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Numerical Investigation of Spinal Cord Injury After Flexion-Distraktion Injuries at the Cervical Spine

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ABSTRACT

Flexion-distraction injuries frequently causes traumatic cervical spinal cord injury (SCI). Post-traumatic instability can cause aggravation of the secondary SCI during patient's care. However, there is little information on how the pattern of disco-ligamentous injury affects the SCI severity and mechanism. This study objective was to analyze how different flexion-distraction disco-ligamentous injuries affect the SCI mechanisms during post-traumatic flexion and extension. A cervical spine finite element model including the spinal cord was used and different combinations of partial or complete intervertebral disc (IVD) rupture and disruption of various posterior ligaments were modeled at C4-C5, C5-C6 or C6-C7. In flexion, complete IVD rupture combined with posterior ligamentous complex rupture was the most severe injury leading to the most important von Mises stress (47 to 66 kPa), principal strains p1 (0.32 to 0.41 in white matter) and p3 (-0.78 to -0.96 in white matter) in the spinal cord and to the most important spinal cord compression (35 to 48 %). The main post-trauma SCI mechanism was identified as compression of the anterior white matter at the injured level combined with distraction of the posterior spinal cord during flexion. There was also a concentration of the maximum stresses in the gray matter after injury. Finally, in extension, the injuries tested had little impact on the spinal cord. The capsular ligament was the most important structure in protecting the spinal cord. Its status should be carefully examined during patient's management.

1 **INTRODUCTION**

2

3 Spinal cord injury (SCI) occurs in 34 to 45 % of cervical spine trauma [1–3]. SCI at
4 the cervical level is particularly damageable considering the risk of death and paralysis
5 linked to the position of the segment in the central nervous system. SCI involves two
6 types of mechanism: primary and secondary. Primary SCI is the direct consequence of
7 traumatic vertebral fracture or dislocation leading to spinal canal disruption and
8 excessive deformation or compression of the spinal cord [4]. Secondary SCI is the
9 subsequent aggravation of the neurological impairment and is caused by many different
10 biochemical mechanisms including inflammation [5] and by mechanical instability
11 leading to additional spinal cord disruption during pre-hospital care and early treatment
12 [6]. Following the injury, the spinal cord may remain compressed due to the disrupted
13 spinal canal, translation between vertebrae or damaged structures like a herniated
14 intervertebral disc (IVD) which increase the damage to the spinal cord.

15 Clinical instability is defined as “the loss of the ability of the spine under
16 physiologic loads to maintain relationships between vertebrae in such a way that there
17 is neither damage nor subsequent irritation to the spinal cord or nerve roots, and, in
18 addition, there is no development of incapacitating deformity or pain due to structural
19 changes” [7]. The integrity of the IVD and ligaments has been recognized as an
20 important component of stability assessment [8,9]. Retrospective clinical studies of
21 hyper-extension have also correlated the integrity of the ligaments and IVD with
22 neurological deficits [10,11].

23 Flexion-distraction injuries are common at the subaxial cervical spine [12] and
24 especially at C4-C5, C5-C6 and C6-C7 levels [13–15]. They comprise unilateral or bilateral
25 facet subluxations or dislocations, flexion teardrop fractures, chance-type fractures and
26 purely ligamentous injuries [8] and are frequently linked to SCI [16]. Facet dislocation
27 and bilateral facet injury in particular have been identified as significant predictors of SCI
28 in cervical spine trauma [15]. Flexion-distraction injuries present a variety of disco-
29 ligamentous disruption patterns. The injured structures reported for unilateral and
30 bilateral dislocations are the capsular ligaments (CL), the interspinous ligament (ISL), the
31 supraspinous ligament (SSL), the ligamentum flavum (LF), the anterior longitudinal
32 ligament (ALL), the posterior longitudinal ligament (PLL) and the IVD. However, different
33 combinations of disco-ligamentous injuries are observed in different cases. Clinical
34 studies reported that only 40 to 56.5 % of cervical spine dislocation cases had a
35 complete PLL disruption [17,18]. IVD disruption is also variable since different extent of
36 horizontal tear has been observed: complete rupture accompanied with ALL tear or
37 partial rupture [19]. However, little is known about the link between the injured disco-
38 ligamentous structures and the SCI severity.

39 Many studies have investigated mechanical instability at the cervical spine based
40 on the integrity of disco-ligamentous structures [20–23], but without studying the
41 biomechanical impact on the spinal cord. Liao et al. [24] produced atlanto-occipital
42 dislocation or atlanto-axial instability on cadaver specimens and then analyzed the
43 compression of the dural sac and the cervical spine mobility during the application of a
44 cervical collar. They observed that important motion of the cervical spine and important

45 dural sac compression occurred during cervical collar application. Canal occlusion has
46 also been measured post-trauma in the context of in vitro [25,26] or clinical studies
47 [15,27,28] but with the spine in neutral position only.

48 Finite element (FE) modeling is a promising solution to study the post-traumatic
49 mechanical damages of the spinal cord since it is possible to test various disco-
50 ligamentous disruption and mechanical loadings without risk of spinal cord
51 degeneration as with in vitro tests. A few FE models of the cervical spine including the
52 spinal cord have been developed. However, they have been exploited under traumatic
53 conditions [29–31] or to study the effect of pathologies or surgical procedures on the
54 spinal cord [32–37]. To our knowledge, no FE study has analyzed the effect of disco-
55 ligamentous injuries on the post-traumatic mechanical integrity of the spinal cord.

56 The objective of this study was to evaluate how patterns of flexion-distraction
57 disco-ligamentous injuries affect the spinal cord damage in flexion and extension after
58 trauma. A detailed FE model of the cervical spine was used to measure the von Mises
59 stresses and the principal strains in the white and gray matter. The spinal cord
60 compression was also reported.

61

62 **METHODS**

63

64 **Finite Element Model**

65

66 For this study, a cervical spine (C2-T1) FE model integrating the spinal cord was
67 used [31,38]. In summary, the geometry of the vertebrae was reconstructed from CT
68 images (0.6 mm contiguous slides) of a healthy 50th percentile male volunteer. In this

69 specific study, the vertebrae were set as rigid bodies. The model had 22.7 degrees of
70 lordosis at C2-C7. The IVD were created between the vertebral endplates and meshed
71 using hexahedral solid elements. They were divided into nucleus pulposus and annulus
72 fibrosus ground substance. IVD mechanical behavior was defined by first-order Mooney-
73 Rivlin hyper-elastic material law representative of non-pathological quasi-static
74 properties [39] (table 1). Collagen fibers were modeled as tension-only springs in the
75 annulus fibrosus ground substance. The springs were organized in concentric lamella
76 with a crosswise pattern of ± 35 degrees. The annulus was divided into three sections
77 (anterior, posterior and lateral) and the collagen fibers force-displacement curves [40]
78 were scaled by a different factor depending on the section [39]. The nucleus properties
79 were calibrated in a previous study [9] to adjust the intradiscal pressure in comparison
80 to in vitro results [41]. The cervical spine ligaments were created between each
81 functional spinal unit (FSU). The geometry and attachment point of the ligaments were
82 based on anatomical data from the literature [42,43]. Each ligament was meshed with 4-
83 nodes shell elements except for the CL (3-nodes shell elements were used) (figure 1).
84 The ligaments behaviors were defined by tabulated non-linear stress-strain curves
85 derived from experimental studies [44,45]. The toe-regions of the curves were
86 calibrated against the intervertebral rotation of each FSU under quasi-static flexion and
87 extension of ± 2 Nm [9]. Facet joints were represented by frictionless contact interfaces.

88 The spinal cord was meshed using pentahedral solid elements [31]. The
89 geometry of the white and gray matter were based on histological cadaveric spinal cord
90 cross-sections taken from the literature [46]. Tabulated non-linear and strain-rate

91 dependent engineering stress-strain curves were assigned to the white and gray matters
92 [47]. The pia mater was modeled as the external contour of the white matter and the
93 dura mater as the contour of the spinal canal with a 1 mm offset. Both structures were
94 meshed as 4-nodes shell elements. Denticulate ligaments were modeled by 4-nodes
95 shell elements and attached to dura mater lateral sides through coincident nodes (figure
96 2). The mechanical properties of the dura mater, pia mater and dentate ligaments were
97 represented by linear elastic material properties (table 1). The cerebrospinal fluid was
98 not included into this study. Total number of elements and nodes for this FE model are
99 506 984 and 154 915 respectively.

100 Nerve roots were modeled by springs (stiffness of 20 N/mm) attached to the
101 dura matter though a rigid body at the level of the intervertebral foramen (figure 2) and
102 cinematically linked to the superior vertebra at each spinal level. This attachment
103 position was selected since nerve roots are disposed cranially to each spinal level [48]
104 and are attached to the dura mater [49].

105 Prior to model exploitation, the spinal cord behavior in flexion and extension was
106 validated against values of maximum and minimum principal strain of the spinal cord
107 and relative antero-posterior and superior-inferior displacements of the spinal cord in
108 relation to the vertebrae in healthy subjects at all spinal levels from C3 to C7 and at ± 20
109 degrees of C2-T1 rotation in flexion-extension [50].

110

111

112

113 **Injury Modeling**

114

115 For this study, four different types of disco-ligamentous injury patterns were
116 modeled to investigate the relative impact of the structures on the spinal cord
117 protection and represent the diversity of possible flexion-distraction injuries [18,51]
118 (table 2). These injuries were modeled at one spinal level at a time. Three different FSU
119 levels were chosen, C4-C5, C5-C6 and C6-C7 since these levels are the most frequently
120 affected by flexion-distraction injuries [13,14]. This created a total of 12 different injury
121 scenarios. Rupture of a ligament was modeled by removing the corresponding
122 component from the FE model. IVD rupture was represented by a transversal antero-
123 posterior cut into the middle of the disc. A contact interface was added at the rupture
124 between the proximal and distal parts of the disc.

125

126 **Effects of Injury on the Spinal Cord**

127

128 After injury modeling, a quasi-static flexion and extension moment (± 2 Nm) was
129 applied to C2 while T1 was kept fixed. This amplitude of moment (± 2 Nm) represents
130 the elastic range of the cervical spine segment [52]. The intact model was submitted to
131 the same loads and used as baseline. This method has been used previously to evaluate
132 intervertebral range of motions after an injury in numerical studies [9,53,54] and was
133 deemed appropriate to evaluate the impact of post-traumatic instability on the spinal
134 cord. The changes in antero-posterior and lateral diameter of the spinal cord during
135 flexion and extension at the level of injury were also analyzed and compared to the SCI
136 threshold of 40 % determined from traumatic cervical spine injury cases [28]. Then, the

137 extreme principal strains p1 and p3 and the von Mises stresses were extracted for five
138 different spinal cord regions: anterior gray matter, gray matter horns, anterior white
139 matter, posterior white matter and lateral white matter. The elements adjacent to the
140 denticulate elements were excluded to avoid stress singularity resulting from the
141 simplified modeling of the denticulate ligaments attachment. The reported data were
142 taken at the maximum applied flexion or extension moment corresponding to 2 Nm or -
143 2 Nm for most cases. For cases where the injuries created a high instability and an
144 unrealistic flexibility, a threshold of evaluation were established at 73 degrees of C2-T1
145 rotation in flexion which is the maximal sagittal head-torso rotation plus one standard
146 deviation in healthy subjects [55]. C2-T1 rotation could not exceed C0-T1 rotation
147 especially since C1-C2 is very flexible: the chin would touch the torso and no further
148 flexion would be possible.

149 The strains results were compared to thresholds of neurological deficits
150 determined by experimental studies. Bain et al. [56], in an in vivo animal study, have
151 determined a strain injury threshold of 0.21 for traction loading on the optic nerve.
152 Injury determination was based on measurements of visual evoked potentials. Ouyang
153 et al. [57] tested in compression samples of ex vivo ventral white matter from guinea
154 pig. They measured that the compound action potential diminished starting at 50 % of
155 compression and that this diminution was accelerated after 70 % of compression.

156

157

158

159 **RESULTS**

160

161 The validation process for the spinal cord showed that the model response fitted
162 generally well with the clinical data [50] (figures 3 and 4) as all the results from the FE
163 model were within one standard deviation of the reference with a few exceptions within
164 two standard deviations. The distribution of p1 strains between the spinal levels
165 respected the trends from the literature, but this was not the case for p3 strains: the
166 strain at the superior spinal levels was more important. The direction of relative
167 displacement was also reversed at C3 for superior-inferior displacement and antero-
168 posterior displacement in flexion.

169 For extension loading, the impact of the injuries was moderate. In the baseline
170 model at -2 Nm, the maximum principal strain p1 was 0.06 in the gray matter and 0.10
171 in the white matter and the minimum strain p3 was -0.09 in the gray matter and -0.15 in
172 the white matter. The most extreme principal strain p1 and p3 recorded in the injured
173 models were 0.17 and -0.23 respectively which is under the established thresholds for
174 injury. The spinal cord compression in the antero-posterior and lateral direction in
175 extension was 4 % or less for the uninjured simulation and all the injury scenarios. The
176 maximum von Mises stress was 4.4 kPa in the baseline model at -2 Nm. The difference
177 between the baseline and the injured model was equal or under 2.3 kPa.

178 For flexion loading, important differences were seen for the different injury
179 cases. The percentage of compression at 2 Nm flexion is presented in figure 5.
180 Percentage of antero-posterior compression in the baseline model was 2 % at C4-C5 and
181 C5-C6 and 1 % at C6-C7. The highest compressions were measured for injury case 4 for

182 every FSU. For injury case 1 and 2, antero-posterior compression stayed under 18 %. The
183 maximum compression measured was 48 % for injury case 4 at C5-C6 in the antero-
184 posterior direction. Generally, the spinal cord compression increased gradually from
185 case 1 to case 4 at all FSU levels. Lateral diameter changes were negligible (under 4 % of
186 difference with baseline for every case).

187 The extreme principal strains in the spinal cord are presented by axial sections in
188 figures 6 and 7. The maximum p1 strain in the baseline was 0.096 in the gray matter and
189 0.11 in the white matter. The minimum p3 strain in the baseline was -0.051 in the gray
190 matter and -0.075 in the white matter. For all cases, the injuries had a higher impact on
191 the p3 strain than the p1 strain. In the uninjured model, there is minimal compressive
192 strain and mainly a distractive strain in the posterior spinal cord caused by the flexion of
193 the cervical spine. For the injured cases, this distraction increases up to 0.35. The
194 absolute value of principal strain p1 and p3 increased from case 1 to case 4. The p1 and
195 p3 principal strains were generally uniform in the gray matter, but the posterior gray
196 matter was under more distraction due to the flexion of the spinal cord. In the gray
197 matter, only case 4 injuries had a maximum principal p1 strain over the injury threshold
198 of 0.21 [56]. In the white matter, all case 4 injuries and case 3 at C4-C5 and C6-C7 went
199 over 0.21 of p1 strain. For principal strain p3, only case 4 injuries lead to strains under
200 the - 0.5 threshold for compound action potentials decrease [57] in the white matter
201 and in the anterior gray matter for injury 4 at C5-C6. The threshold of - 0.7 for
202 accelerated compound action potentials was also reached in the anterior white matter
203 in all case 4 injuries and in the lateral white matter for injury case 4 at C5-C6. The

204 anterior and then the lateral white matter were the sections under the most extreme
205 principal strain p3.

206 Figure 8 shows the distribution of strains (absolute maximum strain) in the spinal
207 cord in flexion for baseline model and injuries cases 1 to 4 at level C4-C5. Flexion of the
208 cervical spine lead to a global distraction in the spinal cord, while the disrupted motion
209 of the injured FSU lead to a band of concentrated compression strain at the injured
210 level. The maximum distraction in the posterior area of the spinal cord went from 0.11
211 in the baseline model to 0.35 in injury case 4 and is concentrated at the level of injury.
212 Points of compression and distraction are seen at the denticulate ligaments attachments
213 which has also been observed on MRI images of healthy patients [50]. The most
214 extreme principal strains p3 are concentrated in the anterior part of the white matter.
215 This phenomenon was present for every injury scenario, but the amplitude of the
216 compression increases form injury cases 1 to 4, while this area of compression is not
217 present in the baseline model. In the baseline model, the principal strains p3 in the
218 spinal cord were between 0 and -0.075. The same strain pattern was observed for
219 injuries at level C5-C6 and C6-C7.

220 The maximum von Mises stresses in the spinal cord and their location in the axial
221 cross-section of the spinal cord are presented in table 3. The stress was highest for the
222 case 4 injuries and lead to an increase of 44 to 63 kPa of the maximum von Mises
223 stresses compared to baseline. While the maximum von Mises stress was situated in the
224 posterior white matter in the uninjured model, it moved to the gray matter in all injury
225 cases except for case 1 at C5-C6 where it stayed in the posterior white matter.

226 The von Mises stress distribution in the spinal cord in flexion for baseline model
227 and injuries cases 1 to 4 at level C4-C5 are shown in figure 9. The stress in the baseline
228 model at 2 Nm flexion is small (under 3 kPa) and concentrated in the posterior spinal
229 cord. In the injured cases, the maximum stress is in the gray matter and mainly in the
230 horns at the injury level.

231

232 **DISCUSSION**

233

234 While disco-ligamentous injuries are frequent at the cervical spine [51] and have
235 been linked to instability [8], the relation between the injured structures and the
236 mechanical damage to the spinal cord has not been thoroughly investigated. This study
237 used a C2-T1 FE model including the spinal cord to quantify the effect of various
238 combinations of flexion-distraction disco-ligamentous injuries on the compression of the
239 spinal cord and the strains and stresses in the spinal cord following quasi-static flexion
240 and extension (± 2 Nm). The FE model was validated against clinical data from healthy
241 patients of spinal cord strains and displacements in flexion and extension [50]. The
242 results generally fitted within one standard deviation. Some differences were seen in
243 the relative distribution of p3 strains between spinal levels since the strain at the
244 superior levels was more important. Also, the direction of relative displacements was
245 reversed at C3 in flexion. These differences can be explained by the fact that the upper
246 spinal cord motion is kinematically bound to C2 in the model which could affect the
247 behavior of the spinal cord. Since the injury cases were model at lower spinal levels,
248 these differences seemed acceptable in the context of our study.

249 In extension, the four disco-ligamentous injury cases studied had little to no
250 impact on the spinal cord. This is partly because the spinous processes acted as a
251 physical barrier and limited the mobility of the injured segment, therefore protecting
252 the spinal cord. Also, the posterior ligaments are mostly loaded in tension as during
253 flexion [58].The intact ALL and, depending on the injury cases, the CL or anterior IVD
254 also retained the stability of the cervical spine in extension. The impact on the spinal
255 cord von Mises stresses (maximum difference of 52 % from baseline) and principal
256 strains (maximum difference of 70 % with baseline) was small compared to flexion
257 loading. Also, the strain injury thresholds determined for SCI were not reached. The
258 spinal cord compression was under 4% which is small compared to the proposed clinical
259 injury threshold of 40 % [28].

260 In flexion however, the injuries impacted the spinal cord stresses and strains to
261 different degrees depending on the injury case. At all FSU levels, injury case 1,
262 transversal injury of the IVD and posterior ligaments rupture with intact ALL and CL, had
263 little impact on the spinal cord. While this injury case is very unlikely for subluxation or
264 dislocation injuries, it is interesting to analyze the importance of the CL versus the IVD.
265 CL are important in resisting flexion, lateral bending and torsion [21,59] and facets
266 disruption have been linked with neurological deficits [59] which support our finding
267 that, from the disco-ligamentous structures investigated in this paper, the CL was the
268 most important structure for keeping the stability of the segment and protecting the
269 spinal cord. Maeda et al. [11] found that the IVD was associated with segmental
270 instability and neurological impact, but most of their patients were suffering from

271 hyper-extension injury while we studied flexion-type injuries. Richter et al. [23]
272 demonstrated the significant impact of CL rupture on the range of motion in flexion and
273 extension. Pitzen et al. [60] showed that both the CL and IVD are important in stabilizing
274 the cervical spine in flexion and extension. The fact that injury case 4 presented more
275 extreme levels of strains and von Mises stresses than injury case 3, where only 1/3 of
276 the IVD is ruptured posteriorly, shows that the IVD still plays a role in maintaining
277 clinical stability at the cervical spine. All case 4 injuries had principal strains p_3 under -
278 0.5 which was determined as a threshold for decrease of compound action potentials in
279 the white matter. This suggests that case 4 injury leads to important aggravation of SCI
280 during cervical spine flexion. The strains and stresses increased from case 1 to case 4
281 with injury case 4 being the most severe situation. The FSU level of the injury also had
282 an impact on the solicitation of the spinal cord. Since C5-C6 is at the apex of the cervical
283 spine model, injury case 4 caused more damage at this level due to its higher rotation:
284 the highest spinal cord antero-posterior compression and the most extreme strains and
285 stresses. It is also the only case where the threshold of -0.5 of compressive strain was
286 reached in the gray matter. C6-C7 was the only FSU level where injury case 3 reached
287 the extreme C2-T1 rotation of 73 degrees. This can be explained by the superior size of
288 this FSU and its position in the cervical spine. Since T1 is fixed, less motion is necessary
289 for C6-C7 to be at risk of subluxation.

290 In our study, antero-posterior compression of the spinal cord over 20 % lead to
291 more important levels of stresses and strains than the other cases. Similarly, Kato et al.
292 [61] concluded from a numerical analysis that there may be a critical point in SCI

293 between 20 and 40 % of antero-posterior spinal cord compression as the stress in the
294 cord increased significantly between these two levels. The stresses and strains patterns
295 obtained in this FE study showed that flexion-distraction injury leads to important
296 compressive strains in the anterior spinal cord at the injured FSU level during post-
297 traumatic flexion. The injury mechanism of the spinal cord from flexion-distraction
298 injury has been debated in the literature. The SCI could originate from the excessive
299 traction of the spinal cord during trauma [62] or from shear loading on the spinal cord
300 from the relative translation of the adjacent vertebrae leading to a band of injured
301 tissue at the shear plane [63], while the most extreme form of flexion-distraction injury,
302 dislocation, leads to central lesion impacting principally the gray matter vasculature
303 [64]. From our analysis, the von Mises stress was more important in the gray matter at
304 the level of injury which points toward a central spinal cord lesion. However, the von
305 Mises stress computation is independent of volumetric deformation which should not
306 be neglected in the investigation of potential spinal cord injury. In the baseline model,
307 there were mostly distractive strains in the spinal cord caused by the flexion of the
308 cervical spine. For the injured cases, the distraction in the posterior white matter
309 increased up to 0.35 which is over the 0.21 threshold established for traction loading of
310 optic nerves [56]. This distraction increase is caused by an increase of the flexion range
311 of motion at the injured level and was therefore located at the level of injury. In parallel,
312 the spinal cord was pushed anteriorly onto the vertebra due to high rotation and
313 disturbed antero-posterior motion of the injured level which causes compression of
314 spinal cord and mainly the anterior white matter. This could explain why flexion-

315 distraction leads to important neurological impairment since the blood vessels in the
316 spinal cord are more susceptible to be disrupted by antero-posterior forces [58].
317 Therefore, at the injured level, the spinal cord is simultaneously susceptible to axons
318 damage at the posterior white matter and disturbance of vascularisation in the gray
319 matter and anterior white matter. However, since this is a post-traumatic study, the
320 mechanism of injury occurring during the trauma cannot be inferred directly from our
321 results.

322 Limitations of this study linked to model simplification need to be reported. First,
323 the cervical spine was modeled in a neutral erected initial position and no
324 representation of the cervical spine kyphosis linked to hyperflexion sprains [65] or initial
325 subluxation or dislocation was modeled. We believe that these conditions would
326 aggravate the levels of stresses and strains reported but would not change considerably
327 the conclusions regarding the relative impact of the various injuries modeled. The
328 flexion-extension moment of ± 2 Nm used may not be representative of the real-life
329 multidirectional loads that trauma victims experienced. However, this method was
330 necessary to evaluate the effect of a possible post-traumatic spinal instability on the
331 spinal cord. There was no representation of the canal narrowing that can occur from the
332 disruption of disco-ligamentous structures, however this would have probably
333 aggravated the compression of the spinal cord. For example, the material from the IVD
334 could leak in the spinal canal and compress the spinal cord. Muscles were also not
335 represented in this model. While presence of active and passive muscles would have
336 restrained the mobility of the cervical spine, an in vitro study has shown that the

337 instability of the spine is not overestimated if normalized to the intact mobility [66].
338 There was no representation of the cerebrospinal fluid, however since the load was
339 applied in quasi-static conditions the protective role of the cerebrospinal fluid is
340 negligible. The thresholds used for traction and compression strains were taken from
341 experimental studies of the white matter and not the gray matter, therefore it is difficult
342 to conclude on the effect of the injuries on the gray matter. Finally, the nerve roots
343 were represented only by simple springs. Therefore, it was impossible to determine the
344 impact of the injuries on the stresses and strains of the nerve roots. This could be
345 implemented in a future study.

346

347 **CONCLUSION**

348

349 In conclusion, a FE model of the cervical spine was used to quantify how different
350 combinations of disco-ligamentous injuries representative of flexion-distraction trauma
351 impact the principal strains and von Mises stresses in the spinal cord. The analysis
352 showed that these injuries can lead to high strains and stresses in the spinal cord and
353 spinal cord compression of up to 48 % during post-traumatic flexion. On the opposite,
354 extension of the cervical spine had little impact on the spinal cord. The SCI mechanism
355 was identified as an important compression of the anterior spinal cord at the level of
356 injury caused by the relative motion of the vertebrae during flexion following injury with
357 the highest levels of strains in the anterior white matter. Distraction of the posterior
358 white matter is simultaneously present at the injured level and reached the injury
359 threshold for traction. The CL were the structures, in combination with the IVD, that

360 limited the most the solicitation of the spinal cord. These structures should be examined
361 carefully to assess SCI severity.

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Figure Captions List

- Fig. 1 Cervical spine model. Left: lateral view of the entire finite element model with boundary conditions. Right: sagittal cross-section of a functional spinal unit
- Fig. 2 Central Nervous System. Left: axial cross-section. Right: lateral view of the left C6-C7 nerve root
- Fig. 3 Maximum and minimum principal strains. Error bars represent one standard deviation
- Fig. 4 Relative antero-posterior displacements and superior-inferior displacements. Error bars represent one standard deviation
- Fig. 5 Percentage of spinal cord compression at the injured functional spinal unit at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold
- Fig. 6 Maximum principal strains p1 in spinal cord by sections at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold
- Fig. 7 Minimum principal strains p3 in spinal cord by sections at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold
- Fig. 8 Absolute maximal strain pattern for baseline model and injury models at level C4-C5
- Fig. 9 von Mises stress pattern for baseline model and injury models at level C4-C5

Table Caption List

Table 1	Material properties of the finite element model structures
Table 2	Type of disco-ligamentous injury patterns
Table 3	Maximum von Mises stress in the spinal cord. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold

Table 1: Material properties of the finite element model structures

Structure	Material Law	Material parameters	Reference
Dura mater	Linear elastic	$E = 5 \text{ MPa}$ $\nu = 0.45$	[67]
Pia mater	Linear elastic	$E = 2.3 \text{ MPa}$ $\nu = 0.45$	[68]
Denticulate Ligaments	Linear elastic	$E = 3.8 \text{ MPa}$ $\nu = 0.4$	[69]
White Matter	Stress-strain tabulated	$\nu = 0.38$	[47]
Gray Matter	Stress-strain tabulated	$\nu = 0.38$	[47]
Annulus fibrosus	First-order Mooney-Rivlin hyper-elastic material law	$\nu = 0.495$ $C_{10} = 0.18$ $C_{01} = 0.045$	[39]
Nucleus	First-order Mooney-Rivlin hyper-elastic material law	$\nu = 0.45$ $C_{10} = 0.24$ $C_{01} = 0.18$	[9, 39]
Collagen fibers	Force-displacement tabulated		[9, 39, 40]
Spinal ligaments	Stress-strain tabulated specific to each ligament type	$\nu = 0.45$	[9, 44, 45]

Table 2: Type of disco-ligamentous injury patterns

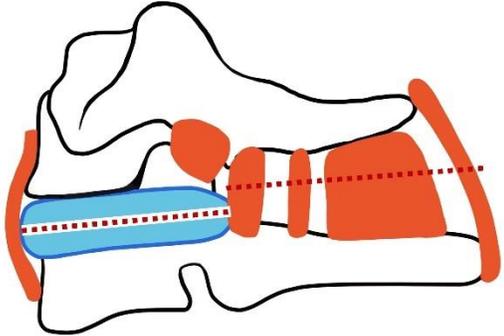
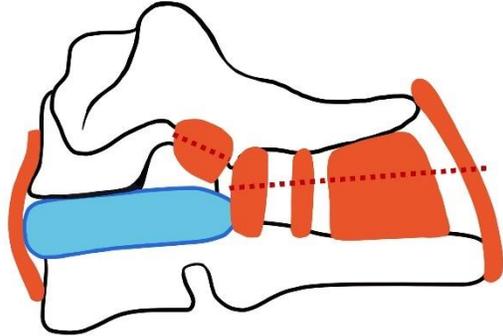
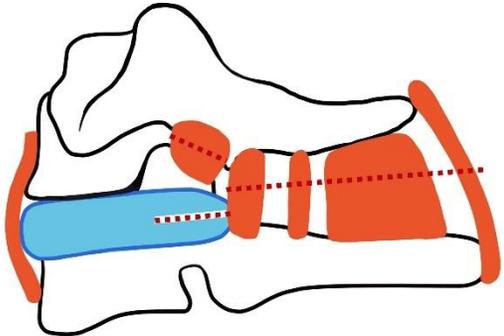
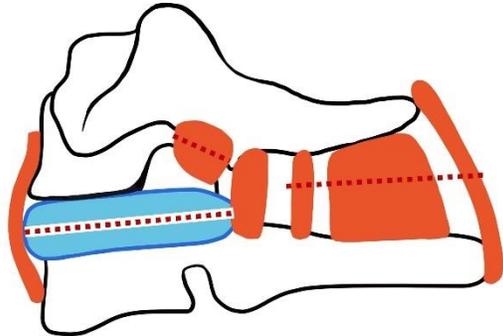
 <p>Case 1 - Rupture of the interspinous ligament, ligamentum flavum, supraspinous ligament and posterior longitudinal ligament accompanied with a transversal rupture of the intervertebral disc</p>	 <p>Case 2 - Rupture of the interspinous ligament, ligamentum flavum, supraspinous ligament and posterior longitudinal ligament accompanied with rupture of the capsular ligament</p>
 <p>Case 3 - Rupture of the interspinous ligament, ligamentum flavum and supraspinous ligament accompanied with rupture of the capsular ligament and a partial transversal rupture of the intervertebral disc (1/3 of the disc length)</p>	 <p>Case 4 - Rupture of the interspinous ligament, ligamentum flavum and supraspinous ligament with rupture of the capsular ligament and transversal rupture of the intervertebral disc. The posterior longitudinal ligament is kept intact.</p>

Table 3: Maximum von Mises stress in the spinal cord. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold

Model	Maximum von Mises stress (kPa)	Section	
Baseline	2.8	Posterior white matter	
Injury			
Injury Level case			
C4-C5	Case 1	6.2	Anterior gray matter
	Case 2	25	Gray matter horns
	Case 3	29	Gray matter horns
	Case 4	58*	Gray matter horns
C5-C6	Case 1	2.9	Posterior white matter
	Case 2	4.5	Gray matter horns
	Case 3	9	Gray matter horns
	Case 4	66*	Anterior white matter
C6-C7	Case 1	4.3	Gray matter horns
	Case 2	7.7	Gray matter horns
	Case 3	32*	Gray matter horns
	Case 4	47*	Anterior gray matter

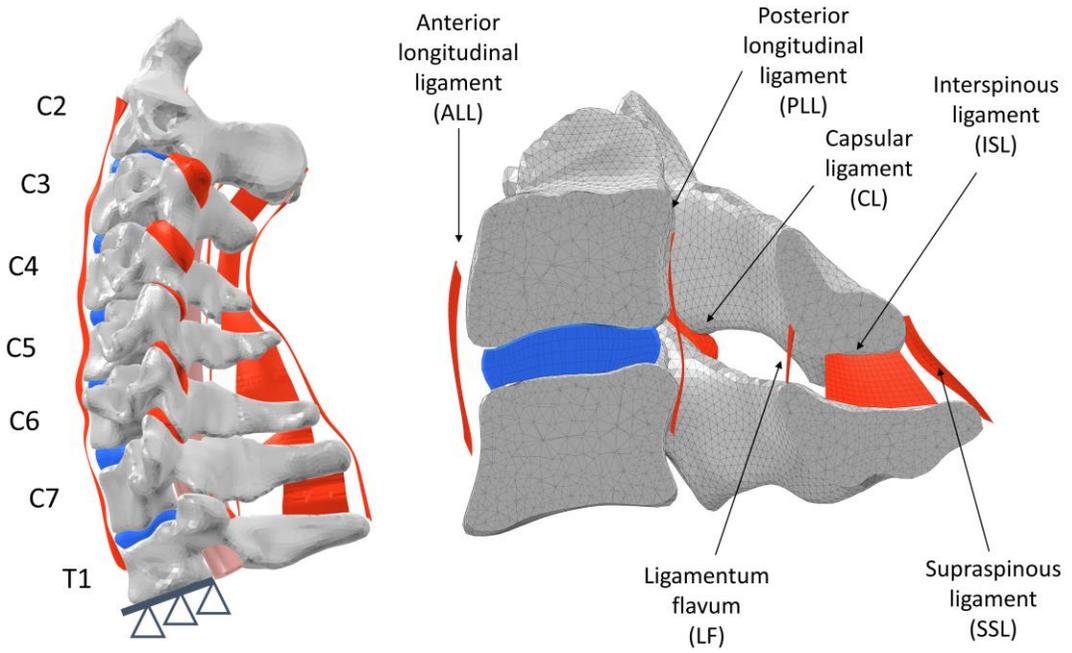


Figure 1: Cervical spine model. Left: lateral view of the entire finite element model with boundary conditions. Right: sagittal cross-section of a functional spinal unit

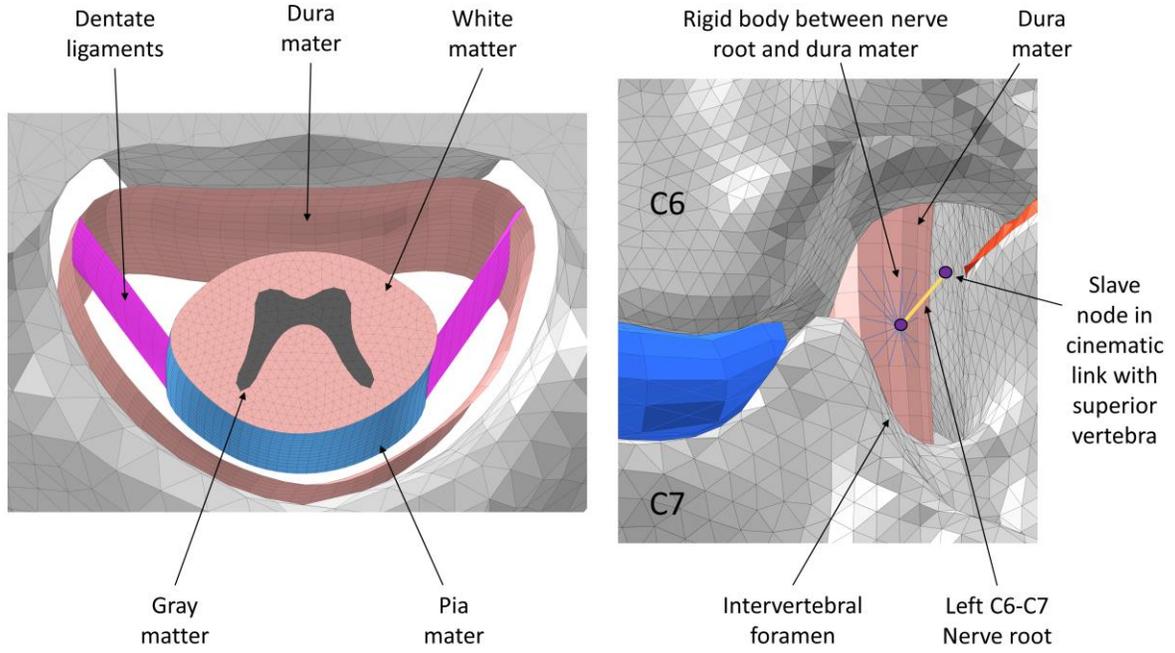


Figure 2: Central Nervous System. Left: axial cross-section. Right: lateral view of the left C6-C7 nerve root

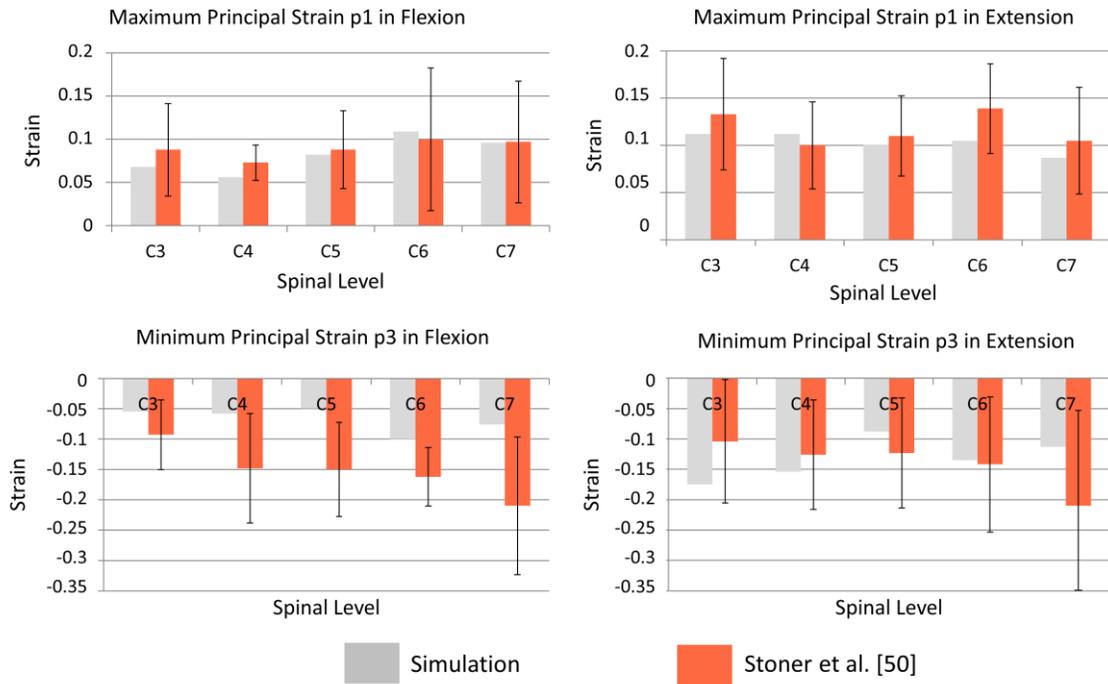


Figure 3: Maximum and minimum principal strains. Error bars represent one standard deviation

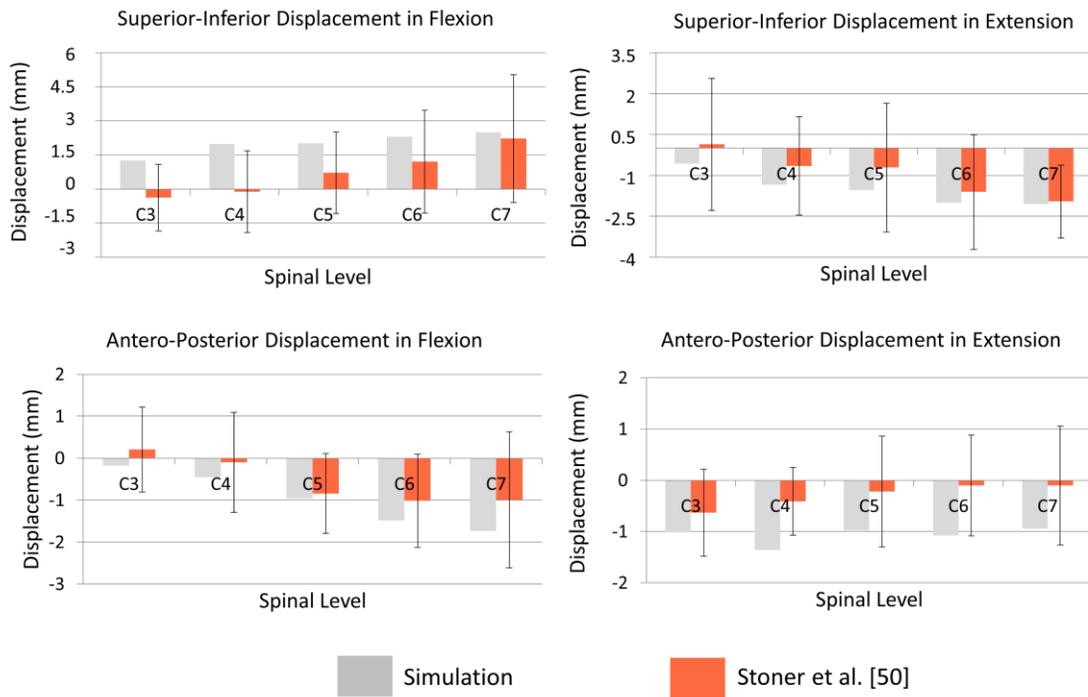


Figure 4: Relative antero-posterior displacements and superior-inferior displacements. Error bars represent one standard deviation

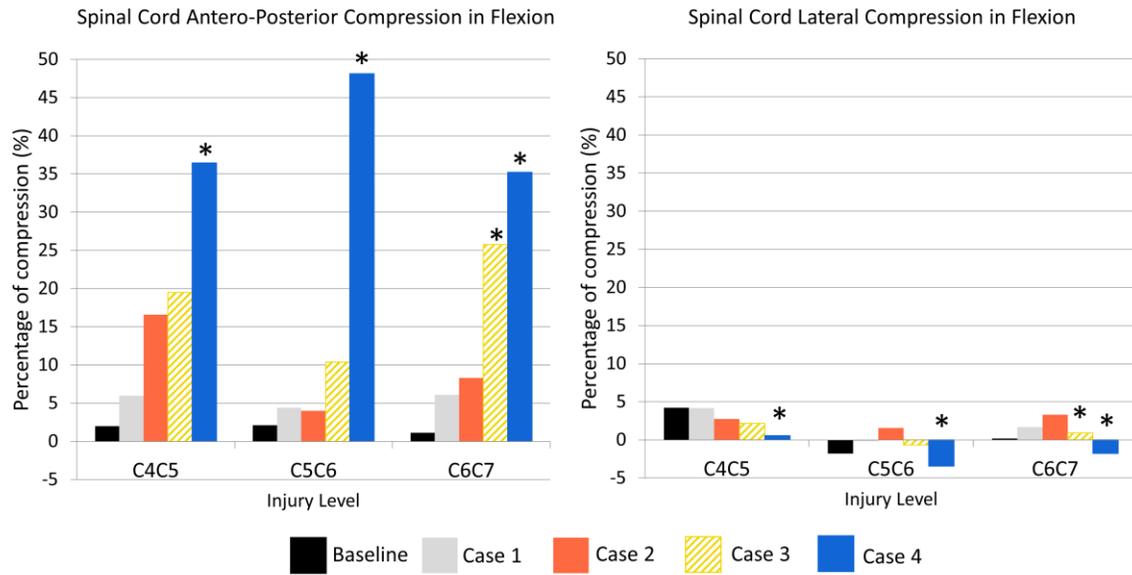


Figure 5: Percentage of spinal cord compression at the injured functional spinal unit at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold

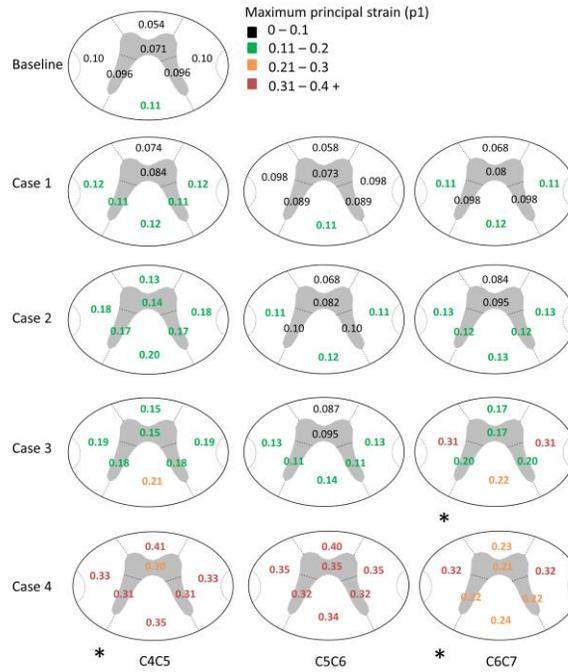


Figure 6: Maximum principal strains p1 in spinal cord by sections at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold

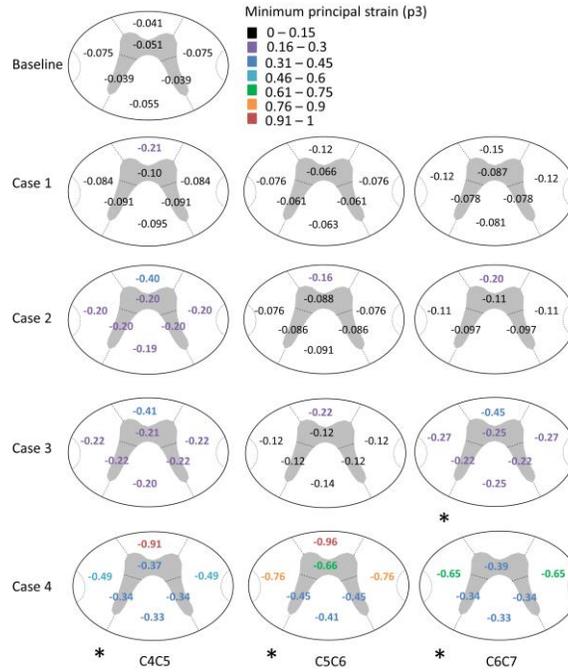


Figure 7: Minimum principal strains p3 in spinal cord by sections at 2 Nm flexion. Asterisk (*) represents the C2-T1 73 degrees threshold

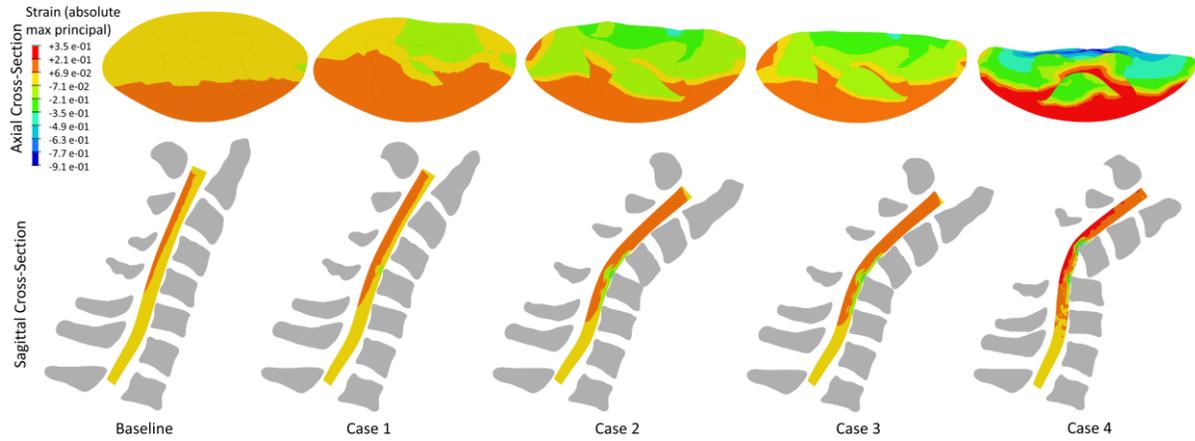


Figure 8: Absolute maximal strain pattern for baseline model and injury models at level C4-C5

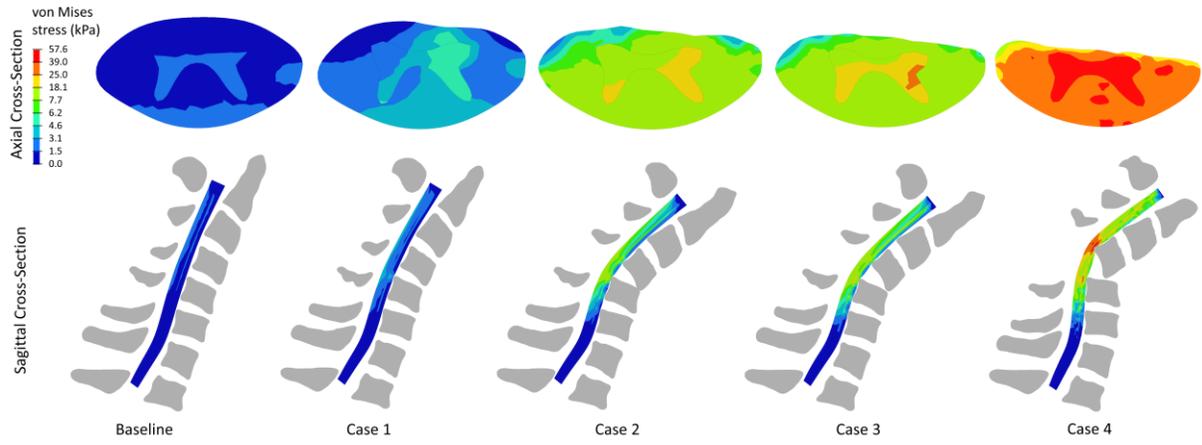


Figure 9: von Mises stress pattern for baseline model and injury models at level C4-C5