تصميم صفائح تثبيت طرفي العظم مع تقليل تأثير الحماية من الإجهاد باستخدام تحسين

2 الطوبولوجيا

اسم وكنية الباحث الاول مسبوقة صفته العلمية المختصرة (م.، د، أ.د))'، اسم وكنية الباحث	3
الثاني ٢، اسم وكنية الباحث الثالث ٣	4

- 5

 الصفة العلمية، المركز البحثي أو الجامعة، التخصص الدقيق، البريد الالكتروني (للباحثين في جامعة دمشق البريد الإلكتروني الخاص بالجامعة للباحث)
- 7 الصفة العلمية، المركز البحثي أو الجامعة، التخصص الدقيق، البريد الالكتروني (للباحثين في جامعة دمشق البريد الإلكتروني الخاص بالجامعة للباحث)
- 9 الصفة العلمية، المركز البحثي أو الجامعة، التخصص الدقيق، البريد الالكتروني (للباحثين في جامعة دمشق البريد الإلكتروني الخاص بالجامعة للباحث)
- 11 * توضع علامة النجمة فوق اسم الباحث الذي تتم المراسلات معه بغض النظر عن الترقيم او 12 * ترتيب الاسماء (كباحث رئيسي – طالب دراسات عليا)

الملخص:

يعرض المقال تحليل تأثير الحماية من الإجهاد (SSE) في صفائح تثبيت طرفي العظم، وآثاره الضارة على شفاء كسور العظام والحلول الممكنة لتقليلها. لقد تبين أنه يمكن تقليل SSE باستخدام ألواح مصنوعة من مواد ذات معامل مرونة منخفض (سبائك التيتانيوم، والبوليمرات القابلة للامتصاص الحيوي، وما إلى ذلك) أو عن طريق تحسين شكلها الهندسي. يتم تحليل الاحتمال الأخير بطريقة أكثر تفصيلاً مع التركيز بشكل خاص على تحسين الطوبولوجيا (TO) كأداة تحسين جديدة نسبيًا تستخدم على نطاق واسع من قبل مجتمع الهندسة الطبية الحيوية. كمثال عملي، تم تطبيق TO باستخدام برنامج Comsol Multiphysics لحل مشكلة التصميم ثنائي الأبعاد صفائح تثبيت طرفي العظم. لقد تبين أن الصلابة الطولية للوحة المحسنة يمكن تقليلها بنسبة تصل إلى ١٤٨٪ مقارنة بالتصميم الأولي غير الأمثل اعتمادًا على قيمة التخفيض الموصوف للوزن المستخدم كقيد أثناء التحليل. يوضح التصميم الأمثل زيادة في الحد الأقصى لإجهاد فون ميزس، لكن التوزيع العام للضغوط يصبح أكثر اتساقًا مقارنة بالتصميم الأولي. يمكن تصنيع النموذج الأولي للصفيحة المحسنة بسهولة باستخدام القطع بالليزر أو آلة التفريغ الكهربائي للأسلاك.



حقوق النشر: جامعة دورة -سورية، يحتفظ المؤلفون بحقوق النشر بموجب -CCBY بحقوق النشر بموجب -NC-SA

23

24

13

25

26

27

1	O
Z	ð

Design	Of	Osteosynth	esis	Plates	With	Reduced	Stress	Shielding	Effect
Using T	opo	logy Optim	izat	ion					

DSc Dmitry Stepanenko*1, Hanna Bileichyk², Viktoryia Akhremchyk³, MSc Iskandar	31
Mudinov ⁴ , PhD Heorhi Viarshyna ⁵ , Denis Bodyak ⁶	32

¹ Professor, Department "Design and Production of Instru	ments", Belarusian National
Technical University, dstepanenko@bntu.by	

- ² Student, Department "Design and Production of Instruments", Belarusian National Technical University, hanna0401@gmail.com
- ³ Student, Department "Design and Production of Instruments", Belarusian National Technical University, victoriaokhremchik@gmail.com
- ⁴ PhD Student, Department "Design and Production of Instruments", Belarusian National Technical University, mudinov.iskandar@mail.ru
- ⁵ Director, State Enterprise "Science and Technology Park of BNTU "Polytechnic", gavershina@bntu.by
- ⁶ Engineer, State Enterprise "Science and Technology Park of BNTU "Polytechnic", denis.bodyak@park.bntu.by



The article presents analysis of stress shielding effect (SSE) in osteosynthesis plates, its adverse effects on healing of bone fractures and possible solutions for its minimization. It is shown that SSE can be reduced by using plates made of materials with low elastic modulus (β titanium alloys, bioresorbable polymers etc.) or by optimization of their geometric shape. The latter possibility is analysed in a more detailed way with special accent on topology optimization (TO) as a relatively new optimization tool widely used by biomedical engineering community. As a practical example, TO using Comsol Multiphysics software is applied to solution of 2D design problem of osteosynthesis plate. It is shown that longitudinal stiffness of optimized plate can be reduced up to 84 % relative to initial non-optimized design depending on the value of prescribed reduction of weight used as constraint during analysis. Optimized design demonstrates increase in maximum von Mises stress, but overall distribution of stresses becomes more uniform in comparison with initial design. Prototype of optimized plate can be easily manufactured using laser cutting or wire electric discharge machining.

Keywords: Osteosynthesis Plates, Stress Shielding Effect, Topology Optimization



Received: Accepted:

Copyright: Damascus University- Syria, The authors retain the copyright under a

CC BY- NC-SA

62

1. Introduction:

63 Bone fractures are among the most frequently 64 encountered injuries in the world with more than 65 150 million cases each year. Surgical treatment of 66 bone fractures is based on application of 67 osteosynthesis (bone fixation) plates connected to 68 the bone fragments using screws and ensuring stable 69 relative position of the fragments necessary for their 70 healing. Today bone fixation plates are produced in 71 a wide range of designs depending on anatomical 72 position of fracture, method of fixation and other 73 factors. However, development of new designs of 74 osteosynthesis plates remains actual engineering 75 and medical problem, especially with account for 76 the growing interest in personalized medicine: it is 77 obvious that efficiency of fracture treatment will 78 benefit from application of patient-specific designs 79 of fixation plates considering individual anatomical 80 peculiarities and biomechanical properties of the 81 patient's bones.

2. Literature Review:

83 One of the main problems related to the use of 84 osteosynthesis plates is so called stress shielding 85 effect (SSE) (Dai, 2004; Gilbert, 1988): application 86 of rigid fixation plates results in protection 87 (shielding) of bone tissue from mechanical stresses 88 typical for healthy bone. SSE can produce adverse 89 effects during fracture healing, 90 osteopenia - reduction of biomineral density 91 (BMD) and strength of bone. Osteopenia related to 92 SSE is a direct consequence of Wolff's law stating 93 that microstructure, biomechanical properties and 94 gross morphology of bones are adapted to the 95 changes in external loads acting on them (Ahn & 96 Grodzinsky, 2009; Boyle & Kim, 2011; Frost, 97 2001). Wolff's law is derived from the observation 98 of German surgeon Julius Wolff, who found out that 99 trabecular bundles in femur bone are directed along 100 the trajectories of principal mechanical stresses. 101 Adaptation of bone to the external loads is more 102 thoroughly described by so called Utah paradigm 103 stating that mechanical stresses produced in bone 104 tissue by these loads are detected by mechanically-105 sensitive cells (osteocytes) and compared to the 106 prescribed threshold values with lower threshold 107 corresponding to the breakdown (resorption) of 108 bone tissue under insufficient level of loads and 109 upper threshold triggering growth of additional 110 tissue under excessive loading (Frost, 2001). From 111 the microstructural point of view it was found that 112 microcrystals of hydroxyapatite in healthy bone 113 tissue are oriented in preferential direction and in 114 bone subject to SSE this orientation is degraded 115 resulting in reduced BMD (Mie et al., 2020).

116 Selection of fixation plate with optimal stiffness is a 117 compromise problem since, on the one hand, too 118 low stiffness will result in unstable positioning of 119 bone fragments with risk of malunion, but, on the 120 other hand, excessively high stiffness provokes SSE 121 with associated risk of osteopenia and secondary 122 fractures. Ideally plate's stiffness should adapt to 123 the changes of bone biomechanical properties 124 during healing process: in the terminal stages of 125 healing stiffness can be reduced, because fusion of fragments 126 bone precludes their relative 127 displacements. Gradual reduction of plate's stiffness 128 during fracture healing is inherent property of plates 129 made of biodegradable materials like magnesium or 130 bioresorbable polymers (Sheikh et al., 2015; 131 Gaynetdinova et al., 2018). However, rate of 132 material degradation should be matched to the speed 133 of bone healing and, since the latter factor is 134 somewhat unpredictable (patient-specific), 135 application of biodegradable plates does not 136 guarantee optimal outcomes of treatment. So called 137 "dynamizable plates" provide possibility 138 externally-controlled stepwise reduction (switching) 139 in plate's stiffness upon formation of sufficiently 140 reliable fusion between bone fragments (Dichio et 141 al., 2020). Switching time is selected depending on 142 the speed of bone healing and for this reason 143 dynamizable plates enable patient-specific treatment 144 protocol: however, this advantage is achieved at the 145 expense of structural complexity.

146 Since plate's stiffness depends both on material 147 properties and geometric shape and dimensions of 148 the plate, possibility of variations in geometric 149 shape provides additional flexibility in the design of 150 plates, especially when material choice is limited 151 due to biomedical or technological constraints. In 152 structural design there are two main approaches to 153 the creation of optimally-shaped objects: shape 154 optimization and topology optimization (TO). In

155 contrast to shape optimization TO not only varies 156 shapes of existing object boundaries, but also allows 157 for creation of new internal boundaries ("holes") or 158 vanishing of existing internal boundaries or, in other 159 words, allows for the changes in object's topology 160 (Bendsøe & Sigmund, 2003). Optimality of the final 161 topology is qualitatively evaluated in terms of the 162 certain objective function related to the performance 163 efficiency of the object and taking maximum or 164 minimum value for the optimal topology. 165 Frequently used objective functions in mechanical 166 engineering are stiffness (under certain kind of 167 external load, e.g. extensional or flexural load) and 168 total energy of elastic deformation (TEED). These 169 objective functions are equivalent and design with 170 maximum stiffness will have minimum value of 171 TEED. From the practical point of view TO enables 172 design of structures with reduced weight (in 173 comparison to initial non-optimized design) with 174 high performance efficiency, e.g. high stiffness. 175 Successful application of TO is closely related to 176 modern advances in precision numerically-177 controlled methods of additive manufacturing 178 capable for production of objects with arbitrarily 179 complex shapes.

180 Today TO is widely used in design of medical 181 implants including osteosynthesis plates (Wu et al., 182 2021). Existing TO methods generally rely on finite 183 element meshing of design domain and include 184 method of evolutionary structural optimization 185 (ESO), method of homogenization and density-186 based methods. ESO is based in iterative removal of 187 "insufficiently used" finite elements from design 188 domain: for TEED objective function elements are 189 classified as insufficiently used if they have low 190 mechanical stresses (Xie & Steven, 1997). Method 191 of homogenization is used for multiphase composite 192 materials, e.g. laminates and cellular materials. In 193 this method shape of the object remains unchanged 194 and optimization is achieved by spatial variation of 195 effective (volume-averaged or homogenized) 196 properties of composite depending on phase content 197 and design of unit cell (for cellular materials). 198 Density-based methods introduce dimensionless 199 pseudodensity variable θ assigned to each finite 200 element in design domain and taking values from θ

201 = 0 (absence of material) to $\theta = 1$ (solid material). 202 Optimized design is described in terms of associated 203 pseudodensity distribution. More detailed 204 description of optimization method used in the 205 present study will be given in Material and Methods 206 section.

3. Material and Methods:

208 TO using density method was implemented for 2D 209 and 3D problems of osteosynthesis plates design 210 using Comsol Multiphysics software. Design 211 domains (initial non-optimized designs) are 212 presented in figure 1.

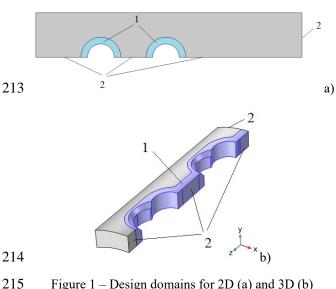


Figure 1 – Design domains for 2D (a) and 3D (b) problems

216

217 Geometric symmetry of the plates was accounted by 218 considering incomplete quarter-models 219 symmetry boundary conditions (roller constraints) 220 applied to the midlines/midplanes 2. Overall 221 dimensions were $180 \times 30 \times 3$ mm for 2D model 222 and $94 \times 13.5 \times 3.5$ mm for 3D model (for complete 223 models). To preserve shape, dimensions and 224 positions of screw openings during optimization 225 they were surrounded with the areas of prescribed 226 material density (APMDs) $\theta = 1$ (denoted as 1 in 227 figure 1). Modelling was implemented for 21S 228 titanium alloy (metastable β titanium alloy with 229 composition Ti-15Mo-3Nb-3Al-0.2Si in weight 230 percent). Alloys of this kind are prospective for 231 applications in biomedical implants due to their

232 biocompatibility, high strength and low elastic 233 modulus: the latter property is advantageous for 234 reduction of stiffness and SSE (Pesode & Barve, 235 2023; Niinomi & Nakai, 2011). Screw openings 236 were loaded with 35 N tensile load corresponding to 237 compressive load of the same value applied to the 238 bone. In 3D model zero-gap contact between curved 239 bottom surface of the plate and bone surface was 240 modeled using additional boundary condition $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} =$ 241 0, where \mathbf{u} is displacement vector, \mathbf{n} is surface 242 normal. TEED objective function subject to 243 minimization was used. Prescribed reduction of 244 weight (PRW) no less than 50 % relative to initial 245 design was used as optimization constraint. To 246 prove convergence of analysis design domain in 2D 247 model was meshed with free triangular mesh with 248 maximum element size varying from 3/2 mm 249 (coarse mesh) to 3/16 mm (fine mesh) with two 250 intermediate refinement steps (3/4 and 3/8 mm). 3D 251 model was meshed using free tetrahedral mesh with 252 0.25 mm maximum element size.

253 Optimization was performed using SIMP method 254 (Solid Isotropic Material with Penalization for 255 intermediate densities) belonging to the density-256 based methods (Bendsøe & Sigmund, 1999). In this 257 method pseudodensity takes values from $\theta_{min} > 0$ 258 (preset value in Comsol is 10^{-3}) to $\theta_{max} = 1$ and 259 elastic modulus is expressed as

$$260 E = E_{\min} + (E_0 - E_{\min}) \cdot \theta^p,$$
 (1)

261 where p > 1 is integer penalization exponent, E_0 is 262 elastic modulus of solid material, E_{\min} is elastic 263 modulus for $\theta = \theta_{\min}$.

264 Penalization of intermediate densities ensures that 265 most of the elements in final topology will have 266 pseudodensity $\theta = \theta_{min}$ (white elements) or $\theta = 1$ 267 (black elements). Ideal solution of TO problem 268 should contain only these two kinds of elements, 269 because elements with intermediate values of 270 pseudodensity (grayscale elements) cannot be 271 realized during manufacturing from homogeneous 272 material, where each voxel of the object have only 273 two possible states: presence or absence of material. 274 Grayscale elements can be realized only for 275 composite materials with

276 structurally/compositionally controlled effective 277 properties.

278 For suppression of numerical instabilities (mesh 279 dependency of solution and checkerboard patterns) 280 Comsol Multiphysics uses density filtering by 281 means of low-pass Helmholtz filter of spatial 282 frequencies (Lazarov & Sigmund, 2011). Filter 283 radius r_f is inversely proportional to the spatial cut-284 off frequency and should be no less than maximum 285 element size e_{max} in the mesh: in present study we 286 used condition $r_f = 2e_{\text{max}}$.

287 Additional suppression of grayscale elements is 288 achieved using hyperbolic tangent projection filter 289 which can be considered as regularized Heaviside 290 step function with smoothed transition between the 291 ranges of zero and unit values (Guest et al., 2011). 292 Projection filter is described using parameter β : 293 increase of β results in more steep transition and 294 more efficient suppression of intermediate values of 295 pseudodensity.

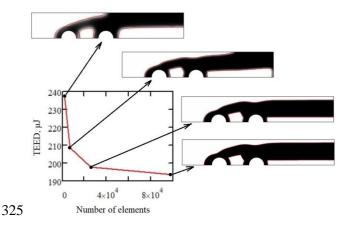
296 In summary Comsol Multiphysics has 4 density 297 variables (listed in the order of their computation): 298 θ_c – initial density (before penalization, filtering and 299 projection), θ_f – filtered density, θ – projected 300 density, θ_p – penalized density. Speed of 301 convergence and quality of solution (number of 302 grayscale elements) are controlled using two 303 parameters: penalization exponent p and projection 304 filter slope β. Increase of these parameters produces 305 solutions of better quality, but slows down 306 computation process. Well-known solution of this 307 problem consists in so called adaptive continuation 308 (Guest et al., 2011): initial low-quality solution is 309 obtained for low values of p and β and then used as 310 non-trivial initial approximation for subsequent step 311 with higher values of p and β producing solution of 312 better quality – this process can be iteratively 313 repeated. In present study we used 4 iterations with 314 the following values of p and β : (1, 2), (2, 4), (3, 6), 315 (4, 8).

316 4. Results and Discussion:

317 Convergence of solution for 2D problem is 318 illustrated by figure 2.

319 During gradual increase in the number of finite 320 elements (corresponding to reduction of their

321 maximum size from 3/2 to 3/16 mm) TEED 322 approaches stable value and final topology becomes 323 very close to binary (black and white) design with 324 minimum number of grayscale elements.



326 Figure 2 – Results of convergence study for 2D model

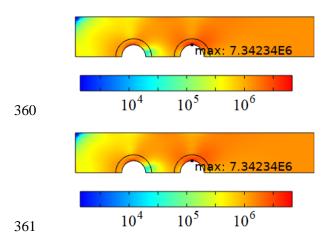
327 Variations in the shape of optimized plates are 328 negligibly small in the 4th step relative to the 3rd 329 one and more evident if compare final result with 330 preceding steps with coarser mesh. Overall shape of 331 optimized plate is in good agreement with results of 332 similar studies (Gaynetdinova et al., 2018; Gogarty 333 & Pasini, 2015).

334 To perform static analysis of generated topology we 335 extracted isolines of penalized density $\theta_p = 0.2$ as 336 discrete sets of points and used them for creation of 337 continuous interpolation curves describing 338 boundaries of the plate with optimized design. 339 Optimized plate has shown 36 % reduction in 340 longitudinal stiffness relative to initial design and, 341 as a result, will produce less pronounced SSE. On 342 the other hand, optimized design has maximum 343 stiffness for the given value of weight. Prototypes of 344 the plates can be easily manufactured using laser 345 cutting or wire electrical discharge machining 346 (EDM). Wire EDM has some advantages over laser 347 cutting since it produces precise cuts with high 348 surface quality and generates no heat affected zone. 349 However, due to technological limitations we used 350 laser cutting with subsequent plasma electrolytic 351 etching to improve surface quality. As-cut sample is 352 shown in figure 3.



Figure 3 – Laser-cut prototype of the plate

355 Optimized plate shows around 20 % increase in 356 maximum von Mises stress, however it 357 demonstrates more uniform overall distribution of 358 stresses (figure 4, for better visual perception 359 stresses are shown on logarithmic scale).



362 Figure 4 – Distribution of stresses (Pa) in initial (a) and optimized (b) designs of the plate

364 Effect of PRW constraint on topology and stiffness 365 of optimized plates is illustrated in figure 5.

366 As in the case of ESO, optimization firstly removes 367 least stressed regions of the plate situated at the 368 corners and near distal (relative to the transverse 369 midline) openings (blue and cyan regions in figure 370 4a). By varying PRW value one can produce 371 designs with stiffness reduced up to 84 % relative to 372 initial design. It should be noted that real reduction 373 of weight will be somewhat lower than its expected 374 value given by PRW, e.g. 47.3 % at PRW = 50 % 375 and 85 % at PRW = 90 %. The reason is that real 376 design is produced from simulated grayscale 377 topology using thresholding (with condition $\theta_p \geq$ 378 0.2) and some low-density "grey" elements are 379 interpreted during this procedure as solid material.

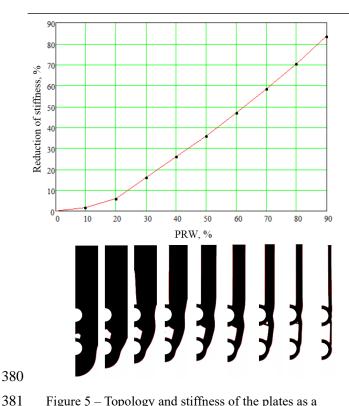


Figure 5 – Topology and stiffness of the plates as a function of PRW constraint

383 Optimization results for 3D model will be presented 384 in the future studies. However, in conclusion we 385 would like to highlight some fundamental 386 differences in methodology of 3D TO.

382

387 The main drawback of 2D model is simplified 388 representation of screw openings. Simple 389 cylindrical openings are rarely used, e.g. locking 390 compression plates are manufactured 391 complexly-shaped combined openings (figure 1b) 392 providing possibility to use two kinds of screws: 393 compression screws with spherical heads ensuring 394 compression of bone fragments and locking screws 395 with threaded conical heads ensuring angular 396 stability of the plate in the case of its implantation 397 with a gap relative to the bone surface (Cronier et 398 al., 2010) (implantation of this kind preserves 399 normal vascularization of periosteum; thread is 400 removed in finite element model to avoid 401 excessively dense meshing). Complex shape of 402 screw openings dictates the need for more complex 403 (in comparison with 2D model) geometry of APMD 404 (denoted as 1 in figure 1b). In 2D model each screw 405 opening is surrounded with its own APMD and

406 individual APMDs are not connected to each other. 407 In 3D model utilization of separated APMDs 408 resulted in the loss of connectivity in the final 409 topology: design domain was broken down into 410 several subdomains not connected to each other. To 411 avoid this problem APMDs should be "bridged" 412 together in 3D model with formation of single 413 APMD: however, there are different possible 414 topologies of such bridging and their effect on final 415 solution should be additionally studied.

416 Another important difference is related 417 verification of TO results. For both 2D and 3D 418 models verification is performed by means of static 419 analysis of optimized design. However, we have to 420 use different approaches to transform distribution of 421 pseudodensity produced by TO into the model 422 appropriate for static analysis. As it was described 423 earlier, for 2D model this task is implemented by 424 extracting isolines of penalized material density θ_p . 425 For 3D model this approach was found to be 426 unfeasible, because irregular shape (particularly, 427 lack of smoothness) of extracted isosurfaces 428 resulted in hard-to-fix problems: we tried to extract 429 isosurfaces as point clouds with their subsequent 430 transformation into interpolation surfaces and 431 represent isosurfaces as STL meshes, but both 432 methods were unsuccessful. For this reason we 433 came to the idea of performing static analysis on the 434 same mesh as TO, but with spatially-dependent 435 material properties (elastic modulus and density). 436 To describe this dependence we represented 437 distribution of θ_p obtained from solution of TO 438 problem as 3D interpolation function and assigned 439 material properties depending on the values of this 440 function: similarly to equation (1) low values of θ_p 441 were mapped into the values of elastic modulus and 442 density essentially smaller than corresponding 443 properties of the solid material.

444 5. References:

- 445 Dai, K. (2004). Rational utilization of the stress 446 shielding effect of implants. In: Biomechanics and 447 Biomaterials in Orthopedics. Springer-Verlag
- 448 London. 208-215.
- 449 Gilbert, J.A. (1988). Stress protection osteopenia 450 due to rigid plating. Clinical Biomechanics, 3(3), 451 179-186.
- 452 Ahn, A.C., & Grodzinsky, A.J. (2009). Relevance of
- 453 collagen piezoelectricity to "Wolff's law": a critical 454 review. Medical Engineering & Physics, 31, 733-455 741.
- 456 Boyle, C., & Kim, I.Y. (2011). Three-dimensional
- 457 micro-level computational study of Wolff's law via
- 458 trabecular bone remodeling in the human proximal 459 femur using design space topology optimization.
- 460 Journal of Biomechanics, 44, 935-942.
- 461 Frost, H.M. (2001). From Wolff's law to the Utah
- 462 paradigm: insights about bone physiology and its 463 clinical applications. The Anatomical Record,
- 464 262(4), 398-419.
- 465 Mie, K. et al. (2020). Impaired bone quality
- 466 characterized by apatite orientation under stress
- 467 shielding following fixation of a fracture of the 468 radius with a 3D printed Ti-6Al-4V custom-made
- 469 bone plate in dogs. *PLoS One*, 2020, e0237678.
- 470 Sheikh, Z. et al. (2015). Biodegradable materials for
- 471 bone repair and tissue engineering applications.
- 472 Materials, 8, 5744-5794.
- 473 Gaynetdinova, A.A. et al. (2018). Topology
- 474 optimization of forearm ostheosynthesis implants
- 475 based on biodegradable polymers. In: XXX
- 476 International Conference of Young Scientists and 477 Students "Topical Problems of Mechanical
- 478 Engineering 2018", 20–23 November 2018,
- 479 Moscow, Russian Federation. (In Russian)
- 480 Dichio, G. et al. (2020). Engineering and
- 481 manufacturing of a dynamizable fracture fixation
- 482 device system. Applied Sciences, 10, 6844.
- 483 Bendsøe, M.P., & Sigmund, O. (2003). Topology
- 484 optimization: theory, methods and applications. 485 Springer.

- 486 Wu, N. et al. (2021). The advances of topology 487 optimization techniques in orthopedic implants: a
- 488 review. Medical & Biological Engineering &
- 489 Computing, 59, 1673-1689.
- 490 Xie, Y.M., & Steven, G.P. (1997). Evolutionary
- 491 structural optimization. Springer-Verlag London.
- 492 Pesode, P., & Barve, S. (2023). A review -493 metastable β titanium alloy for biomedical
- 494 applications. Journal of Engineering and Applied 495 Science, 70, 25.
- 496 Niinomi, M., & Nakai, M. (2011). Titanium-based
- 497 biomaterials for preventing stress shielding between
- 498 implant devices and bone. International Journal of
- 499 Biomaterials, 2011, 836587.
- 500 Bendsøe, M.P., & Sigmund, O. (1999). Material
- 501 interpolation schemes in topology optimization.
- 502 Archive of Applied Mechanics, 69, 635-654.
- 503 Lazarov, B.S., & Sigmund, O. (2011). Filters in
- 504 topology optimization based on Helmholtz-type
- 505 differential equations. International Journal for
- 506 Numerical Methods in Engineering, 86, 765-781.
- 507 Guest, J.K. et al. (2011). Eliminating beta-508 continuation from Heaviside projection and density
- 509 filter algorithms. Structural and Multidisciplinary
- 510 Optimization, 44, 443-453.
- 511 Gogarty, E., & Pasini, D. (2015). Hierarchical
- 512 topology optimization for bone tissue scaffold:
- 513 preliminary results on the design of a fracture
- 514 fixation plate. In: Engineering and Applied Sciences
- 515 Optimization. Springer. 311-340.
- 516 Cronier, P. et al. (2010). The concept of locking
- 517 plates. Orthopaedics & Traumatology, 96S, S17-518 S36.