

1 **Estimation of in vivo inter-vertebral loading during motion using fluoroscopic and**  
2 **magnetic resonance image informed finite element models**

3 Short Communication

4 Sahand Zanjani-Pour<sup>1</sup>, Judith R. Meakin<sup>1</sup>, Alex Breen<sup>2</sup>, and Alan Breen<sup>3</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup>School of Physics and Astronomy, College of Engineering, Mathematics and Physical Sciences,  
6 University of Exeter, Exeter, UK

7 <sup>2</sup>Institute for Musculoskeletal Research and Clinical Implementation, Anglo-European College of  
8 Chiropractic, Bournemouth, UK

9 <sup>3</sup>Faculty of Science and Technology, Bournemouth University, Bournemouth, UK

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11 Corresponding author: Judith R. Meakin, Physics Building, Stocker Road, University of Exeter, Exeter,  
12 EX4 4QL, UK

13 Tel. +44 (0) 1392 724109 Email [j.r.meakin@exeter.ac.uk](mailto:j.r.meakin@exeter.ac.uk)

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## 19 Abstract

20 Finite element (FE) models driven by medical image data can be used to estimate subject-specific  
21 spinal biomechanics. This study aimed to combine magnetic resonance (MR) imaging and quantitative  
22 fluoroscopy (QF) in subject-specific FE models of upright standing, flexion and extension. Supine MR  
23 images of the lumbar spine were acquired from healthy participants using a 0.5 T MR scanner. Nine  
24 3D quasi-static linear FE models of L3 to L5 were created with an elastic nucleus and orthotropic  
25 annulus. QF data was acquired from the same participants who performed trunk flexion to 60° and  
26 trunk extension to 20°. The displacements and rotations of the vertebrae were calculated and applied  
27 to the FE model. Stresses were averaged across the nucleus region and transformed to the disc co-  
28 ordinate system (S1 = mediolateral, S2 = anteroposterior, S3 = axial). In upright standing S3 was  
29 predicted to be  $-0.7 \pm 0.6$  MPa (L3L4) and  $-0.6 \pm 0.5$  MPa (L4L5). S3 increased to  $-2.0 \pm 1.3$  MPa (L3L4)  
30 and  $-1.2 \pm 0.6$  MPa (L4L5) in full flexion and to  $-1.1 \pm 0.8$  MPa (L3L4) and  $-0.7 \pm 0.5$  MPa (L4L5) in full  
31 extension. S1 and S2 followed similar patterns; shear was small apart from S23. Disc stresses  
32 correlated to disc orientation and wedging. The results demonstrate that MR and QF data can be  
33 combined in a participant-specific FE model to investigate spinal biomechanics in vivo and that  
34 predicted stresses are within ranges reported in the literature.

35

## 36 Introduction

37 Determining spinal loads in vivo is essential for understanding normal spine biomechanics and  
38 assessing patients with functional impairments. Low back pain is the largest single contributor to  
39 disability in many countries across the world (Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation, 2013) and is  
40 regarded as being mechanical in nature in many instances (Borenstein, 2013). Movement patterns are  
41 shown to differ between healthy individuals and patients with back pain (Breen and Breen, 2017;  
42 Mellor et al., 2014), where an inability to maintain normal movement patterns is thought to be linked  
43 through abnormal loading (Mulholland, 2008). Relating movement patterns to the magnitude and  
44 sharing of the load, however, is challenging as direct measurement of load in the spine is invasive.

45 Computational modelling provides a non-invasive method for estimating spinal biomechanics in-vivo.  
46 Methods include musculoskeletal (MSK) modelling (de Zee et al., 2007; Han et al., 2013) and finite  
47 element (FE) analysis which can be used alone e.g. (Dreischarf et al., 2014; Rohlmann et al., 2005) or  
48 in combination with MSK modelling e.g. (Shirazi-Adl et al., 2005; Zhu et al., 2013) and allows load  
49 distribution between spinal components to be determined. Many models simulate the spine's  
50 behaviour by applying forces and/or moments; these may be based on generic values (Dreischarf et  
51 al., 2014) or estimated from kinematic measurements using an inverse statics approach (Zhu et al.,  
52 2013). An alternative approach is to use medical imaging to observe the motion of the spine and apply  
53 this to the model as a displacement. This approach has been investigated previously and  
54 demonstrated to be feasible for in-vivo use and to predict disc stresses that are consistent with  
55 experimental results (Wang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Zanjani-Pour et al., 2016).

56 Our previous work involved the creation of a 2D model using magnetic resonance (MR) images to  
57 define both the subject-specific geometry and motion (Zanjani-Pour et al., 2016). The use of MR for  
58 determining motion, however, has the disadvantage that that it takes several minutes to set-up and  
59 acquire each image. Quantitative fluoroscopy (QF) provides a method for capturing vertebral motion

60 in-vivo in real time. This technology is emerging in hospitals (Breen et al., 2012), having been shown  
61 to have excellent precision and accuracy (Breen et al., 2006).

62 The aim of this current study was to extend our previous work by developing 3D subject-specific  
63 models from MR images and to investigate the incorporation of motion determined from QF to predict  
64 spinal loading in upright, flexed and extended postures.

## 65 **Methods**

### 66 *Participants*

67 Twelve healthy participants were recruited and gave their informed consent to take part in the study.  
68 Inclusion criteria were adults aged 21-50 years with no disabling back pain over the previous year. The  
69 study received a favourable ethical opinion by the National Research Ethics Service (South West 3, REC  
70 reference 10/H0106/65).

### 71 *Imaging*

72 MR images of the lumbar spine (Figure 1) were acquired from the participants in the supine posture  
73 using a 0.5 T open bore MR scanner (Paramed Srl., Italy) at the Anglo-European College of Chiropractic  
74 (Bournemouth, UK). A volumetric scanning sequence (repetition time, TR = 17 ms, echo time, TE = 8  
75 ms, flip angle = 60°, number of signal averages = 2) provided 3D images comprising voxels of dimension  
76 0.98 x 0.98 x 1.1 mm.

77 QF data was acquired from the same participants (Figure 1) using a Siemens Arcadis Avantic digital C-  
78 arm fluoroscope (Siemens GMBH). The participants performed trunk flexion from upright standing to  
79 60° and trunk extension to 20°; during motion their pelvis was constrained. The central ray was aligned  
80 through the L4 disc with exposure factors determined via an automatic exposure device. Fluoroscopic  
81 images were sampled at 15 Hz and analysed by manually placing templates around each vertebral

82 body (performed a total of five times) after which software written in Matlab (V2013, The Mathworks  
83 Inc.) was used to automatically track the positions of the vertebrae throughout the image sequences.

84 The location of the vertebral bodies in the MR and QF image data were used to determine the  
85 translation and rotation of the vertebrae from supine to upright, fully flexed (60° flexion), and fully  
86 extended (20° extension). Points were manually placed at the corners of the vertebrae L3 to L5 on the  
87 MR image at the mid-sagittal plane. These, and the corresponding points on the QF data, were used  
88 to determine the vertebral body mid-point (average of the 4 corner points) and vertebral body mid-  
89 line (connecting the mid-anterior point (average of the 2 anterior corner points) to the mid-posterior  
90 point (average of the 2 posterior corner points)).

91 The length of the L4 mid-line was used to scale the QF data (which had pixels of unknown size) to the  
92 MR data (which had pixels of known size). A translation vector and rotation angle that mapped the  
93 location of the vertebral bodies in the MR data onto those in the QF data was then calculated for each  
94 vertebral body using the vertebral body mid-points and mid-lines. The error in this mapping process  
95 was quantified by calculating the root mean square (RMS) distance between the mapped corner  
96 points.

97 The orientation and wedging of the L3L4 and L4L5 discs were also calculated. Orientation was defined  
98 as the angle of the mid-transverse plane of the disc with respect to the horizontal and wedging was  
99 defined as the angle between the end-plates of the vertebral bodies; both were calculated from the  
100 angles of the lines connecting the two inferior and two superior corner points.

### 101 *Modelling*

102 Participant-specific 3D FE models of the spine from L3 to L5 were created from the MR data (Figure  
103 2). The vertebrae and discs (annulus and nucleus) were segmented from the image data and meshed

104 with linear tetrahedral elements using ScanIP and FE+ (Synopsys Ltd., UK). The mesh was refined in  
105 the disc regions, producing models with between 70,000 and 100,000 elements.

106 The models were imported into Abaqus (Dassault Systèmes Simulia Corp.) and material properties  
107 assigned. The nucleus was modelled as an isotropic linear elastic material (Young's modulus,  $E = 1$   
108 MPa, Poisson's ratio,  $\nu = 0.45$ )(Williams et al., 2007) and the annulus as an orthotropic linear elastic  
109 material. The orthotropic properties of the annulus were calculated from the properties of the fibres  
110 ( $E = 500$  MPa,  $\nu = 0.3$ ) and matrix ( $E = 2.5$  MPA,  $\nu = 0.4$ )(Williams et al., 2007) using a mixture model  
111 and the assumption that the fibre volume fraction was 21% and that the fibres within the annulus  
112 lamellae were orientated at  $65^\circ$  to the vertical. The vertebrae were modelled as an isotropic linear  
113 elastic material ( $E = 100$  MPa,  $\nu = 0.2$ )(Williams et al., 2007).

114 The nodes of the mesh in the vertebral bodies (but not the posterior elements) were kinematically  
115 coupled to a reference point at the centre of the vertebral body. The translation and rotation of the  
116 vertebral bodies, calculated from the image data, were applied to these reference points. The normal  
117 and shear stresses in the nucleus were determined and averaged. These were then rotated by the disc  
118 orientation angle to determine the stresses in the disc's local coordinate system ( $S1 =$  mediolateral,  
119  $S2 =$  anteroposterior,  $S3 =$  axial).

## 120 *Data analysis*

121 Differences between postures were assessed using repeated measures analysis of variance followed  
122 by post-hoc comparisons with correction for multiple comparisons. Linear and non-linear regression  
123 was performed to evaluate the relationship between variables and the strength of the relationship  
124 assessed from the coefficient of determination. SPSS (version 23, IBM Corp.) was used for the  
125 statistical analyses and statistical significance was taken as a probability less than 0.05.

## 126 Results

127 Nine subject-specific models were created and analysed. Three models could not be created due to  
128 difficulty in ascertaining the outline of the vertebrae in the MR data. The RMS error on the mapping  
129 procedure ranged from 0.88 mm to 2.2 mm (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation:  $1.51 \pm 0.37$  mm).

130 The orientation and wedging of both discs changed significantly in moving from the upright posture  
131 to the flexed posture (Table 1). A change in these variables was found for the motion from the upright  
132 to extended posture (Table 1); this was significant for the orientation angle but not the wedging angle.

133 The normal and shear stresses also changed in moving from the upright posture to both the flexed  
134 and extended postures (Figure 3). Many of these changes were statistically significant or exhibited  
135 consistent trends (Table 1). No significant differences were found between L3L4 and L4L5 except for  
136 shear stress S23 in the upright ( $p = 0.037$ ) and extended posture ( $p = 0.002$ ).

137 Normal stress was found to have a quadratic relationship with disc orientation (Figure 4a) and a linear  
138 relationship with disc wedging (Figure 4c). Shear stress had a linear relationship with both disc  
139 orientation (Figure 4b) and disc wedging (Figure 4d). For clarity only the results for S3 and S23 are  
140 shown in Figure 4, the results for S1 and S2 were very similar for orientation ( $R^2 = 0.34$  and  $R^2 = 0.38$ )  
141 and wedging ( $R^2 = 0.27$  and  $R^2 = 0.29$ ) whereas there was little correlation for S12 and S13 with  
142 either orientation ( $R^2 = 0.18$  and  $R^2 = 0.03$ ) or wedging ( $R^2 = 0.12$  and  $R^2 = 0.02$ ).

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## 146 Discussion

147 Our previous work on subject-specific modelling used a 2D model where the geometry and motion of  
148 the vertebrae were derived from MR images. In the current study we extended this work by creating  
149 3D subject-specific models from MR data and incorporating motion determined from QF data. Stresses  
150 in the L3L4 and L4L5 discs were predicted in upright standing, flexion and extension in 9 participants.

151 The use of a 3D model is an improvement since it is better able to represent the 3D strains present in  
152 a real disc and provide a more realistic estimate of stress, pore pressure and disc bulge compared to  
153 an equivalent 2D model (Zanjani-Pour, 2016). It also potentially allows the facet joints to be included,  
154 opening up the possibility of exploring load sharing between the disc and facet joints; however, in the  
155 current study the difficulties in segmenting these from the image data, meant that the facet joints  
156 were not analysed. This same issue prevented three subject-specific models from being created.  
157 Although the resolution of the MR data was adequate, the low field strength of the scanner meant  
158 that the signal to noise ratio was not always sufficient to differentiate the vertebrae from the  
159 surrounding tissues.

160 QF is an imaging method that allows the motion of the spine to be determined in real time. Motion  
161 patterns have been shown to differ between healthy controls and patients with low back pain (Breen  
162 and Breen, 2017; Mellor et al., 2014) suggesting that the load distribution within the spine may also  
163 vary. Although the current study only assessed the end-points of motion, multiple steps in the  
164 modelling procedure would allow continuous motion to be modelled. The procedure for determining  
165 the translations and rotations of the vertebrae during motion required the QF data to be scaled using  
166 the width of L4 measured in the MR data. L4 was chosen because it was at the centre of the image;  
167 the scale may have varied slightly away from the centre due to the divergence of the x-ray beam but  
168 this effect is anticipated to be small (Breen, 2016). It was also assumed that the vertebral motion out

169 of the sagittal plane was zero; dual plane fluoroscopy (Wang et al., 2014) provides a way of assessing  
170 this but doubles the radiation dose.

171 The RMS errors in mapping the vertebral corner points in the MR data to those in the QF data were  
172 twice those found in our previous work that used MR data alone (Zanjani-Pour et al., 2016). The higher  
173 error may have been due to non-uniform scaling or out of plane motion in the QF data but qualitative  
174 assessment of the mapped points suggested that the main source of error was the mismatch in  
175 selecting corner points in the two different image sets. This may have led to error in the calculated  
176 vertebral translations and rotations that affect the predicted disc stresses. Although the magnitude of  
177 the vertebral motion error cannot be directly inferred from the magnitude of the mapping error  
178 (Shamir and Joskowicz, 2011), we estimate (based on our previous work and an assumption that the  
179 translation error scales linearly with the mapping error) that it would be up to 0.6 mm (Zanjani-Pour  
180 et al., 2016). However, as the vertebral tracking was performed using rigid templates, the relative  
181 error between the upright and flexed or extended postures would be lower, corresponding to the  
182 error in the QF tracking of 0.3 mm (Breen et al., 2006).

183 One of the other limitations in the model is the assumption that the spine was under zero load in the  
184 supine posture. This assumption is unlikely to be true since, even though there was an absence of  
185 body weight acting on the spine and the participants were imaged in a psoas relaxed posture, there  
186 will be some axial load due to passive forces from the ligaments and other muscles. However,  
187 measurements in vivo suggest that this would lead to an intradiscal pressure value of around 0.1 MPa  
188 (Wilke et al., 1999) which is smaller than the predicted pressures in the upright postures. A second  
189 limitation is that the QF data was obtained with the pelvis constrained whereas the experimental  
190 results were obtained with an unconstrained pelvis. However, the act of constraining the pelvis has  
191 been found to increase paraspinal muscle activity by only 10 % in flexion (Jin and Mirka, 2015).

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193 The disc was modelled as having linear elastic properties from the literature. More sophisticated  
194 material models could be used such as in our previous poroelastic model (Zanjani-Pour et al., 2016);  
195 however, comparison of predictions from models with different material models shows that although  
196 magnitudes differ, the patterns of predicted stress or pressure are similar (Zanjani-Pour, 2016),  
197 demonstrating that elastic models can be used to assess inter-subject and inter-posture differences.  
198 The subjects in the current study all appeared to have healthy discs but for use in patients it would be  
199 desirable to incorporate subject-specific disc properties as these will influence the predicted stresses  
200 (Zanjani-Pour et al., 2016). MR parameters such as T1 and T2 relaxation times, magnetization transfer  
201 ratio, and diffusion (Cortes et al., 2014; Périé et al., 2006; Recuerda et al., 2012) have previously been  
202 shown to relate to disc properties suggesting that they could be used to estimate subject specific  
203 properties.

204 It is difficult to compare the magnitude of the stresses predicted by the model to the existing literature  
205 since the amount of flexion and extension differs between our study and many previous studies and  
206 because of the model limitations already discussed. However, there are similarities between the  
207 results of our model and experimental measurements and previous models in the literature. The  
208 greater increase in normal stress from upright standing to flexion compared to upright to extension,  
209 for example, is consistent with in-vivo measurements of disc pressure (Sato et al., 1999; Wilke et al.,  
210 2001) and other finite element models (Dreischarf et al., 2014; Kuo et al., 2010; Rohlmann et al., 2005)  
211 and is consistent with the trunk requiring more muscle forces to provide stability in flexed and  
212 extended postures. The change in the direction of the shear stress between L3L4 and L4L5 in upright  
213 standing is also consistent with previous models (El-Rich et al., 2004; Galbusera et al., 2014). The  
214 relationship between disc normal stress and wedging may seem inconsistent with in-vitro data that  
215 suggest compressive loads should be largely independent of wedging angle (Adams et al., 1994) but  
216 can be explained by the fact that wedging and orientation in our study are occurring concurrently  
217 rather than as independent variables.

218 In conclusion, vertebral motion determined from QF data can be incorporated into subject-specific  
219 models derived from MR data and the pattern of predicted disc stresses that are consistent with the  
220 literature. Additional work is required to minimise mapping errors, incorporate subject-specific  
221 material properties, and perform further validation, so that normal and impaired loading and load  
222 sharing can be assessed in-vivo.

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## 227 **Conflict of interest statement**

228 No conflicts of interest.

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Table 1. Change in disc angles and stress with posture given as mean and 95% confidence intervals.

		Upright → flexion		Upright → extension	
		$\Delta$ (95% CI)	p	$\Delta$ (95% CI)	p
<b>Disc orientation (°)</b>	L3L4	30.4 (22.4, 38.5)	<b>0.00</b>	-10.1 (-12.8, -7.5)	<b>0.00</b>
	L4L5	18.8 (12.1, 25.5)	<b>0.00</b>	-9.2 (-11.5, -6.9)	<b>0.00</b>
<b>Disc wedging (°)</b>	L3L4	11.6 (9.0, 14.1)	<b>0.00</b>	-0.6 (-1.4, 0.2)	0.17
	L4L5	11.4 (8.2, 14.7)	<b>0.00</b>	-1.0 (-2.1, 0.1)	0.09
<b>S1 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	-1.09 (-2.2, 0.02)	0.06	-0.35 (-0.64, -0.06)	<b>0.02</b>
	L4L5	-0.57 (-1.04, -0.09)	<b>0.02</b>	-0.07 (-0.27, 0.12)	0.67
<b>S2 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	-1.20 (-2.47, 0.06)	0.06	-0.38 (-0.71, -0.06)	<b>0.02</b>
	L4L5	-0.70 (-1.26, -0.14)	<b>0.02</b>	-0.06 (-0.27, 0.14)	0.76
<b>S3 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	-1.30 (-2.56, -0.04)	<b>0.04</b>	-0.43 (-0.78, -0.07)	<b>0.02</b>
	L4L5	-0.61 (-1.18, -0.04)	<b>0.04</b>	-0.10 (-0.35, 0.16)	0.65
<b>S12 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	0.002 (-0.002, 0.006)	0.54	-0.001 (-0.003, 0.001)	0.20
	L4L5	0.003 (-0.001, 0.007)	0.19	-0.002 (-0.003, 0.000)	<b>0.04</b>
<b>S13 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	-0.002 (-0.005, 0.001)	0.20	0.000 (-0.001, 0.001)	0.64
	L4L5	-0.002 (-0.006, 0.003)	0.67	-0.001 (-0.002, 0.001)	0.63
<b>S23 (MPa)</b>	L3L4	0.229 (0.018, 0.440)	<b>0.03</b>	-0.075 (-0.124, -0.026)	<b>0.01</b>
	L4L5	0.128 (0.035, 0.220)	<b>0.01</b>	-0.015 (-0.064, 0.033)	0.75

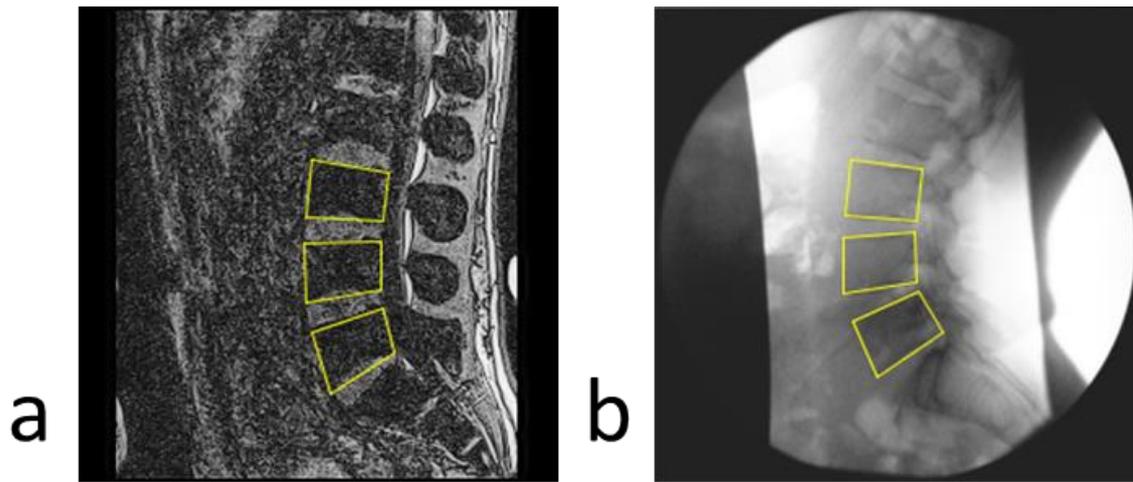


Figure 1: MR (mid-sagittal slice) and QF data showing location of templates around vertebral bodies L3 to L5.

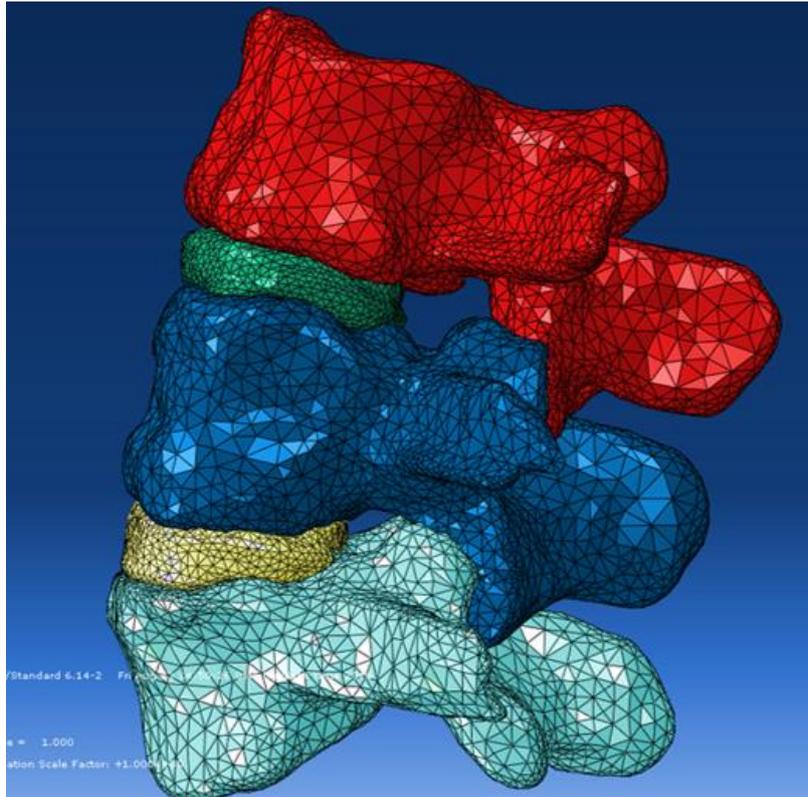


Figure 2: Example FE model of L3 to L5.

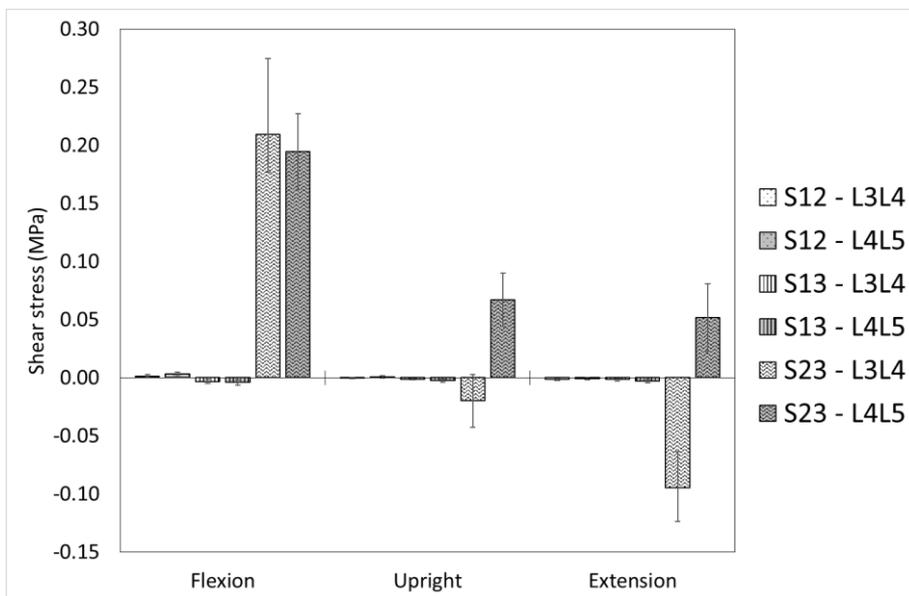
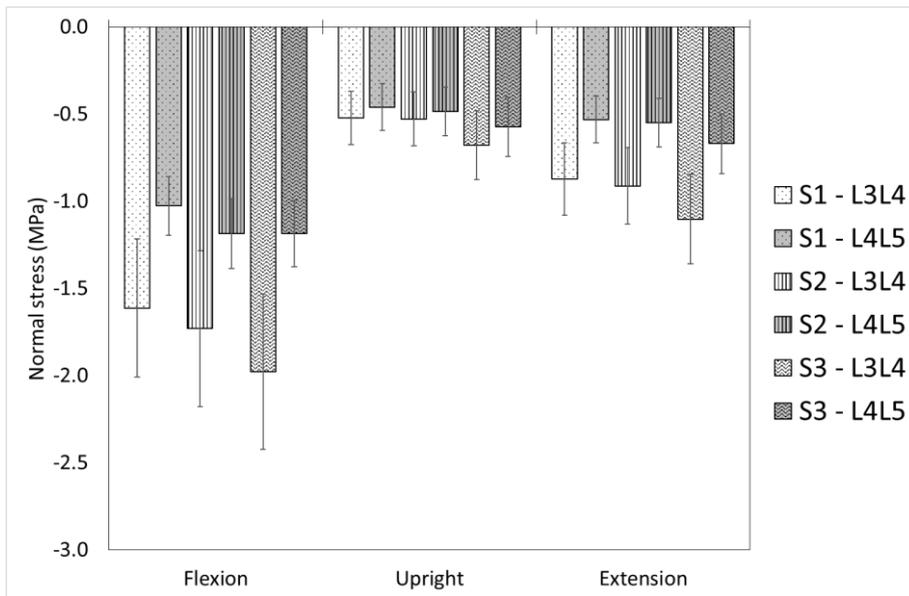


Figure 3: Normal (a) and shear (b) stresses in L3L4 and L4L5 in upright, 60° of flexion, and 20° of extension. Error bars show 1 standard error about the mean.

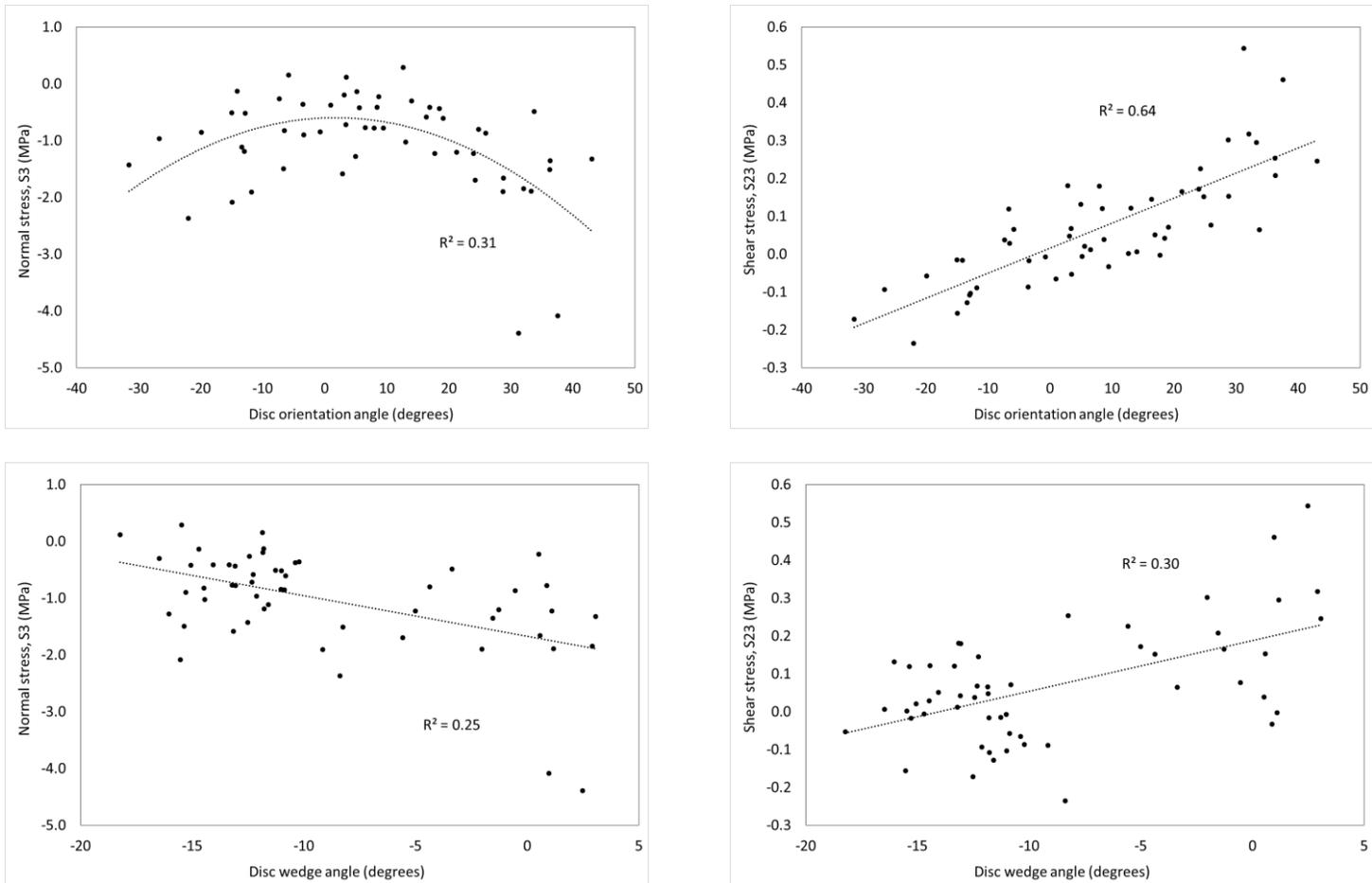


Figure 4: Normal and shear stress in the disc as a function of disc orientation and wedging (a) normal stress S3 and disc orientation, (b) shear stress S23 and disc orientation, (c) normal stress S3 and disc wedging, (d) shear stress S23 and disc wedging. Plotted data includes values from L3L4 and L4L5 in all three posture