# MECHANICAL DESIGN OF A CUSTOMIZABLE SELF-EXPANDING ENDOVASCULAR STENT

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Applied Science

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Dalhousie University Halifax, Nova Scotia August 2015

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## Table of Contents

List of	<sup>*</sup> Tables		v
List of	Figure	S	vii
Abstra	nct		xiii
List of	Abbre	viations Used	xiv
Ackno	wledge	ments	xvi
Chapte	er 1	Introduction	1
1.1	Literat 1.1.1 1.1.2 1.1.3	ure Review	$3 \\ 6 \\ 15 \\ 17$
Chapt	er 2	Radial Extensometer	<b>24</b>
2.1	Metho 2.1.1 2.1.2 2.1.3	ds	24 27 27 27
2.2	Design 2.2.1 2.2.2	Calibration Sensitivity, Repeatability and Linearity	30 32 35
2.3	2.2.3 Results 2.3.1 2.3.2 2.3.3	Theoretical Linear Force Comparison	37 38 38 41 43
2.4	Discuss	sion	44
Chapt	er 3	Finite Element Modeling	47
$3.1 \\ 3.2 \\ 3.3 \\ 3.4$	Softwa Meshin Explici Results 3.4.1	re	$47 \\ 47 \\ 49 \\ 50 \\ 51$
	3.4.2	90 Degree Mylar and Rigid Roller Contact	54

	$3.4.3 \\ 3.4.4$	Full System - Free Mylar; Rigid Rollers and Stent analog.Full System - Rigid Rollers; Free Stent Analog and Mylar.	57 59
	3.4.5	Completed Simulation - Rigid Rollers; Free Stent and Mylar	01
25	Conv	with Friction	01 65
0.0	351	Geometrical Accuracy and Mesh Refinement	00 65
	352	Final Convergence	66
	3.5.2	Model Fit	69
$\operatorname{Chapt}$	er 4	Supplemental Finite Element Investigations	76
4.1	Mode	l Analysis	76
	4.1.1	Free Body Analysis	83
4.2	In-Vi	vo Finite Element Model	87
Chapt	er 5	Stent Design and Manufacture	90
5.1	Stent	Cataloging	91
5.2	Metal	lographic and Chemical Analysis	94
5.3	Jig D	esign and Manufacture	00
	5.3.1	Final Jig Design	02
5.4	Stent	Manufacture	05
5.5	Discu	ssion	07
Chapt	er 6	Stent Design Parameters and Radial Force Prediction 10	)9
6.1	Stent	Characteristic Study Methodology	09
6.2	Stent	Characteristic Study Results	15
6.3	Radia	ll Force Prediction Software	20
6.4	Discu	ssion $\ldots \ldots 1$	24
Chapt	er 7	Conclusion	27
7.1	Recor	nmendations and Future Work	29
Refere	ences .		31
Apper	ndix A	PIV Vision System	<b>62</b>
A 1	Meth	odology 1	62
A.2	Progr	am Operation $\ldots \ldots 1$	65
Apper	ndix B	FEA code	<b>6</b> 7
B.1	Main	Body 1	67
B.2	Mater	rials $\ldots \ldots 1$	79

B.3	Part1 -	- Mylar Sheet		180
B.4	Part2 ·	- Rollers		181
B.5	Part3 ·	- Stent	•	182
Appen	dix C	Radial Extensometer Instructions	•	183
C.1	Zero F	orce Calibration		183
C.2	Operat	tion	•	185
Appen	dix D	Radial Extensometer Drawings		193
Appen	dix E	Force Gauge Specification Sheet		207
Appen	dix F	Wire Bending Jig Drawings		208
Appen	dix G	Radial Force Prediction Software Code		214

### List of Tables

Table 1.1	Non-surgical survival rates following AAA diagnosis. Standardized values are calculated using age, cardiac status and blood pressure
Table 1.2	Current self-expanding AAA stent-grafts organized by initial date of approval
Table 1.3	Comparison of OSR and EVAR (American Society of Anesthesiologists [ASA])
Table 1.4	Classification of the five types of endoleak [66] $\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 10$
Table 1.5	Cumulative probability of primary AAA EVAR outcome measures [78]
Table 1.6	Incidence of migration
Table 1.7	Performance of Cook Medical's Zenith stent-graft[19] 15
Table 2.1	Dimensional resolution of a Logitech C920 webcam at different levels of zoom $(\pm SD)$
Table 2.2	Sensitivity and repeatability with 10V excitation
Table 2.3	Spring test results
Table 2.4	Directionality results during expansion
Table 3.1	Explicit vs. implicit - total simulation time
Table 3.2	Material properties of Mylar provided by DuPont Teijin Films[166] (MD = machine direction, TD = transverse direction)
Table 3.3	Elongation error
Table 3.4	Material properties of an annealed, cold drawn stainless steel 316L bar[176]
Table 3.5	Model fitting results

First and second round model and experiment $(\pm SD)$ 72
Stent catalogue ( $\pm$ SD, 1/32 in = 0.79 mm)
Verification of material composition for stainless steel 316L sample[197]
Verification of material composition for Ni-Ti sample [198] $\ldots$ . 99
Stent characteristic catalog ( $\pm$ SD, 1/32 in = 0.79 mm, 1/16 in = 1.59 mm)
Wire diameter - $r^2$ values for different curve fitting methods
Standard error, t-test and p-values for different stent characteristic changes (SError units match those of the column heading) 126

# List of Figures

Figure 1.1	"Tire wrap" experimental measurement apparatus[139]: 1 - nonelastic working material, 2 - force gauge, 3 - stent inside "tire wrap" loop	.8
Figure 1.2	Diagram of the balance and micrometer used in the vertical compression test[150]	.9
Figure 1.3	Schematic of hydrostatic system schematic and components used to measure stent compliance[151]	20
Figure 1.4	Preliminary radial extensioneter[48]	21
Figure 1.5	Industrial testing equiptment - iris[157]	22
Figure 1.6	A Whitney strain gauge with a z-stent inserted into its center. This gauge is composed of silicone elastomer tubing containing a mercury bead[137]	22
Figure 2.1	Extensometer system: 1 - machine vision webcam, 2 - stent- graft, 3 - force gauge, 4 - Mylar film, 5 - linear slide	25
Figure 2.2	Generalized radial extensometer functionality	26
Figure 2.3	Vision capture using the NI "Find Circular Edge 1" VI: 1 - edge of Mylar sheet, 2 - green edge of region of interest, 3 - red circle fit to Mylar edge, 4 - stent expanded in Mylar loop, 5 - blue lines intersect with Mylar edge creating a point for circle fitting	29
Figure 2.4	Original radial extensioneter used by Johnston et al.[1] 3	30
Figure 2.5	New radial extensometer	32
Figure 2.6	Full system horizontal calibration	34
Figure 2.7	Low range vertical and horizontal calibration data	34
Figure 2.8	Noise contributed by the NI9237 module	35
Figure 2.9	Passband flatness of the NI9237 module $(Hz/Hz)[169]$ 3	36

Figure 2.10	Maximized SNR ratio for force gauge sample	36
Figure 2.11	$22 \mathrm{mm}$ Stent brazed joint orientation - three wire covered $\ldots$	39
Figure 2.12	Stent offsets for differing Mylar thicknesses with 0.035 N Mylar loading	41
Figure 2.13	Mylar thickness comparison using a covered, two wire, 18 mm stent-graft	42
Figure 2.14	Effect of multiple stent wires and configurations	43
Figure 2.15	Effect of peak AR achieved during testing on results using a covered, three wire, 18mm stent-graft	44
Figure 2.16	Comparison of covered, three wire stent-graft diameter and radial force	45
Figure 3.1	Flat Mylar - 0.25 mm quadrilateral mesh	51
Figure 3.2	Flat Mylar convergence study	52
Figure 3.3	Elongation of Mylar under $0 - 10$ N load	53
Figure 3.4	90 ° Angle Mylar and rigid roller contact visualization $\ldots$	55
Figure 3.5	Angled x and y contact verification	56
Figure 3.6	Full assembly using rigid Tygon tubing stent analog	57
Figure 3.7	Contact test for full system with rigid rollers, rigid stent analog and free Mylar	58
Figure 3.8	Convergence study for full system with rigid rollers, rigid stent analog and free Mylar	58
Figure 3.9	Full system; rigid rollers and stent with free Mylar, y-contact force	59
Figure 3.10	y-Contact force between Tygon tubing stent analog and Mylar film	60
Figure 3.11	Contact test on full system with rigid rollers; free stent analog and Mylar	60

Figure 3.12	Final completed model - rigid rollers; free stent and Mylar with friction	61
Figure 3.13	Completed simulation constriction with rigid rollers; free stent and Mylar with friction	64
Figure 3.14	von Mises stress (MPa), full model at 157.5 s	64
Figure 3.15	Separation error: a sagitta line drawn between the outer edge of the roller geometry and the mesh created to represent it 6	65
Figure 3.16	Mesh convergence with respect to peak force	67
Figure 3.17	Mesh convergence with respect to simulation duration $\ldots \ldots \ldots$	68
Figure 3.18	The impact on simulation results due to varying the Coulomb friction constants	70
Figure 3.19	Results of model fitting friction analysis	73
Figure 3.20	Completed model fit and comparison of full simulated and experimental data profile	74
Figure 3.21	Completed model fit and comparison of simulated and experimental data during expansion only	75
Figure 4.1	Coordinate system for model analysis - demonstrated on stent leg: 1 - center of bend, 2 - center of stent leg	77
Figure 4.2	t-Bending moment comparison between stent leg and bend - not in contact with the rollers	78
Figure 4.3	The impact of stent wire leg and roller contact on radial force results	79
Figure 4.4	s-Bending moment - bend vs. leg	79
Figure 4.5	Comparison of axial stress and s-bending moment profiles 8	80
Figure 4.6	t-Bending moment and force distributions during expansion at 159.75 s	81
Figure 4.7	s-Force [RADIAL FORCE] during expansion at 159.75 s (N) 8	81
Figure 4.8	Torsion	82

Figure 4.9	Visualization of peak von Mises stress at $130.5 \text{ s} (\text{MPa}) \dots 83$
Figure 4.10	Free-body diagram of contributing reactions. $F_R$ = radial force, $F_{\mu}$ = friction force (constriction and expansion), $N_1/N_2$ = normal roller forces, $T_1/T_2$ = Mylar tensile forces 84
Figure 4.11	Comparison between force gauge and linear force data from the moving anchor
Figure 4.12	Unrolled free body diagram of contributing reactions. $F_R$ = radial force, $F_{\mu}$ = friction force (constriction and expansion), $N_1/N_2$ = normal roller forces, $T_1/T_2$ = Mylar tensile forces 85
Figure 4.13	Simulated pressure created by a single self-expanding z-stent deployed in-vivo
Figure 4.14	Initial and final rendering of in-vivo simulation
Figure 4.15	Internal energy trend of a self-expanding z-stent during expansion in-vivo
Figure 5.1	Setup for precise stent measurement and cataloging 90
Figure 5.2	Measure of stent characteristics, x-z plane
Figure 5.3	Microstructure and texture analysis process
Figure 5.4	Stainless steel 316L stent wire microstructure and texture 97
Figure 5.5	Stainless steel 316L stent wire axial texture
Figure 5.6	NiTi grain structure at 500x
Figure 5.7	Stent bender design iterations
Figure 5.8	Second iteration feed through bender (low angle) showing failed attempt due to slipped wire: 1 - bending teeth, 2 - wheel for mounting bender, 3 - flat bending shield, 4 - stent wire
Figure 5.9	Completed stent wire bending jig
Figure 5.10	Completed clear stent wire bending jig
Figure 5.11	Final stent wire bending jig
0 -	

Figure 5.12	Custom stent manufacturing process	106
Figure 6.1	Results of altered wire diameter with polynomial fit $\ldots \ldots$	114
Figure 6.2	Effect of altering wire diameter	115
Figure 6.3	Effect of altering bend radius	116
Figure 6.4	Effect of altering leg length	117
Figure 6.5	Effect of altering bend angle	118
Figure 6.6	Comparison of lab, industry and covered stents $\ldots \ldots \ldots$	119
Figure 6.7	Radial force prediction software	120
Figure 6.8	The effect of compliance on the simulated radial force profile for a 14.59 mm stent expanded inside an artery with an outer diameter of 12.5 mm	123
Figure A.1	Console for PIV vision editing	163
Figure A.2	Cropping (red) and counting (green) regions of interest	164
Figure A.3	Ultrasound image editing steps	164
Figure A.4	Comparison of original PIV image and PIV image with replaced particles	165
Figure C.1	Radial extensioneter force gauge calibration software $\ldots$ .	184
Figure C.2	Radial extensometer l-bracket removal	185
Figure C.3	Radial extensometer moving anchor removal	186
Figure C.4	Radial extensioneter moving anchor Mylar attachment	187
Figure C.5	Radial extensioneter displacement calculator $\ldots \ldots \ldots$	188
Figure C.6	Radial extensometer motion control	188
Figure C.7	Radial extensometer DAQ graphical user interface (GUI)	189
Figure C.8	Radial extensometer DAQ file saving options	190
Figure C.9	Radial extensometer DAQ force options	190

Figure C.10  $\,$  Radial extensometer DAQ base and rebound force settings  $\,$  . . .  $\,$  191  $\,$ 

#### Abstract

Stent migration and endoleak are common failure mechanisms for endovascular repair, both of which can be partially attributed to a lack in understanding of the mechanical properties of endovascular stents. A novel radial extensometer and machine vision system were developed to standardize testing methodology and improve the quality of collected radial force data. A converged finite element model of the radial extensometer was validated using experimental results for an uncovered 12 mm stent. Torsion, t-bending and s-bending moments are all shown to contribute to stent performance. A small batch manufacturing process was developed to produce z-stents that are analogous to those fabricated by industry. A parametric study of stent design parameters showed that a lesser increase in bend diameter was the only characteristic not to be a statistically significant contributor to radial force generation. Results were used to develop radial force prediction software for the design of patient-specific 14 mm stents.

# List of Abbreviations Used

AAA	Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm
ADC	Analog-to-Digital Converter
$\mathbf{AR}$	Area Reduction
ASA	American Society of Anesthesiologists
BCC	Body-Centered-Cubic
BCG	Brightness, Contrast and Gamma
BCT	Body-Centered-Tetragonal
BMP	Bitmap
CAD	Computer-Aided Design
$\mathbf{CFD}$	Computational Fluid Dynamics
COM	Communication
$\mathbf{CSM}$	Computational Solid Mechanics
$\mathbf{CST}$	Constant Strain Triangle
$\mathbf{CT}$	Computed Tomography
$\mathbf{DAQ}$	Data Acquisition
EDS	Energy-Dispersive x-Ray Spectroscopy
$\mathbf{EMR}$	Electro-Magnetic-Radiation
EVAR	Endovascular Repair
EVT	Endovascular Technologies
FBD	Free-Body Diagram
FCC	Face-Centered-Cubic
FDA	United States Food and Drug Administration
$\mathbf{FE}$	Finite Element
$\mathbf{FFT}$	Fast Fourier Transform
FSO	Full Scale Output
GUI	Graphical User Interface
ICU	Intensive Care Unit

MAPE	Mean Absolute Percent Error
MPE	Mean Percent Error
NI	National Instruments
OA	Original Area
OSR	Open Surgical Repair
$\mathbf{PIV}$	Particle Image Velocimetry
$\mathbf{SE}$	Standard Error of the Estimate
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscope
$\mathbf{SNR}$	Signal-to-Noise Ratio
$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{V}$	Ultraviolet
VI	Virtual Instrument

#### Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my parents, Anne and Kelly Scott, as well as my family and friends, whose love and motivation supported me through my work and the writing of this dissertation.

Thank-you to my supervisors Drs. Clifton Johnston and Darrel Doman for providing me with their insight as well as my committee members Drs. Ted Hubbard and Chris Lightfoot for their time and effort.

Manufacturing was completed thanks to the generous help of Reg Peters and Angus MacPherson. Thank-you for your immaculate work and training.

This work has been supported by a grant from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada.

#### Chapter 1

#### Introduction

There are currently multiple treatment options available for those who are diagnosed with an abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA). Preference for a less invasive procedure has lead to a surge in popularity of endovascular repair (EVAR) over open surgical repair (OSR) and promoted the development of a booming industry for stent-graft prosthetics. The majority of current stents used for AAA repair are self-expanding, applying a radial force to artery walls to achieve both strong axial arterial fixation, as well as a strong graft-to-artery seal.

Stent migration due to haemodynamic drag continues to be a common failure mechanism and is the primary cause of stent-graft leakage (endoleak), which can lead to aneurysm rupture. Both failure mechanisms can be partially attributed to deficiencies in stent graft radial spring design. This argument is supported by an investigation into performance of the Zenith (Cook Medical, Bloomingon, IN) selfexpanding stainless steel (316L) z-stent by Johnston et al. which discovered that increasing stent diameter corresponded to a decrease in radial force despite higher haemodynamic drag forces in larger arteries[1]. Their findings were successfully reproduced and expanded upon.

The purpose of this work is to both develop investigative tools intended for use in rectifying a deficient understanding of stent mechanics and to characterize the impact of altering stent design parameters on overall stent performance. Results from this analysis are used to predict stent performance based on both varied stent geometry and patient specific characteristics. The Zenith stent-graft is the primary prosthetic studied, however, tools developed in this work can be used to investigate the performance of any available AAA stent-graft.

To quantify radial force generated by various stent diameters and geometries, a novel radial extensioneter was developed along with a machine vision system used to calculate the cross sectional area reduction (AR) of stent-grafts during testing. This system will not only eliminate error contributed by deformation of Mylar used in the radial extensometer but also reduce error by switching from a manually calculated AR to one based on live observation during testing. This system was used to validate and expand upon the radial force results presented by Johnston et al. investigating the impact of stent connections, graft covering and multiple stents on radial force results[1]. Adoption of this radial extensometer by others will establish a consistant platform for comparison of results from study to study.

A finite element model was created to mimic the newly designed radial extensometer. Creating a model that matches the experimental setup makes it possible to validate the simulation against real world values. The completed model provides a tool for analysis of the mechanical function of stents, specifically the mechanisms responsible for radial force generation. Torsion, t-bending and s-bending moments were all shown to contribute to sent radial force generation. It was also demonstrated that both the contact between stent legs and the support rollers of the experimental setup as well as pinching of stent bends between these rollers impact results collected by the radial extensometer. This tool will not only be useful for investigating the relationship between radial force produced by stents and linear force measured by the radial extensometer force gauge but also for simulating novel stent designs.

A small batch method of stent production was developed to manufacture stents which could be used to investigate the impact of altering stent design characteristics (leg length, bend angle, bend radius, wire diameter) on radial force generation. Results from this design parameter study showed that lesser changes in bend diameter had no statistically significant impact on radial force generation. Results gathered for all parameters were used by a new software which was developed to predict stent radial force. Output from this software is calculated based on user input values for design characteristic dimensions as well as patient specific arterial diameter and compliance.

These new tools can be used to collect data required to shift from an inexact stent selection methodology based on a generalized range of prosthetic oversize, to one where stents are developed to generate an ideal radial force for each patient's specific characteristics. There are several other pathologies treated with EVAR that would benefit from the ability to measure and manipulate the radial force generated by their associated prosthetics. Devices used in more delicate circumstances such as vena cava stenosis and aortic dissection, where it is important to minimize the amount of stress imparted on the weak or weakened vessel, would benefit disproportionately from this ability[2, 3, 4, 5]. Improvements in stent performance will both increase the use of EVAR over OSR and expand the number of possible applications where EVAR can be used. Either of these scenarios will increase the demand for prosthetics and the available market for manufacturers.

AAA stent-grafts are selected based on measurements of the patient's outer arterial diameter. However, while investigating the performance of these prosthetics, diametral oversize is substituted for AR to nondimensionalize collected data, ensuring results are independent of stent diameter. Equations 1.1 and 1.2 can be used to convert from AR to diametral oversize for results presented from this point forward.

$$D_F = 2 * \sqrt{\left[\frac{\left(\pi \frac{D_O}{2}^2\right)\left(\frac{100 - AR}{100}\right)}{\pi}\right]}$$
(1.1)

$$D_{OVER} = 100 * \left(\frac{D_O}{D_F} - 1\right) \tag{1.2}$$

where

$$D_F = \text{final diameter (mm)}$$
  
 $D_O = \text{original diameter (mm)}$   
 $AR = \text{area reduction (\%)}$   
 $D_{OVER} = \text{diametral oversize (\%)}$ 

#### 1.1 Literature Review

Endovascular stents have been used for several years in the management of occlusive (closing off), degenerative (weakening) and aneurysmal (bulging) arterial disease. However, the mechanics of endovascular stents are in need of further investigation.

Generally, an AAA is defined as a section of diseased artery that has ballooned out to over 50% (1.5 times) the original healthy diameter, or greater than 3 cm diameter total[6, 7, 8]. AAAs are three times more common in men than in women, with an increase in likelihood in those of older age with a history of angina, coronary heart disease, myocardial infarction or cigarette smoking[7]. Other risk factors include a lower ratio of high-density to low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels, lower anklearm blood pressure ratio, higher creatinine levels, existing carotid stenosis or a greater intima-media thickness of the internal carotid artery[8].

Most AAAs are asymptomatic and are therefore detected by chance. Screening studies in the United Kingdom have estimated the prevalence of asymptomatic AAAs at 1.3 - 12.7% depending on age group and how AAAs were defined[9]. For those that are symptomatic (who present with a pulsating sensation in the abdomen, back pain and/or abdominal pain) the rate of AAA in men becomes ~25 per 100,000 at 50 years of age and ~78 per 100,000 in those greater than 70 years of age[9]. Melton et al. noted the number of new AAA events from 1971 - 1980 achieved an incidence of 36.5 per 100,000 person-years[10].

Preliminary investigations into AAAs revealed steadily decreasing cumulative survival rates following initial diagnosis (Table 1.1). It has become well established that the risk of rupture and mortality increases with aneurysm diameter. Nevitt et al. noted the risk of rupture over five years was 0% for patients with an aneurysm less than 5 cm in diameter and 25% percent for patients with an aneurysm 5 cm or larger[11]. Furthermore, the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence states that the 5-year survival rate for patients with aneurysms larger than 5 cm was only ~20%[9]. For those patients who experienced an aneurysm rupture, 38% reached the hospital alive and only 19% survived overall. For those over the age of 75, the survival rate for those who experienced an aneurysm rupture at home dropped even farther to 5.6%[12]. Literature has established that it is important to address aneurysms  $\geq 5$  cm in diameter following diagnosis and to work on identifying aneurysms before rupture.

The first successful attempt at OSR of an aneurysm by removal and replacement of a graft was performed by Dr. Charles Dubost in 1951[15]. An investigation into the success of OSR from 1952 - 1965 revealed a drop from an overall operative mortality of 14.7% for this entire period of observation to 6.3% in the last two years of the study[14]. A more recent report on operative mortality of OSR (2007) claims a further reduction to 2.7%[16]. Mortality and morbidity in the first thirty days following OSR were 1.4% and 15%, with 3 and 5 year survival rates of 93% and 88% respectively[17,

	Survival Bate (%)				
	Estes 1950[13]	Szilacvi et al $1966[14]$			
		Standa	ardized	Non-Standardized	
Yrs. After Diagnosis	N/A	<6 cm	$>6\mathrm{cm}$	All Patients	
1	67.0	75.0	47.5	54.3	
2	58.1	72.1	25.9	41.3	
3	49.2	68.3	12.1	32.1	
4	26.9	57.1	8.8	24.0	
5	18.9	47.8	6.0	17.2	
8	10.0	23.1	0.0	6.1	
10	0.0	11.1	0.0	1.5	
Deaths Due to Rupture	63.3	_	_	34.9	

 Table 1.1: Non-surgical survival rates following AAA diagnosis. Standardized values are calculated using age, cardiac status and blood pressure

16].

In the United Kingdom, elective OSR is currently recommended for patients with aneurysms larger than 5.5 cm in diameter or with aneurysms larger than 4.5 cm that have grown by >0.5 cm in the past 6 months. Even though 15 - 20% of small aneurysms do not expand substantially, 80% have been found to steadily increase in diameter, while 20% increase by the required 0.5 cm per year[18]. Patients with aneurysms <4.5 cm in diameter are not generally recommended for surgery but are followed up every 3 - 6 months as a precaution[7]. Overall, removal of the aneurysm increased the length of survival of patients by 2.1 times, effectively doubling their life expectancy[14].

OSR is still a very invasive procedure which cannot be performed in all cases. Mortality rates may have become very low, however, these rates increase significantly for patients with certain comorbidities. Coronary artery disease, renal failure and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease are of particular concern[19]. It was important that a less invasive approach be developed to treat those that would not be suitable for OSR.

Balloon angioplasty was initially developed by Drs. Charles T. Dotter and Melvin

P. Judkins to address arterial occlusion[20]. Angioplasty proved very effective, however, it was difficult to treat patients who experienced a development of secondary luminal thrombosis following catheter dilatation, as there was no lumen left to dilate[21]. Following an initial investigation into the implantation of tubular grafts by Dr. Dotter, the implantation of coil spring grafts was suggested as a method to treat arterial occlusion and elastic recoil of the vessel with long term patency that avoided the trauma associated with OSR[22]. Along with this investigation came first mention of the possibility of automatically expanding endovascular stents by either stretching out or winding up coil spring stents as a manner of controlling their diameter prior to implantation[21].

Drs. Juan Parodi, Julio Palmaz and Héctor Barone saw the potential to expand intravascular stenting outside of angioplasty as a minimally invasive alternative to OSR. Through their efforts, the first successful treatment of a human AAA was performed in 1990 by transfemoral placement of an aortic graft, anchored using large balloon expandable stents[23, 24, 25, 26, 7].

#### 1.1.1 Current Endovascular Aneurysm Repair

AAA endovascular repair has benefited from several years of evolution and innovation, including the switch from balloon expanded stents as anchors to an interpretation of Dr. Dotter's vision of automatically expanding stents[21]. Arteries undergo diameter changes of  $\sim 3 - 10\%$  when subjected to 100 mmHg pulsatile pressure changes, which stiff balloon-expanded stents are not able to track. The switch to self-expanding stents allowed stent-grafts to better match the compliance of vessel walls, enabling better contact at all levels of dilation[27, 28]. The first two self-expanding AAA stentgrafts (AneuRx [Medtronic, Inc., Dublin, Ireland] and Ancure [Guidant Corporation, Marlborough, MA]) gained United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval in September 1999[29]. With the approval of this technology, 2000 – 2010 saw the number of AAA treated through EVAR instead of OSR increase from 5.2% to 74.0%[30]. As outlined in Table 1.2, there are currently fourteen self-expanding endovascular stent-grafts approved by the FDA and Conformité Européenne (CE), available on the market today for treatment of AAAs[31, 32, 7, 33, 34]. Several other models including the Lifepath (Edward Lifesciences, Irvine, CA) and Ancure have

Manufacturer	Device	Stent Material	Graft Material	Approval
Medtronic	AneuRx	nitinol	woven polyester	FDA 1999[29]
W.L. Gore & Associates Inc.	Excluder	nitinol	ePTFE	FDA 2002[37]
Cook Medical	Zenith	stainless steel	woven polyester	FDA 2003[38]
Endologix	Powerlink	Co-Cr alloy	woven polyester	FDA 2004[39]
Vasutek	Anaconda	nitinol	woven polyester	$CE \ 2005[40]$
Jotec	E-vita	nitinol	woven polyester	CE 2008[41]
Medtronic	Talent	nitinol	woven polyester	FDA 2008[42]
Medtronic	Endurant	nitinol	woven polyester	FDA 2010[42]
TriVascular	Ovation Prime	hardening polymer/ nitinol	PTFE	FDA 2011[42]
Endologix	AFX	Co-Cr alloy	multilayer ePTFE	FDA 2011[43]
Lombard Medical	Aorfix	nitinol	polyester	FDA 2013[42]
Bolton	Treovance	nitinol	woven polyester	$CE \ 2013[44]$
Jotec	E-tegra	nitinol	woven polyester	$CE \ 2014[41]$
Incraft	Cordis Corp.	nitinol	woven polyester	$CE \ 2014[45]$

 Table 1.2: Current self-expanding AAA stent-grafts organized by initial date of approval

been discontinued [35, 36].

Self-expanding stents have a number of advantages over their balloon expanded counterparts, most notably of which is their ability to follow pulsatile diameter changes of the vessel wall[46, 47]. A study by Duda et al. showed abrupt and irreversible stent collapse when an ultimate external compressive force or pressure was exceeded for balloon-expanded stents, this did not occur with self-expanding stents[48]. The success of EVAR has been steadily improving and has enabled the treatment of high risk groups due to its less invasive nature when compared to OSR[49, 6]. EVAR has been shown as comparable or superior to OSR for a number of criteria, as shown in Table 1.3. Among several other benefits, patients undergoing EVAR experienced lower short-term mortality rates, lower rates of complication as well as shorter hospital and intensive care unit (ICU) stays than patients undergoing traditional OSR[50]. These significant benefits, despite a higher cost of care, justifies the use of EVAR over OSR for patients with suitable anatomy[30].

EVAR will likely continue to expand in popularity as new prosthetic designs further improve device reliability[51]. Unlike OSR, the risk of rupture following surgery still exists because the aneurysm sac is left inside the patient[52]. Numerical simulations have shown that a securely placed endovascular stent-graft shields the diseased AAA wall from pulsatile blood pressure, keeping the maximum wall stress 20 times below the wall stress value of a non-isolated AAA. Even with this significant improvement, there are still small changes in pressure caused by the interaction of pulsatile cardiac blood flow and the graft membrane, therefore the aneurysm sac itself[53].

EVAR has encountered its own unique and challenging failure mode compared to OSR, called "endoleak". The term "endoleak" was coined by White et al. in 1996 and refers to an endograft seal failure leading to leakage between the vessel wall and stent-graft, resulting in incomplete aneurysm exclusion[54, 55]. Recent data for endoleak following EVAR reveals a prevalence of between 4 - 30%[56, 57, 58]. Incidence of endoleak has shown generous improvement when compared to older studies (pre-2005) involving first and second generation devices, which reported EVAR endoleak rates of 5.4 - 44%[59, 55, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65]. Several types of endoleak have been characterized and are outlined in Table 1.4. Absence of endoleak types I

OSR Criteria EVAR ASA patient risk level 4 (highest) (%) [59] 1726Blood transfusion (ml) [70, 71, 72] 720 - 1287135 - 408Blood lost (ml) [59, 72, 73] 1596 - 3662500 - 1843Surgery time (min) [72, 59]188 - 216145 - 186ICU utilization (days) [70, 72, 59] 1.75 - 8.30.1 - 3.42 - 13Length of hospital stay (days) [59, 72, 74, 30, 70]7 - 20Anesthesia (hours) [59] 4.94.5Perioperative mortality unruptured (%) [75, 76, 30] 4 - 4.70 - 1.3Perioperative mortality ruptured (%) [30] 41 27Early conversion EVAR to OSR  $\leq 30 \text{ days}$  (%) [77] N\A 1.5N\A Early conversion mortality (%) [77] 12.4N\A Late conversion EVAR to OSR >30 days (%) [77] 1.9N\A Late conversion mortality (%) [77] 10 0.5 - 3.130-Day mortality (%) [78, 71, 50] 1.5 - 5.630-Day morbidity (%) [76] 30 151-Year all-cause mortality (%) [78, 50] 12.17.4 - 8.72-Year all-cause mortality (%) [75] 15.214.33-Year secondary intervention (%) [76] 4.516.63-Year aneurysm-related mortality (%) [76] 7.60 3-4 year all-cause mortality (%) [76, 75] 15.2 - 33.834.7 - 42.96.4 Year all-cause mortality (%) [79] 30.131.16.4 Year secondary intervention (%) [79] 18.129.6Most recent cost estimate unruptured (US) [30] 46,93563,623 Most recent cost estimate ruptured (US) [30] 80,574 101,928

 Table 1.3: Comparison of OSR and EVAR (American Society of Anesthesiologists [ASA])

and III is required to achieve clinical success as defined by Chaikof et al. in the Reporting Standards for Endovascular Aortic Aneurysm Repair published in 2002[66]. Types II and IV are not desirable but clinical success can still be achieved unless these endoleaks are associated with aneurysm sac expansion[66, 67]. Many type II endoleaks have been shown to resolve spontaneously[68]. The percentage of patients experiencing endoleak may seem quite large, however, endoleak types I and III are significantly less common than types II and IV[68, 62, 64]. In two studies from 2003 by Buth et al. and 2008 by Baril et al., the number of endoleak type I and III cases was found to be between 4.05 - 12%[60, 58]. A fifth type of endoleak is referred to

as "endotension". This term refers to a scenario where the aneurysm sac continues enlarging and is presumably still pressurized, however, the origin of leakage cannot be determined[69].

Type	Cause of Perigraft Flow
Ι	a) Inadequate seal at proximal end of endograft
	b) Inadequate seal at distal end of endograft
	c) Inadequate seal at iliac occluder plug
II	Flow from visceral vessel (lumbar, IMA, accessory renal,
	hypogastric) without attachment site connection
III	a) Flow from module disconnection
	b) Flow from fabric disruption
	Minor $(<2 \mathrm{mm})$
	Major $(\geq 2 \mathrm{mm})$
IV	Flow from porous fabric ( $<30$ days after graft placement)
Endoleak of un-	Flow visualized but source unidentified
defined origin	

 Table 1.4: Classification of the five types of endoleak
 [66]

Endoleak is concerning as it has been shown to cause aneurysm sac expansion in 21.1 % of patients [57]. Type I and III endoleaks have been shown to significantly increase pressure inside the aneurysm sac [80]. Due to the fact that aneurysm wall stress is directly related to sac pressure, these high pressure endoleaks increase the chance of rupture substantially (3.4 % with endoleak vs. 0.25 % without) as a result of a lack of appropriate outflow [60, 80, 81, 82, 53]. Patients with high pressure endoleaks show a larger change in aneurysm volume than those with type II endoleaks, 13.23 % vs. 8.55 %, and a significantly larger change in diameter, 19.8 % vs. 5.4 % respectively [56, 60].

Because of this increase in probability of rupture and therefore mortality, endoleak is widely considered the main problem associated with EVAR failure[7]. In an article published by Buth et al. in 2003, secondary intervention was required in 54 % of patients with endoleak types I and III compared to 6 % in the group without. Conversion to open surgery was also higher in this group at 11 % vs. 0.8 % respectively[60]. In 2006, Brewster et al. published combined EVAR primary outcome statistics for ten different stent-graft devices as seen in Table 1.5.

Freedom From:	30 Days	1 Year	5 Years	9 Years
Rupture	99.9	$99.1\pm0.4$	$97.6\pm0.9$	$94.0\pm2.2$
Aneurysm-related mortality	98.2	$97.1\pm0.6$	$96.1\pm0.9$	$92.6\pm2.1$
Conversion to open	99.5	$98.8\pm0.4$	$93.3 \pm 1.7$	$93.3 \pm 1.7$
All-cause mortality	98.2	$92.6 \pm 1.0$	$52.1\pm2.8$	$16.8\pm5.7$
Reintervention	100	$97.2\pm0.6$	$78.2\pm2.6$	$62.9\pm7.0$

**Table 1.5:** Cumulative probability of primary AAA EVAR outcome measures [78]

Prevention of endoleak requires an understanding of its etiology. Analysis of previous failures has informed new generations of devices, increased the integrity of new devices and reduced the likelihood of type III endoleaks[83, 84, 85]. After years of device redesign and improvement, type I endoleak has become the primary cause of stent-graft failure. To avoid endoleak, a seal must be achieved between the proximal and distal ends of the stent-graft and the artery wall[66]. Anything that promotes an immediate or delayed failure in fixation will increase the likelihood of endoleak and aneurysm rupture. It's no surprise then that the primary cause for type I proximal endoleak, and therefore late rupture, is stent-graft migration[7, 86, 87, 88, 89].

Stent migration has been defined in reporting standards by Chaikof et al. as being a displacement of the prosthetic of >10 mm relative to anatomical landmarks, or any migration leading to symptoms or requiring therapy[66]. As seen in Table 1.6, multiple investigators have defined migration as >5 mm axial displacement in order to perform a more sensitive analysis. Upstream migration has even been noted in rare cases [90, 91].

According to vanHerwaarden et al., 68 % of re-intervention was performed for fixation related complication and 75 % of these complications occurred at the proximal neck [92]. Although reservations exist as to how prolific EVAR should become for patients with difficult anatomical preconditions and severe comorbidities, improvements and innovation will open this procedure up as a less invasive method of aneurysmal repair for a greater number of people[68].

With the prevalence of stent-graft migration it is important to understand how

	Follow-up Time (Months)		Incidence (%)		
Author	Mean	Range	$\geq 5\mathrm{mm}$	$\geq 10 \mathrm{mm}$	Unknown
Resch et al.[93]	13.0	1 - 36	45.0	_	_
Mohan et al.[94]	19.8	1 - 48	3.0	_	_
Greenberg et al.[95]	—	24 - 36	1.5	_	_
Conners et al.[96]	_	12	7.0	_	_
	—	24	20.4	—	_
	—	36	42.1	—	_
	—	48	66.7	—	—
Sternbergh et al.[63]	—	12	2.3	0.0	_
Lee et al. $[97]$	17.0	$\leq 36$	—	17.5	_
Cao et al. $[98]$	28.0	24 - 46	—	15.0	_
	—	36	—	27.0	_
Li, Zhonghua[99]	40.3	$40.3\pm7.5$	—	16.7	_
Carpenter et al.[65]	11.0	$\leq 52$	—	2.2	_
Zarins et al.[100]	30.0	$30 \pm 11$	—	—	8.4
	—	12	—	—	1.4
	—	24	—	—	6.6
	_	36		_	18.8

 Table 1.6:
 Incidence of migration

stent-grafts held in place. Several types of stent-grafts have been released to market with different types of fixation. All stents include some amount of passive fixation–it is also required to generate a seal between artery and graft–using only radial force generated by the stent to hold the graft in place. Additionally to this, some stentgrafts have adopted mechanical fixation in the form of hooks or barbs, such as the first commercial aortic endograft, the Endovascular Technologies (EVT) device, and most AAA stent-grafts used today[101]. The radial force required for passive fixation is generated by over-sizing the stent compared to the diameter of the outer vessel wall.

Stent oversize of a minimum 10 % up to 20 % relative to the computed tomography (CT) generated outer aortic neck diameter is credited with the greatest success of EVAR[102, 103]. These values have been used as the oversize benchmark in the majority of modern studies[64, 104, 6, 95]. Even with general agreement in these values, controversy still exists in higher values of oversize. Some studies suggest

that oversizing above 20%[103], up to 25%[105] or even as high as 30%[63, 100]would still be successful while reducing the rate of endoleaks. Others have warned it may be dangerous to oversize more than 20%. Conners et al. found an increased rate of migration for those with stents >20% compared to those oversized <20%, of 29.2% and 18.6% respectively[96]. It has become widely accepted that stent-graft oversize of more than 30% can lead to future complications such as vessel growth and remodeling[106]. Of particular concern as a contributor to the likelihood of stent-graft migration and type I endoleak is secondary proximal neck dilation following initial dilation during introduction of the prosthetic [93, 105, 63, 96, 98]. Certain reports question whether this dilation is caused by stent oversize or a continuation of the disease process itself, however, it is likely due to a combination [107, 93]. In a study by Sternbergh et al., device oversizing >30% was associated with a  $\sim 16x$  increased risk of AAA expansion  $(9.5\% \text{ at } > 30\% \text{ oversize vs. } 0.6\% \text{ at } \le 30\%)$  at 24 months and a  $\sim$ 14x increase in risk of device migration greater than 5 mm (14 % at >30 % oversize vs. 0.9% at <30%)[63]. Radial force may be responsible for passive fixation of AAA stent-grafts, however, indefinitely increasing oversize and radial force until fixation is achieved will likely damage the artery and induce arterial remodeling. Over-sizing has also been shown to introduce folds into prosthetic grafts, thereby promoting endoleak by compromising the seal created between graft and artery wall [47].

The largest contributor to stent-graft migration is due to axial haemodynamic drag force, and its ability to overcome fixation forces generated by the stent-graft device. Average passive fixation forces were found to be between 3.97 - 5.41 N for stents with 24 mm proximal and 12 mm distal necks using passive proximal fixation and oversizing of 16.67%[108]. On the other hand, the axial component of proximal migration force ranged between 2.96 - 5.5 N for a passively fixed stent-graft of the same dimensions[88, 109, 110]. Several other studies have found drag forces of between 2.5 N and 16 N for AAA stent-grafts of various diameters[101, 111, 109]. Resch et al. determined that a Zenith stent with mechanical fixation barbs that penetrate the entire aortic wall require 24 N to dislodge, compared to a passively fixed Talent stent-graft, which required only 4.5 N[112]. It is quite clear that passive stent-graft contact and biological incorporation is generally inadequate to withstand the forces of pulsatile blood flow through the prosthetic, therefore, including mechanical fixation

is important to ensuring fixation. Hypertension, arterial tortuosity, arterial diameter and a large ratio between proximal aortic diameter and smaller distal iliac diameters are particularly notorious for increasing drag force[53, 113, 94, 73, 114, 100, 47, 6, 109, 88]. Improved proximal fixation (mechanical and/ or passive), friction, longitudinal stiffness and arterial in-growth will all help to reduce migration and stent-graft failure[103, 115, 93, 88, 109, 6, 53, 112, 101]. Proximal aortic fixation length is typically shorter in patients who experience migration compared to those that don't, 1.6 - 2.4 cm vs. 2.3 - 3.3 cm respectively[100, 63]. In cases where migration was successfully avoided, aneurysm sac regression following EVAR was compelling, with diameter reductions of  $-0.09 \pm 4.90 \text{ mm and } -1.48 \pm 2.56 \text{ mm at one and two years}$ respectively[97].

An unfortunate part of having oversize become the standard for determining required fixation force is that the mechanical design of all stent-grafts is slightly different. Each brand of stent will produce a different radial force and distribution of force at equal levels of constriction. The unique arterial compliance of each patient will also affect the final diameter and oversize achieved following deployment of the prosthetic. It would be wise for future research to investigate the relationship between stent-graft type, oversize, radial force generated and radial force required for fixation and seal. Previous research by Johnston et al. found that in stent-grafts of increasing diameter, radial force at similar levels of constriction did not increase as would be expected. It was found that smaller stents exerted greater radial forces than larger stents at similar levels of constriction. Larger arteries experience larger flow and haemodynamic drag and would logically require higher radial forces than smaller arteries for passive fixation[1].

The Cook Medical, Zenith AAA stent-graft was selected for further investigation. As is reflected in Table 1.7, its performance is similar if not superior to the majority of competitors and it benefits from a very simple design. The Zenith stainless steel 316L stent is easy to work with, analyze and reproduce making it a logical starting point. Faries et al. noted that there was no significant difference between device types in freedom from aneurysm rupture, with an overall 98.7% freedom at 24 months followup[19].

Variable	%
Implant success	99.3
Perioperative conversion to standard open repair	0.8
Device migration	1.4
Reduction in AAA diameter	58.0
AAA diameter unchanged	33.0
Endoleak at 30 days	15.0
Endoleak at 4 years	4.0
Late aneurysm rupture	0.6

 Table 1.7: Performance of Cook Medical's Zenith stent-graft[19]

#### 1.1.2 Current Modeling of z-Stent Mechanics and Radial Force

Prasad et al. submitted a very complete computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and computational solid mechanics (CSM) investigation in 2012, of nitinol z-stents expanding inside a thoracic aneurysm. Their goal was to investigate the mechanics of endograft stability considering a range of endograft sizes (length and degree of oversizing). Results include the impact of fixation length, aortic curvature, friction between device and aorta, and endograft oversizing on endograft stability. This work and many others investigate important characteristics involved in the interaction between stent-grafts and artery walls, as well as factors governing positional stability of stent grafts in-vivo under haemodynamic loading.

Current numerical analyses of AAAs and EVAR focus on several topics. These include: stent-graft oversize, arterial remodeling due to the interaction of stent-grafts and artery walls[116, 117, 118, 119]; the prediction of aneurysm rupture based on sac pressure and wall stress/ strain[120, 53, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126]; haemodynamics, drag, migration and endoleak[53, 110, 127, 128, 111, 129, 103]; bending and kinking[130, 131, 132]; and finally thrombus and calcification[133, 106, 104, 103]. Some significant results have already been extracted from these studies, for example, Li and Kleinstreuer modeled a stented AAA and were able to show that a securely placed endovascular stent keeps the maximal aneurysmal wall stress 20 times below the wall stress value in a non-stented AAA[53]. Another simulation by Molony et al. found a 92% decrease in peak wall stress following EVAR[128]. There is a significant lack of investigation into the mechanical functionality of stent-grafts of any kind, let alone the z-type stent graft being studied and the mechanisms by which they produce their radial force [134, 104, 135]. Developing the ability to manipulate the fixation (radial) force to an ideal value for each individual stent and patient instead of relying on inexact "rule-of-thumb" oversizing of 10 - 20% will undoubtedly improve the short and long-term success rate of EVAR today.

Some existing analytical works make assumptions in regard to how force is generated in the stent. For example, Wang et al. examines a wire mesh stent as an equivalent thin-walled pressure vessel[136]; and Vad et al. use interference fitting theory for the contact pressure that develops at the interface of two concentric cylinders to experimentally validate their finite element model investigating the coefficient of friction for self-expanding stent-grafts[115]. Future work would benefit from a more complete investigation into the mechanics of stent force generation, avoiding assumptions made in previous works. For example, the assumption made by Snowhill et al. that the mechanical reaction of a single stent bend could be extrapolated to get the radial force of a complete stent, or Fallone et al. assuming that Hooke's law could be used to determine radial force[137, 138, 139].

The design of endovascular devices has progressed for years using a trial and error methodology focused on experimental testing, however, computational design has seen a relatively slow adoption in medical device design[135, 140]. There is a minimal amount of literature that exists examining the mechanical properties, radial force and method of force generation for stainless steel self-expanding endovascular z-stents intended for AAAs. The majority of studies focus on super-elastic nitinol instead of stainless steel[116, 117, 133, 141, 138]. In 2012 and 2013, Nematzadeh et al. agreed that a numerical investigation of the z-shaped open-cell nitinol selfexpanding stent was missing in literature, their investigations focused on the effect of material properties and crimping on mechanical performance of these stents[142, 141]. They do not investigate radial forces or the manner by which the stresses they report are created, however, their work does discuss changes in mechanical behavior under different conditions. Unfortunately, as is the case for the majority of works, they present no research on the performance of stainless steel stents.

Focusing more on radial force production and experimental validation, certain

other studies introduce material of interest. Kleinstreuer et al., investigate the radial force generated as a nitinol stent is constricted and compare their results to experimental values[138]. Although their work does not focus on z-stents or stainless steel, they manage to contribute significant information on the location of maximum stress and strain of their investigated nitinol design, as well as fatigue life and the interaction of stent, graft and artery wall.

DeBock et al. examines linear and radial compression tests experimentally and numerically for nitinol and stainless steel AAA z-stents[143]. Although their methodology and the trend of their radial force data is similar to experimental work of Johnston et al., it is difficult to compare their findings or to glean meaningful results as neither study investigates a single, uncovered stent wire, or even stents of similar composition[1]. Each investigator publishes values for prosthetics with different numbers and diameters of graft covered stents at the same time. DeBock et al. did however, publish values for proximal and distal neck radial force during unloading which are presented as experimental results in Section 1.1.3.

Aside from change in radial force and stent properties due to stress-induced transformation of austenite to martensite in super-elastic nitinol, it has not been possible to find any investigations related to computationally investigating the mechanism and resulting magnitude of radial force generation in z-type self-expanding endovascular stents[142]. No resources other than that by DeBock et al. have been found on modeling the mechanics of stainless steel stents. With the apparent difficulty in comparing results from different studies it has become clear why Abel et al. agreed that while significant progress had been made in endovascular graft testing, continued collaboration among all interested parties would provide the most benefit to future designs, predictability and device performance[140].

#### 1.1.3 Current Experimental Options for Measuring the Radial Force of Self-Expanding Stent-Grafts

Over the years the FDA has tried several times to standardize methods of testing and reporting during the pre-clinical stage of stent-graft development, however, significant variation in presented results and method of data collection still exist[144, 66, 67]. There are several different experimental techniques that have been used to collect radial force data in past investigations.

As seen in Figure 1.1, in 1988 Fallone et al. used a "tire wrap" method to collect radial force data for analysis [139], which has since been mimicked by several others [145, 146, 147, 148, 145, 137]. In this method, a nonelastic strip remains fixed to either a wall or force gauge on one end, while the opposite end is attached to either weights or a force gauge. The advantage of this system is that a uniform radial load is exerted upon the stent. The most recent use of this style of device was by Bashar et al. in 2003. Fallone et al., Sawada et al. and Snowhill et al. measured the radial force of individual stainless steel stents. Their results evaluated the effect of changing different design parameters on measured radial force. Fallone et al. characterized the stent with respect to its wire diameter, length and radius. Sawada et al. investigated the impact of wire diameter, number of bends, stent diameter and length of stent, while Snowhill et al. examined the impact of wire diameter, leg length and number of bends on radial force. These investigations are performed on lab made copies of first generation z-stents. They all found that stents had higher radial force if they were made with larger wire diameter, while Fallone et al. and Sawada et al. found higher radial force in stents of shorter length. It will be interesting to compare results from analysis of these first generation stents to those developed as part of this thesis.



Figure 1.1: "Tire wrap" experimental measurement apparatus[139]: 1 - nonelastic working material, 2 - force gauge, 3 - stent inside "tire wrap" loop

A compression test was first used by Lossef et al. in 1994 with the goal of creating a standardized testing method to compare experimental and commercially available stents [149]. Several other groups have introduced refinements to this technique[101, 145], the most recent of which was published by Dyet et al. in 2000 (Figure 1.2)[150]. In general, this technique is comprised of a stent fixed to the top of a weigh scale or force gauge and a micrometer which presses down on top of the stent, compressing it during testing, while measuring positional displacement. Johnston et al. expressed concern that point load compression analysis was not representative of loading types experienced in vivo[1].



Figure 1.2: Diagram of the balance and micrometer used in the vertical compression test[150]

A hydrostatic method of radial strength testing (Figure 1.3) has been used by several parties, most recently, by Johnston et al. in 2010[151, 152, 153, 1]. This method uses a pressure chamber with a hollow, circular central section that is exposed to atmosphere. This tubular section is made of flexible tubing that will dilate and constrict based on the hydrostatic pressure of the chamber. The hydrostatic pressure required to constrict the stent as well as stent diameter are recorded.

A radial constriction technique was introduced by Duda et al. in 2000 with variations implemented by several others (Figure 1.4), most recently Voute et al. in 2011[48, 1, 154, 155]. The general functionality of this system is the same for all iterations. One end of a film sheet is anchored to a load cell and extends from the load cell to wrap around a leading roller, around the stent being tested, then passes



Figure 1.3: Schematic of hydrostatic system schematic and components used to measure stent compliance[151]

around a second roller where its other end is anchored. The stent is constricted by displacing one of the anchors, which tightens the Mylar sheet, constricting the stent. The stent is constricted to a set value of cross-sectional AR before the anchor changes direction and allows the stent begins expanding. As the stent expands, pressure exerted on the Mylar sheet is converted to a linear force which passes down the Mylar to the load cell where it is recorded. Johnston et al. investigated certain design parameters for stainless steel stents such as the effect of stent diameter, placing stent wires in series and overall covered stent length on radial force for stents of different brands[1]. These results are the primary source of comparative data for multi-stent radial force data presented in Chapter 2. A revised version of this apparatus is used for the collection of all experimental radial force data, due to its advantages in ease of control, system stability, affordability, reliability and the ability to collect meaningful, repeatable results.

Another type of radial force testing apparatus is manufactured by industry. The device by Machine Solutions Inc. (Flagstaff, Az) seen in Figure 1.5, uses a constricting iris design to crimp and analyze stents. Vorwerk et al. used a rudimentary version of this collapsing iris design during their work collecting radial force data in 1994[156]. Using an industrial device manufactured by MPT Europe (Leek, The Netherlands)


Figure 1.4: Preliminary radial extensioneter [48]

similar to the one seen in Figure 1.5, DeBock et al. measured the radial force exerted by the proximal and distal openings of a 20% oversized stainless steel z-type stent to be 4.5 N and 5.5 N respectively; as well as 5.2 N and 10.3 N respectively for 50% oversize. This Zenith Flex device had an overall diameter of 30 mm with a proximal wire diameter of 0.45 mm and a distal wire diameter of 0.35 mm. Unfortunately, these results report values for a combination of the first two wire segments of a full, bifurcated AAA stent graft and not of one individual segment which makes comparison with other results difficult[143].

A final experimental setup was used by Snowhill et al. in 2001. Their experimental setup consisted of a silicone elastomer tube filled with a continuous bead of mercury that was placed in a wheatstone bridge circuit connected to an operational amplifier circuit (Figure 1.6)[137]. The diameter change is determined from the voltage change that occurs when a stent expands in the Whitney gauge due to differing resistance of the thinned out mercury. Because material properties of the silicone tube are known, a radial force can be calculated.

Preliminary investigations into the effect of altering z-stent design parameters have



Figure 1.5: Industrial testing equiptment - iris[157]



Figure 1.6: A Whitney strain gauge with a z-stent inserted into its center. This gauge is composed of silicone elastomer tubing containing a mercury bead[137]

been pursued. There is very little complete data examining the effect of changing design criteria such as leg length, bend radius, wire diameter and bend angle on

radial force generation for individual stent wire sections of newer generations of selfexpanding z-stents. More work is required to analyze the impact of altering stent geometry on stent mechanics and radial force generation.

# Chapter 2

# **Radial Extensometer**

A radial extensometer was designed and sized specifically to measure radial force exerted by endovascular stents at different levels of expansion. This system was developed by further refining the measurement process used by Johnston et al., which was initially developed by Duda et al.[1, 48]. This novel device was designed to integrate position, force and machine vision, automatically controlling data collection and post-processing based on user input. The completed apparatus has been successfully used for extensive data collection proving itself as a useful tool in the investigation of endovascular stent-grafts. Adoption of this system by other groups would provide a common platform for analysis of prosthetics and comparison of results.

## 2.1 Methods

Positional control and data acquisition for this system is performed by a Zaber (Vancouver, BC, Canada) T-LSR150A linear slide with built-in controller[158]. Force data collection is performed by an Omega (Laval, QC, Canada) LCM703, 50 N force transducer, while a Logitech (Newark, CA, USA) C920 webcam is used to collect dynamic measurement of stent AR[159, 160]. The webcam is used at a resolution of 800 x 600 pixels with a focal distance of 55 mm and a field of view of 38.06 x 28.55 mm. All experimental data acquisition (DAQ) is automated and controlled by National Instruments (NI) (Vaudreuil-Dorion, QC, Canada) LabVIEW and the software packages available for each component. NI-DAQmx and the NI9237 Simultaneous Bridge Module for force gauge control; machine vision software package NI-IMAQdx for collection of AR data from the webcam; as well as Zaber drivers for LabVIEW based linear slide control and position data collection[161]. All post-processing and data analysis is completed using Python(x,y), a scientific-oriented Python distribution[162].

The radial extensioneter, as seen in Figure 2.1, is composed of a 0.001 in sheet of Mylar polyester film connected to a 50 N load cell at one end and anchored to a linear



Figure 2.1: Extensometer system: 1 - machine vision webcam, 2 - stent-graft, 3 - force gauge, 4 - Mylar film, 5 - linear slide

slide at the other.

From left to right in Figure 2.2, Mylar is threaded from the load cell clamp, around a first roller, around the stent being tested, and around the round edge of a moving Mylar anchor which has the same radius of curvature as the roller; this anchor is then used to secure the Mylar to the moving platform of the linear slide. The stent is constricted by moving the Mylar anchor which is supported by the linear slide away from the load cell at a rate of 0.329 mm/s. The stent is constricted (crimped) to a predetermined value of cross sectional AR. Once constriction is complete, expansion begins with the slide moving in the opposite direction toward the force gauge, allowing the Mylar to loosen around the stent. As the stent expands, it exerts a radial force (pressure) back on the Mylar, this radial force is converted into a linear force as it passes down the Mylar to the load cell where it is recorded, as demonstrated in Figure 2.2. Data collected during expansion of the stent represents radial force values at different points of expansion inside a vessel, these results are required for stent performance analysis.



Figure 2.2: Generalized radial extensometer functionality

Compared to the most recent experimental system for radial force measurement by Johnston et al., this new radial extensometer contains several modifications and improvements[1]. The linear slide provides accurate, high resolution position control which can be customized with available LabVIEW drivers. The load cell and associated 24-bit analog-to-digital converter (ADC) are sized specifically for analyzing the range of radial force expected from AAA endovascular stents, providing excellent resolution compared to the existing over-sized system. This apparatus is designed in a horizontal orientation for several reasons including improved system stability, minimization of errors caused by gravitational effects, ease of setup as well as better angles for monitoring and observation. The most significant addition is real time AR monitoring through machine vision, reducing assumptions made to manually calculate system AR. Control and data collection for all components in this system are performed simultaneously by LabVIEW, improving ease of use. System behavior can easily be adjusted for individual test requirements.

#### 2.1.1 Position Logging and Control

The linear slide used in this system is operated with a stepper motor, whose controller is capable of keeping track of the number of steps taken. Displacement of the slide can therefore be measured and controlled without need for an encoder or extensive calibration. The stepper motor controllers are able to regulate the frequency of pulses send to the motor, precisely controlling velocity and acceleration. The Zaber T-LSR150A linear slide has a positional accuracy of  $\pm 45 \,\mu\text{m}$ , repeatability of  $< 2.5 \,\mu\text{m}$ and resolution of  $0.0992 \,\mu\text{m}$ , contributing minimally to overall system error[163].

The control and data collection for the linear slide is performed through an RS-232 port. Unfortunately, a large limitation of this port is a theoretical max read and write sampling rate of 6.24 ms and a full read/write cycle rate of 12.48 ms[164]. To ensure compatibility, communication is limited to a period of 15 ms. Due to the consistent data transfer and slide velocity it is possible to interpolate between data points to up-sample positional data.

## 2.1.2 Force

The force gauge used in this system has linearity and hysteresis values of 0.15% of full scale output (FSO) and a repeatability of 0.05%FSO[165]. The maximum error at full scale output due to hysteresis is 0.08 N or 0.0076 g. Collected force data will be well below full scale output of 50 N, or even 10 N, avoiding the majority of hysteresis error.

The NI9237 module used for force data acquisition contains a 24 bit delta-sigma ADC and low-pass anti-aliasing filter. This ADC will give a force gauge resolution of  $2.9 \,\mu$ N or 30.4 ng. Resolution provided by a 16 bit ADC would be adequate for the purposes of this system, avoiding significant quantization with a resolution of 0.7 mN or 0.07 g.

## 2.1.3 Machine Vision and Area Reduction

Machine vision was added to the radial extension to collect AR and circularity data. The "NI vision Acquisition Express", "NI Vision Assistant Express" and "Find Circular Edge 1" virtual instruments were used to track these results throughout testing. A Logitech webcam is mounted on the Radial extensioneter and aimed down the center of an open stent to collect data.

During constriction, the camera and software tracks a darkened edge of the Mylar film. The "Find Circular Edge" virtual instrument (VI) locates intersection points between a set of adjustable search lines and the edge of the Mylar film and fits a circle to these points (Figure 2.3). Values for radius of this best fit circle measured in pixels are output and converted to an area value; a mean value of area is calculated for the first 25 data points. Comparing all succeeding values to this original mean area, gives a value for percent of original area (OA), which can be converted to percent AR using: 100 - OA = AR. It is not necessary to calibrate the camera because no dimensioned values are ever extracted. However, resolution of the camera (pixel size) was determined at different levels of zoom, along with associated diametral errors (Table 2.1). Because the resolution of the camera is constant at different zoom levels, diametral error ranges from  $74.1 \,\mu\text{m} - 125.8 \,\mu\text{m}$  for low to high zoom levels respectively. Smaller diameter stents will typically use zoom level '+1' and will therefore have smaller diametral error than larger diameter stents that use lower levels of zoom. Zoom level '+1' corresponds to a field of view of  $32.95 \times 24.72 \,\text{mm}$ .

The AR calculation relies on the diameter of a circle, fit to the Mylar's edge. Diametral error is an inaccuracy in measurement due to the resolution of the webcam, which corresponds to the size of one pixel on each side of a circle who's diameter is being measured. The diametral error for a 14 mm stent using a zoom level of '+1', would correspond to an error in oversize of 0.59%. Even with the higher diametral error experienced by larger stents at a zoom level of '0', the error in oversize still decreases. For example, a 22 mm stent would only experience an oversize error of 0.48%.

Previous iterations of the radial extensioneter by other research groups outlined in Section 1.1.3, either used linear displacement or calculated AR using some form of Equation 2.1, published by Johnston et al.[1]. Using vision to calculate AR should provide more accurate, repeatable results when compared to manual methods because the camera is able to continually track progress of the experiment. Real-time tracking will also circumvent any calculation error due to Mylar elongation due to the applied load during testing. There is a potential for accruing error during the

Table 2.1: Dimensional resolution of a Logitech C920 webcam at different levels of<br/>zoom ( $\pm$ SD)

Zoom Level	Pixel Size $(\mu m)$	Diametral Error $(\mu m)$
+2	$37.1\pm0.1$	$74.1\pm0.2$
+1	$41.2\pm0.1$	$82.4\pm0.1$
0	$47.6\pm0.1$	$95.2\pm0.2$
-1	$53.0 \pm 1.1$	$106.0\pm2.2$
-2	$62.9 \pm 1.4$	$125.8\pm2.8$



Figure 2.3: Vision capture using the NI "Find Circular Edge 1" VI: 1 - edge of Mylar sheet, 2 - green edge of region of interest, 3 - red circle fit to Mylar edge, 4 - stent expanded in Mylar loop, 5 - blue lines intersect with Mylar edge creating a point for circle fitting

circle fitting process if the Mylar strays too far from its circular shape during testing. Future generations of this device should move away from circle fitting and attempt to calculate the exact area of the Mylar opening, regardless of circularity.

$$AR = 1 - \left(\frac{C_0 - \Delta C}{\pi D_0}\right)^2 \tag{2.1}$$

where

AR = area reduction  $C_0$  = circumference of fully-deployed stent (mm)  $\Delta C$  = displacement of Mylar film (mm)  $D_0$  = diameter of fully-deployed stent (mm)

## 2.2 Design

The radial extensioneter system used by Johnston et al. (Figure 2.4), on which these works expand, was designed to be clamped to the work table of a tensile load testing apparatus developed by MTS Systems Corporation (Minneapolis, MN). The basic functionality of the new system is similar to that of Johnston et al., with several notable changes intended to increase extensioneter performance and quality of collected data[1]. Drawings and materials are outlined in Appendix D.



Figure 2.4: Original radial extensometer used by Johnston et al.[1]

The radial extensioneter was altered to be symmetric in all three major planes (x-y, x-z, y-z) by employing equal size leading and trailing support sections (a fixed bracket and a free roller). The free roller is made of stainless steel 316 (Appendix D,

page 200) to ensure good stiffness and avoid deformation throughout testing, while the larger fixed bracket section uses Aluminum 6061-T6 (Appendix D, page 197). In the process of improving system symmetry, roller size was chosen to be 0.25 in to minimize inertia as well as to bring contact points underneath the stent as close together as possible on opposing supports without compromising system strength and stiffness.

Certain other small changes were employed such as a horizontal system setup and clear acrylic roller support walls (Appendix D, pages 198 and 199). A horizontal setup minimized the impact of any gravitational effects and made for a much more stable experimental platform. Clear acrylic roller supports were necessary to implement machine vision and monitoring of experimental progress.

Component selection was improved compared to previous designs. Force gauge, position monitoring and data acquisition system were sized appropriately for the small forces expected to be generated during testing of self-expanding stent-grafts. Avoiding over-sized components will improve accuracy and resolution while decreasing error.

Clear Mylar film was selected for stent constriction due to it's favorable material properties. Both it's high modulus of elasticity in comparison to other plastic films and it's low coefficient of friction made this material especially attractive for this application[166, 167]. Alternatives to Mylar were investigated, such as woven fabric made of fiberglass and carbon fiber; none were as well tailored to the functionality of this system as clear Mylar. Selecting a clear material as opposed to the reflective Mylar used by Johnston et al. makes it possible to visually and optically analyze stentgrafts during testing[1]. Mylar sections were laser cut to ensure consistent dimensions, results, and a repeatable setup (Appendix D, page 206). Clamps were designed with screws that fit through holes in laser cut sections of Mylar, automatically aligning the Mylar prior to testing and enabling a faster more easily reproduced testing and assembly process.

The most critical alteration is the introduction of machine vision to monitor stentgraft AR during testing. This system creates an entirely new explicit method of collecting stent AR data for analysis. Using an explicit method of data collection will reduce error caused by assuming a perfect correlation between linear motion of the Mylar and AR of the stent. The combination all of these changes has led to both the computer aided design (CAD) rendering (without machine vision) shown in Figure 2.5 and the completed experimental setup shown in Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.5: New radial extensometer

# 2.2.1 Calibration Sensitivity, Repeatability and Linearity

The force gauge was calibrated in a tensile horizontal arrangement, identical to the manner in which it is employed. The cantilevered stationary Mylar anchor (Appendix D, pages 201 and 202) is fixed to the horizontally mounted force gauge to ensure the impact of its cantilevered mass is not reflected in measured results. To ensure accurate data collection following calibration, two methods of evaluation were used:

- 1. Calibration data was collected in the vertical and horizontal directions to characterize the difference in system performance throughout full system range.
- 2. Low mass calibration was performed with frequent steps to determine the impact of the cantilevered Mylar anchor on collected data. There was concern that error would be introduced in the horizontal setup as the linear Mylar force was required to counteract the moment imposed by gravitational forces acting on

the cantilevered anchor. The Omega linear calibration data sheet can be found found in Appendix E on page 207.

Calibration was performed by collecting ten independent fifteen second long data sets at fifteen separate loads. Load was completely unloaded between data sets to ensure each was unique and complete. System sensitivity was calculated by dividing full scale output voltage (extrapolated from the slope of the calibration output curve) by the 10 V excitation used by the force gauge. Repeatability was calculated by dividing the largest standard deviation calculated from averaged data sets by the full scale output. Force gauge sensitivity and repeatability are shown in Table 2.2.

 Table 2.2: Sensitivity and repeatability with 10V excitation

Origin	Sensitivity $(mV/V)$	Repeatability (%FSO)
Calibrated	2.284	0.035
Data sheet	2.293	0.050

Full force gauge calibration results can be seen in Figure 2.6. The trend line of the horizontal calibration curve has an  $r^2$  value of 0.99996 showing an excellent fit between this data and it's corresponding trend. A very linear increase in the comparison between output voltage and calibration mass.

Low mass results from horizontal and vertical calibration are compared in Figure 2.7. Unlike the vertical setup, a horizontal system would require fewer offsets to account for gravitational effects on hanging system mass. Along with this benefit in data collection, using a horizontal system allows for a more compact and stable system that is more simple to prepare, use and observe.



Figure 2.6: Full system horizontal calibration



Figure 2.7: Low range vertical and horizontal calibration data

#### 2.2.2 Noise

There are several possible ways for noise to be introduced during data collection such as vibration from the stepper motor; linear stage motion; analog-to-digital conversion and amplification by the NI9237 DAQ module; or 60 Hz electro-magnetic-radiation (EMR). The 24 bit Sigma-Delta ADC provides the load cell with exceptionally high resolution and will therefore produce very little quantization error. Also, "the  $\Sigma - \Delta$ modulator shapes the quantization noise so that it lies above the passband of the digital [lowpass] output filter"[168], further reducing noise in collected data.

To test noise in the force gauge DAQ, 10 V excitation voltage leads for the load cell were connected directly to analog inputs of the NI9237 module and data was sampled for 15 sec. After transforming this data to the frequency domain using the fast Fourier transform (FFT), prevalent frequencies become visible at 180 Hz, 360 Hz, 540 Hz and 720 Hz with random noise presenting itself as scattered frequencies throughout the sample range (Figure 2.8). Superposition of 60 Hz EMR is likely the cause of these equally spaced dominant frequencies.



Figure 2.8: Noise contributed by the NI9237 module

As shown in Figure 2.9, frequencies above 46% of the sampling rate of 1612 Hz are cutoff due to the NI9237 module stopband filter intended to prevent aliasing. This explains the absence of frequencies above 806.4 Hz in Figure 2.8.

Optimization of the corner (cutoff) frequency for a Butterworth low-pass filter is shown in Figure 2.10. Peak signal-to-noise (SNR) is found at a cutoff frequency of



Figure 2.9: Passband flatness of the NI9237 module (Hz/Hz)[169]

18.7 Hz, corresponding to a filtered SNR of 1.388, which compares well to an unfiltered SNR of 1.002. The optimized cutoff frequency is well below the lowest prevalent noise frequency of 60 Hz, effectively damping out the majority of EMR interference.



Figure 2.10: Maximized SNR ratio for force gauge sample

#### 2.2.3 Theoretical Linear Force Comparison

Analysis of full system functionality was performed using a simple experiment. Spring force was calculated theoretically using Equation 2.2 and compared to experimental results collected using the radial extensioneter.

$$F = \frac{\delta d^4 G}{8D^3 N} \tag{2.2}$$

where

$$\begin{split} &\delta = \text{spring deflection (mm)} \\ &D = \text{mean coil diameter (mm)} \\ &d = \text{wire diameter (mm)} \\ &G = \text{shear modulus of spring material (MPa)} \\ &F = \text{external force applied along axis of helix (N)} \\ &N = \text{number of active coils} \end{split}$$

A 302 stainless steel tension spring with 10.25 active coils was used during this test. This spring has an outer spring diameter of 0.438 in (11.125 mm), a mean coil diameter of 0.403 in (10.2362 mm), a wire diameter of 0.035 in (0.889 mm) and a shear modulus of 77.2 GPa. During testing, the spring was extended in tension along its central axis to a maximum displacement of 5 mm at a velocity of 0.33 mm/sec, then returned to its initial state. Spring test comparison of experimental and theoretical data is shown in Table 2.3.

 Table 2.3:
 Spring test results

Data Type	Value
Average maximum experimental force (N)	2.65
Standard deviation experimental force (N)	0.06
Maximum theoretical force (N)	2.74
Percent error $(\%)$	3.59

Test results show an excellent comparison between theoretical and experimental linear force results with a percent error of 3.59%. This outcome gives strong evidence that the accuracy of future results collected by the experimental apparatus can be trusted as reliable.

Several preliminary investigations were performed using the completed radial extensometer. Both machine and stent performance are analyzed in a series of tests designed not only to validate radial extensometer results against those from previous studies but also to fine tune certain aspects of extensometer setup and operation.

### 2.3.1 Effect of Stent Orientation

All currently available z-wire stents use some method of fixation to connect edges of the stent wire together to make a circular prosthetic. Two of the most common methods, brazing and crimping, will alter mechanical properties of the stent. Experimental results shown in Figures 2.11(a) and 2.11(b) reveal that depending on stent orientation in the radial extensioneter (horizontal or vertical joint placement) a different force profile is observed. The coordinate system for the directions shown in the legend of these figures is presented in Figure 3.12.

In Figure 2.11(a), there is a more notable separation of force profiles of  $\sim 0.70$  N at  $\sim 28$  % AR for differing orientations during constriction. During expansion, a less pronounced separation of 0.40 N at 40.5 % AR can be observed in Figure 2.11(b). Comparison of experimental constriction and expansion demonstrates a significant hysteresis between the two radial force profiles. Hysteresis is likely caused primarily by the shift in loading mechanisms from the linear slide during constriction to stent radial force during expansion. The linear slide is capable of exerting a peak linear force of 300 N and will not be slowed by friction or any other system mechanics that get in the way. However, the stent radial force value being recorded during expansion is significantly lower and quite susceptible to frictional effects. Stent mechanics also have an impact on the radial force profile and hysteresis, they are examined more in depth in Chapter 4.



Figure 2.11: 22 mm Stent brazed joint orientation - three wire covered

During constriction the linear slide imparts an unforgiving force on the stent through the Mylar, the linear slide is capable of exerting a peak linear force of 300 N and will not be slowed by friction or any system mechanics that get in the way. During expansion the stent's peak radial force at different levels of expansion, after having overcome friction and other system influences, is being collected by the load cell at this stage. The stents ability to exert force is fa

Collection and manipulation of radial extensometer data presented in this chapter used the first iteration of data collection methodology developed for these works. Slide displacement required to achieve 50 % AR was determined using a combination of a calculator (which employed Equation 2.1 solved for displacement[1]) and trial and error for fine tuning. As the first test for a specific diameter of stent is run, the position of the slide at 50 % AR is recorded. Every subsequent test is moved to exactly this position on the slide and the assumption is made that each of these tests will also achieve 50 % AR. Slide displacement is linear and predictable, therefore, the same number of steps is required to move from an AR of 50 – 0 % for each test of the same stent diameter. Each presented result in this chapter is created by averaging at least three unique data sets. Finding their mean can be done simply by adding values at identical indexes and dividing by the number of data sets. This technique was adjusted for use in later data collection and will be explained in detail in Chapter 6.

Stents are typically oversized for installation by 10 - 20% compared to the outer arterial diameter, which corresponds to an AR range of 17.4 - 30.6% for the 22 mm stent used in this investigation[102, 103]. From the data shown in Figure 2.4, the maximum force profile separation in this range was calculated to be 0.21 N at 29% AR. The average peak force of all force profiles at 29% AR is 2.43 N, which corresponds to a percent error of 8.77%. Separation of data sets due to stent orientation in the radial extensometer demonstrates that that inclusion of a connected joint in the manufacture of z-type stent grafts does in fact have an impact on radial force generation and distribution. This effect could be compounded if multiple stents were aligned in that same prosthetic.

Directionality should be considered while designing stent-grafts for patients' unique anatomical geometry. To ensure consistency, all future experiments were performed with a downward ("-y") stent wire connection orientation to ensure repeatability and consistent experimental setup. Removal of the brazed stent joint in future manufactured stents would improve the symmetry of their radial force generation.

AR Range (%)	10 - 50	10 - 30
Max separation (N)	0.40	0.21
AR at max separation $(\%)$	40.5	29.0
Mean force at max separation (N)	3.48	2.43
Max standard deviation (N)	0.17	0.09

 Table 2.4:
 Directionality results during expansion

## 2.3.2 Impact of Mylar Thickness

The original radial extensometer designed by Johnston et al. used 0.002 in (0.0508 mm) reflective Mylar to constrict stents during testing. Initial trials with the new horizontal experimental setup revealed that this material was impacting stent loading and unloading[1]. The thicker Mylar was more resistant to deformation and would retain its own shape outside of testing. Figure 2.12 demonstrates how with Mylar loading defined to be 0.035 N, the amount of offset between stent and rollers grows with increased Mylar thickness.



(a) 0.001 in Mylar

**(b)** 0.002 in Mylar

(c) 0.003 in Mylar

Figure 2.12: Stent offsets for differing Mylar thicknesses with 0.035 N Mylar loading Thicker Mylar requires a greater amount of pre-loading to set the stent against the rollers and ensure an immediate reduction of AR values. Results of an experimental trial with 0.001 in, 0.002 in and 0.003 in laser cut Mylar sections are shown in Figure 2.13. Although data sets presented in this figure do not show a large separation, the 0.003 in Mylar does present a modestly higher radial force than that of 0.002 in and 0.001 in (0.0254 mm) samples. Regardless of how similarly the samples perform, following this test all future experiments used 0.001 in Mylar. This will minimize the need for pre-loading while also reducing difficulties during experimental setup and post-processing. Avoiding pre-loading is important to reduce contributed by Mylar's effect on collected results.



Figure 2.13: Mylar thickness comparison using a covered, two wire, 18 mm stentgraft

#### 2.3.3 Effect of Graft Covering, Multiple Stents and Test Range

Results presented by Johnston et al. explained that the force applied by stents placed in an end-to-end configuration was equivalent to the sum of forces applied by individual stents[1]. Reaffirmation of this claim using the new radial extensometer can be seen in Figure 2.14. This figure also presents a comparison of a stent with and without a graft covering. It is important to note how little the woven polyester covering of the single z-wire Zenith stent affects collected radial force results above an AR of 10 %.



Figure 2.14: Effect of multiple stent wires and configurations

Figure 2.15 demonstrates the impact of peak AR on collected results. Altering the amount of AR seems to have a sizable impact on the trajectory of force data collected during stent expansion. All tests collected for use in this work were constricted to 50% AR to ensure consistent methodology and tight grouping of results.



Figure 2.15: Effect of peak AR achieved during testing on results using a covered, three wire, 18mm stent-graft

## 2.4 Discussion

This chapter is intended to outline the design, calibration and testing of components involved in a novel radial extensioneter. As a preliminary investigation into system performance, results initially presented by Johnston et al. regarding a discrepancy between stent diameter and radial force generation have been verified[1]. Figure 2.16 clearly demonstrates that smaller stent diameters exhibit higher radial force than larger diameter stents across the entire range of AR values (Figure 2.16(a)) and oversize (figure 2.16(b)) that may be encountered following implantation. Considering that drag force increases along with arterial diameter, it is logical that the radial force exerted by stent-grafts should also increase with diameter up to a certain plateau intended to avoid vessel remodeling. Future chapters will focus on developing tools necessary to progress toward the design of mechanically correct stents, correcting the issue presented in figure 2.16.



Figure 2.16: Comparison of covered, three wire stent-graft diameter and radial force

Future iterations of the novel radial extensometer described in these works could benefit from lessons learned through multiple rounds of data collection. Changing from a positional control system, to a system managed with AR values collected by machine vision, would eliminate the need to manually ensure all tests switch from compression to expansion at 50 % AR. Shifting to vision control will ensure a precise peak AR value, increasing system accuracy and repeatability.

Expanding upon the current design, functionality could be improved by adding the ability to manipulate temperature and humidity in order to observe their effect on stent expansion and radial force. This would not only allow the system to mimic in-vivo conditions but also facilitate testing of super-alloy nitinol stents while maintaining control over their phase change capabilities.

# Chapter 3

# **Finite Element Modeling**

A complete finite element (FE) model which mimics the function of the radial extensometer will be a valuable tool for both investigating the mechanical function of self-expanding stents and aiding in the efficient design of new prosthetics. A validated model can be used to investigate scenarios such as the mechanical systems responsible for stent radial force generation, the conversion of radial force to the linear force measured by the radial extensometer force gauge as well as the impact of design changes on stent performance.

#### 3.1 Software

Five programs were used to create and analyze all FE models outlined in this work.

- 1. SolidWorks: Used for computer aided design (CAD) of component geometries[170].
- 2. Hypermesh: A FE pre-processor used for meshing solid geometries[171].
- 3. LS-DYNA: A dynamic modeling program used to simulate changes in engineering properties throughout meshed geometries[172].
- 4. **LS-PrePost:** A FE post-processor used for extracting meaningful data and visuals from completed simulations[173].
- 5. **Python** (**x**,**y**): An interpreter for the Python language, as well as a software package catered toward the scientific community.

## 3.2 Meshing Methodology

A standard method of meshing was established to reduce error and variation between components. All components in the final model are meshed using one-dimensional beam elements or two-dimensional quadrilateral elements. As explained in the Altair University training manual, quadrilateral elements are better than triangular elements due to their ability to more accurately represent strain[174]. This can be shown through differentiation of the displacement functions for different element types. For a 3 node constant strain triangle, displacement functions are presented in Equations 3.1 and 3.2.

$$u = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 x + \alpha_3 y \tag{3.1}$$

$$v = \alpha_4 + \alpha_5 x + \alpha_6 y \tag{3.2}$$

where

$$\begin{split} & u = \text{deflection in x (mm)} \\ & v = \text{deflection in y (mm)} \\ & x = \text{x-coordinate position (mm)} \\ & y = \text{y-coordinate position (mm)} \\ & \alpha = \text{constant} \end{split}$$

Strains can be calculated by differentiating Equations 3.1 and 3.2, where  $\varepsilon$  is the strain (mm/mm).

$$\varepsilon_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha_2 \tag{3.3}$$

$$\varepsilon_y = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \alpha_6 \tag{3.4}$$

Equations 3.3 and 3.4 show that by differentiating displacement functions, constant strain triangle (CST) strains are found to be constant. However, using quadrilateral four node elements, displacement is described with eight constants (Equations 3.5 and 3.6).

$$u = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 x + \alpha_3 y + \alpha_4 x y \tag{3.5}$$

$$v = \alpha_5 + \alpha_6 x + \alpha_7 y + \alpha_8 x y \tag{3.6}$$

Strains are once again calculated, this time by differentiating Equations 3.5 and 3.6.

$$\varepsilon_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \alpha_2 + \alpha_4 y \tag{3.7}$$

$$\varepsilon_y = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \alpha_7 + \alpha_8 x \tag{3.8}$$

Finally, Equations 3.7 and 3.8 show that by using four node elements, throughthickness strain (an important quality to have for simulations involving systems in bending) can be calculated and is a linear function of position.

A two-dimensional quadrilateral surface mesh should be optimized to be smooth and regular[174]. A clean, geometrically precise mesh is required for accurate FE analysis because as angles of a quadrilateral deviate from 90°, stress calculations become more unreliable[175].

#### 3.3 Explicit and Implicit Solver Use

An explicit solver was used for all simulations leading up to the completed model because of the ease at which it can handle nonlinearities, such as contact, material models, and large deformation compared to implicit analysis. Using an explicit solver made it possible to ensure preliminary contact definitions were functioning prior to moving on to the more sensitive implicit iterative solver. An explicit solver can solve for nodal acceleration directly, compared to the implicit solver which much perform several iterations before a solution of acceptable tolerance is reached.

Due to the Courant condition, the time step used in explicit analysis must be lower than the time it takes for sound to travel across a mesh element. Because the time step must be so small, simulation run time would be extremely large unless the duration simulated by the model is reduced. For this reason, an explicit model solver is primarily used in explosive, projectile and crash test simulations, where only a very short time frame needs to be modeled.

Because of the large number of time steps required to meet the Courant condition, the total simulated time of preliminary explicit models was considerably reduced compared to real world values. Simulated duration for each model is shown in Table 3.1, where the final implicit simulated duration represents the real world length of experimental testing. With such small duration values for the explicit models of Table 3.1, introduction of energy into the system becomes very rapid. This surge of energy could potentially cause shock waves or detrimentally large contact forces to form, negatively impact model results. The simulated duration of the "90 Degree Mylar and Rigid Roller Contact" model was considerably higher than the other explicit simulations, however, model loading was complete by 5000 ms and the simulation was extended to 50 000 ms to observe any changes that may occur leading up to equilibrium.

Model Title	Simulated Duration (ms)	LS-DYNA Solver
Flat Mylar	150	Explicit
90 Degree Mylar and Rigid Roller	50000	Explicit
Contact		
Full System - Free Mylar; Rigid	1000	Explicit
Rollers and Stent analog		
Full System - Rigid Rollers; Free	1000	Explicit
Stent Analog and Mylar		
Completed Simulation - Rigid	263636.4	Implicit
Rollers; Free Stent and Mylar		
with Friction		

 Table 3.1: Explicit vs. implicit - total simulation time

For the final model, a non-linear implicit solver was used primarily to lengthen simulated duration to real world values without the enormous increase in simulation run time that would be encountered with the explicit solver. Increasing the explicit time step to reduce the run time for an explicit solver would require mass scaling. Scaling the mass of the small components present in the final model would have a significant impact on collected force results (F = ma), while also increasing inertia and momentum. The final FE model is considered non-linear because it simulates contacting parts and experiences a large amount of deformation.

## 3.4 Results

The model constructed as part of this study mimics the function of the radial extensometer described in Chapter 2, facilitating model validation. The final complex system was divided into five stages of development with each successive stage building upon the success of those before it: a flat 200 mm long by 60 mm wide section of Mylar, used to characterize material performance; a  $90^{\circ}$  angle Mylar over rigid roller contact, for honing initial contact characteristics; a full system model with rigid rollers and stent analog, used to determine convergence of the curved Mylar mesh; a full system model with rigid rollers, free stent analog and free Mylar; and a final model which replaces the stent analog from previous models with an accurate stent geometry. This step-by-step methodology ensures a reliable and accurate foundation for the complete system. All stages demonstrate effective material response, contact effectiveness and mesh convergence.

## 3.4.1 Flat Mylar



Figure 3.1: Flat Mylar - 0.25 mm quadrilateral mesh

The thin Mylar film was meshed using two-dimensional quadrilateral elements (Figure 3.1, and modeled assuming a Hookean elastic material using LS-DYNA's "\*MAT\_ELASTIC" constitutive material model with material properties provided by DuPont Teijin Films (Table 3.2)[166]. This Mylar model was used in every subsequent simulation performed leading up to the final simulation, FE model material value inputs can be found in Appendix B.2. In this simulation, a 0.001 in thick, 8 in long by 2.28 in wide section of Mylar has one vertical edge anchored while a 10 N load is applied to the other to determine the resulting magnitude of elongation.

Figure 3.2 shows that when comparing simulation time to elongation, simulation results converge with a mesh element size of 0.25 mm. Under a load of 10 N, a model



Figure 3.2: Flat Mylar convergence study

**Table 3.2:** Material properties of Mylar provided by DuPont Teijin Films[166] (MD = machine direction, TD = transverse direction)

Property	Direction	Typical Value	Unit
Tensile strength, ultimate	MD	196	MPa
	TD	235	MPa
Young's modulus (tension)	MD	4805	MPa
	TD	5001	MPa
Young's modulus (compression)		2726 - 2834	MPa
Density		0.00139	$ m g/mm^2$
Poisson's ratio		0.38	

using this mesh size would extend 0.2683 mm in length (x-direction) as seen in Figure 3.3.

Results of elongation from the flat Mylar FE analysis compare to theoretical results calculated using Equation 3.9 with a 1.76% error. Theoretical results suggest



Figure 3.3: Elongation of Mylar under 0 - 10 N load

that elongation of this section of flat Mylar under a 10 N load would only experience a 0.273 mm elongation.

$$\Delta L = \frac{FL_0}{A_0 E} \tag{3.9}$$

where

 $\Delta L = \text{elongation (mm)}$  F = force exerted (N)  $L_0 = \text{original length (mm)}$   $A_0 = \text{original cross sectional area (mm)}$  E = Young's modulus (MPa)

The error accrued due to Mylar elongation will depend on both peak force exerted on the Mylar by the stent, as well as peak horizontal displacement of the slide during data collection. The force profile for this simulation uses a constant load application rate, therefore, the time at which peak experimental force occurs in modeled data can be determined by linear interpolation of results. The magnitude of modeled elongation at peak experimental force is found at this interpolated time value. Error induced by Mylar deformation is presented in Table 3.3 and is calculated as the difference between the peak distance moved by the linear slide and the elongation introduced

Stent Diameter	Peak Force (N)	Slide Displacement (mm)	%Error
$10\mathrm{mm}$	$7.60\pm0.03$	$10.11\pm0.01$	$2.72\pm0.01$
$10\mathrm{mm}$	$7.60\pm0.03$	$10.11\pm0.01$	$2.01\pm0.00$
$12\mathrm{mm}$	$8.56\pm0.14$	$11.96\pm0.00$	$1.96\pm0.03$
$14\mathrm{mm}$	$8.37\pm0.08$	$15.16\pm0.01$	$1.48\pm0.01$
$16\mathrm{mm}$	$8.18\pm0.02$	$15.64\pm0.00$	$1.40\pm0.00$
$18\mathrm{mm}$	$7.42\pm0.19$	$17.48 \pm 0.00$	$1.14\pm0.03$
$20\mathrm{mm}$	$7.44\pm0.08$	$20.24\pm0.00$	$0.98\pm0.01$
$24\mathrm{mm}$	$6.42\pm0.04$	$23.00\pm0.01$	$0.75\pm0.01$

 Table 3.3:
 Elongation error

by Mylar deformation. At 10 N force, modeled results show the Mylar sheet reaching a peak stress of 16.91 MPa in the machine direction. This is 17.5% of Mylar's yield stress of  $\sim 96.5$  MPa, consequently, plastic deformation is not likely.

As long as AR values are taken using the machine vision system of the radial extensometer instead of through implicit calculation, AR error due to Mylar elongation is entirely avoided. All experimental tests performed for these works use machine vision for AR calculation. Because each test performed with the radial extensometer is forced to achieve 50 % AR, Mylar elongation should not have any effect on experimental results.

### 3.4.2 90 Degree Mylar and Rigid Roller Contact

A second model, seen in Figure 3.4, was built to ensure effective contact between shaped sections of Mylar and roller supports. The roller is created as a stainless steel 316L rigid body and modeled using the "\*MAT\_RIGID" material model. The roller is modeled as a rigid body under the assumption that its deformation throughout the simulation is insignificant and will have a negligible effect on model results. Defining the roller as a rigid bodies will speed up simulation time by avoiding the calculation of unnecessary stress and strain results for the roller. Material values are taken from the MatWeb material property database and are shown in Table 3.4[176]. FE model material value inputs can be found in Appendix B.2. All Mylar on roller contacts are modeled as frictionless throughout these works. This assumption creates a reasonable

representation of the experimental setup, as the leading roller is bearing mounted.

Property	Typical Value	Unit
Tensile strength, ultimate	585	MPa
Tensile strength, yield	380	MPa
Young's modulus	193	GPa
Density	0.008	$ m g/mm^2$
Poisson's ratio	0.3	

**Table 3.4:** Material properties of an annealed, cold drawn stainless steel 316Lbar[176]



Figure 3.4: 90° Angle Mylar and rigid roller contact visualization

For the Mylar to roller contact definition, a penalty-based contact algorithm was employed using LS-DYNA's "\*CONTACT\_AUTOMATIC\_SURFACE\_TO \_SURFACE" contact interface definition. In a penalty-based contact, penetration of contacting surfaces is eliminated by applying a force proportional to the penetration depth of any infiltrating surfaces[177]. This is in contrast to constraint-based contacts where two contiguous surfaces are bound together, sharing nodes and avoid penetration or separation. This surface-to-surface card was selected over others due to the types of elements coming into contact, the Mylar shell surface and the rigid roller shell surface. An automatic contact was selected because it is less dependent on reliable contact orientation, improving contact stability[177, 178]. For a rigid body in any penalty-based contact, LS-DYNA advises that proper distribution of contact forces can be promoted by ensuring that contact surface node spacing of a rigid body be no coarser than the mesh of deformable parts which it comes into contact with. Because no stress or strain calculations are performed for a rigid body, refining the mesh of a rigid body has little effect on CPU requirements[177]. For these reasons, the rigid roller was modeled with the same mesh density as the Mylar sheet.

In order to ensure contacts don't fail during simulation, a comparison of contact data is performed. Figure 3.5 shows both a force transmission of 50 N and equal opposing forces between slave and master segments. Symmetry and consistency of slave and master y-contact force suggests the presence of a stable contact force.



Figure 3.5: Angled x and y contact verification
### 3.4.3 Full System - Free Mylar; Rigid Rollers and Stent analog

Building upon the previous  $90^{\circ}$  Mylar simulation of Section 3.4.2, and to ensure the stability of multiple contacts before progressing to multiple deformable bodies, a rigid Tygon tubing stent analog was added to the simulation along with a second roller[179]. Figure 3.6 shows the fully meshed model used for this stage of simulation.



Figure 3.6: Full assembly using rigid Tygon tubing stent analog

Figure 3.7 compares the initial system configuration of this model to the fully constricted configuration. All system parts except for the Mylar were made rigid so changes in system performance due to the newly added stent analog and roller could be monitored with changes in Mylar mesh size. All contacts use the same definitions as those in Section 3.4.2. Comparing total Mylar displacement in the x-direction and time required for model completion, the converged curved Mylar mesh size was determined to be 0.5 mm (Figure 3.8). Observing Figure 3.9, contacts display equal and opposing forces between slave and master segments indicating stable contacts.



Figure 3.7: Contact test for full system with rigid rollers, rigid stent analog and free Mylar



Figure 3.8: Convergence study for full system with rigid rollers, rigid stent analog and free Mylar



Figure 3.9: Full system; rigid rollers and stent with free Mylar, y-contact force

## 3.4.4 Full System - Rigid Rollers; Free Stent Analog and Mylar

The next step toward a complete system model is to change the material model of the stent analog from "\*MAT\_RIGID" to "\*MAT\_ELASTIC". This alteration will allow the stent analog to move freely and be deformed by the Mylar film during simulation.

Contact between Mylar and the non-rigid analog will include large deformation and non-ideal contact angles. Considering these circumstances, "\*CONTACT\_ AUTOMATIC\_SURFACE\_TO\_SURFACE" will not operate as effectively due to its preference for normal orientation of both contacting shell surface segments. Contact formulation is changed to "\*CONTACT\_AUTOMATIC\_NODES\_TO\_SURFACE", which checks each slave node for penetration through the master surface and is not limited by contact surface orientation[177]. A soft contact algorithm is used to avoid contact failure due to large differences in Young's modulus between the Tygon tubing stent analog and Mylar film. Using the same criteria as in Sections 3.4.2 and 3.4.3, contact success can be shown by the symmetry of slave and master y-force values as seen in Figure 3.10.



Figure 3.10: y-Contact force between Tygon tubing stent analog and Mylar film

A comparison of original and fully constricted model shapes can be seen in Figure 3.11. This deformation is caused in a similar fashion to previous model iterations, however, the Mylar film was moved by assigning a set displacement instead of a set force. This change was made in order to constrict the Tygon tubing regardless of the force required.



Figure 3.11: Contact test on full system with rigid rollers; free stent analog and Mylar

# 3.4.5 Completed Simulation - Rigid Rollers; Free Stent and Mylar with Friction

Figure 3.12 shows a rendering of the final completed simulation. Several changes have been made since the previous iteration to achieve this completed model.





First, the manner in which displacement was applied to the model was changed to more closely resemble that of the experimental setup. Instead of fixing the rollers and one edge of the Mylar like in previous iterations, the rollers and one free edge of the Mylar are moved a set distance in the +x-direction, while one edge of the Mylar remains constrained.

Next, the roller furthest in the -x direction was made free to rotate. As the Mylar mesh slides over the roller mesh during simulation; x, y and z penalty forces ensure no contact penetration occurs. Even though contact between Mylar and rollers is frictionless, tangential contact penalty forces were growing so large prior to the Mylar sliding over the roller that the contact was failing. Allowing the frictionless roller to rotate eliminated both this buildup of contact penalty force and unintentional contact penetration.

The Tygon tubing stent analog from previous model iterations was used to develop an effective contact between the Mylar film and a deformable part. With an established effective contact, the stent analog was replaced with an uncovered, geometrically accurate replica of a 12 mm (20.35 mm uncovered, fully expanded diameter) Zenith z-stent. Results from chemical analysis in Section 5.2 confirm that Zenith z-stents are composed of stainless steel 316L. The new geometrically correct stent model uses the same stainless steel 316L elastic material model as the system rollers whose properties are defined in Table 3.4. An extra constraint was added to the stent to avoid movement in the z-direction throughout simulation. A node at the peak of each bend on the +z side of the stent was constrained to avoid motion in the z-direction. Only one side of the stent was constrained to ensure the stent could still extend in the z-direction during constriction.

Contact definition variables for slave and master penalty stiffness scaling factors as well as sliding interface penalty scaling factors were manipulated to achieve a stable contact between the significantly varying thicknesses and Young's moduli of Mylar and stainless steel. These values ensure that contact penetration does not occur throughout simulation while using penalty based contact algorithms. For the contact between stent and Mylar, the interface definition was changed from "\*CONTACT\_ AUTOMATIC\_NODES\_TO\_SURFACE" to "\*CONTACT\_NODES\_TO\_SURFACE" since removal of the Tygon stent analog in the previous model iteration. Because Mylar shell elements only need to check for contact penetration on one side throughout simulation and the direction of surface orientation is known, the Mylar to stent contact is changed to a non-automatic formulation to reduce simulation time[180]. "\*CONTACT\_NODES\_TO\_SURFACE" is effective for a beam to shell surface contact like that between the stent and Mylar[181]. This one-way contact checks each slave node (stent beam elements) for penetration through the master surface (Mylar shell elements)[177].

Along with updated Mylar to stainless steel contacts, a stent self-contact was introduced using "\*CONTACT\_AUTOMATIC\_GENERAL" to ensure that during constriction the stent couldn't pass through itself. If beam elements from different sections of the stent come close enough to touch each other during constriction, the ability for the stent to interact with itself is crucial to model accuracy.

The width of Mylar and rollers were shortened to better match the width of the stent. Previous Mylar and roller widths of 55 mm and 65 mm were altered to their new dimensions of 16.7 mm and 17.7 mm respectively. With a width of 16.21 mm (Table 5.1), the stent is still able to fit inside the Mylar loop throughout constriction and expansion. Shortening these dimensions cut a significant amount run-time from the simulation as a large number of elements could be removed from the system mesh.

To improve the accuracy of model results, geometry of the un-deformed Mylar was corrected. This correction ensured that during constriction and expansion the leading and trailing sections of the Mylar film remained parallel to the x-z plane. Geometry of the rollers was also adjusted to make certain that the outer diameter used by the LS-DYNA contact algorithm accurately represented the geometry of the rollers in the experimental setup.

A new technique to gather simulated force data in a similar fashion to that used by the radial extensioneter experimental setup was introduced in this section. The "nodfor" database file was output during simulation, which allows forces registered by constrained nodes and nodes with prescribed motion to be output and plotted.

Finally, frictional effects were introduced to the model using the Coulomb friction constants. The static and dynamic coefficients of friction are both set equal to each other, eliminating dependence of the results on relative velocity of the surfaces in contact. An in depth explanation of coefficient selection can be found in Section 3.5.3. This constant will not only serve to introduce frictional effects into the simulation but also as a method of accounting for unknown sources of error during model fitting.

A significantly more dramatic result is noticed between the original and fully constricted models than in previous iterations. The geometrically accurate stent is able to deform radially far more than the previously used Tygon tubing analog. A comparison of fully expanded and fully constricted simulation states is shown in Figure 3.13.

The interaction between stent and Mylar can be visualized in a full system representation of von Mises stress in Figure 3.14. Interestingly, contact and force transfer between the stent and Mylar sheet during expansion seems to be limited to the legs of



Figure 3.13: Completed simulation constriction with rigid rollers; free stent and Mylar with friction

the stent as shown by areas of peak von Mises stress in this figure. It is very promising to see symmetrical loading around the Mylar for the points where each stent leg and the Mylar come into contact.



Figure 3.14: von Mises stress (MPa), full model at 157.5 s

The final completed model requires a fully converged mesh and comparison to a real world data set to gain credibility. Demonstrating model convergence for this system is challenging because it contains three separate parts interacting with each other, introducing three degrees of freedom.

#### 3.5.1 Geometrical Accuracy and Mesh Refinement

Geometrical refinement of the rollers has made it possible to remove one of the three degrees of freedom in this system. Rollers are modeled as rigid bodies which means there are no stress or strain values calculated for them during the simulation. According to LS-DYNA support documents on rigid body contacts, rigid bodies require a reasonably fine mesh which accurately captures the true geometry of the part[182]. Measuring the length of the tangential line between the flat edge created by meshing a circular shape, and the arc of the perfect circle being meshed is called a "sagitta" line. Altering roller mesh density has an impact on the height of the sagitta line, which becomes an excellent representation of geometric accuracy. Figure 3.15 shows that the roller mesh density of 0.1 mm used in the final model, accurately represents the circular shape being simulated.



Figure 3.15: Separation error: a sagitta line drawn between the outer edge of the roller geometry and the mesh created to represent it

LS-DYNA recommends that rigid body node spacing be no coarser than the mesh of whatever deformable parts it comes into contact with [182]. In the final simulation, the roller mesh size is much smaller than that of the Mylar at 0.1 mm and 0.25 mm respectively. With geometric and mesh density errors minimized, the impact of roller mesh size should not have an impact on overall model convergence or contact stability.

#### 3.5.2 Final Convergence

Two degrees of freedom remain, Mylar and stent mesh density, therefore, a twodimensional convergence study is required to analyze the combined impact of these characteristics on overall model behavior. Convergence is analyzed using both model completion time (Figure 3.16) and peak simulated force (Figure 3.17).

The final converged mesh size selection is annotated in Figures 3.16 and 3.17 with the letter 'A'. Convergence occurs with a Mylar mesh density of 0.25 mm and a stent mesh density of 0.4 mm. The converged force value of this model is at the center of the convergence "bowl" in Figure 3.16 at the point which reaches furthest toward equilibrium. Examining the simulation time convergence for this same mesh size, point 'A' falls within the equilibrium region of Figure 3.17, just before a steep ramp up in simulation run-time which occurs with decreasing Mylar mesh density.

A correction was made prior to moving on to model fitting. The input value for the Young's modulus of Mylar was discovered to be incorrect and was corrected to 4805.26 MPa[166]. This will not impact the convergence study outcome, as the value was kept constant throughout the investigation.



Figure 3.16: Mesh convergence with respect to peak force



Figure 3.17: Mesh convergence with respect to simulation duration

As previously stated, because this model was designed to match the experimental setup of the radial extensometer, it is possible to fit the final converged simulation to experimental results. Experimental data used in this comparison is calculated in the same fashion as in Chapter 2.

Modeled and experimental data sets compare an uncovered 12 mm (uncovered diameter = 20.35 mm) stent being constricted to a diameter equal to that of a covered stent constricted to 50 % AR (final diameter = 8.49 mm). Because these data sets represent the same motion and mechanics, lining up known values for the center point (the point of peak constriction) of modeled and experimental data will give an accurate comparison of the two results.

The Coulomb friction constant is used as a fitting parameter to match modeled and experimental data as closely as possible. Static and dynamic Coulomb constant values are kept equal throughout model fitting; the effect of altering their values is demonstrated in Figure 3.18. In general, as the Coulomb constant grows, peak force will increase and force measured during expansion will decrease. A frictionless model may best match linear experimental results encountered following the initial force drop-off at the onset of expansion, however, to best match the entire force profile observed during stent expansion, a contact formulation including friction was used. Now that the convergence study is complete, the Coulomb constant value of 0.01 used throughout this investigation can be optimized to yield a better comparison between modeled and simulated results. Observation of the frictionless curve in Figure 3.18 reveals that friction is not solely responsible for force profile non-symmetry. Radial extensometer and stent mechanics may have a larger impact on collected force data than previously thought. Figure 3.18 demonstrates that friction has a large impact on the smoothness and linearity of the radial force profile during expansion.

Model fit success was determined using the coefficient of determination  $(r^2)$ , standard error of the estimate (SE), mean absolute percent error (MAPE) and mean percent error (MPE) values calculated using Equations 3.10-3.13. As can be seen in Table 3.5, a Coulomb friction constant of 0.0025 best matches experimental data with an  $r^2$  value of 0.953, a standard error of 0.086 N, a MAPE of 13.94% and an MPE of 3.09%. These results show a very good fit between experimental and modeled



Figure 3.18: The impact on simulation results due to varying the Coulomb friction constants

results. An Coulomb friction constant of 0.0025 falls within the range used by Vad et al.[115], however, it is important to note they did not test stents as small as 12mm in diameter and the stents they were testing were of a different wire configuration. All tests used 4 CPU (central processing unit) cores and 500 million words of memory.

$$r^{2} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (Y_{1,t} - Y_{2,t})^{2}}{\sum_{t=1}^{n} (Y_{1,t} - \bar{Y}_{1})^{2}}$$
(3.10)

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{n} \left(Y_{1,t} - Y_{2,t}\right)^2}{n}}$$
(3.11)

$$MAPE = \frac{100}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \left| \frac{Y_{1,t} - Y_{2,t}}{Y_{1,t}} \right|$$
(3.12)

$$MPE = \frac{100}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{Y_{1,t} - Y_{2,t}}{Y_{1,t}}$$
(3.13)

where

 $r^2 = \text{coefficient of determination}$   $SE_{Estimate} = \text{standard error of the estimate (N)}$  MAPE = mean absolute percent error (%)  $Y_1 = \text{priginal force dataset (N)}$   $\bar{Y}_1 = \text{mean of force dataset (N)}$   $Y_2 = \text{model fit force dataset (N)}$ n = number of values in dataset

Referencing Table 3.5 and Figures 3.19(a) through 3.19(d), it is interesting to note that as friction rises above a Coulomb constant of 0.05, there is a rapid decline in coefficient of determination, peak simulated force and simulation run-time; while standard error rises significantly. Coulomb constant values above 0.05 are detrimental to simulation performance and should not be used.

Because modeled and experimental results are aligned for comparison using the peak value of constriction, any deviation from the ideal 50% AR for either result will contribute to model fitting error.

A new set of experimental data was taken and adjustments to model inputs were made due to the discovery of errors in the linear velocity of modeled components and the peak AR of collected experimental results (Table 3.6). Experimental data sets did not reach target values for gross or covered AR (82.6% and 50% respectively). Because of this miscalculation, original experimental values for maximum gross and covered AR noted in Table 3.6 correspond to errors of 2.13% and 10.2% respectively when compared to target values.

Coulomb	CPU Time (s)	$F_{Peak}$ (N)	$r^2$	$SE(\mathbf{N})$	MAPE $(\%)$	MPE $(\%)$
0.0	98638	1.61	0.967	0.072	15.20	-8.29
0.00001	92002	1.97	0.852	0.150	20.44	12.38
0.0001	91927	2.14	0.842	0.155	20.51	11.10
0.0005	93533	2.04	0.860	0.146	19.70	11.61
0.001	96466	2.10	0.914	0.114	16.01	3.76
0.0025	98638	2.04	0.949	0.088	13.94	3.09
0.005	93534	2.12	0.843	0.154	20.24	11.21
0.0075	95597	2.04	0.865	0.143	19.64	11.73
0.01	93155	2.15	0.811	0.169	20.48	11.28
0.02	97391	2.13	0.934	0.100	13.56	4.55
0.05	99542	2.11	0.919	0.111	15.92	11.52
0.075	81722	2.40	0.776	0.184	19.20	11.53
0.1	81794	2.47	0.750	0.195	20.74	13.42
0.2	81794	2.62	0.502	0.275	33.96	26.70

 Table 3.5:
 Model fitting results

**Table 3.6:** First and second round model and experiment  $(\pm SD)$ 

	Model 1	Model 2	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
Linear velocity (mm/s)	0.36	0.33	0.33	0.33
Gross reduction $(\%AR)$	82.4	82.4	$80.9 \pm 1.1$	$82.7\pm0.5$
Covered reduction (%AR) $($	49.5	49.5	$44.9\pm3.0$	$50.2 \pm 1.4$

Measurement of AR for modeled data was performed using scaled images from LS-PrePost that were imported into SolidWorks. Results are accurate when compared to target values with a calculated deviation from 50% AR for gross and covered AR of 0.2% and 1.0% respectively. Unfortunately, model linear velocity was off when compared to experimental settings by 8.48%.

Both errors were corrected prior to a comparison of final fit model and experimental data. After correction, linear velocity of model and experimental systems were equivalent. Comparison of modeled and experimental values for gross and covered AR were 0.3% and 1.4% respectively. With these corrections, it is now possible to



Figure 3.19: Results of model fitting friction analysis

be confident that the point of max constriction for both experimental and modeled data is lined up to within an acceptable margin of error prior to comparison.

Comparing corrected data to experimental data produces a slightly altered coefficient of determination of  $r^2 = 0.946$ , a standard error of 0.099 N, a MAPE of 11.69 % and an MPE of 1.69 %. For a Coulomb constant of 0.0025, these values still present the best fit compared to other results in Table 3.5. It is unlikely that re-running every model with new input for linear velocity will change the outcome of the model fit.

 $r^2$  and standard error results for a Coulomb constant of 0.0025 demonstrate a good fit between model and experimental results. This validated model can now be used for analysis.

The final converged model, fit to experimental data with a coulomb constant of 0.0025 is presented in Figure 3.20. Modeled data is offset by 12.351s to line up the point at which modeled and experimental data both reach max constriction. Enlarged results for the period of stent expansion only are shown in Figure 3.21.



Figure 3.20: Completed model fit and comparison of full simulated and experimental data profile



Figure 3.21: Completed model fit and comparison of simulated and experimental data during expansion only

## Chapter 4

# Supplemental Finite Element Investigations

With a completed model fit it is possible to draw some preliminary conclusions on the mechanical properties of self-expanding z-stents by examining the mechanisms responsible for radial force generation. Model analysis will also prove useful to understanding the impact of the radial extension on collected data.

In the future, adjustments to stent performance will be made based on patient specific requirements. Initial in-vivo modeling will introduce tools to examine the interaction between custom prosthetics and the vessel wall. Future iterations of this preliminary simulation could also both investigate the impact of varying haemodynamic drag loads on stent fixation as well as the likelihood of endoleak at different levels of oversize and AR.

#### 4.1 Model Analysis

All analysis is performed in the local coordinate system using 's' (vertical orthogonal) and 't' (horizontal orthogonal) directions as demonstrated in Figure 4.1.

Examining results for bending moment in the t-direction, it is possible to extract data from a node in the center of a stent bend and leg to examine their individual contributions to overall model results. Figure 4.2 shows a significant difference between bend and leg t-bending moment profiles. The smooth, symmetric profile measured in the center of a stent leg that is not in contact with a roller, averaged with a t-bending moment profile from the center of one of its nearest bends reveals a curve of similar shape to the final model fit in Figure 3.20. Figure 4.2 is critical as it provides convincing evidence that the complete stent force profile is a combination of input from several different mechanical systems. Friction, t-bending , s-bending, torsion and the radial extensometer itself all play a roll in the shape of collected data. The sharp drop-off in t-bending moment data collected from the center of the stent



Figure 4.1: Coordinate system for model analysis - demonstrated on stent leg: 1 - center of bend, 2 - center of stent leg

bend provides insight into why the frictionless simulation radial force profile from Figure 3.18 did not produce symmetric results during constriction and expansion.

There is evidence that the origin of spikes and dips in data throughout the simulation is due primarily to stent legs passing over the radial extensometer's rollers. Figure 4.3(a) shows a filled outer profile for superimposed t-bending moment results of all stent legs that come into contact with rollers throughout testing. The stark contrast in shape between a non-contact stent leg and the contact leg t-bending moment outline demonstrates the impact that rollers have on modeled and experimental results. Figure 4.3(b) presents the same data set, however, all contact and non-contact t-bending moment values are averaged instead of showing the maximum profile of superimposed data sets. This figure demonstrates how well the peaks and troughs of contact leg and model fit data line up. It is clear that contact of stent legs and rollers has a visible impact on collected radial force data, which is significantly larger at higher levels of constriction as stent legs are pinched between and forced into the +x and -x rollers.



Figure 4.2: t-Bending moment comparison between stent leg and bend - not in contact with the rollers

Moving on to examine bending in the s-direction, Figure 4.4(a) demonstrates that there is a smooth, linear, symmetric increase and decrease of s-bending moment throughout testing at nodes centered in stent bends. There is no s-bending moment measured at nodes centered in the stent leg. Figure 4.4(b) shows the smooth, linear increase of s-moment bending from the center of a stent leg to the center of the nearest stent bend. The profile exhibited by Figure 4.4(b) is nearly identical to that which would be expected from a bending moment diagram for a cantilever beam, with a slight deviation near element number 18 as the nodes transition through the stent bend. It is interesting to note that each stent leg can be represented by two cantilever beams acting in opposite directions which start at neighboring stent bends and end in the middle of the stent leg.

Axial stress (Figure 4.5(a)) and s-bending moment (Figure 4.5(b)) have nearly identical profiles and distributions. Furthermore, both axial stress and s-bending also



Figure 4.3: The impact of stent wire leg and roller contact on radial force results



Figure 4.4: s-Bending moment - bend vs. leg

have zero values at the center of stent legs. Both profiles provide evidence that the large peak and sharp drop-off in force during the switch from constriction to expansion is caused by stent bends being pinched between the rollers of the experimental setup.



t-Bending moment results do not show the same contrast between pinched and unpinched bends.

Figure 4.5: Comparison of axial stress and s-bending moment profiles

As was seen for s-bending moment, t-bending moment also produces a double cantilever-like reaction where two cantilevers, anchored in stent bends, meet in the center of the stent leg (Figure 4.6(a)). This bending moment causes the center of stent legs to bow out radially, explaining why the majority of arterial contact and force transfer is performed by stent legs, as shown in Figure 3.14.

Figures 4.7 and 4.6(b) show s and t-force distribution during expansion at 159.75 s through the simulation. At this point, the drop off in force following the switch from constriction to expansion has finished and stent force is linearly decreasing. The reaction portrayed in these figures is a good example of what could be expected during a smooth expansion. t-Force distribution shows connected stent legs pushing away from each other, while s-force distribution demonstrates an interesting zig-zag pattern of force distribution on alternating stent legs. s-Force and radial force present identical profiles, which Figure 4.7 shows is of negligible magnitude in bends and at a maximum in stent legs. This is in line with previous observations of the transfer of force between stent and Mylar as seen in Figure 3.14. With further analysis, s-force data will help develop an understanding of how radial force generated by the stent

and linear force measured by the radial extension force gauge relate to each other. Radial force data is crucial to developing an understanding of how stents interact with the vessel walls.



Figure 4.6: t-Bending moment and force distributions during expansion at 159.75 s



Figure 4.7: s-Force [RADIAL FORCE] during expansion at 159.75 s (N)

Regardless of where on the stent torsion is measured, there is an incredibly abrupt drop off in torsion and a slow period of controlled relaxation ("unwinding") following the change from constriction to expansion. Summing the magnitude of the torsional resultant for one entire leg, from the center of neighboring bends, Figure 4.8(a) provides a similar profile to the final model fit in Figure 3.20.

The direction of torsion alternates for each stent leg. The slope direction also makes an abrupt change at the peak of each bend with nearly identical but opposite profiles going down each adjoining leg. The nearly identical but opposite torsional resultant profiles from the center of two adjoining legs is shown in Figure 4.8(b). Both profiles displayed in Figure 4.8 provide more evidence as to the origin of the non-symmetrical radial force profile.



(a) Magnitude of summed torsional resultant for one entire leg, from the center of neighboring bends



(b) Torsion through out simulation measured at the center of adjoining legs

Figure 4.8: Torsion

Analysis of peak von Mises stress throughout constriction shows there is a significant chance of plastic deformation (Figure 4.9). Peak von Mises stress occurs at 130.5 s with a maximum value of 1418 MPa (true stress), which corresponds to the same time as the moment of peak axial stress. This peak stress value is well above the yield strength of annealed then cold drawn stainless steel 316L of 380 MPa[176]. During the first constriction of the stent, bends and a moderate length of stent leg on either side, would undergo plastic deformation if they hadn't already been strain hardened during the manufacturing process. The FE model begins at a zero stress state, without any of the internal stresses that would be left over from stent manufacturing. This could potentially contribute error to simulated results. The peak von Mises stress encountered during stent constriction is still well below the fracture strength of stainless steel 316L of 2675 MPa (true stress)[183].

Interestingly, Figure 3.14 demonstrates that the point of highest deviatoric stress in the Mylar is found where stent legs make contact. However, Figure 4.9 shows that the point of highest deviatoric stress in the stent is in the bends.



Figure 4.9: Visualization of peak von Mises stress at 130.5 s (MPa)

#### 4.1.1 Free Body Analysis

A final analysis was performed to determine whether reaction forces experienced at both Mylar anchors were equal. Using the system present in Figure 3.12, the free-body diagram (FBD) in Figure 4.10 shows that  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  should display an equal result unless interfered with by friction. Figure 4.11 compares  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  and reveals the difference between them, labeled  $F_{Unknown}$ , which most likely represents frictional effects. Magnitude of  $F_{Unknown}$  changes direction following the switch from constriction to expansion, as would be expected for friction.



Figure 4.10: Free-body diagram of contributing reactions.  $F_R$  = radial force,  $F_{\mu}$  = friction force (constriction and expansion),  $N_1/N_2$  = normal roller forces,  $T_1/T_2$  = Mylar tensile forces

Unrolling the FBD of Figure 4.10, a new FBD perspective (Figure 4.12) can be visualized to help understand  $F_{Unknown}$  from figure 4.11. Assuming uniformly distributed loads, equal roller contact area and frictionless rollers, a value of  $F_{Unknown}$ during constriction can be defined using the analysis performed from Equation 4.1 to 4.8.

Assuming static friction,

$$F_{\mu s} = \mu_s F_R \tag{4.1}$$

where

 $F_{\mu s}$  = static friction force (N)  $\mu_s$  = static Coulomb friction constant  $F_R$  = radial force (N)



Figure 4.11: Comparison between force gauge and linear force data from the moving anchor



Figure 4.12: Unrolled free body diagram of contributing reactions.  $F_R$  = radial force,  $F_{\mu}$  = friction force (constriction and expansion),  $N_1/N_2$  = normal roller forces,  $T_1/T_2$  = Mylar tensile forces

Equilibrium equations become

$$\sum F_x = 0 \tag{4.2}$$

$$T_1 = T_2 + F_{\mu s} \tag{4.3}$$

$$\sum F_y = 0 \tag{4.4}$$

$$F_R = N_1 + N_2 (4.5)$$

where

 $F_x/F_y = x$  and y-component forces (N)  $T_1/T_2 =$  Mylar tensile forces (N)  $N_1/N_2 =$  normal roller forces (N)

Assuming a linear radial stiffness,

$$F_R = kAR \tag{4.6}$$

where

$$k =$$
radial stiffness (N/mm<sup>2</sup>)  
 $AR =$ area reduction (%)

Substituting Equation 4.1 into 4.3,

$$T_1 = T_2 + \mu_s F_R \tag{4.7}$$

Finally, substituting Equation 4.6 into 4.7

$$T_1 = T_2 + \mu_s kAR \tag{4.8}$$

Solving for the  $F_{Unknown}$  force profile from figure 4.11, Equation 4.8 becomes  $F_{Unknown} = T_1 - T_2 = \mu_s kAR.$ 

In future stent wire simulations, in addition to altered material properties, alterations to wire cross section could be used to manipulate torsion, s-bending and t-bending moments. Developing the ability to predictably control these stent mechanics would enable new intelligent options for stent design. Future work should analyze the method of conversion from radial force to linear force measured by the force gauge and how these two compare. An accurate representation of radial force is very important to understanding friction between the artery wall and stent, as well as for determining what radial force is needed for solid stent fixation. Having the ability to convert between the linear force read at the radial extensometer force gauge and the radial force exerted by the stent would enable the calculation of meaningful friction and radial force values that could be used for more precise simulation and improved stent-graft design.

### 4.2 In-Vivo Finite Element Model

Progress was made on an explicit model to simulate the interaction between a selfexpanding endovascular stent and the arterial wall. A visual representation of these efforts can be seen in Figure 4.13.



Figure 4.13: Simulated pressure created by a single self-expanding z-stent deployed in-vivo

The same stent used in the completed in-vitro simulation was used for in-vivo modeling. The uncovered 12 mm stent was first constricted inside of a simulated catheter. Once the stent was constricted enough to fit entirely inside of the simulated artery, the catheter mesh was made completely penetrable and the stent expanded inside of the artery. Once the stent came into contact with the artery wall, the simulation continued for a small period of time to help dampen shock and establish an equilibrium. A rendering of the initial model including the catheter as well as a final view of the simulation with stent and arterial wall in contact is shown in Figure 4.14.



(a) Initial in-vivo

(b) Expanded in-vivo

Figure 4.14: Initial and final rendering of in-vivo simulation

Arterial simulation made use of the "\*MAT\_SOFT\_TISSUE" material model. Y.C. Fung's constants for the carotid artery of the rabbit were used as soft tissue hyper-elastic coefficients for this simulation[184]. Values for bulk modulus, mass density and stretch ratio were taken from literature published by Rudolf Bötticher on fluid structure interaction with "\*MAT\_SOFT\_TISSUE" [185]. Arterial diameter and wall thickness were set to 10.5 mm and 0.75 mm respectively, as initial estimates of carotid artery dimensions. These values can be refined as the model is further developed.

To demonstrate successful interaction between stent and artery, internal energy of the stent was output in Figure 4.15. The initial ramp-up in internal energy corresponds to constriction of the stent inside the simulated catheter. At the point of peak internal energy, the catheter is removed and the stent begins to freely expand. Soon after, internal energy stops dropping and eventually reaches an equilibrium signifying a successful contact between arterial wall and stent graft. Oscillations are due to the short model duration required for the explicit solver.



Figure 4.15: Internal energy trend of a self-expanding z-stent during expansion invivo

There is significant room for improvement of material values, geometry and other components of this model in the future. New iterations of this model would benefit from the addition of a graft to the stent in order to better simulate contact and friction between the two bodies. Ideally, once a stable contact has been achieved, fluids could be introduced to model drag force on the stent as well as stent radial force required to avoid migration and endoleak under different conditions.

# Chapter 5

# Stent Design and Manufacture

Along with the knowledge gained through FE modeling, future stent improvements requires an understanding of manufacturing techniques, materials and geometry of currently available technology. A catalog of existing Zenith z-stent dimensions was produced to both gather the information required to develop accurate manufacturing tools and to obtain baseline data against which custom stents could be compared. The same Logitech C920 webcam used in the radial extensometer was used to take pictures of the stents for cataloging on a 0.25 in (6.35 mm) graph paper background. The setup used for image collection is shown in Figure 5.1. Metallographic and chemical analysis of nitinol and stainless steel stent wires was performed to verify chemical composition as well as manufacturing and treatment processes used by industry. These efforts ensure stents developed for analysis are an accurate representation of currently available prosthetics.



Figure 5.1: Setup for precise stent measurement and cataloging

### 5.1 Stent Cataloging

Stents are placed flat on the graph paper background of the measurement apparatus shown in Figure 5.1, with one bend section flat on the paper's surface. Measurements are taken in the stent's x-z plane. The ruled background of the photography setup was used to provide a scale to dimension pictures taken by the camera. Figure 5.2 itemizes presented dimensions for further explanation.



Figure 5.2: Measure of stent characteristics, x-z plane

- (1) **Stent width**: Measured from bend peak to peak.
- (2) Bend radius: Measured from the inside edge of each bend. Bend radius was measured from the inside edge to give a consistent point of comparison as well as to indicate the size of bend post used during the manufacturing process.
- (3) **Bend angle**: Measured through the center of adjoining stent wire legs.
- (4) Leg length: Measured from the center of two neighboring bend radius circles.

(5) **Image sizing**: The stent is placed on a backdrop of 6.35 mm graph paper. This known value is used to dimension the image from pixels to millimeters for extraction of image geometry.

Stents of all sizes are catalogued in Table 5.1 to gather information relevant to their mechanical design and function. Refining the stent design parameters examined by others: bend angle, leg length, bend diameter and wire diameter were collected as the four base characteristics influencing stent performance and the production of force[139, 147, 137, 1]. Other characteristics needed to fully catalogue stent geometry were also compiled. In figure 5.1, "[c]overed diameter stated" varies from "[c]overed diameter measured" because the stated diameter is rounded for labeling purposes by the manufacturer. Bend diameter and wire diameter values are based off of manufacturer's specifications and do not vary by a significant amount.
Covered diameter stated (mm)	10	12	14	16	18
Covered diameter measured (mm)	$11.45\pm0.05$	$12.37\pm0.09$	$14.59\pm0.13$	$16.78\pm0.05$	$18.16 \pm 1.74$
Uncovered diameter (mm)	$16.90\pm0.24$	$20.35\pm0.25$	$24.04\pm0.13$	$24.53\pm0.32$	$26.92\pm0.30$
Bend angle (°)	$23.00\pm2.40$	$25.98 \pm 1.10$	$27.31 \pm 2.77$	$26.78\pm0.92$	$28.15 \pm 0.26$
Stent width (mm)	$16.41\pm0.09$	$16.21\pm0.05$	$16.03\pm0.08$	$16.05\pm0.01$	$16.19\pm0.02$
Leg length (mm)	$15.40\pm0.21$	$15.42\pm0.25$	$15.28\pm0.06$	$15.14\pm0.18$	$15.24 \pm 0.26$
Bend diameter	$1/32 {\rm in}$	1/32 in	1/32 in	1/32 in	$1/32 {\rm in}$
Wire diameter (mm)	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40
Bends per side	7	7	8	9	9
Covered stent diameter stated (mm)	20	24	30	34	42
Covered diameter measured (mm)	$20.55 \pm 0.22$	$24.30 \pm 0.21$	$29.73 \pm 0.28$	$34.30 \pm 0.20$	$41.66 \pm 0.20$
Uncovered diameter (mm)	$28.98 \pm 0.63$	$28.30\pm0.16$	$35.63\pm0.25$	$46.59\pm0.13$	$51.01 \pm 0.30$
Bend angle (°)	$26.96 \pm 1.41$	$26.83 \pm 0.74$	$25.88 \pm 1.03$	$26.54 \pm 0.64$	$26.52 \pm 1.19$
Stent width (mm)	$16.08\pm0.04$	$16.15\pm0.12$	$16.13\pm0.04$	$21.04\pm0.08$	$20.79 \pm 0.22$
Leg length (mm)	$15.41\pm0.19$	$15.50\pm0.18$	$15.12\pm0.30$	$19.99\pm0.28$	$19.71 \pm 0.14$
Bend diameter	1/32 in	1/32 in	$1.00\mathrm{mm}$	$1.00\mathrm{mm}$	$1.00\mathrm{mm}$
Wire diameter (mm)	0.40	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.50
Bends per side	10.00	10.00	12.00	12.00	14.00

Table 5.1: Stent catalogue (±SD, 1/32 in = 0.79 mm)

#### 5.2 Metallographic and Chemical Analysis

Stent materials used by industry were analyzed to ensure FE models from Chapter 3 use accurate parameters, and that properties of in house manufactured stents are comparable to those produced by industry. Original FDA documents from 2003 as well as patents for the Zenith self-expanding stent-graft do not indicate the material used in the manufacture of the z-stent wires[186, 187, 188, 189]. However, the Summary of Safety and Effectiveness Data document submitted to the FDA in 2012 for the Zenith fenestrated AAA endovascular graft and alignment stent confirms that stainless steel 316L is used in the manufacture of Zenith self-expanding z-stents[190].

Metallographic analysis was performed to reinforce knowledge of stent material alloy type and to investigate manufacturing processes that may have been used. Metallographic analysis was completed in four steps:

- Figure 5.3(a): Stainless steel 316L and nitinol (nickel titanium) stent legs are cut into small sections and mounted in bakelite (a thermosetting resin) using the Struers (Ballerup, Denmark) CitoPress-1. Stent wire sections are mounted both axially and longitudinally.
- Figure 5.3(b): Mounted samples are finely polished using the Struers Tegramin-20. Prior to polishing, a stronger abrasive is used to grind 50% of the way through longitudinally mounted samples. Fully polished samples are shown in Figure 5.3(c).
- 3. Figure 5.3(d): Polished samples are analyzed before and after etching at a variety of magnifications using a standard high power microscope with a connected digital vision system. Kalling's reagent 2, the suggested etchant for stainless steels, was far too powerful, causing significant corrosion and pitting after only a brief moment of contact with the mounted samples[191]. Aqua Regia was selected as a final suitable etchant. Three, ten second rounds of etching were performed with a series of pictures taken after each one.
- 4. Figure 5.3(f): Following the first round of etching, the scanning electron microscope (SEM) (Figure 5.3(e)) was used to further investigate grain structure, however, grain structure was better revealed in images taken using the standard



(a) Mount wires tangentially and axially







(c) Mounted wire samples



(d) Analyze microstructure and texture



(e) Etch and analyze using the SEM and EDS



(f) SEM image during EDS analysis at 10 μm

Figure 5.3: Microstructure and texture analysis process

microscope. Energy-dispersive x-ray spectroscopy (EDS) was used to analyze the chemical composition of both stainless steel 316L and nitinol stents.

A weak magnetism was discovered in the stainless steel 316L stent wire used in Zenith stents. This is interesting because annealed stainless steel 316L is primarily composed of an austenitic face-centered-cubic (FCC) non-magnetic crystal structure with a small amount of body-centered-cubic (BCC) ferrite that did not convert to austenite due to the relatively low nickel content in stainless steel 316L. The amount of ferrite in annealed stainless steel 316L is not enough to instill notable magnetism in this material. There must be a secondary process and crystal structure present which is causing this magnetism.

Different balances of elements present in stainless steel will push and pull the phase of the metal between ferrite, austenite and martensite. Chromium, molybdenum, silicon and niobium are ferrite stabilizing. Nickel, manganese and carbon are austenite stabilizing[192]. Martensite, a magnetic, body-centered-tetragonal (BCT) crystal structure found in Fe-Ni alloys, can be formed by either heat treating austenite with low nickel equivalent (the combined effect of all austenite stabilizing elements) or by high shear strain imbued upon austenite during a cold-working (drawing) process[193].

Wire used in stainless steel 316L Zenith z-stents displays a strong longitudinal texture (Figure 5.4). Narrow cross-sections of these long, narrow grains can be seen in the axial transection of stent wire in Figure 5.5. Zenith stent wire must have been subjected to the high strain of a cold-working process to develop these narrow, elongated grains parallel to the direction of extrusion[193]. The use of this manufacturing process explains the origin of magnetism discovered in the Zenith stent graft; the strength of magnetism is related to the proportion of delta-ferrite and martensite present in stainless steel 316L wire.

Cold working stent wire and the associated increase in martensite not only affects magnetism but also causes work hardening of the stainless steel due to an increased dislocation density and transformation from soft FCC austenite to hard, highly-strained BCT martensite[194].

Finally, using low-carbon stainless steel 316L with a carbon content below 0.35% helps avoid precipitation of carbon along grain boundaries. Avoiding carbon precipitation will fend off cementite (iron carbide) and chromium carbide production, conserving stores of chromium in the stainless steel 316L grain boundaries. Chromium stores are required to produce a protective chromium oxide layer on the wire surface, therefore, using a low-carbon stainless steel improves the corrosion resistance of



(a) Longitudinal grain texture at 500x







Figure 5.5: Stainless steel 316L stent wire axial texture

stents[195].

Changes in material properties due to the wire drawing process will have an impact on the performance of stainless steel stents. Manipulating the martensite content in wires used for stent manufacture could be a possible way of manipulating the characteristics of future stainless steel stents. Although both Cook (Zenith) stainless steel 316L and Medtronic (Talent) nitinol z-stents were analyzed, the focus of this work falls solely on the performance of those manufactured with stainless steel 316L. Although it may not possess the shape memory alloy material properties of nitinol, it can easily be brazed, welded and heat treated making it much easier to work with. Stainless steel 316L stents have shown less corrosion and embrittlement when compared to their nitinol counterparts, due to leaching of nickel out of the nickel-titanium alloy[196, 146]. However, nitinol z-stents are able to avoid high material stresses through austenite to martensite transformation, remaining more compliant due to martensite's lower Young's modulus; while plasticity may occur in those manufactured using stainless steel 316L[27, 130]. A longitudinal cross section of nitinol used in the Talent stent at room temperature is shown in Figure 5.6. Grains of austenite and martensite are visible running parallel to the wire direction.



Figure 5.6: NiTi grain structure at 500x

Results from chemical analysis of stent sections using EDM are presented in Tables 5.2 and 5.3. Stainless Steel 316L and Nitinol composition was successfully validated with data presented by the American Society for Testing and Materials. Chemical

components which contributed less than  $0.1\,\%$  by weight to overall material composition were not picked up by EDM.

Element	Weight $\%$	Atomic %	Book Value (Weight %)	% Difference
Si	0.72	1.41	0.750	4.00
$\operatorname{Cr}$	18.88	19.94	16.0 - 18.0	4.89
Mn	1.46	1.46	2.000	27.00
Fe	69.94	68.78	62.045 - 69.005	1.35
Ni	9.00	8.42	10.0 - 14.0	10.00
С	DNR	DNR	0.030	N/A
Р	DNR	DNR	0.045	N/A
S	DNR	DNR	0.030	N/A
Mb	DNR	DNR	2.0 - 3.0	N/A
Ν	DNR	DNR	0.100	N/A

Table 5.2: Verification of material composition for stainless steel 316L sample[197]

 Table 5.3:
 Verification of material composition for Ni-Ti sample[198]

Element	Weight %	Atomic %	Book Value (Weight %)	% Difference
Ti	42.87	47.92	42.75 - 45.50	0.00
Ni	57.13	52.08	54.50 - 57.00	0.23
С	DNR	DNR	0.050 MAX	N/A
Co	DNR	DNR	0.050 MAX	N/A
Cu	DNR	DNR	0.010 MAX	N/A
$\operatorname{Cr}$	DNR	DNR	0.010 MAX	N/A
Η	DNR	DNR	0.005 MAX	N/A
Fe	DNR	DNR	0.050 MAX	N/A
Nb	DNR	DNR	0.025  MAX	N/A
N + O	DNR	DNR	0.050  MAX	N/A

## 5.3 Jig Design and Manufacture

Several different attempts were made at designing and rapid prototyping a mechanism that could be used to precisely and reliably manufacture z-stents.



Figure 5.7: Stent bender design iterations

The following design iterations are labeled in Figure 5.7:

(1) Crimping bender: This system was printed with a Stratysis, Dimension (Rehovot, Israel) fused deposition modeling machine. Unfortunately, the layered deposition method is inherently weak where layers of material have fused together. During the crimping process, as the stent wire was drawn into the crimping apparatus, the stent wire would split layers of fused plastic and cut through the bending jig. Unfortunately, even altering the orientation of layer deposition was not enough to compensate for the low strength of ABS plastic used by this printer. Had this bending process worked, this apparatus was designed with interchangeable crimping jaws of varying profiles that could easily be swapped to bend an entire stent reliably and consistently in one motion.

- (2) First iteration feed through bender: Learning from the difficulties encountered using fused deposition to manufacture wire benders, a Stratysis Objet ultraviolet (UV) cured photopolymer printer was used for manufacturing. The layer thickness is much finer on this machine (0.33 mm vs. 0.028 mm) creating a far more dense part with better layer bonding. Instead of being able to bend an entire stent in one motion, this iteration of wire bender was designed to continuously bent stent wire. This machine was successful in bending wire into a precise, repeatable shape. Unfortunately, the bend angle created with the small bending wheels used in this device was too large and could not be reduced without either increasing the radius of the wheel or adjusting the leg length of the stent to an inappropriate size.
- (3) Second iteration feed through bender (low angle): Building upon the first feed through bender, this second iteration device increases the radius of bending wheel in order to decrease the bend angle of manufactured stents. This iteration included flat shields on either side of the bending teeth to keep the wire in place during bending. Unfortunately, crimping teeth were made too narrow and once forces reached a certain limit (usually after the engagement of 1-2 teeth) wire would not feed properly between the two jaws, slipping out of the machine (Figure 5.8).
- (4) Third iteration feed through bender (low angle, wide contact surface): In this new design, side shields were removed and teeth were made significantly wider. A center groove was added to guide wire through crimping teeth during bending. Unfortunately, using a large radius wheel means that during bending the wire must be drawn through several teeth. The force required to draw wire into the apparatus during bending chipped and broke teeth, destroying the device. The feed through bender was abandoned after this iteration.



Figure 5.8: Second iteration feed through bender (low angle) showing failed attempt due to slipped wire: 1 - bending teeth, 2 - wheel for mounting bender, 3 - flat bending shield, 4 - stent wire

### 5.3.1 Final Jig Design

The final iteration of the stent bending apparatus was designed with several features in mind. Ease of manufacturing (i.e. bending an entire stent in one motion) was substituted in favor of functionality. It was designed as a manual, single bend jig which requires several uses to complete a single stent (Figure 5.9). A second generation of these benders were printed with clear material using the Stratasys Objet to ease the positioning of stents as well as the bending process itself (Figure 5.10). All CAD drawings for this final generation of benders can be found in Appendix F.



(a) Final CAD rendering of stent wire bending jig



(b) Completed stent wire bending jig-in use

Figure 5.9: Completed stent wire bending jig



(a) three-dimensional printing of clear wire bending jig



(b) Clear stent wire bending jig–in use

Figure 5.10: Completed clear stent wire bending jig

Referring to Figure 5.11, enumerated design features of the final stent bending jig are as follows:

(1) The lower bending jig plate of the bending jig (Appendix F, page 210) is fixed to a firm surface using 10 - 32x1/2 in low profile socket head machine screws.



Figure 5.11: Final stent wire bending jig

- (2) Bend angle is adjusted using a stopper (Appendix F, page 212) which can be precisely positioned using the angular placement tool (Appendix F, page 213) shown in Figure 5.12(a).
- (3) A lip built into a raised section of the jig base plate allows wire legs to be clipped into the jig, securing sections of wire before bending.
- (4) Two 1/32 in bending posts are used. One fixed to the lower plate near the outside edge of the jig to hold the wire in place during bending, ensuring a precise leg length; another which is fixed to the upper bending jig plate (Appendix F, page 209) in the center of the bending jig, which the wire is bent around.
- (5) A thicker 2 mm post is fixed to the upper plate and positioned on the outside of the center bend post. The stent wire fits between the two posts which are fixed to the top plate. This gap between the 2 mm and 1/32 in bend posts can be seen in the center of Figure 5.11(b). The larger 2 mm outer post bends the wire around the center bend post.
- (6) A section of the lower plate is raised starting one wire diameter beneath the outermost bending post. This prevents the stent wire from moving during the

bending process. This ridge also provides a firm landmark for wire placement during setup.

- (7) A bumper on the top plate hits against the stopper (enumerated value 2 in Figure 5.11(a)) on the bottom plate, ensuring stent wires can be bent to a repeatable angle. To avoid pinching the stent wire between bumpers on the top and bottom plates, the bumper on the top plate remains in front of the stent wire during bending.
- (8) Stability and control of the jig is promoted with two raised platforms on the lower plate and a trough on the upper plate. The inner most raised platform of the lower plate rests on the top plate during bending, providing a stable contact during the bending process. The outer most raised platform is higher than the inner platform. This section fits inside of the trough on the upper plate keeping the upper and lower sections aligned during bending as well as providing more surface area for added stability.

A handle is connected to the backside of the jig top plate (Figure 5.11(b)) using two threshold fit pegs. Proper tolerancing is critical to jig functionality. Following some experimentation on how printed component tolerances interact, a diametral tolerance of 0.006 in was employed for freely moving parts such as the bend angle stopper, socket head screw counter sinks and radial alignment slot. Tight fitting parts such as the handle attachment plugs and all posts associated with bending use a zero tolerance fit.

### 5.4 Stent Manufacture

Stents are manufactured using a jig that has been manufactured and set up to achieve an appropriate leg length, wire diameter and bend radius in the final product. The only stent characteristic which is adjustable on each jig is the bend angle. There are four main steps in stent manufacture:

1. Figure 5.12(a): The angle of bend is set using an angular placement tool. The bend stopper is secured using a 6 - 32x1/4 screw fastened from the underside of the lower jig plate.



- (e) Braze second side of wire
- (f) Completed stent

Figure 5.12: Custom stent manufacturing process

- 2. Figure 5.12(b): Repeated bends are made until the desired number has been achieved. If coiled wire is used, the wire should be flipped to point upward for one bend and downward for another, to ensure the completed stent is flat and straight.
- 3. Figure 5.12(c): One side of the bent stent wire is brazed inside of a section

of 22 gauge, 316 stainless steel hypodermic tubing (inner diameter = 0.016 in, outer diameter = 0.028 in) using pliers as a heat sink. Care must be taken not to accidentally heat the stent wire above its recrystallization temperature; annealing the stent wire will remove its spring temper and make the wire unsuitable for use in a self-expanding stent. A completed first braze is shown in Figure 5.12(d).

4. Figure 5.12(e): The second braze is made in the same way as the first, however, the stent must be supported in a position identical to that of its final state. The pliers are again used as a heat sink to avoid overheating the wire. A finished stent should maintain a circular shape with identical bends and minimal excess filler metal. A completed stent is shown in Figure 5.12(f).

Manufactured stents are checked for accuracy with the same apparatus used to catalogue industry stents in Section 5.1. Dimensional accuracy is verified prior to using lab manufactured stents for analysis.

#### 5.5 Discussion

Analysis of materials and manufacturing processes for Zenith z-stents has improved the accuracy of stents manufactured for experimental analysis making them more comparable to those available through industry. The wire bending jig was designed to manufacture small, repeatable batches of customizable z-stents. However, it is more than likely that industry uses automated wire bending and brazing techniques to achieve a more repeatable, precise end product. Stents manufactured with bending jigs are inspected prior to experimental use to ensure analogy with their industrial counterpart. Brazing will be the major source of error for stents manufactured using the wire bending jig. Brazed joints produced by unskilled hands may be suitable for testing but they are not as uniform as their industrial counterpart and their strength cannot be guaranteed. No stent manufactured using the bending jig has broken due to a failed brazed joint.

With the ability to design and manufacture custom stents for analysis. Next steps will focus on manufacturing stents in order to gather information on their mechanical properties. This information will be used in cooperation with information gathered during FE analysis to investigate a method of predicting z-stent force generation for patient-specific stent geometries.

## Chapter 6

## Stent Design Parameters and Radial Force Prediction

This chapter investigates the relationship between stent geometry and radial force generation. Results from this analysis are used to create a preliminary software for predicting radial force generated by self-expanding z-stents in patient specific scenarios.

#### 6.1 Stent Characteristic Study Methodology

Several stents were manufactured using stainless steel 316L spring tempered steel. Leg length, bend angle, wire diameter and bend radius (the four criteria established in Chapter 2 as being crucial to radial force development) were altered and radial force generation data was collected for all stent iterations. Stents were manufactured and measured using techniques described in Chapter 5. Table 6.1 shows all nine stents manufactured for use in this experiment. The "baseline" stent is a laboratory manufactured copy of the Cook (Zenith) 14 mm self-expanding z-stent.

Stent characteristic data was collected using the radial extensometer introduced in Chapter 2, employing the method outlined in Appendix C. At least three sets of data were collected for each stent configuration to ensure a baseline sample size for meaningful statistics. A second ++wire diameter stent was manufactured to verify irregular behavior encountered during testing of the first. Data analysis was performed slightly differently than in previous chapters: instead of setting AR with the first test trial and running others to the same displacement, AR data is collected for every trial.

Force data is collected at 1612 Hz as explained in Section 2.2.2, however, the maximum possible frame rate of images collected by the Logitech C920 webcam while monitoring stent radius hovers around 30 Hz. With this difference and variability of sample rates, the time stamp for these two sets of data do not line up. In order to plot these two variables against each other, a common time stamp had to be established.

	Baseline $14\mathrm{mm}$	++Wire Diameter	+Wire Diameter	+Leg Length	-Leg Length
Uncovered stent diameter (mm)	$24.02\pm0.08$	$24.49 \pm 0.24$	$24.28\pm0.04$	$24.84\pm0.15$	$19.70\pm0.29$
Bend angle (°)	$28.68 \pm 3.02$	$27.01 \pm 1.00$	$26.71 \pm 1.00$	$27.05 \pm 1.43$	$25.73 \pm 1.93$
Stent width (mm)	$16.00\pm0.08$	$16.08\pm0.03$	$16.14\pm0.06$	$18.28\pm0.16$	$13.48\pm0.04$
Leg length (mm)	$15.32\pm0.20$	$14.82\pm0.52$	$15.13\pm0.66$	$17.42\pm0.74$	$12.27\pm0.47$
Bend diameter	1/32 in	1/32 in	1/32 in	1/32 in	1/32 in
Wire diameter (mm)	0.40	0.50	0.45	0.40	0.40
Bends per side	8	8	8	8	8

Table 6.1: Stent characteristic catalog ( $\pm$ SD, 1/32 in = 0.79 mm, 1/16 in = 1.59 mm)

	++Bend Diameter	+Bend Diameter	+Bend Angle	-Bend Angle	
Uncovered stent diameter (mm)	$24.38\pm0.04$	$24.53\pm0.05$	$26.76\pm0.07$	$17.960 \pm 0.250$	
Bend angle (°)	$26.47 \pm 1.41$	$26.49 \pm 0.85$	$32.67 \pm 3.59$	$19.44 \pm 2.19$	
Stent width (mm)	$16.48\pm0.04$	$16.22\pm0.09$	$15.71\pm0.12$	$16.32 \pm 0.06$	
Leg length (mm)	$15.14\pm0.41$	$15.05\pm0.15$	$14.82\pm0.36$	$15.11 \pm 0.27$	
Bend diameter (mm)	1/16 in	$1.00\mathrm{mm}$	1/32 in	1/32 in	
Wire diameter (mm)	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40	
Bends per side	8	8	8	8	

AR values were up-sampled to match the time stamp and data rate of force data using LabVIEW's built-in "interpolate 1D" VI.

Force and AR are both independent, non-monotonically increasing variables which are dependent on time stamp values. Averaging multiple data sets collected for each stent characteristic becomes difficult because time stamps, peak AR and therefore the number of sample points do not match between individual runs. Data sets cannot simply be lined up and averaged like with the previous method. In order to average force values from different unique data sets, each set must be interpolated against a consistent range of AR values. This consistent AR range will become a dependent variable against which averaged force values can be plotted.

Because AR and force values are not monotonically increasing, a classic linear interpolation cannot be used to line up values between data sets due to the fact that certain values may repeat. To address this issue, data sets are aligned for plotting using two-dimensional grid interpolation. The built-in Python function "scipy.interpolate.griddata()" performs this task using original force and AR, as well as the new consistant monotonically increasing AR range as input. Following a twodimensional interpolation, a new one-dimensional monotonically increasing array of interpolated force values is output.

Force data can now be averaged and is filtered as explained in Section 2.2.2. Filtering was performed after averaging to preserve characteristics of the original data as much as possible.

Data is plotted in two manners: "Full data" refers to the actual AR that each 14 mm uncovered stent encounters during testing, while "Scaled to 14 mm covered" indicates that only the region in the uncovered stent's full AR data set that corresponds to the 0 - 50% AR region for a covered 14 mm stent is shown. AR values for the uncovered stent are converted to represent AR values of the covered 14 mm stent using Equation 6.1.

$$\% AR_{c} = 100 \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{2\sqrt{\left(\frac{100 - \% AR_{o}}{100}\right) \left(\pi \frac{D_{o}}{2}\right)^{2}}}{\pi D_{c}} \right)^{2} \right]$$
(6.1)

where

 $\% AR_c =$  covered area reduction (%)  $\% AR_o =$  original area reduction (%)  $D_c =$  unconstricted covered stent diameter (mm)  $D_o =$  unconstricted uncovered stent diameter (mm)

Curve fitting was used to show the trends plots that may have irregular profiles. Polynomial and exponential regression were compared because curve profiles share characteristics that could be matched by either method. Linear regression of original and fit data was used to calculate an  $r^2$  value for each type using Equation 3.10. Because the data trend possesses a single inflection point, a polynomial fit should be selected using Equation 6.2, where  $n - 2 \ge \#$  of inflection points (n = polynomial order)[199]. With a single inflection point present in results, a cubic fit should be adequate; results in Table 6.2 show that this method achieves a reasonable fit. Although the  $r^2$  value increases with higher order, there is no need to overfit the data, as this will cause other problems to arise such as a wavy fit. All  $r^2$  values were calculated using Equation 3.10, whose results were identical to output produced by Python's linear regression function "scipy.stats.linregress()". An exponential fit was calculated using formula 6.3 and is very comparable to polynomial results.

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots + a_n x^n$$
(6.2)

$$y = a * \exp(-bx) - c \tag{6.3}$$

where

$$a, b, c =$$
 regression coefficients  
 $y =$  y-value input (N)  
 $x =$  x-value input (%OA)

Increasing wire diameter did not produce as large an increase in separation of force profiles as expected. In the case of ++wire diameter, nine independent sets of data from two unique stents were collected and averaged to ensure results were not

	Exponential	$1^{st}$ order	$2^{nd}$ order	$3^{rd}$ order
Labmade	0.9235	0.8437	0.9015	0.9379
++Wire diameter	0.9630	0.8911	0.9508	0.9681
+Wire diameter	0.9874	0.9231	0.9794	0.9905
		$4^{th}$ order	$5^{th}$ order	$6^{th}$ order
Labmade		0.9705	0.9911	0.9932
++Wire diameter		0.9803	0.9899	0.9959
+Wire diameter		0.9948	0.9968	0.9971

**Table 6.2:** Wire diameter -  $r^2$  values for different curve fitting methods

erroneous. Figure 6.1 presents results for altered wire diameter plotted with a cubic polynomial fit whose  $r^2$  value is given in Table 6.2.



Figure 6.1: Results of altered wire diameter with polynomial fit



# 6.2 Stent Characteristic Study Results



Figure 6.3: Effect of altering bend radius



Figure 6.4: Effect of altering leg length



Figure 6.5: Effect of altering bend angle



Figure 6.6: Comparison of lab, industry and covered stents

### 6.3 Radial Force Prediction Software

The GUI for software that was developed to use stent characteristic study results for radial force prediction is shown in Figure 6.7. Python code for this program can be found in Appendix G.



Figure 6.7: Radial force prediction software

This program is run in two stages. An initial run takes in all stent characteristic files and averages individual trials for each characteristic in the same manner explained in Section 6.1. These overall characteristic results are dumped into a temporary file to avoid having to repeat this computationally intensive step for every alteration in program input. Using this temporary file reduced profile rendering time from  $\sim 796$  s to  $\sim 1$  s.

Two steps go into simulating an expected stent radial force profile. First, using Python's "numpy.polyfit()" least squares polynomial function from Python, a linear fit is created to correlate the three different sets of averaged stent characteristic data at each AR interval. A linear fit is assumed because there are not enough trials for each design parameter to draw conclusions on their order. The user input value for each design parameter was used to interpolate predicted values from polynomial functions for each interval of AR.

The final simulated stent force profile is calculated with the algorithm presented in Equations 6.4-6.8, which combines the contribution of each user input stent design parameter.

$$wd_{effect} = wd_{force} - original \tag{6.4}$$

$$ll_{effect} = ll_{force} - original \tag{6.5}$$

$$ba_{effect} = ba_{force} - original \tag{6.6}$$

$$br_{effect} = br_{force} - original \tag{6.7}$$

$$simulated = original + (wd + ll + ba + br)_{effect}$$

$$(6.8)$$

where

wd = wire diameter (mm) ll = leg length (mm) ba = bend angle (°) br = bend radius (mm)

There are two separate danger regions outlined in Figure 6.7. The area labeled "Existing Danger Region" shows the current rule of thumb values for AAA stent-graft oversize compared to the outer arterial diameter of 10 - 20%. This corresponds to an AR range of 17.36 - 30.56%. Figure 6.6(b) demonstrates that oversizing greater than 10% avoids the sudden drop-off in radial force below 10% AR for a covered stent-graft.

The region labeled "Additional New Danger Region" is a secondary area intended to be used in tandem with existing limits. General limits based on oversizing alone do not adjust to account for the wide range of radial forces produced by different brands and sizes of stents at the same AR. The additional new radial force region could be used as a more precise design criteria, varying based on individual stent, vessel and patient requirements. The "Additional New Danger Region" range shown in Figure 6.7 is an approximation; refined values will minimize vessel remodeling while ensuring adequate stent-graft fixation. Further research on vessel mechanics and the interaction between prosthesis and vessel walls is required to fully define this new range.

Figure 6.8 demonstrates the impact of entering patient specific characteristics for arterial diameter and compliance on the baseline results shown in Figure 6.7. Figure 6.8(a) shows the predicted radial force for a patient with an outer arterial diameter of 12.5 mm without any compensation for compliance. While the results shown in Figure 6.8(b) demonstrate the reduction in oversize and AR when an arterial compliance of  $0.2 \text{ mm}^2/\text{mmHg}$  is included in the prediction.



Simulated Force Profile of a Covered 14.59mm Stent

Simulated Force Profile of a Covered 14.59mm Stent

Figure 6.8: The effect of compliance on the simulated radial force profile for a 14.59 mm stent expanded inside an artery with an outer diameter of 12.5 mm

Using the four stent design parameter input boxes in the simulation software (wire diameter, leg length, bend angle and bend radius) the user can alter the output stent force profile shown in Figure 6.8. Once this profile falls inside the safe region, patient specific characteristics can be added to ensure their vales wont shift radial force into either danger area. Patient specific input includes outer artery diameter, which must be below the original covered stent diameter of 14.59 mm, as well as arterial compliance measured in mm<sup>2</sup>/mmHg. The effect of arterial compliance on simulated radial force is calculated using Equations 6.9 to 6.12. The change in area due to compliance from Equation 6.12 is subtracted from the original unaffected AR value giving a new AR value for the simulated compliant artery. This new AR value and its associated radial force value from the original force profile become the new x and y-simulated output respectively.

$$P = \frac{F_R}{SA_{STENT}} * 7500.616 \tag{6.9}$$

$$C_{AC} = Compliance * P \tag{6.10}$$

$$OA = \pi \left(\frac{D_{CO}}{2}\right)^2 \tag{6.11}$$

$$\Delta A_C = \frac{C_{AC}}{OA} * 100 \tag{6.12}$$

where

$$D_{CO} = \text{covered original diameter (mm)}$$

$$P = \text{pressure (mmHg)}$$

$$SA_{STENT} = \text{stent surface area (mm^2)}$$

$$C_{AC} = \text{compliance area change (mm^2)}$$

$$OA = \text{original area (mm^2)}$$

$$\Delta A_C = \text{change in area due to compliance (mm^2)}$$

#### 6.4 Discussion

Results presented in Figures 6.2 through 6.5 demonstrate the impact of each stent design parameter on overall radial force generation. Table 6.3 presents results for standard error of the estimate and t-values, which were calculated using Equations 3.11 and 6.15, to evaluate the hypotheses presented in Equations 6.13 and 6.14. p-Values are calculated to evaluate whether the alternative hypothesis is statistically significant. Results show that the only stent characteristic not to achieve statistical significance is "+bend radius"; it's trend line has a 13.4% chance of replicating the original 14 mm stent, baseline trend.

These results agree with earlier investigations by Snowhill et al. in 2001, whose results showed that manipulating leg length and wire gauge had the largest impact on radial force. They elaborated that radial force is maximized with increasing wire diameter and number of bends; as well as when leg length is equal to vessel diameter for stents with 5-7 bends. They found a parabolic relationship between radial force and leg length for z-stents[137].

$$H_0 = \mu_1 = \mu_2 \tag{6.13}$$

$$H_A = \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \parallel \mu_1 > \mu_2 \parallel \mu_1 < \mu_2 \tag{6.14}$$

where

 $H_0 =$  null hypothesis  $H_A =$  alternative hypothesis  $\mu_1 =$  first dataset mean (N)  $\mu_2 =$  second dataset mean (N)

$$t_{test} = \frac{\bar{Y}_2 - \bar{Y}_1}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}$$
(6.15)

where

$$\begin{split} Y_1 &= \text{original force dataset (N)} \\ S_1^2 &= \text{standard deviation of original dataset (N)} \\ Y_2 &= \text{altered characteristic force dataset (N)} \\ S_2^2 &= \text{standard deviation of altered dataset (N)} \\ \bar{Y_1}, \bar{Y_2} &= \text{mean of forces (N)} \\ t_{test} &= \text{t-test value} \\ n_1, n_2 &= \text{number of values in dataset} \end{split}$$

There is much room for expansion of this software. This program currently predicts radial force for different design parameter iterations of the 14 mm stent. To make this software compatible with larger diameter stents, a full range of design parameter profiles would have to be created for each stent diameter. In the future, a

	+Wire Diameter	++Wire Diameter	+Bend Radius	++Bend Radius
SError	1.05	1.25	0.07	0.04
t-Test	-102.732	-139.469	-1.501	3.926
p-Value	0.000	0.000	0.134	0.000
	-Bend Angle	+Bend Angle	-Leg Length	+Leg Length
SError	0.30	0.21	0.12	0.07
t-Test	39.826	-25.718	-12.992	8.054
p-Value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

 Table 6.3: Standard error, t-test and p-values for different stent characteristic changes (SError units match those of the column heading)

software that could take in patient arterial dimensions and compliance alone, while calculating the design parameters required to achieve a target radial force would be the most useful and revolutionary. Future iterations could use these results to select stents from a catalog of available models or to suggest manufacture of a specific stent geometry.

# Chapter 7

# Conclusion

Although self-expanding endovascular z-stents have been used for several years in the management of aneurysmal arterial disease, it has not previously been possible to characterize their mechanics. The objective of this work was not only to develop investigative tools intended for use in rectifying a deficient understanding of stent mechanics but also to characterize the impact of altering stent design parameters on overall stent performance. Results from this analysis were used to predict stent performance based on both varied stent geometry and patient specific arterial diameter and compliance.

A novel radial extension and modern data acquisition system were developed to both improve the quality of data being collected for stent radial force characterization as well as to standardize the method of data collection for future works. This system was sized appropriately for loading forces that could be expected from available stent-grafts. As an improvement over previous experimental methods, a machine vision system was added to not only eliminate error from Mylar deformation but also to reduce error due to manual calculation by explicitly calculating AR in real-time throughout testing. Through analysis of the orientation of stent brazed joints, it became evident that brazed stent connections have an impact on the symmetry of radial force distribution. Orientation of stents and positioning of the brazed connection during implantation will have an impact on the interaction between stent and arterial wall, especially if multiple stents are used in the same prosthetic. A final investigation confirmed results presented by Johnston et al. explaining that the force applied by stents placed in an end-to-end configuration was equivalent to the sum of forces applied by individual stents [1]. Testing of a single stent with and without a graft covering showed that the woven polyester graft had very little impact on radial force results above 10% AR.

Results initially presented by Johnston et al. regarding a discrepancy between

stent diameter and radial force generation have been verified, clearly demonstrating that smaller stent diameters exhibit higher radial force than larger diameter stents across the entire range of AR values that may be encountered following implantation[1]. Considering that drag force rises along with arterial diameter, it is logical that radial force exerted by stent-grafts should also increase with diameter up to a certain limit intended to avoid vessel remodeling.

A converged FE model of the radial extensioneter testing a 12 mm stent was developed to analyze stent mechanics and provide a tool for future stent development. Validation of the converged radial force profile during expansion provided a good fit attaining an  $r^2$  of 0.946, a standard error of 0.099 N, a MAPE of 11.69% and a MPE of 1.69% when compared to experimental results. Adoption of the validated FE model and radial extensioneter by others will establish a consistant platform for both comparison of results and cataloging the performance of existing prosthetics.

Analysis of the completed FE model provides evidence that the non-symmetric force profile created through comparison of results during constriction and expansion is not solely due to frictional effects. Simulation results show that both interaction between the stent and radial extensometer rollers as well as stent mechanics have an impact on radial force generation. The effect of torsion, s-bending and t-bending moments during stent expansion combine to create the collected radial force profile. The radial extensometer influences collected data through several means including the interaction between stent legs and radial extensometer rollers; pinching of the stent between radial extensometer rollers; as well as friction between the Mylar and stent.

Developing the ability to manufacture new stents required the investigation of current stent metallurgy and manufacturing techniques using SEM and EDS. This confirmed the use of stainless steel 316L and a wire drawing manufacturing process. Using this knowledge and an analysis of currently available stent geometries, a small batch stent manufacturing process was developed to produce exact and altered replicas of a 14 mm Cook (Zenith) z-stent. Several stents with variations of the four main design criteria (leg length, wire diameter, bend diameter and bend angle) were fabricated to perform a parametric study on their individual impact on radial force generation. The performance of these altered stent geometries were analyzed using
the newly developed radial extensioneter. Results showed that the only design parameter not to have a statistically significant impact on radial force generation was a lesser increased in bend diameter (1.00 mm vs. the original 0.794 mm [1/32 in]), however a larger variation of this parameter (1.588 mm [1/16 in]) was statistically significant.

Using results from the design parameter analysis, software was developed to predict radial force generation for 14 mm stents with any combination of the four investigated parameters. Patient specific values for inner arterial diameter and compliance alter results to show how a specific stent geometry would perform. Developing the ability to manipulate the fixation (radial) force to an ideal value for each individual stent and patient instead of relying on 10 - 20% oversize as a guideline will improve the precision of EVAR, enabling the expansion of possible stent-graft uses to more sensitive pathologies such as vena cava stenosis and aortic dissection.

#### 7.1 Recommendations and Future Work

Each component analyzed in these works has the potential to be expanded upon. In the case of the radial extensioneter, altering the program from positional control (linear slide displacement) to a system controlled by an input value for AR would greatly simplify data collection. This would ensure each test constricts to a desired AR instead of having to redo trials that do not achieve the correct AR due to inaccurate input for linear slide displacement. Future iterations of the radial extensioneter could be expanded to include the ability to manipulate temperature and humidity in order to observe their effect on stent expansion and radial force. It could be useful to develop the ability to more closely simulate conditions that would be encountered in-vivo in the experimental setup.

Further analysis of FE model results should reveal more information regarding the connection between radial force generation and force values collected from the linear force gauge. Establishing a range of force gauge values that correspond to ideal in-vivo radial forces would be an important step in the development of mechanically correct stents, however this would require further development of the in-vivo stent expansion model. The FE model should be used to both fully characterize the mechanisms behind radial force generation and to resolve the individual contributions of torsion, s-bending and t-bending moments on radial force generation. The effect of altered stent geometry, wire cross-section, materials, type of wire connection (potentially seamless) or even a non-uniform wire diameter are all possible ways that stent mechanics could be altered. Developing a methodology to predictably alter torsion, s-bending and t-bending moments would facilitate the design of stents based on mechanical understanding instead of prediction. Stents developed using the FE model could then be manufactured and tested in the radial extensometer to verify their performance.

Stent force prediction software is currently only available for 14 mm stents. To expand this program's functionality, future work should focus on collecting design parameter data for other stent diameters. Ideally, future iterations of this software could take in patient arterial dimensions and compliance alone, calculating design parameters required to achieve a target radial force. The program could use these results to select a stent from a catalog of available models or suggest the manufacturing of a specific geometry. Medical professionals and patients would benefit from a software which improves prosthetic selection for each case.

The theory and tools developed in this work can be used to further investigate and improve the performance of available prosthetics, enhancing patient care and widening potential applications of endovascular devices to more sensitive procedures. Increasing both the number of possible applications for stent-grafts as well as the use of EVAR over OSR will increase the demand for prosthetics, expanding the available market for manufacturers. Advancements in the understanding of stent mechanics will bolster progress toward the design of stent grafts that reduce incidence of migration, endoleak and rupture.

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## Appendix A

### **PIV Vision System**

A particle counting algorithm was developed as a contribution to a publication by Walker et al. entitled "In vitro post-stenotic flow quantification and validation using echo particle image velocimetry (Echo PIV)" [200].

### A.1 Methodology

To characterize a fluid velocity profile captured using echo particle image velocimetry (PIV), a particle density histogram was created by analyzing multiple images of particle seeded flow. Using LabVIEW IMAQ, these images were edited to improve particle counting accuracy before separating a flow region into several subsections (histogram bins) and counting particles inside of them.

A low pass filter is performed on collected images to reduce background noise and improve image contrast of available bitmap (BMP) images. Next, a morphological filter was applied to enlarge smaller particles ensuring they wouldn't be lost during further processing. Some particles may touch after their shape is altered, therefore, the image is passed through the "IMAQ Separation" VI, which separates touching particles by eroding any small isthmuses that may have developed between them. After passing the image through a user defined brightness, contrast and gamma (BCG) filter, thresholding is performed to create a binary black and white image and equalization is used to increase contrast and particle boundary visibility. This edited image is cropped to the desired output shape (Figure A.2) and divided into histogram bin subsections. The particles in each of these bins are counted using the "IMAQ Count Objects 2" VI (Figure A.3). Bin values are averaged across all images and output as a histogram for particle distribution visualization. Once all images have been analyzed, count data for each image and each bin is output to a text file for post-processing. If desired, a last step in image processing locates the center of each particle and replaces



Figure A.1: Console for PIV vision editing

all particles with equally sized white circles. This ideal output with identical circular particles provides a much clearer image for further analysis (Figure A.4). The complete LabVIEW GUI is shown in Figure A.1.



Figure A.2: Cropping (red) and counting (green) regions of interest



Figure A.3: Ultrasound image editing steps




Figure A.4: Comparison of original PIV image and PIV image with replaced particles

#### A.2 Program Operation

To operate this program the following steps should be taken:

- 1. Select "Ultrasound" or "PIV" depending on the type of input images available.
- 2. Select a location for "Folder of Pictures Path", as well as a "Write Path" for edited pictures and raw data.
- 3. Files must be in BMP format numbered incrementally starting at 1.
- 4. Under the "Options" tab, the cropping boundaries for the region of interest and full boundary should be input.
- 5. Saving options such as folder and file name can be input in the top left corner of this tab.
- 6. In the main program, ultrasound or PIV tab, select whether edited images should be saved and whether particles should be replaced.
- 7. Input the "Number of Slices" desired for image and histogram binning.

8. Run the program.

Any other settings available in this program can be adjusted to manipulate the output. However, these extra settings are not required to successfully operate this software.

# FEA code

### B.1 Main Body

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## B.3 Part1 - Mylar Sheet

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### Appendix C

### **Radial Extensometer Instructions**

The following instruction set discusses in detail the process of setting up, operating and visualizing data collected by the radial extensometer.

#### C.1 Zero Force Calibration

The Force gauge was calibrated at several increments as described in Chapter 2.6. The zero force increment must be re-calibrated often to ensure accurate data, and general calibration of the force gauge should be performed:

- If any part of the apparatus is disassembled.
- If there has been a change in lab conditions, especially temperature.
- Before each series of tests is performed.

To calibrate the force gauge:

- 1. Follow steps 1 through 8 to set up the force gauge but do not put a stent in the system.
- 2. Ensure the Mylar has some slack in it and is not pulling on the force gauge.
- 3. Open "Force Calibration.vi" and select a folder and file name for your calibration files (Figure C.1). This folder will be created in the same directory as the force calibration program and files will be labeled incrementally automatically. The software for this program was adapted from an example included with the LabVIEW distribution.
- The default run-time of 10s is appropriate and the sampling rate will automatically defaut to 1612 Hz, which is the minimum value possible on the NI9237 DAQ card.



Figure C.1: Radial extensioneter force gauge calibration software

- 5. Ensure nothing is in contact with the slide and run the "Force Calibration.vi" program.
- 6. Once the program has finished running for ten seconds. Move the slide away from the force gauge and then back to a position which minimizes any force that may be transferred from the Mylar to the Force gauge. This will reset the apparatus so we can take another sample of zero force data with a newly repositioned slide.
- 7. Repeat steps 5 through 6 four more times.
- 8. Now that all calibration data has been collected, open the "Calibration.py" program and change the file names in the code to match those created by "Force Calibration.vi".
- Run the Python calibration program and write down the printed calibration results. These values are entered in the DAQ program as explained in Section C.2.

The program "Calibration.py" performs a bandstop filter at 60 Hz on all data to avoid any EMR interference. A Butterworth filter is also used at 20 Hz to reduce noise. The program then calculates the average of all data sets and outputs the average voltage and standard deviation.

The linear slide is calibrated through homing, which is explained in its operating instructions. The webcam does not need to be calibrated as the values it records are dimensionless, however, ensure it is centered and pointing straight down the middle of the stent.

#### C.2 Operation

- 1. Ensure Mylar is not connected to the force gauge and that the slide is obstruction free.
- Turn on and home the slide. Use the manual adjustment knob located on the end of the slide to translate the platform all the way toward the motor. Following homing, move slide 2/3 of the way toward the force gauge.
- 3. Remove L-shaped bracket from the linear slide plate by removing the three 1/4 20x3/8 in hex cap screws from the base of the bracket (Figure C.2).



Figure C.2: Radial extensometer l-bracket removal

 Remove the moving Mylar anchor (Appendix D, page 197) from the moving base plate shown in Appendix D on page 196, by removing the 2, 1/4 − 20x3/8 in

socket cap screws (Figure C.3). There is a shim between these parts.

Figure C.3: Radial extensometer moving anchor removal

- 5. Turn the moving Mylar anchor upside down and put screws through both of the holes in this part in the direction shown in Figure C.4. Select a laser cut section of 0.0254 mm Mylar and thread the 1/4 in holes in the Mylar over the screws. The rest of the Mylar sheet should point toward the corner of the 'L'-shaped moving Mylar anchor. Next, thread the holes in the shim over the screw ends, sandwiching the Mylar between the moving Mylar anchor and the shim. Screw this assembly back onto the moving base plate as seen in Figure C.3. Pull very gently down on the Mylar to ensure it remains centered while tightening the moving Mylar anchor to the moving base plate. Reattach this assembly back onto the linear slide as was explained in 3.
- 6. Thread the Mylar up between the roller and moving Mylar anchor, then back through the same gap, creating a loop. Stents will be tested by placing them in this loop, ensure the Mylar doesn't fall back through the gap in the next few steps.
- Remove the top component of the stationary Mylar anchor (Appendix D, page 201). Leave the screws protruding through the top stationary Mylar anchor and thread the holes in the loose end of the Mylar over these screws.



Figure C.4: Radial extensometer moving anchor Mylar attachment

- 8. Align the screws protruding through the top stationary Mylar anchor with the holes in the bottom stationary Mylar anchor. After ensuring there is no tension on the Mylar and that it is inline with the base plate anchor, tighten the screws, sandwiching the Mylar between the top and bottom stationary anchors. See Figure 2.1 for reference.
  - Ensure that the Mylar is aligned on the edges of the roller and moving Mylar anchor edge, on the front and back of the gap between them where the Mylar is doubled over.
  - Ensure both the force gauge and its associated clamp are parallel to the experiment base plate.
  - Avoid overtightening the force gauge mounting screw. This may have an effect on results.
- 9. Insert the stent into the Mylar loop with its brazed joints facing downward and manually move the slide to tighten the Mylar around the stent. Observe and adjust Mylar alignment. Ends of the roller that protrude through the acrylic roller supports (Appendix D, pages 198 and 199) can be used to adjust Mylar alignment.
- 10. Attach the webcam to the testing apparatus using the cantilever beam setup

seen in Figure 2.1. The camera should be pointing down the center of the stent being tested.

11. Calculate the required slide displacement in microsteps using the program entitled "Calculator.xlsx" (Figure C.5). The diameter of fully deployed covered and uncovered stents, as well as desired AR of the covered stent must be known. This displacement represents the number of microsteps required, rounded to the nearest integer, to constrict the uncovered stent to an AR that matches the value input for a covered stent.

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Displacement Required	12.88211658	mm				
Microsteps Required	129860.0462	microsteps				
Final Diameter	9.899494937	mm				
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Second Stent for Solving Comparat Area Reduction Required Diameter of fully deployed uncovered stent	ive Reductions 83.67346939 24.5	% mm				
Second Stent for Solving Comparat Area Reduction Required Diameter of fully deployed uncovered stent Displacement Required	ive Reductions 83.67346939 24.5 45.86883945	% mm mm				
Second Stent for Solving Comparat Area Reduction Required Diameter of fully deployed uncovered stent Displacement Required Microsteps Required	ive Reductions 83.67346939 24.5 45.86883945 462387.4944	% mm mm microsteps				

Figure C.5: Radial extensioneter displacement calculator

12. Input the desired slide displacement into "Motion Control.csv" (Figure C.6) and save the file. Commands 21 and 23 seen in Figure C.6 call instructions "Move Relative" and "Stop" respectively [201]. Device number '0' refers to the communication (COM) port value connected to the linear slide.

Device Number	Command	Value
0	21	-462387
0	21	462387
0	23	0

Figure C.6: Radial extensometer motion control

 Commands issued in the motion control file will move the slide the same distance in both directions. The stent will first be constricted by moving the slide away from the force gauge by -462 387 microsteps (45.87 mm), then expanded by moving the slide toward the force gauge by the same interval. These motions will induce an area reduction of 50% as was calculated with the displacement calculator (Figure C.5).

- 13. Ensure the force gauge and webcam are connected properly to the computer.
- 14. The main DAQ software "Joel Scott Stent Analysis DAQ 5.0.vi" is used to control data collection and uses the motion control file that was just manipulated as an input. Open this file.



Figure C.7: Radial extensioneter DAQ graphical user interface (GUI)

- 15. In "Joel Scott Stent Analysis DAQ 5.0.vi", scroll down to reveal extra settings. This area is used to set more advanced settings than can be accessed from the main area.
- 16. File saving options can be found under the first tab. "Filename", will set the name for data, video and plot files created during each run of the DAQ software. If several tests are performed consecutively, incremental numbers will automatically be added to the end of this name. There is no need to change the file name after each test. Changing the file name will reset this concatenated value to zero. "Folder Name" will set the name of the folder that files will

be saved in. If the folder doesn't already exist, it will be created in the same directory as "Joel Scott - Stent Analysis DAQ 5.0.vi". By default, files are given a date and integer value as a name and saved in the folder labeled "Test Logs". Select a file and folder name.

FILE SAVING OPTIONS	EXTRA DISPLACEMENT VARIABLES	EXTRA FORCE VARIABLES	EXTRA VISION VARIABLES
path <sup>3</sup>		l	
folder path o	ut Filename	1	
Filename 4	Folder Name Test Logs	1	

Figure C.8: Radial extensometer DAQ file saving options

17. Force data collection variables and calibration results can be set under the "Extra Force Variables" tab (Figure C.9).

FILE SAVING OPTIONS	EXTRA DISPLACEMENT VAR	IABLES EXT	RA FORCE VARIABLES	EXTRA VISION VARIABLES
CURRENT TIGHTEI 0.0000000 CURRENT TIGHTEI 0 CURRENT FORCE V		VOLTAGE OU -0.000501 -0.000043 0.0004001 0.0021973	TPUT 576 231 6	CALIBRATED FORCE (gf) 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

Figure C.9: Radial extensometer DAQ force options

- 18. Advanced vision and displacement variables can also be adjusted under their respective tabs in this section. Default values are optimized.
- 19. Select the "Settings" tab. There are only three variables that should have to be adjusted: "Rebound Force", "Base Force" and "Filename" (Figure C.10). Aside from "Filename", which tells the program where the motion control file can be found, these values set up the "tighten" feature seen in the top left of the main screen in the LabVIEW DAQ program (Figure C.7). When the tighten button is selected, the linear slide will begin moving away from the force gauge, tightening the Mylar around the stent. The value selected for "Rebound Force"

will cause the slide to stop moving and change directions when the force gauge reads this value. This step pre-tensions the Mylar, removing any slack from the system to avoid any differences in experimental setup between test runs or stents of different shapes and sizes. The value of rebound force should be set such that a guaranteed contact has happened between the stent and Mylar. This value is better off too high than too low. Once the linear slide has changed directions, it continues moving toward the force gauge, loosening the Mylar around the stent until the force gauge reads the value set for "Base Force". The "Base Force" value should be set at a point where there will be no force offset applied to the system but where the stent is still fully in contact with the Mylar. Rebound and base forces should be tuned to the point that there is no delay before OA data decreases at the beginning of each test.



Figure C.10: Radial extensometer DAQ base and rebound force settings

- 20. Return to the main tab labeled "Overview" and select "Tighten" to begin the test. The Mylar will tighten around the stent as expected, then loosen to the set base force.
  - Once this tightening step is completed, double check that the starting point is appropriate, if not, stop the test and return to step 19.
  - The base and rebound forces should remain unchanged throughout all repetitive tests of the same stent.

- 21. After tightening is complete, center the webcam so it is looking down the barrel of the stent and ensure the Mylar is still straight.
- 22. Select "Run" to perform test.
  - It is important to note that the "Interrupt" button will not stop the test dead in its tracks. The slide must complete it's full command before stopping. Ensure the slide path is clear before starting the test. As a last resort, pull out the power cable to immediately stop the test.
- 23. Allow the test and Python script to run to completion and for plotted data to appear on the screen. Subsequent tests can only be started once the Python plot window, which appears following data analysis, is closed.
- 24. Once all tests have been performed, ensure that the Mylar is disconnected from the force gauge to protect the apparatus from damage. Disconnect the slide and NI cDAQ-9178 power and store all stents in their appropriately labeled drawers to avoid loss or mislabeling.
- 25. It is possible to re-plot any files that were created by LabVIEW and Python. The "Plot multiple files.py" program can be used to analyze, display and compare multiple runs of data at the same time. Plots are fully customizable.

# Appendix D

## **Radial Extensometer Drawings**



# STATIONARY ANCHOR - BOTTOM



ITEM NO.	PART NAME	QTY
1	T-LSR150A Linear Slide	1
3	AB90E - 90 Degree Mount	1
4	System Base	1
5	Moving Base Plate	1
6	Moving Mylar Anchor	1
7	Roller	1
8	Stationary Mylar Anchor - Top	1
9	Stationary Mylar Anchor - Bottom	1
10	acrylic support right	1
11	acrylic support left	1
12	50N - Force Transducer	1
13	.125" ID x .25" OD Extended Inner Ring Bearing	2
14	Stationary Mount - Bottom	1
15	Stationary Mount - Front	1
16	Stationary Mount - Sides	2
17	1/4"-10 x 7/16" Socket Head Cap Screw	4
18	M5-0.8 x 10mm Set Screw	1
19	M5-0.8 x 12mm Socket Head Cap Screw	1
20	M6-1.0 x 8mm Socket Head Cap Screw	3
21	1/4"-20 x 7/16" Socket Head Cap Screw	8
22	6-32 x 1/2" Socket Head Cap Screw	10
23	6-32 x 1/4" Socket Head Cap Screw	2
24	1/4"-20 x 3/8" Short Head Socket Head Cap Screw	4
25	1/4" x 3" threaded rod	4
26	1/4" lock nut	8

JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE **1:4** QUANTITY: 1



SYSTEM BASE



Dimensions are in inches. Toperances: Fractions = +/- 1/64x.xx = +/- .01x.xxx = +/- .005Angle = +/- 1/2 degree



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Aluminum 6061-T6 Angle (1/4" x 1-1/2" x 1-1/2") DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: 1 MOVING MYLAR ANCHOR





Dimensions are in inches. Toperances: Fractions = +/- 1/64 x.xx = +/- .01 x.xxx = +/- .005 Angle = +/- 1/2 degree



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stainless Steel 316 DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: 1


Dimensions are in inches. Toperances: Fractions = +/- 1/64 x.xx = +/- .01 x.xxx = +/- .005 Angle = +/- 1/2 degree





JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Aluminum angle 6061 - T6 (1/8" x 1-1/2" x 1-1/2") DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: 1 STATIONARY MYLAR ANCHOR - TOP



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Aluminum 5052 - H32 Sheet DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: 1 STATIONARY MYLAR ANCHOR - BOTTOM



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Aluminum 5052 - H32 (1/4" Sheet) DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: 1 STATIONARY MOUNT - FRONT

203





JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Aluminum 5052 - H32 (1/4" Sheet) DATE: Thursday, Nov 15, 2012 SCALE 1:1, QUANTITY: **2** 

STATIONARY MOUNT - SIDES



206

CLEAR MYLAR - LASER CUT

# Appendix E

## Force Gauge Specification Sheet

OMEGADYNE INC.	
LOAD CELL FINAL CALIBRATION	
0.00 - 5.00 KgF Excitation 10.000 Vdc	
Job: RMLS8734 Model: LCM703-5 Date: 9/1/2010 Calibrated: 0.00 - 5.00 KgF Specfile: LCM703 Serial: 282256 Tested By: CAG Temperature Range: 16 TO 72 C. Specfile: LCM703	
KgF mVdc	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
Balance         0.0993         mVdc           Sensitivity         22.9277         mVdc           In Resist         400.90         Ohms           Out Resist         350.90         Ohms           59K Shunt         14.7978         mVdc	
ELECTRICAL LEAKAGE: PASS	
ELECTRICAL WIRING/CONNECTOR: RED = +INPUT (EXC) BLACK = -INPUT (EXC) GREEN = +OUTPUT WHITE = -OUTPUT	
This Calibration was performed using Instruments and Standards that are traceable to the United States National Institute of Standards Technology. S/N Description Range Reference Cal Cert Station 3 1001b Dead-Weights 0 - 45.35924 KgF C-2691 C-2691 US3612530 AT34401A DMM UUT Unit Under Test C-2462 100038	
Q.A. Representative : Ed Suchman Jr Date: 9/1/2010 This transducer is tested to & meets published specifications. After final calibration our products are stored in a controlled stock room & considered in bonded storage. Depending on environment & severity of use factory calibration is recommended every one to three years after initial service installation date. COMMENTS: FINAL TEST IN TENSION.	
Omegadyne, Inc., 149 Stelzer Court, Sunbury, OH 43074 (740) 965-9340 http://www.omegadyne.com email: info@omegadyne.com (800) USA-DYNE	

## Appendix F

### Wire Bending Jig Drawings





JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stratasys - Vero Blue RGD840 DATE: Thursday, March 24, 2014 SCALE **1.5:1**, QUANTITY: **1** 

top disk



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stratasys - Vero Blue RGD840 DATE: Thursday, March 24, 2014 SCALE **1.5:1**, QUANTITY: **1** 

BOTTOM DISK



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stratasys - Vero Blue RGD840 DATE: Thursday, March 24, 2014 SCALE **1.5:1**, QUANTITY: **1** 



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stratasys - Vero Blue RGD840 DATE: Thursday, March 24, 2014 SCALE **3:1**, QUANTITY: **1** 

# STOPPER PLUG



JOEL SCOTT - (902)-579-5922 MATERIAL: Stratasys - Vero Blue RGD840 DATE: Thursday, March 24, 2014 SCALE **1.5:1**, QUANTITY: **1** 

ANGULAR PLACEMENT TOOL

### Appendix G

### **Radial Force Prediction Software Code**

```
# -*- coding: utf-8 -*-
1
   .....
2
   DALHOUSIE CONFIDENTIAL & PROPREITARY
3
4
   Created on Sunday, July 19, 2015 at 11:44pm by Joel C.R. Scott.
\mathbf{5}
6
   Use in any form is restricted to JOEL SCOTT or his delegates.
7
   ......
8
9
  #load required libraries
10
  from numpy import *
11
12 from matplotlib.pyplot import *
  import matplotlib.patches as mpatches
13
14 from scipy import *
15 from scipy.signal import butter, filtfilt
  import sympy as sym
16
  import os, pylab, glob
17
  import wx
18
19 from operator import sub
  from matplotlib.backends.backend_wxagg import FigureCanvasWxAgg
20
  from matplotlib.figure import Figure
21
  from wx.lib.masked import NumCtrl
22
   from scipy.interpolate import interp1d, griddata
23
   from scipy.optimize import curve_fit
24
25
   import math
26
  bendrad_dict = {}
27
  wirediam_dict = {}
28
  bendangle_dict = {}
29
  leglength_dict = {}
30
  labcomp_dict= {}
31
32
   33
                                   INPUT
   #
34
  35
   # DATA ORIENTATION INPUTS
36
   xax = 5 #x-axis column number from data file
37
   yax = 3 #y-axis column number from data file
38
   poscolumn = 1 #position column to find fully constricted point
39
  OAcolumn = 5 #Original Area Column
40
  timecol = 0 #Time column
41
  forcecol = 3 #Force column
42
43
44
   #
```

```
# FILE SIZE ADJUSTMENT INPUTS
45
   match_filesize_from_front = 'no'
46
   match_filesize_from_end = 'yes' #add zeros to the beginning,
47
                                     #after lining up all end values.
48
49
50
   #
   # TYPE OF PLOT INPUTS
51
52
53
   xintegration = 1 #time per step for plotting area under
54
   plotareaunder = 'no' #plot single points showing the area under the force curve
55
56
   expansion_only = 'yes' #plot only data during expansion
57
   offset_to_covered = 'no' # Offset plot for uncovered stents so they line up with
58
                             # the %OA values for a covered stent
59
                             # Offset can only be done with the expansion only case.
60
   points_plot = 'no' #show a reduced points plot
61
   points_to_show = [20,50,75] #%Area points of interes
62
   pt_average_size = 500 #number of readings to be averaged around areas of interest
63
   original_and_points = 'no'
64
   consistent_colours = 'yes'
65
66
67
   curve_fitting = 'no' #THIS NEEDS TO BE YES FOR CURVE FITTING AND OFF OTHERWISE
68
  fittype = "polynomial" #exponential or polynomial
69
70 fitting_degree = 3
71 fitting_degree_2D = 2
72 fit_curve_resolution = 225
   plot_fit_with_original = 'no' #THIS NEEDS TO BE YES FOR CURVE FITTING ONLY
73
   keep_scatter_plot_with_fit = 'yes'
74
75 put_fit_on_plot = 'no'
_{76} xstart = 1
   ystart = 2
77
   y_spacing_multiple = 0.25
78
   text_size = 8
79
80
   #
81
   # FILTERING INPUTS
82
   filterbefore = 'no' #filter data before or after interpolating and averaging data.
83
                         #no = after
84
   butterworthvert = 'yes' #lowpass filter data
85
   filterHZvert = 20 #lowpass filter frequency
86
87
   #
88
   # STENT INPUTS
89
   covered_orig_diam = 14.59
90
   uncovered_orig_diam = 24.02
91
   SA_Stent = 348.49 #Taken from SolidWorks
92
93
   #
94
   #Simulation inputs
95
   simulate_curve = 'no'
96
   use_saved_input = 'yes'
97
```

```
98
    upper_oversize = 1.2
99
    lower_oversize = 1.1
100
101
    #no longer used
102
    high_line = 30.6
103
104
    low_line = 17.3
    #min_safe_pressure =
105
    min_safe_force = 0.6
106
    #max_safe_pressure =
107
    max_safe_force = 0.8
108
109
110
    Points_Per_Percent_initial = 992. #for full
111
    Points_Per_Percent_second = 992. #full line plotted on full curve
112
    #
113
    # PLOT INPUTS
114
    tight_plot_border = 'no'
115
    show_legend_title = 'no'
116
    title_plot = 'yes'
117
118
    x_axis_limits = 'no'
119
    xlow = 10
120
    xhigh = 30
121
    y_axis_limits = 'no'
122
    ylow = 0
123
    yhigh = 0
124
125
    save_file = 'no'
126
    127
    #
                                      PRESETS
128
    129
130
    #FILES MUST BE ORDERED FROM SMALLEST TO LARGEST OF THE INDEPENDANT VARIABLE
131
    #Create a matrix containing all the file names in a directory
132
    wirediam_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt'),#3
133
                     'loadfiles_trial1': glob.glob('+diam*.txt'),
134
                     'loadfiles_trial2': glob.glob('++diam*.txt')}
135
136
    leglength_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('-leg length*.txt'),#3
137
                      'loadfiles_trial1': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt'),
138
                      'loadfiles_trial2': glob.glob('+leg length*.txt')}
139
140
    bendangle_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('-bend angle*.txt'),#3
141
                      'loadfiles_trial1': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt'),
142
                      'loadfiles_trial2': glob.glob('+bend angle*.txt')}
143
144
    bendrad_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt'),#3
145
                    'loadfiles_trial1': glob.glob('+bendrad*.txt'),
146
                    'loadfiles_trial2': glob.glob('++bendrad*.txt')}
147
148
    labcomp_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt'),#3
149
                    'loadfiles_trial1': glob.glob('*Industry*.txt'),#3
150
```

```
'loadfiles_trial2': glob.glob('*covered*.txt')}
151
152
    labonly_dict = {'loadfiles_trial0': glob.glob('*labmade*.txt')}#3
153
154
    def plottype(Graph_type):
155
         #Plot characteristics
156
         if Graph_type == bendrad_dict:
157
             legendtitle = "Bend Radius"
158
             legendnames = ['14mm', '+bend rad', '++bend rad']
159
160
             xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
161
             yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
162
             plottitle = "Effect of Altered Bend Radius on Radial Force Profile"
163
             plotnumber = 3 #number of files to be plotted
164
165
         if Graph_type == wirediam_dict:
166
             legendtitle = "Wire Diameter"
167
             legendnames = ['14mm', '+diam', '++diam']
168
169
             xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
170
             yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
171
             plottitle = "Effect of Altered Wire Diameter on Radial Force Profile"
172
             plotnumber = 3 #number of files to be plotted
173
174
         if Graph_type == bendangle_dict:
175
             legendtitle = "Bend Angle"
176
             legendnames = ['-bend angle', '14mm', '+bend angle']
177
178
             xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
179
             yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
180
             plottitle = "Effect of Altered Bend Angle on Radial Force Profile"
181
             plotnumber = 3 #number of files to be plotted
182
183
         if Graph_type == leglength_dict:
184
             legendtitle = "Leg Length"
185
             legendnames = ['-leg length', '14mm', '+leg length']
186
187
             xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
188
             yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
189
             plottitle = "Effect of Altered Leg Length on Radial Force Profile"
190
             plotnumber = 3 #number of files to be plotted
191
192
         if Graph_type == labcomp_dict:
193
             legendtitle = "Cubic fit covered"
194
             legendnames = ['Lab made', 'industry made', 'covered']
195
196
             xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
197
             yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
198
             plottitle = "Curve Fit (^3): Lab, Industry and covered 14mm Stents"
199
             plotnumber = 3 #number of files to be plotted
200
201
         if Graph_type == labonly_dict:
202
             legendtitle = "Lab Only"
203
```

```
legendnames = ['Lab made']
204
205
            xaxislabel = "Percent Reduction in Cross Sectional Area (%)"
206
            yaxislabel = "Force (N)"
207
            plottitle = "14mm Stent: Lab Data"
208
            plotnumber = 1 #number of files to be plotted
209
210
        return (legendtitle,legendnames,xaxislabel,yaxislabel,plottitle,plotnumber)
211
212
    def orig_type(Graph_type):
213
        if Graph_type == bendrad_dict:
214
215
            orig_diams = [24.02, 24.53,24.38]
216
        if Graph_type == wirediam_dict:
            orig_diams = [24.02, 24.2772,24.47]
217
        if Graph_type == bendangle_dict:
218
            orig_diams = [17.96,24.02, 26.76]
219
        if Graph_type == leglength_dict:
220
            orig_diams = [19.7,24.02, 25.47]
221
        if Graph_type == labonly_dict:
222
            orig_diams = [24.02]
223
        return orig_diams
224
    225
    #
                                      BODY
226
    227
228
    #load the data file and all of its components
229
    plothoriz = []
230
    plothoriztemp = []
231
    plotvert = []
232
    plotverttemp = []
233
    temphoriz = []
234
    tempvert = []
235
    area = []
236
    fitline = []
237
238
    figure(num=None, figsize=(6, 5.8), dpi=100, facecolor='w', edgecolor='k')
239
240
    dict2 = \{\}
241
    shapes = ['o','^','s','D','v','p','d','h','+','x','*','2','o','^','s','D','v',
242
              'p','d','h','+','x','*','2']
243
    colors = ['b','g','r','c','m','y','k']
244
245
    vertical = []
246
    horizontal = []
247
    temp_pos_change = []
248
    temp_horiz = []
249
250
    iteration_size = []
    current_temp = []
251
252
    def movingaverage(interval, window_size):
253
        window= ones(int(window_size))/float(window_size)
254
        return convolve(interval, window, 'same')
255
256
```

```
257
    def fit_the_curve(horiz,vert,fitdeg):
         tempfit = polyfit(horiz,vert,fitdeg) #calculate polynomial
258
         return poly1d(tempfit)
259
260
    def fit_the_curve2D(stent_char_input,stent_char,vert,fitting_degree_2D):
261
         vert_for_z = [list(x) for x in zip(*vert)]
262
         poly_coeffs = [polyfit(stent_char,vert_for_z[i],fitting_degree_2D) for i in
263
         range(len(vert_for_z))]
264
         poly_functions = [poly1d(poly_coeffs[i])(stent_char_input) for i in
265
         range(len(poly_coeffs))]
266
         return poly_functions
267
268
    def data_manipulation(temp, j, orig_diams):
269
         summed_vert_second = []
270
         timecollongest = []
271
         xolongestsecond = []
272
273
         xomaxsecond = 0.
         indexval1 = 0.
274
275
         for i in range(len(temp)):
276
             #load all files with similar filenames temp in an array and average them
277
             print "Filename #{}: {}".format((i+1),temp[i])
278
             current_temp = loadtxt(temp[i], skiprows=1)
279
280
             current_vert = current_temp[(len(current_temp)/2)::,forcecol]
281
             current_horiz = current_temp[(len(current_temp)/2)::,OAcolumn]
282
283
             Sampling_Rate = len(current_temp[::,forcecol])/amax(current_temp[::,
284
    timecol])
285
             Sampling_Rate2 = len(current_temp[::,OAcolumn])/amax(current_temp[::,
286
    timecol])
287
288
             if len(current_temp[::,timecol]) > len(timecollongest):
289
                 timecollongest = current_temp[::,timecol]
290
291
             current_horiz = 100 - current_horiz
292
             if filterbefore == 'yes':
293
                 if butterworthvert == 'yes':
294
                     nyq=Sampling_Rate/2.0
295
                     b,a=butter(3,filterHZvert/nyq,'low')
296
                     filtered_data=filtfilt(b,a,current_vert)
297
                     current_vert = filtered_data
298
299
                 if butterworthhoriz == 'yes':
300
                     nyq=Sampling_Rate2
301
                     b,a=butter(3,filterHZhoriz/nyq,'low')
302
                     filtered_data_horiz=filtfilt(b,a,current_horiz)
303
                      current_horiz = filtered_data_horiz
304
305
                 if movingfiltervert == 'yes':
306
                     current_vert = movingaverage(current_vert, movingavgvert)
307
308
                 if movingfilterhoriz == 'yes':
309
```

```
current_horiz = movingaverage(current_horiz, movingavghoriz)
310
311
             current_horiz = current_horiz[::-1]
312
             current_vert = current_vert[::-1]
313
314
             #to get full line plotted on full curve
315
             xo_second = linspace(0.0,floor(max(current_horiz)),
316
                                    floor(floor(max(current_horiz))
317
                                    *Points_Per_Percent_second))
318
319
             if len(xo_second) > len(xolongestsecond):
320
                 xolongestsecond = xo_second
321
             if max(xo_second) > xomaxsecond:
322
                 xomaxsecond = max(xo_second)
323
324
             yo = griddata(current_horiz,current_vert, xo_second, method='linear',
325
                            fill_value= 0.0)
326
             indexval = min(range(len(xo_second)),
327
                             key=lambda k: abs(xo_second[k]-70.0))
328
             if indexval > indexval1:
329
                  indexval1 = indexval
330
331
             if len(summed_vert_second) == 0:
332
                      summed_vert_second.append(yo)
333
334
                      summed_vert_second = array(summed_vert_second)
335
             else:
336
                  if len(yo) >= len(summed_vert_second[i-1]):
337
                      shapetemp = shape(summed_vert_second)
338
                      shapetempx = shapetemp[0]+1
339
                      shapetempy = len(yo)
340
                      summed_vert_temp = zeros((shapetempx, shapetempy))
341
                      summed_vert_temp[:(shapetemp[0]),
342
                                        :shapetemp[1]] = summed_vert_second
343
                      summed_vert_temp[shapetemp[0]] = yo
344
                      summed_vert_second = summed_vert_temp
345
                 else:
346
                      shapetemp = shape(summed_vert_second)
347
                      yo = array(yo)
348
                      yo.resize(len(summed_vert_second[i-1]))
349
                      shapetempx = shapetemp[0]+1
350
                      shapetempy = shapetemp[1]
351
                      summed_vert_temp = zeros((shapetempx, shapetempy))
352
                      summed_vert_temp[:shapetemp[0],
353
                                        :shapetemp[1]] = summed_vert_second
354
                      summed_vert_temp[shapetemp[0]] = yo
355
                      summed_vert_second = summed_vert_temp
356
357
         averaged_vert_second = []
358
         yerror = []
359
360
         sumtempsecond = zip(*summed_vert_second)
361
362
```

```
for i in range(len(sumtempsecond)):
363
             if sum(sumtempsecond[i]) == 0:
364
                  yerror.append(std(sumtemp[i], axis = 0))
365
                  averaged_vert_second.append(mean(sumtempsecond[i], axis=0))
366
             else:
367
                  current_average = average(sumtempsecond[i], axis=0,
368
                                              weights=array(sumtempsecond[i])
369
                                               .astype(bool))
370
                  averaged_vert_second.append(current_average)
371
                  var = (sumtempsecond[i]-current_average)**2
372
                  yerror.append(sqrt(average(var, axis=0,
373
374
                                               weights=array(sumtempsecond[i])
                                               .astype(bool))))
375
376
         #Include a fitline based on the _inal dataset
377
         fulldatax = xolongestsecond
378
379
         fulldatay = averaged_vert_second
380
381
         Sampling_Rate = len(fulldatax)/amax(timecollongest)
382
383
384
         if filterbefore != 'yes':
             if butterworthvert == 'yes':
385
                  nyq=Sampling_Rate/2.0
386
                  b,a=butter(3,filterHZvert/nyq,'low')
387
                  filtered_data=filtfilt(b,a,fulldatay)
388
                  fulldatay = filtered_data
389
390
         if curve_fitting == 'yes':
391
             if fittype == "polynomial":
392
                  tempfit = polyfit(fulldatax,fulldatay,fitting_degree)
393
                  #calculate polynomial
394
                  f = poly1d(tempfit)
395
396
             if fittype == "exponential":
397
                  testx = [x for x in fulldatax]
398
                  testx = array(testx)
399
                  testy = [x*10**6 for x in fulldatay]
400
                  popt, pcov = curve_fit(func, fulldatax, testy, maxfev = 10000)
401
                  popt = [x for x in popt]
402
403
             if fittype == "exponential":
404
                  print(popt)
405
406
             if fittype == "polynomial":
                  print(f)
407
             if fittype == "polynomial":
408
                  fitline = f(fulldatax) #calculate new x's and y's
409
             if fittype == "exponential":
410
                  fitline = func(testx, *popt)
411
                  fitline = [x/10**6 \text{ for } x \text{ in fitline}]
412
             fulldatay = fitline
413
414
         return (fulldatax, fulldatay)
415
```

```
416
    def supershape(lo_horiz, lo_vert, wd_vert, ll_vert, ba_vert,
417
                    br_vert,m, n1, n2, n3):
418
         number_of_characteristics = 5
419
         characteristic_dict = {'factor0': wd_vert,
420
                          'factor1': ll_vert,
421
                          'factor2': ba_vert,
422
                          'factor3': br_vert,
423
                          'factor4': lo_vert}
424
425
         xo_second = linspace(0.,50.0,fit_curve_resolution+1)
426
427
         for i in range(number_of_characteristics):
428
             Graph_Type = factors_dict['factor'+str(i)]
429
430
             temparray = []
431
             for j in range(len(orig_type(Graph_Type))):
432
433
                 orig_diams = orig_type(Graph_Type)
434
                 print(orig_diams)
435
                 temp = characteristic_dict['factor'+str(i)]
436
437
                 lo_horiz = array(lo_horiz)
438
                 temp_horiz = 100*(1-((((pi*covered_orig_diam)-(pi*covered_orig_diam-2*
439
                 sqrt(abs((100-100-(100-lo_horiz))/100.)*(pi*orig_diams[j]/2)
440
                 **2)))/(pi*covered_orig_diam))**2))
441
442
                 if i == 4:
443
                      temparray = griddata(temp_horiz,temp[::-1],xo_second,
444
                                            method='linear',
445
                                            fill_value= 0.0)
446
                     print(min(temparray), max(temparray), max(temp), '5')
447
448
                 else:
449
                     print(all(np.diff(temp_horiz)>0), all(np.diff(temp[j])>0),
450
                            all(np.diff(xo_second)>0), all(np.diff(lo_horiz)>0))
451
                      f = interp1d(temp_horiz,temp[j])
452
                      temparray.append(f(xo_second))
453
                      print(min(temparray[j]), max(temparray[j]), max(temp[j]), '5')
454
455
             characteristic_dict['factor'+str(i)] = temparray
456
457
         print(m, n1, n2, n3, wd_factor_values, ll_factor_values,
458
               ba_factor_values, br_factor_values)
459
         wd_force = fit_the_curve2D(m,wd_factor_values,
460
                                      characteristic_dict['factor'+str(0)],
461
                                                           fitting_degree_2D)
462
         print(min(wd_force), max(wd_force), 'q')
463
         ll_force = fit_the_curve2D(n1,ll_factor_values,
464
                                      characteristic_dict['factor'+str(1)],
465
                                                           fitting_degree_2D)
466
         ba_force = fit_the_curve2D(n2,ba_factor_values,
467
                                      characteristic_dict['factor'+str(2)],
468
```

```
223
```

```
469
                                                           fitting_degree_2D)
         br_force = fit_the_curve2D(n3,br_factor_values,
470
                                     characteristic_dict['factor'+str(3)],
471
                                                           fitting_degree_2D)
472
         lo_vert = characteristic_dict['factor'+str(4)]
473
474
         wd_effect = transpose([a - b for a, b in zip(wd_force, lo_vert)])
475
         ll_effect = transpose([a - b for a, b in zip(ll_force, lo_vert)])
476
         ba_effect = transpose([a - b for a, b in zip(ba_force, lo_vert)])
477
         br_effect = transpose([a - b for a, b in zip(br_force, lo_vert)])
478
         print(max(wd_effect),max(ll_effect),max(ba_effect),max(br_effect),'2')
479
480
         simulated_vert = transpose([a + b + c + d + e for
481
         a, b, c, d, e in zip(lo_vert, wd_effect, ll_effect, ba_effect, br_effect)])
482
         print(min(simulated_vert), max(simulated_vert), 'sim')
483
484
         return simulated_vert
485
486
    def maxmin_plot_lines():
487
         Final_D_Covered_H = sqrt(((pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2)*
488
         ((100-high_line)/100))/pi)*2
489
         High = 100-100*((pi*(Final_D_Covered_H/2)**2)/
490
         (pi*(uncovered_orig_diam/2)**2))
491
492
         Final_D_Covered_L = sqrt(((pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2)*
493
         ((100-low_line)/100))/pi)*2
494
         Low = 100-100*((pi*(Final_D_Covered_L/2)**2)/(pi*
495
         (uncovered_orig_diam/2)**2))
496
497
         Final_D_Covered_Zero = sqrt(((pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2)*
498
         ((100-0.0)/100))/pi)*2
499
         Zero = 100-100*((pi*(Final_D_Covered_Zero/2)**2)/(pi*
500
         (uncovered_orig_diam/2)**2))
501
502
         return Low, High, Zero
503
504
    def mark_for_artery(n4):
505
         Mark = 100-100*((pi*(n4/2)**2)/(pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2))
506
507
         return Mark
508
509
    def compliance_for_artery(Mark, yvalue, n5):
510
         Pressure = yvalue/(SA_Stent/2)*7500.61561303 #to mmHg
511
         Compliance_Area_Change = n5*Pressure #to cross sectional area change
512
513
         Original_Area = pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2
514
         area_change = Compliance_Area_Change/Original_Area*100
515
516
         return Mark-area_change
517
518
    def rebuild_axes_for_covered(lo_horiz):
519
         newx = lo_horiz
520
521
```

```
522
         return newx
523
    class SuperShapeFrame(wx.Frame):
524
         def __init__(self, parent, id, title):
525
             wx.Frame.__init__(self, parent, id, title,
526
                                style = wx.DEFAULT_FRAME_STYLE ^ wx.RESIZE_BORDER,
527
                                size = (650, 775))
528
529
             self.m = 0.4
530
             self.n1 = 15.32
531
             self.n2 = 28.70
532
             self.n3 = 0.3975
533
             self.n4 = covered_orig_diam
534
             self.n5 = 0.0
535
536
             self.fig = Figure((6, 6), dpi = 100, facecolor='white',
537
                                edgecolor='white')
538
539
             panel = wx.Panel(self, -1)
540
541
             self.blank = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "")
542
             self.blank2 = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "")
543
             self.blank3 = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "")
544
545
             self.m_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Stent Wire Diameter (mm): ")
546
             self.m_text = wx.lib.masked.NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.m, size = (150, -1),
547
                                                    fractionWidth = 3)
548
549
             self.n1_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Stent Leg Length (mm): ")
550
             self.n1_text = NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.n1, size = (150, -1),
551
                                      fractionWidth = 4)
552
553
             self.n2_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Stent Bend Angle (deg): ")
554
             self.n2_text = NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.n2, size = (150, -1),
555
                                      fractionWidth = 3)
556
557
             self.n3_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Stent Bend Radius (mm): ")
558
             self.n3_text = NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.n3, size = (150, -1),
559
                                      fractionWidth = 4)
560
561
             self.n4_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Artery Outer Diam (<{}mm): "</pre>
562
             .format(covered_orig_diam))
563
             self.n4_text = NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.n4, size = (150, -1),
564
                                      fractionWidth = 3)
565
566
             self.n5_label = wx.StaticText(panel, label = "Compliance (mm<sup>2</sup>/mmHg): ")
567
             self.n5_text = NumCtrl(panel, -1, self.n5, size = (150, -1),
568
                                      fractionWidth = 4)
569
570
             self.button = wx.Button(panel, label="PLOT")
571
572
             self.button.Bind(wx.EVT_BUTTON, self.OnButton)
573
574
```

```
575
             sizerv = wx.BoxSizer(wx.VERTICAL)
             sizerv.Add(FigureCanvasWxAgg(panel, -1, self.fig), 0, wx.TOP | wx.EXPAND)
576
577
             hbox = wx.BoxSizer(wx.HORIZONTAL)
578
             fgs = wx.FlexGridSizer(3, 5, 9, 15)
579
             fgs.AddMany([(self.m_label), (self.m_text, 1, wx.EXPAND), (self.blank),
580
                           (self.n1_label), (self.n1_text, 1, wx.EXPAND),
581
                           (self.n2_label), (self.n2_text, 1, wx.EXPAND), (self.blank2),
582
                           (self.n3_label), (self.n3_text, 1, wx.EXPAND),
583
                           (self.n4_label), (self.n4_text, 1, wx.EXPAND), (self.blank3),
584
                           (self.n5_label), (self.n5_text, 1, wx.EXPAND),])
585
             hbox.Add(fgs, proportion=
586
             1, flag=wx.EXPAND|wx.ALIGN_CENTER|wx.RIGHT|wx.LEFT|wx.TOP, border=10)
587
             sizerv.Add(hbox)
588
589
             sizerh3 = wx.BoxSizer(wx.HORIZONTAL)
590
             fgs2 = wx.FlexGridSizer(1,2,9,175)
591
             fgs2.Add(self.button,0, flag= wx.EXPAND)
592
593
             sizerh3.Add(fgs2, wx.EXPAND)
594
             sizerv.Add(sizerh3, flag=
595
             wx.ALIGN_CENTER|wx.CENTER|wx.TOP|wx.LEFT|wx.RIGHT, border=10)
596
597
             panel.SetSizer(sizerv)
598
             panel.SetBackgroundColour('darkslategray')
599
             self.draw_figure()
600
601
         def OnButton(self, e):
602
             self.m = self.m_text.GetValue()
603
             self.n1 = self.n1_text.GetValue()
604
             self.n2 = self.n2_text.GetValue()
605
             self.n3 = self.n3_text.GetValue()
606
             self.n4 = self.n4_text.GetValue()
607
             if self.n4 > covered_orig_diam:
608
                 self.n4 = covered_orig_diam
609
                 self.n4_text.SetValue(self.n4)
610
             self.n5 = self.n5_text.GetValue()
611
             self.refresh_figure()
612
613
         def refresh_figure(self):
614
             self.draw_figure()
615
616
         def draw_figure(self):
617
             simulated_vert = supershape(lo_horiz, lo_vert, wd_vert, ll_vert, ba_vert,
618
                                           br_vert, self.m, self.n1, self.n2, self.n3)
619
             ax = self.fig.add_subplot(111)
620
             ax.clear()
621
622
             ax.set_ylabel("Force (N)")
623
624
             Low, High, Zero = maxmin_plot_lines()
625
626
             ax.grid(True)
627
```

```
628
             xdata = linspace(0., 50.0, len(simulated_vert))
629
630
             ax.axvline(x=mark_for_artery(covered_orig_diam/lower_oversize),
631
                        linewidth=3., color='k')
632
             ax.axvline(x=mark_for_artery(covered_orig_diam/upper_oversize),
633
                        linewidth=3., color='k')
634
    #
635
    #
              ax.axvline(x=low_line, linewidth=3., color='k')
636
              ax.axvline(x=high_line, linewidth=3., color='k')
    #
637
             ax.axhspan(0.00, min_safe_force, facecolor='orange', alpha=0.7)
638
             ax.axhspan(max_safe_force, max(simulated_vert)+.05, facecolor='orange',
639
                        alpha=0.7)
640
             ax.axvspan(0.0, low_line, facecolor='r', alpha=0.7,
641
                        label = 'Danger Region')
642
             ax.axvspan(high_line,100.0, facecolor='r', alpha=0.7)
643
             ax.set_xlabel("Percent Area Reduction of Covered Stent (%)")
644
             plottitle = "Simulated Force Profile of a Covered {}mm Stent".format(
645
             covered_orig_diam)
646
             if title_plot == 'yes':
647
                 ax.set_title(plottitle).set_y(1.02)
648
649
                 ax.legend()
650
             print(max(simulated_vert), len(xdata), len(simulated_vert))
651
             self.l, = ax.plot(xdata, simulated_vert, lw = 2.,
652
                                label = 'Stent Force Profile')
653
654
             Mark = mark_for_artery(self.n4)
655
656
             yvalue = argmin(abs(array(xdata)-Mark))
657
             yvalue = simulated_vert[yvalue]
658
659
             Mark = compliance_for_artery(Mark, yvalue, self.n5)
660
             finaldiam = sqrt(((pi*(covered_orig_diam/2)**2)*((100-Mark)/100))/pi)*2
661
662
663
             oversize = ((covered_orig_diam/finaldiam)-1)*100
664
             yvalue = argmin(abs(xdata-Mark))
665
             yvalue = simulated_vert[yvalue]
666
667
             self.1, = ax.plot(Mark,yvalue, marker = 'o', markersize = 9,
668
                                markeredgewidth = 1.5, markerfacecolor = (1.0,1.0,0.0),
669
                                markeredgecolor = 'k',
670
                                label = 'Calculated Radial Force')
671
672
             self.l.axes.set_xbound(lower=0.0, upper=50.001)
673
             self.l.axes.set_ybound(lower=0.0, upper=max(simulated_vert)+.05)
674
675
             print(yvalue, Mark)
676
             ax.annotate('F = {0:.2f}N, AR = {1:.2f}% \n Oversize = {2:.2f}%'.format(
677
             yvalue,Mark,oversize),
678
                         ha = 'center', va = 'center',
679
                          xytext = (max(xdata)*.806,max(simulated_vert)*.308),
680
```

```
681
                          xy = (Mark, yvalue), size = 10,
                          arrowprops = {'facecolor' : 'black', 'arrowstyle' : '->'},
682
                          bbox = {'facecolor' : 'w', 'edgecolor' : 'k',
683
                                   'boxstyle' : 'square', 'alpha' : '0.5'})
684
             red_patch = mpatches.Patch(color='r', alpha=0.7,
685
686
                                          label='Existing Danger Region')
             orange_patch = mpatches.Patch(color='orange', alpha=0.7,
687
                                             label='Updated Danger Region')
688
             circ1 = Line2D([0], [0], linestyle="-", lw = 2., c='b')
689
             circ2 = Line2D([0], [0], linestyle="none", marker = 'o', markersize = 9,
690
                             markeredgewidth = 1.5, markerfacecolor = (1.0, 1.0, 0.0),
691
                             markeredgecolor = 'k')
692
             ax.legend((red_patch, orange_patch, circ1, circ2),
693
                        ('Existing Danger Region',
694
                        'Additional New Danger Region', 'Stent Force Profile',
695
                        'Calculated Radial Force'),
696
                        numpoints=1,loc = 'upper left',prop={'size':10})
697
698
             startx, endx = ax.get_xlim()
699
             ax.xaxis.set_ticks(arange(startx, endx+0.0001, 10.0))
700
701
702
             starty, endy = ax.get_ylim()
             ax.yaxis.set_ticks(arange(starty, endy+0.0001, 0.25))
703
704
             ax.minorticks_on()
705
706
             ax.grid(b=True, which='major', axis='both', alpha=1.0)
707
             ax.grid(b=True, which='minor', axis='both', alpha=0.2)
708
709
             self.fig.canvas.draw()
710
             self.fig.savefig('pics/simulation.png', format='png', dpi=1000)
711
712
    num_of_factors = 5
713
    factors_dict = {'factor0': wirediam_dict,
714
                      'factor1': leglength_dict,
715
                      'factor2': bendangle_dict,
716
                      'factor3': bendrad_dict,
717
                      'factor4': labonly_dict}
718
                      #calculate polynomial
719
    #load file that gives the values for altered characteristics
720
    factor_values = loadtxt('Altered Dimentions horiz.txt', skiprows=1)
721
    wd_factor_values = factor_values[:,0]
722
    ll_factor_values = factor_values[:,1]
723
    ba_factor_values = factor_values[:,2]
724
    br_factor_values = factor_values[:,3]
725
726
    #This section decides whether data
727
    if use_saved_input != 'yes':
728
         saved_input = []
729
730
         minhorizlen = []
731
         #iterate through different characteristics
732
         for k in range(num_of_factors):
733
```

```
734
             print ""
735
             print "FILE SET #{}".format(k+1)
736
737
             vertical = []
738
             horizontal = []
739
             horizontalsingle = []
740
             verticalsingle = []
741
742
             Graph_type = factors_dict['factor'+str(k)]
743
744
745
             legendtitle,legendnames,xaxislabel,yaxislabel,plottitle,
             plotnumber = plottype(Graph_type)
746
             orig_diams = orig_type(Graph_type)
747
             print(orig_diams)
748
             dict = Graph_type
749
750
             temp_pos_change = []
751
             temp_horiz = []
752
             iteration_size = []
753
             current_temp = []
754
             summed_vert = []
755
             summed_vert_second = []
756
             averaged_vert = []
757
             averaged_vert_second = []
758
             hands = []
759
             labs = []
760
             xomaxfinal = 0
761
762
             #iterate through +- of each characteristic
763
             for j in range(plotnumber):
764
                 temp = dict['loadfiles_trial'+str(j)]
765
766
                 print ""
767
                 print "dataset #{}".format(j+1)
768
769
                  #taking in each file for a specific + or - of each
770
                  #characteristic and averaging and manipulating them
771
                 horizontalsingle, verticalsingle = data_manipulation(temp, j,
772
                                                                            orig_diams)
773
774
                  if k == 0 \& j == 0:
775
                      minhorizlen = horizontalsingle
776
777
                 elif len(horizontalsingle) > len(minhorizlen):
778
                      minhorizlen = horizontalsingle
779
780
                  if len(saved_input) == 0:
781
                          saved_input.append(verticalsingle)
782
                          vertical.append(verticalsingle)
783
                          horizontal.append(verticalsingle)
784
785
                  else:
786
```

787	<pre>if len(verticalsingle) &gt;= len(saved_input[j-1]):</pre>
788	<pre>shapetemp = shape(saved_input)</pre>
789	<pre>shapetempx = shapetemp[0]+1</pre>
790	<pre>shapetempy = len(verticalsingle)</pre>
791	<pre>summed_vert_temp = zeros((shapetempx, shapetempy))</pre>
792	<pre>summed_vert_temp[:shapetemp[0],:shapetemp[1]] = saved_input</pre>
793	<pre>summed_vert_temp[shapetemp[0]] = verticalsingle</pre>
794	<pre>saved_input = summed_vert_temp</pre>
795	<pre>vertical = summed_vert_temp</pre>
796	<pre>horizontal = summed_vert_temp</pre>
797	
798	else:
799	<pre>shapetemp = shape(saved_input)</pre>
800	<pre>verticalsingle = array(verticalsingle)</pre>
801	<pre>verticalsingle.resize(len(saved_input[j-1]))</pre>
802	<pre>shapetempx = shapetemp[0]+1</pre>
803	<pre>shapetempy = shapetemp[1]</pre>
804	<pre>summed_vert_temp = zeros((shapetempx, shapetempy))</pre>
805	<pre>summed_vert_temp[:shapetemp[0],:shapetemp[1]] = saved_input</pre>
806	<pre>summed_vert_temp[shapetemp[0]] = verticalsingle</pre>
807	<pre>saved_input = summed_vert_temp</pre>
808	<pre>vertical = summed_vert_temp</pre>
809	<pre>horizontal = summed_vert_temp</pre>
810	
811	<pre>print(shape(saved_input))</pre>
812	
813	if Graph_type == wirediam_dict:
814	<pre>wd_vert = vertical[-3::]</pre>
815	wd_horiz = horizontal[-3::]
816	<pre>print(shape(wd_vert))</pre>
817	
818	if Graph_type == leglength_dict:
819	<pre>ll_vert = vertical[-3::]</pre>
820	<pre>ll_horiz = horizontal[-3::]</pre>
821	
822	if Graph_type == bendangle_dict:
823	<pre>ba_vert = vertical[-3::]</pre>
824	<pre>ba_horiz = horizontal[-3::]</pre>
825	
826	if Graph_type == bendrad_dict:
827	<pre>br_vert = vertical[-3::]</pre>
828	<pre>br_horiz = horizontal[-3::]</pre>
829	
830	if Graph_type == labonly_dict:
831	<pre>lo_vert = vertical[-3::]</pre>
832	<pre>lo_horiz = horizontal[-3::]</pre>
833	
834	<pre>print(len(minhorizlen))</pre>
835	<pre>shapetemp = shape(saved_input)</pre>
836	<pre>shapetempx = shapetemp[0]+1</pre>
837	<pre>shapetempy = len(minhorizlen)</pre>
838	<pre>summed_vert_temp = zeros((shapetempx, shapetempy))</pre>
839	<pre>summed_vert_temp[:(shapetemp[0]),:shapetemp[1]] = saved_input</pre>

```
summed_vert_temp[shapetemp[0]] = minhorizlen
840
         saved_input = summed_vert_temp
841
842
         saved_input = zip(*saved_input)
843
844
         savetxt('savedinputhoriz.txt', zip(*saved_input), delimiter=" ", fmt='%5.5f')
845
846
    else:
847
         saved_input_data = transpose(loadtxt('savedinputhoriz.txt'))
848
         wd_vert = [saved_input_data[:,i] for i in range(3)]
849
         ll_vert = [saved_input_data[:,3+i] for i in range(3)]
850
         ba_vert = [saved_input_data[:,6+i] for i in range(3)]
851
852
         br_vert = [saved_input_data[:,9+i] for i in range(3)]
853
         lo_vert = saved_input_data[:,12][::-1]
854
         lo_horiz = saved_input_data[:,13]
855
856
    app = wx.PySimpleApp()
857
    top = SuperShapeFrame(None, -1, 'SuperShape')
858
859
    top.Show()
860
    app.MainLoop()
861
```