Mapping Bone Mineral Density Obtained by Quantitative Computed Tomography to Bone Volume Fraction

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Summary

Methods for relating or mapping estimates of volumetric bone mineral density (vBMD) obtained via quantitative computed tomography (QCT) to bone volume fraction (BVF) are outlined mathematically. The methods are based on definitions of bone properties, cited experimental studies, and regression relations derived from those studies for trabecular bone in the proximal femur. BVF values calculated from four different methods were compared with the experimental average and numerical range of values obtained from the intertrochanteric region of male and female human subjects, aged 18 to 49. The BVF values computed from the conversion methods used data from two sources. One source provided pre-bed-rest vBMD values in the intertrochanteric region from 24 bed rest subjects who participated in a 70-day study. Another source provided preflight vBMD values from 18 astronauts who spent 4 to 6 months on the International Space Station (ISS). To aid the use of a mapping from BMD to BVF, the discussion includes how to formulate the conversions for the purpose of computational modeling. An application of the conversions would be used to aid in computational modeling of time-varying changes in vBMD as they relate to changes in BVF via bone remodeling and/or modeling.

Introduction

Most computational models of bone remodeling or bone adaptation track changes in apparent density (Refs. 1 to 3) or bone volume fraction (BVF) (Refs. 4 to 6), but in vivo measurements of bone density are given in terms of bone mineral density (BMD). Areal BMD (aBMD) is defined as bone mineral content divided by total area, g/cm². Volumetric BMD (vBMD) is bone mineral content divided by total volume, g/cm³. Dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry, an enhanced form of x-ray technology, is an established standard bone density scanning method for measuring aBMD (Ref. 7). One medical technique that measures vBMD is quantitative computed tomography (QCT) (Ref. 8). QCT uses a standard x-ray computed tomography (CT) scanner with a calibration standard to convert Hounsfield units of the image to vBMD values. In order to compare model prediction to experimental data, a method of converting aBMD or vBMD to BVF is needed.

In NASA’s Digital Astronaut Project (DAP), the musculoskeletal research component has as a current task the development of a computational bone physiology model for space flight bone physiology analysis (Ref. 9). One aim is to understand the changes in vBMD, particularly bone loss, at various bone sites and the response to in-flight and postflight exercise countermeasures. The mathematical formulation describes the removal and replacement of bone via bone remodeling and simulates changes in bone in terms of changes in BVF. The changes are observed in subjects of bed rest studies that simulate microgravity and in astronauts during and after 4- to 6-month periods on the International Space Station (ISS). In addition, the DAP bone physiology model can add higher fidelity by breaking up BVF into mineralized volume fraction, M, and osteoid volume fraction, O:
Because of its three-dimensional capability and its ability to provide specific data for the separate cortical and trabecular regions of bone, the DAP bone physiology model is developed directly for QCT data. Human QCT scans are generally lower resolution to minimize radiation health risks, which in turn tends to prevent the determination of BVF via image processing software. Therefore, a method for converting initial vBMD data to initial BVF is needed in order to simulate time-course changes in BVF that can then be converted back to vBMD. This study presents a number of conversion methods with a focus on the trabecular region of the proximal femur. Terms used in this paper are defined in the Appendix.

**Acronyms**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aBMD</td>
<td>areal bone mineral density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMD</td>
<td>bone mineral density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BVF</td>
<td>bone volume fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFT</td>
<td>countermeasures and functional testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>computed tomography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAP</td>
<td>Digital Astronaut Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISS</td>
<td>International Space Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mCT</td>
<td>microcomputed tomography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QCT</td>
<td>quantitative computed tomography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vBMD</td>
<td>volumetric bone mineral density</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Symbols**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
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<tr>
<td>$aBMD$</td>
<td>areal bone mineral density</td>
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<tr>
<td>$BMD$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$BVF$</td>
<td>bone volume fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>mineralized volume fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$O$</td>
<td>osteoid volume fraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$vBMD$</td>
<td>volumetric bone mineral density</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$</td>
<td>ash fraction $\alpha = \frac{\rho_{ash}}{\rho_{app}}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho$</td>
<td>density</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Relations and Formulas**

Algorithms for the conversions are based in part on using linear correlation relations obtained from experimental studies that relate QCT-derived vBMD, $\rho_{QCT}$, to ash density, $\rho_{ash}$, and ash density to
apparent dry density, \( \rho_{\text{app}} \). From experimental results on proximal femur samples, conversion from \( \rho_{\text{QCT}} \) to \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \) for combined cortical and trabecular developed by Keyak et al. (Refs. 10 to 11) is given by

\[
\rho_{\text{ash}} = 0.887\rho_{\text{QCT}} + 0.0633
\]  

(2)

The experiments did not include results of correlating \( \rho_{\text{app}} \) to \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \) prior to ashing for the proximal femur. However, an earlier work by Keyak et al. (Ref. 12) involving the proximal tibia trabecular region produced the relation

\[
\rho_{\text{app}} = 1.66\rho_{\text{ash}} + 0.00457
\]  

(3)

Similar experimental work by Schileo et al. (Ref. 13) using human femur specimens obtained the following regressions for trabecular specimens (4a), which was not significantly different from the regression line for cortical specimens (4b):

\[
\begin{align*}
\rho_{\text{app}} &= 1.64\rho_{\text{ash}} + 0.01 \\
\rho_{\text{app}} &= 1.58\rho_{\text{ash}} + 0.11
\end{align*}
\]  

(4a, 4b)

In addition to the experimentally derived regressions shown above, key experimental studies have been used to obtain relational estimates of true density and BVF. Experimental work from Keller (Ref. 14) computed \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \), \( \rho_{\text{app}} \), and ash fraction \( \alpha \) from 199 spine specimens and 297 femur specimens. Ash fraction values ranged from 0.174 to 0.662 with a mean spine value of 0.610 and a mean femur value of 0.583. Hernandez et al. (Ref. 15) concluded from that study that the ash fraction of unmineralized osteoid, \( \alpha = 0 \), and fully mineralized bone, \( \alpha = 0.7 \), covered most of the range of values observed in human bone. Using dry tissue densities of 1.41 g/cm\(^3\) for unmineralized osteoid and 2.31 g/cm\(^3\) for mineralized bone (Refs. 16 to 18), a linear approximation for true density through the points (0, 1.41 g/cm\(^3\)) and (0.7, 2.31 g/cm\(^3\)) was obtained:

\[
\rho_t \approx 1.41 + 1.29\alpha
\]  

(5)

This allowed BVF to be approximated as

\[
BVF = \frac{\rho_{\text{app}}}{\rho_t}
\]  

(6)
Another way to obtain BVF is to piece together the two volume fractions. $M$ can be obtained from the following definition. For a given segment or volume of bone, the ash density equals $M$ times the true dry density times the maximum ash fraction.

\[ \rho_{\text{ash}} = M \cdot 2.31 \cdot (\alpha_{\max}) \]  

\[ M = \frac{\rho_{\text{ash}}}{2.31 \cdot (\alpha_{\max})} \]  

(7a)  

(7b)

Then from the ratio $\alpha = \rho_{\text{ash}} / \rho_{\text{app}}$, $O$ can be solved for from the equation

\[ \alpha = \frac{M \cdot 2.31 \cdot (\alpha_{\max})}{M \cdot 2.31 + O \cdot 1.41} \]  

(8)

It is important to note that the value of $\alpha_{\max}$ is assumed to be near 0.7, according to the work of Hernandez et al. (Ref. 15), as most of that work, such as Equation (5), is based on the work of Keller (Ref. 14). The work of Schileo et al. (Ref. 13), however, revealed the $\rho_{\text{ash}} / \rho_{\text{app}}$ ratio to be fairly constant at a value of 0.6 in human femoral cortical bone. Additionally, their initial analysis showed that the average ratio for trabecular bone was lower, 0.46, with a greater variation, 0.34 to 0.62. Consequently, Schileo et al. extended their experimental study to include a set of trabecular specimens from the same femur that were smaller than those from the initial analysis. For the new specimen set, the average $\rho_{\text{ash}} / \rho_{\text{app}}$ ratio was found to be 0.6 with a range of 0.54 to 0.63 and did not differ statistically from that of the cortical specimens. Schileo et al. attributed the difference in ratio between the set of smaller specimens and the set of initial larger specimens with higher density trabecular bone to possible experimental error in the measurement of $\rho_{\text{app}}$. There could be an overestimation of $\rho_{\text{app}}$ in those larger, high-density specimen cases, as it is more difficult in the experimental process to assure complete removal of water and marrow from the cavities. However, it appeared that the ratio could be accurately measured in low-density trabecular specimens, independent of size. In fact, a 0.6 ratio was found for some low-density large trabecular specimens. Based on these findings, Schileo et al. rejected their initial hypothesis that the ratio decreases as tissue density increases, and $\alpha$ was assumed equal to 0.6 for the whole density range.\(^1\)

Conversion Methods

Outlines of the methods are given in terms of initialization of a computational model’s bone volume fraction, $\text{BVF}_0$ value from an initial $\text{vBMD}_0$ value. Simulated changes in $\text{BVF}$ can then be mapped back to $\text{vBMD}$. The first three steps (a, b, and c) are the same for each of the conversion methods.

Given a $\text{vBMD}$ value in terms of $\rho_{\text{QCT}}$ as measured by QCT,

a. Convert $\rho_{\text{QCT}}$ to $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ by Equation (2).

b. Compute $\rho_{\text{app}}$ by Equation (4).\(^2\)

c. Calculate initial ash fraction $\alpha = \frac{\rho_{\text{ash}}}{\rho_{\text{app}}}$.

\(^1\)A suggestion was made that this could explain the results reported by Hernandez et al. from the large dataset of Keller where a low ratio was reported for high-density trabecular bone.

\(^2\)There is little difference between Equations (2) and (4). Equation (4) was derived using data from femur specimens, which is the site of interest, whereas Equation (2) was derived using data from tibia specimens.
Method 1: Uses only the single volume fraction.

d. Estimate true tissue density \( \rho_t \) by Equation (5).
e. BVF is then given by

\[
BVF_1 = \frac{\rho_{app}}{\rho_t} \tag{9}
\]

In computational simulations, time-varying changes in \( BVF_1 \) can be converted back to time-varying changes in \( vBMD \) via changes in ash fraction, apparent density, and ash density. From Equation (9), substitute \( \rho_{ash}/\rho_{app} \) for ash fraction \( \alpha \) in the definition of \( \rho_t \) and rearrange to obtain

\[
BVF_1(t) \cdot (1.41 \cdot \rho_{app}(t) + 1.29 \cdot \rho_{ash}(t)) = (\rho_{app}(t))^2 \tag{10}
\]

Next, substitute for \( \rho_{ash} \) in terms of \( \rho_{app} \) from Equation (4) and solve the resulting quadratic for \( \rho_{app}(t) \). Time-varying changes in ash density \( \rho_{ash}(t) \) can then be obtained via Equation (4), followed by time-varying changes in \( vBMD(t) \) via Equation (2).

The following methods split \( BVF \) into \( M \) plus \( O \).

Method 2: Uses estimate of true density formula, Equations (5) and (6).

d. Obtain initial volume fraction \( M_0 \) from Equation (7b) using \( \alpha_{max} = 0.7 \).
e. Estimate initial true tissue density \( \rho_t \) by Equation (5) using initial \( \alpha_0 \).
f. Solve for initial osteoid volume fraction \( O_0 \) from Equation (6):

\[
\frac{\rho_{app}}{BVF_2} = \frac{M_0 \cdot (2.31) + O_0 \cdot (1.41)}{M_0 + O_0} = \rho_t \tag{11a}
\]

\[
O_0 = \left( \frac{2.31 - \rho_t}{\rho_t - 1.41} \right) \cdot M_0 \tag{11b}
\]

g. BVF is given by

\[
BVF_2 = M_0 + O_0. \tag{12}
\]

Time-varying changes \( BVF_2(t) = M(t) + O(t) \) can again be converted back to time-varying changes in \( vBMD \) from computational simulations of \( M(t) \) and \( O(t) \). From Equation (7a), obtain time-varying changes in \( \rho_{ash}(t) \) and then \( vBMD(t) \) via Equation (2).

Method 3: Uses definition of ash fraction, Equation (8) with \( \alpha_{max} = 0.7 \).

d. Obtain initial volume fraction, \( M_0 \), from Equation (7b).
e. Solve for \( O_0 \) from Equation (8) using \( \alpha \) from step c.

\[
O_0 = \frac{M_0 \cdot (2.31) \cdot (\alpha_{max} - \alpha_0)}{(1.41) \cdot \alpha_0} \tag{13}
\]

g. BVF is given by

\[
BVF_3 = M_0 + O_0 \tag{14}
\]
In this case, \( M_0 \) and \( O_0 \) are provided by the steps under Method 3. Time-varying changes in \( M(t) \) and \( O(t) \) can be used to track \( \alpha(t) \) via Equation (8). Then, time-varying changes in \( vBMD \) can be recovered by first obtaining \( \rho_{\text{ash}}(t) \) from Equation (7a) and then \( vBMD(t) \) via Equation (2).

Method 4: Uses definition of ash fraction, Equation (8) with \( \alpha_{\text{max}} = 1.0/1.64 \). This value of \( \alpha_{\text{max}} \) is obtained from the maximum value of the ratio

\[
\alpha = \frac{\rho_{\text{ash}}}{1.64\rho_{\text{ash}} + 0.01}
\]

as a function of \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \). The steps in Method 4 are the same as those in Method 3, resulting in

\[
BVF_4 = M_0 + O_0
\]

In this case, \( O_0 \) is calculated from Equation (13) with the smaller value of \( \alpha_{\text{max}} \).

**Validation of Bone Volume Fractions Obtained by Conversion**

To test if \( BVF \) values calculated by the conversion methods are within appropriate ranges that can be expected for healthy adults, the literature was searched for articles that reported \( BVF \) values for the proximal femur. A study by Tsangari et al. (Ref. 19) reported trabecular \( BVF \) values for the intertrochanteric region of the proximal femur for male and female adults aged 18 to 49. These results are summarized in Table I.

Two sets of trochanteric \( vBMD \) data were subjected to conversion via each method, as summarized in Table II. One set represents preflight \( vBMD \) data of the trochanteric region in 18 astronauts making ISS flights of 4 to 6 months (Ref. 20). The other set represents the pre-bed-rest \( vBMD \) of the trochanter region in 24 exercisers of a 70-day bed rest study, Countermeasures and Functional Testing in Bed Rest (CFT 70). QCT \( vBMD \) data was provided by the NASA Johnson Space Center Bone Lab through the NASA Life Sciences Data Archive.

Comparing the calculated \( BVF \) values to the experimental values presented in Table I, Methods 2 and 4 present an average and standard deviation for the CFT 70 bed rest group that is inside and toward the lower half of the range for both the male and female experimental averages and standard deviations. For the astronaut group, calculated \( BVF \) values for Methods 2 and 4 are close to the female experimental values in terms of average and standard deviation and are fairly centered inside the experimental range of values for males. The calculated values of Methods 1 and 3 for the astronaut group lay inside of the male experimental range in terms of average and standard deviation and are shifted toward the higher half.

**TABLE I.—EXPERIMENTAL VALUES FOR TRABECULAR BONE VOLUME FRACTION (BVF) FOR PROXIMAL FEMUR REPORTED IN REFERENCE 19**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Trabecular BVF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female n = 13</td>
<td>18 to 49</td>
<td>0.146±0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male n = 14</td>
<td>18 to 49</td>
<td>0.151±0.064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE II.—PREDICTED TRABECULAR BONE VOLUME FRACTION (BVF) VALUES FOR EACH METHOD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trabecular vBMD data source</th>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Calculated BVF values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Method 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFT* 70 bed rest study</td>
<td>24 to 42</td>
<td>0.145±0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 24</td>
<td>32±5.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lang et al. (Ref. 20)</td>
<td>44.6±4.0</td>
<td>0.151±0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Countermeasures and functional testing*
Since the standard deviations of the calculated $BVF$ values for each method are small, a clearer comparison between the calculated $BVF$ values of the methods and the experimental $BVF$ values can be made by observing the distribution of the individual $BVF$ values of the methods. These are illustrated in Figure 1 for the CFT 70 bed rest subjects and in Figure 2 for the astronauts.

This makes a much clearer evaluation of the methods. As shown in Figures 1 and 2, the distribution of the individual $BVF$ values falls within the male experimental range for all four methods. For the bed rest subjects, distributions of Methods 2 and 4 are shifted toward the lower end of the experimental ranges, with several values outside the lower end of the female experimental range, which explains the lower averages in Table II. However, as the bed rest subjects are all males, their $BVF$ values are all within the experimental range for the four methods.

![Figure 1](image1.png)

*Figure 1.—Distribution of bone volume fraction ($BVF$) values of individual bed rest subjects for Methods 1 to 4. The range of experimental values for females and males according to the average and standard deviation are shown below the horizontal scale of $BVF$ values.*

![Figure 2](image2.png)

*Figure 2.—Distribution of bone volume fraction ($BVF$) values of individual astronauts for Methods 1 to 4. The range of experimental values for females and males according to the average and standard deviation are shown below the horizontal scale of $BVF$ values.*
Compared with the distribution of BVF values of the bed rest subjects, the distribution of the BVF values of the astronauts is shifted toward the higher end of the experimental ranges for each method. This is reasonable, as the astronauts are a healthier group that undergoes strength conditioning and training prior to flight.

The same article that reports intertrochanteric BVF values (Ref. 19) also has mean O values. Compared with \( M \), this normally tends to be small. The reported values are on the order of \( 10^{-4} \) for females between 18 and 49 and \( 10^{-3} \) for males between 18 and 49. Table III shows the values of Methods 2 to 4 for the average astronaut \( \nu BMD \) of 0.148 g/cm\(^3\).

For the last set, the value of 0.60103 is obtained from Equation (15) by setting the value of \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \) to 1.2, which was usually the estimated top value of \( \rho_{\text{ash}} \) in Reference 12.

For consistency, modeling that uses the sum of mineralized and osteoid volume fractions should be the same or close to the values of the single volume fraction. To achieve that, Methods 2 and 4 can be adjusted.

For Method 2, consider the following alternative:

Method 2a:

d. Obtain initial volume fraction, \( M_0 \), from Equation (7b).

e. Set \( M_0 + O_0 = BVF_1 \) defined in Equation (9).

\[
O_0 = \frac{\rho_{\text{app}}}{\rho_t} - M_0
\]

\( (17) \)

g. \( BVF_{2a} = M_0 + O_0 \)

\( (18) \)

\( BVF_{2a} \) will then have the same values as \( BVF_1 \).

For Method 4, the results of the study by Schileo et al. (Ref. 13) for smaller trabecular specimens can be considered. In those cases, some variation in ash fraction up to 0.63 was observed. This suggests using an estimate of \( \alpha_{\text{max}} \) of about 0.63 to 0.65. So the following alternative for Method 4 is defined:

Method 4a:

d. Obtain initial volume fraction, \( M_0 \), from Equation (7b) with \( \alpha_{\text{max}} = 0.65 \).

\[
M = \frac{\rho_{\text{ash}}}{2.31 \cdot (0.65)}
\]

\( (19) \)

e. Solve for \( O_0 \) from Equation (8).

\[
O_0 = \frac{M_0 \cdot (2.31) \cdot (0.65 - \alpha_0)}{(1.41) \cdot \alpha_0}
\]

\( (20) \)

f. \( BVF_{4a} = M_0 + O_0 \)

\( (21) \)
For Method 4a, $BVF_{a} = 0.144 \pm 0.02$ for the bed rest subjects, which is similar to $BVF_1$ in Figure 1. For the astronauts, $BVF_{a} = 0.150 \pm 0.019$, which is similar to $BVF_1$ in Figure 2.

Alternately, Method 1 can be adjusted. Since the work of Keyak et al. and Schelio et al. suggests a relatively constant ash fraction value of 0.6, let $1/1.64 = 0.6097$ be an estimate of the maximum value of $\alpha_{\text{max}}$ from Equation (15) and replace Equation (5) with a line through (0, 1.41g/cm$^3$) and (0.6097, 2.31g/cm$^3$). This will result in an equation that will give a larger value of true density $\rho_t$ in Equation (9) and hence a smaller value of $BVF_1$. This will generate values of $BVF_1$ close to the values of Method 4.

Bone Volume Fraction From Microcomputed Tomography

A study by Tassani et al. (Ref. 21) to investigate whether tissue mineral density can be assumed a constant in adult human bone used microcomputed tomography (mCT) analysis. Ninety-six specimens from various lower limb sites (tibias and femurs) were extracted from two female cadavers. BVF was measured via mCT, and specimens were ashed to gravimetrically measure $\rho_{\text{ash}}$. Performance of a regression analysis between $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ and BVF for the pooled groups of trabecular and cortical specimens obtained the following relation:

$$\rho_{\text{ash}} = 1.18BVF_{\text{mct}} + 0.01$$  \hspace{1cm} (22a)

An intrasite analysis was performed on a second group of 19 trabecular specimens extracted from femoral heads of different donors. Performance of a regression analysis of $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ over BVF gave the relation

$$\rho_{\text{ash}} = 0.99BVF_{\text{mct}} + 0.04$$  \hspace{1cm} (22b)

If the data were to be used to obtain $BVF$ values directly from $\rho_{\text{ash}}$, one might solve for $BVF_{\text{mct}}$ in either equation to get a valid estimate. However, forming a regression of $BVF$ on $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ would not generally give the same equation. Unfortunately, the data was not available to perform the regression analysis that way. If Equation (22a) is reversed, values of $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ from Equation (2) generate values of $BVF_{\text{mct}} = 0.156 \pm 0.019$ for the astronaut’s $vBMD$ and $BVF_{\text{mct}} = 0.149 \pm 0.02$ for the bed rest subject’s $vBMD$. Values generated from the reverse of Equation (22b) and the reverse of the regression from the trabecular group of the original 96 specimens produced very similar results. These are average values similar to those values listed under Method 3 in Table II. It would be worthwhile to obtain the data from the study by Tassani et al. and perform a regression of $BVF$ on $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ to obtain the correct reverse of Equations (22a) or (22b), then substitute the values of $\rho_{\text{ash}}$ from Equation (2) into the reverse of Equation (22a) or (22b) and compare the results to the other methods. This would be the simplest and most direct method of conversion.

DAP Computational Bone Physiology Method

Currently the DAP model that predicts changes in $BVF$ uses conversion Method 2 for converting $vBMD$ into $BVF$ by combining $M$ and $O$. This early version of the conversion is based on knowledge available at the time of the work of Keyak et al. (Ref. 12) and Hernandez et al. (Ref. 15). This method was used in the validation analysis of the femoral neck model. At that time, the intention was to use a modulus formula developed by Hernandez et al. in the finite element model for bone that is coupled with the model’s bone physiology component. In the process of validating the model for the femoral neck, the modulus formula was changed to a formula by Keyak et al. (Ref. 11). Further literature research yielded additional knowledge of the other cited work. This, along with continuing mathematical research into other conversion possibilities, and prompted by a desire to extend the model to the full proximal femur, led to consideration of the other methods. As a result, researchers plan to modify the code to use Method
4 for consistency, as it makes use of the Keyak and Schileo ash fraction values of about 0.6. Method 4 appears to validate $O$ values better, as indicated by Table III. Also planned is completion of an updated, shorter simulation in which BVF changes are not split into $M$ and $O$.

Conclusions

The methods outlined here for converting bone mineral density (BMD) derived via quantitative computed tomography (QCT) to an approximated bone volume fraction (BVF) in trabecular bone of the proximal femur are based on multiple experimental studies, correlation relations derived from those studies, and definitions of bone properties. The best way to validate the methods would be to apply the conversion methods to the BMD values of the subjects used to obtain the experimental ranges of BVF values, but that data is unavailable. Although the BVF values predicted by the methods differ, they all fall within a range of experimental values for the intertrochanteric region. Judgment of the methods was thus limited to how well the distribution of BVF values obtained from pre-bed-rest BMD of 24 subjects and preflight BMD of 18 astronauts covers the experimental range. The need for Digital Astronaut Project model changes in BVF derived by Method 1 to be consistent with changes in BVF derived by methods that combine $M$ and $O$, such as Methods 2, 3, and 4, was also considered. Ultimately, with any method, the interest will be in validation of the computational model. That involves an analysis of how well the computational model’s resulting changes in vBMD compare with experimental changes in vBMD.
Appendix—Definitions

- Apparent density—Weight of bone tissue divided by total volume of segment or specimen
- Real density—Weight of bone tissue divided by total volume of bone tissue (real volume)
  - Can be referred to as true density
  - Compact bone approximately constant—1.9 kg/cm³ (Ref. 22)
- Volumetric bone mineral density (vBMD)—Bone mineral content divided by total volume of bone segment. Measure of bone density reflecting strength of bones as represented by calcium content
- Ash density (apparent)—Ratio between ash weight and volume of sample of bone segment or specimen
- Bone volume fraction (BVF)—Volume of bone tissue divided by total volume of bone segment
  - Bone volume includes internal pores like lacunae and canaliculi.
  - Trabecular bone may have BVF ranging from just over 5 percent to a maximum of 60 percent.
- Ash fraction—Ashed mass of a bone sample divided by the dry mass of the same sample
  - Sometimes referred to as percent mineralization
  - Considered a standard for determining amount of mineralization
  - Has been used to estimate bone material properties such as elastic modulus (Ref. 14)
  - Calculation requires destructively ashing the specimen
  - The mathematical expression of the ratio can vary, although the expressions have the same meaning:
    
    \[
    \text{ash fraction} = \frac{\text{ash mass}}{\text{dry mass}} = \frac{\text{inorganic mass (mass of Ca hydroxyapatite)}}{\text{inorganic mass + organic mass}} = \frac{\text{mineralized mass}}{\text{mineralized mass + unmineralized mass}}
    \]
References
