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Patient-Specific Modelling of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms: The Influence of Wall Thickness on Predicted Clinical Outcomes

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1	Patient-Specific Modelling of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms: The Influence of
2	Wall Thickness on Predicted Clinical Outcomes.
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ABSTRACT

25	Rupture of abdominal aortic aneurysms (AAAs) is linked to aneurysm morphology. This
26	study investigates the influence of patient-specific (PS) AAA wall thickness on predicted
27	clinical outcomes. Eight patients under surveillance for AAAs were selected from the MA ³ RS
28	clinical trial based on the complete absence of intraluminal thrombus. Two finite element
29	(FE) models per patient were constructed; the first incorporated variable wall thickness from
30	CT (PS_wall), and the second employed a 1.9mm uniform wall (Uni_wall). Mean PS wall
31	thickness across all patients was 1.77 ± 0.42 mm. Peak wall stress (PWS) for PS_wall and
32	Uni_wall models was 0.6761 ± 0.3406 N/mm ² and 0.4905 ± 0.0850 N/mm ² respectively. In 4
33	out of 8 patients the Uni_wall underestimated stress by as much as 55%; in the remaining
34	cases it overestimated stress by up to 40%. Rupture risk more than doubled in 3 out of 8
35	patients when PS_wall was considered. Wall thickness influenced the location and magnitude
36	of PWS as well as its correlation with curvature. Furthermore, the volume of the AAA under
37	elevated stress increased significantly in AAAs with higher rupture risk indices. This
38	highlights the sensitivity of standard rupture risk markers to the specific wall thickness
39	strategy employed.

41 KEYWORDS: Abdominal aortic aneurysms; finite element analysis; patient-specific
42 modelling; patient-specific wall thickness; rupture risk

1. INTRODUCTION

49	Abdominal aortic aneurysms (AAAs) are typically characterised by a large dilation of the
50	aorta below the renal arteries. Each year over 10,000 deaths in the UK are attributed to
51	rupture of AAAs [1]. Rupture occurs when the stress at any point in the wall exceeds its
52	strength. Surgical repair is typically considered for asymptomatic aneurysms, when the
53	maximum diameter passes 55mm, or the growth rate exceeds 10mm/year [2]. However,
54	intervention also carries a risk (approximately 2.5%) of mortality [1]. Furthermore, ruptured
55	aneurysms with maximum diameters below the 55mm threshold account for 10 - 24% of all
56	cases [3-5], conversely 60% of AAAs above 55mm never rupture [6]. This indicates that
57	maximum diameter criterion alone is not able to discern all cases which require intervention.
58	Several techniques have been suggested to complement the maximum diameter criterion;
59	AAA wall stress predicted using computational models [7-13], AAA growth rate [14, 15],
60	rupture risk indices [16-18], integrity of thrombus [19], geometrical factors (e.g. growth,
61	asymmetry) [20-23].
62	A number of computational studies [24], have suggested that peak wall stress (PWS) derived
63	from finite element (FE) models has the ability to assess rupture risk more accurately than
64	existing clinical indices. However, the accuracy of such predictions relies on realistic physical
65	representation of the system they are modelling [25]. Ideally a number of physical factors
66	must be known for the individual patient including a clear definition of the aneurysm
67	geometry, its material properties, the manner in which it interacts with other bodily structures,
68	and the internal/external forces acting on the aneurysm. Early computational models often
69	employed straight tubes with symmetrical central dilations or asymmetric bulges to act as
70	aneurysm analogues [21, 22]. Due to the proliferation of high powered desktop computing
71	and advances in three-dimensional imaging techniques, it is now possible to generate highly

72	accurate virtual reconstructions of patient-specific (PS) aneurysms from medical imaging data
73	[26] acquired using modalities such as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance
74	imaging (MRI). However, one particularly challenging aspect of the reconstruction process
75	for AAAs is accurate determination of the vessel wall.
76	At present, it is currently not possible to determine the wall-thrombus interface explicitly
77	from CT with existing scanners, though recent developments in multimodal imaging may
78	overcome this issue in the future [27], as a consequence virtually all early computational
79	studies of AAAs have assumed a uniform wall thickness of 1.9mm e.g. [28]. However, from
80	previous studies [29-31] it is known that aortic wall thickness varies considerably from region
81	to region within the same patient, and across different patients. Therefore, the assumption of a
82	uniform wall may not be adequate when attempting to characterise the response of the
83	aneurysm. As such, this is regarded as a serious limitation of current patient-specific
84	modelling studies [32], yet only a handful of studies have attempted to address its effects [7,
85	9-11, 13, 21, 28, 33-38].
86	This study aims to assess the importance of patient-specific wall thickness, derived directly
87	from high resolution CT scans, in a small population of aneurysms which lacked thrombus,
88	while also testing the validity of the widely applied uniform wall assumption and its impact
89	on predicted clinical outcomes.
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2. METHODS

97 2.1 Patient selection and imaging

98	Computed tomography (CT) scans of 350 individual patients undergoing AAA surveillance,
99	were selected from the MA ³ RS clinical trial database [39] for reconstruction. Patients
100	underwent both magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and CT scanning as part of the trial. In
101	each instance CT scanning of the aorta was performed from just below the thoracic arch to
102	below the iliac bifurcation (Aquilion One, Toshiba Medical Systems Ltd, UK). The slice
103	thickness was 0.5mm, with a pixel size of 0.625mm.
104	The majority of AAAs (75%) tend to have thrombus [10], this can cause great difficulty
105	during the reconstruction phase due to the poor contrast between thrombus and adjacent wall
106	structures, as can be seen in the last panel of Fig. 1a. Therefore, to allow reconstruction of
107	wall thickness direct from the CT scan the selection criteria for the current study was based on
108	the total absence of intraluminal thrombus, in such instances only the lumen and wall are
109	visible directly on the CT scan (Fig. 1b), meaning patient-specific wall geometry can be easily
110	extracted using basic segmentation tools.
111	In this study, the absence of thrombus was verified by a qualified cardiovascular surgeon on
112	MRI scans of each patient. After exclusion only 10 patients remained, of these 10 only 8
113	patients had a corresponding CT available for reconstruction (7 male and 1 female). All
114	AAAs were infrarenal, with the main sac approximately located between the L4 and L2
115	vertebrae. The mean patient age was 76 years ($64 - 83$ years) and the mean maximum
116	diameter from ultrasound was 46mm (36 – 59mm), individual patient details for all 8 patients
117	investigated are presented in Table 1.
118	

119

120 2.2 Three-dimensional reconstruction and meshing

121 Segmentation and reconstruction of each patient-specific AAA was carried out with 122 commercial software (Mimics innovation suite, Materialise, Belgium) and followed the 123 general workflow presented in Fig. 2. The luminal region was segmented automatically using 124 a thresholding approach, and the outer wall was segmented in a semi-automatic manner using 125 a 3D live wires approach with manual correction of the wall contours on certain slices where 126 the outer boundary was ambiguous (e.g. close to the duodenum). Given that there was 127 physically no thrombus in these selected patient, a true patient-specific wall thickness 128 (PS wall) was then obtained as the difference between the contrast enhanced lumen and the 129 outer wall, without any need for incorporation of complex "black box" wall thickness 130 estimation algorithms. For comparison a uniform wall thickness version (Uni wall) of each 131 AAA was also reconstructed, this approach involved merely offsetting the luminal surface 132 outward in the radial direction by a fixed distance, 1.9mm [28], thereby creating an aneurysm 133 with a constant uniform wall thickness. 134 In all cases, for both wall types (PS wall and Uni wall), volume preserving smoothing was 135 performed to remove scanning artefacts and tetrahedral volume meshing operations were 136 performed in 3-matic (Materialise). It is important to note that, for each patient both model 137 variations (PS wall and Uni wall) retained identical luminal surfaces, furthermore, both were 138 identically clipped to allow comparison of the exact same regions of interest. Final FE meshes

139 were exported to Abaqus (Abaqus 6.10-1, Dassault Systemes, Simulia, Providence, RI, USA)140 for analysis.

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143

144 2.3 Material definition

145 In the present study the aortic wall was modelled as non-linear, hyperelastic, and 146 incompressible, with the same properties used to represent the behaviour of both uniform and 147 patient-specific walls. Determination of patient-specific aortic wall mechanical properties is 148 essential in accurately assessing the rupture risk of any AAA; however, at present this is not 149 possible by non-invasive means. Through the experimental data of 69 AAA specimens, Raghavan and Vorp [28] characterised the diseased aortic wall by means of a 2nd order 150 reduced polynomial strain energy density function $W = \alpha (IB - 3) + \beta (IB - 3)^2$, where 151 W is the strain energy density function, α and β are material parameters for the wall, and IB is 152 153 the first invariant of the left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor (B). This relationship has since 154 become the *de facto* method for representing the material behaviour of aneurysm tissue [7-13] 155 in the absence of patient-specific mechanical properties. The coefficients of the strain energy 156 density function (α and β), selected for the present study, were based on the population mean values ($\alpha = 0.171$ N/mm², and $\beta = 1.881$ N/mm²) proposed previously [28]. 157

158

159 2.4 Finite element analysis model definitions

160 To remove any variability due to loading, and to allow for comparison across patient cases, a

161 peak systolic blood pressure of 120 mm Hg (0.016 N/mm²) was applied as an outward facing

162 uniformly distributed pressure load acting on the luminal surface of the aneurysm, as in many

- 163 previous studies [9, 16, 22]. The effect of wall shear stress due to blood flow was not
- 164 considered due to its negligible magnitude [40].

165 Residual stresses in the aortic wall, and the interaction of the aorta with the surrounding

- 166 structures of the body (e.g. organs and spine), were also not considered, however,
- 167 displacements at the distal and proximal most regions of each aneurysm were restrained, in all

168	degrees of freedom, to model attachment of the AAA to the rest of the aorta.
169	Each AAA volume mesh typically consisted of > 160,000 (C3D10H) elements. Based on
170	convergence studies the maximum allowable element edge length was set to 1.5mm. All
171	simulations were computed on a Dell Precision T7600 work station with 16 cores and 64GB
172	of ram, with typical simulation runtimes of $< 2hrs$ (depending on simulation size). The
173	resulting contour plots of von Mises stress and the location of PWS were output for all
174	analyses.
175	
176	2.5 Geometrical analysis
177	Triangular surface meshes representing the inner and outer aortic walls were extracted from
178	the volumetric mesh, together with values of wall stress defined at each node. The Vascular
179	Modelling Toolkit (VMTK) [41, 42] was then used to compute additional variables:
180	1. Aneurysm size, defined as the maximum diameter orthogonal to the centreline.
181	2. Wall thickness, defined as the local distance between the inner and outer wall.
182	3. Curvature, defined as the local Gaussian curvature of the outer wall.
183	4. Wall strength, estimated with the empirically determined relationship in [43]
184	5. Rupture potential index (RPI), defined as the local wall stress divided by the local wall
185	strength.
186	
187	2.6 Rupture risk calculation
188	Failure occurs when the stress in a system exceeds its strength, at any given point. To
189	calculate the risk of failure requires knowledge of the stresses in the system and the precise
190	strength of the material it is constructed from. In this study, wall strength for each individual

191 AAA was estimated using an empirically determined relationship [43], risk of rupture was

192	then assessed using the Rupture Potential Index (RPI) [17] which is defined as the local wall
193	stress divided by the local wall strength. The returned index then indicates the potential
194	likelihood of rupture occurring, where values close to 0 indicate a relatively low risk and
195	values approaching 1 indicate a very high risk of rupture.
196	
197	3. RESULTS
198	Maximum diameter as measured orthogonal to the centreline of each reconstructed AAA was
199	recorded and compared to the clinically accepted ultrasound (US) derived maximum
200	diameter (Table 2). The mean difference in measurements between these two modalities was
201	6.4mm. In all but one case (patient 5) maximum diameter predictions based on CT
202	reconstructions were considerably higher than US predictions.
203	The mean wall thickness, in the region of interest (the aneurysm sac), across all PS_wall
204	models was 1.77 mm ± 0.42 mm. For visualisation purposes, the local variations in wall
205	thickness over the entire aneurysm for each AAA considered (for both Uni_wall and PS_wall
206	models) can be seen in Fig. 3, where blue regions indicate a thickness in the range of 0 -
207	2mm, grey regions indicate a value close to 2mm, and red regions indicate a value in the
208	range of 2 - 4mm. From the Figure it can be seen that, there is no variation in the Uni_wall
209	thickness models (1.9mm) indicated by the constant grey colour over the entire surface. In
210	comparison, each of the PS_wall cases exhibited a large amount of variation in thickness (e.g.
211	Patient 7) with alternating regions of thick and thin wall (as indicated by blue and red
212	contours respectively). Table 3 presents more quantitative information on the range of wall
213	thickness values recorded at the aneurysm sac for each AAA.
214	The peak wall stress (PWS) for Uni_wall models was 0.4905 N/mm ² ($0.3495 - 0.5676$
215	N/mm ²), for PS_wall models mean PWS was 0.6761 N/mm ² ($0.2502 - 1.1305$ N/mm ²). From

216 the contour plots of stress (Fig. 4), it can be seen that in 4 out of 8 cases the assumption of a 217 uniform wall leads to an underestimation of PWS, as a result of an artificially thickened aortic 218 wall in key regions. On the other hand, in the 4 remaining cases this same assumption led to 219 an overestimation of PWS, due to the patient-specific wall being much thicker than the 220 assumed 1.9mm uniform wall. In all cases, the distribution of stress was found to be highly 221 influenced by local variations in wall thickness. Table 3 summarises the peak wall stress 222 found for each model and the percentage change in stress due to wall thickness. The 223 accompanying pie charts (Fig. 5) show the approximate region of the aneurysm in which the 224 PWS was observed, where the symbols correspond to a particular patient number as indicated 225 in Table 3. The majority of PWS was observed to occur posteriorly for the Uni wall cases 226 [4]. Interestingly, for the PS wall cases, the majority occurred in the anterior region, as 227 indicated by the change in location of PWS for 4 out of 8 patients between wall types (Fig. 5a 228 and Fig. 5b).

229 To further characterise the impact of wall geometry on stress distribution, the volume of the aneurysm which experienced stress > 0.5 N/mm² was recorded for both wall types (Fig. 6a). 230 231 this value was then characterised as a percentage of the total volume of the aneurysm (Fig. 232 6b). From the Figures, it is clear that there is a significant increase in the overall volume of 233 the aneurysm subject to elevated stress in patients 1 - 4 when patient-specific thickness is 234 incorporated into these models. In cases where the value of PWS was quite similar (e.g. 235 patients 5-8), little difference was observed in the volume of the aneurysm subjected to 236 elevated stress regardless of wall type used.

The outer surface curvature (Gaussian curvature) of each aneurysm, for both wall types, was
also investigated in this study and is presented in Fig. 7. Positive curvature is indicated by red
regions and negative curvature is indicated by blue regions. In all cases, outer surface

240	curvature was found to be quite similar for both wall types, with the AAA sac being
241	characterised by high positive curvature, and the transition zones (shoulder region and above
242	iliac bifurcation) being characterised by high negative curvature. Only minor differences were
243	observed in surface curvature, due to local surface features present in the PS_wall cases.
244	The rupture risk of each AAA was assessed in this study using the rupture potential index
245	(RPI). Three-dimensional contour plots of RPI are presented for each AAA in Fig. 8. It can be
246	seen by comparing Fig. 8 and Fig. 4 that areas of increased rupture risk co-locate with regions
247	of high stress. It can also be seen that both Uni_wall and PS_wall variations having very
248	different distributions of RPI. By examining the maximum RPI for each AAA it can be seen
249	that wall type has a significant impact on the perceived risk of aneurysm rupture (Fig. 9),
250	particularly in patients 1, 2, and 4 where rupture risk more than doubled after incorporation of
251	PS wall thickness. In Patients 3, 6 and 8, patient-specific geometry only led to a marginal
252	increase in rupture risk, while in Patients 5 and 7 a slight reduction in maximum rupture risk
253	was observed.
254	
255	4. DISCUSSION
256	This study aimed to assess the importance of wall thickness in a small population $(n = 8)$ of
257	abdominal aortic aneurysms (AAAs) which physically lacked intraluminal thrombus. This
258	was achieved by comparing patient-specific and uniform wall thickness models of each
259	individual aneurysm investigated. The influence of wall thickness on clinically relevant
260	markers such as AAA curvature, peak wall stress (PWS) and rupture risk index (RPI) was
261	then assessed.
262	A small number of previous studies have attempted to discern the role of wall thickness in
263	PWS and rupture risk predictions [7, 9-11, 13, 21, 28, 33-38]. In their rupture risk equation,

264	Li and Kleinstreuer [34] introduced an approximation of PS wall thickness using a curve-
265	fitted correlation, however, their simplified approach is unable to deal with areas of extreme
266	curvature/angulation. Studies by Raghavan et al. [28], Wang et al. [10], and
267	Venkatasubramaniam et al. [13] detailed models which varied in thickness in the radial
268	direction (only) based on patient-specific measurements from CT, yet each model still
269	maintained a uniform cross-section. Work by Scotti et al. [21, 37] improved on this by
270	varying thickness in both the radial and axial directions, however, at any given cross-section
271	the thickness remained constant around the circumference. A more recent study by Gasser et
272	al. [33], implemented a smart algorithm which varied the AAA wall thickness between 1.5
273	mm (at thrombus-free) and 1.13 mm (at covered sites), in effect approximating a
274	physiological type wall thickness based on the amount of thrombus adjacent to the wall at a
275	given location. Nevertheless, in the absence of thrombus, this method would again result in a
276	uniform wall thickness being applied. As a result, these methods do not fully characterise the
277	significant local variations in thickness which may be encountered due to the heterogeneity of
278	the aneurysm wall [29, 30]. It wasn't until the work of Shum et al. [38] that a physiologically
279	representative method was developed for estimating patient-specific wall thickness based on
280	manually trained neural networks and features extracted from the CT images, thus meaning a
281	thickness could vary in the axial, radial and circumferential directions. Their method has
282	formed the basis of several later studies e.g. [11, 36]. Similarly Shang et al. [7] employed a
283	series of custom algorithms to extrapolate a "patient-specific" variable wall geometry from
284	CT data, based on the grayscale intensity values of individual pixels. However, such methods
285	remain open to ambiguity as to what constitutes wall and thrombus in such a highly
286	heterogeneous structure. Any misidentification of these structures at input could significantly
287	alter the estimated wall thickness and as a result the projected clinical outcomes. In this study

288	no such algorithms were applied, instead wall thickness was obtained directly from CT
289	through careful selection of patient type. As wall thickness was free to vary in line with the
290	CT images this allowed for non-uniformity to occur in all directions, and fine local features
291	(e.g. very thick and extremely thin) to be resolved, as can be seen in Fig. 3. An aspect not
292	typically accounted for by "black box" wall estimation algorithms; as such features may be
293	obscured by the presence of intraluminal thrombus on the CT images or because they don't fit
294	within the minimum specified parameters for wall thickness often employed in such
295	estimation algorithms.
296	The current gold standard for AAA assessment is the 55mm maximum diameter criterion. In
297	this study, maximum diameter values were extracted from the CT based models and
298	compared to the clinically obtained US measurements, as was shown in Table 2, these values
299	varied considerably (-1mm to 12mm). Only some of this error in measurement could be
300	attributed to differences in measurement plane taken, e.g. anterior-posterior measurement vs.
301	maximal measurement in any other direction [35].
302	Based on the maximum diameter criterion (55mm) only Patients 3 and 7, from the current
303	study, would be prioritised for surgery according to the ultrasound measurements, whereas the
304	CT based diameter measurements identify an additional case over the 55mm threshold
305	(Patient 1). Furthermore, CT measurements highlight two more cases very close to the
306	threshold for intervention (Patients 4 and 8). These points underscore the unsuitability of the
307	current diameter based intervention criterion and support the need for an improved marker for
308	AAA rupture risk.
309	Peak wall stress (PWS) has been shown to be an improved marker of rupture risk, when
310	compared with the traditional maximum diameter measurement [24]. In this study, the inter-
311	patient variability in terms of both location (Fig. 5a) and magnitude of PWS ($\sigma_{mean} = 0.4905 \pm$

0.0850N/mm²) was found to be very low in uniform wall thickness (Uni wall) models, with 312 313 PWS predominately located in the posterior region, additionally the range of PWS observed 314 in the Uni wall models was consistent with many previous studies [8, 44]. In contrast, 315 significantly higher values of PWS (by as much as 55%) were observed in half of the patients 316 investigated after incorporation of patient-specific (PS) wall thickness. A similar observation 317 was reported by Shang et al. [7] though to a lesser degree (10 - 12%) increase in PWS), 318 possibly due to the presence of thrombus in the patients recruited in their study. In the present 319 study, all patients lack this protective buffer and as a consequence are subject to much higher 320 stresses [18, 25]. Furthermore, the inter-patient variability in the location (Fig. 5b) and magnitude of PWS ($\sigma_{mean} = 0.6761 \pm 0.3410$ N/mm²) in PS_wall models was found to be quite 321 322 high in comparison to the Uni wall models. These findings highlight how the uniform wall 323 assumption may obscure important clinically relevant information through artificial 324 thickening of the aneurysm wall, thus removing locally thinned regions and biasing PWS 325 locations and magnitudes. In addition, contrary to previously reported findings [9, 37, 45], 326 wall thickness was also observed to influence the distribution of stress within the wall of the 327 aneurysm. In particular, dramatic changes in wall stress distribution were observed, between 328 the two wall types, where excessive thinning or thickening of the aortic wall occurred locally. 329 It has been shown previously, that a reduction or change in wall thickness can lead to an 330 increase in PWS [11, 13, 21, 28, 37], what has not been discussed is the impact that these 331 changes may have on the volume over which this elevated stress acts. In the present study, the volume of stress > 0.5 N/mm² in each AAA was investigated (Fig. 6a) and expressed as a 332 333 percentage of the total AAA volume (Fig. 6b). These results highlight a dramatic difference 334 in terms of the proportion of the aneurysm under elevated stress, with patients 1-4335 experiencing significant increases in volume when PS wall thickness is considered over

336 uniform wall thickness. This fact is of importance as rupture occurs when the wall stress 337 exceeds the wall strength, which may not necessarily be at the location of PWS, while the 338 wall stress may be high in a locally thinned region this may be counterbalanced by a high wall 339 strength [16], on the other hand a relatively thick section of wall may have a much lower wall 340 strength [18, 31, 45] and therefore fail at a much lower value of wall stress. Consequently, 341 aneurysms with elevated stress acting over a larger volume may have an increased risk of 342 rupturing at these secondary locations (e.g. locations not associated with peak stress). 343 Previous studies have suggested a link between curvature and wall stress [46]. In this study, 344 the wall type (Uni wall or PS wall) was found to have minimal impact on curvature itself, 345 with little variation observed between wall types. However, wall thickness was observed to 346 have a dominant influence on correlations of curvature with wall stress. By comparing 347 curvature (Fig. 7) with the contour plots of stress presented in Fig. 4 it can be seen that 348 negative curvature co-located with regions of increased stress (i.e. at inflection points), in the 349 Uni wall cases. However, when patient-specific wall thickness was considered the correlation 350 between curvature and stress was less clear, with high stress found to co-locate with a mixture 351 of negative and positive curvature (e.g. Patients 3, 4 and 7). 352 The rupture potential index (RPI), established by Vande Geest et al. [17] returns an estimate 353 of rupture risk based on the wall stress predicted by FE and the wall strength obtained using a 354 mathematical model which incorporates geometric and patient information to approximate the 355 distribution of strength in the wall for a given aneurysm. Values close to 0 indicate a 356 relatively low risk of rupture, whereas values close to 1 indicate an increased risk of rupture.

357 In the present study, RPI was used as a means to investigate the implications of PS wall

thickness on rupture risk in a more quantifiable manner. Wall thickness was observed to have

a profound impact on the predicted rupture risk for certain patients (Patients 1 - 4), as shown

360 in Fig. 9. Moving from a Uni wall to a PS wall in some instances (Patients 1, 2, and 4) more 361 than doubled the likelihood of rupture occurring. It is important to note that, under the 362 uniform wall assumption these cases would have been dismissed as borderline, while in 363 reality they are high risk, as indicated by a RPI values in excess of 0.5. Interestingly these 364 particular cases (Patients 1, 2, and 4) all have maximum diameters below the 55mm criterion 365 used clinically to discern at risk aneurysms. Conversely, some of the lowest reported RPI 366 values occurred in patients with large AAAs (patients 7 and 8). Of the previous studies which 367 incorporated some form of variable wall thickness [7, 13, 21, 28, 36, 37] only one such study 368 investigated rupture risk [36]. In their study Martufi and colleagues examined the RPI of a 369 single patient-specific AAA with a variable wall thickness, and found that rupture risk was 370 distributed in a complex manner across the aneurysm (similar to the findings of this 371 study). However, the influence of wall thickness on predicted RPI was not assessed in their 372 study as no direct comparison of RPI with a uniform wall thickness model was presented. 373 The present study has focussed on patients with aneurysms which physically lacked thrombus 374 formations. Nevertheless, it is recognised that the majority of aneurysm encountered clinically 375 do have some degree of thrombus [7], the influence of wall thickness under such 376 circumstances is still significant, however, in comparison to the findings of the present study 377 its influence is much reduced. It is therefore suggested that, PS wall thickness may be more 378 influential in patients who lack thrombus. 379 In this study, all AAAs were modelled as isotropic, non-linear, hyperelastic, and 380 incompressible. In reality, the aorta is highly anisotropic; however, the assumption of isotropy 381 is considered valid in AAAs, where the wall tissue is fibrous [47]. Similarly, a lack of 382 information regarding patient-specific wall strength necessitated the use of a mathematical 383 model for strength estimation [43], which takes into account clinically relevant variables such

384	as thrombus thickness, aorta dilation, family history, and sex. However, as the 8 patients in
385	this study are thrombus free, the estimated strength varies predominately with local AAA wall
386	dilation, and global factors such as sex and family history. This leads to a very uniform
387	distribution of strength around the circumference of the sac (see supplementary text).
388	Realistically, strength properties may vary considerably in different regions (e.g.
389	anterior/posterior) of the aneurysm [31, 47, 48]. Additionally, cyclical fatigue failure may also
390	cause AAA structures to fail at much lower values of stress [49] in vivo, than presented in
391	these static analyses.
392	In this study, loading consisted of a uniformly distributed static pressure applied to the
393	luminal surface of each AAA. In the aorta, the pressure on the wall is dynamic and changes
394	throughout the cardiac cycle, and as a result of flow instabilities. This could lead to a non-
395	uniform distribution of pressure and as a consequence, a very different distribution of stress
396	than observed in the current study. However, previous studies have shown that while overall
397	distribution of stress changes, the actual influence on PWS is less than 4% [37, 40, 50].
398	Other factors such as inclusion of: pre-stressing [25], calcification [51-53], spinal contact and
399	soft tissue constraints [54, 55], also play a role in altering the mechanical environment in the
400	AAA and may need to be considered depending on the application of the model.
401	While these limitations are important from the perspective of precision in rupture risk
402	prediction for a given patient, they are unlikely to influence the overall outcomes relating to
403	wall thickness presented in this work due to the comparative nature of the study.
404	
405	4.1 Conclusions

406 This study has highlighted the impact of one possible source of variation, patient-specific vs.

407 uniform aneurysm wall thickness, which has the potential to seriously affect predicted clinical

408 outcomes.

409 The findings of this study have shown that incorporation of PS wall thickness dramatically 410 influences; the overall distribution of stress, its correlation with curvature, the location and 411 magnitude of peak wall stress (PWS), the volume of the AAA wall under elevated stress, and 412 the calculated rupture risk index for each AAA. Uniform wall thickness, has been found to be 413 inadequate when investigating outcomes in patients with no intraluminal thrombus, as the 414 uniform wall removed key local geometrical features (e.g. very thick and very thin regions of 415 wall), which have a significant influence on risk estimation. This highlights the sensitivity of 416 standard rupture risk markers to the specific wall thickness strategy employed. 417 Furthermore, this study represents a key first step in establishing a set of ground truth models 418 with which to verify and validate the output of wall thickness estimation algorithms, and in 419 the future, wall thickness measurements obtained from multimodal image reconstructions, 420 paving the way for studies which incorporate such techniques to assess true patient-specific 421 wall thickness in a wider selection of patients with intraluminal thrombus formations. 422 423 5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS 424 The authors would like to acknowledge Scott I. Semple, Tom J. MacGillivray, and Julian 425 Sparrow of the Clinical Research Imaging Centre, Edinburgh for maintaining and facilitating 426 access to the medical imaging data from the MA3RS clinical trial. 427 428 429 430 431 432 433

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7. LEGEND TO FIGURES

603	Figure 1: Comparison of two AAAs one with intraluminal thrombus (a) and one without (b).
604	The blue line in the top panel indicates the location of the cross-sectional slices presented for
605	each AAA (middle panel). The bottom panel then presents a zoomed in view of each cross-
606	sectional slice.
607 608	Figure 2: Model generation workflow outlining the major steps required to convert medical
609	scan data into patient-specific finite element models of abdominal aortic aneurysms.
610 611	Figure 3: Contour plots of wall thickness distribution for both Uniform (left) and Patient-
612	specific (right) cases.
613 614	Figure 4: Contour plots showing the magnitude and distribution of wall stress (von Mises) for
615	both Uniform (left) and Patient-specific (right) wall thickness cases.
616 617	Figure 5: Charts showing the approximate location of PWS for a) the uniform wall, and b) PS
618	wall models.
619 620	Figure 6: Charts showing a) volume of the AAA which experiences stress above 0.5 N/mm ² ,
621	and b) this volume expressed as a percentage of the total AAA volume.
622 623	Figure 7: Comparison of outer wall curvature for both Uniform (left) and Patient-specific
624	(right) wall thickness cases.
625 626	Figure 8: Comparison of outer wall RPI for both Uniform (left) and Patient-specific (right)
627	wall thickness cases.
628 629	Figure 9: Graph showing calculated maximum rupture risk index for both wall types using the
630	RPI method, for all patients investigated. The dashed black line represents the point after
631	which risk of rupture increases significantly.
632	

633 Table 1: Patient details for each of the reconstructed aneurysms. Strength estimation relies634 on knowledge of patient family history of AAAs, where this information was unavailable a

Patient	Age	Gender	Family	Diameter from	AAA
			History	US (mm)	Туре
1	83	Male	No	44	Fusiform
2	80	Male	Yes	40	Fusiform
3	81	Male	No	59	Fusiform
4	82	Female	No	44	Fusiform
5	70	Male	No	41	Saccular
6	64	Male	Yes*	36	Saccular
7	65	Male	No	59	Fusiform
8	81	Male	No	47	Fusiform

 Table 2: Comparison of clinically accepted maximum diameter measurements from

Г

Patient	Diame	Difference		
number	From US	From CT	(mm)	
1	44	56	12	
2	40	47	7	
3	59	64	5	
4	44	53	9	
5	41	40	-1	
6	36	43	7	
7	59	66	7	
8	47	52	5	

ultrasound, with maximum diameter measurements from CT reconstructions of each patient.

Table 3: Highlights the difference in wall thickness observed between wall types and the
 corresponding PWS for each patient investigated.

Patient ID	Chart Symbol	Uni	PS	Wall thickness	PWS	% change
	(Fig. 5)	wall	wall	(mm)	(N/mm ²)	in PWS
1	0	Х		1.9	0.5676	-43.42
			X	1.35 - 2.01	1.0031	
2		X		1.9	0.5133	-54.60
			Х	1.33 - 2.45	1.1305	
3	~	X		1.9	0.5181	-32.99
	235		X	0.96 - 1.64	0.7732	
4		Х		1.9	0.5622	-43.34
	6		X	0.90 - 1.39	0.9923	
5		X		1.9	0.4109	4.18
	\diamond		X	1.31 – 1.96	0.3944	
6		X		1.9	0.3495	39.69
			X	2.01 - 2.77	0.2502	
7	Δ	X		1.9	0.5042	14.67
			X	1.66 - 2.68	0.5039	
8		Х		1.9	0.4244	17.42
			X	1.67 - 2.19	0.36144	























–0.003 0.000 0.003 curvature_(1/mm)



