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The risk of loosening of extramedullary fracture fixation devices

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1 The risk of loosening of extramedullary fracture fixation 2 devices

3

4 **Abstract**

5

6 Extramedullary devices that use screws, pins or wires are used extensively to treat
7 fractures in normal and diseased bone. A common failure mode is implant loosening
8 at the bone-screw/pin/wire interface before fracture healing occurs. This review first
9 considers the fundamental mechanics of the bone-fixator construct with focus on
10 interfacial strains that result in loosening. It then evaluates the time-independent and
11 time-dependent material models of bone that have been used to simulate and predict
12 loosening. It is shown that the recently developed time-dependent models are
13 capable of predicting loosening due to cyclic loads in bone of varying quality.

14

15 **Key words:** locking plates; unilateral fixators; ring fixators; time-dependent
16 behaviour; cyclic loading; inter-fragmentary motion; plasticity and viscoplasticity

17

18 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

19 **1 Introduction**

20

21 Extramedullary devices that use screws, pins or wires are used extensively to treat
22 fractures in normal and diseased bone. These devices carry most of the load,
23 particularly in cases where there is a fracture gap, before callus formation occurs.

24 The load is transmitted from the bone-screw/pin/wire interface to the plate or an
25 external frame. It has been well documented that these devices need to fulfil three
26 clinical requirements [1,2]: (a) they must support fracture healing; (b) they must not
27 fail during the healing period; and (c) they should not loosen or cause patient
28 discomfort. Requirement (a) depends on the stiffness of the bone fixator construct
29 and the load applied by the patient, which determine the relative movement between
30 fractured fragments or interfragmentary motion (IFM). Requirement (b) relates to
31 stresses within the implant and potential failure before healing occurs. Strains at the
32 bone-screw/pin/wire interface should not be too high to ensure that requirement (c) is
33 met.

34

35 There have been a number of studies that have considered requirements (a) and (b)
36 [3–10] and shown that fulfilment of these depends on factors such as fracture
37 location, device used and its configuration (e.g. where the screws are placed in a
38 locking plate or how much tension is applied to the wires in ring fixators).

39 Interestingly it has been found that device stiffness (or resulting IFM) and stresses
40 within the device are not strongly effected by bone quality [3–5,11]. In other words, if
41 the aim of a biomechanical study is to determine IFM alone then bone quality does
42 not have a significant role to play. Whereas, loosening at the bone-implant interface
43 strongly depends on bone quality in addition to the factors that influence IFM [3,4].

44 Loosening is reported frequently as a complication in implant usage and some
45 previous studies have noted that mechanical forces initiate it before any contribution
46 from biological processes [12]. Since biomechanical prediction of loosening requires
47 modelling the complex bone material, it is much more complicated; consequently,
48 influence of bone properties to examine mechanical environment at interface has
49 received relatively little attention [3,4,11].

50

51 The first aim of this review is to present the fundamental mechanics of the bone-
52 fixator construct with focus on interfacial strains that result in loosening. The second
53 aim is to consider the constitutive material models of bone used to predict loosening,
54 in particular recently developed novel time-dependent models that are capable of
55 predicting loosening due to cyclic loads [13–15]. While most discussion presented is
56 in the context of extramedullary devices such as locking plates, unilateral fixators
57 and Ilizarov rings, many of the concepts presented are equally applicable to other
58 fixation devices.

59

60 **2 The mechanics of extramedullary devices**

61 **2.1 Interfragmentary motion and stresses in the implant**

62

63 We first consider the mechanics of extramedullary devices. Figure 1a shows a bone-
64 locking plate construct, the mechanics of which is not too dissimilar to unilateral
65 fixators. A number of biomechanical responses arise due to the application of load P
66 (due to partial or full load bearing by the patient). Firstly load bearing causes
67 interfragmentary motion (IFM) between the fractured fragments (Figure 1b) which is
68 known to aid callus formation [16,17] – too much or too little inhibits fracture healing
69 [2]. IFM can vary across the thickness of the bone; for example from Figure 1a and

70 1b it can be seen that the largest IFM is at the far cortex and given by $x-x'$. Secondly
71 the plate and screws experience bending causing stresses within the implant. The
72 amount of bending and IFM depend on factors such as dimensions and materials of
73 the locking plate, bone-plate offset, load applied and the manner in which bone
74 experiences load and screw configuration particularly the working length (also known
75 as the bridging span and defined as the distance between the two innermost screws
76 on either side of the fracture). In cases with a fracture gap, higher working length
77 results in larger plate stresses (primarily in the plate portion bridging the fracture)
78 and larger IFM [2,4]. Some studies have incorrectly reported larger stresses with
79 shorter working lengths [18], but the reasons for this erroneous interpretation have
80 been discussed in Macleod and Pankaj [2]. Plate bending also results in pull-out and
81 push-in forces as shown in Figure 1b; these have been previously discussed in the
82 context of unilateral fixators [11]. As the applied load increases the lever arm d
83 (Figure 1a) increases to $\Delta > d$ (Figure 1b) which increases the bending forces even
84 further. In engineering mechanics this is often referred to as $P - \Delta$ effect and causes
85 the relationship between load and IFM to become nonlinear [19]. Nonlinear load-
86 displacement behaviour also arises in Ilizarov fixators (Figure 2a) due to sagging
87 wires [3]. Studies on locking plates [4], unilateral fixators [5,11] and Ilizarov fixators
88 [3] have shown that bone quality has a relatively small influence on IFM and implant
89 stresses.

90

91 **2.2 The mechanics of loosening**

92

93 Let us now consider strains at the bone-screw interface due to forces along the axis
94 of the bone (as shown in Figures 1a and 2a); these strains are responsible for
95 loosening, which is the primary focus of this review. It is important to note that we

96 deliberately employ the response parameter strain rather than stress for three
97 reasons. Firstly it is now well recognised that bone fails due to strain rather than
98 stress [20]. Secondly, failure strain does not vary significantly with bone quality or its
99 anisotropy (this is further discussed later in this review). Lastly, while stresses have
100 peak values beyond which they cannot rise due to yielding/failure, strains can
101 continue to increase. Typical large strain regions for locking plates are shown in
102 Figure 1c and for Ilizarov fixators in Figure 2b. It has been shown that the maximum
103 bone strains at the interface of the screw/pin/wire closest to the fracture (e.g. screws
104 2 and 3 rather than screws 1 and 4 in Figure 1a) [3–5,11,21]. For locking plates and
105 unilateral fixators the strains are the largest at the periosteum of the near cortex and
106 progress towards the endosteum with increasing load [11]. The volume of bone that
107 goes beyond the yield level increases considerably with poor bone quality [3,11]. The
108 pattern of bone yielding is different between unilateral and Ilizarov fixators. For
109 unilateral fixators and locking plates bone yielding can progress through the full
110 cortex as shown in Figure 1c for screw 2, where bone superior to the screw
111 experiences large strains. If the depth of yielded bone is greater than thread height,
112 then loosening can be initiated due to loss of screw thread purchase. For Ilizarov
113 fixators, on the other hand, bone yield remains concentrated separately at the
114 periosteum and endosteum, superior and inferior to the wire, respectively [3] as
115 shown in Figure 2b. This is a possible reason for Ilizarov wires being associated with
116 lower rates of loosening than half pins [22,23].

117

118 It has also been shown that reduced stiffness (or increased flexibility) of the bone
119 fixator construct, which increases IFM, also results in larger interfacial strains
120 [3,4,11]. Flexibility can be increased by using materials with lower elastic modulus

121 (e.g. titanium rather than steel), smaller plate or screw dimensions, larger working
122 length or in case of Ilizarov fixators smaller wire tensions. So flexibility is detrimental
123 from the point of view of large strains at the interface but it may result in an IFM that
124 causes faster healing before any ill effects of high interfacial strains come to the fore.
125 Thus need for maintaining adequate IFM needs to be balanced with the risk of
126 loosening. It is also important to note that compressive and tensile strains often
127 occur simultaneously as shown in Figure 1d for the near cortex of screw 2. In this
128 case compressive strains due to screw pushing up in the radial direction are
129 accompanied by tensile strains in the circumferential direction due to screw hole
130 being enlarged.

131 Figure 1

132 It is also important to note that drilling (prior to screw insertion) causes interfacial
133 damage which has been estimated to extend up to 300 μm around the circumference
134 [24]. Moreover, large interfacial strains also result from an interference fit when the
135 drilled pilot hole has a smaller diameter than the screw being inserted [19].

136 Figure 2

137 Push-in and pull-out forces discussed in the context of unilateral fixators and locking
138 plates can cause loosening which is resisted by screw threads. It has been shown
139 that the bone at the interface of the first thread from the screw entrance carries the
140 largest load [6] and this load carrying demand decreases for screws deeper inside
141 the bone. As bone is not homogeneous, local microarchitecture can play an
142 important role in determining whether the device may become loose [25].

143

144

145

146
147

3 Material models of bone to predict loosening

148

149 As discussed above bone quality (varying from healthy to osteoporotic) plays a major
150 role in the distribution of strains at the bone-screw/pin/wire interface. In order to
151 predict loosening using principles of biomechanics it is important to use appropriate
152 material models of bone. The most commonly used mechanical models of bone are
153 time-independent i.e. they assume that any deformation due to loading occurs
154 instantaneously. Almost all research on bone-implant systems assumes bone
155 behaviour to be time-independent [26] though it is well recognised that bone
156 deformation on load application increases with time or is time-dependent [13–
157 15,27,28] In the following sections we first discuss time-independent models that
158 have been employed to examine loosening; these include use of elasticity and
159 elastoplasticity. We then go on to consider time-dependent models that have been
160 recently developed by the authors and employed to evaluate fixator loosening.

161

3.1 Modelling bone as an elastic material

163

164 In computational biomechanics the most common assumption for modelling bone is
165 that it is linear, isotropic and elastic. The term elastic implies that any deformation
166 experienced by the material on application of forces is fully recovered when the
167 forces are removed. Addition of the term linear means that the mechanical response
168 (e.g. deformation) is proportional to the load applied and isotropic material is one
169 which has the same mechanical properties in all directions and requires two elastic
170 constants to relate stresses to strains (e.g. Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio). In
171 most computational studies with generic bone geometries it is a common practice to

172 further assume that the material is homogeneous (i.e. properties do not vary from
173 point to point), though distinctly different regions (e.g. cortical and trabecular) may be
174 assigned different properties [29]. In subject-specific studies for which CT data is
175 available inhomogeneous material properties are often assigned [30,31] by
176 empirically converting CT attenuations to Young's modulus. It is arguable as to
177 whether answers obtained from subject- or patient-specific models have a limited
178 applicability and whether generic or "average" models are more suitable for
179 answering general questions.

180

181 While the assumption of isotropy serves well for many biomechanical studies, it is
182 well recognised that both cortical and cancellous bone are better represented by
183 orthotropic or transtropic elasticity [32] requiring many more properties for relating
184 stresses to strains. Materials that are not isotropic do not have the same properties
185 in all directions. For example, orthotropic materials have three orthogonal planes of
186 elastic symmetry and stress-strain relations are defined by using 9 elastic constants.
187 Orthotropic properties of bone have been determined using experimental [33] and
188 numerical approaches [34,35].

189

190 In computational modelling to evaluate loosening of fracture fixation systems two
191 questions arise. The first is whether an isotropic bone model is adequate for
192 obtaining reasonable answers and the second is whether elasticity can be used to
193 predict loosening. Let us consider each of these questions in turn.

194

195 To our knowledge there have been no studies that have compared isotropic and
196 anisotropic models in fracture fixation studies. It can be argued that the use of

197 orthotropic material properties increases the complexity of the model, and if these
198 are not accurately assigned, they may introduce more prediction errors than a simple
199 assumption of isotropy. However, Young's moduli for both cortical and cancellous
200 bones in one principal orthotropic direction can be around three times the other
201 direction [35]. Therefore, same force acting in one direction will cause much larger
202 strains than in the other. Donaldson et al. [35] showed that in the femoral mid-shaft
203 the elastic modulus of cortical bone in the proximal-distal direction was not only
204 higher than that for endosteum-periosteum direction but also decreased less rapidly
205 with age i.e. bone became more anisotropic with age. Considering this finding in
206 conjunction with the mechanics of unilateral and locking plate fixation in which axial
207 loading of bone is accompanied by pull-out and push-in forces it can be concluded
208 that half-pin or screws apply forces in the direction least adapted to loading, and
209 therefore most at risk of failure in patients with osteoporosis [11].

210

211 Let us now consider use of elasticity in the estimation of loosening. It has been
212 suggested that loosening is caused by large irreversible strains at the bone implant
213 interface that enlarge the screw/pin/wire hole [3,11]. Since elasticity implies that
214 deformations are recovered on load removal it is argued that it cannot be used to
215 model loosening. However, researchers often use elasticity wherein they assume a
216 threshold output variable (e.g. yield strain in compression) and evaluate the volume
217 of material that exceeds this threshold value, which is then taken as an estimate of
218 the volume susceptible to yielding [4,36,37]. In reality, when a small region bone
219 goes beyond its yield limit and cannot carry additional loads, considerable
220 redistribution of stresses occurs resulting in the yield region becoming localised;
221 these phenomena cannot be captured by elasticity. In spite of this shortcoming, it

222 has been shown that in the case of hip screws prediction of regions likely to yield
223 using elasticity are similar to those obtained from more complex models [38].
224 MacLeod et al. [4] used orthotropic elasticity with equivalent strain threshold to
225 examine screw placement to reduce loosening risk in locked plating. They found that
226 the use of titanium in comparison to steel increased the volume of bone exceeding
227 the threshold; results similar to those obtained with plasticity models [11]. MacLeod
228 et al. [4] also showed that larger working lengths increase the predicted volumes of
229 bone above the threshold (Figure 3). Therefore, simple elastic models can be
230 successfully used to, at least, ascertain trends, though they are unable to predict
231 propagation of yielding or damage.

232 Figure 3

233 **3.2 Modelling bone as an elastoplastic material**

234
235 It has been shown that load bearing causes strains at the bone-screw/pin/wire
236 interface that are larger than the elastic limit for bone [3,11] resulting in irreversible
237 deformations and these are responsible for loosening. Simulation of this irreversible
238 deformation response requires inclusion of post-elastic material behaviour for bone
239 which has been most commonly modelled using elastoplasticity. Elastoplasticity
240 implies that the material remains elastic when loaded up to a certain limit (yield value
241 defined in terms of stresses or strains) and has irreversible deformations when
242 loaded beyond this limit. A wide range of yield criterion are available in commercial
243 finite element codes and several of these have been used for bone [26], often with
244 little thought to their suitability. Most models available in commercial codes are
245 based on stress i.e. a material is considered to have yielded when a combination of
246 stress components reaches a yield value (i.e. elastic limit). In addition to anisotropic

247 elasticity, bone is also anisotropic in terms of yield strength, which varies with bone
248 quality. So, specifying yield parameters for stress-based criteria cannot be readily
249 achieved. Interestingly relatively recent experimental [39] and computational [40]
250 research has shown that bone yields at relatively isotropic strains and yield strain is
251 not dependent on apparent elastic stiffness or density. In other words, it is much
252 simpler to model bone of varying quality and microstructure using strain-based
253 criteria in comparison to stress-based approaches. Strain-based plasticity was first
254 discussed about four decades ago by Naghdi and Trapp [41] but has received little
255 attention in comparison with stress-based theories. Algorithms to achieve these are
256 now available [42].

257

258 Donaldson et al. [3] used orthotropic elasticity in conjunction with strain-based
259 plasticity to determine loosening in Ilizarov fixators. They used asymmetric yield
260 strain limits, 0.5% in tension and 0.7% in compression, and showed that the pattern
261 of yielding in ring fixators was as shown in Figure 2. They found that: increasing wire
262 tension reduces volume of yielded bone and the volume increases as the bone
263 quality decreases; and that there is significant reduction bone yield volume when the
264 number of wires on either side of the fractures are increased.

265

266 **3.3 Bone modelled as a time-dependent material**

267

268 As discussed loosening at the bone-screw/pin/wire interface has been considered by
269 examining strains on load application using time-independent elastic or elastoplastic
270 constitutive models for bone. A number of studies [43,44,45] have shown that
271 loosening of connecting screw/pin is a function of loading cycles. Time-independent
272 models are unable to capture this phenomenon as cyclic loading (with the same

273 magnitude and direction) merely reproduces the mechanical response from the first
274 cycle. Here we consider a recently promulgated theory which explains loosening due
275 to cyclic loading via time-dependent behaviour of bone [46].

276

277 Bone is recognised as time-dependent material and its time-dependent properties
278 have been measured experimentally using: creep tests [13–15] in which time-varying
279 strain due to applied constant load is measured over time; relaxation tests [47,48] in
280 which time-varying force due to applied constant deformation is measured over time;
281 and dynamic tests [49,50] in which the lag between sinusoidal stress and strain is
282 measured over a frequency range. Although time-dependent behaviour of bone has
283 been studied extensively, most experimental studies were not developed into
284 computational models or employed in modelling of bone-implant systems. Recently
285 studies employed multiple-load-creep-unload-recovery experiments [13] to
286 characterise time-dependent behaviour of trabecular bone, and developed BV/TV-
287 based linear viscoelastic [14], nonlinear viscoelastic [15] and nonlinear viscoelastic-
288 viscoplastic [51] constitutive models – models with increasing complexity and
289 consequent accuracy.

290

291 Xie et al. [46] considered the influence of cyclic loading in an idealised unicortical
292 bone-screw system (Figure 4a and 4b). In this the screw was subjected to 500
293 cycles of lateral loads (Figure 4c) with loading frequency $f = 1$ Hz followed by 1000
294 sec recovery. The trabecular bone modelled as time-dependent material. The study
295 examined the accumulation of strain at the bone-screw interface with increasing
296 number of cycles and after recovery.

297

Figure 4

298 Figure 5 shows the minimum (compressive denoted negative) and maximum (tensile
299 denoted positive) principal strain contours from the symmetry surface (Figure 4a)
300 and Section A-A (Figure 4b). Figures 5a and 5b show the compressive strain
301 contours at time points when the load is at its peak and when it has been reduced to
302 zero respectively at different loading cycles. Similarly, Figures 5c and 5d show the
303 tensile strain contours at time points when the load is at its peak and when it has
304 been reduced to zero respectively at different loading cycles. Figures 5e and 5f show
305 the compressive and tensile strain contours respectively after 1000 sec of recovery
306 following 500 cycles of loading. It is clear that the strain experienced by bone
307 increases with increasing number of cycles, similar to that reported in previous
308 studies [43,44,45]. It is important to note that with time-independent models the
309 variation with number of cycles cannot be captured. Moreover, time-independent
310 elastic models will show zero strains upon unloading. For the nonlinear viscoelastic-
311 viscoplastic simulation [46], not all of the strain is recovered upon unloading and the
312 strain experienced by bone increases with applied loading cycles. A residual strain
313 exists even after 1000s of recovery. This increase in strain with increasing number of
314 loading cycles and residual strain indicates that the mechanical environment at the
315 bone-screw interface will change as physiological activities are undertaken by the
316 patient and will accentuate screw loosening.

317

Figure 5

318 By assigning time-dependent material properties for different bone densities based
319 on recent experiential studies [14], permits simulation of bone-screw interface
320 strain/micromotion similar to that reported experimentally [43]. This has only become
321 possible recently.

322

323 A recent study has also shown that the strain/displacement experienced at the
324 interface is also loading frequency dependent [51]. In the first few cycles the larger
325 strain is observed if bone-screw system is loaded at a lower frequency; while the
326 interface experiences larger strain at higher loading frequencies after a large number
327 of loading cycles have been applied. In the first few cycles, a lower loading
328 frequency has a relatively longer loading time and relatively smaller loading rate.
329 Therefore, larger displacement occurs when bone-screw system is loaded at a lower
330 frequency during the loading and unloading phases as the bone is provided more
331 time to deform or recover. When the bone-screw system is loaded at higher
332 frequencies, the loading/unloading time is shorter (in comparison to lower frequency
333 loading) and the bone is loaded again by the next cycle before it can recover from its
334 last loading cycle.

335

336 **4 Conclusions**

337

338 Implant loosening is initiated by strains at the bone-screw/pin/wire interface. These
339 strains are generally larger in low density bone. The interfacial strains increase with
340 decrease in the stiffness of the bone fixator construct which can be caused by
341 features such as increased working length, use of implant materials with lower
342 stiffness (e.g. titanium rather than steel) or reduced wire tension in ring fixators. The
343 reduction of the construct stiffness also causes increased interfragmentary motions
344 between fractured segments which may be beneficial for healing. Therefore, risk of
345 loosening needs to be balanced by the need of maintaining adequate
346 interfragmentary motion. Computational simulation/prediction of loosening requires

347 appropriate models of bone behaviour. For this most previous studies have
348 employed time-independent models. These are unable to capture loosening that is
349 accentuated due to cyclic loading. Recently developed time-dependent models are
350 extremely promising in this respect.

351

352

353

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Conflict of interest: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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- Fundamental mechanics of the bone-fixator construct with focus on interfacial strains that result in loosening are discussed
- Bone models as time-independent and time-dependent material that have been used to simulate and predict loosening are reviewed
- Capability of time-dependent models to capture cyclic accumulated deformation at bone-pin/ interface is highlighted

Figure Legends

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Figure 1 Locking plate used for mid-shaft fracture fixation: prior to load application (a) and after load application (b); pattern of large strains at the bone screw interface for screws 2 and 3 (c); compressive and tensile strain distributions for the near cortex for screw 2 (d). Unilateral fixators present similar strain patterns.

Figure 2 Ilizarov ring-wire external fixator construct (a); the deformed shape of bone-wire system with regions of large interfacial bone strains (b).

Figure 3 Predicted volumes of bone above 0.02% equivalent strain (EqEV) for different working lengths. (a) Screw arrangements C123; C234; and C345. EqEV values at different screw locations for (b) healthy bone and (c) osteoporotic bone. Load of 250N is applied to the bone-fixator construct. Reproduced from MacLeod et al. [4] (open access)

Figure 4 Geometry of the bone-screw system showing symmetry surface with location of load application (a); section A-A (b); load application - each model was subjected to 500 cycles of triangular load of 300 N amplitude followed by 1000 s of recovery (c). From Xie et al. [46] (open access)

Figure 5 Compressive (a, b and e) and tensile (c, d and f) strain (%) contours from the symmetry surface and Section A-A. Three representative cycles were selected to show the strain accumulation with increasing cycle number when load is at its peak (a and c); at the time points when load is zero (b and d); and recovery after 1000 s (e and f). Redrawn from Xie et al. [46] (open access)

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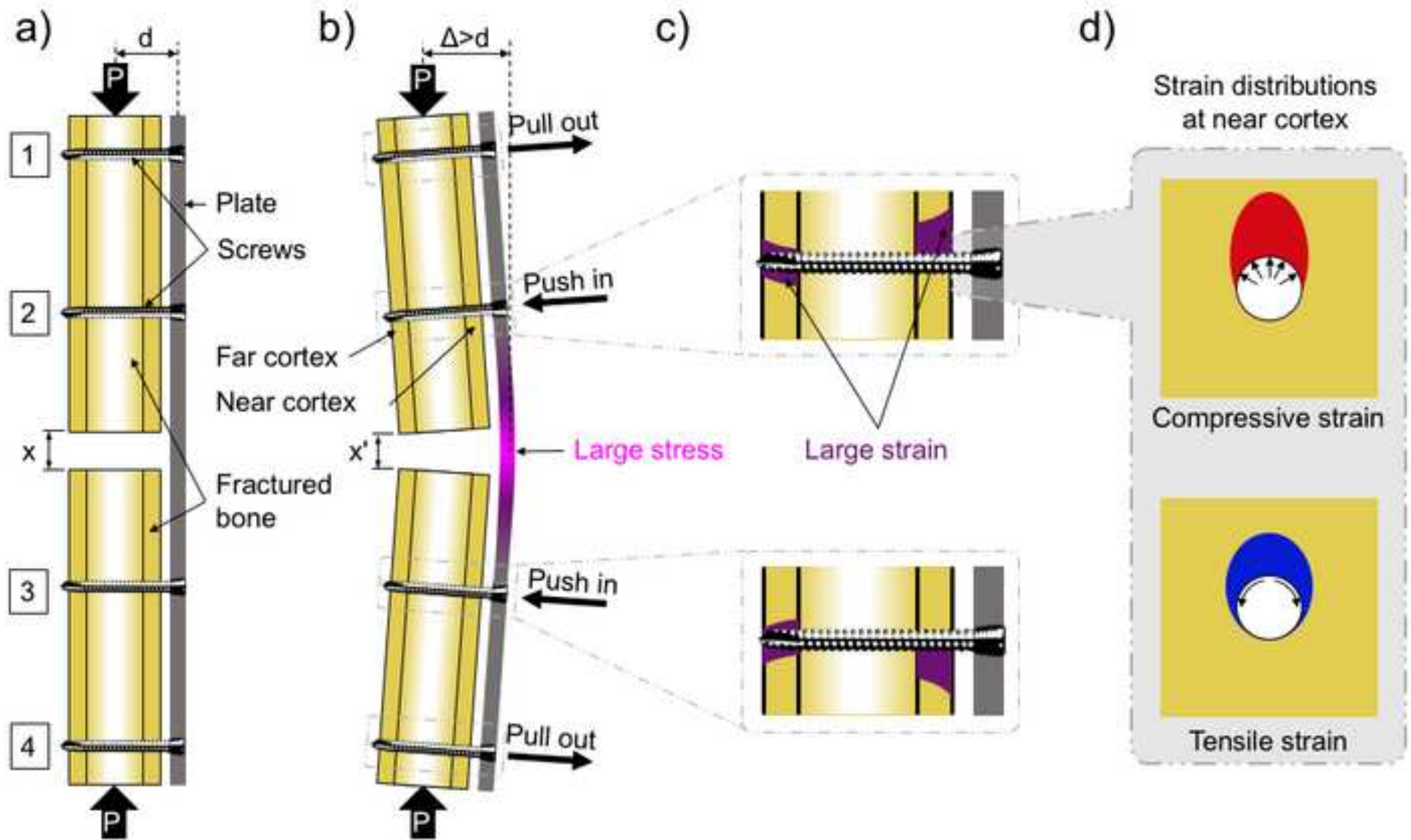


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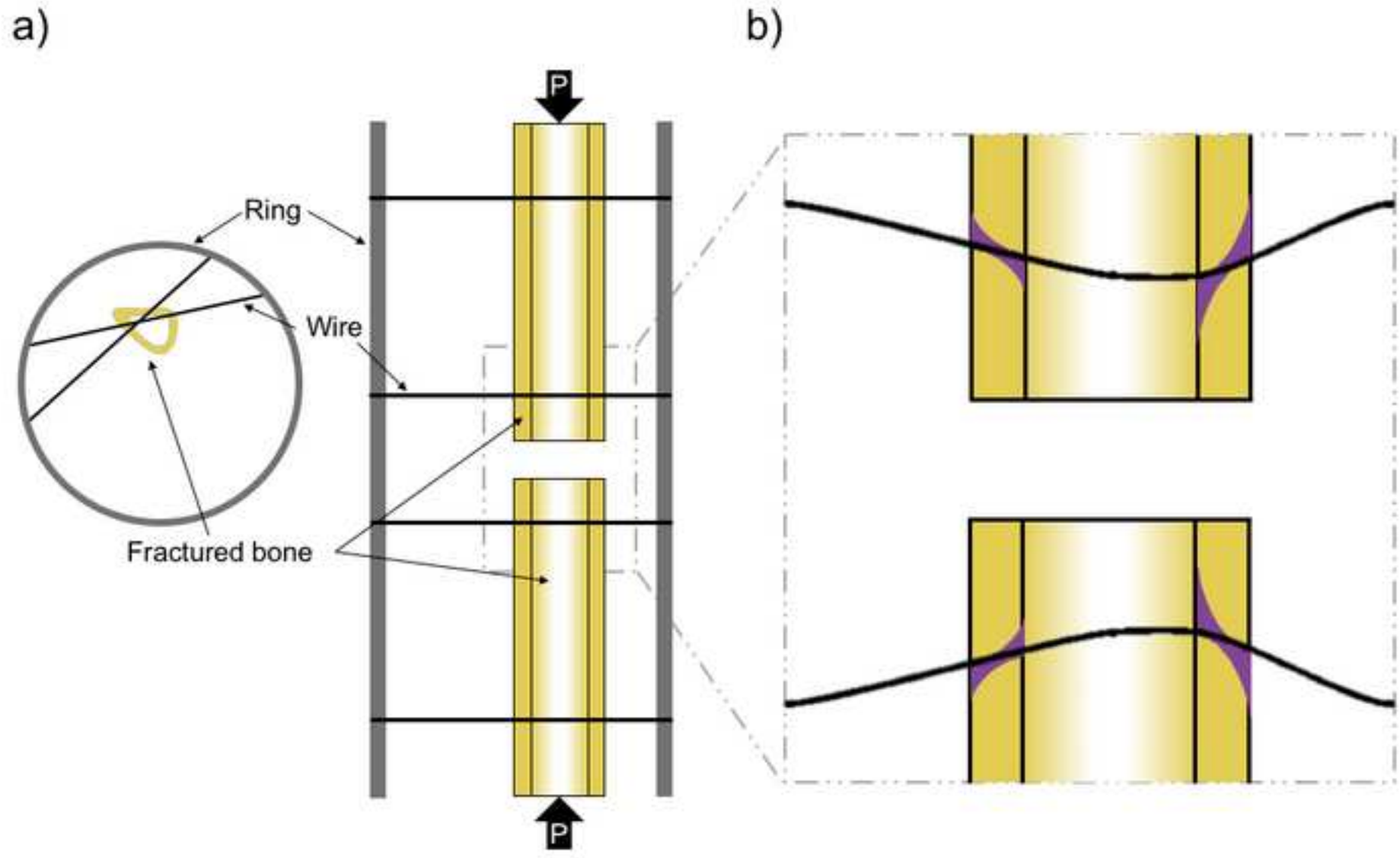


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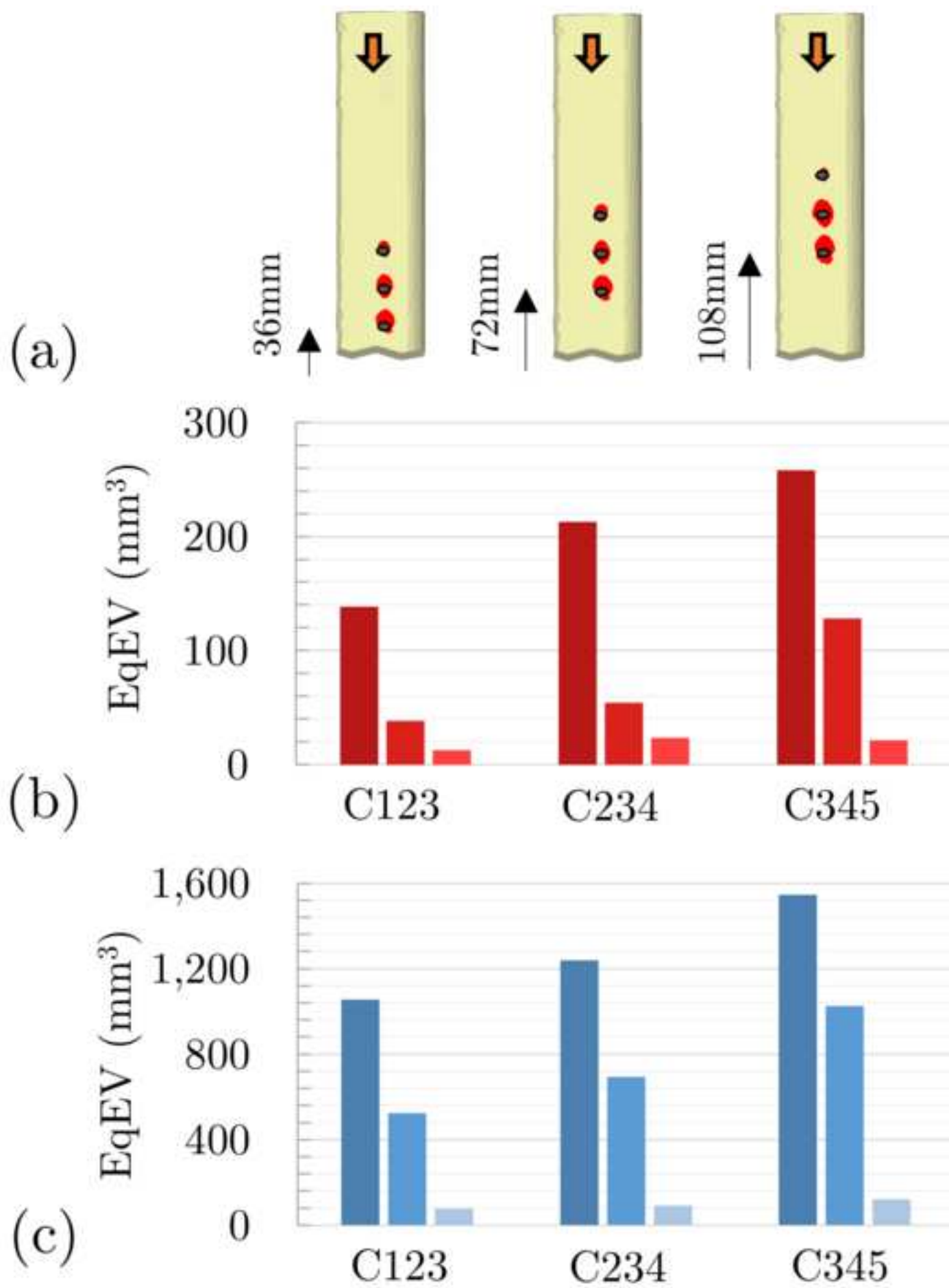


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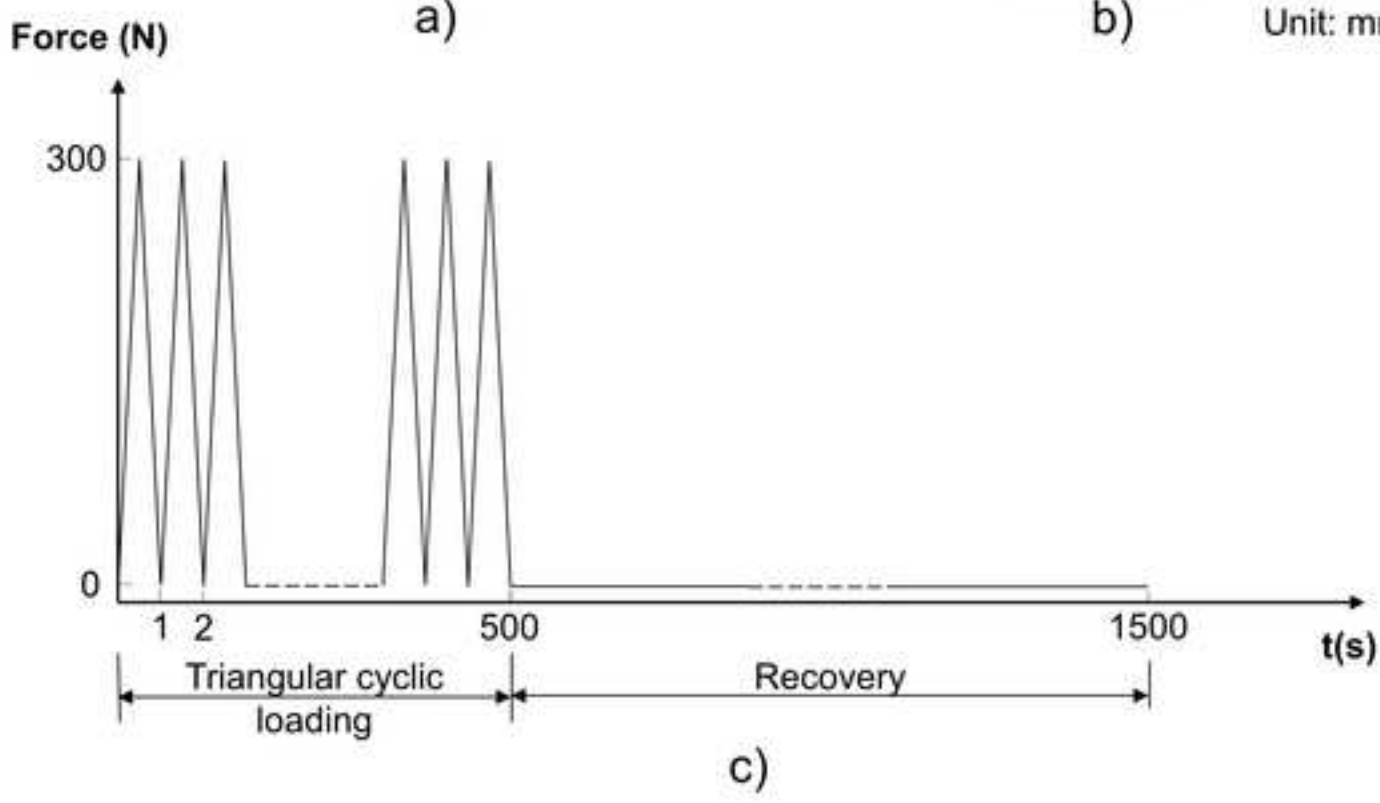
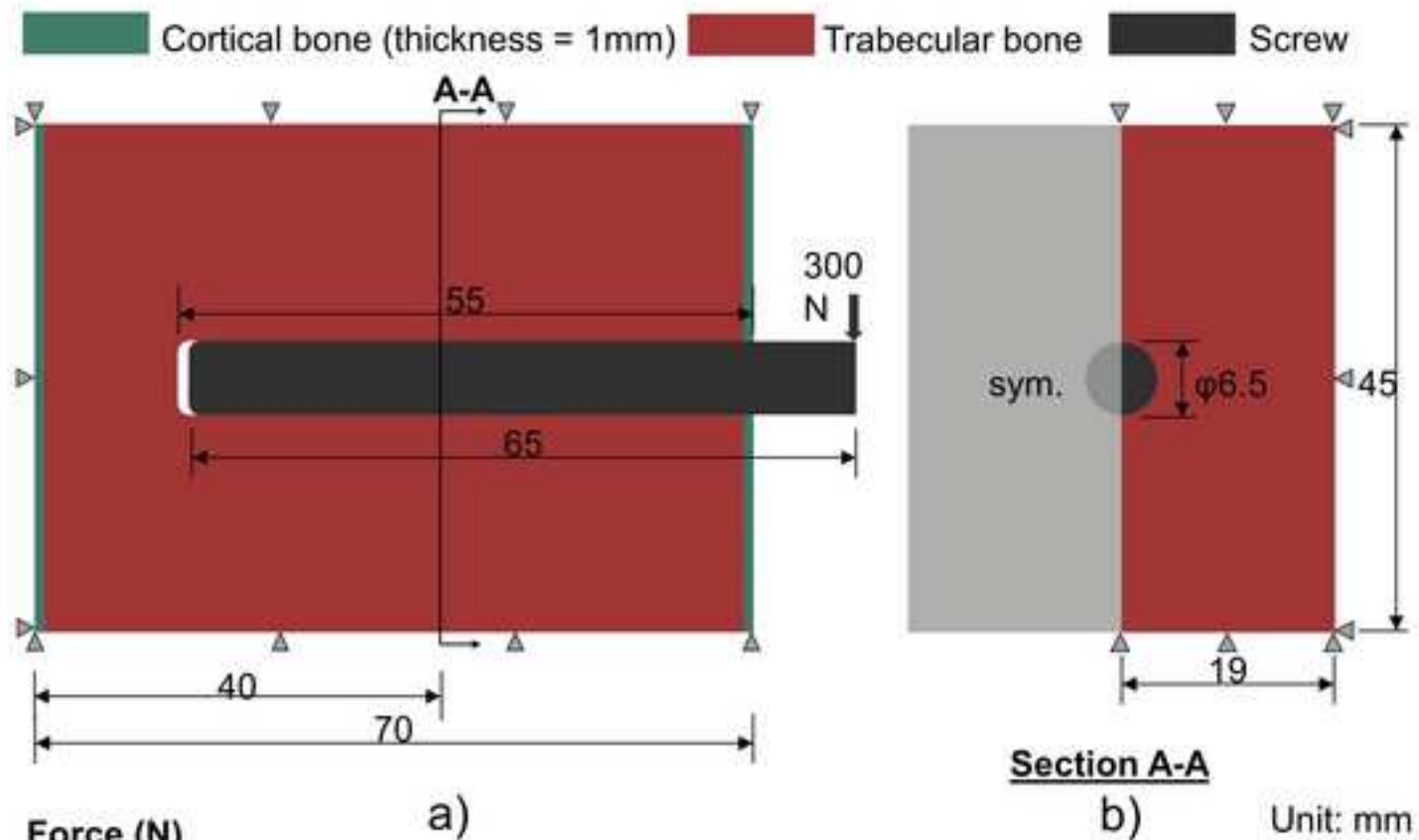
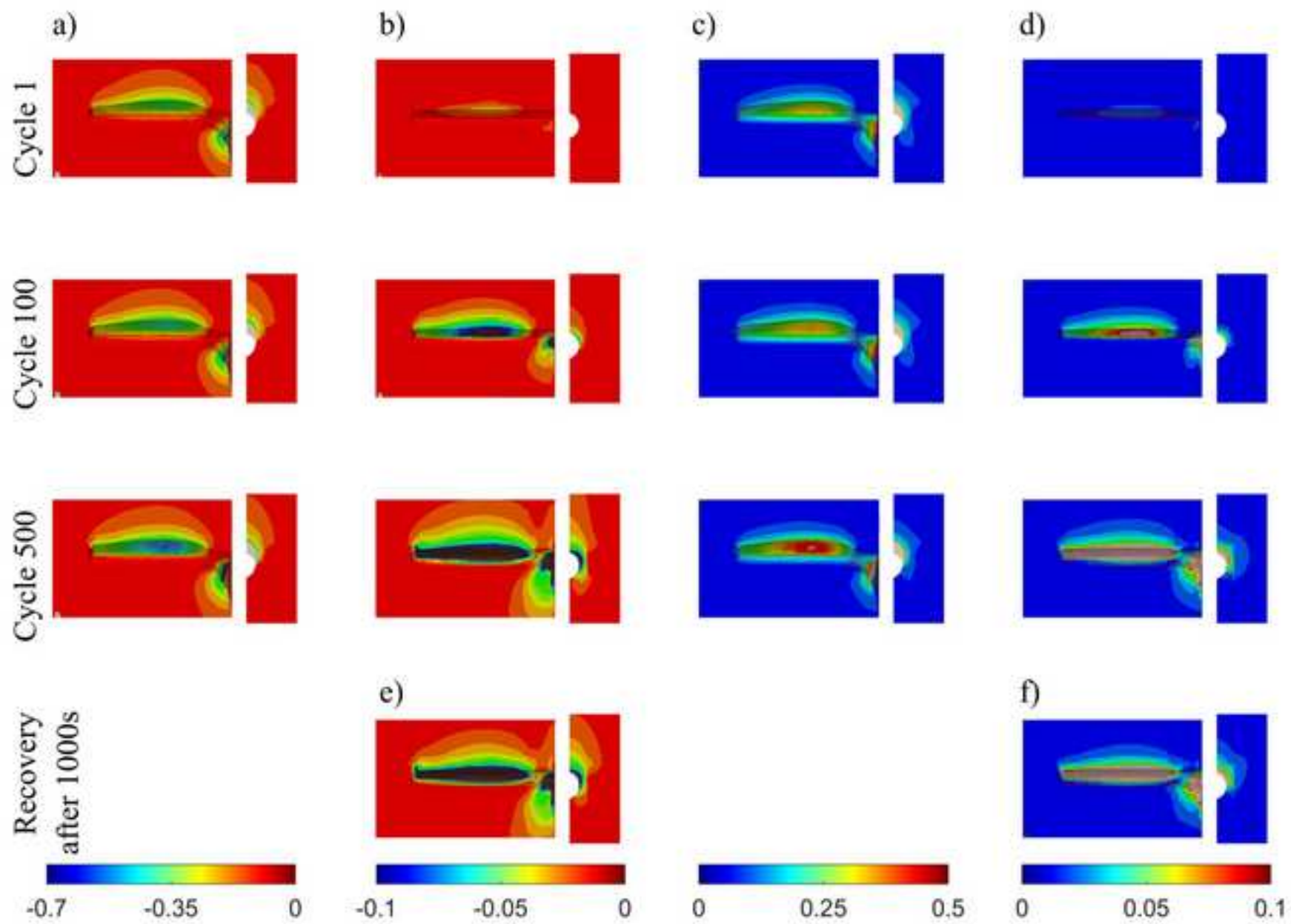


Figure 5
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