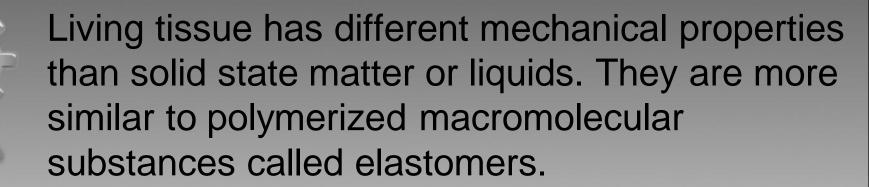


Mechanics – science about forces and movement

Biomechanics – study of forces and movement in living organism



Static properties

- Strength of material structural consistency of the material against external forces
- •Elasticity the ability of the body to return after deformation to its original shape

Static properties

Extensibility - pliability to the action of a substance deformation force

 Plasticity - ability of a substance to change shape permanently due to the deforming forces

Dynamic properties

Viscosity - resistance to shape change of the substance;

These properties can be observed in the living tissue in varying degrees

- 1. Elastic substances
 - under the limit of elasticity the deformation has linear progress
 - It corresponds to Hooke's law

$$arepsilon = rac{1}{E} \sigma$$
 $arepsilon$ = deformation E = modulus of elasticity σ = tensile stress (Pa)

2. Plastic substances

exhibit deformation only at a particular value of the stress

 after removal of this stress they retain maximum deformation obtained during the force effect

3. Viscous substances

- Fluids which can be divided according to dependence of deformation speed on deforming force:
- Newtonian fluids
 - Speed of deformation changes linearly with changing value of tension
 - Non-Newtonian fluids
 - Non-linear dependency

Deformation depends on viscosity of fluid

4. Viscoelastic substances

- Deformation is a function of tension AND time
- With quickly acting tension of constant value, the deformation grows exponentially; after termination of tension, it also declines exponentially
 - However it cannot reach the former state fully; for the whole cancellation of deformation a tension of opposite direction is needed Some fluids have similar behavior = Maxwell's fluids (blood)

- 5. Viscoelastic-plastic substances
 - Elastic deformation happens only above a certain value of tension (treshold tension)
 - Speed of deformation is a function of coefficient of plasticity U; substance has always a degree of hysteresis

$$\sigma = \sigma_0 + U. \frac{\Delta \mathcal{E}}{\Delta t}$$
 Soft tissues; gels

Biostatics – studies forces affecting an organism and also forces by which an organism affects its surroundings.

Basic supporting mechanism in humans and all vertebrates is connective tissue

 Composition: cells and extracellular matrix (fibrous and amorphous)
 Ligaments, cartilage, bone

Ligaments

Fibroblasts, collagen fibers, elastic fibers, amorphous mass

Collagen fibers

- Most voluminous component in connective tissue
- Tensile strength, very flexible
- The limited elasticity (elongation max. 10% of its length)
- Load of 50 N per 1 mm²
 - Aging over time = reduction in tensile strength and elasticity

Elastic fibers

- Less numerous; often mixed with collagen fibers
- High elasticity an extension of up to 200% of its original length
- •low tensile strength; maximum load of 3 N per 1 mm²
- Their function is to increase the elasticity of the tissue

The amorphous intercellular substance

- Gel solution (proteoglycans hyaluronic acid)
- Stabilizing structures of ligaments
- Aqueous environment tissue nutrition
- Lubricating ability of HA

Thin collagen tissue

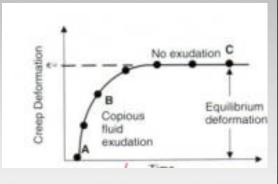
- The supporting structure for the blood vessels and nerves; allow smooth glide of organs
- Rigid collagen tissue
 - Tissue with disordered structure collagen and elastic fibers; Overall, high mechanical strength; connective tissue layer of the skin
 - Tissue with **ordered** structure tendons (max. 5% of elastic fibers) transmission of muscle strength on the skeleton, ligaments fixing the musculoskeletal system

Cartilage

Chondrocytes, collagen fibers, elastic fibers

Intercellular substance

- Similar composition as in ligament
- Isolation of chondrocytes
- Environment facilitating nutrition



The tensile strength of the cartilage is max. 5% of the strength of bone
The elasticity of variable water contents

Cartilage

Hyaline cartilage

- In comparison with other types is fragile; hard, smooth
- Collagen fibers form a three-dimensional network structure of the network the burden of cartilage
- joints

Cartilage

Elastic cartilage

- supple and flexible (elastin)
- After the deformation returns to the original state
- Ear

Fibrous cartilage

- The strong collagen fibers
- Mechanical resistance to tension, compression and torsion
- Intervertebral plate

Heterogeneous, viscoelastic material, osteoblasts

Extracellular matrix - collagen fibers; amorphous material (mineralized; up to 65% of bone mass)

Lamellar bone

 Compact bone - arrangement of collagen and degree of mineralization determines the tensile, compressive and bending strength

• Cancellous bone - trabecular structure of beams (architectonics of the bones); this structure is the result of the force action on the bone in injury (fractures) the structure is rebuilded to suit the new force load

Bone strength - compact bone

- Strength of long bones is 100-200 MPa
- The highest load a bone can withstand is in the direction of its axis
- The lowest strength is in torsion deformation

Bone strength - compact bone

- Mineralization is not uniform; in places where the energy is absorbed mineralization is lower
- The dynamic load is dependent on the speed of movement

Bone strength - cancellous bone

Beams form domes at the site of most ongoing field lines of pressure and tension Partial load absorption by "fillers"

Wolf's law of bone transformation – bone structure accommodates to permanent change of affecting forces, when any change occurs (injury), bone remodeling achieves healthy state again

 If gravity in axis of long bones is missing, higher amount of calcium is excluded from an organism (astronauts)

Fixed vs. Mobile

Fixed

- Ligamentous syndesmosis; enabling a seamless bones connection
- Cartilaginous synchrondrosis
- Bony synostosis; formed of the previous two; immobile

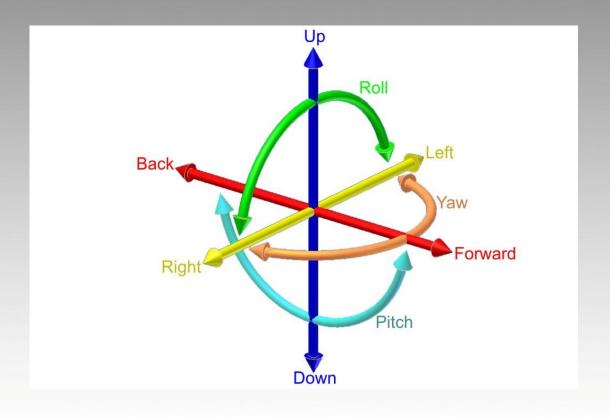
Mobile

Joints - movable bone conections connecting two or more bones

The range of motion depends on the shape of contact surfaces, the ratio of head and socket, muscle apparatus etc.

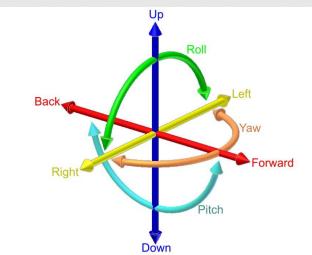
- Angular movement points on the moving body describe circular arcs centered on the axis of rotation
- Translational movement all points of the moving body travels the path of the same length





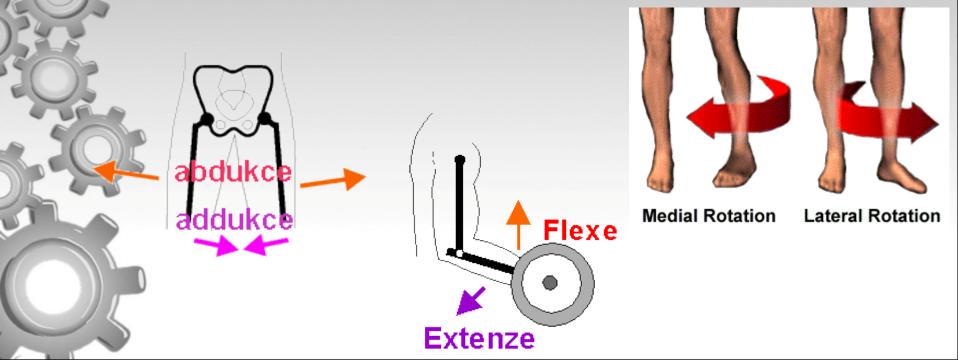
Joints

- Different types
- the degree of freedom of movement depends on the shape of interface; maximum is three (shoulder or hip joint)
 - There is no "full rotation" movement circumduction



Movement

- X axis: abduction and adduction
- Y axis: flexion and extension
- Z axis: internal and external rotation



Joints

- Several joints together = kinematic chain (greater freedom of movement)
- Joint cartilage
 - Elastic deformation
 - Constant pressure up to 8 kg on 1 cm²
- Synovial fluid
 - Nutrition
 - Flexibility of cartilage
 - reduces friction

- Motoric organ
- Changes chemical energy of chemical bonds to mechanical work (performed by contraction)
- Muscle contraction principle is insertion of actin fibers into myosin fibers; energy comes from ATP

- agonists; antagonists; synergists
 - Balancing these groups is important to stabilize the position - e.g. torso muscles and the lower limbs muscles = stabilization of upright position (antigravity muscular system)
- Function
 - Fixation and kinetic
 - Main function x secondary

- One-joint
 - Movement in one joint
- Multiple-joint
 - Main joint movement; in connection with
 other joints stabilization

- Two subtypes of muscle contraction
 - Izotonic (constant load)
 - Izometric (constant length)
 - Work is performed and heat is released
 - Activation heat (released when muscle starting moving) Q_a
 - Shortening heat (muscle is shortened) Q_z
 - Qz = k.x (x=length; k=constant $3.5.10^4$ J.m⁻³
 - Total energy of izotonic contraction E = Q_a + Q_z + W

- After completion of the muscle contractions muscle returns to its original length
- Upon reaching the breaking strength a muscle is torn
- Physiological breaking strength of muscles of 0.4 to 1.2 MPa

Heart

- Pump
 - Atriums = reservoirs
 - Ventricles = pumps
 - One-way blood flow = heart valves

By constriction of the ventricles (systole),
 expulsion of a certain volume of blood (stroke volume) into the bloodstream occurs

The heart as a pump performs a mechanical work

 If we think of the heart as a piston which performs volume work, a static work of the heart (piston), by which the heart pushes blood volume under pressure, can be described:

$$W_p = p.\Delta V$$

The heart as a pump performs the mechanical work

 When stroke volume is expelled, it is also given a velocity, and kinetic work is therefore performed:

$$W_k = \frac{1}{2} \rho. v^2. \Delta V$$

The heart as a pump performs the mechanical work

The total mechanical work is the sum of static and kinetic works

$$W = W_p + W_k = p.\Delta V + \frac{1}{2}\rho.v^2.\Delta V$$

$$W = W_p + W_k = p.\Delta V + \frac{1}{2}\rho.v^2.\Delta V$$

 To determine the mechanical work it is necessary to know the blood pressure in systole, stroke volume and velocity of blood ejection

Ideal physiological conditions (p=13.3 kPa, V = 70 ml, v = 0.3 m.s⁻¹, ρ = 1.06x10³kg.m⁻³) static and kinetic work of **left ventricule** is equaled to:

$$W_p = 0.93 J$$
 $W_k = 0.003 J$ $W = 0.94J$

- Right ventricle does only 20 % of left ventricule work = 0,19 J
- Total mechanical work in one systole = 1,13 J
- The total energy of the heart muscle is equal to the sum of mechanical work and energy necessary to maintain muscle tone

- Efficiency
 - •myocardium 30 %
 - Whole heart 10%
- Power
 - •13 W (just 1,3 W is mechanical work alone)