Research Paper

A constitutive description of the anisotropic response of the fascia lata

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Abstract

In this paper we propose a constitutive model to analyze in-plane extension of goat fascia lata. We first perform a histological analysis of the fascia that shows a well-organized bi-layered arrangement of undulated collagen fascicles oriented along two well defined directions. To develop a model consistent with the tissue structure we identify the absolute and relative thickness of each layer and the orientation of the preferred directions. New data are presented showing the mechanical response in uniaxial and planar biaxial extension. The paper proposes a constitutive relation to describe the mechanical response. We provide a summary of the main ingredients of the nonlinear theory of elasticity and introduce a suitable strain-energy function to describe the anisotropic response of the fascia. We validate the model by showing good fit of the numerical results and the experimental data. Comments are included about differences and analogies between goat fascia lata and the human iliotibial band.

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1. Introduction

A detailed description of the human fascial system is given by Stecco et al. (2011). They specify that from all connective tissue of the body only those characterized by well-defined fibrous layers are correctly called 'fascia'. Stecco et al. (2011) differentiate between three fundamental fibrous connective layers: (i) the superficial fascia, (ii) the deep fascia and (iii) the epimysium. We refer to Stecco et al. (2011) and to the cited references for a complete list of functional details.

Deep fascia encloses many muscles and connects them to each other and to bones. There is growing evidence that fascia can influence limb stability, force transmission, and elastic energy storage during locomotion (Bennett, 1989; Garfin et al., 1981; Maas and Huijing, 2005; Maas et al., 2005a, 2005b). However, quantifying the role of fascia during active movement presents challenges. First, its sheet-like structure contains multiple layers of well-organized collagen fibers making the tissue highly anisotropic. These are interconnected by a surrounding matrix that contains disorganized collagen fibers. Second, deep fascia has multiple connections to muscles and bones that generate complex non-homogeneous states of strain. The complex structure and loading environment of fascia may help explain why many current musculoskeletal...
models ignore its role in simulations of muscle function (see Lee et al., 2010; Tang et al., 2009). In an effort to address this deficiency, we describe here the mechanical properties of an example of a deep fascial structure, the fascia lata in the goat hindlimb, using structurally driven assumptions to capture and reproduce its anisotropic response measured during strain-controlled uniaxial and biaxial tension tests.

Our results have implications for modeling the function of the human iliotibial band (ITB), which is a thickening of the lateral portion of the fascia lata in humans (Gray et al., 1995; Birnbaum et al., 2004). The ITB’s role in human locomotion is not well understood, in part because it is difficult to experimentally test ITB function. For example, age dependent mechanical properties of the iliotibial band were investigated by Butler et al. (1984) and Steinke et al. (2012). These authors report Young’s modulus and ultimate stress of specimens characterized by one set of parallel fibers oriented in the longitudinal direction of the ITB. The data are limited to simple tension, i.e. the properties in the transverse direction were not investigated. Steinke et al. (2012) emphasize the importance of accurate material properties in a numerical simulation of ligaments and acknowledge the difficulty in obtaining reliable data due to the non-parallel fiber alignment within the tissue. In this paper, in order to better understand the nonlinear behavior of connective tissues and to provide accurate data of the mechanical response, we focus on planar biaxial tension can generate deformations that more closely resemble the in vivo state of strain compared to uniaxial tension.

While authors agree that fascia is a multi-layered collagenous tissue, descriptions of fascia lata’s structure vary because of its layered arrangement and, possibly, because of variation between different species in which it has been studied. For example, Butler et al. (1984) described human fascia lata as a bi-layered tissue with weak interaction between layers. Based on analysis of fascia lata from a number of different mammals, Bennett (1989) distinguished three distinct layers: a thin outermost layer rich in randomly oriented collagen fibers and two inner layers each containing parallel fascicles of collagen fibers oriented along a clear direction. Bennett (1989) reported that the two families of fibers each contained in one of the layers, enclose an angle of 70°–85°. More recently, Stecco et al. (2009) proposed that deep fascia has either completely independent layers or some regions within layers that are loosely connected by bundles of collagen fibers present in low quantities. These varied descriptions of fascial structure highlight the importance of combining tissue-specific structural investigations and accurate experimental data to formulate a constitutive model.

Constitutive models (mathematical models of material behavior) of biological tissues have improved over the years by making justified revisions based on the structure of the

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**Fig. 1** Image (a) shows the location of fascia lata and major muscle groups in hindlimbs of adult goats (Bennett, 1989, reproduced with permission of the copyright owner, Wiley, UK). Image (b), light microscopy, is used to determine the structural arrangement of the preferred directions. From the analysis of multiple samples we found that the angle between the longitudinally and transversely oriented collagen fibers is between 67° and 80°.
material. Initially, published phenomenological models of biological tissues focused on isotropic symmetry (Demiray, 1972; Fung, 1967; Haut and Little, 1972; Jenkins and Little, 1974; Veronda and Westmann, 1970). These formulations can properly replicate uniaxial data of biological tissues rich in collagen fibers, however, the isotropic symmetry assumption is questionable since it is inconsistent with the structure and mechanical response of the material. More recently, greater focus has been placed on evaluating structural characteristics of collagen-rich biological tissues in relation to the material anisotropic response and in merging the findings to develop new constitutive descriptions (Lanir, 1983; Lin et al., 2009; Natali et al., 2010; Sacks and Sun, 2003). A comprehensive review of different constitutive formulations that use exponential, polynomial and logarithmic forms of strain energy functions to describe anisotropy within the tissue is given by Holzapfel et al. (2000).

In the present study we develop a constitutive model of goat fascia lata, which assumes nonlinear elasticity and anisotropy. Our approach investigates the structure of fascia lata in goats containing highly oriented fascicles of collagen fibers that are confined within two well-defined layers. In one layer, the fibers run longitudinally from the tensor fascia lata proximally and connecting distally to the patella and crural fascia. The second, transverse layer contains fibers that span the tissue in an approximately anterior–posterior direction, connecting with the gluteobiceps muscle (see Fig. 1). We develop the model to be consistent with the tissue structure after identifying the number, arrangement, and absolute and relative thickness of individual layers. The tissue response is measured via strain-controlled biaxial testing, enabling us to capture its general behavior that results from the two primary families of fibers that are not mechanically equivalent or orthogonal. With this procedure we overcome previous limitations that focused on replicating only uniaxial experimental data of the tissue analytically and which did not properly account for the presence of more than one family of fibers. The different loading conditions we apply here are required to obtain model parameters that are representative of the tissue behavior for a wider range of deformations. A more accurate constitutive model of fascia can be incorporated into musculoskeletal simulations and used to better understand the interaction between muscle and fascia during locomotion.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the methods to characterize the tissue structure and the experimental procedure used to determine the stress-deformation response in vitro. Section 3 presents the images and parameters extracted from the structural characterization along with the stress-deformation response. Section 4 introduces the notation necessary to describe the kinematics with the appropriate stress and strain tensors along with their associated invariants. The hyperelastic constitutive model is developed in Section 5 and the corresponding numerical results are compared to data. Concluding remarks are provided in Section 6. In the Appendix, for completeness, we show representative data of preconditioning.

2. Experimental methods

All experiments performed in this study met Harvard University and Tufts University IACUC guidelines. Fascia lata was dissected from the hindlimbs of six adult goats (Capra hircus) shortly after death and then wrapped in cotton gauze soaked with 1 × phosphate buffered saline (PBS), see Table 1. Samples were maintained at 4°C prior to mechanical testing, which was completed within 48 h postmortem.

2.1. Tissue imaging and histological investigation

Digital microscopic images of fascia lata samples from three goats were used to measure the angle enclosed by the longitudinal and transverse fascicles in their respective layers. The angle is defined from the contrast created by the edges of the parallel fiber bundles in each layer when imaged using an inverted light microscope (Fig. 1b). After image acquisition, all analysis and measurements were performed with ImageJ (NIH).

Four small strips of tissue approximately 10 mm × 15 mm were excised and fixed in 3.65% formaldehyde solution before being embedded in paraffin. For the histological analysis we prepared 5 μm thick sections from each strip of material taken at four locations along their length. Two sets of sections were prepared. The first set was obtained by cutting the tissue along a plane perpendicular to the longitudinal fiber direction, the second by cutting a different sample perpendicular to the transverse fiber direction. For consistency, a light microscope was used to identify the fiber directions prior to paraffin embedding. Sectioned samples were mounted on slides and stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) to obtain an overall inclusive image of the tissue sample, and Masson’s trichrome to stain collagen fibers and

| Table 1 – Total sample population included in this study. |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Animal # | Samples for uniaxial tension | | Samples for biaxial tension |  |
| | | In longitudinal fiber direction | In transverse fiber direction | Longitudinal fibers aligned with 2-axis | Transverse fibers aligned with 2-axis |
| | | | |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| 3 | 1 | | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | 1 | | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| 6 | 1 | | 2 | 1 |
| Total | 6 | 6 | 8 | 10 |
tissue matrix. Slides were examined at 50× using a Zeiss Axiovert 40 CFL inverted microscope with standard dichromic mirrors.

The digital image collection of the slides was performed with integrated QCapture Pro software (QImaging, Surrey, BC, Canada). First, a global calibration scale was applied by imaging a stage micrometer. Next, images captured using the same length scale were analyzed to determine the thickness of each layer and the cross sectional area ratio of longitudinal to transverse fascicles. A threshold was set prior to conversion into binary mode such that only the collagen fascicles were visible. Images were converted to an 8-bit grayscale format to differentiate the mature fiber fascicle from the loose collagen ground matrix surrounding them. The cross sectional area of each bundle was then extracted and individually identified as longitudinal or transverse prior to summation to calculate the total cross sectional area of the bundles in each layer.

### 2.2. Sample preparation for mechanical testing

Using a custom made cruciform die cutter, samples were obtained from the fascia lata of each goat, see Table 1. The two arm pairs of the die cutting tool have a width of 12 mm each and measure 62 mm from end to end, see Fig. 2a. The gage region is precluded by the 12 mm × 12 mm square area in the center of the cruciform where four physical gage marks were attached with Loctite 4013 medical device adhesive. The marks were used by the machine for measuring deformation and controlling strain rate. Prior to testing, the terminal parts of the sample ends were wrapped with 800 grit sand paper and securely clamped in custom designed grips. Fine sand paper reduces the risk of slip and optimizes distribution of the clamping pressure across the specimen arm to decrease the risk of localized damage. Different methods to avoid slippage at the grip-specimen interface are discussed by Gratz (1931) and Hammer et al. (2012). Hammer et al. (2012) recommend plastination of the terminal regions of the specimen using a curable resin that is subsequently hardened.

Although the same die was used to cut all cruciform samples, some variations in the final shape occur due to the slippery texture of the tissue in the hydrated state. An image of the sample from the video extensometer was recorded before testing and used later to calculate the cross sectional area (Fig. 2a). Similarly, the constant strain rate in all samples was ensured by imposing a deformation speed that was proportional to the distance between opposing marks measured by the video extensometer in the reference configuration. The average thickness of the gage region of each sample was measured using a contact micrometer (Mitutoyo Corp.) with a resolution of ±0.01 mm. In addition to the cruciform specimens, longitudinally and transversely oriented rectangular strips of fascia lata were cut for uniaxial tension tests.

To outline the test sequence and data evaluation, two mutually orthogonal in-plane directions were defined with the convention that the loading direction and one family of fibers coincided with the 2-axis of the cruciform sample (Fig. 2b). The sketch in Fig. 2b shows that one of the fiber directions does not coincide with the directions of the applied load. This condition has important implications in material modeling (Holzapfel and Ogden, 2009).

Table 1 provides an overview of the number of specimens obtained from each animal for uniaxial and biaxial testing. The table specifies the loading direction for uniaxial tension and the fiber orientations relative to the in-plane coordinate system for biaxial extension. Samples for biaxial loading were cut such that the longitudinal or the transverse oriented fibers closely aligned with one of the axes of the cutting die (2-axis). The table also shows the total number of samples used for the uniaxial and biaxial characterization tests.

### 2.3. Mechanical testing

All mechanical testing was performed using a custom built Zwick/Roell planar biaxial testing machine. The machine controls the specimen’s strain measured in real time to within a tolerance of 0.25% by independently modulating...
the applied load at each actuator drive. Details and layout of the equipment are given in Pancheri and Dorfmann (in press).

To assess the mechanical properties of fascia lata in biaxial tension we programmed the equipment to perform two series of tests where a new sample was used at the start of each series. The applied maximum stretch levels were designed to generate a strain field in the tissue sample that nears but is below its damage point. The longitudinally oriented collagen fibers of fascia lata coincide with the loading-unloading direction (2-axis) in the first series. During the second series, the fibers that span transversely across the tissue were aligned with the loading direction. The reference configuration was determined at the beginning of each testing sequence by the position of the physical gage marks when a 0.08 N preload was detected by all four load cells. This value was the minimum to assure the samples maintain the horizontal position prior to immersion in the water bath and was critical to ensure the same initial conditions for all tests. Testing was conducted with samples immersed in a constant temperature bath at 39 °C, controlled by an autoregulated circulator (Ecoline Type RE 104; LAUDA Königshofen, Germany). A quasi-static strain rate of 0.0015 s⁻¹ was applied throughout all tests. Each test series contained a sequence of four biaxial loading routines, with each routine followed by a 180 s rest period. Upon completion of each sequence the sample was always returned to the initial reference configuration. The test series was as follows:

- Starting from the reference configuration, with \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) held constant, the specimen was subjected to five loading-unloading cycles in the 2-direction with maximum extension \( \lambda_2 = 1.04 \).
- After the rest period, with \( \lambda_2 = 1 \), the specimen was first stretched to \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \). Then, with \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) held constant, the specimen was subjected to five loading-unloading cycles with maximum stretch \( \lambda_2 = 1.04 \).
- Again, after the rest period, with \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) held constant, the specimen was then subjected to five loading-unloading cycles with maximum extension \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \).
- Once more, after the rest period, \( \lambda_1 \) was increased to 1.03 and kept constant, the specimen was subjected to five loading-unloading cycles with maximum stretch \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \).

To determine the values of the parameters of the constitutive model we averaged the biaxial extension data corresponding to the loading phase of the last cycle of each sequence. Averaging the response of samples from different animals reduces intersample variations and makes the model parameters representative of the tissue rather than individual samples.

The rectangular specimens used to determine the mechanical response in uniaxial tension underwent a single extension to rupture, which defines material failure. The corresponding load is used to calculate the stress at failure. Six samples collected from 5 goats were stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented collagen fibers. Six additional samples from 3 of the goats were subjected to simple tension in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers, see Table 1. Similar to the cruciform samples, using stretch as the independent variable, the uniaxial tension data were averaged to characterize the tissue response in the longitudinal and transverse directions.

### 3. Experimental results

The value of the opening angle between the longitudinal and transverse fiber directions is determined to be between 67° and 80°, see Fig. 1.

![Fig. 3 – (a) The well-organized structure of fascia lata contains many interspersed fibroblasts (H&E stain 400 x magnification). (b) The fascicles of Type I collagen contain undulated collagen fibers (Masson’s Trichrome stain 400 x magnification).](image)

![Fig. 4 – Histological sections of the tissue at 50 x magnification. Image (a) shows a section that is obtained by cutting fascia lata perpendicular to the transverse fiber direction, image (b) by cutting the tissue perpendicular to the longitudinal fibers.](image)
3.1. Histology

Histological sections show that the fascia lata has a well-organized structure comprised of highly oriented collagen fascicles with interspersed fibroblasts and fibrocytes, see Fig. 3a. Undulated fibers of mature Type I collagen form the bundles, see Fig. 3b (Masson’s Trichrome). The undulated configuration represents the native (in vivo) state as shown by, for example, Hill et al. (2012).

The structure of fascia lata is bi-layered, with the proteoglycan (ground) matrix connecting the layers and enveloping all fascicles. Although collagen is present in the matrix, it is less organized and thus likely allows for some degree of motion between individual fascicles and between the two layers of tissue. Fig. 4a shows a section obtained by cutting fascia lata perpendicular to the transverse fiber direction, Fig. 4b shows a section obtained by cutting the tissue perpendicular to the longitudinal fibers. The arrangement of longitudinally and transversely oriented fascicles is distinctly different. One layer contains the transversely oriented fibers which are grouped in a single row of fascicles; the other layer contains the longitudinally oriented fibers. Histology slides show that the cross sectional area of fascicles in the

![Graph](image-url)
longitudinal direction are generally larger in size than those of the transverse. In some regions, one large fascicle spans the entire thickness of the longitudinal layer; in others, two or even three of lesser diameter are present across its thickness. For the samples investigated, the thickness of the longitudinally and transversely oriented fiber layers is $246.4 \pm 42.8 \mu m$ (mean $\pm$ S.D.) and $61.3 \pm 8.7 \mu m$, respectively. Using images captured from slides at the same length scale, we find that the total cross sectional area ratio of longitudinal to transverse fascicles is between 3.6 and 5.7. A more detailed evaluation involving a wider range of samples is provided by Eng et al. (submitted for publication).

3.2. Mechanical characterization

3.2.1. Simple tension

Specimens subject to simple tension reach maximum stress when $\lambda$ is between 1.1 and 1.18. The Cauchy stress at failure is $38.4 \pm 10.3 MPa$ (mean $\pm$ S.D.) in the longitudinal direction and $8.6 \pm 2.9 MPa$ in the transverse direction. Since the model parameters are obtained from the biaxial data following the procedure outlined in Section 2.3, for ease of comparison we restrict representation of the uniaxial stress-deformation response to $\lambda = 1.08$ (see Fig. 5). The uniaxial tension data are averaged and are shown by the filled circles in Fig. 5 as Cauchy stress versus stretch. The vertical bars report the standard deviation, which is an important index of the variability of data. Recall that a total of 12 samples were tested, 6 in the longitudinal and 6 in the transverse fiber direction, see Table 1. The data clearly show that the mechanical response of specimens stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers is stiffer compared to the response of samples stretched in the direction of the fibers that span transversely across fascia lata. The solid lines in Fig. 5 represent the numerical results of the constitutive model and will be discussed in Section 5.1. The data show an exponential increase in stress up to an elongation of approximately $\lambda = 1.06$ at which point permanent damage occurs in the material.

The uniaxial stress-deformation response of goat fascia lata in the direction of longitudinally oriented fibers can be compared to data of the human iliotibial band. In Fig. 5 we show a maximum elastic elongation $\lambda = 1.06$ corresponding to a stress of 9 MPa. Gratz (1931) defines the maximum allowable stress for human fascia lata as 14.5 MPa corresponding to a stretch of 1.035. In uniaxial tension we found maximum elongations between 1.1 and 1.18, which are comparable to $\lambda = 1.1$ given by Gratz (1931). Note that the value in Gratz (1931) is obtained during the third loading cycle, while we

Fig. 7 – (a) and (c) depict the initial response of a preconditioned sample during extension in the 1-direction to a pre-selected value $\lambda_1$ with $\lambda_2 = 1$ constant. Then, with $\lambda_1$ held constant, the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading–unloading in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers (2-direction) with maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.06$. Graphs in (b) and (d) show the last of five cycles. Stress values are given in MPa.
performed a single extension to rupture. Hammer et al. (2012) performed uniaxial tension tests on 38 specimens from 12 iliotibial tracts of 10 young donors (mean age 31.2 ± 9.1 years). The mean value of the ultimate stress reported is 35.8 ± 16.4 MPa, which is identical to the value reported here (38.4 ± 10.3 MPa). Recall that the value of the ultimate stress determined by Gratz (1931) is 54 MPa.

3.2.2. Biaxial tension

In this section we present representative results of the stress-deformation response of a longitudinal and a transversely oriented sample based on the protocol in Section 2.3. A detailed analysis of fascia lata biaxial material properties and their influence of goat fascia lata function is provided by Eng et al. (submitted for publication).

Figs. 6 and 7 show the response of a specimen in which the longitudinally oriented fibers of fascia lata coincide with the 2-axis. Specifically, the figures display the Cauchy stress in the 2-direction as a function of stretch for two different but constant extensions in the 1-direction, see Fig. 2b for the orientation of the coordinate axes. Similarly, Figs. 8 and 9 present load-deformation results in biaxial tension using an experimental setup where transversely oriented fibers of fascia lata coincide with the 2-axis. In all cases we performed five loading-unloading cycles in the 2-direction to precondition the material as outlined in Section 2.3. In this section, for clarity only the last cycle is shown.

Images (a) and (c), in Figs. 6–9 depict the response during initial extension in the 1-direction to a pre-selected value $\lambda_1$ with $\lambda_2 = 1$ constant. Now, with $\lambda_1$ held constant, the specimen is subjected to loading-unloading cycles in the 2-direction with maximum values of $\lambda_2 = 1.04$ and $\lambda_2 = 1.06$. The images denoted (a) and (b) in Fig. 6 depict the stress-stretch responses of the loading-unloading sequence in the 2-direction with maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.04$ and with no deformation in the 1-direction ($\lambda_1 = 1$). The data show that during loading-unloading the value of $\sigma_1$ changes to keep the stretch in the 1-direction constant. The images (c) and (d) show the loading-unloading in the 2-direction with the same maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.04$, but $\lambda_1$ now increased to 1.03. The same specimen, after a resting time of 180 s, was subject to additional characterization tests. The additional sequence was identical to the one shown in Fig. 6, except that the maximum extension in the 2-direction was increased from $\lambda_2 = 1.04$ to $\lambda_2 = 1.06$. The corresponding results are shown in Fig. 7.

Fig. 8 – Graphs in (a) and (c) depict the initial response of a preconditioned sample during extension in the 1-direction to a pre-selected value $\lambda_1$ with $\lambda_2 = 1$ constant. Then, with $\lambda_1$ held constant, the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading-unloading in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers (2-direction) with maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.04$. Graphs in (b) and (d) show the last of five cycles. Stress values are given in MPa.
The biaxial sequence was then used to determine the stress–stretch response of a different specimen, in which fibers that transversely span the fascia lata were aligned with the loading–unloading direction (see Fig. 2b). The results corresponding to the fifth loading-unloading cycle in the 2-direction, with maximum stretches of 1.04 and 1.06, are shown in Figs. 8 and 9. The extension in the 1-direction was again held constant at values of $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_1 = 1.03$.

Fascia lata is much stiffer in the longitudinal direction compared to the transverse direction. This difference can be seen in Figs. 6 and 8 by comparing values of the Cauchy stress $s_2$ during cyclic loading as represented in the images (b) and (d) (note the change in scale from Figs. 6-8). The same observation applies to the Cauchy stress $s_2$ in Figs. 7 and 9 as shown in (b) and (d).

The Cauchy stress $s_2$ during cyclic loading in the images (b) and (d) in Figs. 6 and 7 also shows that stretching fascia lata in the transverse direction does have a negligible effect on its response in the longitudinal direction. This differs from the results given in Figs. 8 and 9, in which Cauchy stress $s_2$ during cyclic loading in the transverse direction was affected more by the different amounts of stretch applied in the 1-direction. Further, the graphs in image (d) show that the stress required to maintain the stretch of 1.03 constant in the 1-direction is much higher than the stress required to cycle the tissue in the 2-direction. The biaxial response of the two samples highlights the observed mechanical anisotropy of fascia lata to an extent not captured through uniaxial tests alone. The tissue structure results are consistent with the biaxial response, in which the thicker collagen fiber layer in the longitudinal direction reinforces the tissue to withstand higher loads.

In the Appendix, for completeness, we show representative data of preconditioning. Specifically, Figs. 13 and 14 show the mechanical response of two samples from the same animal (#3) when the loading–unloading direction coincides with the longitudinally oriented fibers. In both figures, images (a) and (c) show the stress–stretch data during cyclic loading in 2-direction with maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.06$. Graphs in (b) and (d) show the last of five cycles. Stress values are given in MPa.

**Fig. 9** – Graphs in (a) and (c) depict the initial response of a preconditioned sample during extension in the 1-direction to a pre-selected value $\lambda_1$ with $\lambda_2 = 1$ constant. Then, with $\lambda_1$ held constant, the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading–unloading in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers (2-direction) with maximum stretch $\lambda_2 = 1.06$. Graphs in (b) and (d) show the last of five cycles. Stress values are given in MPa.
response of two samples, obtained from animal #2, when the loading-unloading direction (2-direction) coincides with the transversely oriented fibers.

4. Constitutive modeling

The objective is to propose a constitutive model that accounts for the observed material behavior. We focus on the quasi-static response and consider the material properties and deformation to be independent of time. In this section we define the notation necessary to describe the kinematics, summarize appropriate strain and stress tensors along with the associated invariants. For a more general representation of the theory we refer to, for example, Holzapfel (2001) and Ogden (1997).

The images of the tissue structure in Section 3.1 show that goat fascia lata consists of two distinct layers of different thicknesses containing fibers that are oriented along two non-orthogonal directions and are surrounded by a matrix containing collagen fibers of random arrangement. Therefore, not surprisingly, the measured planar biaxial response is highly anisotropic. Moreover, the response in the direction of the two fibers is not mechanically equivalent. Also, the initial loading and subsequent unloading stress–stretch response curves do not coincide, indicating dissipation of energy. The strain rate dependency of biological tissue has a minor influence on the stress-deformation response, see data in Haut and Little (1972) and Dorfmann et al. (2008). Therefore, following the assumption made by Jor et al. (2013b) we neglect viscoelastic effects. In the theory that follows, the material is considered anisotropic and nonlinearly elastic.

4.1. Basic equations

To describe the deformation of a deformable body we select an arbitrary chosen configuration as a reference, which we denote $B_0$, and identify a generic material point by its position vector $\mathbf{X}$ relative to some origin. Application of mechanical forces deforms the body, so that the point $\mathbf{X}$ occupies the new position $\mathbf{x}=\chi(\mathbf{X})$ in the deformed configuration $B$. The vector field $\chi$ describes the deformation of the body and assigns to each point $\mathbf{X}$ a unique position $\mathbf{x}$ in $B$ and vice versa attributes a unique reference position $\mathbf{X}$ in $B_0$ to each point $\mathbf{x}$. The deformation gradient tensor $\mathbf{F}$ relative to $B_0$ is defined by

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \chi,$$

with $\nabla$ being the gradient operator with respect to $\mathbf{X}$. The Cartesian components of $\mathbf{F}$ are $F_{ij} = \partial x_i / \partial X_j$, where $x_i$ and $X_j$ are the components of $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{X}$, respectively, with $i,j \in \{1,2,3\}$. We also adopt the standard notation $J = \det \mathbf{F}$, with the convention $J > 0$.

The deformation referred to as planar extension is defined by the equations:

$$x_1 = F_{11} x_1 + F_{12} x_2, \quad x_2 = F_{21} x_2 + F_{22} x_1, \quad x_3 = F_{33} x_3,$$

where $F_{33}$ is the stretch in the out of plane direction, which we denote by $\lambda_3$ (Holzapfel and Ogden, 2009). From these expressions we find that the components of the deformation gradient $\mathbf{F}$, referred to the two sets of Cartesian coordinate axes, are represented by the matrix $\mathbf{F}$, which is given by

$$\mathbf{F} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{11} & F_{12} & 0 \\ F_{21} & F_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & F_{33} \end{bmatrix}. \tag{2}$$

The resulting left and right Cauchy–Green deformation tensors are given by $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F} \mathbf{F}^T$, respectively.

The theory of hyperelasticity characterizes the elastic response of a body by a strain energy function $W$ defined per unit volume in the reference configuration $B_0$. For a homogeneous material $W$ depends only on the deformation gradient $\mathbf{F}$ and we write $W = W(\mathbf{F})$. In this paper we restrict attention to incompressible materials, subject to the constraint $J = \det \mathbf{F} = 1$. The nominal stress tensor $\mathbf{S}$ and the symmetric Cauchy stress tensor $\sigma$ are then given, respectively, by

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{\partial W}{\partial \mathbf{F}} - p \mathbf{F}^{-1}, \quad \sigma = \frac{\partial W}{\partial \mathbf{F}} - p \mathbf{I}, \tag{3}$$

where $p$ is an arbitrary hydrostatic pressure. Eq. (3) shows that for an incompressible material, the Cauchy stress $\sigma$ and the nominal stress $\mathbf{S}$ are related by $\sigma = \mathbf{FS}$.

We introduce unit vectors $\mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{M}'$ to denote the two preferred directions of an anisotropic material in the reference configuration $B_0$ and, following the work by Spencer (1971) and Ogden (2001) define the structural tensors $\mathbf{M} \otimes \mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{M}' \otimes \mathbf{M}'$. The material considered here is said to be isotropic if $W$ is an isotropic function of the three tensors $\mathbf{F}$, $\mathbf{M} \otimes \mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{M}' \otimes \mathbf{M}'$. Then, the form of $W$ is reduced to the dependence on the principal invariants $I_1, I_2, I_3$ of $\mathbf{C}$, which are defined by

$$I_1 = tr \mathbf{C}, \quad I_2 = \frac{1}{2}[I_1^2 - tr(\mathbf{C}^2)], \quad I_3 = \det \mathbf{C} = J^2, \tag{4}$$

together with five invariants that depend on $\mathbf{M}$ and $\mathbf{M}'$. These are calculated as

$$I_4 = \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{CM}), \quad I_5 = \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{C'M}), \quad I_6 = \mathbf{M}' \cdot (\mathbf{CM}), \quad I_7 = \mathbf{M}' \cdot (\mathbf{C'M}), \tag{5}$$

with the remaining invariant $I_8$ a function of both fiber directions:

$$I_8 = \mathbf{M} \cdot (\mathbf{CM'}). \tag{6}$$

For an incompressible anisotropic material the symmetric Cauchy stress tensor is obtained from Eq. (3) and has the explicit form:

$$\sigma = 2W/\mathbf{B} + 2W/\mathbf{B}'(I_1 \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{B}'') + 2W/\mathbf{m} \otimes \mathbf{m} + 2W/\mathbf{m}' \otimes \mathbf{m}' + 2W/\mathbf{m} \otimes \mathbf{m}' + 2W/\mathbf{m}' \otimes \mathbf{m} \otimes \mathbf{m}' - p\mathbf{I}, \tag{7}$$

where $\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{FM}$, $\mathbf{m}' = \mathbf{FM}'$ and the notation $W_i = \partial W/\partial I_i$ applies for $i = 1, 2, 4, ..., 8$ with no dependency on $I_3$.

The strain energy of materials with preferred directions is, in general, written as the sum of two contributions, one associated with the isotropic properties of the base matrix and the second with the anisotropy being generated by the embedded fibers. For an incompressible material we have

$$W = W_{iso}(I_1, I_2) + W_{fib}(I_4, I_5, I_6, I_7, I_8), \tag{8}$$

where the term $W_{iso}$ represents the isotropic matrix and $W_{fib}$ accounts for the directional reinforcements (Dorfmann et al., 2007, 2008; Holzapfel et al., 2000; Horgan and Saccomandi, 2005;
Merodio and Ogden, 2005; Qiu and Pence, 1997). Based on the structure of fascia lata outlined in Section 3.1 and following the simplification suggested by Holzapfel et al. (2000), we reduce the number of invariants and consider the form:

\[ W = W_{\text{iso}}(I_1) + W_{\text{fib}}(I_4, I_6), \]  

(9)

which still provides sufficient flexibility to capture the mechanical response of fascia lata. The use of the reduced formulation (9) allows to write the Cauchy stress (7) as

\[ \sigma = 2W_1B + 2W_4m \otimes m + 2W_6m' \otimes m' - pI. \]  

(10)

5. A specific material model

The disorganized collagen matrix that connects the inner and outer layers of fascia lata and envelops all fascicles is considered isotropic. We therefore propose the exponential strain energy function due to Demiray (1972) to model the mechanical properties. It has the form:

\[ W_{\text{iso}} = \frac{\mu_{\text{iso}}}{2\alpha} \left\{ \exp[\alpha (I_1 - 3)] - 1 \right\}, \]  

(11)

where \( \mu_{\text{iso}} \) denotes the shear stiffness of the matrix and \( \alpha \) is a dimensionless material parameter. The anisotropic character of the tissue is described by

\[ W_{\text{fib}} = \frac{\mu_{\text{t}}}{2k_t} \left\{ \exp[k_t(I_4 - 1)^2] - 1 \right\} + \frac{\mu_{\text{l}}}{2k_l} \left\{ \exp[k_l(I_6 - 1)^2] - 1 \right\}. \]  

(12)

where the subscripts t and l refer, respectively, to material properties in the transverse and longitudinal directions of fascia lata. The parameters \( \mu_t \) and \( \mu_l \) describe the degree of anisotropy and \( k_t \) and \( k_l \) are two dimensionless parameters associated with the two directions.

To obtain explicit expressions of (10) we place the two preferred directions \( M \) and \( M' \) parallel to the \((X_1, X_2)\) plane as

\[ M = \cos \varphi \, e_1 - \sin \varphi \, e_2, \quad M' = \cos \varphi' \, e_1 + \sin \varphi' \, e_2, \]  

(13)

where \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) denote the in-plane Cartesian unit vectors and \( \varphi \) and \( \varphi' \) the angles formed by the two fiber directions with \( e_1 \). We use the membrane approximation \( \sigma_{33} = 0 \) to eliminate the hydrostatic pressure term \( p \) and the incompressibility condition \( dF = 1 \) to eliminate the term \( F_{33} \) from the above equations. We further assume pure homogeneous strain, defined by Ogden (2001) as a deformation of the form

\[ F_{11} = \lambda_1, \quad F_{22} = \lambda_2, \quad F_{12} = F_{21} = 0, \]  

with \( \lambda_1 \) and \( \lambda_2 \) the principal stretches. This last assumption will be discussed in more detail in the concluding remarks.

The right Cauchy–Green deformation tensor \( C \) simplifies to

\[ C = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_1^2 \lambda_2^2 \end{bmatrix}, \]  

with the invariant \( I_1 \) defined by (4), given by

\[ I_1 = \lambda_1^2 + \lambda_2^2 + \lambda_1^2 \lambda_2^2. \]  

(15)

The use of Eqs. (13) and (14) in (5) gives the invariants \( I_4 \) and \( I_6 \) as

\[ I_4 = \lambda_1^2 \cos^2 \varphi + \lambda_2^2 \sin^2 \varphi, \quad I_6 = \lambda_1^2 \cos^2 \varphi' + \lambda_2^2 \sin^2 \varphi'. \]  

(16)

Finally, using the strain energy functions (11) and (12) in (10) results in explicit expressions of the in-plane stress components. These are

\[ \sigma_{11} = \mu_{\text{iso}}(\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_1^{-2} \lambda_2^2) \exp[\alpha(I_1 - 3)] + 2\mu_{\text{t}}\lambda_1^2 \cos^2 \varphi(I_4 - 1) \exp[k_t(I_4 - 1)^2 - 1] + 2\mu_{\text{l}}\lambda_1^2 \cos^2 \varphi'(I_6 - 1) \exp[k_l(I_6 - 1)^2 - 1]. \]  

(17)

\[ \sigma_{22} = \mu_{\text{iso}}(\lambda_2^2 - \lambda_2^{-2} \lambda_1^2) \exp[\alpha(I_1 - 3)] + 2\mu_{\text{t}}\lambda_2^2 \sin^2 \varphi(I_4 - 1) \exp[k_t(I_4 - 1)^2 - 1] + 2\mu_{\text{l}}\lambda_2^2 \sin^2 \varphi'(I_6 - 1) \exp[k_l(I_6 - 1)^2 - 1]. \]  

(18)

and

\[ \sigma_{12} = 2\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \mu_{\text{t}} \cos \varphi \sin \varphi'(I_4 - 1) \exp[k_t(I_4 - 1)^2 - 1] + \mu_{\text{l}} \cos \varphi' \sin \varphi'(I_6 - 1) \exp[k_l(I_6 - 1)^2 - 1]. \]  

(19)

Eq. (19) shows that, in general, shear stresses are required to maintain a pure homogeneous strain. These vanish when the preferred directions coincide with the coordinate axes, i.e. \( \varphi = 0, \varphi = \pi/2 \) (Ogden, 2001).

5.1. Model results

The averaged response of the biaxial data of the fifth re-loading with maximum stretch \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \) is represented by the filled circles in Figs. 10 and 11. The verticals bars report the standard deviation. More specifically, images (a) and (b) in Fig. 10 show the average of the fifth loading cycle for specimens stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers to the maximum stretch \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \) for lateral stretches \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) and \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \), respectively. The corresponding average data for specimens stretched in the direction of transversely oriented fibers are shown by the images (a) and (b) in Fig. 11.

In what follows, we use the unit vector \( M \) to specify the fiber orientation that coincides with the loading-unloading direction. From Eq. (13) and using the sign convention introduced in Section 2.3 we find the fiber angle \( \varphi' = \pi/2 \), see Fig. 2. The angle \( \varphi \) that defines the orientation of the second family of fibers is considered a phenomenological parameter and is determined using a nonlinear optimization routine.

The nonlinear iterative algorithm for parameter estimation proposed by Buzz Ferrari and Manenti (2009) is applied to determine the non-negative values of the parameters \( \mu_{\text{iso}}, \alpha, \mu_t, k_t, \mu_l, k_l, \varphi \) (see Table 2). Eqs. (17) and (18) are used in conjunction with the data in the minimization routine to determine the set of parameters returning the smallest residues between the predicted and measured responses.

To limit the searchable domain of parameter sets giving accurate and stable solutions we use the results from the tissue structure obtained from histology and guide the range of permitted values for \( \mu_t, \mu_l \) and \( \varphi \). We recall that \( \varphi \) denotes the fiber angle with respect to the 1-axis and therefore the value of \( (90^\circ - \varphi) \) compares with the opening angle reported in Section 3.

The values of the material parameters summarized in Table 2 are used to evaluate the in-plane Cauchy stress components given by Eqs. (17)–(19). As a consequence of the preferred directions not being orthogonal, i.e. \( \varphi \neq 0 \), the shear stress component \( \sigma_{12} \) is different from zero. Using Eq. (19), \( \sigma_{12} \) is approximately an order of magnitude smaller than
Since no data of the in-plane shear stress exist, we do not include the graphs of $\sigma_{12}$.

With the material parameters given in Table 2 the model is now used to determine the stress components $\sigma_{11}$ and $\sigma_{22}$ in biaxial tension. Fig. 10 compares the numerical results, shown by solid lines, to the averaged data of fascia lata stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers. Image (a) illustrates the material and model responses when $\lambda_1 = 1$ and the stretch in the longitudinally oriented fiber direction increases to $\lambda_2 = 1.08$. Graphs in (b) show the corresponding results when the stretch in the 1-direction is increased to a constant value of $\lambda_1 = 1.03$. The values of the Cauchy stress components are given in MPa.

$\sigma_{11}$ and $\sigma_{22}$. Since no data of the in-plane shear stress exist, we do not include the graphs of $\sigma_{12}$.

With the material parameters given in Table 2 the model is now used to determine the stress components $\sigma_{11}$ and $\sigma_{22}$ in biaxial tension. Fig. 10 compares the numerical results, shown by solid lines, to the averaged data of fascia lata stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers. Image (a) illustrates the material and model responses when

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With the material parameters given in Table 2 the model is now used to determine the stress components $\sigma_{11}$ and $\sigma_{22}$ in biaxial tension. Fig. 10 compares the numerical results, shown by solid lines, to the averaged data of fascia lata stretched in the direction of the longitudinally oriented fibers. Image (a) illustrates the material and model responses when
Fig. 12 – The rectangular reference area $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ is defined by (a). Image (b) shows the deformed sample stretched in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers to $\lambda_2 = 1.06$ with $\lambda_1 = 1.03$ constant. The intersections of the dotted lines with the physical gage marks define the points used by the equipment to control strain. In (b) the rectangular reference area is compared to the deformed shape, which is defined by dashed lines. The amount of in-plane shear in (b) is equal to 0.0872 rad.

Fig. 13 – Mechanical response of a sample taken from animal # 3 when the longitudinal fibers are aligned with the 2-direction. Graphs (a) and (c) show the stress–stretch responses with $\lambda_1 = 1$ constant and cyclic loading in the 2-direction with maximum extensions $\lambda_2 = 1.4$ and $\lambda_2 = 1.06$, respectively. The data show that during loading–unloading in the 2-direction the value of $\sigma_1$ changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant. In (b) and (d) the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading–unloading in the 2-direction with the stretch in the 1-direction increased to $\lambda_1 = 1.03$ and held constant. Stress values are given in MPa.
\( \lambda_1 = 1 \) and constant and the stretch in the 2-direction increases from \( \lambda_2 = 1 \) to a maximum value of \( \lambda_2 = 1.08 \). The graphs in image (b) again show the material and numerical responses during the initial extension in the 1-direction to \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) with \( \lambda_2 = 1 \) constant. Then, with \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) and constant, the material is again stretched in the longitudinal fiber direction to \( \lambda_2 = 1.08 \). The results show that the model accurately describes the experimental behavior of the tissue.

Similarly, Fig. 11 shows the averaged data in biaxial tension of fascia lata when stretched in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers. The numerical solution again shows good agreement with the experimental data.

The model developed in Section 5 is now specialized to uniaxial tension. In this context it is important to underscore that the values of the material parameters in Table 2 are obtained using only the biaxial tension data. The numerical results are therefore of particular interest since they provide the opportunity to test the accuracy of the numerical response. The results of the constitutive model for tensile loading in the direction of longitudinal and transversely oriented fibers are shown by solid lines in Fig. 5. Good agreement with the experimental data is obtained up to a stretch of 1.06 in the two directions. Upon reaching this stretch, the stiffening behavior changes indicating the onset of softening due to alterations in the microstructure of the tissue. Therefore, the elastic limit in uniaxial tension of fascia lata is approximately 6%.

6. Concluding remarks

Motivated by the need to characterize the nonlinear mechanical properties of connective tissue, such as fascia lata, we have presented new experimental data and developed a constitutive model that captures the observed behavior with good accuracy. The experimental data, in addition to simple tension, include planar biaxial extension that more closely resemble fascia’s in vivo state of strain.

The histological analysis of goat fascia lata showed a bi-layered structure containing collagen fascicles oriented along two preferred directions providing anisotropic material behavior. The arrangement and the cross-sectional areas of the longitudinally and transversely oriented fascicles are different and therefore the two directions are neither mechanically equivalent nor are they orthogonal. In this case, the in-plane shear stress [19] is required for the pure

![Fig. 14](image-url) - Mechanical response of a second sample taken from animal # 3 with the longitudinal fibers aligned with the 2-direction. Graphs (a) and (c) show the stress-stretch responses with \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) constant and cyclic loading in the 2-direction with maximum extensions \( \lambda_2 = 1.4 \) and \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \), respectively. The data show that during loading-unloading in the 2-direction the value of \( \sigma_1 \) changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant. In (b) and (d) the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading-unloading in the 2-direction with the stretch in the 1-direction increased to \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) and held constant. Stress values are given in MPa.
homogeneous strain (14). That is, the principal axes of stress and strain do not coincide. However, to our knowledge, there is currently no experimental equipment available that allows applications of in-plane shear stress to a soft biological tissue. In the absence of in-plane shear stress \( s_{12} \), the off-diagonal terms \( F_{12} \) and \( F_{21} \) in Eq. (2) are different from zero. Therefore, in our approximation we do not include the effects of in-plane shear deformation.

The effect of in-plane shear is quantified in the following. Image (a) in Fig. 12 defines the undeformed configuration \( \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1 \) from the video extensometer using the physical gage marks to outline a rectangular reference area. Image (b) depicts the sample stretched in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers to \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \) with \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) constant. The solid lines indicate the size of the reference area, the dashed lines define the deformed shape tangent to the physical gage marks. The intersections of the dotted lines with the physical gage marks define the points that are used by the equipment to control strain. Image (b) compares the rectangular reference area to the current shape and is used to measure an in-plane shear of 0.0872 rad. Therefore, specializing the constitutive theory in Section 5 to pure homogeneous strain is, in this special case, an acceptable approximation. For a more general discussion of the effects of in-plane shear during biaxial testing of biological tissues we refer to, for example, Sacks (2000).

The results reported in this paper have implications for modeling the function of the human iliotibial band. Specifically, the uniaxial stress–stretch data of goat fascia lata in the direction of longitudinally oriented fibers are similar to the mechanical response of the human iliotibial band. Fig. 5 shows the maximum elastic elongation \( \lambda = 1.06 \) corresponding to a stress of 9 MPa. For comparison, Gratz (1931) defines the maximum allowable stress of human fascia lata as 14.5 MPa corresponding to a stretch of 1.035. For goat fascia lata, the elongations at failure are between 1.1 and 1.18, which are comparable to \( \lambda = 1.1 \) given by Gratz (1931). The mean value of the ultimate stress from 6 specimens from 5 different animals is 38.4 \( \pm \) 10.3 MPa. This is identical to the value of 35.8 \( \pm \) 16.4 MPa reported by Hammer et al. (2012). For reference, the ultimate stress determined by Gratz (1931) is 54 MPa.

![Graphs showing stress-stretch responses with \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) constant and cyclic loading in the 2-direction with maximum extensions \( \lambda_2 = 1.4 \) and \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \), respectively. The data show that during loading-unloading in the 2-direction the value of \( \sigma_1 \) changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant.](image)

Fig. 15 – Mechanical response of a sample taken from animal #2 when the transverse fibers are aligned with the 2-direction. Graphs (a) and (c) show the stress–stretch responses with \( \lambda_1 = 1 \) constant and cyclic loading in the 2-direction with maximum extensions \( \lambda_2 = 1.4 \) and \( \lambda_2 = 1.06 \), respectively. The data show that during loading-unloading in the 2-direction the value of \( \sigma_1 \) changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant. In (b) and (d) the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading-unloading in the 2-direction with the stretch in the 1-direction now increased to \( \lambda_1 = 1.03 \) and held constant. Stress values are given in MPa.
The experimental characterization reported in this paper includes the mechanical properties of goat fascia lata in the direction of the transversely oriented fibers. We did not find any corresponding data on the human iliotibial band.

For the experimental characterization we evaluated properties in uniaxial tension using 12 specimens, 6 in the direction of longitudinally and 6 in the direction of transversely oriented fibers. For biaxial tension, a total of 8 and 10 specimens were subjected to cyclic loading in the direction of longitudinally and transversely oriented fibers, respectively. In spite of the small sample size we believe that the results are representative of the mechanical response of fascia lata.

Appendix

With the aim of describing the variability of the mechanical characteristics of the tissue, experimental curves referring to the same specimens taken from the same animal are included in the Appendix. These show the variability of the stress–stretch data, which were used to determine the average response of the tissue. Results of four samples obtained from two animals are included. Figs. 13 and 14 show the mechanical response of two samples harvested from animal #3. The data correspond to the testing sequence where the longitudinally oriented collagen fibers coincide with the loading–unloading direction (2-axis). In both figures, the images (a) and (c) show the stress–deformation responses during cyclic loading–unloading in 2-direction with maximum extension $\lambda_2 = 1.04$ and $\lambda_2 = 1.06$, respectively. The stretch in the 1-direction is held constant at $\lambda_1 = 1$. The images denoted (b) and (d) again show the stress–stretch data during cyclic loading with the same maximum extension $\lambda_2$, the stretch in the 1-direction is now increased to $\lambda_1 = 1.03$ and again held constant. Note that during cyclic loading the value of $\sigma_1$ changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant. These graphs can be compared to the images denoted (b) and (d) in Figs. 6 and 7, where for clarity only the last loading–unloading cycle is shown. Figs. 15 and 16 show the response of two samples obtained from animal #2.

**Fig. 16** – Mechanical response of a second sample taken from animal #2 with the transverse fibers aligned in the 2-direction. Graphs (a) and (c) show the stress–stretch responses with $\lambda_1 = 1$ constant and cyclic loading in the 2-direction with maximum extensions $\lambda_2 = 1.4$ and $\lambda_2 = 1.06$, respectively. The data show that during loading–unloading in the 2-direction the value of $\sigma_1$ changes to hold the stretch in the 1-direction constant. In (b) and (d) the specimen is subjected to cyclic loading–unloading in the 2-direction with the stretch in the 1-direction now increased to $\lambda_1 = 1.03$ and held constant. Stress values are given in MPa.
The loading–unloading direction, i.e. the 2-direction, now coincides with transversely oriented fibers. The data shown in Figs. 15 and 16 can be compared to the results shown in (b) and (d) in Figs. 8 and 9.

REFERENCES


