

Technical Note

Title: Finite element analysis predicts experimental failure patterns in vertebral bodies loaded via intervertebral discs up to large deformation

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1 **Finite element analysis predicts experimental failure patterns in vertebral** 2 **bodies loaded via intervertebral discs up to large deformation**

3 Vertebral compression fractures are becoming increasingly common. Patient-specific nonlinear
4 finite element (FE) models have shown promise in predicting yield strength and damage pattern but
5 have not been experimentally validated for clinically relevant vertebral fractures, which involve
6 loading through intervertebral discs with varying degrees of degeneration up to large compressive
7 strains. Therefore, stepwise axial compression was applied *in vitro* on segments and performed *in*
8 *silico* on their FE equivalents using a nonlocal damage-plastic model including densification at
9 large compression for bone and a time-independent hyperelastic model for the disc. The ability of
10 the nonlinear FE models to predict the failure pattern in large compression was evaluated for three
11 boundary conditions: healthy and degenerated intervertebral discs and embedded endplates. Bone
12 compaction and fracture patterns were predicted using the local volume change as an indicator and
13 the best correspondence was obtained for the healthy intervertebral discs. These preliminary results
14 show that nonlinear finite element models enable prediction of bone localization and compaction.
15 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to predict the collapse of osteoporotic vertebral
16 bodies up to large compression using realistic loading via the intervertebral discs.

17 Keywords: finite element analysis, spine segment, large deformations, vertebral fracture, boundary
18 conditions, disc degeneration

19 **1. Introduction**

20 Vertebral compression fractures are associated with increased risk of subsequent fractures,
21 pain, decreased quality of life, and mortality [1,2] and the risk of such fractures increases
22 with age [3]. Dual energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA) is currently used to estimate fracture
23 risk clinically; however, it cannot accurately identify individuals who will suffer a fracture

24 [4] and does not account for three-dimensional geometry or local changes in bone density
25 and orientation. Patient-specific nonlinear finite element models based on quantitative
26 computed tomography (QCT) are able to predict vertebral strength more accurately than
27 DXA [5] and models based on micro-computed tomography are being increasingly used in
28 studies of vertebral strength and failure [6-10].

29 Attempts have been made to predict failure locations resulting from axial
30 compression through patterns of strain [11,12], damage [13,14], and failed tissue [15]. Most
31 of these finite element models, however, have been validated against experiments where the
32 vertebral endplates were either embedded in a stiff material [16], removed [17], or fixed to
33 rubber discs [18]. These methods eliminate the need to model the complex material
34 behaviour of the intervertebral disc as well as ambiguity in material properties due to
35 unknown levels of disc degeneration. However, these boundary conditions have a
36 significant effect on the prediction of vertebral strength and failure patterns [19-22].
37 Additionally, failure of vertebrae loaded via healthy intervertebral discs is often initiated in
38 the endplates [23,24] and the constraint imposed by the unrealistically stiff experimental
39 boundary conditions, such as polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) embedding, prevents
40 deformation of the endplates, and thus, simulation of this common type of vertebral failure.
41 Moreover, models that have simulated loading via the intervertebral disc have used simple
42 linear elastic material models for the disc without direct experimental validation [25-27].

43 The majority of finite element models used to study vertebral strength and failure
44 have been implemented only for small strains [17,18,25]. However, *in vivo*, vertebral
45 fractures often involve significant loss of height [28,29]. While simulation up to, or just
46 beyond, initial yield provides valuable information about initial failure location, it offers

47 little insight into subsequent areas of failure or the evolution of damage that results in bone
48 compaction at higher compressive strains. Such information may be beneficial in
49 understanding mechanisms of fracture and vertebral body collapse. In a recent study [30], a
50 combined experimental and computational analysis of the collapse of single vertebral
51 bodies embedded in PMMA under large deformation was reported. Accordingly, the aim of
52 this study is to extend the previous results to the collapse of vertebral bodies loaded via the
53 intervertebral discs.

54 Specimen-specific nonlinear finite element models were developed for two spine
55 segments tested experimentally in stepwise loading beyond 30% vertebral compression.
56 The ability of the two models to predict the experimental failure pattern was evaluated
57 using both healthy and degenerated disc conditions, as well as embedding of the vertebral
58 endplates.

59 **2. Material and Methods**

60 *2.1 Experiment*

61 *2.1.1 Sample Preparation*

62 Two spine segments were obtained from a single human cadaver spine donated to the
63 Centre of Anatomy and Cell Biology of the Medical University of Vienna with the signed
64 informed consent requested by the local ethics commission. Each segment consisted of one
65 full vertebral body between two intervertebral discs and two half-vertebral bodies
66 (Specimen 1: T9-T11, Specimen 2: T11-L1). The cadaver spine was stored at -20°C prior to
67 sample dissection and hydration was maintained using 0.9% saline solution during
68 preparation. Spine segments were obtained by cutting vertebral bodies transversely,

69 cleaning surrounding soft tissue, and isolating from their posterior elements. For each
70 segment, the inferior and superior half-vertebral bodies were embedded in PMMA such that
71 approximately 5 mm of bone remained out of the PMMA block in the half-vertebrae.

72 *2.1.2 Mechanical Testing*

73 The spine segments were loaded in a stepwise manner with a device used in a
74 previous study [30] designed to apply a compressive load inside a high-resolution
75 peripheral computed tomography (HR-pQCT) machine. The PMMA surfaces of the
76 segment were glued to the loading platens of the device and the radiolucent chamber was
77 filled with 0.9% saline solution. A fine-thread screw connected to a thrust bearing was used
78 to manually control axial displacement without applying any torque. During the mechanical
79 testing, radial pin holes allowed approximate tracking of applied displacement and a load
80 cell contained in the device captured the resulting force. The registered HR-pQCT images
81 enabled the exact measurement of the applied axial displacements corresponding to the
82 varying number of voxels in the cranio-caudal direction at each loading step. Due to the
83 stepwise nature of the experiments and the sharp drop of force after failure, it was not
84 possible to accurately capture the force-displacement curves. Instead, the focus was
85 prediction of failure zones as this is of greater importance in large strain analysis of bone
86 compaction.

87 To image the initial configuration of the segments, a preload was applied to fix the
88 specimen in place and minimize time spent in the toe region and the device was imaged
89 using a HR-pQCT system (XtremeCT, Scanco Medical AG, Brüttisellen, Switzerland) at a
90 resolution of 82 μ m. For all subsequent steps, displacement was applied using the loading
91 screw, the specimen was allowed to relax for 25 minutes, and then the device was imaged,

92 resulting in a total relaxation time of 50 minutes. This process was repeated until
93 approximately 30% deformation was achieved in the central vertebral body, with applied
94 displacement being increased following loading step 3 and 6 while relaxation time was kept
95 constant. The displacement applied to the spine segments at each loading step as measured
96 on the HR-pQCT images is given in Table 1. The increasing rate of applied compression
97 allowed completion of each stepwise loading experiment within 12 hours.

98 ***2.2 Finite Element Model***

99 *2.2.1 Mesh Generation*

100 HR-pQCT images obtained of the initial configuration were used to create finite element
101 meshes consisting of quadratic tetrahedral elements for the vertebral bodies of the spine
102 segments following an automated meshing procedure [31,32] in Medtool (www.dr-pahr.at).
103 An analysis of mesh sensitivity using this meshing procedure and material model was
104 performed previously [14,33]. To create meshes for the intervertebral discs, the space
105 between vertebral bodies was manually segmented from the HR-pQCT images in ITK-
106 SNAP [34] and converted into an analytic surface in SolidWorks (Dassault Systèmes,
107 Vélizy-Villacoublay, France). This surface was then meshed with linear hexahedral
108 elements in CUBIT (Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, New Mexico) and
109 elements were sets created for the nucleus pulposus and annulus fibrosus such that the
110 nucleus represented approximately 43% of the total intervertebral disc volume [19,35].
111 Finally, to establish an interface between the discs and the vertebral endplates, the
112 corresponding surfaces were tied. The resulting meshes of the spine segments (Figure 1A)
113 comprised 29630 and 44808 elements for Specimens 1 and 2, respectively.

114 For the embedded boundary condition case, two PMMA blocks were extruded from
115 the endplates of the centre vertebral body mesh using quadratic tetrahedral elements, as
116 shown in Figure 1B. Small-sliding contact was then implemented between PMMA and
117 bone surfaces not in contact in the initial configuration with a negligible friction coefficient
118 ($\mu = 0.01$) only to prevent penetration of the PMMA by cortical elements at large
119 deformations.

120 2.2.2 Material Models

121 To account for the heterogeneity and anisotropy of bone, the bone volume over total
122 volume (BV/TV) and fabric tensor were extracted from the HR-pQCT images of the initial
123 configuration and mapped to the corresponding integration points of each element [32]. A
124 nonlocal implicit gradient-enhanced damage-plastic model implemented to model the
125 constitutive behaviour of bone for the spine segments was then used to interpret the
126 elements' BV/TV and trabecular anisotropy as elastic and strength properties. The material
127 constants for strength and elasticity were determined from uni- and multi-axial tests on
128 human trabecular samples [36]. Details regarding the implementation of this model are
129 available elsewhere [30,33].

130 For the “healthy” intervertebral discs, the annulus fibrosus was modelled as a
131 reduced polynomial hyper-elastic material with $C_{10} = 0.025$ MPa, $C_{20} = 0.625$ MPa, and D_1
132 $= 1.224$ MPa⁻¹ and the nucleus pulposus as a Neo-Hookean hyper-elastic material with C_{10}
133 $= 0.04$ MPa and $D_1 = 0.096$ MPa⁻¹. These coefficients were obtained by scaling reported
134 values [37] by 0.25 to account for the relaxation between loading steps and the substantially
135 lower strain rate in our experiments such that simulated and experimental ultimate loads
136 agreed for both specimens. A trial simulation found little effect of annulus fibres in axial

137 compression; therefore, for simplicity, annular fibres were not accounted for. Since the
138 degenerative process generally begins with the nucleus losing water content and becoming
139 more fibrous, moderate “degeneration” of the disc was approximated by using the material
140 model of the annulus for the nucleus as well [25,38]. Finally, PMMA was modelled as a
141 linear elastic material with $E = 3000 \text{ MPa}$ and $\nu = 0.3$ [39].

142 2.2.3 Simulation

143 All simulations were performed in Abaqus 6.11 (Dassault Systèmes, Vélizy-Villacoublay,
144 France). For the spine segments, peripheral nodes on the lower half of the inferior half-
145 vertebra were fixed and displacement was applied in the axial direction to nodes on the
146 upper half of the superior half-vertebra (Figure 1). The applied displacement corresponded
147 to the total experimental displacement applied to the spine segment measured in the HR-
148 pQCT images. For the embedded endplates model, displacement equivalent to the average
149 change in height of the centre vertebral body in each experiment was applied to the superior
150 nodes of the superior PMMA block while the inferior block was constrained.

151 The total resultant force on the specimen was calculated and the trace of the finite
152 strain tensor, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$, was computed for each element. The Eulerian strain \mathbf{E} (not to be
153 confused with the Green-Lagrangian strain measure) was defined as the approximation of
154 the integral of the rate of deformation tensor ($\int \mathbf{D} dt$) [33]. It can be demonstrated that its
155 trace is equivalent to the logarithm of the change of volume ($\ln(\det(\mathbf{F}))$) [30]. Therefore,
156 negative values of $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$ represent compression of material and indicate bone compaction
157 while positive values represent expansion of material as a result of applied tension, which
158 may lead to fracture. Therefore, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$ was compared with bone compaction in the
159 experiments, observable in the HR-pQCT images.

160 3. Results

161 In the mechanical testing, after early collapse of the superior endplate (Magerl
162 classification A1.1) [40], a superior wedge fracture (A1.2.1) occurred in Specimen 1
163 (Figure 2) and an average deformation of approximately 30% was achieved after 10 loading
164 steps. The superior endplate of the centre vertebra was damaged by a shallow crack running
165 in the coronal plane across the vertebra. In Specimen 2, an average deformation of
166 approximately 35% was achieved after 11 loading steps. The posterior wall and both
167 endplates were fractured and the right-posterior section was nearly separated from the main
168 vertebral body (Figure 3, Figure 4). A comparison between experimental and simulated
169 ultimate loads is provided in Table 2.

170 On average, the simulations required 14 hours for the full spine segments and 4
171 hours for the embedded vertebral body on four 3 GHz processors of a standard PC with 24
172 GB RAM.

173 A comparison of the measure of local volume change, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$, between simulated
174 boundary conditions and with the experimental images is shown in Figures 2 and 3 for
175 selected loading steps. Bone compaction begins later in the degenerated disc case than the
176 other two cases and the degenerated intervertebral discs are compressed more than the
177 healthy ones. Additionally, the endplates undergo greater deformation in the models that
178 include the discs than the embedded vertebral body.

179 The correspondence between positive changes of volume ($\text{tr}(\mathbf{E}) > 0$) and fracture
180 locations is shown in Figure 4. The continuum model used does not allow for fracturing of
181 material; however, elements that experienced tension and have increased in volume,
182 provide an indication of fracture locations as tension causes brittle fracture in bone [14].

183 **4. Discussion**

184 Nonlinear finite element models offer an attractive option for patient-specific prediction of
185 vertebral failure patterns. Currently, experimentally validated models do not include
186 physiologic boundary conditions for vertebral bodies and are rarely used in large
187 compression. Therefore, the aim of this study was to demonstrate the ability of a nonlinear
188 finite element model of a spine segment to predict regions of bone compaction and failure
189 and examine the effect of boundary conditions using stepwise loading experiments.

190 There was good agreement between the failure pattern predicted by the model and
191 the visible bone compaction in the HR-pQCT images. In Specimen 1, the model correctly
192 predicted localization beneath the superior endplate and the buckling in the superior
193 anterior cortex. The shear band that occurred in Specimen 2 was also predicted, although
194 with a slight posterior shift, as well as the two localized areas in the final loading step.
195 While the model was successful in general, there were some discrepancies, including the
196 inability to predict the small buckling in the inferior anterior cortex in Specimen 1 and the
197 slight posterior shift of the localized band in Specimen 2. These can be partly attributed to
198 the imprecision in the meshing procedure, especially for the outer rim of the endplates,
199 since the accuracy of the outer geometry is limited by the element size. Furthermore, the
200 cortex was modelled as slightly thicker than in reality by including a small amount of
201 trabecular bone to attenuate the bone volume fraction in the cortex, thus enabling the use of
202 the same material model for trabecular and cortical bone.

203 While the bone compaction predicted using different boundary conditions generally
204 occurs in the same location, some differences were observed. The effect of the nucleus in
205 the load transfer to the vertebra in the healthy disc model is highlighted by the inward

206 bulging of the endplates occurring in both specimens, especially the early endplate
207 disruption in Specimen 1. This is not seen in the degenerated case, which may be an
208 indication of a shift in load bearing from the nucleus to the annulus, as has been observed
209 previously with degeneration [41,42]. This study also agreed with results obtained *in silico*
210 indicating that failure patterns resulting from loading via the intervertebral disc and PMMA
211 are not equivalent [19,42] under large compression. In the embedded case, the rigid
212 constraint imposed by the PMMA prevents deformation of the endplates as well as shearing
213 of material in the transverse plane. Because of this, types of fractures observed *in vivo*, such
214 as biconcave or wedge fractures [29], seen to some extent in these experiments, cannot be
215 replicated with rigid boundary conditions. The results for the degenerated discs lie
216 somewhere between those of the healthy disc and PMMA cases, suggesting that while
217 embedded models do not accurately replicate physiologic loading, they more closely
218 represent the boundary conditions imposed by a degenerated disc than a healthy one.

219 Although the bone model presented here is unable to simulate fractures, it was
220 capable of predicting fracture locations by highlighting zones subjected to volumetric
221 tensile strain. A large fracture of material did not occur in Specimen 1; however, in
222 Specimen 2, fracture locations were correctly represented by positive changes in volume.
223 While fracture locations are best represented by the healthy disc model, the degenerated
224 disc model was able to capture the majority of fractures as well. It is noteworthy that the
225 embedded endplates model did not predict any of the fractures as stretching of the endplates
226 is prevented by the PMMA.

227 An important limitation of this study is the model used for the disc. Although the
228 hyper-elastic material model that was implemented is more representative of true

229 intervertebral disc behaviour than the linear elastic models that have been used previously
230 [25,27], it is still fairly simplistic and does not capture the complex, time-dependent,
231 anisotropic, and heterogeneous nature of the disc, nor the ability of the nucleus to flow
232 outside of the annulus or into the endplates. While sophisticated poro-elastic models do
233 exist, these have so far only been used to investigate behaviour of the disc itself and not its
234 impact on load transfer [43-46]. Identification of the disc's material properties and
235 morphology requires accurate MRI and experimental data [22]. Although the radial
236 expansion of the nucleus under compression generates hoop stresses in the annular fibres
237 [47], the compressive load is essentially carried by the matrix [48]. Our trials indeed
238 revealed a lack of impact of the fibres, which were not included in the simulations. Also, it
239 can be seen in Figures 2 and 3 that the discs deform more in the experiments than in the
240 simulations. Such large deformations are difficult to attain in simulations without
241 encountering excessive element distortion and consequent numerical instabilities. The
242 results obtained here could potentially be further improved through implementation of a
243 more complex and better representative intervertebral disc model. Additionally, the ability
244 to quantify disc degeneration and local material properties through methods such as
245 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) could provide valuable information to better replicate
246 the true boundary conditions [49].

247 Another limitation was the inclusion of only two samples. This was a result of the
248 large amount of time and manual work required to complete the stepwise loading
249 experiments and generate the FE meshes. Improved meshing algorithms should enable
250 larger studies in the future. The small sample size, however, did allow a detailed qualitative

251 analysis of trabecular bone collapse, endplate deflection, cortex buckling, and fracture zone
252 detection at large compressive strains.

253 Despite these limitations, the potential for a nonlocal damage-plastic model for bone
254 used for a spine segment including intervertebral discs to accurately predict failure patterns
255 in large compression has been demonstrated in a detailed analysis of two samples tested
256 experimentally in stepwise loading. The model was able to correctly predict areas of bone
257 compaction and fracture using the local volume change as an indicator. Furthermore, it was
258 confirmed that models with endplate embedding in PMMA are not able to replicate
259 fractures that occur *in vivo* as a result of loading through the intervertebral disc.

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450 **Figure Captions**

451 *Figure 1: Finite Element Meshes*: Finite element meshes used for Specimen 2. A) Mesh for
452 the whole spine segment, including intervertebral discs. B) Mesh with PMMA embedding
453 of centre vertebra endplates. Displacements and constraints were applied as shown.

454 *Figure 2: Specimen 1 Experimental and FE Results*: Midplane images of selected steps
455 from experimental and finite element analysis for Specimen 1. Areas where bone is
456 compacting in the HR-pQCT images are indicated with arrows and correspond to **negative**
457 values of the trace of the strain tensor, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$, shown in **red**.

458 *Figure 3: Specimen 2 Experimental and FE Results*: Midplane images of selected steps
459 from experimental and finite element analysis for Specimen 2. Areas where bone is
460 compacting in the HR-pQCT images are indicated with arrows and correspond to **negative**
461 values of the trace of the strain tensor, $\text{tr}(\mathbf{E})$, shown in **red**. The fracture in the centre
462 vertebra occurred following loading step 8 and is displayed in detail in Figure 4.

463 *Figure 4: Fracture Prediction*: A and C show two three dimensional views of the segmented
464 experimental image showing the fracture that occurred in Specimen 2. B and D show the
465 corresponding simulation results for the healthy disc model with **positive** values of the
466 trace of the strain tensor displayed in **red**.

467

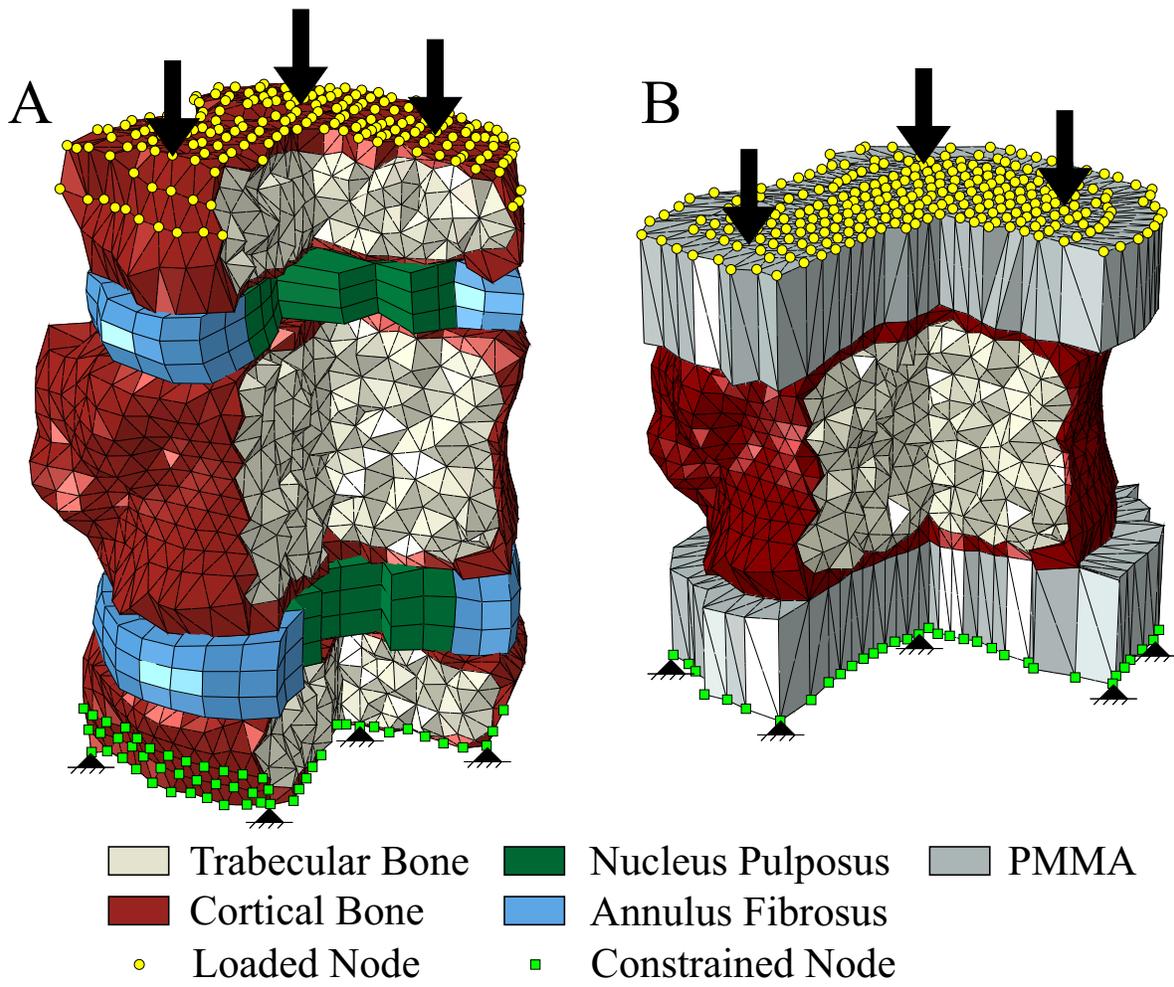
468 **Table Captions**

469 *Table 1: Applied Displacement*: The displacement applied by the loading screw to the spine
470 segments, measured from the HR-pQCT images. The applied displacement was increased
471 after load steps 3 and 6.

472

473 *Table 2: Ultimate Load*: The ultimate loads for the specimens in the experiments and three
474 simulations.

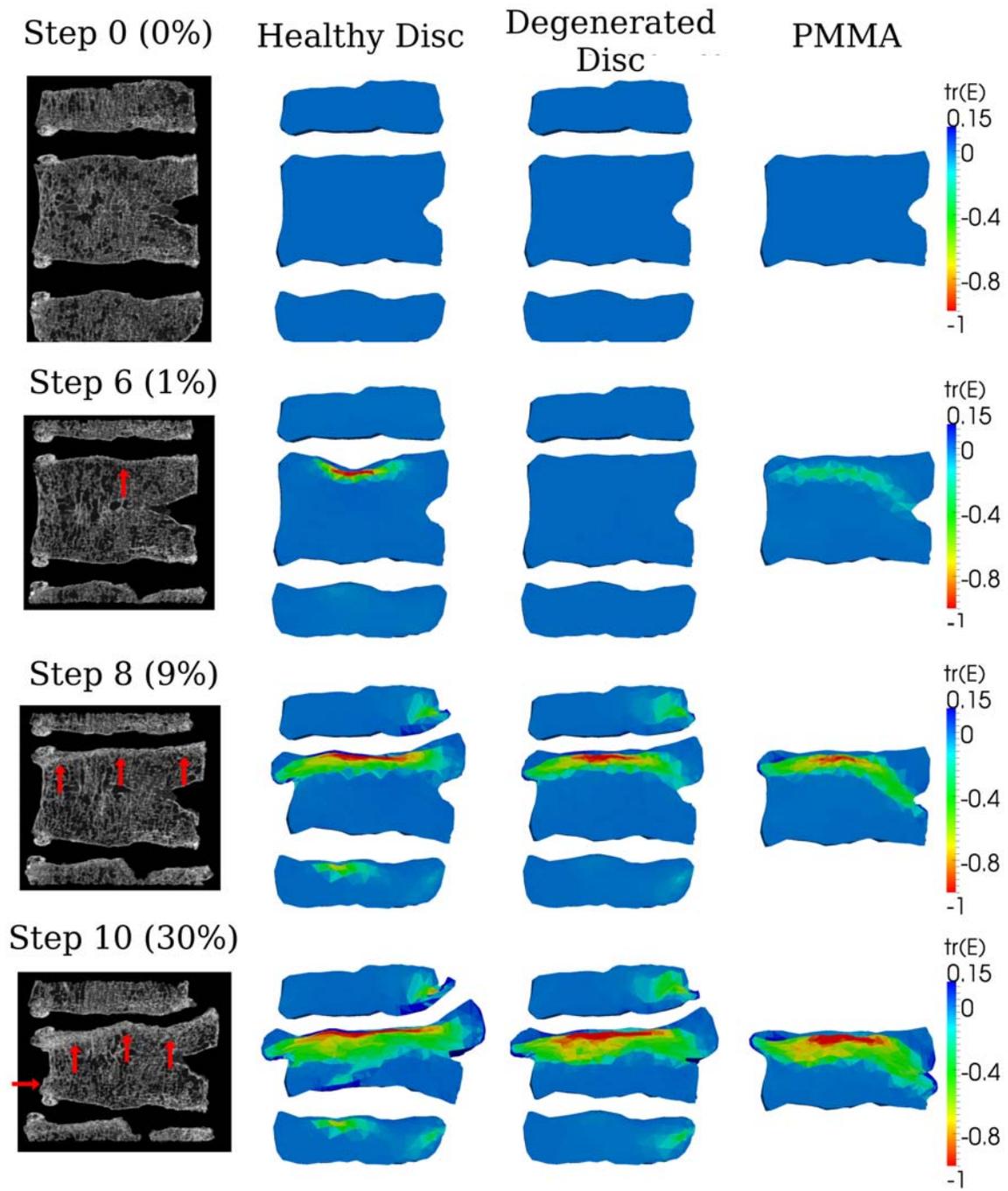
476 Figure 1



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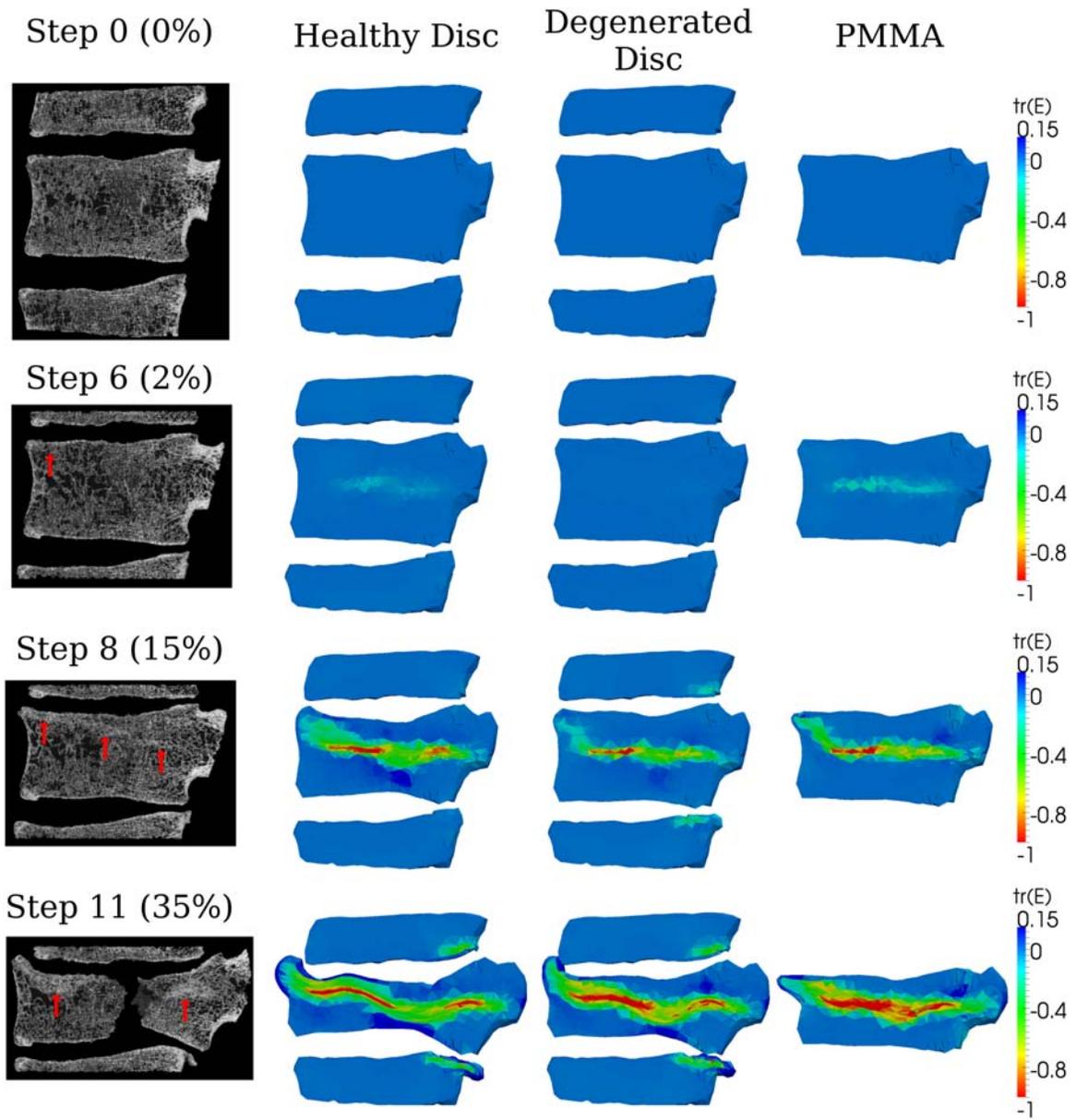
479 Figure 2



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481

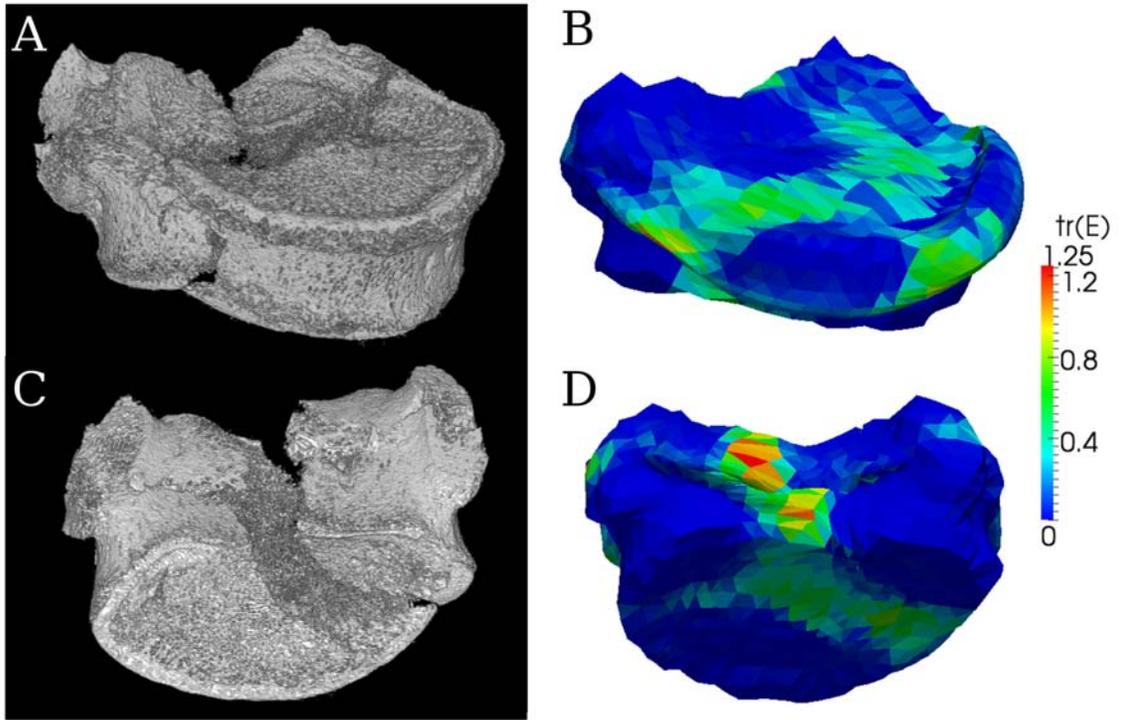
482 Figure 3



483

484

485 Figure 4



486
487

488 Table 1

Load Step	Applied Displacement (mm)	
	<i>Specimen</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
1	0.16	0.33
2	0.49	0.66
3	0.90	1.07
4	1.80	1.97
5	2.79	2.87
6	3.85	3.94
7	6.15	6.07
8	8.36	8.20
9	10.66	10.91
10	13.20	13.45
11		15.99

489

490

491 Table 2

	Ultimate Load (N)	
	<i>Specimen</i>	<i>Specimen</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Experiment	3381	3173
Healthy Disc	2626	2801
Degenerated Disc	3137	3125
PMMA	3615	3599

492