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Quantitative ultrasound assessment of cortical bone properties beyond bone mineral density

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6 Abstract

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The development of quantitative ultrasound (QUS) technologies to mea-7 sure bone is motivated by the need to overcome the limitations of X-ray 8 based methods, measuring bone mineral density (BMD) which is the gold 9 standard to date for the diagnosis of osteoporosis. Because it uses me-10 chanical waves, the ultrasound modality is a particularly relevant means to 11 probe bone mechanical resistance. The vast majority of QUS technologies 12 commercialized to date merely aim to provide surrogate markers for BMD. 13 During the past decade, innovative QUS approaches have emerged to assess 14 bone beyond BMD. This may be achieved by (1) specifically assessing the 15 cortical bone compartment, independently of trabecular bone, and (2) pro-16 viding intrinsic bone properties such as cortical bone thickness and material 17 properties. One specific motivation is to estimate intracortical porosity, a 18 quantity reflected in material properties. This article aims at an overview 19 of recent QUS developments to measure cortical bone properties. We also 20 draw a picture of the current knowledge on bone material properties of in-21 terest for bone QUS. We discuss the potential of ultrasound to provide novel 22 biomarkers of bone health through the assessment of material properties. 23

- 24 Keywords: ultrasound; cortical bone; elasticity; porosity; thickness;
- ²⁵ imaging; velocity

26 Graphical abstract

- 27 Highlights
- 28 29

• Bone fragility assessment would benefit from an accurate evaluation of cortical bone

Preprint submitted to Elsevier





[Graphical abstract] Bone anatomy and QUS measurement configurations. (a) Measurement in bone radial direction with a through transmission approach (courtesy of OYO Electric CO., LTD., Japan); (b) Measurement in bone axial direction with bidirectional axial transmission to measure guided waves (courtesy of AZALEE, France); (c) Measurement in bone radial direction with a pulse-echo approach (courtesy of Bindex,

Finland); (d) image of cortical bone microanatomy obtained with synchrotron radiation microtomography showing the vascular porosity mainly oriented along the bone axis; (e) X-ray image of a cross-section of the distal radius with a depicted region of interest for a typical QUS measurement with axial transmission.

- Innovative QUS technologies aim to measure intrinsic properties of
 cortical bone
- Available technologies measure bone thickness and bulk wave velocities
- Intracortical porosity, a fingerprint of remodeling, can be deduced from
 material properties
- Ex vivo documentation of material properties of pathological bone tissues is lacking

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41 1. Introduction

Bone fragility associated to primary or secondary osteoporosis and the 42 consequent risk of fracture is an important medical threat. Among the pop-43 ulation aged over 50 years old, one in three women and one in five men will 44 suffer a fracture associated to osteoporosis. Nine million fragility fractures 45 occurred annually worldwide at the beginning of the 21th century [1]. Frac-46 ture risk prediction is assessed based on clinical factors and, in the standard 47 approach, dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) in order to assess bone 48 mineral density (BMD). However, it is well accepted that BMD assessed with 49 DXA has strong limitations, in particular it has a lack of sensitivity [2, 3], 50 and DXA is a ionizing method. 51

Our bones are comprised of two types of porous tissues: cortical bone 52 is the dense tissue that forms the outer shell of the bones; trabecular, or 53 spongious, bone is the more porous tissue partly filling the bones. While 54 for several decades, bone alteration in osteoporosis has essentially been de-55 scribed to be trabecular bone loss [4], a focus has been placed in recent years 56 on cortical bone which has been recognized to also play a key role in bone 57 resistance in particular at fracture sites such as the proximal femur [5, 6] and 58 the distal radius [7]. Aging is associated with an increased cortical porosity 59 and thinning of the cortical shell. In old age, 70% of all appendicular bone 60 loss may arise from the cortical compartment [8]. It follows that including 61 an accurate evaluation of cortical bone in skeletal status assessment could 62 improve diagnosis and treatment monitoring. 63

Cortical bone mechanical properties depend on the properties of the pore 64 network (volume fraction of pores or, shortly, the porosity, and microarchi-65 tecture) and the properties of the extracellular mineralized matrix (shortly, 66 matrix) surrounding pores. Pathologies, aging, and treatments may alter 67 matrix material properties through modifications of collagen and mineral 68 [9, 10, 11, 12] and the pore network [13, 8, 11]. In the last years, corti-69 cal bone porosity has been increasingly recognized as a fracture risk factor 70 [14, 15, 16].71

Cortical bone thickness (CTh) is also a critical quantity for the stability
of a bone during daily activities and in falls [5, 17]. A reduction of CTh is
usually associated to an increase of porosity [16].

Techniques to assess specifically the cortical compartment of the skeleton have been developed recently. These include X-ray computed tomography (CT) [18], indentation to specifically probe bone matrix [19], and quantitative ultrasound (QUS) methods. X-ray CT is extensively used for bone quantitative imaging, but essentially in clinical research. The most

advanced X-ray CT technique is high-resolution peripheral computed to-80 mography (HR-pQCT), a method available since 2004. It is a 3-D imaging 81 technique, that allows a quantitative analysis of the cortical and trabecular 82 bone compartments with a physical resolution of the order of 100 μ m. It 83 yields estimates of bone density, microarchitecture, and geometry. It can be 84 used to measure CTh and, to some extent, porosity, at the distal radius and 85 tibia. This modality, however, like conventional CT, will unlikely be used as 86 a widespread diagnostic tool for osteoporosis due to cost issues and ionizing 87 radiations. The focus of the present review is on bone QUS methods to 88 measure cortical bone. 89

In the past three decades, researchers have developed QUS methods to measure trabecular and cortical bone [20, 21] motivated by the need to overcome the limitations of DXA and provide a non ionizing, portable, easily accessible, and affordable diagnostic tool for osteoporosis. The ultrasound modality is thought to be a particularly relevant means to probe bone health because it uses mechanical waves which are inherently sensitive to mechanical properties contributing to bone overall resistance.

One strategy in bone QUS research has long been to provide ultrasound 97 variables, based on attenuation, velocity or backscatter measurements, as 98 surrogate markers for BMD, the gold standard to date for the diagnosis of 99 osteoporosis. The vast majority of bone QUS technologies commercialized 100 and used in clinical studies since the 1990's fall into this category. This 101 includes the earliest and best-validated clinical bone ultrasound devices [22] 102 measuring in transmission the heel bone (mainly composed of trabecular 103 bone), as well as recently developed pulse-echo techniques targeting different 104 skeletal sites such as the spine and hip [23, 24]. The ultrasound surrogate for 105 BMD predicts fracture risk, although, compared to DXA, it has not shown 106 its superiority [25, 20] to date. 107

Another strategy in bone QUS research has been to measure *intrinsic* 108 bone properties that convey information beyond BMD, such as CTh and 109 material properties, such as bulk wave velocities. In that vein, approaches 110 have been proposed during the past decade such as pulse-echo [26] and axial 111 transmission [27] techniques which we cover in this review. The development 112 of such QUS approaches requires a priori knowledge of physiological values of 113 bone material properties and of their expected ranges variation in different 114 pathologies. 115

This paper reviews the recent progress in QUS approaches aiming at the evaluation of bone fragility through the measurement of the thickness and material properties of cortical bone. We also draw a picture of the current knowledge on bone material properties of interest for in vivo ultrasound evaluation. After this introduction as background, we review in section 2 cortical
bone microanatomy and material properties. Section 3 presents QUS approaches to measure cortical bone. In Section 3.2, we account for the recent
research aiming at a concurrent assessment of cortical bone anatomy and
material properties. In Section 4, we discuss the potential of ultrasound to
provide novel biomarkers of bone health through the assessment of material
properties.

127 2. Cortical bone tissue

128 2.1. Anatomy

At its highest level of hierarchical organization, i.e., the millimeter (mm)scale, or mesoscale [28], cortical bone can be considered as a two-phase composite material: a mineralized collagen matrix pervaded by a porous network [29] (Fig. 2(d)). Bone mechanical properties are determined by the properties of the two phases: (1) pore structure and relative volume, and (2) matrix composition and microstructure.

At the nanometer scale, collagen molecules form fibrils which are progres-135 sively mineralized forming the elementary blocks of the matrix. Arrays of 136 mineralized collagen fibrils assemble into lamellae to form cylindrical struc-137 tures called osteons, which are the most prominent motifs at the highest 138 microstructural level in cortical bone. In long bones, osteons align roughly 139 parallel to the axis of the diaphysis (central tube-like part of long bones) 140 and to the bone outer surface [30]. The vascular pore network is comprised 141 of the roughly cylindrical Haversian canals (median size $\sim 50 \ \mu m$) occupy-142 ing the center of osteons, connected transversely by the Volkman's canals. 143 Unbalanced bone remodeling occurring, e.g., in aging tend to change the 144 porosity and the morphology of the pores. While pores occupy more or less 145 5% of the bone material volume before 40 years old, after 40, differences are 146 reported between women and men, the inter-individual variations increase, 147 and, in women, the average porosity may reach about 15% [13, 31]. Also, 148 porosity is known to be spatially heterogeneous within a bone, e.g., around 149 the circumference and in the radial direction [13, 32, 33]. 150

151 2.2. Notations

Anatomical directions in a bone diaphysis are conveniently associated to a Cartesian reference frame where directions 1, 2, and 3 stand for radial, circumferential, and axial (along the diaphysis) directions (Fig. 2).

¹⁵⁵ Ultrasound propagation in bone comprises the propagation of dilata-¹⁵⁶ tional and shear waves and is affected by material anisotropy leading to a



Figure 2: Bone anatomy and QUS measurement configurations. (a) Measurement in bone radial direction with a through transmission approach (courtesy of OYO Electric CO., LTD., Japan); (b) Measurement in bone axial direction with bidirectional axial transmission to measure guided waves (courtesy of AZALEE, France); (c) Measurement in bone radial direction with a pulse-echo approach (courtesy of Bindex, Finland); (d) image of cortical bone microanatomy obtained with synchrotron radiation microtomography showing the vascular porosity mainly oriented along the bone axis; (e) X-ray image of a cross-section of the distal radius with a depicted region of interest for a typical QUS measurement with axial transmission.

direction-dependent speed of sound. Speed of sound is the square root of 157 an elasticity-to-mass density ratio. We recall that the elasticity law may be 158 written using Voigt notation as $\sigma_i = C_{ij}\epsilon_j$, where σ_i and ϵ_j are components 159 of the stress and scain vectors respectively, and C_{ij} is the stiffness ma-160 trix. Stiffness constants C_{ii} $(i = 1 \dots 3)$ correspond to longitudinal loadings 161 (of traction-compression type) along the different anatomical directions, C_{ii} 162 (i = 4...6) are the shear moduli, and $C_{ij} = C_{ji}$ $(i \neq j)$ correspond to mixed 163 mode loadings. Engineering moduli, i.e., Young's moduli and Poisson ra-164 tios are defined as combinations of stiffness constants [34]. In the following, 165 the bulk wave velocity (BWV) of dilatational waves, $\sqrt{C_{11}/\rho}$, and $\sqrt{C_{33}/\rho}$, 166 where ρ is the mass density, are denoted respectively radial BWV and axial 167 BWV. 168

169 2.3. Elastic anisotropy

Cortical bone is most often described as an orthotropic material, that is, the material has a plane of symmetry associated to each anatomical direction. Such a material is characterized by nine distinct elastic moduli. Where orthotropy is weak as in the central portion of the diaphysis, a transversely isotropic material model, characterized by five moduli only [35, 36],

is usually assumed. In long bones, the typical anisotropy ratio between lon-175 gitudinal coefficients in the axial and radial (or circumferential) directions 176 is between 1.3 and 2.5 [35, 37]. Anisotropy of cortical bone is due to both 177 the preferential orientation of the vascular pores and the elastic anisotropy 178 of the mineralized matrix due to the orientation of the mineralized colla-179 gen fibers. Theoretical studies have shown that bone mesoscale anisotropy 180 mostly stems from the anisotropy of the matrix, the preferential orientation 181 of the pores leading to moderate values of anisotropy $(C_{33}/C_{11} \sim 1.1-1.3)$ 182 depending on the pore volume fraction) when the mineralized matrix is as-183 sumed to be isotropic [38, 39, 40]. 184

185 2.4. Bone material properties

A large number of ex vivo studies have reported elasticity values in cortical bone. The average Young's modulus along the diaphysis is typically around 14-20 GPa [41, 42, 37]. The average Young's modulus perpendicular to the diaphysis is around 11 GPa [37] but is much less documented. The average shear modulus corresponding to a torsion experiment around an axis parallel to the diaphysis is about 4-6 GPa [42, 37].

The mass density of cortical bone ranges typically between 1.6 and 192 2 g.cm^{-3} . The variations of mass density are due to a combination of vari-193 ations of the bone volume fraction in a volume of interest (i.e., the bone 194 is more or less porous) and the variations of the mass density of the ex-195 tracellular mineralized matrix. The latter are usually small because the 196 volume fraction of mineral in mature bone remains relatively constant [43]. 197 It follows that in practice mass density and porosity are highly correlated. 198 The above interval ([1.6-2] $g.cm^{-3}$) approximately corresponds to a range 199 of porosity between 30% (extremely high porosity for cortical bone) and a 200 few percents. In this range of density values, the elastic constants vary of 201 $\pm 30-50\%$ around their nominal values [37] (Fig. 3). 202

In a large number of ex vivo studies, BWVs in cortical bone specimens 203 have been measured together with mass density in order to derive elastic-204 ity [44]. However, the BWVs values were not reported as such. Overall, 205 compared to elasticity, BWV is much less documented. Ench et al. [45] 206 measured radial BWV ex vivo on parallelepiped samples of femoral bone 207 from 18 donors and found 3202 m/s (± 77) (Fig. 4). Lefevre et al. [46] mea-208 sured radial and axial BWVs ex vivo in samples of fibula from 16 donors and 209 found, respectively, 3137 m/s (±486) and 3994 m/s (±178). Grondin et al. 210 [47], combining measurements in several quadrants of the femur of 4 donors 211 found 3976 m/s (± 72) for axial BWV. Mathieu et al. [48] investigated the 212 radial variation of axial BWV in 11 femures and found 3586 m/s (± 255). In 213



Figure 3: This figure, reproduced from [37], illustrates the ranges of variations of elastic coefficients (ex vivo measurements). Stiffness and engineering coefficients of 55 cortical bone specimens from the tibia, are plotted as a function of C_{66} to illustrate the interdependency of the different elastic coefficients. The range of mass density values is [1.6-2.0] g.cm⁻³ for the different specimens.

vivo, Greenfield et al. [49] combined radiographic measurement of radius thickness and pulse echo data to determine BWV in the radial direction, they found (mean ± 1.5 standard deviation) 3311 m/s (± 307) in men and 3359 m/s (± 297) in women.



Figure 4: Reproduced from [45]. Histogram (numbers represent the center of bins that are 60 m/s in width) of the average values of radial bulk wave velocity (denoted SOS for 'speed of sound' in the figure) in 44 cortical bone samples from the femur diaphysis. The black and white bars represent radial BWV measured at 2.25 and 5.00 MHz, respectively.

As explained in sec 3, the design of future bone QUS methods to measure material properties rely on reference data at the typical measurement sites (radius, tibia). Some ex vivo studies have provided values for cortical bone material properties such as elasticity, density and BWVs. However, the large majority of this data was obtained from the diaphysis of the femur, which is not a site measured with QUS, and, to a lesser extent, from the tibia. Little data exists on radius bone due to the difficulty to measure small samples.

The available data was obtained on cadaveric bones, usually from elderly donors without documentation on the existence of bone pathologies. During childhood, there is a well documented effect of age on bone mineral density [50]. The changes over age of material properties are not covered in the present review, although a bone QUS method can be dedicated to measure children's bones.

To conclude, elastic properties and BWVs at radius and tibia need to 231 be better documented. In particular, it is not clear whether or not bone 232 material has distinct characteristics at these two sites (tibia, as opposed to 233 radius, is a weight-bearing bone) and if these sites are comparable to the 234 femur for which much more data is available. A better documentation of 235 the tibia and radius bones may be obtained with resonant ultrasound spec-236 troscopy (RUS) [51, 52] a technique that allows retrieving the full stiffness 237 tensor from small-sized rectangular parallelepiped specimens. 238

239 3. Cortical bone quantitative ultrasound

We review below cortical bone QUS approaches aiming at the measure-240 ment of cortical bone thickness (CTh) and material properties. These QUS 241 approaches are essentially developed for the radius and tibia [53] because 242 these sites are easily accessible to ultrasound. The radius, but not the tibia, 243 is an osteoporotic fracture site. Osteoporosis is a systemic disease, accord-244 ingly, measuring bone at any site is expected to have a clinical value, which 245 has been proven with several approaches implemented at the heel, phalanx, 246 tibia and radius. 247

In general, the measurement of CTh with ultrasound in vivo relies on 248 an a priori knowledge, or a joined measurement, of one or several material 249 properties. When measuring bone in the radial direction with a pulse-echo 250 method (Fig. 2(c)), the ultrasound raw data, in terms of time-of-flight, cou-251 ple information on material properties (BWVs) and anatomy (CTh). With 252 the axial transmission method, measuring the propagation of guided waves 253 in the cortical envelope of the diaphysis (Fig. 2(b)), information on bulk 254 wave velocities and CTh are also coupled (except in the limit case of a suf-255 ficiently large CTh and high frequency, in which case a lateral wave can be 256 measured [54], giving access directly to the axial BWV without requiring 257 the knowledge of thickness). 258

At QUS measurement sites, CTh shows a large range of values across 259 individuals: typically 1 to 4 mm in radius and 1.5 to 5 mm in tibia [26, 55]. 260 In contrast, the range of variations of material properties is smaller, e.g., 261 typically, the mass density varies between 1.8 and 2 $g.cm^{-3}$, and the BVWs 262 and elastic coefficients may respectively vary of $\pm 10\%$ and $\pm 50\%$ around 263 an average value. Because it is intrinsically difficult to retrieve concurrently 264 several bone characteristics (namely CTh and material properties), to date. 265 clinical implementations of QUS approaches only provide CTh assuming 266 fixed values of material properties. Several approaches are under develop-267 ment to overcome this limitation. 268

269 3.1. Current approaches

Karjalainen et al. [26], following Greenfield et al. [49] and Wear [56] implemented a pulse-echo method (Fig. 2(c)) to measure CTh at the tibia and radius using a fixed value of the radial BWV (3565 m/s). This value was chosen such that CTh determined from the QUS measurement matches the reference CTh obtained from HR-pQCT in healthy volunteers.

Otani et al. developed a method to measure the distal radius in throughtransmission, i.e., the wrist is placed between a pair of confocally aligned transducers, [57] (Fig. 2(a)). Ultrasound passes through both the lateral and
medial cortical layers and through the trabecular bone in the metaphysis.
Assuming a layered model of bone and some fixed material properties (radial
BWV in cortical bone is set to 3300 m/s), the method yields, among other
parameters, the sum of the cortical thicknesses at the inlet and outlet sides
of the the US beam.

So-called axial transmission measurements involve guided waves prop-283 agating in the cortical layer in the direction of the bone axis (Fig. 2(b)). 284 Guided waves propagation is highly sensitive to variations of CTh [27, 58]. 285 The waveguide thickness is retrieved by resorting to an optimization al-286 gorithm to solve an inverse problem. Precisely, the cortical bone layer is 287 modeled as a plate of given (fixed) material properties and unknown thick-288 ness (CTh), to be determined by fitting the simulated ultrasonic behav-289 ior of the plate to experimental data. Moilanen et al. [59] demonstrated 290 on ex vivo radii that CTh can be retrieved from the signal of a 200 kHz 291 guided wave; in this work, bone material was assumed isotropic with fixed 292 properties (BWV=4000 m/s). In a subsequent study, Vallet et al. [55] ex-293 ploited several guided modes [60] to retrieve CTh using US signals centered 294 at 1MHz and transverse isotropic fixed properties (radial BWV=3024 m/s; 295 axial BWV=3753 m/s). 296

During the last few years, the first clinical studies with the above ap-297 proaches have been conducted. CTh was found to be different in fractured 298 versus non fractured patients, all with impaired kidney function [61]. Sai 299 et al. [57] observed the expected decrease of CTh with age in an healthy 300 population and the higher thickness of males compared to females. The 301 pulse echo method of Karjalainen et al. [26], combining measurement of 302 CTh and patient's characteristics, was shown to predict femoral neck BMD 303 with good accuracy [62] and to discriminate patients with hip osteoporosis 304 from controls [63, 24]. 305

306 3.2. Future of cortical bone QUS

In all the above-mentioned approaches, cortical bone material properties are assumed to be identical for all subjects. This a limitation as tissue properties may vary between individuals and between sites (section 2). Not only this likely impairs the accuracy of the determination of CTh but also material properties themselves may give a valuable additional information on bone quality. In particular, material properties are strongly related to porosity, which is a recognized fracture risk factor [64, 15] (see sec. 4).

314 3.2.1. Innovative methods

One perspective for cortical bone QUS, based on existing approaches, is 315 to couple the determination of CTh and that of material properties. This 316 can be achieved with several approaches. In pulse-echo mode, methods using 317 a transfer function approach [65, 66, 67] could in principle be designed to 318 retrieve BWVs, density, attenuation, and CTh exploiting the times-of-flight 319 and amplitudes in the reflected signals. The multimode axial transmission 320 technique allows retrieving CTh and material properties or porosity, which 321 has been demonstrated ex vivo [68, 69, 70]. 322

Obtaining ultrasound images of the internal structure of cortical bone is 323 another exciting perspective. Conventional ultrasound scanners are used in 324 clinical practice to image the outer surface of bones allowing for the diagno-325 sis of bone fractures [71]. However, these ultrasound systems fail to reveal 326 the internal structure of bones because (1) the algorithm used to construct 327 the image assumes that ultrasound follow a straight path and that BWVs 328 do not vary along the path; (2) attenuation in cortical bone is relatively 329 large; and (3) important energy loss occur at the soft tissue-bone interface 330 caused by the large acoustic impedance mismatch. Using wave scattering 331 theory to model the wave path, Zheng et al. [72] obtained ex vivo an image 332 of the cortical layer of a bovine femur. Taking advantage of the tremendous 333 performance improvement of hardware electronics in ultrasound scanners in 334 the last years and developing a dedicated image reconstruction technique, 335 Renaud et al. [73] have recently obtained in vivo quantitative images of the 336 cortical layer of human radius and tibia (Fig. 5). The velocity of bulk dilata-337 tional waves in the different anatomical directions is recovered by combining 338 a measurement of the lateral wave and optimizing image quality. 339



Figure 5: Reproduced from [73]. Ultrasound image of the cortical layer of a radius in vivo. Red and blue lines correspond to the periosteum and endosteum. Straight lines (doted black line) approximate the interfaces. The cortical thickness, defined as the mean distance between these lines is found to be 3.5 mm for this acquisition and is in agreement with the thickness measured with HR-pQCT.

Lasaygues et al. have proposed to reconstruct a quantitative image of an entire transverse cross-section of a long bone with a tomography setup, using scattering theory and Born approximation [74] or using a full waveform approach [75].

344 3.2.2. Models of material properties for cortical QUS

Depending on the QUS measurement approach and the type of waves 345 involved (shear and dilatational waves in different anatomical directions), 346 more or less material parameters are involved in the processing of ultrasound 347 signals. While only the radial dilatational BWV is involved in pulse-echo 348 methods, no less than four material parameters may be involved in axial 349 transmission configuration (e.g., one BWV and three elastic anisotropy ra-350 tios [68]). The latter parameters are the quantities directly accessible from 351 a measurement. In the methods implemented for clinical applications, nor 352 mass density nor elastic coefficients can be inferred without resorting to a 353 model of bone material properties (e.g., [40]) relating these quantities and 354 those directly accessible from a measurement. 355

A priori knowledge of bone material properties is mandatory to solve 356 the coupled problem of the determination of CTh and material properties. 357 Such information is all the more important that the number of parameters to 358 retrieve is large. It has been pointed out that the different elastic coefficients 359 are correlated (Fig. 3) and strongly depend on density [76, 41, 77, 37, 52]. 360 and porosity [36] (see also sec. 4). As a consequence, a simplified model of 361 cortical bone elastic properties with a limited number of parameters [78, 79] 362 could be used in order to reduce the number of unknowns when solving 363 the QUS inverse problem. Such an approach was implemented by Bochud 364 et al. [69] where cortical bone was modeled as a pore network of variable 365 porosity embedded in a matrix with fixed elastic properties [40, 80] (an 366 implementation of the model is available online [81]; the model predictions 367 are plotted against ex vivo elasticity measurements in Fig. 6). 368

4. Measuring material properties as potential biomarkers of bone health

Managing bone health often starts by assessing the risk of fracture of an individual. This depends on many factors related to the risk of an individual to fall, and to the ability of a bone to resist a low trauma. The latter depends both on bone size and geometry, and material properties. In this section, we briefly review the relationships between, on the one hand, material properties that may be derived in vivo from QUS measurements and, on the other hand, strength, fracture risk factors, and quality of the extracellular matrix.

379 4.1. Bone resistance

As mentioned in the introduction, one potential advantage of ultrasound over X-ray approaches is to assess material properties beyond the mere quantity of bone reflected in BMD measured with an X-ray based technique.

Bone resistance to fracture is typically characterized by strength (i.e., ultimate stress before rupture) and toughness (i.e., resistance to crack propagation) [82]. It is yet unclear to which extent ultrasound, probing bone at very small strains in a linear regime, may yield information on bone resistance.

Correlations have been reported between bone resistance and elastic 388 properties as for engineering and natural materials in general [83]. Indeed, 389 post-yield and elastic properties are all determined by the biochemical com-390 position and the microstructure of bone. It is thus expected that elasticity 391 and BWVs reflect material resistance to some extent. Pooling results of com-392 pression testing of children and adult bone, Öhman et al. [84] found a high 393 correlation between yield stress and Young's modulus ($R^2=0.88$). Weaker 394 correlations have been found in studies considering only specimens from 395 adult donors ($R^2=0.25$ in three-point bending tests [85]; $R^2=0.53$ and 0.56 396 in tension and compression tests, respectively [41]). Further studies should 397 elucidate more precisely how much of bone material resistance (strength or 398 toughness) can be learned from the measurement of elastic properties and 399 BWVs. 400

401 4.2. Elasticity and bulk wave velocities reflect porosity and matrix properties

Porosity, a fracture risk factor [15], is an important determinant of stiff-402 ness variations [86, 87]. Several authors have reported correlations between 403 porosity and elastic moduli, although the range of correlation coefficients 404 is quite large. For example, Mirzaali et al. [42] found $R^2=0.08$ (Young's 405 modulus) and $R^2=0.47$ (shear modulus), Granke et al. [36] and Cai et al. 406 [88] found R^2 in the range 0.70-0.84 for all shear and longitudinal stiffness 407 coefficients. Relatively large relative variations of stiffness in the porosity 408 range [2.9-26.9%] were reported [36]: 58%, 34%, 48%, and 59% for C_{11} , C_{33} , 409 C_{44} , and C_{66} , respectively (Fig. 6). Overall, as porosity increases, C_{11} (lon-410 gitudinal elasticity transverse to Haversian canals) decreases more compared 411 to C_{33} (longitudinal elasticity in the direction of Haversian canals). This is 412 consistent with results of theoretical studies [89, 79, 40]. 413

Data suggest that porosity is also a strong determinant of BWVs. In axial direction, porosity was found to explain about 30% of BWV variation [47, 48]. In radial direction it was found to explains about 50% of BWV variations [45].



Figure 6: Reproduced from [36]. (a) Longitudinal and (b) shear mesoscopic elastic coefficients versus porosity in 21 cortical bone samples from the femur. The model based on continuum mechanics laws (solid and dotted lines), assuming fixed matrix properties and variable porosity, predicts the trend of variation of elasticity.

There is few data suggesting that variations of material properties of 418 the matrix may be reflected in QUS signals in human bones [90]. There is, 419 however, ex vivo data on prepared specimens pointing at an effect of matrix 420 properties variations on mesoscale elasticity. For instance, Rho et al. [91] 421 found that variations of the mesoscale axial Young's modulus $(R^2=0.49)$ 422 correlated to the variations of the matrix elasticity (probed with nanoinden-423 tation). Granke et al. [36] found that mesoscale elasticity was correlated with 424 matrix acoustical impedance (a proxy for stiffness) probed with acoustic mi-425 croscopy $(R^2 < 0.25)$. In another study, variations of matrix impedance has 426 been found to explain as much as 52% of axial BWV [47]. Ench et al. [92] 427 showed, with simulations performed on a limited number of samples, that 428 the correlation of BWV in the radial direction with porosity may be lost 429 due to inter-individual variations of matrix properties. 430

The main determinant of matrix stiffness variations is commonly thought 431 to be the mineral content. This is well evidenced considering a large variety 432 of bone samples taken from different species [86], and theoretical calcula-433 tions predict that a change of 10% of mineral volume fraction leads to a 434 change of typically more than 20% of matrix elastic coefficients [93, 94, 78]. 435 In a recent study on femoral bone specimens from 19 elderly donors, Cai 436 [88] found that more than 50% of mesoscale elasticity variations were asso-437 ciated to variations of mineral content. Collagen fibers mechanical quality 438

and organizational patterns have also been proposed as possible determinants of mesoscopic properties. As far as we are aware, there is no data
for human bone showing an effect of a pathological alteration of collagen on
mesoscale elastic properties. However, artificial degradation of the collagen
with chemical treatments is known to alter elastic properties [95].

From a mechanical standpoint, mesoscale cortical bone material proper-444 ties such as density, elasticity, or BWVs are fully determined by the proper-445 ties of the pore network and of the matrix. Whether or not a change of these 446 properties is reflected at the mesoscale in a given dataset critically depends 447 on the range of variations of the properties at the different scales. The data 448 reported above was obtained from the tissues of donors with no documented 449 medical history, hence the conclusions drawn from these studies only per-450 tain to this type of population and cannot be extrapolated to groups of 451 subjects carrying specific bone diseases. To conclude, for these bones from 452 non-targeted populations, the available data suggest that a large part of 453 the elasticity and BWVs variations is explained by the variation of porosity. 454 This is consistent with the prediction of theoretical models which assume 455 that the matrix properties have limited inter-individual variations and that 456 porosity varies in a relatively large interval [78, 80] (sec. 3.2.2). Variations 457 of the properties of the matrix (mineral content, impedance, elasticity) also 458 impact mesoscale elastic properties and BWVs, however, only limited data is 459 available. Some pathologies involving a low mineral content or a weak align-460 ment of collagen fibers are expected to strongly affect mesoscale properties 461 through modifications of both the porosity and the matrix. This calls for 462 more studies designed to investigate the variations of BWVs and elasticity 463 in different targeted populations. 464

465 4.3. Biomarkers of material heterogeneity

Aging may be associated to an increase of the heterogeneity of the distri-466 bution and size of the pores in the cortical bone layer, resulting in a gradient 467 of porosity: high porosity close to the marrow and relatively low porosity 468 close to the external surface of the bone [8]. In terms of mechanics of 469 materials, this raises the question of the existence of a representative vol-470 ume element of cortical bone material^[28]. If the local variations of porosity 471 are too strong, the cortical bone material can not be evaluated per se and 472 the cortex needs to be considered as a structure. In case of a mild hetero-473 geneity of porosity, it may be relevant to model the cortex material as a 474 heterogeneous field of material properties. This issue has in part been theo-475 retically addressed in an axial transmission QUS configuration [96, 97] but 476 has not been implemented in clinical practice as far as we know. Since the 477

heterogeneity of material properties within the cortex is expectedly associated to a reduced mechanical competence, it could be interesting to develop
ultrasound biomarkers reflecting heterogeneity.

481 5. Conclusion

QUS technologies to measure cortical bone thickness, a proven biomarker 482 of bone health, are available and used in vivo. Improvements of these tech-483 nologies and disruptive technologies are expected to be available in a near 484 future, which will achieve a coupled assessment of cortical thickness and 485 material properties. One motivation is to estimate intracortical porosity, 486 a quantity hardly directly measurable in vivo. Assessing porosity with ul-487 trasound would be a significant progress because porosity is a recognized 488 fracture risk factor and because it is a fingerprint of the remodeling activ-489 ity. One route to infer porosity is to use empirical relationships, or material 490 models, relating quantities measured with QUS and porosity. Other routes 491 are currently being explored such as imaging blood perfusion using ultra-492 sound contrast agent [98] and measuring ultrasonic attenuation assuming 493 it has a strong relationship with pore properties [99]. 494

Probing the quality of the mineralized collagen matrix in vivo with ultrasound is a far-reaching goal. It may be a reasonable objective in targeted pathologies providing that alterations of porosity and matrix properties are well documented ex vivo. Such documentation of acoustical properties in bone tissue with different pathologies is a keystone of the future development of bone QUS methods.

501 Acknowledgment

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