

## **Error Analysis: How Precise is Fused Deposition Modeling in Fabrication of Bone Models in Comparison to the Parent Bones?**

#### Abstract

Background: Rapid prototyping (RP) is used widely in dental and faciomaxillary surgery with anecdotal uses in orthopedics. The purview of RP in orthopedics is vast. However, there is no error analysis reported in the literature on bone models generated using office-based RP. This study evaluates the accuracy of fused deposition modeling (FDM) using standard tessellation language (STL) files and errors generated during the fabrication of bone models. Materials and Methods: Nine dry bones were selected and were computed tomography (CT) scanned. STL files were procured from the CT scans and three-dimensional (3D) models of the bones were printed using our in-house FDM based 3D printer using Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene (ABS) filament. Measurements were made on the bone and 3D models according to data collection procedures for forensic skeletal material. Statistical analysis was performed to establish interobserver co-relation for measurements on dry bones and the 3D bone models. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 13.0 software to analyze the collected data. Results: The inter-observer reliability was established using intra-class coefficient for both the dry bones and the 3D models. The mean of absolute difference is 0.4 that is very minimal. The 3D models are comparable to the dry bones. Conclusions: STL file dependent FDM using ABS material produces near-anatomical 3D models. The high 3D accuracy hold a promise in the clinical scenario for preoperative planning, mock surgery, and choice of implants and prostheses, especially in complicated acetabular trauma and complex hip surgeries.

**Keywords:** *Analysis, bone, computed tomography, error, model, printing, three-dimensional* **MeSH terms:** *CAT scanners, x-ray, autograft, imaging, three-dimensional* 

## Introduction

Rapid prototyping (RP) is a manufacturing technology used in many industries to develop high fidelity three-dimensional (3D) structures from source image data. The RP technology has progressively developed over the years and is becoming increasingly important with widespread uses in the biomedical field.1-10 The first reported use in orthopedic surgery was in 1979 when a polystyrene model of a pelvis was constructed to customize a metal implant for a patient with fibrosarcoma.11 The majority of the reported literature on RP focuses on its uses in maxillofacial surgery.<sup>12,13</sup> However innovative uses in orthopedic surgery, especially in preoperative planning in spine surgery, deformity correction, and hip replacements have been reported.<sup>14-18</sup> Patient-specific instrumentation using RP techniques for total knee replacement was introduced by Biomet Orthopedics (Warsaw, Indiana, USA) with the signature knee system in collaboration

patient counseling.<sup>21,22</sup> Recent advances in fused deposition modeling (FDM), a RP technique has made it a viable technology for application in orthopedic surgery. Use of FDM in the fabrication of skull and mandible with a high level of accuracy has been documented.<sup>23</sup>
To the best of our knowledge, no literature exists on an error analysis of the bone models generated by FDM in the fabrication of the bone models generated by FDM in the fabrication of the bone models generated by FDM in the fabrication of the bone models generated by FDM in the fabrication of the fabrication o

bone models generated by FDM in the orthopedic scenario. This study evaluates the accuracy of FDM using STL files and errors generated during the fabrication of bone models of nine different types of bones procured from anatomy department.

with Materialize (Leuven, Belgium).19,20

Other orthopedic applications apart from

preoperative planning include teaching and

## **Materials and Methods**

#### **Model fabrication**

A total of 38 measurements were made on nine different dry bones (7 femur,

How to cite this article: Reddy MV, Eachempati K, Gurava Reddy AV, Mugalur A. Error analysis: How precise is fused deposition modeling in fabrication of bone models in comparison to the parent bones?. Indian J Orthop 2018;52:196-201.

## M V Reddy, Krishnakiran Eachempati<sup>1</sup>, A V Gurava Reddy, Aakash Mugalur<sup>2</sup>

Department of Orthopaedics, Sunshine Hospitals, Secunderabad, <sup>1</sup>Department of Orthopaedics, MaxCure Hopitals, Hyderabad, Telangana, <sup>2</sup>Department of Orthopaedics, Sri Narayani Hospital and Research Centre, Vellore, Tamil Nadu, India

Address for correspondence: Dr Aakash Mugalur, Department of Orthopaedics, Sri Narayani Hospital and Research Centre, Vellore, Tamil Nadu, India. E-mail: orthoaakash@gmail. com



This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as the author is credited and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

5 tibia, 3 talus, 2 calcaneum, 3 first metatarsal, 3 clavicle, 5 humerus, 5 radius, and 5 ulna) were procured from the anatomy department. All the bone models were computed tomography (CT) scanned with 0.625 mm thick slices using Siemens somatom perspective 64 slice CT scan system. From CT scan Digital Imaging and Communication in Medicine files were imported and 3D representation of the bone models was generated using InVesalius. version 3.0.0. beta 5 software [Centre for Information Technology Renato Archer, Campinas, SP, Brazil]. The data were then converted to STL (standard tessellation language) file format. The STL files were cleaned using mesh laboratory - advanced 3D mesh processing software, version 1.1.0[Meshlab, ISTI-CNR] and individual STL files of all nine scanned bones were made. From STL files 3D models were printed using Flash forge dreamer 3D printer (Flashforge dreamer dual extruder) with 1.75 mm Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene (ABS) plastic filament. Slic3r slice engine was used with standard resolution (layer height 0.2 mm, shells 3, infill 20%, print speed 60 mm/s, travel speed 80 mm/s, extruder temperature 230°, platform temperature 110°) [Figure 1].

### **Dimensional analysis**

Definition of landmarks for measurement of individual bones was based on the "data collection procedures for forensic skeletal material" by Moore-Jansen *et al.*<sup>24</sup> Linear measurements were made using an osteometric board, and other measurements were made using a digital Vernier caliper (Mitutoyo Digimatic 150 mm/6 inch model: 500-196-30) [Figure 2]. Two observers (senior authors MVR and KKE) made the measurements on two different occasions on the bone and 3D model. The observers are practicing orthopedic surgeons with at least 15 years of experience in Orthopaedic surgery. Statistical analysis was performed to establish interobserver reliability for measurements on dry bones and the 3D bone models. Statistical analysis was done using SPSS version 13.0 [SPSS Inc., 233 South Wacker Drive, 11<sup>th</sup> Floor, Chicago, IL 60606-6412] software to analyze the collected data.

## Results

Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated independently for the dry bones [Table 1] and the 3D printed models [Table 2] to assess the reliability of the observers. A high degree of reliability was found between the dry bone measurements and the 3D bone measurements between the two observers. The average measure ICC was 1 with a P < 0.001. Table 3 summarizes the variation between the 3D model and dry bone model for each of the bones. The mean of the absolute difference is 0.4 which is very minimal. Mann-Whitney U-test was performed to see the differences between the values of the two observers as the data are not continuously distributed. The "P" value (0.629) was more than 0.05 stating that there is no significant difference between the observations between the two raters. Box plot shows the difference between the dry and 3D modeling of first and second observer [Figure 3]. Compound bar diagram showing the difference between dry and 3D modeling of first and second observer according to the type of bone [Figure 4].

## Discussion

A minimal difference between the measurements on dry bones and 3D bone models with significant interobserver reliability for either of the measurements signifies that RP in an office setup is a magnificent tool and provides near-anatomical specimens of the area of anatomical interest. Tibia (0.6340) and talus (0.5933) showed more variation in the absolute difference, whereas radius (0.1620) and ulna (0.1830) showed minimal variation. However, it



Figure 1: Near-anatomical three-dimensional printed bone models in comparison with the dry bones obtained from the anatomical department. (a) Femur. (b) Tibia. (c) Humerus. (d) Radius. (e) Ulna. (f) Calcaneum. (g) First metatarsal. (h) Clavicle. (i) Talus

Table 1: Intraclass correlation coefficient: Dry bone							
Dry bone	Intraclass correlation <sup>b</sup>	95% CI		F-test with true value 0			
measurements		Lower bound	Upper bound	Value	df1	df2	Significant
Single measures	1.000ª	1.000	1.000	651,585.430	37	37	0.000
Average measures	1.000 <sup>c</sup>	1.000	1.000	651,585.430	37	37	0.000
			22	0 4 mm4 1			

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed. <sup>a</sup>The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not, <sup>b</sup>Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition-the between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance, <sup>c</sup>This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise. A high degree of reliability was found between the dry bone measurements between the two observers. The average measure ICC was 1 with a P<0.001. CI=Confidence interval, ICC=Intraclass co-relation coefficient

Table 2: Intraclass correlation coefficient: Three-dimensional model								
3D model	Intraclass correlation <sup>b</sup>	95% CI		F-test with true value 0				
measurements		Lower bound	Upper bound	Value	df1	df2	Significant	
Single measures	1.000ª	1.000	1.000	644,259.747	37	37	0.000	
Average measures	1.000°	1.000	1.000	644,259.747	37	37	0.000	

Two-way mixed effects model where people effects are random and measures effects are fixed. <sup>a</sup>The estimator is the same, whether the interaction effect is present or not, <sup>b</sup>Type C intraclass correlation coefficients using a consistency definition-the between-measure variance is excluded from the denominator variance, <sup>c</sup>This estimate is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent, because it is not estimable otherwise. A high degree of reliability was found between the 3D bone measurements between the two observers. The average measure ICC was 1 with a P<0.001. CI=Confidence interval, ICC=Intraclass co-relation coefficient, 3D=Three-dimensional



Figure 2: The comparative measurements of the humerus. (a and d) The measurement of length of the dry bone and the 3D model using the osteometric board. (b and e) The comparable values of the humeral head measurement using digital caliper for dry bone and the 3D model. (c and f) showing the comparable inter-epicondylar distance of the humerus for the dry bone and 3D model. 3D=Three-dimensional

	bones								
Type of bone	n valid	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD			
Femur									
Dry bone mean	7	29.80	22.64	425.00	92.28	147.76			
3D model mean	7	30.19	23.14	426.00	92.77	147.97			
Absolute difference	7	0.39	0.27	1.00	0.50	0.27			
Tibia									
Dry bone mean	5	45.17	32.18	386.00	113.93	152.86			
3D model mean	5	45.61	33.01	387.00	114.56	153.06			
Absolute difference	5	0.65	0.25	1.00	0.63	0.30			
Humerus									
Dry bone mean	5	44.90	17.09	307.00	89.63	122.73			
3D model mean	5	45.41	17.52	307.00	90.08	122.48			
Absolute difference	5	0.50	0	0.80	0.45	0.29			
Radius									
Dry bone mean	5	19.75	12.98	259.00	67.57	107.21			
3D model mean	5	19.76	13.36	259.00	67.73	107.11			
Absolute difference	5	0.19	0	0.38	0.16	0.16			
Ulna									
Dry bone mean	5	16.67	11.22	265.00	109.81	132.30			
3D model mean	5	17.03	11.51	265.00	110.00	132.14			
Absolute difference	5	0.27	0	0.35	0.18	0.17			
Clavicle									
Dry bone mean	3	12.44	8.62	140.00	53.69	74.77			
3D model mean	3	12.77	8.94	141.00	54.24	75.16			
Absolute difference	3	0.33	0.32	1.00	0.55	0.39			
Calcaneum									
Dry bone mean	2	59.25	44.44	74.07	59.25	20.95			
3D model mean	2	59.51	44.87	74.14	59.51	20.70			
Absolute difference	2	0.25	0.07	0.43	0.25	0.25			
Talus									
Dry bone mean	3	40.22	22.34	48.20	36.92	13.24			
3D model mean	3	40.96	23.12	48.46	37.51	13.02			
Absolute difference	3	0.74	0.26	0.78	0.59	0.29			
First metatarsal									
Dry bone mean	3	29.14	19.32	65.54	38.00	24.35			
3D model mean	3	29.62	19.67	65.76	38.35	24.25			
Absolute difference	3	0.35	0.22	0.48	0.35	0.13			

# Table 3: Depicting the median, minimum and maximum along with mean and standard deviation of the individual houses

3D=Three-dimensional, SD=Standard deviation

should be noted that the number of measurements in each bone was different. The standard deviation was high as the measurements were different in nature (e.g., the length of a long bone is much higher than the breadth at the distal end).

FDM is comparable to other available RP technologies. Since it fabricates a 3D model using a layer by layer deposition, it does not require the use of machinery and tooling for the fabrication. This also reduces the wastage of the raw material, reduces the time for the generation of the models and is cost effective. The time required for fabrication of the bone models is less as compared to the other technologies, especially when models of greater complexity are required.<sup>25</sup> ABS material apart from having high impact and being heat resistant adheres to dimensional

accuracy.<sup>25</sup> Research toward minimizing the errors in RP might improve the accuracy of the generated 3D models.<sup>26,27</sup>

Studies evaluating the error analysis of FDM in the orthopedic scenario are not reported in the literature to the best of our knowledge. Sun *et al.* evaluated the errors in unidirectional mandibular distraction osteogenesis in the treatment of hemifacial microsomia in six patients. However, they analyzed the errors of computer-aided design and manufacture.<sup>28</sup> Nizam *et al.* evaluated the accuracy of models obtained by stereolithography RP technology and found the errors acceptable for planning and application in the clinical scenario.<sup>29</sup> A study by Al-Katatny *et al.* demonstrated an exceptional accuracy using FDM process for the fabrication of anatomical replicas across sizes and



Figure 3: Box plot shows the difference between the dry and three-dimensional modeling of first and second observer

gender in comparison to other established RP techniques. They used skull and mandible specimens for error analysis.<sup>30</sup> The specimens were undersized and deviated from the original by an average of 0.24% demonstrating precision in measured bone thickness. The difference in the mean average deviation in comparison to our study might be attributed to the diversity of the bones used in our study. Dhakshyani *et al.* studied FDM models in surgeries for dysplastic hips and concluded that these models improved planning, decreased surgical time and improved surgeons confidence and aided rehabilitation protocol.<sup>31</sup>

The following were the limitations of our study. The sample size was limited and only selected bones representative of the skeleton were used. We did not compare FDM with other available RP technologies. We used ABS for FDM, and it was not compared with other materials. The number of measurements in each type of bone differed and could have altered the mean difference when each type of bone was considered separately. The nature of measurement (e.g., length vs. distal breadth of a long bone) leads to high standard deviation. In error analysis, the following aspects are usually evaluated-accuracy, precision, systematic errors, and random errors. Systematic errors were minimized as a digital caliper was used, and the observers independently measured the bones to minimize bias. The accuracy and precision were maximized by the experienced observers and the appropriate statistical analysis. The random errors could be minimized by increasing the sample size, but only representative bones were used in our study.

Despite the limitations, a mean average deviation of 0.4% is negligible and should not be a hindrance to the use of FDM in the clinical scenario. STL file dependent FDM using ABS material produces near-anatomical 3D models with a good co-relation between the bones and models procured by 3D modeling. Fabrication of these models,



Figure 4: Compound bar diagram showing the difference between dry and three-dimensional modeling of first and second observer according to the type of bone

especially in the office set up is economical, time-saving, and convenient. The high 3D accuracy hold a promise in the clinical scenario for preoperative planning, mock surgery and choice of implants and prostheses, especially in complicated acetabular trauma and complex hip surgeries in orthopedics. These may be of value in training of surgeons in orthopedic surgery and patient education. Bone models may be fabricated easily in the event of a shortage of dry bones for educational purposes in the event of shortage of cadavers.

## Conclusion

STL file dependent FDM using ABS material produces near-anatomical 3D models. The high 3D accuracy hold a promise in the clinical scenario for preoperative planning, mock surgery, and choice of implants and prostheses, especially in complicated acetabular trauma and complex hip surgeries.

## **Declaration of patient consent**

The authors certify that they have obtained all appropriate patient consent forms. In the form the patient(s) has/have given his/her/their consent for his/her/their images and other clinical information to be reported in the journal. The patients understand that their names and initials will not be published and due efforts will be made to conceal their identity, but anonymity cannot be guaranteed.

## Financial support and sponsorship

Nil.

#### **Conflicts of interest**

There are no conflicts of interest.

#### References

1. McGurk M, Amis AA, Potamianos P, Goodger NM. Rapid prototyping techniques for anatomical modelling in medicine.

Ann R Coll Surg Engl 1997;79:169-74.

- Webb PA. A review of rapid prototyping (RP) techniques in the medical and biomedical sector. J Med Eng Technol 2000;24:149-53.
- 3. Esses SJ, Berman P, Bloom AI, Sosna J. Clinical applications of physical 3D models derived from MDCT data and created by rapid prototyping. AJR Am J Roentgenol 2011;196:W683-8.
- Torres K, Staskiewicz G, Sniezynski M, Drop A, Maciejewski R. Application of rapid prototyping techniques for modelling of anatomical structures in medical training and education. Folia Morphol (Warsz) 2011;70:1-4.
- Melican MC, Zimmerman MC, Dhillon MS, Ponnambalam AR, Curodeau A, Parsons JR. Three-dimensional printing and porous metallic surfaces: A new orthopedic application. J Biomed Mater Res 2001;55:194-202.
- Butscher A, Bohner M, Hofmann S, Gauckler L, Müller R. Structural and material approaches to bone tissue engineering in powder-based three-dimensional printing. Acta Biomater 2011;7:907-20.
- Ciocca L, De Crescenzio F, Fantini M, Scotti R. CAD/CAM and rapid prototyped scaffold construction for bone regenerative medicine and surgical transfer of virtual planning: A pilot study. Comput Med Imaging Graph 2009;33:58-62.
- Leukers B, Gülkan H, Irsen SH, Milz S, Tille C, Schieker M, et al. Hydroxyapatite scaffolds for bone tissue engineering made by 3D printing. J Mater Sci Mater Med 2005;16:1121-4.
- Seitz H, Rieder W, Irsen S, Leukers B, Tille C. Three-dimensional printing of porous ceramic scaffolds for bone tissue engineering. J Biomed Mater Res B Appl Biomater 2005;74:782-8.
- Mankovich NJ, Cheeseman AM, Stoker NG. The display of three-dimensional anatomy with stereolithographic models. J Digit Imaging 1990;3:200-3.
- Tonner HD, Engelbrecht H. A new method for the preparation of special alloplastic implants for the partial replacement of the pelvis. Fortschr Med 1979;97:781-3.
- Metzger MC, Hohlweg-Majert B, Schwarz U, Teschner M, Hammer B, Schmelzeisen R. Manufacturing splints for orthognathic surgery using a three-dimensional printer. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 2008;105:e1-7.
- Goiato MC, Santos MR, Pesqueira AA, Moreno A, dos Santos DM, Haddad MF. Prototyping for surgical and prosthetic treatment. J Craniofac Surg 2011;22:914-7.
- Schwartz A, Money K, Spangehl M, Hattrup S, Claridge RJ, Beauchamp C. Office-based rapid prototyping in orthopedic surgery: A novel planning technique and review of the literature. Am J Orthop (Belle Mead NJ) 2015;44:19-25.
- 15. Minns RJ, Bibb R, Banks R, Sutton RA. The use of a reconstructed three-dimensional solid model from CT to aid the surgical management of a total knee arthroplasty: A case study.

Med Eng Phys 2003;25:523-6.

- Munjal S, Leopold SS, Kornreich D, Shott S, Finn HA. CT-generated 3-dimensional models for complex acetabular reconstruction. J Arthroplasty 2000;15:644-53.
- Fu M, Lin L, Kong X, Zhao W, Tang L, Li J, *et al.* Construction and accuracy assessment of patient-specific biocompatible drill template for cervical anterior transpedicular screw (ATPS) insertion: An *in vitro* study. PLoS One 2013;8:e53580.
- Debarre E, Hivart P, Baranski D, Déprez P. Speedy skeletal prototype production to help diagnosis in orthopaedic and trauma surgery. Methodology and examples of clinical applications. Orthop Traumatol Surg Res 2012;98:597-602.
- Krishnan SP, Dawood A, Richards R, Henckel J, Hart AJ. A review of rapid prototyped surgical guides for patient-specific total knee replacement. J Bone Joint Surg Br 2012;94:1457-61.
- 20. L-30029-02.
- Windisch G, Salaberger D, Rosmarin W, Kastner J, Exner GU, Haldi-Brändle V, *et al.* A model for clubfoot based on micro-CT data. J Anat 2007;210:761-6.
- Guarino J, Tennyson S, McCain G, Bond L, Shea K, King H. Rapid prototyping technology for surgeries of the pediatric spine and pelvis: Benefits analysis. J Pediatr Orthop 2007;27:955-60.
- Dawood A, Marti BM, Jackson VS, Darwood A. 3D printing in dentistry. Br Dent J 2015;219:521-9.
- Moore-Jansen PH, Ousely SD, Jantz RL. Data Collection Procedures for Forensic Skeletal Material. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee Forensic Anthropology Series; 1994.
- 25. Parhate VG. Techno-economic and error analysis of rapid prototyping patterns. IJITR 2014;2:1003-11.
- 26. Peng AH. Principle of error analysis for rapid prototyping technology. Appl Mech Mater 2012;121-6:330-4.
- Luo N, Wang Q. Fast slicing orientation determining and optimizing algorithm for least volumetric error in rapid prototyping. Int J Adv Manuf Technol 2016;83:1297-313.
- Sun H, Li B, Zhao Z, Zhang L, Shen SG, Wang X. Error analysis of a CAD/CAM method for unidirectional mandibular distraction osteogenesis in the treatment of hemifacial microsomia. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2013;51:892-7.
- Nizam A, Gopal RN, Naing L, Hakim AB, Samsudin AR. Dimensional accuracy of the skull models produced by rapid prototyping technology using stereolithography apparatus. Arch Orofac Sci 2006;1:60-6.
- El-Katatny I, Masood SH, Morsi YS. Error analysis of FDM fabricated medical replicas. Rapid Prototyp J 2010;16:36-43.
- 31. Dhakshyani R, Nukman Y, Noor Azuan AO. FDM models and FEA in dysplastic hip. Rapid Prototyp J 2012;18:215-21.