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Martin Revel, Marc Gardegaront, François Bermond, David Mitton, Hélène

Follet

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1	A Credible Homogenized Finite Element Model to Predict Radius
2	Fracture in the Case of a Forward Fall.
3	M. Revel ^{1, 2} , M. Gardegaront ^{1, 2} , F. Bermond ² , D. Mitton ² , H. Follet ¹
4	¹ Univ Lyon, Univ Claude Bernard Lyon 1, INSERM, LYOS UMR1033, F69008, Lyon, France
5 6	² Univ Lyon, Univ Gustave Eiffel, Univ Claude Bernard Lyon 1, LBMC UMR_T9406, F69622, Lyon, France
7	
8	
9	Corresponding author:
10	Hélène Follet
11	Univ Lyon – INSERM, UMR1033
12	Faculté de Médecine Lyon Est -Domaine Laennec-6th
13	7-11, rue G. Paradin
14	69372 Lyon cedex 08
15	France
16	<i>Phone: +33 4 78 78 57 26</i>
17	E-mail address: helene.follet@inserm.fr
18	
19	Keywords: Forward Fall, Finite Element Analysis, Fracture Prediction, Radius, Bone strength

21 Graphical Abstract



24 Highlights

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- Homogenized finite element models of the radius have been proposed to
 evaluate bone stiffness, strain and strength
- Elastic-density relationships and failure criterion have an effect on
 numerical response on distal radius
- Homogenized finite element models of a large region of distal radius can be
 used to discriminate fractured bones from non-fractured bones
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36 Abstract

37 Fragility fractures that occur after a fall from a standing height or less are almost always due 38 to osteoporosis, which remains underdiagnosed and untreated. Patient-specific finite 39 element (FE) models have been introduced to predict bone strength and strain. This 40 approach, based on structure mechanics, is derived from Quantitative Computed 41 Tomography (OCT), and element mechanical properties are computed from bone mineral 42 densities. In this study, we developed a credible finite element model of the radius to 43 discriminate low-trauma-fractured radii from non-fractured radii obtained experimentally. Thirty cadaveric radii were impacted with the same loading condition at 2 m/s, and 44 45 experimental surface strain was retrieved by stereo-correlation in addition to failure loads 46 in fracture cases. Finite element models of the distal radius were created from clinical 47 computed tomography. Different density-elasticity relationships and failure criteria were 48 tested. The strongest agreement (simulations-experiments) for average strain showed a 49 Spearman's rank correlation (ρ) between 0.75 and 0.82, p < 0.0001, with a root mean square 50 error between 0.14 and 0.19%. The experimental mean strain was 0.55%. Predicted failure 51 load error (23%) was minimized for derived Pistoia's failure criterion. Numerical failure 52 demonstrated area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves of 0.76 when 53 classifying radius fractures with an accuracy of 82%. These results suggest that a credible FE 54 modeling method in a large region of interest (distal radius) is a suitable technique to predict 55 radius fractures after a forward fall.

56 1 Introduction

57 Fragility fractures represent a worldwide health problem in the elderly (65 years and older) 58 and remain underdiagnosed and untreated [1,2]. Occurring after a fall from standing height 59 or lower (considered as low trauma fractures), radius fractures are the most common upper 60 extremity fractures [3]. These fractures are associated with age-related decline in bone 61 quality, and because they occur earlier in life than other osteoporotic fractures, they can be 62 interpreted as a warning signal for later and more deleterious fractures [4].

63 Subject-specific finite elements models have been proposed to evaluate bone strength and 64 strain, and fracture risk. Currently, the most widely used tool in clinical research is High 65 Resolution peripheral Quantitative Computed Tomography (HR-pQCT). Based on a restricted 66 area of approximately 9 mm length of the radius (located 9.5 mm to 18.5 mm proximal to the 67 endplate of the radius), micro-finite element (μ FE) analysis [5–10] can be performed to assess quasi-static axial bone strength. These μ FE models showed good prediction (R² 68 69 between 0.73 and 0.92) when comparing numerical outcomes with quasi-static experimental 70 data [11]. However, despite this good level of prediction, retrospective [4,5,8,12–14] and 71 prospective [15–17] cohort studies have not been able to establish better prediction of 72 fracture risk with µFE analysis compared to the standard reference for the detection of 73 osteoporosis fracture, which is the measurement of areal Bone Mineral Density (aBMD) by 74 Dual X-ray Absorptiometry (DXA). It is only with the BoMIC consortium study, including 75 participants of eight cohorts that µFE outcomes associated with femoral neck aBMD 76 improved the ability to predict non-traumatic or traumatic incident fracture by enhancing 77 the area under the receiving operating characteristic (ROC) curve (p < 0.05) [18]. 78 Nevertheless, this was not the case when considering only major osteoporotic fractures (lowtrauma fractures) or when compared µFE outcomes with ultra-distal radius aBMD [18].
Radius bone strength through axial quasi-static load is associated with incident fractures, but
despite perfectly predicted bone strength, fractures cannot be accurately predicted [11],
since fractures in the distal radius mainly result from a fall from a standing height in a
forward direction [19,20].

84 Our recent study examined the influence of loading conditions (angle of compression or 85 torsion) in µFE models of 9.02 mm of the distal radius [21]. The results suggested that this 86 approach does not provide improvement in classifying *ex vivo* fractured and non-fractured 87 radii within an elderly population. Using soft layers at the cut faces of the HR-pQCT scanned 88 section, Christen et al. [22] showed that axial loading on the wrist induced axial and shear 89 forces as well as torsion and bending moment on the scanner's region of interest. These 90 authors also showed that physiological bone loading conditions on the cross-section were 91 patient-specific and need a full distal radius scanned region for the determination of realistic 92 load transfer to the scanned region, which is not currently feasible *in vivo* with HR-pQCT. For 93 this reason, we suggest that enlarging the scanning region may facilitate observation of 94 loading sensitivity and reproduction of the *in vivo* mechanism occurring during a fall that led 95 to fracture.

96 Other types of radius FE models have been proposed in a larger region of interest with a 97 homogenized finite element analysis [9,10,23–25]. The accuracy of these homogenized FE 98 (hFE) models is heavily dependent on material properties, boundary conditions, and chosen 99 failure criterion that define fracture threshold [24,25]. However, their use have faded since 100 the introduction of the HR-pQCT μFE during the decade of 2000-2010. Indeed, although hFE

101 models have predicted bone stiffness, strain, or fracture strength obtained from static 102 experimental tests, they have never been used to predict incident fracture occurring after an 103 impact on the radius resulting from a forward fall on a given population.

104 Strain rate, in quasi-static constant displacement rate or impact loading, are important 105 considerations for the mechanical behavior of the bone. Compact bovine bone femur was 106 three to four times more brittle under a dynamic load than under a quasi-static load [26]. 107 Moreover, impact velocity has an influence on trabecular bone strain rate which affects the 108 compressive ultimate stress [27]. On human femoral bone, relationships can be found 109 between impact and quasi-static failure loads. An impact scenario can be extrapolated by 110 quasi-static tests with errors of less than 12% [28]. We thus hypothesized that a quasi-static 111 homogenized subject-specific finite element model of the distal radius could, with a different 112 scanner modality than usually used on this site, predict bone fracture following a forward 113 fall.

To confirm this hypothesis, this study aims to propose a credible finite element model to discriminate fractured and non-fractured radius groups obtained experimentally after a forward fall [29]. The credibility of the model was assessed regarding the surface strains field in specific areas and for failure load prediction. The model sensitivity was assessed in terms of the elasticity-density equation and failure criterion.

120 2 Materials and Methods

121 **2.1 Specimens and Image Acquisition**

122 Data were acquired from 30 fresh-frozen cadaveric left radii from elderly donors (50-96 y.o.; 123 15 males, 15 females) provided by the University Department of Anatomy Rockefeller (Lyon, 124 France) and were considered for this study (French Ministry of Education and Research, 125 authorization n°DC-2015-2357). The most distal portion of the bones cleaned of soft tissues 126 were imaged with a clinical CT scanner (New-Tom 5G, QR, Verona, Italy). The New-Tom 5G 127 device was chosen for its good spatial resolution in the spectrum of a dental cone beam CT 128 with a nominal detector resolution of 127 µm x 127 µm. Images were acquired on a segment 129 of 8 cm length in the longitudinal direction beginning at the distal styloid of the radius using 130 the standard protocol proposed by the manufacturer, with a tube voltage of 110 kVp and 131 adaptive mAs. Acquisition time was 24 s with an effective dose of approximately 10 µSv 132 (mean radiation dose (CTDI) = 12.6 mGy). Images were reconstructed with a field of view of 133 8.16 cm and a matrix of 544×544 to give a reconstructed isotropic voxel size of 150 μm.

Scans of the thirty specimens were made along with a forearm calibration phantom (QRM, Moehrendorf, Germany), with calcium hydroxyapatite equivalent concentrations of 0 and 200 mg/cm³. These scans were used to establish the following linear relationship (i) between CT Hounsfield units (HU) and calcium hydroxyapatite equivalent density ρ_{HA} in g/cm³:

138 $\rho_{HA} = 0.00038 \times HU - 0.1262$ (i)

139 Each radius was wrapped in saline-moistened gauze and frozen at $-20^{\circ}C$ before the 140 experiments.

141 2.2 Ex-vivo Experiment

142 The experimental protocol used here was previously described in detail by Zapata et al. [29]. 143 The day before the experiments took place, bones were thawed for 16 h at 4°C and then 6 h 144 at room temperature. Using a positioning laser, radii were potted with an 8 cm free length in 145 a polyurethane resin in a steel cylinder with an angle of 75±2° between the anterior face of 146 the radius and the impactor. This position reproduces the most common orientation in a 147 forward fall [30]. A rigid polyurethane mold was made to reproduce a simplification of the 148 radio-carpal joint, which is involved in the fracture mechanism [24,25], in order to evenly 149 distribute the load on the articular surface of the radius throughout the impact.

150 In order to limit the loading of the radius so as to avoid having bone fracture in all cases, the 151 potted bones were placed in a cylinder bar on a rail system, which was free to slide along the 152 loading axis. The weight of the bar (12.5 kg) was considered as an arbitrary weight to 153 represent the mass involved during a fall. This mass was identical for all the tests. A six-axis 154 sensor (105515TF, Humanetics, Germany) was tightened to the impactor located in front of 155 the rail system. The radii were then loaded through the resin mold at 2 m/s using a hydraulic 156 high-speed testing machine (LF technologies, France). The initial distance between the 157 impactor and the mold was 50 mm which allowed the acceleration of the impactor and 158 stabilization of its speed to reach 2 m/s before impact. The displacement of the stroke was 159 set to 10 mm before stops.

160 Two laser scan acquisitions were made for each specimen. The first laser scan was made on 161 the articular mold at the surface in contact with the articular surface of the radius. This 162 procedure was performed before fixation of the articular mold on the radius using a silicon

rubber (Figure 1-A). The second laser scan corresponds to the whole radius after positioning
the pot into the cylinder, just before the impact (Figure 1-B). These two laser acquisitions
were useful for the finite element model to retrieve specific loading surface on the radius and
specific orientation at the beginning of the experiments.

167 Observations were recorded using four high-speed cameras (FASTCAM SA3, Photron, Japan) 168 at 2 000 frames per second using a shutter speed of 50 µs with a resolution of 1024 x 1024 169 pixels (~24 pixel/mm). The cameras were placed in pairs with an angle of 30° (Figure 1-C) 170 and with a distance to specimen of approximately 540 mm. The front cameras, facing the 171 ulnar surface of the radius, recorded the test using 105 mm F2.8 DG Macro sigma lenses. The 172 upper cameras, facing the anterior surface of the radius, recorded the test using 50 mm 173 Z1.4/50 mm ZF planar Zeiss lens. Three spotlights (400D, Dedolight, Germany) provided 174 sufficient lighting to avoid any shadow areas on the images and to ensure good image quality. 175 A speckle was previously painted on the bones to compute strain fields on a specified non-176 fractured area of the anterior face of the radius (Figure 1-D) by analyzing the video 177 recordings using VIC3D stereo-correlation software (Correlated Solution, South Carolina, 178 USA). A calibration plate was used before each test to re-calibrate the systems for each 179 specimen. The resulting average projection error was ~ 0.02 pixels. DIC settings were chosen 180 according to manufacturer recommended guidelines: facet size was chosen based on an 181 average valued of ~ 0.01 pixels of the correlation tracking function (sigma estimate) and 182 resulted to \sim 41 pixels. Step size (referred to overlap) was roughly a quarter of the subset and 183 resulted to ~ 10 pixels. The noise through time between consecutive images was measured 184 with respect to the reference image. Thus, a time smothering filter was applied (More 185 detailed information about DIC-settings are provided in Supplementary Table 1).

186 All samples were impacted under the same loading conditions leading to two groups:187 fractured and non-fractured radii.

188 **2.3 FE Model**

189 Models of the radii based on segmented CT data from the open-source platform 3D Slicer [31] 190 were imported into Ansys Software (v. 2019 R1 Ansys® Inc., USA) to be meshed (10-nodes, 191 tetrahedra) and to perform the numerical analysis. These continuum meshes were created 192 respecting the quality recommendations on the distortion of the elements by inspecting three 193 parameters: aspect ratio, angle idealization, and element Jacobians [32]. In order to 194 determine the optimal number of elements for the resolution, a mesh convergence study was 195 carried out on a sub-sample of 6 specimens (3 men and 3 women) ranging from 50 000 to 196 600 000 elements by increments of 50 000. Two parameters were evaluated: mean 197 equivalent von Mises strain in a region of interest of the anterior face of the radius and the 198 maximum von Mises stress in the whole model excluding edge effects (excluding the 5% of 199 the highest stress values). The convergence of the model was considered when the output 200 parameters showed less than a 2% difference between three successive iterations and finally 201 resulting in 200 000 elements, leading to a mean-size element of 0.9 mm edge-length 202 (Supplementary Material).

In order to evaluate the influence of elastic property on the FE models, three previously established relationships were investigated (Eqs. (1)-(3)) to assign inhomogeneous elastic material properties to the FE models (Bonemat v3, [33]). Eq. (1) was developed by Keller *et al.* on lumbar vertebrae and femoral metaphyses and diaphyses [34], Eq. (2) was developed by Morgan *et al.* on femoral neck [35], and Eq. (3) was obtained by Duchemin *et al.* on human cortical femur [36].

$E = 10\ 500 \rho_{ash}^{2.57}$	[34],	(1)
$E = 6850 \rho_{app}^{1.49}$	[35],	(2)
$E = 10\ 095\rho_{HA}$	[36],	(3)

where Young's modulus *E* is expressed in MPa, and the densities in g/cm³, ρ_{ash} (ash density), ρ_{app} (apparent density), and ρ_{HA} (hydroxyapatite equivalent density, obtained with Eq. (i)). Calcium hydroxyapatite equivalent density obtained from the calibration was converted to ash density using:

213 $\rho_{ash} = 0.0698 + 0.839 \,\rho_{HA} \,[37].$

Ash density was normalized to apparent density with a ratio of 0.6 between ρ_{ash} and ρ_{app} , within the range 0.55–0.63 identified in the literature [38,39]. This resulted in around 220 materials ranging from 0.05 to 12.1 GPa for Eq. (1), from 0.01 to 15.7 GPa for Eq. (2), and from 0.03 to 12.0 GPa for Eq. (3) (Figure 2). Each element was assigned a Poisson's ratio of 0.3.

The models were specifically oriented in the same configuration as the experiments (with an uncertainty of ±2°) by matching surfaces between the laser scan acquisition and the FE model. The specific maximal peak load observed experimentally was applied to the articular surface along the z axis and the proximal end of the radius at the location of potting was fully constrained (Figure 3). Analysis were performed into Ansys Software (v. 2019 R1 Ansys® Inc., USA).

Three numerical failure criteria were evaluated in this study in order to assess their sensitivity to discriminate fractured bones from non-fractured bones. These criteria have shown good prediction of quasi-static radius [24,40] and femoral [36] failure load. An

element failure occurred when a criterion is greater than or equal to 1 (Table 1). Effective strain based on *Pistoia et al.* was calculated from the strain-energy density (U) and the Young's modulus E of each element: $\varepsilon_{eff} = \sqrt{\frac{2U}{E}}$ with a compressive yield strain (ε_{yc}) set to 0.7% [40]. As inexistant on radius, the maximal von Mises stress and Mohr-Coulomb theories were based on compressive (σ_{yc}) and tensile (σ_{yt}) yield strengths calculated from hydroxyapatite equivalent density using pre-established equations on femoral cortical bone:

234
$$\sigma_{yc} = \sigma_{yt} = 137 \times (1.034 \times \rho_{HA} + 0.0546)^{1.88}$$
 for $0 < \rho_{HA} \le 0.35$ [38,41]

235
$$\sigma_{yc} = 96.9 \times \rho_{HA} - 5.95$$
 and $\sigma_{yt} = 64 \times \rho_{HA} - 21.82$ for $\rho_{HA} > 0.35$ [36,41]

Failure loads were then back calculated, assuming that fracture occurred when a cluster of contiguous yielded elements exceeded a predefined volume. Different failed volume has been proposed in the literature: approximatively 150 mm³ for micro finite element models [40] to 350 mm³ for homogenized FE models [24,25,42] of the distal radius. A variation of defective volumes ranging from 150 to 450 mm³ in increments of 100 mm³ was thus examined. The numerical failure forces obtained for each case was then integrated into the sensitivity study for the detection of fractures.

243 2.4 Data Analysis

244 2.4.1 Surface Strain Comparison

Experimental surface strain field was evaluated at the experimental measured peak force for non-fractured bones. The areas from the digital image correlation (DIC) were matched with the surface of the FE models by a custom iterative closest point approach developed in our 248 laboratory in order to compare the bone numerical response with the experimental data 249 analyzed by stereo-correlation. Principal surface strains measured at peak force were 250 retrieved. Points where the confidence interval σ (a measure for how accurately the 251 displacement of each point is calculated between subsequent images [43]) exceeded 0.02 252 pixels were excluded before the point-by-point comparison with the numerical model [44].

253 The following data comparison was developed according to published procedures on femur 254 [44,45]. A sphere, with a diameter of 1.0 mm, was calculated relative to the barycenter of 255 each element of the analyzed surface meshed. All DIC strain measurement points within the 256 sphere were averaged, and the obtained value was used for comparison to the FE element 257 strain. In addition to a visual analysis, the minor and major principal strains were compared 258 by performing a linear regression analysis and calculating the coefficient of determination 259 (R²), the root mean squared error of estimate (RMSE), and the maximum error (Max err; 260 maximal absolute difference between experimental and numerical values). Dispersion was 261 evaluated using Bland-Altman plots [46]. Analysis was performed for each density-elasticity 262 relationship considered in the current study.

To assess the influence of the ±2° uncertainty during model alignment, the average value of
the Von Mises strain was also computed and compared to the experimental values.

265 **2**

2.4.2 Failure Load Comparison

The experimental reaction load curves over time were recorded to retrieve the maximum load of each fractured specimen during the impact. The obtained failure loads were compared with the simulations for each density-elasticity relationship and failure criteria. Due to the limited number of samples, non-parametric statistical tests were performed for this analysis by calculating Spearman's rank correlations ρ, RMSE, and Max err. The dispersion between
these values was evaluated using Bland-Altman plots [46].

272 2.4.3 Fracture Prediction

Bone fracture was assessed by using the high-speed recordings, but also by a radiologist who interpreted radiographs after the impact. The medians, min, and max of numerical failure loads were calculated. The difference between the fractured and non-fractured bone maximum loads was evaluated using an unpaired Mann-Whitney U test. The small number of samples in each gender did not allow for a separation between males and females for the fracture discrimination analysis, even if significant differences were found between sexes.

A sensitivity/specificity analysis was performed by plotting Receiver Operating 279 280 Characteristics curves (ROC curves) with their area under the curve (AUC) to determine the 281 optimal threshold for each outcome. This optimal threshold was defined as the furthest point 282 of the curve from the diagonal corresponding to the maximum of the sensitivity + specificity 283 index. For each optimal detection threshold, test accuracy was calculated as the ratio of true positives (TP) and true negatives (TN), divided by the number of samples $\left(\frac{TP+TN}{n}\right)$. An analysis 284 285 of variance was carried out on the AUCs compared to 0.5 in order to test whether each 286 diagnosis test was more efficient than a simple random rule [47] and to evaluate the 287 statistical differences between AUCs from the different density-elasticity relationships and 288 failure criteria [48]. All tests were carried out using R software (R Foundation for Statistical 289 Computing, Austria [49]).

290 **3 Results**

291 **3.1 Experiments**

292 Among the 30 radii, the experiments failed for two specimens due to misalignments of the 293 potted bones, and the fracture was uncertain for an additional specimen. Finally, 27 bones 294 were tested successfully. As described in the previous study [29], 11 had fractures (7 women, 295 4 men) after impact and 16 did not fracture (5 women, 11 men). The age of the samples with 296 fractures (Median [Min-Max]: 78 [50-98] years) did not differ significantly from those 297 without fractures (83 [57-96] years) (p = 0.66). In contrast, although fractures were not 298 consistently associated with weaker reaction forces, a significant difference was found 299 between the two groups (fractured: 2.38 [1.18 - 3.83] kN, non-fractured: 3.8 [1.69 - 6.27] kN, 300 Difference: -37.3%, p < 0.01), regardless of gender.

301 3.2 Strain Comparison

302 The minor and major principal strains corresponding to the maximum experimental load 303 were evaluated for each specimen and compared with the predicted strains of the finite 304 element simulation. The sixteen non-fractured bones were considered for the first model 305 evaluation. FE predicted major and minor principal strains had a strong correlation with the experimental measured strains (Figure 4) with $R^2 = 0.76$ for Eq. (1), $R^2 = 0.78$ for Eq. (2) and 306 $R^2 = 0.77$ for Eq. (3). The slope of the linear regression was 1.06 for Eqs. (2)-(3) and 2.77 for 307 308 Eq. (1). Moreover, Bland-Altman plots showed a bias of $0.27\%\epsilon$ for Eq. (1) with a $\pm 2\times$ SD of 309 $1.73\%\epsilon$ and a bias of almost zero for Eqs. (2) and (3) with a $\pm 2 \times SD$ of $\sim 0.40\%\epsilon$.

310 In term of Von Mises strain average, the finite element predicted that strains vary as a 311 function of Eqs. (1)-(3) (Figure 5). No significant difference was found between Eq. (2) and 312 (3) (p > 0.05) predicting more accurately the experimental values for non-fractured bones 313 than Eq. (1), which overestimates the results. The $\pm 2^{\circ}$ uncertainty showed a variation of 314 $\pm 0.08\%$ for Eqs. (2) and (3) and $\pm 0.18\%$ for Eq. (1) in the von Mises strain values. Correlation coefficients for experimentally measured strains versus predicted strains ranging from $\rho =$ 315 316 [0.68-0.71] (p < 0.01) for Eq. (1), to $\rho = [0.75-0.82]$ (p < 0.001) for Eq. (2) and $\rho = [0.78-0.79]$ 317 (p < 0.001) for Eq. (3) (Table 2). The RMSE and Max Error were smallest for Eqs. (2) and (3) 318 and largest for Eq. (1) (Table 2). Qualitatively, similar results were found in the von Mises 319 spatial strain distribution for the three equations with the min and max values of each field 320 located at the same area. Furthermore, patterns present common characteristics with the 321 experimental fields (Figure 6).

322 3.3 Failure Load Comparison

323 The eleven fractured bones were considered for the second model evaluation. The $\pm 2^{\circ}$ 324 uncertainty was no longer considered with regard to the few effects on the surface von Mises 325 strain for Eqs. (2) and (3). The numerical failure load varied as a function of Eqs. (1)-(3), 326 failure criterion, and failure volumes (Figure 7). For the von Mises stress and Mohr-Coulomb 327 criterion, where ultimate strength relied on hydroxyapatite equivalent density, computed 328 failure loads increased with contiguous failed volumes. The lowest RMSEs were found for a 329 volume of 450 mm³ failed elements for these two criteria (ranging from 895 to 1181 N, 330 corresponding to an error of 37 to 49% of the mean failure force measured experimentally). 331 Max error was smallest for Eq. (1) and largest for Eq. (2) (Supplementary Material). 332 Regarding the effective strain criterion based on Pistoia et al. [40], a fixed threshold of 0.7% 333 strain leads to lower error for Eqs. 2 and 3. With this given criterion, the lowest RSME (558 334 N), max relative error (999 N), and average differences (-51 N) were found for a contiguous failed volume of 250 mm³ and Eq. 2 corresponding to a mean error (RMSE%) of 23%. The
Effective strain criterion, with a contiguous failed volume of 250 mm³ and the densityelasticity equation 2, was considered in the rest of the study.

338 The correlation coefficient for experimentally measured failure load versus predicted failure 339 load was $\rho = 0.74$ (p = 0.01). Data was compared with the literature to see if the results 340 were part of a larger population. The radius failure loads of three different validated FE 341 models with continuous meshing were extracted with their respective experimental data 342 [9,23,50] and plotted in Figure 8. These studies have shown good agreement between quasistatic experimental tests and FE analysis ($R^2 = 0.87$ [23], $R^2 = 0.93$ [50] and $R^2 = 0.95$ [9]). 343 344 For an easier comparison with the literature results, the coefficient of determination was calculated for the current study ($R^2 = 0.73$, p < 0.05). Computed failure loads of the current 345 346 study were in good agreement with the literature and can confirm good results for a larger 347 population (Figure 8).

348 3.4 Fracture Prediction

A significant difference was found between experimental fractured and non-fractured bones maximum loads (p < 0.05). Median, min, and max are summarized in Table 3. A sensitivity/specificity study was performed by plotting ROC curves (Figure 9). The area under the curve (0.76) was significantly different from a random rule. An optimal threshold of detection was found with a sensitivity of 82% and specificity of 81%. This threshold allowed an accuracy of 82% for radius fracture prediction by subject-specific FE analysis in the case of a forward fall.

356 **4 Discussion**

This study investigated whether radius hFE modeling based on clinical imaging on a large distal area could discriminate *ex vivo* fractured bones from non-fractured bones. The model development required a sensitivity analysis on parameters such as the relation between the image grey level and elastic properties as well as failure criterion. The credibility of the model was assessed by comparing experimental and numerical surface strains and failure loads. This is the first study to use enlarged distal radius hFE modelling to discriminate fractured from non-fractured bones.

364 Strain values in specific areas were similar between numerical simulations and experimental analysis on non-fractured bones for Eqs. (2) and (3) ($R^2 = 0.77$, p < 0.001, quadratic error of 365 366 21% ϵ with a slope of 1.06 for the principal strains. Spearman's ρ between 0.75 and 0.82, p < 367 0.0001, quadratic error between 0.14 and 0.19% ϵ with a slope of ~1.0 for the average Von 368 Mises strain). These results illustrate that experimental surface strains (induced by an impact 369 at 2 m/s) in specific area in elastic response can be correctly predicted by quasi-static 370 simulations. A point-by-point comparison (Figure 4) is given for the first time on the radius. 371 Such a comparison was proposed on the femur [44,45] and even if a direct comparison cannot 372 be done, the current results are in the same range (e.g., slope of the regression and mean 373 values of the difference between simulated and experimental strains).

Literature showed that bone mechanical behavior is strain rate dependent. However, it is not a standard practice to use strain as a trustworthy parameter and the authors rather investigated the strain rate influence on stress or failure loads [28]. The authors have investigated the mechanical properties of cancellous bone (including strain) from quasistatic to dynamic strain rates with an emphasis on the intermediate regime [51]. The authors showed that within different regimes with a distinct strain rate from 0.001/s to 600/s, the yield stress and apparent modulus were strain rate dependent (significantly higher with higher strain rate). However, no significant difference was found for yield strain, suggesting that strain in elastic region is not greatly influenced by strain rate. The same results were found for the cortical bone [52]. These results suggest that strain should be similar between quasi-static and dynamic loadings.

385 The strong variation found for Eq. (1) illustrated the sensitivity of the model to the density-386 elasticity relationship. Because many of these equations exist in the literature [53], particular 387 care should be made when developing a subject-specific finite element model. Some studies 388 have investigated the influence of the density-elasticity relationship on the accuracy of 389 specimen-specific finite element predicted strains [24,54,55]. Edwards and Troy [24] 390 compared three density-elasticity relationships for the human radius under quasi-static axial 391 loading and found that Eq. (1) of the present study [34] showed the best agreement between 392 numerical and experimental surface strains. Nonetheless, this relationship provided the 393 poorest agreement between experimental and predicted surface strains in the present study. 394 The most notable differences with the present study occurred between experiments. When 395 Edwards and Troy loaded the radius axially through carpal bone and ligament at a low strain 396 rate, the present study impacted the bones through a simplification of the radio-carpal joint 397 at a high strain rate. This confirms that bone response is heavily dependent on boundary 398 conditions such as the strain rate [56,57] or loading transfer [25]. Schileo et al. [54] also 399 compared three density-elasticity relationships, although in human femurs, under several 400 loading orientations and observed that Eq. (2) of the present study produced the best results. 401 On the human ulna, Austman et al. [55] tested six different density-elasticity relationships 402 under a simplified cantilever bending scenario and found the best agreement between 403 numerical and experimental data for the two relationships from Carter and Hayes [56], which 404 are not used in this study, and the pooled bone site relationship described by Morgan et al. 405 [35] with Eq. (2). The differences in accuracy between studies confirmed the dependance of 406 anatomical site [35] and boundary conditions [25,42,56] of the density-elasticity 407 relationships on model accuracy.

408 The current study suggested that the effective strain criterion based on Pistoia et al. [40] and 409 currently used in μ FE HR-pQCT analysis produced the best agreement ($\rho = 0.74$) with the 410 lowest amount of error (23%). But the small number of samples did not allow observation of 411 whether the FE method of the current study could be applied to an enlarged population. Similar *in vitro* studies showed agreement with the squared Pearson's R² ranging from 0.72 412 413 to 0.95 [9–11,23,24,50,58], depending on the number of specimens, constitutive law, loading 414 scenario(s), model meshing technique (voxel vs. geometry based), and failure criterion. 415 When available and with similar modelling approaches, failure loads from the literature were 416 extracted and compared with the results of the current study. These data compared quasi-417 static numerical failure load with low strain rate experimental loading until fracture. Despite 418 strain rate and impact influencing the mechanical behavior of the bone [26-28,59], the 419 fracture loads of the current study were added to the scatter plots of the literature to see 420 their position in an enlarged population and show the credibility of the model before looking 421 at fractures discrimination. Computed failure loads of the current study were in good 422 agreement with the literature even if values were in the lower side of the range. However, 423 conflicting results have been reported on femurs regarding the effect of the displacement 424 rate. Similar studies show that with a higher displacement rate the fracture load should 425 increase [28,60]. An increased fracture load could also be expected for the radius. Thus, the 426 fracture loads of the current study should have been in the upper range of the Figure 8. 427 including studies performed in quasi-static conditions. However, other parameters will affect 428 the fracture loads, such as sex, age, size of the bone, bone mineral density, and orientation of 429 the loading. In Figure 8, the results from Hosseini et al. 2017 [9] present the highest values. 430 The failure loads were obtained on radius sections (pure compression) from younger 431 subjects (77.5±9 y.o.) compared to other studies (81±10 y.o. for [23], 81±14 y.o. for [50], and 432 79.7±13 v.o. for the current study) and with a larger proportion of males. This may explain 433 the larger values for that study. Moreover, the results from these studies were obtained on 434 distal radius loaded in the direction of the diaphysis axis ("pure compression"). On the 435 contrary, the current study considered an angle between the loading direction and the 436 diaphysis axis. This loading configuration reduces the failure load compared to the loading in 437 "pure compression". This important difference is probably the major reason why the failure 438 loads in the current study are in the lower range of the failure loads reported in Figure 8, 439 despite the impact loading. The majority of the fractured bones of the current study was 440 considered osteoporotic by ultra-distal radius aBMD (DXA) [29]. This information was not 441 available in the other studies. These low bone mineral densities might also explain the 442 position of the current specimens compared to the literature. This comparison therefore 443 highlighted that a sample size of 11 specimens for model validation is limited and this kind 444 of analysis needs a larger population to confirm accuracy. However, the results suggested 445 that the quasi-static hFE models of the distal radius can predict failure load obtained after an 446 impact on the joint surface.

447 Computed failure loads on the current study computed by hFE analysis were associated with 448 incident fracture. Predictions of HR-pQCT µFE and DXA measurement on the same pool of 449 experimental data were previously established [21]. Derived uFE parameters showed an AUC 450 of 0.795 with 82% accuracy for fracture detection of the best threshold (Sensitivity: 73%, 451 Specificity: 88%). The DXA aBMD of the distal radius presented statistical similar results with 452 an AUC of 0.773 and 85% accuracy (Sensitivity: 82%, Specificity: 88%) [21]. The current 453 model showed similar fracture prediction and was comparable to the technique used in the 454 clinical research. If DXA has little room for progress, as well as µFE, limited by acquisition *in* 455 vivo and restricted area, the hFE analysis with a clinical scan at a lower resolution has a large 456 field of improvement. For further development, an enlarged distal radius FE model would 457 allow more complex boundary conditions compared to a restricted area (e.g., different 458 loading cases occurring *in vivo*). With this type of modelling, a full wrist FE model is 459 conceivable with the presence of carpal bone, cartilage, and tendons which can apply stress 460 to the bone. Moreover, we determined that the numerical response depends on density-461 elasticity relationships; no such type of relationship was developed specifically for the distal 462 radius. Its development in fall conditions should help improve FE model accuracy. Inclusion 463 of strain-rate-dependent behavior in our model, which could be done for Young's modulus 464 by including a second power term in the density–elasticity relationship [56], could be also 465 done to best fit the experimental conditions. Our group showed in a comparative study that 466 the cortical bones from the radius and the femur present the same toughness under a strain 467 rate representative of a fall [59]. This suggests that similar behavior for both sites is expected 468 in the case of a fall-loading condition.

469 There are some limitations in the current study. First, the small sample consisted of 15 men 470 and 15 women. Most of the non-fractured bones came from male donors, while the majority 471 of fractured bones came from female donors [29], which may induce a bias during the 472 sensitivity analysis. Moreover, the small number of samples did not allow for the possibility 473 of full proper model validation, which requires a larger number of specimens. This problem was partially solved using previous published studies found in the literature, but different 474 475 modelling techniques or experimental conditions remain present in these experiments. 476 Analyses of a larger number of single-sex samples would eliminate this bias. Other limitations 477 are related to the use of cadaveric samples. Like most *ex vivo* studies on bones, the specimens 478 were frozen, which is considered the best conservation mode. Moreover, the articular joint is 479 simplified, and the load was evenly distributed on the articular surface of the radius while 480 carpal bones have an effect on radius bone strength [25]. These simplifications differ from 481 the *in vivo* phenomenon occurring during a fall in which soft tissue, ligament, and carpal 482 bones are present and transfer the load to the radius.

483 **5 Conclusions**

Quasi-static hFE simulations could predict the elastic deformations of an external surface of the radius during dynamic experiments of forward falls on the forearm and depend on density-elasticity relationships. Failure criterion adapted from Pistoia et al. [40] was added to the linear elastic constitutive law to predict distal radius failure load. The originality of the current study is related to the evaluation of a homogenized finite element model to discriminate the two groups of bones (fractured and non-fractured) obtained through a

490	unique loading condition. These results suggest that a credible FE modeling method is a
491	suitable technique for predicting radius fractures occurring after a forward fall.
492	
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495	Conflict of interest
496	There is no conflict of interest for any of the authors.
497	

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710

712 Figure List

- 713 Figure 1: Experimental setup with: (A) 3D scan of the experimental articular surface, (B) Resulting 3D surface of
- the bone, (C) Experimental setup, and (D) Capture from the front camera with its surface strain analysis.
- Figure 2: For the three density-elasticity relationships investigated, representation: (Left) Plot of Young's modulus against ρ_{HA} . (Right) Longitudinal cross section illustrating material properties distribution.
- 717 Figure 3: Top Experiment setup from Zapata et al. (2017) [29]. Bottom Finite element model orientation and 718 loading conditions.
- Figure 4: Left Predicted vs. measured principal strains for each non-fractured specimen. Right Bland Altman
- plots of predicted versus measured principal strains for the three density-elasticity relationships investigated.
- Figure 5: Left Predicted (considering an uncertainty of $\pm 2^{\circ}$ for the radius orientation in regards to the load
- 722 direction) vs. measured mean von Mises strains for each of non-fractured specimen. Right Bland Altman plots of
- 723 predicted versus measured von Mises strains.
- 724 *Figure 6: Qualitative comparison of strain distributions for non-fractured specimens between A) experimental and*
- 725 computational model using B: Eq. (1), C; Eq. (2), and D: Eq. (3). Notice that the scale of colormap for Eq (1) in B is
- twice as wide than the other to allow visualization of the strain field.
- Figure 7: Prediction error (RMSE) of the numerical model for the three different failure criteria, three elastic density relationships (Eqs. (1)-(3)) and for the four contiguous failed volumes considered.
- (Bottom Right) The Bland-Altman plot of the highest predicted failure loads obtained with effective strain criterion,
 250 mm³ failed volume and Eq. (2). The average difference is -51N
- Figure 8: Scatter plots between experimental and computed failure loads. (Left) Only the current study; (Right)
 Current study and data from literature [9,23,50].
- 733 Figure 9: ROC curves (Sensitivity against 1 Specificity) of the computed failure load to predict experimental bone
- fracture. The dotted line represents the best threshold detection. *Significantly different from a random rule, alpha
 level = 0.05
- 736

737 Table List

Table 1: The failure criterion investigated with their respective equations. ε_{eff} is the effective strain estimated from the strain energy density [40]; ε_{yc} the compressive failure strain; σ_{vm} the von Mises stress; σ_1 , σ_2 , and σ_3 are

740 the principal stresses ($\sigma_1 > \sigma_2 > \sigma_3$); and σ_{yc} and σ_{yt} the compressive and tensile failure stresses.

Criterions	Equations
Effective strain	$\frac{\varepsilon_{eff}}{\varepsilon_{yc}} \ge 1$
Maximal von Mises stress	$\frac{\sigma_{vm}}{\sigma_{yc}} \ge 1$
Mohr-Coulomb	$\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_{yt}} - \frac{\sigma_3}{\sigma_{yc}} \ge 1$

741

742 Table 2: Spearman's rank correlation (ρ), RMSE and Maximum error between experimental and numerical means

surface strains in non-fracture cases for the three chosen elastic-density relationships Eqs. (1)-(3) considered. *p value < 0.01, **p-value < 0.001

	Eq. (1)	Eq. (2)	Eq. (3)
Spearman's p	[0.68-0.71]*	[0.75-0.82]**	[0.78-0.79]**
RMSE (%ε)	[0.65-0.98]	[0.14-0.19]	[0.15-0.18]
Max err (%ε)	1.63	0.37	0.36

745

746 Table 3: Median [Min - Max] of the numerical failure load among the two fracture groups. The difference between
747 the groups (fractured vs. non-fractured) is given as a percentage relative to the values of the non-fractured with
748 significance corresponding to the Mann-Whitney U test.

3	significance corresponding to the Mann-Whitney U test.									
	Parameters	Non-fractured (n = 16)	Fractured (n = 11)	Difference (%)	p-value					
	Exp. Maximum Load (kN)	3.80 [1.69 - 6.27]	2.38 [1.18 - 3.83]	-37.4	<0.01					
	Computed Failure Load (kN)	3.14 [1.34 - 4.70]	2.16 [0.97 - 4.63]	-31.2	0.03					

Figure 1



Figure 2















Figure 6











BLAND-ALTMAN PLOT



Figure 8



Figure 9.



Supplementary Materials



SUPPLEMENTARY Figure 10 : Mesh convergence study on a sub-sample of 6 specimens ranging from 50,000 to 600,000 elements by increments of 50,000. The maximum von Mises stress in the whole model excluding edge effects (excluding the 5% of the highest stress values) was evaluated.



SUPPLEMENTARY Figure 11 : Mesh convergence study on a sub-sample of 6 specimens ranging from 50,000 to 600,000 elements by increments of 50,000. The mean equivalent von Mises strain in a region of interest of the anterior face of the radius was evaluated.

SUPPLEMENTARY Table 4 : For the 16 non fractured specimens: Baseline (mm), distance between cameras. Stereo angle (°) between cameras. Distance to specimen (mm) between cameras and the surface of the radii. This distance was not specifically measured. AOI Hight (mm and px), the long dimension of the analyzed region. Avg projection error (px) after calibration. Facet size or Subset (px) was chosen based on the average confidence interval of the correlation tracking function (sigma estimate ≈ 0.01 pixels). Step (px, mm), refer to the overlap, was roughly a quarter of the subset in agreement with manufacturer guidelines. Filter size (px, mm) was chosen constants for all specimens. The noise trough time (%def) describes the spread of strain between consecutive images before the impact. Sigma Mean (px), the average error (sigma) of the analyzed images.

Baseline (mm)	Stereo angle (°)	Distance to specimen (mm)	AOI Hight (px)	AOI hight (mm)	avg projection error (px)	Facet Size (Subset, px)	Step (overlap, px	Step Physical Size (mm)	mm/px ratio	Filter Size	Filter Physical Size (mm)	Noise Through time (%def)	Sigma Mean (error, px)
176	31	540	490	20.7	0.027	41	10	0.43	0.04	15	6.50	0.017%	0.005
176	31	540	509	19.3	0.020	51	13	0.48	0.04	15	7.25	0.024%	0.006
175	31	540	361	25.2	0.026	41	10	0.71	0.07	15	10.71	0.013%	0.004
177	31	540	579	24.1	0.031	53	13	0.55	0.04	15	8.26	0.012%	0.005
177	32	540	298	12.2	0.020	39	10	0.40	0.04	15	5.97	0.012%	0.005
86	26	540	341	9.1	0.017	41	10	0.27	0.03	15	4.09	0.014%	0.024
175	31	540	502	20.1	0.025	37	9	0.37	0.04	15	5.55	0.030%	0.005
175	32	540	411	15.6	0.017	35	9	0.33	0.04	15	4.99	0.032%	0.005
175	31	540	477	18.4	0.019	39	10	0.38	0.04	15	5.65	0.014%	0.005
170	26	540	419	21.7	0.028	41	10	0.53	0.05	15	7.96	0.044%	0.014
175	31	540	473	18.1	0.021	41	10	0.39	0.04	15	5.88	0.008%	0.002
175	31	540	418	17.0	0.022	37	9	0.38	0.04	15	5.63	0.016%	0.005
175	31	540	306	11.9	0.031	35	9	0.34	0.04	15	5.11	0.014%	0.006
176	31	540	480	18.2	0.019	47	12	0.45	0.04	15	6.69	0.011%	0.005
175	32	540	390	15.9	0.018	37	9	0.38	0.04	15	5.67	0.006%	0.005
175	31	540	500	21.2	0.042	37	9	0.39	0.04	15	5.88	0.006%	0.013

Experiment (N)	24	422 ± 73	34						
Failure	Effective Strain Criterion			Von Mises Stress Criterion			Mohr-Coulomb Criterion		
Volume	Eq. 1	Eq. 2	Eq. 3	Eq. 1	Eq. 2	Eq. 3	Eq. 1	Eq. 2	Eq. 3
150 mm ³									
Mean (N)	487	2287	2185	1547	1160	1475	1461	1103	1397
Sd (N)	295	1036	1335	1167	959	851	1098	920	821
RMSE (N)	1994	562	820	1108	1373	1046	1147	1416	1111
Max Err (N)	2650	1101	1317	2007	2216	1792	2049	2245	1857
250 mm ³									
Mean (N)	511	2371	2291	1664	1291	1550	1559	1237	1470
Sd (N)	313	1073	1339	1240	1022	903	1143	978	868
RMSE (N)	1969	558	794	1053	1265	993	1082	1301	1054
Max Err (N)	2574	999	1506	1855	2051	1720	1911	2082	1793
350 mm ³									
Mean (N)	531	2449	2387	1747	1376	1615	1623	1308	1529
Sd (N)	326	1104	1365	1294	1042	921	1167	988	877
RMSE (N)	1947	578	797	1024	1195	943	1039	1238	1005
Max Err (N)	2529	1221	1656	1754	1967	1655	1830	2027	1735
450 mm ³									
Mean (N)	549	2526	2483	1813	1439	1667	1690	1367	1575
Sd (N)	335	1140	1389	1310	1046	916	1192	993	876
RMSE (N)	1929	612	819	982	1134	895	991	1181	962
Max Err (N)	2517	1334	1801	1582	1875	1598	1651	1917	1674

SUPPLEMENARY Table 5 : Means predicted failure loads (n=11) with their standard deviation and prediction error of the numerical model for the different failure criteria, contiguous failed elements, and elastic-density relationships.