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An ex vivo experiment to reproduce a forward fall leading to fractured and non-fractured radii

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25 **Abstract**

26 Forward falls represent a risk of injury for the elderly. The risk is increased in elderly persons
27 with bone diseases, such as osteoporosis. However, half of the patients with fracture were not
28 considered at risk based on bone density measurement (current clinical technique). We assume
29 that loading conditions are of high importance and should be considered. Real loading conditions
30 in a fall can reach a loading speed of 2 m/s on average. The current study aimed to apply more
31 realistic loading conditions that simulate a forward fall on the radius *ex vivo*. Thirty radii from
32 elderly donors (79 y.o. \pm 12 y.o., 15 males, 15 females) were loaded at 2 m/s using a servo-
33 hydraulic testing machine to mimic impact that corresponds to a fall. Among the 30 radii, 14 had
34 a fracture after the impact, leading to two groups (fractured and non-fractured). Surfacic strain
35 fields were measured using stereovision and allow for visualization of fracture patterns. The
36 average maximum load was 2963 ± 1274 N. These experimental data will be useful for assessing
37 the predictive capability of fracture risk prediction methods such as finite element models.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Among the different bone fractures, those of the distal section of the radius occur earlier in life
41 than other osteoporotic fractures and can be interpreted as a warning signal for later, more
42 deleterious fractures (L. J. Melton et al., 2010). The gold standard method for clinical diagnosis
43 of osteoporosis and evaluation of the risk for fracture is Dual X-ray Absorptiometry (DXA)
44 (World Health Organization, 2004). It has been shown, however, that this measurement presents
45 insufficient sensitivity, and indeed 50 % of fractures occur in patients considered as non-
46 osteoporotic (Siris et al., 2004).

47 Ongoing research has proposed different methods to improve sensitivity. One of these methods is
48 analysis by micro-finite element models (μ FEM) based on High Resolution peripheral
49 Quantitative Computed Tomography (HR-pQCT) (Pistoia et al., 2002, Vilayphiou et al., 2011).
50 All validation studies have shown that bone strength is better estimated by μ FEM (R^2 between
51 0.73 and 0.92) than by DXA measurements (R^2 between 0.31 and 0.71) (van Rietbergen and Ito,
52 2015). Despite this good level of prediction of bone strength using μ FEM, retrospective studies
53 have not yet provided clear evidence that the output of μ FEM provides better predictors of
54 fracture risk than DXA measurements (van Rietbergen and Ito, 2015).

55 Currently, the assessment of bone fragility using HR-pQCT implies a finite element analysis
56 under static axial loading (Pistoia et al., 2002) (Macneil and Boyd, 2008) (Varga et al., 2009)
57 (Hosseini et al., 2017). However, only 15 % of fall cases are associated with an axial load on the
58 radius (L J Melton et al., 2010) and asymmetrical body orientation influences loading of the
59 radius (Burkhart,TA et al., 2017). The most common angle between the floor and the arm found
60 in the forward fall is 75° (Greenwald et al., 1998) (Chiu and Robinovitch, 1998) and the average
61 velocity when the subject hits the floor can reach 2 m/s (Tan et al., 2006) (Troy and Grabiner,

62 2007). Thus, we assume that this dynamic loading should be considered for *ex vivo* experiments
63 that result in fractured and non-fractured bones. Having these two groups in known loading
64 conditions would be of interest to assess new methodologies to predict bone fracture risk.

65 Previous studies loaded radii until failure in all cases, with some under quasi-static conditions
66 (Pistoia et al., 2002) (Macneil and Boyd, 2008) (Varga et al., 2009) (Hosseini et al., 2017) and
67 one using fall conditions (Burkhart et al., 2012). In this context, the aim of this study is to
68 propose an *ex vivo* experiment to reproduce a forward fall loading condition, leading to fractured
69 and non-fractured radii.

70 **2. Methods**

71 Thirty radii from elderly donors (50 to 96 y.o., 79 ± 12 y.o., 15 males, 15 females) were
72 considered. The bones were provided by the Departement Universitaire d'Anatomie Rockefeller
73 (Lyon, France) through the French program on voluntary corpse donation to science. First, during
74 the dissection, 2/3 of the distal radius was cut and cleaned of soft tissues. Each radius was
75 wrapped in a saline-moistened gauze and frozen at -20° C before the experiments.

76 The day before the experiments, bones were thawed for 16 hours at 4° C and then 6 hours at room
77 temperature. The third part of the distal radius was exposed after being potted in a polyurethane
78 resin (reference: 84A&B, Esprit Composite, Paris, France) in a steel cylinder (Figure 1. Using a
79 positioning laser, radii were potted with an alignment of 75° between the anterior face of the
80 radius and the ground, without any tilt in any other planes. This position reproduces alignment of
81 the radius in the most common forward fall (Chiu and Robinovitch, 1998).

82 Taking into account that the scaphoid and lunate are both involved in the mechanism of fracture
83 of the distal radius (Jupiter and Fernandez, 1997), a rigid polyurethane mold was made to
84 reproduce a simplification of these bones for each radius.

85 A silicon rubber kept the mold on the radius, but also allowed some displacement (a few
86 millimeters) in perpendicular directions to the impact, as expected in real life.

87 The pot was placed in a horizontal cylinder bar on a rail system, which was free to slide along the
88 loading axis (Figure2). This bar had a weight of 12.5 kg, which was an arbitrary value
89 representing the mass involved in a fall, i.e., a percentage of body weight. This weight was the
90 same for all the tests. The rail system allows one to limit the loading on the radius to avoid
91 having bone fracture in all cases.

92 The radius was then loaded through the mold at 2 m/s using a hydraulic high-speed testing
93 machine (LF technologies, France). At the beginning of the test, the distance between the
94 impactor and the mold was 50 mm. This distance allowed the acceleration of the impactor and
95 stabilization of its speed to reach 2 m/s before impact. From there, the displacement of the stroke
96 was set to 10 mm. A six-axis sensor (105515TF, Humanetics, Germany) was tightened onto the
97 impactor. Velocities and positions were also obtained by instrumentation systems of the testing
98 machine. Accelerations were obtained by adding an external accelerometer to the impact plate.

99 The data from the experiment was analyzed in order to obtain the reaction load curve over time
100 and to retrieve the maximum load during the test. The treatment of this curve consisted of
101 filtering and subtraction of inertial load (caused by the inertia of the moving mass). For the
102 filtering, we used frequency analysis (Fast Fourier transform) to evaluate the spectrum of
103 frequencies making part of the signal. A Butterworth frequency filter was chosen to process this

104 signal. The low peak attenuation frequency was set to 300 Hz and the high peak attenuation
105 coefficient was set to 5000 Hz.

106 Four high-speed cameras (FASTCAM SA3, Photron, Japan) recorded the impact. Two cameras
107 were placed facing the ulnar face of the radius, and recorded the test using a 105 mm F2.8 DG
108 Macro sigma lenses. The other two cameras were placed facing the anterior face of the radius,
109 and recorded the test using a 50 mm Z1.4/50 mm ZF planar Zeiss lens. The cameras were set to
110 record with a resolution of 1024 x 1024 pixels at 2000 images per second, using a shutter speed
111 of 50 μ s. The radii were illuminated using three projectors (400D, Dedolight, Germany). Bone
112 fracture was assessed by using the high-speed recordings, but also by a radiologist who
113 interpreted radiographs after the impact. Colles' fractures featured radial shortening. Barton's
114 fractures presented a dislocation of the volar rim of the radius.

115 Video recordings were analyzed using VIC3D stereo-correlation software (Correlated Solution,
116 South Carolina, USA). A speckle was painted on the specimen (Figure 2B) to compute 3D
117 surface strain fields (von Mises strains).

118 Radii were measured by Dual X-Ray absorptiometry to obtain bone mineral density values
119 (g/cm^2) and status (Osteoporotic, Osteopenia and Normal) based on T-score (BMDCS/Hologic
120 curves) (Table 1).

121

122 **3. Results**

123 **3.1 Maximum loads from the experiment**

124 Maximum loads are shown in Table 1 and correspond to the failure loads for the fractured cases.
125 Fractures were not consistently associated with the largest loads and depended on bone strength.
126 Stronger bones can indeed sustain larger loads before breaking.

127 **3.2 Fracture cases and type of fracture**

128 Among the 30 radii, 14 had a fracture after impact, and 16 did not fracture. In three cases over the
129 14 fracture cases the radius were not classified as osteoporotic according to DXA measurements.

130 The type of fracture is indicated in Table 1. The prevalent fracture types are Colles' and Barton's.
131 The main fracture types are shown in Figure 3. Colles' fractures were stable, and the fracture was
132 barely visible by a simple overview of the bone. In this experiment for the Barton's fractures, the
133 movement of the volar rim causes opening of the radius into two main parts along its longitudinal
134 axis.

135 There were also two cases of complex fractures, for example having several fractures propagating
136 simultaneously from different directions. However, the displacement pattern noted was mainly
137 volar and radial.

138 **3.3 Strain analysis**

139 Fractures were associated with two types of strain patterns corresponding to Colles' fractures and
140 Barton's fractures. For the strongest bone, von Mises strain reached a maximum value of 0.9% on
141 the anterior region and 2% on the ulnar side. For the weakest bone, the maximum measured von
142 Mises strain value before fracture was 1.5% on the anterior region, and 3.1% on the ulnar side.

143 Examples of surface strains for the anterior region are shown in Figure 4. This figure shows strain
144 concentration in the fracture region.

145 **4. Discussion**

146 This study provided experimental data reproducing a forward fall on the radius leading to
147 fractured and non-fractured bones.

148 The average values of the experimental peak loads in the current study: 2963 (1274) N are in
149 agreement with those reported in the literature: 2142 (1229) N (Burkhart et al., 2014). When
150 observing the high-speed videos, it was found that among the 30 radii, some of them presented a
151 sliding effect of the mold over the articular surface. This effect could be related to the fact that
152 during a forward fall over the forearm, the scaphoid and lunate move partially in the plane
153 perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the radius (Belloti et al., 2013). As a consequence, a
154 radius with a titled articular surface may not fracture, not because its strength is high, but because
155 the loading was lowered due to the joint shape.

156 Regarding strain analysis, the highest strain was found at the ulnar side, as observed in a previous
157 study (Burkhart et al., 2014). Apart from qualitative observations of the strain pattern during the
158 loading, the strain field will be used in future studies to compare experimental fracture patterns
159 revealed by strain distributions and strains computed from numerical models.

160 The loading conditions will be reproduced in models according to experimental studies. Maximal
161 loads and strain fields will be compared to experimental data to assess model predictions. A
162 failure criterion will be defined and the fracture prediction of the model will be compared to
163 fractures observed experimentally.

164 The main limitations of the current study are related to positioning and the rigidity of the articular
165 molds. Their initial positions might be slightly different from an optimal position (congruence
166 with joint surface of the radius) even if the molds are maintained in position using a piece of
167 silicon rubber as illustrated Figure 2B. Subject-specific molds were used to spread loading onto
168 the joint surface and a choice was made to not glue them onto the joint surface to better
169 reproduce the potential sliding of the joint during loading. Articular molds were composed of a
170 polyurethane resin and present rigidity close to that of the radius. The influence of mold rigidity
171 will have to be taken into account for further modelling of the boundary conditions of this
172 experiment. Moreover, the load was spread on the entire joint surface which is different from a
173 real-life situation. This condition was chosen in the experiment to control boundary conditions
174 for further consideration in a numerical model.

175 Another limitation is related to the use of cadaveric samples. Similar to most *ex vivo* studies on
176 bones, the specimens were frozen, which is considered as the best conservation mode. Soft
177 tissues were removed to obtain well-defined boundary conditions to be considered in the future
178 models.

179 Finally, the same load was applied onto the radii despite the body weight of a subject. A unique
180 weight was considered to obtain fractured and non-fractured radii at the end of the experiments.

181

182 **5. Conclusions**

183 Thirty radii were tested under dynamic non-axial loading to reproduce a forward fall
184 configuration. Most previous studies have evaluated bone strength of the radius under static
185 conditions and until failure in all cases. The originality of the current study is related to the two

186 groups of bones (fractured and non-fractured). Having these two groups with known loading
187 conditions is of great interest to assess the predictive capability of finite element models and to
188 check whether consideration of dynamic non-axial loading of the radius in those models could
189 improve fracture risk assessment.

190

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195 **Conflict of interest statement**

196 There is no conflict of interest for any of the authors.

197 **References**

198

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256

258 *Figure and table legends*

259

260 Figure 1: Construction of the articular mold. A. Modelling clay shell is put on the distal radius to
261 contain the resin. B. Polyurethane resin inside the modelling clay shell. C. After removal of the
262 modelling clay.

263 Figure 2: A. Diagram of the experiment. This configuration loads the radius at 75° with a velocity
264 of 2m/s, representing the forward fall case studied. B. Final setup of the experiment.

265 Figure 3: Main type of fracture found in the experiments. A. Colles' fracture (radial shortening).
266 B. Barton fracture (volar). C. complex fracture.

267 Figure 4: von Mises strain distribution in the anterior region, for (A) the strongest and (B) the
268 weakest bone. A) Non-Fractured radius at the maximum load. B) Fractured radius (Colles' type
269 fracture). First frame after fracture (the red part of the strain pattern is equal to or above 2%).

270 Table 1: Experimental data (age, sex, maximal load, type of fracture, ultra-distal (UD) bone area,
271 Bone Mineral Density, T-score, category).

272

273 Figure 1

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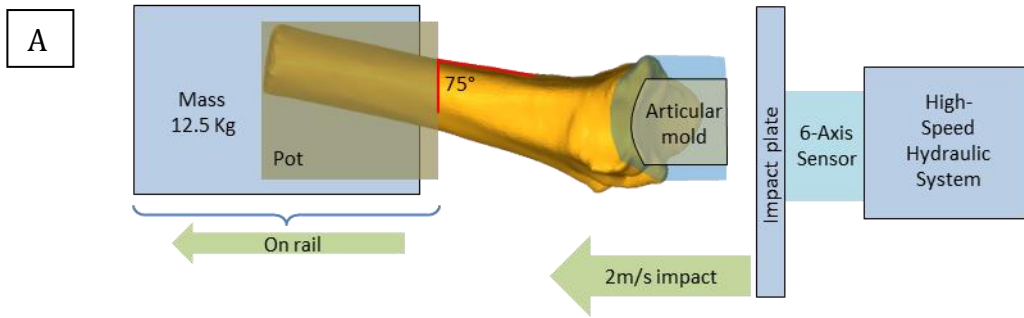


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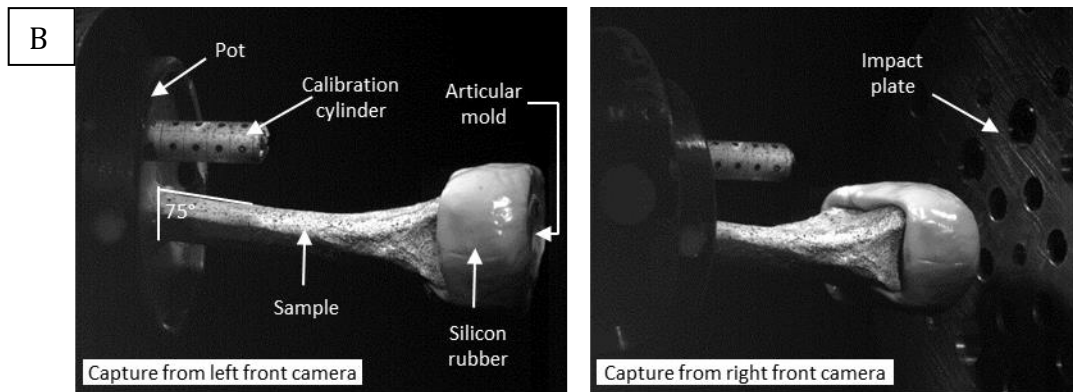
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280 Figure 2



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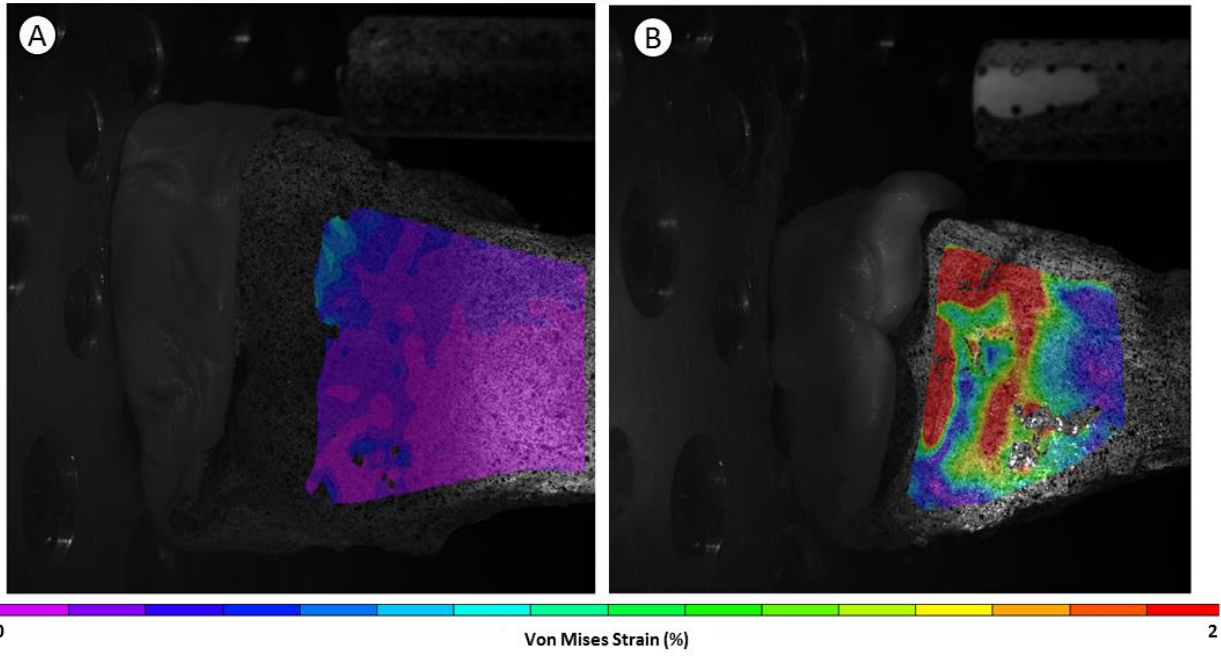
284 Figure 3



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286

287 Figure 4



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289

290 Table 1

Age	Sex	Maximum load (N)	Fractured	Type of Fracture	UD bone area (cm ²)	Bone Mineral Density (BMD, g/cm ²)	T SCORE UD	Category
95	F	1176	Yes	Colles	3,31	0,16	-4,96	Osteoporotic
74	F	849	Yes	Proximal	3,70	0,19	-4,42	Osteoporotic
88	F	1777	Yes	Proximal	3,81	0,21	-3,97	Osteoporotic
73	F	1625	Yes	Colles	3,47	0,22	-3,77	Osteoporotic
96	F	2182	Yes	Barton	3,87	0,25	-3,25	Osteoporotic
98	F	1692	No		3,52	0,28	-2,80	Osteoporotic
87	F	2055	Yes	Complex	3,57	0,28	-2,77	Osteoporotic
91	F	2697	No		3,32	0,29	-2,70	Osteoporotic
86	F	2634	Yes	Barton	4,06	0,30	-2,52	Osteoporotic
85	F	1629	Yes	Colles	3,63	0,30	-2,52	Osteoporotic
57	F	1965	Yes	Colles	3,58	0,30	-2,51	Osteoporotic
95	F	2381	Yes	Barton	3,88	0,38	-1,07	Osteopenia
50	F	3925	No		3,15	0,41	-0,57	Normal
56	F	2478	No		3,57	0,41	-0,53	Normal
76	F	3486	No		3,63	0,41	-0,53	Normal
66	M	2927	Yes	Complex	4,39	0,32	-3,78	Osteoporotic
65	M	2971	Yes	Colles	3,69	0,34	-3,47	Osteoporotic
94	M	2936	No		4,61	0,40	-2,54	Osteoporotic
74	M	4203	No		3,77	0,40	-2,40	Osteopenia
76	M	2206	No		4,25	0,41	-2,37	Osteopenia
77	M	3674	No		4,24	0,42	-2,12	Osteopenia
89	M	3990	No		4,24	0,44	-1,85	Osteopenia
79	M	5818	No		4,87	0,44	-1,81	Osteopenia
88	M	6265	No		4,70	0,44	-1,77	Osteopenia
75	M	4178	No		4,35	0,44	-1,76	Osteopenia
67	M	4344	No		4,35	0,44	-1,74	Osteopenia
83	M	3825	Yes	Barton	3,99	0,48	-1,14	Osteopenia
79	M	2178	No		4,61	0,50	-0,85	Normal
80	M	2903	Yes	Barton	4,08	0,50	-0,72	Normal
80	M	3929	No		4,70	0,52	-0,42	Normal
79		2963			3.96	0.36	-2.25	Mean
12		1274			0.47	0.10	1.22	Standard deviation

291

292