e+02
9.5958523e+01 -6.2451439e+01 -1.8403057e+02
8.8909833e+01 -6.0063674e+01 -1.8489964e+02
8.4909510e+01 -5.9423919e+01 -1.8552969e+02
```

```
curd 2
```

```
csp3 00
```

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7.1413956e+01 -7.3498863e+01 -1.4992351e+02
7.0530176e+01 -7.7118314e+01 -1.5019280e+02
7.0217523e+01 -8.1078093e+01 -1.5014190e+02
7.3288119e+01 -8.4518594e+01 -1.5018523e+02
7.6391609e+01 -8.7076522e+01 -1.5010870e+02
7.9796773e+01 -8.9070802e+01 -1.5020579e+02
8.4265964e+01 -8.9901158e+01 -1.5014561e+02
9.0093717e+01 -9.0503124e+01 -1.5004302e+02
9.3224064e+01 -8.8904071e+01 -1.5023562e+02
9.5950007e+01 -8.5051582e+01 -1.4995418e+02
```

```
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9.6709100e+01 -7.2534916e+01 -1.5004622e+02
9.5175596e+01 -6.9007492e+01 -1.4973519e+02
9.0972049e+01 -6.7453865e+01 -1.4979549e+02
8.6279061e+01 -6.6894117e+01 -1.5009409e+02
8.1659208e+01 -6.7157612e+01 -1.5003110e+02
7.8663358e+01 -6.8447093e+01 -1.5030911e+02
```

```
curd 3
```

```
csp3 00
```

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8.4445735e+01 -9.2119223e+01 1.4695316e+02
8.8918268e+01 -8.9382744e+01 1.4714645e+02
9.0778226e+01 -8.5026993e+01 1.4709351e+02
9.0546013e+01 -7.9132196e+01 1.4714581e+02
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```

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```

```
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```

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9.0923012e+01 -9.5203946e+01 1.6319148e+02
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```

```

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5.8556737e+01 -5.8278188e+01 1.6318615e+02
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5.9052999e+01 -8.2131515e+01 1.6272650e+02
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```

```

***
curd 6

```

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6.0283536e+01 -5.1290956e+01 1.6243958e+02
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1.0257104e+02 -7.1544236e+01 -1.9021131e+02

```

```

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9.9117146e+01 -6.3727513e+01 -1.8793996e+02

```

```

***
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csp3 00

```

```

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9.9711423e+01 -6.3183784e+01 -1.8583176e+02
9.5001176e+01 -6.2187665e+01 -1.8631427e+02
9.0694721e+01 -6.0336770e+01 -1.8657428e+02
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7.6438265e+01 -5.8147058e+01 -1.8769951e+02
7.2186473e+01 -5.8661098e+01 -1.8734053e+02
7.0161194e+01 -5.9645576e+01 -1.8651577e+02
6.6990073e+01 -6.2256592e+01 -1.8641736e+02
6.4610975e+01 -6.4832506e+01 -1.8623859e+02
6.3532153e+01 -6.8875298e+01 -1.8688825e+02
6.7112069e+01 -8.7671200e+01 -1.8888832e+02
6.6755764e+01 -9.1467750e+01 -1.8945225e+02
6.6620621e+01 -9.4809755e+01 -1.9004358e+02
6.9581438e+01 -9.7723052e+01 -1.9225104e+02
7.3538172e+01 -9.9035456e+01 -1.9249075e+02
7.8869365e+01 -1.0058332e+02 -1.9213605e+02
8.8793424e+01 -9.8425137e+01 -1.9041089e+02
9.5160218e+01 -9.7192702e+01 -1.8926304e+02
9.9094987e+01 -9.6191766e+01 -1.8994910e+02
1.0846346e+02 -9.3459322e+01 -1.9093728e+02
1.1328033e+02 -9.2015791e+01 -1.9054845e+02
1.1623301e+02 -8.7662926e+01 -1.8898735e+02
1.1725734e+02 -8.5028799e+01 -1.8931276e+02
1.1771571e+02 -7.9727248e+01 -1.8858431e+02
1.1686790e+02 -7.3998525e+01 -1.8821925e+02
1.1469125e+02 -6.9606071e+01 -1.8745247e+02
1.0990590e+02 -6.5784734e+01 -1.8624755e+02

```

```

***
curd 20
csp3 00

```

```

8.3211156e+01 -9.5744824e+01 1.4698369e+02
8.1237841e+01 -9.6098960e+01 1.4716567e+02
7.6348470e+01 -9.6354636e+01 1.4726155e+02
7.3213045e+01 -9.5640772e+01 1.4718872e+02
6.9928387e+01 -9.3923935e+01 1.4721097e+02
6.6225946e+01 -9.0363577e+01 1.4721740e+02
6.2942754e+01 -8.6670853e+01 1.4691365e+02
6.0342404e+01 -8.3039700e+01 1.4725538e+02
5.8310535e+01 -8.0279154e+01 1.4719185e+02
5.7195423e+01 -7.7287320e+01 1.4719878e+02
5.6597646e+01 -7.2803796e+01 1.4713703e+02
5.6879098e+01 -6.8714545e+01 1.4714634e+02
5.7680915e+01 -6.5374940e+01 1.4714966e+02
5.9244839e+01 -6.1785934e+01 1.4700237e+02
6.2089651e+01 -5.7468002e+01 1.4711238e+02
6.4710294e+01 -5.3846601e+01 1.4712843e+02
6.6426192e+01 -5.0409000e+01 1.4705256e+02
6.8005769e+01 -4.5961791e+01 1.4705126e+02
7.1275607e+01 -4.2736300e+01 1.4703477e+02
7.4510498e+01 -4.2017559e+01 1.4694096e+02
7.7969315e+01 -4.2742641e+01 1.4691367e+02
8.0491504e+01 -4.3896451e+01 1.4700805e+02
8.3160010e+01 -4.5126595e+01 1.4699654e+02
8.5104127e+01 -4.8556245e+01 1.4700314e+02
8.7339013e+01 -5.4650472e+01 1.4697199e+02
8.8655680e+01 -5.7907622e+01 1.4699456e+02
9.0180513e+01 -6.2029252e+01 1.4697879e+02
9.1283674e+01 -6.4824335e+01 1.4704214e+02
9.2598764e+01 -6.9218303e+01 1.4704595e+02
9.3605178e+01 -7.5121232e+01 1.4702202e+02
9.4173064e+01 -7.8775046e+01 1.4707765e+02
9.4660407e+01 -8.1967084e+01 1.4698951e+02

```


9.4576984e+01 -8.5695582e+01 1.4701535e+02
 9.3642761e+01 -8.9991414e+01 1.4708445e+02
 9.1996619e+01 -9.2307991e+01 1.4704904e+02
 9.0565011e+01 -9.3924909e+01 1.4717543e+02
 8.8322312e+01 -9.4467963e+01 1.4710562e+02
 8.5706454e+01 -9.5166232e+01 1.4678719e+02
 8.3211156e+01 -9.5744824e+01 1.4698369e+02

block 1 3 5 7; 1 3 5 7; 1 3; 1 3 5 7; 1 3 5 7; 1 3;
 dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;

rap

curd 44

csp3 00

1.0106995e+02 -6.2431754e+01 -1.6880212e+02
 9.4404917e+01 -6.0086443e+01 -1.6875549e+02
 8.9933892e+01 -5.9824247e+01 -1.6870223e+02
 8.1807100e+01 -6.0364778e+01 -1.6866886e+02
 7.4087303e+01 -6.2348775e+01 -1.6876163e+02
 6.9571869e+01 -6.6077793e+01 -1.6887887e+02
 6.5580893e+01 -6.8285620e+01 -1.6880182e+02
 6.4768891e+01 -7.3848449e+01 -1.6884552e+02
 6.4302331e+01 -7.7839791e+01 -1.6871231e+02
 6.5856808e+01 -8.0820879e+01 -1.6880260e+02
 6.6192726e+01 -8.4325775e+01 -1.6890204e+02
 6.7139287e+01 -8.8253577e+01 -1.6882361e+02
 7.0180201e+01 -9.2573371e+01 -1.6881758e+02
 7.5749465e+01 -9.4397707e+01 -1.6879744e+02
 8.0587403e+01 -9.6332164e+01 -1.6889661e+02
 9.0049461e+01 -9.6404842e+01 -1.6875835e+02
 9.5337137e+01 -9.7759818e+01 -1.6871208e+02
 1.0108241e+02 -9.6185473e+01 -1.6887018e+02
 1.0374268e+02 -9.1709896e+01 -1.6927395e+02
 1.0601949e+02 -8.7219928e+01 -1.6897915e+02
 1.0779789e+02 -8.2814360e+01 -1.6880382e+02
 1.0826572e+02 -7.6639909e+01 -1.6894458e+02
 1.0777944e+02 -7.0434556e+01 -1.6928480e+02
 1.0466125e+02 -6.5371974e+01 -1.6903968e+02
 1.0106995e+02 -6.2431754e+01 -1.6880212e+02

curd 39

csp3 00

1.1484617e+02 -7.9224560e+01 -1.9783276e+02
 1.1539493e+02 -7.8025761e+01 -1.9792348e+02
 1.1583022e+02 -7.5902674e+01 -1.9740705e+02
 1.1540572e+02 -7.1463546e+01 -1.9638605e+02
 1.1448720e+02 -6.8377424e+01 -1.9590719e+02
 1.1337081e+02 -6.6747655e+01 -1.9527312e+02
 1.1139355e+02 -6.6056637e+01 -1.9557058e+02
 1.0923730e+02 -6.7139205e+01 -1.9591623e+02
 1.0819691e+02 -6.9431999e+01 -1.9634525e+02
 1.0827392e+02 -7.4098670e+01 -1.9746607e+02
 1.0821243e+02 -7.5832107e+01 -1.9775758e+02
 1.0843799e+02 -7.8179876e+01 -1.9793630e+02
 1.0989824e+02 -8.0128523e+01 -1.9803750e+02
 1.1191423e+02 -8.0537493e+01 -1.9771114e+02
 1.1358134e+02 -8.0430574e+01 -1.9735808e+02
 1.1484617e+02 -7.9224560e+01 -1.9783276e+02

mbi -4; -2; 1 2; xyz 0.365140e-01 -0.146980 -0.699395
 mbi -4; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.700058 1.27982 0.972671
 mbi -3; -4; 1 2; xyz 1.03446 0.269584 0.357254
 mbi -2; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.46979 0.243299 0.125857e-01
 mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.657301e-02 1.09993 0.912673
 mbi -1; -2; 1 2; xyz 0.544699 -1.08987 -0.834944
 mbi -2; -1; 1 2; xyz -0.946058 -0.169897 -0.263065
 mbi -3; -1; 1 2; xyz 1.78855 0.436747e-01 0.266846
 bb 3 3 1 3 4 2 1;
 bb 3 3 1 4 3 2 1;
 bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 2;
 bb 2 3 1 2 4 2 2;

bb 2 1 1 2 2 2 3;
 bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 3;
 bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 4;
 bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 4;
 mbi -4; -2; 1 2; xyz -0.989922e-01 -0.627252 -0.576127
 mbi 1 4; 1 4; 1 2; y -83.5106
 mbi 1 4; 1 4; 1 2; x 101.102
 mbi 1 4; 1 4; 1 2; z -186.064
 mbi 1 4; 1 4; 1 2; z -16.9364
 mbi -4; 2 3; 1 2; xyz 8.45633 -2.55267 0.522909
 mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; xyz -20.3915 -14.5656 -0.834384
 mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; xyz -23.1771 6.51339 -1.42324
 mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; xyz -13.7505 1.64953 -0.798792
 mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; xyz -8.71279 -6.31193 -0.354692
 mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz 6.95643 12.2446 0.134872
 mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.13729 3.61204 -0.137614
 mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.10283 2.52703 -0.113362
 mbi -3; -3; xyz -1.52751 5.76996 -0.203741
 mbi -2; -3; xyz -17.0606 3.43095 -1.01958
 mbi -2; -2; xyz -14.9450 -5.36382 -0.720858
 mbi -3; -2; xyz -5.17098 0.356338 -0.294957
 mbi -3; -3; xyz -5.23358 0.992208 -1.20531
 mbi ;; -2; z 32.2363
 mbi ;; -1; z 13.5237
 curs 1 2 1 1 3 1 1
 curs 2 1 1 3 1 1 1
 curs 4 2 1 4 3 1 1
 curs 2 4 1 3 4 1 1
 sd 9 xyplan mz -168.7 ; ;
 dap
 curs 4 2 2 4 3 2 4 4
 curs 2 1 2 3 1 2 4 4
 curs 1 2 2 1 3 2 4 4
 curs 2 4 2 3 4 2 4 4
 mbi -2; -3; 1 2; xyz -6.83346 1.93448 -0.284763
 mbi -2; -2; xyz -4.91276 -0.848815 -0.107489
 mbi -3; -2; xyz -1.70899 -3.69647 0.110277
 mbi -3; -3; xyz -6.38628 -1.09134 -0.140253
 mbi -2; -3; xyz 1.09446 -2.45794 1.88307
 sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 1
 sfi 2 3; -4; 1 2;sd 1
 sfi -4; 2 3; 1 2;sd 1
 sfi 2 3; -1; 1 2;sd 1
 sfi 1 4; 2 3; -1;sd 1
 sfi 2 3; 1 4; -1;sd 1
 sfi 1 4; 2 3; -2;sd 9
 sfi 2 3; 1 4; -2;sd 9
 relax 2 1 1 3 4 1 & 1 2 1 2 3 1 & 3 2 1 4 3 1 5 0 1 ;
 relax 2 1 1 3 4 1 & 1 2 1 2 3 1 & 3 2 1 4 3 1 5 0 1 ;
 pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 84.3176 -75.0147 -185.475
 relax 2 1 2 3 4 2 & 1 2 2 3 2 & 3 2 2 4 3 2 1 0 0 1 ;
 relax 2 4 1 3 4 2 & 1 2 1 1 3 2 & 4 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 1 2 1 0 1 ;
 unifm 1 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 3 1 3 4 2 & 2 1 1 3 2 2 1 0 0 1 ;
 mseq k 6
 mseq i 6 0 6
 mseq j 6 0 6
 mseq i 0 6 0
 mseq j 0 6 0
 c distal most cancellous region finished
 insprt 1 5 1 2
 dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
 mbi ;; -1; z -7.95850
 bb 2 1 1 2 2 2 9;
 bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 10;
 undo
 bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 9;
 bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 10;
 bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 10;
 bb 3 3 1 3 4 2 11;

```

bb 3 3 1 4 3 2 11;
bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 12;
bb 2 3 1 2 4 2 12;
curs 1 2 1 1 3 1 11
curs 2 4 1 3 4 1 11
curs 4 2 1 4 3 1 11
curs 2 1 1 3 1 1 11
insprt 1 1 1 2
dei 1 2; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 3;
dei 1 2; 2 3; 1 2;
mbi -1; 2 3; 2 3; x -14.0397
bb 2 2 1 2 3 2 13;
bb 1 2 2 2 3 2 13;
insprt 1 2 5 2
dei 5 6; 1 4; 1 2;
dei 5 6; 1 2 0 3 4; 2 3;
mbi -6; 2 3; 2 3; x 9.53819
bb 5 2 1 5 3 2 14;
bb 5 2 2 6 3 2 14;
insprt 1 3 1 2
dei 1 6; 1 2; 1 2;
dei 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2; 2 3;
mbi 3 4; -1; 2 3; y -28.8405
mbi 3 4; -1; 2 3; y 13.0797
bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 15;
bb 3 1 2 4 2 2 15;
insprt 1 4 5 2
dei 1 6; 5 6; 1 2;
dei 1 3 0 4 6; 5 6; 2 3;
mbi 3 4; -6; 2 3; y 21.5299
mbi 3 4; -6; 2 3; y -5.98436
bb 3 5 1 4 5 2 16;
bb 3 5 2 4 6 2 16;
bb 4 5 2 4 6 3 17;
bb 5 4 2 6 4 3 17;
bb 5 3 2 6 3 3 18;
bb 4 1 2 4 2 3 18;
bb 3 1 2 3 2 3 19;
bb 1 3 2 2 3 3 19;
bb 1 4 2 2 4 3 20;
bb 3 5 2 3 6 3 20;
curs 1 3 3 1 4 3 44
curs 3 6 3 4 6 3 44
curs 6 3 3 6 4 3 44
curs 3 1 3 4 1 3 44
sfi -6; 3 4; 2 3;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -1; 2 3;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -6; 2 3;sd 3
sfi -1; 3 4; 2 3;sd 3
sfi 3 4; 5 6; -3;sd 9
sfi 1 2; 3 4; -3;sd 9
sfi 3 4; 1 2; -3;sd 9
sfi 5 6; 3 4; -3;sd 9
sfi 3 4; 2 5; -1;sd 3
sfi 2 5; 3 4; -1;sd 3
relax 2 3 1 5 4 1 & 3 4 1 4 5 1 & 3 2 1 4 3 1 10 0 1;
relax 3 6 2 4 6 3 & 6 3 2 6 4 3 & 1 3 2 1 4 3 & 3 1 2 4 1 3 10
0 1;
unifm 5 3 3 6 4 3 & 3 5 3 4 6 3 & 1 3 3 2 4 3 & 3 1 3 4 2 3 10
0 1;
decmd 165
undo
sfi 2 4; 3 4; -1;sd 3
unifm 3 2 1 4 5 2 & 2 3 1 3 4 2 & 4 3 1 5 4 2 & 5 3 2 6 4 3 &
3 1 2 4 2 3 & 1 3 2 2 4 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 10 0 1;
insprt 1 2 4 4
mbi -5; 3 4; -1; xyz 6.36690 1.34420 -0.655879
unifm 2 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 7 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 3 1 2 4 2 3 &
3 4 1 4 5 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 15 0 1;

```

```

unifm 2 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 7 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 3 1 2 4 2 3 &
3 4 1 4 5 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 15 0 1;
mbi -5; 3 4; -1; z -3.43443
unifm 2 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 7 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 3 1 2 4 2 3 &
3 4 1 4 5 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 15 0 1;
msej 0 4 0 2 2 0
msej 0 4 0 4 0
relax 3 1 3 4 6 3 & 1 3 3 3 4 3 & 4 3 3 7 4 3 10 0 1;
relax 3 1 3 4 6 3 & 1 3 3 3 4 3 & 4 3 3 7 4 3 10 0 1;
relax 1 3 2 7 4 2 & 3 4 2 4 6 2 & 3 1 2 4 3 2 10 0 1;
curf 3 1 3 4 1 3 4 4
relax 3 1 2 4 1 3 5 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 7 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 3 1 2 4 2 3 &
3 4 1 4 5 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 15 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 7 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 3 1 2 4 2 3 &
3 4 1 4 5 3 & 3 5 2 4 6 3 40 0 1;
msej -1 0 0 0 0 -1
msej -1 0 0 0 -1
msej k -1 0
dap
mate 1
mt 2 3 1 6 4 2 2
mt 3 2 1 4 5 2 2
mt 3 1 2 4 2 3 2
mt 6 3 2 7 4 3 2
mt 3 5 2 4 6 3 2
mt 1 3 2 2 4 3 2
bb 1 3 3 2 4 3 100;
bb 3 1 3 4 2 3 101;
bb 6 3 3 7 4 3 102;
bb 3 5 3 4 6 3 103;
bb 3 2 3 4 5 3 104;
bb 2 3 3 3 4 3 105;
bb 4 3 3 6 4 3 106;
insprt 1 5 1 4
dei 1 5 0 6 7; 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2;
dei 1 5 0 6 7; 3 4; 1 2;
dei 5 6; 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2;
mbi 5 6; 3 4; -1; z -9.55522
curd 39
csp3 00
1.1484617e+02 -7.9224560e+01 -1.9783276e+02
1.1539493e+02 -7.8025761e+01 -1.9792348e+02
1.1583022e+02 -7.5902674e+01 -1.9740705e+02
1.1540572e+02 -7.1463546e+01 -1.9638605e+02
1.1448720e+02 -6.8377424e+01 -1.9590719e+02
1.1337081e+02 -6.6747655e+01 -1.9527312e+02
1.1139355e+02 -6.6056637e+01 -1.9557058e+02
1.0923730e+02 -6.7139205e+01 -1.9591623e+02
1.0819691e+02 -6.9431999e+01 -1.9634525e+02
1.0827392e+02 -7.4098670e+01 -1.9746607e+02
1.0821243e+02 -7.5832107e+01 -1.9775758e+02
1.0843799e+02 -7.8179876e+01 -1.9793630e+02
1.0989824e+02 -8.0128523e+01 -1.9803750e+02
1.1191423e+02 -8.0537493e+01 -1.9771114e+02
1.1358134e+02 -8.0430574e+01 -1.9735808e+02
1.1484617e+02 -7.9224560e+01 -1.9783276e+02
***
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 113.681 -65.2124 -194.397
pb 6 3 1 6 3 1 xyz 116.286 -79.6665 -198.259
pb 5 3 1 5 3 1 xyz 109.285 -79.5197 -203.172
pb 5 4 1 5 4 1 xyz 107.478 -67.0531 -196.506
curs 5 3 1 5 4 1 39
curs 5 3 1 6 3 1 39
curs 6 3 1 6 4 1 39
curs 5 4 1 6 4 1 39
sfi 5 6; 3 4; -1;sd 3
sfi -6; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 5 6; -4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 5 6; -3; 1 2;sd 3

```

```

sfi -5; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 4 5; 3 4; -2;sd 3
relax 5 3 1 6 4 1 & 5 4 1 6 4 2 & 5 3 1 5 4 2 & 6 3 1 6 4 2 &
5 3 1 6 3 2 7 0 1 ;
unifm 5 3 1 6 4 2 5 0 1 ;
unifm 5 3 1 6 4 2 & 2 3 2 6 4 3 & 1 3 3 7 4 4 & 3 4 2 4 5 4 &
3 5 3 4 6 4 & 3 2 2 4 3 4 & 3 1 3 4 2 4 1 0 0 1 ;
unifm 5 3 1 6 4 2 1 0 0 1 ;
mt 5 3 1 6 4 2 2
c distalmost section complete
merge
block 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 5; 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 2 8
12 18 19; 1 5;
dap
mbi ;; 1 2; y -92.9273
mbi ;; 1 2; x 78.1869
mbi ;; 1 2; z -163.365
dei 1 3 0 4 6; 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2;
mbi -4; 1 2; 1 2; xy 3.19672 1.38723
mbi 5 6; -3; 1 2; xy -2.20587 -4.69069
mbi 5 6; -4; 1 2; xy -1.44613 4.64706
mbi -4; 5 6; 1 2; xy 3.61880 -0.755530
mbi -3; 5 6; 1 2; xy -4.95921 -0.671114
mbi 1 2; -4; 1 2; xy 0.949881 4.56264
mbi 1 2; -3; 1 2; xy 0.527800 -4.69069
mbi -3; 1 2; 1 2; xy -5.21245 -0.478460e-01
bb 1 3 1 3 3 2 30;
bb 3 1 1 3 3 2 30;
bb 4 1 1 4 3 2 31;
bb 4 3 1 6 3 2 31;
bb 4 4 1 6 4 2 32;
bb 4 4 1 4 6 2 32;
bb 3 4 1 3 6 2 33;
bb 1 4 1 3 4 2 33;
bb 1 3 1 3 3 2 34;
bb 3 1 1 3 3 2 34;
mbi -6; -4; xyz 0.717056e-01 1.08669 0.406502e-01
mbi -4; -1; xyz 1.24063 -0.701654 -0.499851e-02
mbi -1; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.70844 0.502175 -0.997005e-02
mbi -1; -4; xyz -0.779860 -0.257474 -0.222272e-01
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz -0.864265 -0.257437 -0.236194e-01
mbi -6; -4; xyz 0.421996 0.168540 0.130886e-01
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.961789 -1.03327 -0.534061e-01
mbi ;; -2; z 7.73965
mbi ;; -1; z -4.31828
curs 3 5 2 4 5 2 2
curs 5 3 2 5 4 2 2
curs 3 2 2 4 2 2 2
curs 2 3 2 2 4 2 2
mbi 3 4; -2; -1; xyz 1.74527 -6.44895 0.550009
mbi -5; 3 4; -1; xyz 10.0938 5.08149 3.34771
mbi 3 4; -5; -1; xyz -6.29490 10.0920 -2.03560
mbi -2; 3 4; -1; xyz -9.50527 -4.30399 -3.15062
pb 5 3 2 5 3 2 xyz 95.0804 -79.7531 -150.109
pb 4 2 2 4 2 2 xyz 95.1642 -81.4742 -149.093
pb 2 4 2 2 4 2 xyz 76.4363 -74.5884 -149.573
pb 3 5 2 3 5 2 xyz 76.3877 -74.8127 -149.709
pb 5 4 2 5 4 2 xyz 90.8394 -70.8510 -149.438
pb 4 5 2 4 5 2 xyz 91.6785 -67.7813 -149.710
trbb 2 3 1 3 4 1 105 ;;
trbb 3 2 1 4 5 1 104 ;;
trbb 4 3 1 5 4 1 106 ;;
relax 2 3 2 5 4 2 & 3 4 2 4 5 2 & 3 2 2 4 3 2 1 0 0 1 ;
mbi 3 4; 3 4; -2; xyz -1.04357 2.57443 0.175631
pb 4 4 2 4 4 2 xyz 88.2626 -74.5001 -151.182
pb 3 3 2 3 3 2 xyz 84.0436 -82.8885 -148.873
sfi -5; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -2; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -5; 1 2;sd 1
sfi -2; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1

unifm 3 2 1 4 5 2 & 4 3 1 5 4 2 & 2 3 1 3 4 2 1 0 0 1 ;
sfi -6; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -1; 1 2;sd 3
sfi -1; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -6; 1 2;sd 3
pb 1 4 2 1 4 2 xyz 71.3933 -69.1719 -151.084
pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 79.3027 -91.6250 -150.465
pb 4 1 2 4 1 2 xyz 98.0731 -87.6342 -150.014
pb 4 1 2 4 1 2 xyz 99.3916 -82.7957 -149.942
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 96.1335 -66.3403 -150.477
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 93.1905 -64.7906 -151.135
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 92.1203 -64.7162 -151.384
relax 3 1 2 4 6 2 & 4 3 2 6 4 2 & 1 3 2 3 4 2 5 0 1 ;
curs 1 3 1 1 4 1 44
curs 3 6 1 4 6 1 44
curs 6 3 1 6 4 1 44
curs 3 1 1 4 1 1 44
relax 3 1 1 4 6 1 & 1 3 1 3 4 1 & 4 3 1 6 4 1 1 0 0 1 ;
trbb 1 3 1 2 4 1 100;
pb 1 4 1 1 4 1 xyz 67.7154 -64.9820 -168.524
pb 1 4 1 1 4 1 xyz 67.7350 -71.5653 -166.818
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 109.139 -68.5672 -166.292
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 106.744 -65.0295 -166.308
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 104.091 -62.3097 -165.451
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 101.613 -61.4206 -166.220
trbb 3 5 1 4 6 1 103;
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 99.8360 -62.3723 -168.026
pb 6 4 1 6 4 1 xyz 99.3226 -62.4149 -168.552
trbb 5 3 1 6 4 1 102;
pb 4 1 1 4 1 1 xyz 104.618 -91.6037 -169.585
trbb 3 1 1 4 2 1 101;
pb 4 1 1 4 1 1 xyz 107.719 -81.6409 -168.246
unifm 1 3 1 2 4 2 & 3 5 1 4 6 2 & 5 3 1 6 4 2 & 3 1 1 4 2 2 1 0
0 1 ;
sfi -1; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -1; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -6; 1 2;sd 3
sfi -6; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; 1 6; -2;sd 5
sfi 1 6; 3 4; -2;sd 5
pb 1 4 2 1 4 2 xyz 69.6433 -70.8346 -150.704
pb 2 4 2 2 4 2 xyz 72.0370 -72.2560 -150.198
pb 2 4 2 2 4 2 xyz 72.1454 -72.5308 -150.671
relax 3 1 1 4 1 2 & 1 3 1 1 4 2 & 6 3 1 6 4 2 & 3 6 1 4 6 2 5 0
1 ;
pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 86.5526 -84.1563 -168.598
mt 2 3 1 5 4 2 1
mt 3 2 1 4 5 2 1
mt 3 1 1 4 2 2 2
mt 1 3 1 2 4 2 2
mt 5 3 1 6 4 2 2
mt 3 5 1 4 6 2 2
relax 1 3 2 6 4 2 & 3 1 2 4 3 2 & 3 4 2 4 6 2 1 0 0 1 ;
bb 2 3 2 5 4 2 107;
bb 3 2 2 4 3 2 108;
bb 3 4 2 4 5 2 109;
bb 1 3 2 2 4 2 110;
bb 3 1 2 4 2 2 111;
bb 5 3 2 6 4 2 112;
bb 3 5 2 4 6 2 113;
c second distal region done
merge
block 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 11; 1 2 8 12 18 19; 1 2 8
12 18 19; 1 11;
mbi ;; 1 2; x 67.1929
mbi ;; 1 2; y -82.4632
mbi ;; -1; z -144.310
mbi ;; -2; z 116.416
mbi ;; -2; z 13.0700
mseq k 20

```

```

dei 1 3 0 4 6; 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2;
dap
mbi 5 6; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.974912 -5.03033 -0.266454e-14
mbi -4; 1 2; 1 2; xyz 4.33491 -0.963542e-01 -0.266454e-14
mbi 5 6; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.53868 5.00125 -0.266454e-14
mbi -4; 5 6; 1 2; xyz 3.89642 -0.559139 -0.266454e-14
mbi -3; 5 6; 1 2; xyz -3.62952 -1.93724 -0.266454e-14
mbi 1 2; -4; 1 2; xyz 1.86823 3.68579 -0.266454e-14
mbi 1 2; -3; 1 2; xyz 1.68031 -4.96769 -0.266454e-14
mbi -3; 1 2; 1 2; xyz -4.25593 0.915687e-01 -0.266454e-14
bb 3 4 1 3 6 2 60;
bb 1 4 1 3 4 2 60;
bb 1 3 1 3 3 2 61;
bb 3 1 1 3 3 2 61;
bb 4 1 1 4 3 2 62;
bb 4 3 1 6 3 2 62;
bb 4 4 1 6 4 2 63;
bb 4 4 1 4 6 2 63;
mbi -6; -4; 1 2; xyz -0.236302 0.232974 -0.831531e-03
mbi -6; -4; 1 2; xyz -0.313205 0.438482 -0.194495e-02
mbi -6; -4; 1 2; xyz 0.375845 -0.187925 0.135746e-03
mbi -4; -1; 1 2; xyz 0.889849 -0.332269 -0.410757e-03
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz -1.30237 -0.893432 0.956761e-02
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz -0.187918 -0.125276 0.135687e-02
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz 0.438483 0.626389 -0.533712e-02
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.509114e-01 -1.89711 0.124758e-01
bb 2 3 1 5 4 1 107;
bb 3 4 1 4 5 1 109;
bb 3 2 1 4 3 1 108;
mt 2 3 1 5 4 2 3
mt 3 2 1 4 5 2 3
sfi -5; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -2; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -5; 1 2;sd 1
sfi -2; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1
mbi 3 4; -6; 1 2; xyz -1.23461 14.2855 -0.666134e-15
mbi -6; 3 4; 1 2; xyz 8.22428 0.598601 -0.444089e-15
mbi 3 4; -1; 1 2; xyz -0.232112 -14.9049 0.133227e-14
mbi -1; 3 4; 1 2; xyz -9.19898 -7.35850 0.111022e-14
mbi -1; 3 4; 1 2; xyz -8.99398 -1.69191 0.111022e-14
bb 3 1 1 4 2 1 111;
bb 1 3 1 2 4 1 110;
bb 3 5 1 4 6 1 113;
bb 5 3 1 6 4 1 112;
sfi -1; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -6; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -1; 1 2;sd 3
sfi -6; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
pb 1 4 2 1 4 2 xyz 62.1028 -58.4752 141.230
pb 4 1 2 4 1 2 xyz 88.8053 -92.3772 140.087
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 89.8220 -91.9103 139.915
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 91.9646 -89.2626 139.405
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 93.6744 -86.7262 138.877
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 94.5846 -84.1187 138.486
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 94.2611 -82.6229 138.313
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 94.4745 -81.2375 138.122
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 89.9268 -63.0116 140.327
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 89.7686 -62.2025 140.295
relax 3 1 2 4 6 2 & 1 3 2 3 4 2 & 4 3 2 6 4 2 10 0 1;
relax 3 6 1 4 6 2 & 6 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 1 1 4 2 & 3 1 1 4 1 2 10 0 1;
pb 3 1 2 3 1 2 xyz 63.3661 -85.3950 142.613
mbi ;; -2; z 4.06674
sfi 3 4; 1 6; -2;sd 7
sfi 1 6; 3 4; -2;sd 7
pb 4 1 2 4 1 2 xyz 91.9020 -82.9355 147.619
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 92.1778 -84.5731 148.181
pb 6 3 2 6 3 2 xyz 92.0514 -86.1673 147.431
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 90.5904 -58.5985 146.746
unifm 3 1 1 4 6 2 & 4 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 1 3 4 2 10 0 1;
mt 3 5 1 4 6 2 2
mt 5 3 1 6 4 2 2
mt 1 3 1 2 4 2 2
mt 3 1 1 4 2 2 2
mseq k 20
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 15 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 15 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 15 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 15 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 25 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 25 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 25 0 1;
unifm 2 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 4 1 4 5 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 25 0 1;
bb 3 2 2 4 5 2 114;
bb 4 3 2 5 4 2 115;
bb 2 3 2 3 4 2 116;
bb 3 1 2 4 2 2 117;
bb 5 3 2 6 4 2 118;
bb 3 5 2 4 6 2 119;
bb 1 3 2 2 4 2 120;
c shaft region done
merge
block 1 2 11 17 26 27; 1 2 11 17 26 27; 1 6; 1 2 11 17 26 27; 1
2 11 17 26 27; 1 6;
dei 1 3 0 4 6; 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2;
mbi -4; 1 2; 1 2; xy 6.85415 1.90414
mbi 5 6; -3; 1 2; xy -1.74521 -6.96010
mbi 5 6; -4; 1 2; xy -1.37435 7.48990
mbi -4; 5 6; 1 2; xy 6.90713 -0.155828
mbi -3; 1 2; 1 2; xy -7.11904 2.01010
mbi 1 2; -3; 1 2; xy 0.950517 -6.64223
mbi -3; 5 6; 1 2; xy -5.42371 -0.473704
mbi 1 2; -4; 1 2; xy 1.58627 6.69521
bb 1 3 1 3 3 2 70;
bb 3 1 1 3 3 2 70;
bb 4 1 1 4 3 2 71;
bb 4 3 1 6 3 2 71;
bb 4 4 1 6 4 2 72;
bb 4 4 1 4 6 2 72;
bb 3 4 1 3 6 2 73;
bb 1 4 1 3 4 2 73;
mbi -1; -4; 1 2; xyz -0.842964 0.281652 -0.399215e-01
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz -1.42447 0.493705 -0.670218e-01
mbi -6; -4; 1 2; xyz 0.538171 1.07556 0.565178e-01
mbi -4; -1; 1 2; xyz 0.976278 0.274360 0.610798e-01
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz 0.733107e-02 -1.06901 -0.260164e-01
dap
mbi ;; 1 2; x 58.7408
mbi ;; 1 2; y -81.7085
mbi ;; 1 2; z 154.232
mbi ;; -1; z -5.51188
mbi ;; -2; z 4.77508
mbi 3 4; -2; 1 2; xyz 4.29565 -17.4635 -0.284217e-13
mbi -5; 3 4; 1 2; xy 5.13036 8.84235
mbi -2; 3 4; 1 2; xyz -5.99367 -10.7825 -0.284217e-13
mbi 3 4; -5; 1 2; xyz -7.24541 5.57511 -0.284217e-13
mseq i 0 3 2 3 0
mseq j 0 3 2 3 0
trbb 3 2 1 4 5 1 114; ;
trbb 2 3 1 3 4 1 116; ;
trbb 4 3 1 5 4 1 115; ;
sfi -2; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -5; 1 2;sd 1
sfi -5; 3 4; 1 2;sd 1
sfi 3 4; -2; 1 2;sd 1
trbb 1 3 1 2 4 1 120; ;
trbb 3 5 1 4 6 1 119; ;
trbb 5 3 1 6 4 1 118; ;
trbb 3 1 1 4 2 1 117; ;
sfi -1; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3

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sfi 3 4; -6; 1 2;sd 3
sfi 3 4; -1; 1 2;sd 3
sfi -6; 3 4; 1 2;sd 3
curs 2 3 2 2 4 2 4
curs 3 2 2 4 2 2 4
curs 5 3 2 5 4 2 4
curs 3 5 2 4 5 2 4
curs 3 6 2 4 6 2 6
curs 1 3 2 1 4 2 6
curs 3 1 2 4 1 2 6
curs 6 3 2 6 4 2 6
pb 4 2 2 4 2 2 xyz 92.2729 -89.5993 163.280
pb 4 1 2 4 1 2 xyz 95.3386 -91.9353 162.875
pb 5 4 2 5 4 2 xyz 84.8809 -53.0350 162.864
pb 6 4 2 6 4 2 xyz 87.6742 -51.1514 162.469
curs 3 5 2 4 5 2 4
relax 3 1 2 4 6 2 & 1 3 2 3 4 2 & 4 3 2 6 4 2 10 0 1;
relax 3 6 1 4 6 2 & 6 3 1 6 4 2 & 1 3 1 1 4 2 & 3 1 1 4 1 2 10
0 1;
relax 2 3 1 2 4 2 & 3 2 1 4 2 2 & 5 3 1 5 4 2 & 3 5 1 4 5 2 10
0 1;
sd 77 xyplan mz 163;;
sfi 3 4; 1 6; -2;sd 77
sfi 1 6; 3 4; -2;sd 77
curf 1 3 2 1 4 2 6
curf 6 3 2 6 4 2 6
curf 3 1 2 4 1 2 6
curf 3 6 2 4 6 2 6
unifm 3 1 1 4 6 2 & 1 3 1 3 4 2 & 4 3 1 6 4 2 10 0 1;
mt 3 2 1 4 5 2 1
mt 2 3 1 5 4 2 1
mt 3 5 1 4 6 2 2
mt 1 3 1 2 4 2 2
mt 3 1 1 4 2 2 2
mt 5 3 1 6 4 2 2
bb 3 2 2 4 5 2 294;
bb 4 3 2 5 4 2 295;
bb 2 3 2 3 4 2 296;
bb 3 1 2 4 2 2 297;
bb 5 3 2 6 4 2 298;
bb 3 5 2 4 6 2 299;
bb 1 3 2 2 4 2 300;
c all bone done
merge
stp 0.0001
nset 1 = srf 30 0.1
nset 2 = srf 30 0.3
nset 3 = srf 30 0.5
nset 4 = srf 30 1.1
block 1 3 5; 1 3 5; 1 5; 1 3 5; 1 3 5; 1 5;
dap
insprt 1 2 3 2
insprt 1 4 3 2
dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; y 1.58318
mbi -4; 2 3; 1 2; x 2.43333
mbi -3; -1; 1 2; xyz 1.36601 0.589891 -0.939999
mbi -4; -2; 1 2; xyz -0.308392e-01 -1.05314 -0.176266
mbi -4; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.620434e-01 1.47441 0.327810
mbi -3; -4; 1 2; xyz 1.06287 0.330344 -0.755832
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz 0.207978 1.07518 0.440282e-01
mbi -2; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.02421 -0.167055 0.757067
mbi -2; -1; 1 2; xyz -0.904810 -0.164520 0.665594
mbi -1; -2; 1 2; xyz -0.189538 -1.31247 -0.103299
bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 123;
bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 123;
bb 3 3 1 4 3 2 124;
bb 3 3 1 3 4 2 124;
bb 2 3 1 2 4 2 125;
bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 125;

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bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 126;
bb 2 1 1 2 2 2 126;
mbi;; 1 2; z -149.774
mbi;; 1 2; z -58.2775
mbi;; 1 2; x 36.3020
mbi;; 1 2; y -82.0334
mbi;; 1 2; x 46.6086
sd 29 cy 85.54 -77.93 -192.05 0 0 1 15.9;
mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; xyz -6.89429 0.240706e-01 -0.168376e-01
mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; xyz 4.76335 -11.6753 -0.134040e-01
mbi -4; 2 3; 1 2; xyz 8.97760 6.61995 0.362094e-01
mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz -5.34691 5.48061 -0.132886e-02
mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz 1.20215 4.35979 0.123077e-01
mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; xyz -4.35922 -6.18660 -0.239649e-01
mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; xyz 5.58227 -3.98830 0.511021e-02
sfi 2 3; -1; 1 2;sd 29
sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
sfi 2 3; -4; 1 2;sd 29
sfi -4; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
unifm 3 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 4 2 & 1 2 1 2 3 2 10 0 1;
mbi -2; -2; 1 2; xyz -2.13333 -5.06389 -0.773728e-01
mbi -3; -2; 1 2; xyz 5.05742 -2.83758 -0.148389e-01
mbi -3; -3; 1 2; xyz 4.01155 2.97700 0.580622e-01
mbi -2; -3; 1 2; xyz -2.72917 1.98233 0.140330e-01
unifm 2 1 1 3 4 2 & 1 2 1 2 3 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 10 0 1;
relax 2 1 2 3 4 2 & 3 2 2 4 3 2 & 1 2 2 2 3 2 10 0 1;
sd 31 plan 85.54 -77.93 -192.05 0 0 1;
sd 32 plan 85.54 -77.93 -216.48 0 0 1;
sfi;; -2;sd 31
sfi;; -1;sd 32
mseq i 2 2 2;
mseq j 2 2 2;
pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 94.0967 -74.0098 -217.089
pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 85.5228 -74.4537 -216.237
pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 86.5358 -83.3076 -216.053
pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 95.1223 -81.7592 -216.976
pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 86.1553 -81.1107 -215.911
pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 86.5708 -73.1392 -216.788
pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 92.8879 -83.4238 -215.630
pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 85.2310 -80.7304 -215.945
relax 2 1 1 3 4 1 & 3 2 1 4 3 1 & 1 2 1 2 3 1 10 0 1;
trsd 31 mz 5;
trsd 31 mz -5;
trsd 31 mz -5;
trsd 31 mz 2;
trsd 31 mz -1;
trsd 31 mz -5;
trsd 31 mz -5;
mt 2 1 1 3 4 2 4
mt 1 2 1 4 3 2 4
pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 81.8409 -81.7766 -216.551
pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 83.4456 -74.1460 -215.872
bb 2 1 1 3 4 1 160;
bb 3 2 1 4 3 1 161;
bb 1 2 1 2 3 1 162;
sd 78 sp 85.54 -77.93 -206 15.9;
insprt 1 5 2 1
mseq k 0 1;
sfi -4; 2 3; 2 3;sd 78
sfi 2 3; -1; 2 3;sd 78
sfi -1; 2 3; 2 3;sd 78
sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
sfi 2 3; -1; 1 2;sd 29
sfi -4; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
sfi 2 3; -4; 1 2;sd 29
decmd 49
decmd 50
decmd 51
decmd 52
pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 79.8619 -62.8396 -203.818

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pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 79.7352 -63.1517 -203.991
sfi 2 3; -4; 2 3;sd 78
merge
nset talus = srf 32 0.1
sd 33 plan 85.54 -77.93 -236.48 0 0 1 ;
block 1 3 5;1 3 5;1 5;1 3 5;1 3 5;1 5;
insprt 1 2 3 2
insprt 1 4 3 2
dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
mbi ;; 1 2; x 73.9161
mbi ;; 1 2; y -79.1745
mbi ;; 1 2; z -230.097
mbi ;; 1 2; xyz 5.957270 -0.897980 -1.54643
mbi -4; 2 3; 1 2; x 2.50869
mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; y 2.49144
mbi -3; -4; 1 2; xyz 1.53600 0.850100e-01 -0.170147
mbi -4; -3; 1 2; xyz -0.191240 0.513235 0.750960
mbi -2; -4; 1 2; xyz -1.48640 -0.182601 0.248660e-01
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz 0.250027 0.573656 0.752233
mbi -4; -2; 1 2; xyz -0.780841 -0.823604 -1.00073
mbi -3; -1; 1 2; xyz 1.03485 -0.135752 -0.383554
mbi -2; -1; 1 2; xyz -1.23799 -0.281192 -0.159160
mbi -1; -2; 1 2; xyz -0.268402e-01 -0.772189 -1.07076
bb 2 1 1 2 2 2 200;
bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 200;
bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 201;
bb 2 3 1 2 4 2 201;
bb 3 3 1 3 4 2 202;
bb 3 3 1 4 3 2 202;
bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 203;
bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 203;
msej 2 2 2;
msej 2 2 2;
mbi -4; 2 3; 1 2; xyz 10.6435 1.48706 0.319267
mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; xyz -2.08921 -4.99288 -5.24021
mbi 2 3; -4; 1 2; xyz 0.275494 4.06705 4.44521
mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; xyz -6.44577 2.04134 3.04679
sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
sfi 2 3; -1; 1 2;sd 29
sfi 2 3; -4; 1 2;sd 29
sfi -4; 2 3; 1 2;sd 29
bb 2 1 2 3 4 2 160;
bb 3 2 2 4 3 2 161;
bb 1 2 2 2 3 2 162;
sd 33 plan 85.54 -77.93 -236.48 0 0 1 ;
y
unifm 1 2 1 2 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 4 2 & 3 2 1 4 3 2 10 0 1 ;
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 94.3788 -62.8756 -238.691
pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 81.1445 -74.6981 -235.884
pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 86.1608 -72.9321 -235.132
pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 87.0635 -78.0225 -237.587
pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 80.9685 -79.7795 -238.134
relax 2 1 1 3 4 1 & 3 2 1 4 3 1 & 1 2 1 2 3 1 10 0 1 ;
relax 2 4 1 3 4 2 & 4 2 1 4 3 2 & 1 2 1 1 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 1 2 10
0 1 ;
relax 2 4 1 3 4 2 & 4 2 1 4 3 2 & 1 2 1 1 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 1 2 10
0 1 ;
unifm 1 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 3 1 3 4 2 & 2 1 1 3 2 2 5 0 1 ;
sfi 2 3; 1 4; -1;sd 33
sfi 1 4; 2 3; -1;sd 33
relax 2 4 1 3 4 2 & 4 2 1 4 3 2 & 1 2 1 1 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 1 2 10
0 1 ;
unifm 1 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 3 1 3 4 2 & 2 1 1 3 2 2 5 0 1 ;
pb 3 1 1 3 1 1 xyz 98.4440 -84.7187 -236.261
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 89.2661 -61.9864 -234.353
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 90.7939 -62.7918 -234.102
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 93.1426 -67.4991 -231.458
pb 1 3 1 1 3 1 xyz 74.9646 -67.6334 -236.464
pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 74.2313 -88.0485 -236.476
pb 3 1 1 3 1 1 xyz 95.6814 -90.4775 -236.686
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 94.8986 -65.1760 -236.225
pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 88.1424 -79.3841 -235.518
pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 88.9807 -79.8077 -235.643
mbi 2 3; 2 3; -1; xyz 1.29820 -0.208731 0.826865e-01
bb 1 2 1 4 3 1 163;
bb 2 3 1 3 4 1 164;
bb 2 1 1 3 2 1 165;
mt 1 2 1 4 3 2 7
mt 2 1 1 3 4 2 7
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 96.4136 -65.4480 -237.114
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 97.2940 -66.1146 -236.723
pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 97.6531 -67.0557 -237.357
pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 72.9474 -88.4326 -236.384
pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 73.1051 -88.0057 -236.314
relax 1 2 1 1 3 2 & 2 4 1 3 4 2 & 4 2 1 4 3 2 & 2 1 1 3 1 2 10
0 1 ;
insprt 1 1 1 4
insprt 1 2 5 4
dei 1 2 0 5 6; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
insprt 1 3 1 4
insprt 1 4 5 4
dei 1 3 0 4 6; 1 2 0 5 6; 1 2;
mbi 3 4; -1; 1 2; y -13.5450
mbi 3 4; -6; 1 2; y 8.48157
mbi -6; 3 4; 1 2; x 15.6683
mbi -1; 3 4; 1 2; x -14.2368
mbi -3; -6; 1 2; xyz -8.41200 0.457541 -0.391134
mbi -1; -4; 1 2; xyz 0.832080 5.77270 -0.461763
mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xyz 5.15080 -9.03173 0.992295
mbi -3; -1; 1 2; xyz -6.53807 1.76708 -0.425414
mbi -4; -1; 1 2; xyz 9.54926 2.15775 0.213728
mbi -6; -3; 1 2; xyz -4.22665 -8.02635 0.513664
mbi -6; -4; 1 2; xyz -6.97690 7.60990 -0.946356
mbi -4; -6; 1 2; xyz 7.18555 2.62668 0.745449e-01
bb 5 4 1 6 4 2 331;
bb 4 5 1 4 6 2 331;
bb 3 5 1 3 6 2 332;
bb 1 4 1 2 4 2 332;
bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 333;
bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 333;
bb 4 1 1 4 2 2 334;
bb 5 3 1 6 3 2 334;
sfi 3 4; 1 6; -1;sd 33
sfi 1 6; 3 4; -1;sd 33
sfi 1 6; 3 4; -2;sd 32
sfi 3 4; 1 6; -2;sd 32
sfi 4 6; 3 4; -1;sd 33
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 56.257173 -57.064967 162.81464
 56.444571 -56.761048 162.78689
 56.637154 -56.460414 162.76128
 56.867189 -56.114575 162.73497
 57.06619 -55.825215 162.71611
 57.239748 -55.578628 162.70194
 57.415178 -55.333477 162.68904
 57.769666 -54.845879 162.66482
 58.125676 -54.359222 162.63895
 58.479232 -53.870304 162.6069
 58.682293 -53.583451 162.58362
 58.862347 -53.323975 162.5593
 59.473356 -52.426618 162.47189
 59.6267 -52.203165 162.45474
 59.781241 -51.980945 162.44167
 59.93746 -51.760398 162.43377
 60.095835 -51.541964 162.43213
 60.283536 -51.290956 162.43958
 60.403567 -51.135297 162.44999
 60.525182 -50.981137 162.4646
 60.737483 -50.719359 162.49827
 60.953455 -50.460904 162.54092
 61.172464 -50.205072 162.59039
 61.393874 -49.951164 162.64454
 61.841359 -49.446322 162.75825
 62.066163 -49.193989 162.81351
 62.290828 -48.940783 162.86484
 62.551315 -48.644026 162.91676
 62.794728 -48.361873 162.95562
 63.002002 -48.11713 162.98115
 63.207222 -47.87018 162.99976
 63.410058 -47.620981 163.01179
 63.61018 -47.369493 163.01754
 63.807259 -47.115672 163.01735
 64.000964 -46.859478 163.01153
 64.190965 -46.600868 163.00041
 64.376934 -46.3398 162.98432
 64.483179 -46.186714 162.97279
 64.587881 -46.032773 162.95975
 64.777488 -45.745728 162.93187
 64.936461 -45.497015 162.90439
 65.092223 -45.246579 162.87401
 65.245168 -44.994629 162.8411
 65.395688 -44.741379 162.80599
 65.544176 -44.487037 162.76906
 65.691027 -44.231817 162.73065
 65.981389 -43.719583 162.65083
 66.149332 -43.420907 162.60343 ;
 ;
 mbi 3 4; -6; -2; xyz 4.58165 17.0873 5.14131
 mbi -6; 3 4; -2; xyz 3.96509 0 190302 3.60824
 mbi 3 4; -1; -2; xyz 5.34213 -14.0506 4.23681
 mbi -1; 3 4; -2; xyz -1.70744 -3.97144 9.32747
 mbi -1; 3 4; -2; xyz -3.36506 6.60488 0.165933
 curs 1 3 2 1 4 2 33
 curs 3 6 2 4 6 2 33
 curs 3 1 2 4 1 2 33
 curs 6 3 2 6 4 2 33
 pb 1 4 2 1 4 2 xyz 61.0300 -50.1941 182.639
 sd 78 xyplan mz 183 ; ;
 y
 sfi ; -2;sd 78
 mt 1 3 1 6 4 2 16
 mt 3 1 1 4 6 2 16
 bb 1 3 1 2 4 1 300;
 nset 1 3 2 6 4 2 = proxend
 nset 3 4 2 4 6 2 = proxend
 nset 3 1 2 4 3 2 = proxend
 relax 1 3 2 6 4 2 & 3 1 2 4 3 2 & 3 4 2 4 6 2 15 0 1 ;
 pb 3 4 2 3 4 2 xyz 70.0986 -62.2703 183.000
 pb 3 3 2 3 3 2 xyz 69.2948 -81.3009 183.000
 pb 4 3 2 4 3 2 xyz 85.4269 -81.7280 183.000
 pb 4 4 2 4 4 2 xyz 83.3665 -62.0648 183.000
 unifm 1 3 1 6 4 2 & 3 1 1 4 3 2 & 3 4 1 4 6 2 10 0 1 ;
 pb 3 5 2 3 5 2 xyz 64.1612 -54.0184 183.000
 pb 4 2 2 4 2 2 xyz 88.9826 -90.4329 183.000
 pb 3 2 2 3 2 2 xyz 61.9880 -84.1224 183.000
 relax 1 3 2 6 4 2 & 3 1 2 4 3 2 & 3 4 2 4 6 2 10 0 1 ;
 merge
 block 1 3 5;1 3 5;1 5;1 3 5;1 5;
 insprt 1 1 1 2
 insprt 1 3 1 2

dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
 mbi -1; 2 3; 1 2; x -1.83967
 mbi 2 3; -1; 1 2; y -1.57785
 mbi -1; -3; 1 2; xy 0.117073 1.18602
 mbi -2; -4; 1 2; xy -1.09807 -0.407970
 mbi -3; -4; 1 2; xy 1.46803 -0.437471
 mbi -4; -3; 1 2; xy 0.202208 1.13052
 mbi -4; -2; 1 2; xy 0.202896 -0.816408
 mbi -3; -1; 1 2; xy 1.03525 0.262996
 mbi -2; -1; 1 2; xy -1.09472 0.488499
 mbi -1; -2; 1 2; xy 0.185477 -1.05451
 mbi ;; 1 2; z -266.345
 mbi ;; 1 2; x 85.8118
 mbi ;; 1 2; y -79.4479
 insprt 1 6 1 2
 sd 89 cy 8.55400e+01 -7.79300e+01 -1.92050e+02 0 0 1
 11.9;
 sd 91 sp 85.54 -77.93 -305 50 ;
 dei 2 3; 3 4; 2 3;
 dei 3 4; 2 3; 2 3;
 dei 2 3; 1 2; 2 3;
 dei 1 2; 2 3; 2 3;
 pb 2 4 2 2 4 2 xyz 84.8885 -75.3175 -262.473
 pb 4 3 2 4 3 2 xyz 89.8208 -75.3140 -262.227
 pb 1 2 2 1 2 2 xyz 85.7996 -78.9023 -262.328
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -3; z 1.26461
 pb 3 1 2 3 1 2 xyz 91.0147 -79.2643 -262.765
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -3; z 10.5400
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -3; z 10.6326
 mbi ;; -2; z 9.19598
 mbi ;; -1; z 1.34445
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -1; z 4.35640
 mbi -1; 2 3; -1; xyz -9.89750 -0.107699 -1.71140
 mseq i 2 2 2
 mseq j 2 2 2
 mseq k 2 2
 pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 82.5055 -81.3689 -261.528
 pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 84.1224 -74.9245 -262.167
 pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 89.1355 -74.7917 -260.080
 pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 88.3255 -80.1259 -259.315
 pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 84.0962 -81.6351 -260.291
 pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 83.9402 -81.5881 -262.702
 pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 87.3141 -81.0726 -261.769
 pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 74.2693 -80.0391 -263.091
 sd 94 xyplan mz -265 ; ;
 sfi 2 3; 1 4; -1;sd 94
 sfi 1 4; 2 3; -1;sd 94
 sfi 2 3; 2 3; -3;sd 91
 sfi 2 3; -1; 1 2;sd 91
 sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 91
 sfi 2 3; -4; 1 2;sd 91
 sfi -4; 2 3; 1 2;sd 91
 sfi 2 3; 1 4; -1;sd 94
 sfi 1 4; 2 3; -1;sd 94
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -2; z 1.45382
 bb 1 2 1 2 2 2 501;
 bb 2 1 1 2 2 2 501;
 bb 3 1 1 3 2 2 502;
 bb 3 2 1 4 2 2 502;
 bb 3 3 1 4 3 2 503;
 bb 3 3 1 3 4 2 503;
 bb 2 3 1 2 4 2 504;
 bb 1 3 1 2 3 2 504;
 pb 1 2 1 1 2 1 xyz 86.1086 -102.777 -265.918
 pb 2 4 1 2 4 1 xyz 74.2116 -52.1139 -264.588
 pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 107.023 -59.3780 -265.264
 pb 3 1 1 3 1 1 xyz 115.444 -76.9150 -265.542
 bb 2 2 2 3 2 3 510;
 bb 2 1 2 3 2 2 511;
 bb 2 2 2 3 3 3 512;

bb 1 2 2 2 3 2 512;
 bb 2 3 2 3 3 3 513;
 bb 2 3 2 3 4 2 513;
 bb 3 2 2 3 3 3 514;
 bb 3 2 2 4 3 2 514;
 pb 1 2 2 1 2 2 xyz 79.8695 -89.6584 -260.394
 pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 78.3644 -76.2268 -255.038
 pb 3 1 2 3 1 2 xyz 94.9791 -83.9245 -252.083
 pb 3 1 2 3 1 2 xyz 93.9065 -86.6346 -253.669
 pb 3 1 1 3 1 1 xyz 115.269 -82.5365 -260.715
 pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 82.9679 -84.3144 -262.962
 pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 81.2854 -71.4932 -260.540
 pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 91.6559 -70.2977 -266.301
 pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 92.8703 -84.0704 -268.502
 pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 79.2030 -104.411 -259.650
 pb 3 1 1 3 1 1 xyz 111.125 -94.2568 -263.480
 pb 1 3 1 1 3 1 xyz 67.9017 -58.0219 -261.930
 pb 4 3 1 4 3 1 xyz 104.506 -53.5723 -261.823
 pb 2 1 1 2 1 1 xyz 72.8683 -101.456 -260.345
 pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 78.2736 -71.5642 -254.142
 pb 4 3 2 4 3 2 xyz 89.7710 -71.6792 -252.904
 pb 4 3 2 4 3 2 xyz 90.8561 -70.9263 -253.650
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -2; xyz -0.755755 -0.183527e-01 1.50720
 sfi -1; 2 3; -1;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; -4; -1;sd 89
 sfi -4; 2 3; -1;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; -1; -1;sd 89
 pb 2 1 2 2 1 2 xyz 85.5886 -85.1915 -256.425
 pb 1 3 2 1 3 2 xyz 79.8891 -73.0636 -253.227
 pb 4 3 2 4 3 2 xyz 88.2522 -74.5751 -254.632
 pb 3 1 2 3 1 2 xyz 89.3081 -83.5980 -254.863
 decmd 149
 decmd 150
 decmd 151
 decmd 152
 pb 3 2 1 3 2 1 xyz 92.3093 -82.4453 -265.099
 pb 2 2 1 2 2 1 xyz 83.4950 -82.2961 -263.834
 pb 2 3 1 2 3 1 xyz 82.2486 -72.7835 -264.441
 pb 3 3 1 3 3 1 xyz 91.5217 -71.4903 -265.511
 insprt 1 5 1 3
 dei 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2 0 3 4; 1 2;
 mbi ;; -1; z -8.54638
 sfi -1; 2 3; 1 2;sd 89
 decmd 105
 decmd 106
 sfi -1; 2 3; -2;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; -4; -2;sd 89
 sfi -4; 2 3; -2;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; -1; -2;sd 89
 mbi 2 3; -1; -2; z -1.82618
 sfi 2 3; -1; -1;sd 89
 sfi -4; 2 3; -1;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; -4; -1;sd 89
 sfi -1; 2 3; -1;sd 89
 sfi 2 3; 1 4; -1;sd 94
 sfi 1 4; 2 3; -1;sd 94
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -2; z 3.08365
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -2; z 0.733864
 mbi 2 3; 2 3; -3; z 3.12931
 unifm 2 1 1 3 4 3 & 3 2 1 4 3 3 & 1 2 1 2 3 3 & 2 2 3 3 3 4 10
 0 1 ;
 unifm 2 2 3 3 3 4 & 1 2 2 4 3 3 & 2 1 2 3 2 3 & 2 3 2 3 4 3 10
 0 1 ;
 relax 1 2 1 4 3 1 & 2 1 1 3 2 1 & 2 3 1 3 4 1 10 0 1 ;
 unifm 2 1 2 3 4 2 & 1 2 2 2 3 2 & 3 2 2 4 3 2 10 0 1 ;
 relax 2 1 3 3 4 3 & 3 2 3 4 3 3 & 1 2 3 2 3 3 10 0 1 ;
 relax 2 1 2 3 4 2 & 1 2 2 2 3 2 & 3 2 2 4 3 2 10 0 1 ;
 relax 2 4 2 3 4 3 & 1 2 2 1 3 3 & 2 1 2 3 1 3 & 4 2 2 4 3 3 &
 2 2 4 3 3 4 10 0 1 ;
 pb 2 2 4 2 2 4 xyz 83.6458 -83.1066 -254.255

pb 4 2 3 4 2 3 xyz 88.3337 -82.0146 -254.812
mbi 2 3; 2 3; -3; z -1.25741
mate 6

nset 1 1 1 4 4 1 = projectile
merge
lsdyna keyword

APPENDIX L – LS-DYNA® Input Deck

This appendix includes the program file for the entire LS-DYNA® model that was detailed in Chapter 6. It calls a separate file which includes the node and element data that were previously output as the last step of the TrueGrid® file (from Appendix K).

```
$ This program takes a tibia bone mesh as output from TrueGrid, applies material properties, and creates a simulation of the
$ experimental impact using projectile mass and velocity as inputs, and modeling the bracket and foam. The load applied to the tibia
$ and strain at specific sets corresponding to strain gauge locations are used for validation purposes.
$ This program was created October 1, 2009 by Cheryl E. Quenneville
$ UNITS: millimeter, millisecond, kilogram, kiloNewton
$
*KEYWORD
$ deck is written in keyword format
$
$
*TITLE
Tibia Smashing Test
$
$
*INCLUDE
repo.k
$ this includes node and element data for the bone, talus, foam, projectile, distal and $proximal brackets as well as sets for the
$ proximal cut surface of the bone, the proximal $surface of the distal bracket, and the back surface of the projectile (to limit to z travel
$ only)
$
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ CONTROL CARDS $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
*CONTROL_TERMINATION
$ termination time (in milliseconds)
3.5
$
*CONTROL_TIMESTEP
$# dtinit tssfac isdo tslimt dt2ms lctm erode ms1st
0.196e-4 0.700000
$# dt2msf dt2mslc imslc
0.000 0 0
$
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ DATABASE CARDS $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
*DATABASE_BINARY_INTFOR
0.01
$ gives contact interface data
$
*DATABASE_EXTENT_BINARY
,,,1,,,
,,,1,,
$
*DATABASE_BINARY_D3PLOT
0.01
$ time interval between outputs. Writes output files in binary format for complete output states, plotting info to plot data over the 3D
$ geometry of the model.
```



```

$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Cancellous section
1,3
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Cortical section
2,3
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Marrow section
3,1
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Talus section
4,1
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Foam section
5,2
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Projectile section
6,1
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Distal section
7,1
$
*SECTION_SOLID
$Proximal section
16,1
$
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ SET CARDS $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
$Sets for strain gauges.
$
*SET_SOLID_TITLE
Gauge 1
11
3317,3325
$
*SET_SOLID_TITLE
Gauge 2
12
3357,3358,5415,5417
$
*SET_SOLID_TITLE
Gauge 3
13
5427,5431
$
*SET_SOLID_TITLE
Gauge 4
14
10694,10695
$
*SET_NODE
4,
16890,16891,16892,16893,16894,16910,16911,16912
16913,16914,16930,16931,16932,16933,16934,16950
16951,16952,16953,16954,16970,16971,16972,16973
16974
$
*SET_NODE_LIST
$# sid da1 da2 da3 da4
5
$# nid1 nid2 nid3 nid4 nid5 nid6 nid7 nid8
17957 17978 17999 18020 18041 18062 18083 18461

```


18458	18455	18452	18449	18446	17180	17156	17132
18440	18437	18434	18431	18428	17183	17159	17135
18422	18419	18416	18413	18410	17186	17162	17138
18404	18401	18398	18395	18392	17189	17165	17141
18386	18383	18380	18377	18374	17192	17168	17144
18368	18365	18362	18359	18356	17195	17171	17147
18350	18347	18344	18341	18338	17198	17174	17150
18443	18080	18059	18038	18017	17996	17975	17954
18425	18077	18056	18035	18014	17993	17972	17951
18407	18074	18053	18032	18011	17990	17969	17948
18389	18071	18050	18029	18008	17987	17966	17945
18371	18068	18047	18026	18005	17984	17963	17942
18353	18065	18044	18023	18002	17981	17960	17939
17201	17624	17627	17630	17633	17636	17639	17642
17621	17618	17615	17612	17609	17606	17603	17177
17600	17597	17594	17591	17588	17585	17582	17153
17579	17576	17573	17570	17567	17564	17561	17129
17558	17555	17552	17549	17546	17543	17540	17105
17537	17534	17531	17528	17525	17522	17519	17081
17516	17513	17510	17507	17504	17501	17498	17057
16697	16694	16691	16688	16685	16682	16679	16676
17126	17102	17078	17054	17123	17099	17075	17051
17120	17096	17072	17048	17117	17093	17069	17045
17114	17090	17066	17042	17111	17087	17063	17039
17108	17084	17060	17036	16508	16511	16514	16517
16652	16655	16658	16661	16664	16667	16670	16673
16628	16631	16634	16637	16640	16643	16646	16649
16604	16607	16610	16613	16616	16619	16622	16625
16601	16598	16595	16592	16589	16586	16583	16580
16556	16532	16559	16535	16562	16538	16565	16541
16577	16553	16529	16574	16550	16526	16571	16568
16547	16544	16523	16520				

§

*SET_NODE_LIST

\$ set for friction load

6

18533, 20997, 18526, 20990, 18463, 18470, 19534, 19527

\$

\$
MATERIAL CARDS

\$

33

*MAT PIECEWISE LINEAR PLASTICITY

\$ Cancellous bone: mid, ro, E, PR, sigy, etan

1, 0.000001, 0.5, 0.3, 0.01, 0.025

360.74.605

§

*MAT PIECEWISE LINEAR PLASTICITY

\$ Cortical bone: mid, ro, E, PR, sigy, etan

2, 0.00000185, 20, 0.3, 0.129, 1

360.7.4.605

§

*MAT ELASTIC

\$ Marrow

 $3, 0.000001, 0.02, 0.499, \dots$

6

*MAT ELASTIC

\$ Polyethylene talus

4,0.000001,170,0.35,,

§

*MAT ELASTIC

\$ Polyurethane foam (52 kg/m³, 2.5 MPa E)

5,0.0004,2.5,0.2,,

§

*MAT RIGID

\$ measure projectile volume as 4017.4 mm³

```

$ Projectile density (rho=m/vol = 0.00169 for 6.8kg, 0.000971 for 3.9kg)
6,0.00169,210,0.3,,,,
1,4,7

$
*MAT_RIGID
$ measure distal bracket volume as 44995.5 mm3
$ Distal bracket with density set based on volume (rho = 4.314kg/44995.5mm3)
7,0.0000959,210,0.3,,,,
1,4,7

$
*MAT_RIGID
$ measure proximal bracket volume as 37964 mm3
$ Proximal bracket with density set based on volume (rho = 5.602kg/37964.3mm3)
16,0.0001476,210,0.3,,,,
1,4,7

$
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ CONSTRAINT CARDS $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
$
*INITIAL_VELOCITY_RIGID_BODY
$ Initial velocity of 8.58 m/s for non-fx, 11.37 m/s for fx
6,0,0,11.37,0,0,0
$
*LOAD_NODE_SET
$ corners of distal bracket
6,3,1,1
$
*DEFINE_CURVE
1
0,-2
10000,-2
$
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$ CONTACT CARDS $$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE
5,6,3,3,,,1,1
0.2,0.2,
0.8,0.8
1
$
*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE
2,4,3,3,,,1,1
0.02,0.02,

$
*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE
1,4,3,3,,,1,1
0.02,0.02,

$
*CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE
6,7,3,3,,,
0.2,0.2,

$
*CONTACT_INTERIOR
1
$
*SET_PART
1
5
$
$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$
$
*END

```

APPENDIX M – Letters of Permission

This appendix includes letters of permission for Figures 1.7, 1.8, and G.1.

Figure 1.7:

Subject: copyright permission ISSUE=201416 PROJ=12
From: "NHTSAHotline@telesishq.com" <NHTSAHotline@Telesishq.com>
Date: Thursday, November 5, 2009 2:11 am

Project: NHTSA Hotline Center
Case: copyright permission
Case Number:201416

Date: 11/02/2009 **Time:** 10:15:02
Creation Date:10/31/2009 **Creation Time:**17:32:10

Description:

Entered on 11/02/2009 at 10:15:02 EST (GMT-0500) by Kiianah Johnson:
Thank you for contacting the U.S. Department of Transportation's Vehicle Safety Hotline Information Center.

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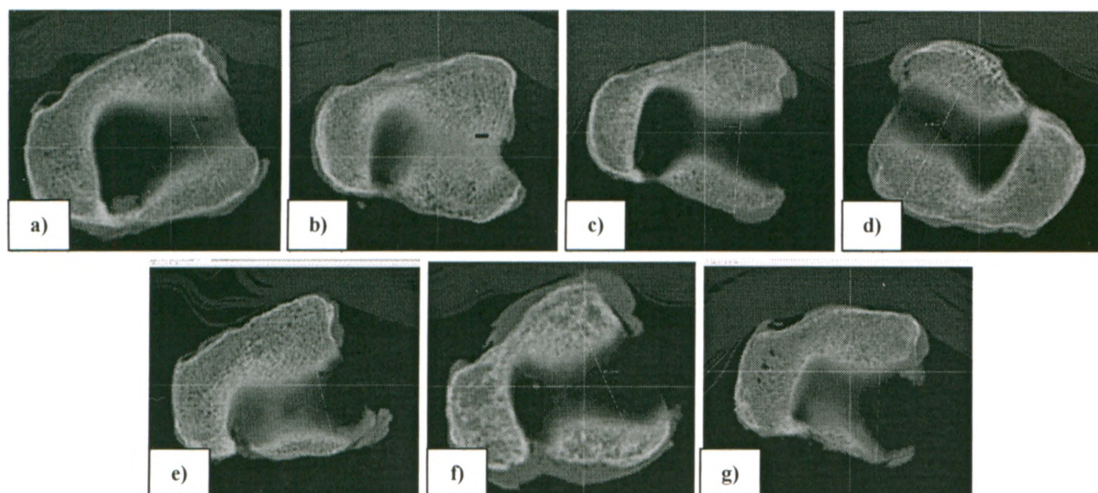
We hope that you find this information helpful. However, if you need additional information on our services please feel free to contact us at 1-888-327-4236.

Thank you,

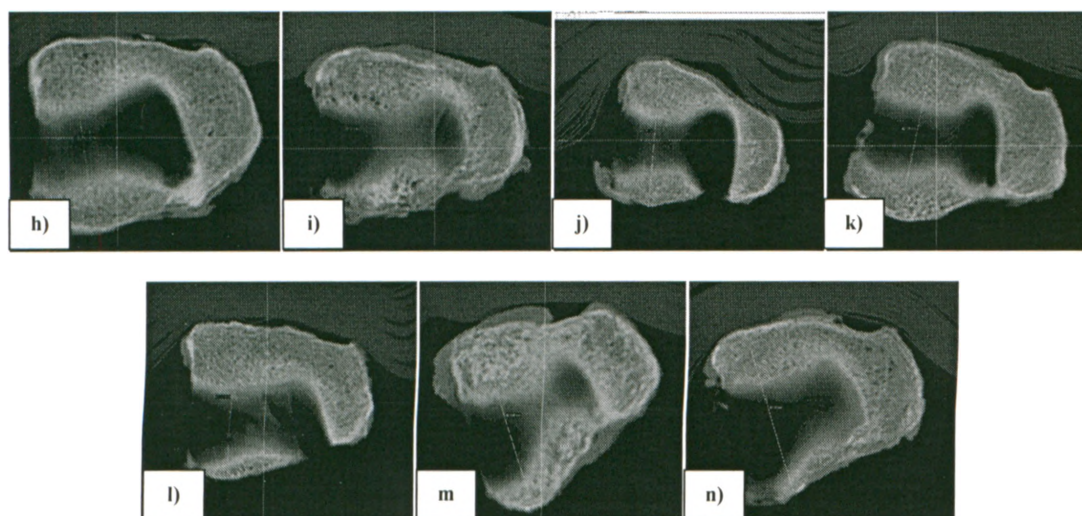
NHTSA.dot.gov Response Team

Disclaimer: "This response is for information purposes only and does not constitute an official communication of the U.S. Department of Transportation. For an official response, please write U.S. Department of Transportation, National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 1200 New Jersey Ave, SE, West Building, Washington, DC 20590.

APPENDIX N – Specimen Measurements



a) 06-06037R	b) 08-07033R	c) 08-07024R	d) 08-07085R	e) 08-08009R	f) 06-08044R	g) 06-10081R
40.16 mm	41.78 mm	41.88 mm	42.05 mm	43.06 mm	41.27 mm	41.63 mm



h) 06-06037L	i) 08-07033L	j) 08-07024L	k) 08-07085L	l) 08-08009L	m) 06-08044L	n) 06-10081L
41.40 mm	39.34 mm	41.26 mm	42.09 mm	41.33 mm	40.64 mm	41.98 mm