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Impact on Human Eyes by Propelled Objects

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IMPACT ON HUMAN EYES BY PROPELLED OBJECTS

The identification of injury mechanisms and tolerance criteria for non-penetrating ocular contusions from projectile impact has been of continuing interest in the ophthalmologic community. Several experimental simulations of the injury process have been examined with animal eyes in vivo and in vitro¹⁻³. Most of this work has been concerned with low mass/high speed projectiles, such as BB's. Recently, however, there has been an increased awareness of the potential for such injuries from larger, slower moving propelled objects as are associated with projectile toys. The U.S. Consumer Product Safety Commission is studying this problem as part of their toy safety program.

In previous work⁴, a mathematical model, based on elastic, quasistatic theories of impact, was developed to describe eyeball deformation during impact and to predict the likelihood of injury. Based on this work, a test method was developed to evaluate the injury potential of propelled objects⁵. The validity of the test method is traceable to the mathematical model; that is, for a range of projectiles (whose characteristics represent the range of masses, geometries, and velocities of toy projectiles), the response of the test method correlated well with the predictions of the mathematical model.

The present paper describes high speed motion picture analysis of impacts on enucleated human eyeballs by missiles which are representative of toy projectiles. The purpose of this work was to determine whether measured deformations of enucleated eyeballs correlate with deformations predicted by the math model. Suitable agreement would support the use of the proposed test method for evaluating projectile toys.

High speed motion picture analysis was also used by Delori, Pomerantz, and Cox³ to observe the deformation of enucleated pigs' eyes when impacted by BB's. They reported that "no attempt was made to normalize intraocular pressures." (The pressure of the pigs' eyes was very low: 15 to 20 scale readings on the Schiotz tonometer; normal is 5 scale readings³.) This suggested a secondary purpose for the present work, namely, to evaluate the experimental deformation of eyeballs at normal intraocular pressure.

Materials and Methods

Eyeballs and Molds

Enucleated human eyeballs (not usable for transplants) were contributed by a local eyebank. The eyeballs were tested within 24 hours of death, having been kept refrigerated from the time of enucleation until shortly before testing.

Each eyeball was mounted in a separate gelatin mold as described by Delori et. al.³. The container was made with flat glass plates and had dimensions of 5x5x8 cm. The procedure for mounting the eyeballs differed



from that employed in the aforementioned study. First, the container was filled with a liquid 10% gelatin mixture which was allowed to gel. Next, a cone-shaped crater was cut into the exposed surface of the gelatin, and the eyeball was positioned in the crater (see sketch in figure 1). Lastly, liquid gelatin was added to the container to fill the rest of the crater and to adjust the gelatin level relative to the eye. Because the new gelatin was constrained to a thin layer in immediate contact with the already cooled and previously set gelatin in the container, the newly added mixture gelled within about ten minutes. The boundary between the new and old gelatin was visibly indistinguishable. Impact experiments began immediately after the new gelatin had set.

Before mounting, the intraocular pressures of the enucleated eyeballs were negligible compared to normal (15-20 scale readings on Schiotz tonometer; normal is 3-5 scale readings, about 17-24 mm Hg). The pressure of the eyeballs could be increased by injecting water through the optic nerve. However, in preliminary impact experiments, the pressure was observed to have decreased after every impact.

In order to obtain multiple impact data with each eyeball, a method was devised to adjust the intraocular pressure prior to each impact. A small needle was inserted through the optic nerve stub and secured in place by suturing the stub around the needle. Thin flexible tubing, attached to the needle, ran through the gelatin and back out the exposed surface to a syringe filled with water. (During the eyeball mounting process, a narrow trench was cut into the set gelatin to accommodate the needle and tubing.) Liquid could thus be added to the eye prior to each impact to readjust the intraocular pressure. The pressures were adjusted so that the tonometer would register in the normal range. After impact, pressures dropped to 6-10 scale readings.

Projectiles

To maintain accurate impacts, a system was designed⁵ in which a cylindrical nylon guide travels in a linear ball bushing on a projectile launcher (described below). The leading edge of the guide was drilled and tapped to accommodate a set of hemispherical caps (see figure 2). For this experiment, two caps, with radii 0.635 and 1.27 cm, were used. To increase the mass of the projectiles, brass weights could be inserted between the guide and the caps.

The projectile launcher is shown in figure 3. A plunger rides in an aluminum support tube and is attached to a spring which may be compressed to three alternate stop positions. When released from the stop, the spring uncoils and causes the plunger to impact the nylon guide end of the projectile. The nylon guide then advances in a linear ball bushing mounted within the aluminum support tube and remains in the bearing during impact.

The velocity of the projectile is measured by a meter which records the time interval required for edges A and B of the guide tube (figure 2) to interrupt a light beam. A window in the aluminum support tube allows



the beam to penetrate the window in the projectile guide tube. The velocities achieved by the projectiles depend on the stop position to which the spring is compressed and the mass of the projectile. Velocities can be further varied by adjusting the tension on the spring with the screw at the rear of the aluminum support tube.

In this experiment, the masses of the projectiles varied between 1.5 and 8 g; the velocities varied between 2.5 and 15 m/sec. It was felt that the range of parameters observed on toys⁴ would be well represented by the experimental range of tip geometries, masses, and velocities.

Cinematography

Motion pictures at 8,000 frames per second recorded each impact event. The firing of the projectiles was synchronized to insure that the film in the camera was moving full speed at the time of impact. Enlargements of the motion pictures were analyzed frame by frame, carefully measuring the deformations of the eyeball, especially the displacement of the projectile toward the eyeball. (This displacement is thus the decrease in the anterior-posterior diameter of the eyeball.)

Results

For eyeballs with normal intraocular pressure, the observed deformations were restricted to the region of the eyeball immediately surrounding the tip of the projectile. A typical example is shown in figure 4, where the eyeball is seen both before impact and at the moment of maximum projectile displacement. The increase in the diameter at the equator is on the order of 1 to 2%. In preliminary experiments with unpressurized eyeballs, equatorial expansions on the order of 10 to 12% were observed.

The displacement of an eyeball at normal pressure is shown as a function of time in figure 5. The characteristics of the projectiles which impacted the eyeball are also shown. In general, the displacement, y, increases with the projectile kinetic energy, T_0 , and the duration of impact, Δt , increases as the velocity, V, decreases. These general trends were predicted by the elastic, quasi-static mathematical model discussed earlier⁴, i.e.,

$$y \propto \frac{T_o^{2/5}}{D^{1/5}}$$
, $\Delta t \propto \frac{y}{v}$

D is a geometric parameter defined by

$$D = \frac{D_1 D_2}{D_1 + D_2}$$



where D₁ and D₂ are the diameters of the projectile and eyeball, respectively. The coefficients of proportionality depend upon the material properties of the eye and projectile.

In figure 6, the measured maximum projectile displacements are plotted as a function of T $^{275}/D^{175}$ for the impacts on three normally pressurized enucleated human eyeballs (each represented by a different symbol). To vary the value of T $^{275}/D^{175}$, projectile configurations were changed for each impact. For each eyeball a straight line was fit to the data by the method of least squares. A reasonable correlation exists between the predictions of the mathematical model and the results of the experiment. The figure also suggests that non-negligible differences exist in impact response for different donors. For fixed projectile characteristics (fixed value of T $^{275}/D^{175}$), differences on the order of 1 mm exist in the maximum displacement.

Discussion

Large gross deformations in unpressurized pigs' eyes were also observed in the earlier study of Delori et al³ (the projectile of that study was quite different: BB (.345 g) travelling at 62 m/sec). These authors (and others) have propounded a mechanism of contusive injury: namely, the stretching of the anterior sclera perpendicular to the impact direction (sometimes referred to as "eyeball expansion"); in combination with the posterior displacement of the lens, this expansion causes high stresses in the chamber angle region and the vitreous base. Although the gross expansion is not nearly so exaggerated when the eyeball is at normal pressures, there is no evidence to suggest that the proposed mechanism of contusive injury needs to be modified. It appears as though the eyeball expansion in pressurized eyes may only be significant in the immediate vicinity of the corneo-scleral junction.

The elastic model⁴ is, of course, a gross simplification of the impact behavior of a system as complex as an eye. As explained in the earlier report, its purpose is to suggest the relative importance of projectile characteristics (mass, velocity, geometry) to the likelihood of eye injury. As seen in figure 6, the measured displacements of the anterior surface of the eye are related to a parameter which characterizes the projectile. This is not to suggest that the elastic model is appropriate (actually, the model is being asked to represent data in a range where deformations are finite - the ratio of displacement to the length of the anterior/posterior axis approaches 1/3); rather, that the model is able to represent some gross aspects of eyeball deformation.





FIGURE 1. Sketch illustrating procedure used to mount eyeballs in gelatin molds.





FIGURE 2. Projectile guide tube with hemispherical caps. Distance AB used in velocity measurements.



FIGURE 3. Projectile launching system.





Figure 4a.



Figure 4b.

FIGURE 4. Example of eyeball deformation (a) before impact, (b) at moment of maximum projectile displacement (shadow in (b) is wire used in velocity measurement).











The straight lines were fit to the data for each eyeball.



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