Title Page

Propagation phase-contrast micro-computed tomography allows laboratory-based threedimensional imaging of articular cartilage down to the cellular level

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Abstract

(1) Objective

High-resolution non-invasive three-dimensional (3D) imaging of chondrocytes in articular cartilage remains elusive. The aim of this study was to explore whether laboratory micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) permits imaging cells within articular cartilage.

(2) Design

Bovine osteochondral plugs were prepared four ways: in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) or 70% ethanol (EtOH), both with or without phosphotungstic acid (PTA) staining. Specimens were imaged with micro-CT following two protocols: 1) absorption contrast (AC) imaging 2) propagation phase-contrast (PPC) imaging. All samples were scanned in liquid. The contrast to noise ratio (C/N) of cellular features quantified scan quality and were statistically analysed. Cellular features resolved by micro-CT were validated by standard histology.

(3) Results

The highest quality images were obtained using propagation phase contrast imaging and PTAstaining in 70% EtOH. Cellular features were also visualised when stained in PBS and unstained in EtOH. Under all conditions PPC resulted in greater contrast than AC (p < 0.0001 to p = 0.038). Simultaneous imaging of cartilage and subchondral bone did not impede image quality. Corresponding features were located in both histology and micro-CT and followed the same distribution with similar density and roundness values.

(4) Conclusions

Three-dimensional visualisation and quantification of the chondrocyte population within articular cartilage can be achieved across a field of view of several millimetres using laboratory-based micro-CT. The ability to map chondrocytes in 3D opens possibilities for research in fields from skeletal development through to medical device design and treatment of cartilage degeneration.

Keywords: osteoarthritis, chondrocyte, imaging, micro-CT, articular cartilage, 3D

Running headline: Imaging chondrocytes in three-dimensions

1 Introduction

2

3 Research into the structure of articular cartilage has been performed for over a century¹ but has 4 historically been limited to destructive 2D imaging on a single plane². There is potential for micro-5 computed tomography (micro-CT) to reveal full-field 3D information from intact segments of 6 articular cartilage. Success could advance the study of osteoarthritis development and provide a 7 natural pattern to enable full-field strain measurements of cartilage³. This could lead to 8 advancements in chondral repair scaffolds that target biomimicry, as is possible with other tissues⁴. 9 Articular cartilage is typically difficult to image by micro-CT due to poor absorption of X-rays owing 10 to its composition of low-Z elements such as carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen⁵. However, two 11 methods that exist to increase contrast in cartilage are contrast agents⁶ and phase contrast imaging⁷.

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Contrast agents, typically composed of high-density heavy metals, bind to extracellular components, 13 increasing density and thereby increase the resulting signal⁸. Articular cartilage has been stained for 14 micro-CT to study morphological changes^{9, 10}, glycosaminoglycan content^{11, 12} and to infer the spatial 15 16 distribution of collagen and assessment of degradation¹³. Pauwels *et al.*, conducted an investigation 17 of 28 potential contrast agents and found that the most promising contrast agents for soft-tissue staining were phosphomolybdic acid (H₃PMo₁₂O₄₀, PMA), phosphotungstic acid (H₃PW₁₂O₄₀, PTA) and 18 mercury chloride (HgCl₂)⁶. PTA and PMA have been used to indicate collagen distribution¹⁴. Whilst it 19 20 is proposed that these stains may bind to various proteins⁵, the underpinning mechanism(s) is not fully elucidated¹⁵. Many of these studies have involved the use of ethanol (EtOH) as the solvent to 21 22 dissolve the contrast agent¹⁴, whilst others fully desiccate the cartilage to enable the structure to be observed¹⁶. These changes in water content likely modify the mechanical properties of the material 23 24 and thus may not be fully representative of the in vivo conditions. Imaging samples immersed in 25 alternative liquids, altering less the physiological conditions, would be attractive.

27	Phase contrast imaging detects the phase shift that X-rays experience passing through matter,
28	resulting from differences in refractive index or non-uniform thicknesses ¹⁷ . It is particularly useful for
29	low-contrast biological samples in life-sciences ^{18, 19} . Three of the most common techniques are
30	propagation phase contrast (PPC) ²⁰ , analyser-based imaging ²¹ and grating interferometry ²² . Many of
31	these methods, including both analyser-based diffraction enhanced contrast and grating
32	interferometry, require specialised and modified equipment. PPC requires no such modification to
33	the equipment used for typical absorption contrast as long as the beam is highly spatially coherent
34	and the scanner allows for the detector to be positioned sufficiently far from the sample. Various
35	attempts have been made to image articular cartilage with phase contrast using relatively common
36	laboratory micro-CT ^{23, 24} as well as highly specialised synchrotron sources ^{7, 25} . Data indicates PPC in
37	the synchrotron is able to detect the structure of cartilage ²⁶ , but lab micro-CT has not yet generated
38	comparable images ^{25, 27} . The ability to image the cartilage structure in lab micro-CT would be highly
39	advantageous, enabling wider access for researchers in utilising technology which may eventually
40	allow in vivo diagnostics with clinically-available tomography.

Herein we explore the hypothesis that a combination of staining and laboratory phase-contrast
micro-CT can adequately visualise individual chondrocytes within intact samples of articular
cartilage. Our primary aim was to develop a method to image chondrocytes with laboratory microCT. Our secondary aim was to achieve this whilst maintaining the tissue in conditions which deviate
the least from those found physiologically.

48 Method

50 Sample preparation

52	Fresh juvenile bovine (<2 years old) stifle joints (n = 3) from two animals were obtained from a
53	slaughterhouse and stored at -25 °C until experimentation. The specimens were thawed at 4 °C, kept
54	hydrated with Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline solution (DPBS, #14190-094, Fisher Scientific,
55	USA) and 3 mm cylindrical osteochondral plugs (n = 10) were taken from the femoral condyles using
56	a hollow punch. Samples were prepared under four conditions (Fig. 1). All were initially bathed for
57	30 minutes in PBS and the ethanol (EtOH) treated samples were immersed in step-wise increasing
58	concentrations of EtOH ²⁸ . From each of the PBS or EtOH treated groups, one osteochondral plug was
59	maintained in the liquid without staining (denoted PBS or EtOH), whilst others (Table 1 and
60	supplementary table) were further processed with staining using a 1% w/v phosphotungstic acid
61	solution (weight/volume, $H_3PW_{12}O_{40}$, PTA, #79690 Sigma-Aldrich, USA) in either PBS or 70% ethanol
62	for 21 hours then rinsed in the medium prior to micro-CT scanning (denoted PBS+PTA or EtOH+PTA).
63	The full description of each sample is included in the supplementary table. Staining time was
64	optimised in pilot experiments. All samples were stored in their liquid medium at room temperature
65	prior to scanning.
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67	[Suggested placement for Figure 1]
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69	X-ray micro-tomography scanning
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/1	Samples were immersed in their corresponding liquid medium (PBS or 70% EtOH) and mounted in
72	sealed plastic containers. All scans were carried out on a Versa 520 X-ray micro-CT scanner (Zeiss,
73	Germany). For all scans, voltage and current were 40 kV and 75 μA respectively with no pixel

74 binning. No x-ray filters were applied. To allow comparison of the signal between absorption and 75 propagation phase signals, scans under different scanning protocols were taken. Image quality at different source-to-object (SOD) and object-to-detector (ODD) distances can be maintained by 76 77 adjusting exposure time to ensure a sufficient photon count reaches the detector. The larger the 78 SOD and ODD distances, the longer the exposure time required to maintain the photon count. Firstly 79 the absorption signal was collected by minimising the SOD and ODD distances to reduce scanning 80 time. This is the type of scan typically carried out with a micro-CT scanner. Next the phase contrast 81 scan was taken with enlarged SOD and ODD, allowing implementation of propagation phase contrast 82 (PPC). Using a larger SOD also has the advantage of decreasing cone beam error²⁹. Increasing the 83 ODD for the PPC scan reduced the X-ray flux, resulting in exposure times typically four times longer 84 than for the absorption scan. The full set of scan parameters for each scan are shown in Table 1 and 85 in the supplementary table. A volume of interest of approximately 2x2x2 mm was included for each 86 set of conditions. For the bovine samples used during this study, the volume of interest did not 87 constitute the entire cartilage height. For histological comparison, an additional sample (e) was 88 prepared by the same method employed for the EtOH+PTA sample (d) and scanned to maximise 89 image quality with a higher number of projections and further increased SOD and ODD. 90 Reconstruction of the projection images to produce 3D volumetric data sets was performed using 91 the Reconstructor Scout-and-Scan software (Zeiss, Germany). The reconstructed CT volumes were visualized and analysed using (Fiji Is Just) ImageJ software³⁰ (version 1.52g, NIH, USA). Two of the 92 93 sample from groups PBS+PTA (b) and EtOH+PTA (d) were scanned twice using PPC to ensure scan 94 repeatability and measure consistency in scan quality.

95

96 Histology

98	Following the micro-CT scan, one of the osteochondral plugs (e) was stored in 10% neutral buffered
99	formalin (#HT501128, Sigma-Aldrich) for 24 hours. Before paraffin wax embedding, PTA was
100	removed by ion-exchanging in a washing solution of 0.55 mM NaOH, 0.1 M of Na $_2$ HPO $_4$, 137 mM
101	NaCl, and 2.7 mM KCl, pH 10 for 5 days following established protocol ³¹ . The sample was
102	subsequently decalcified in 425 mM EDTA neutral solution for 7 days exchanged every day ³² ,
103	paraffin-embedded and sections (5 μ m) collected on Superfrost slides (Fisher Scientific, USA).
104	Sections were dewaxed immersing twice for 5 minutes in Gentaclear (Genta Medical, UK), washed in
105	tap water and subsequently stained with: (1) Alcian Blue at pH 2.5 with counterstaining of nuclei
106	with Neutral Red ³³ ; (2) Masson's Trichrome ³² ; (3) Picro-Sirius Red ³⁴ or (4) Safranin O (0.5%)/Fast
107	Green FCF(0.2%) with nuclei counterstained with Celestin blue and Harris Haematoxylin (all from
108	Sigma-Aldrich, USA) ³⁵ . All sections slides were cover slipped with DPX mountant (Sigma-Aldrich,
109	USA). Colour micrographs were acquired using a Zeiss Axio Observer Inverted Widefield Microscope
110	with an IC5 colour camera, and with a fully motorised stage controlled by ZEN Blue pro software
111	capable of tiling and stitching, using a 20× DIC Plan Apochromat air objective with numerical
112	aperture of 0.8, and 2048 × 2048 resolution, with pixel size corresponding to 0.33 $\mu m.$
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114	Image analysis
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116 117	Contrast to Noise Analysis
118	Of the constituent components within articular cartilage, the largest individual features are
119	chondrocytes. Yet the chondrocytes have previously been difficult to visualise over large distances in
120	3D ³⁶ , owing to their small size, low spatial density and previously discussed low contrast. Typically

- 121 each chondrocyte will occupy few voxels and noise can easily lead to erroneous segmentation.
- 122 Therefore, as a measure of contrast and scan quality, the contrast to noise ratio (C/N) of individual

123	chondrocyte features was calculated through the sample height for each sample and compared
124	between the samples scanned under different conditions. Within each sample (Fig. 2.A) a region was
125	micro-CT scanned (Fig. 2.B). Eleven equally spaced layers per sample from the reconstructed image
126	stack (Fig. 2.C) were analysed in ImageJ using the Plot Profile tool (Fig. 2.D & E) with a line length of
127	60 pixels to measure grayscale intensity across cells and their surrounding matrix (n = 10 per layer, n
128	= 110 cells per sample) ²⁰ . Chondrocytes were visualised with a higher grayscale value than the
129	surrounding matrix. A higher C/N indicates more clearly visualised features. Care was taken to only
130	include one chondrocyte per profile therefore only the highest peak characterised a cell, all others
131	represented the surrounding matrix. A MATLAB script (R2016a, MathWorks Inc, Natick, MA, USA)
132	computed the ratio of the amplitude of the maximum peak (A) above the background peaks for each
133	plot, divided by the standard deviation of the surrounding noise peaks ³⁷ (Fig. 2 .E).
134	
135	[Suggested placement for Figure 2]
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138	
139 140	Histological Analysis
141	The micro-CT and histological images for sample (e) were manually registered in ImageJ. Similarly
142	located areas of 500 μm x 500 μm were selected in both modalities (micro-CT n = 12, histology n = 3
143	for each of the four stains) at three different heights through the sample (n = 36 in total each for
144	micro-CT and histology). Three consecutive micro-CT slices were combined using the Max Intensity Z
145	project process within Fiji ImageJ software to result in a comparable thickness (5.91 μ m) to that of
146	the histological slices (5 μ m). The histological images were scaled to the same resolution as the
147	micro-CT. Images were segmented using the Trainable Weka Segmentation ³⁸ and the Analyze
148	Particles tool was used with a minimum size of 5 μm^2 and circularity of 0.15-1.00 to measure density
149	and roundness.

151 Statistical Analysis

152

153 Contrast to noise ratio (C/N) data for each micro-CT scan was imported to SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics, 154 version 25, Armonk, NY). Students t-tests were run to understand the effects of liquid medium (PBS 155 or EtOH), staining (with or without PTA) and scan-type (absorption and propagation imaging) on C/N, 156 and between the two scan-types for each preparation technique (Table 1 (a)-(d)). Data are mean ± 157 standard deviation unless otherwise stated. Contrast to noise values were normally distributed, as 158 assessed by Q-Q plot inspection. By inspection of boxplots, 14 of the 20 groups contained a limited 159 number of outliers further than 1.5 box lengths. These constituted at most 1.8% of all values per 160 group and thus were included. There was non-homogeneity of variances for groups (p < 0.0005) as 161 assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances therefore the Welch's t-test was chosen, for 162 which equal variances are not assumed. Paired-sample t-tests were run on the C/N values for the 163 two pairs of repeat scans of samples prepared with PBS+PTA and EtoH+PTA. There were no outliers 164 in the PBS+PTA groups and two significant outliers were found in the EtOH+PTA data (comprised of n 165 = 220 data points) which were not excluded. Assessment by Q-Q plot inspection showed normally 166 distributed differences in C/N scores for both conditions. 167 Results 168 169

170 PPC imaging following PTA staining in EtOH yields greatest chondrocyte visualisation

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Our data show that the most efficient combination of imaging modality, sample preparation medium and staining to resolve cellular details in articular cartilage was to use propagation phase contrast (PPC) scanning of samples stained with PTA in EtOH (**Fig. 3**.D). Cellular features in cartilage were also

176	visualised in samples stained with PTA prepared in PBS as well as in unstained samples stored in
177	EtOH. For both scan types, C/N for samples in ethanol were higher than PBS (p < 0.0001, Fig. 3 .A),
178	and higher for samples stained in PTA compared to unstained samples (p < 0.0001, Fig. 3.B). The C/N
179	score for ethanol was higher than PBS for both unstained (p = 0.001) and stained samples (p <
180	0.0001, Fig. 3.C). Propagation scanning increased C/N for all sample preparation methods (Fig. 3.D).
181	There was no difference between the pairs of repeat scans in either the PBS+PTA or EtOH+PTA
182	samples (p = 0.852 and p = 0.112 respectively, Fig. 3 .E), showing scan repeatability. Simultaneous
183	imaging of subchondral bone and cartilage did not impede image quality.
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185	[Suggested placement for Figure 3]
186	
187 188	Depth-dependent properties
189	Contrast to noise ratio values through the height of each sample are shown in Fig. 4. A control was
190	included as a measure of contrast variation in the surrounding matrix which was similar in both
191	scanning methods. For most of the sample preparation techniques contrast improved using the
192	propagation phase scanning method (Fig. 4.B) compared to the absorption scans (Fig. 4.A) and
193	remained improved through most of the sample height.
194	
105	[Suggested placement for Figure 4]
195	[suggested placement for Figure 4]
196	
197	Reconstructed z-slice images from the micro-CT scans for each sample preparation method (Fig. 5)
198	infer the same results as the C/N values suggest: that propagation phase contrast shows more
199	clearly defined features (Fig. 5.B). Features are most clearly visualised with staining in the ethanol
200	group. Features reduce in size and intensity throughout the sample height.

201	
202	[Suggested placement for Figure 5]
203	
204 205	Histological Validation
206	In order to validate our findings from micro-CT analysis, we performed image registration between
207	micro-CT and conventional cartilage histology images of the same sample (Fig. 6 and supplementary
208	video). Both techniques allowed observation and quantification of similar cellular features (Fig. 6.B,
209	D, E) and cellular distribution Fig. 6.C). We attempted to correlate cellular area between the two
210	imaging methods, but the area of an individual cell was too sensitive to greyscale thresholding for
211	this to be accurately feasible. However, the density of cellular features observed with micro-CT was
212	between the values for chondrocytes and their lacunae in the histological images (Fig. 6.C) and
213	cellular roundness was similar (Fig. 6 .D).
214	
214 215	[Suggested placement for Figure 6]
214 215 216	[Suggested placement for Figure 6]
214 215 216 217	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7).
214 215 216 217 218	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7). Density of cellular features reduced with distance from the subchondral bone for both methods (Fig.
214 215 216 217 218 219	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7). Density of cellular features reduced with distance from the subchondral bone for both methods (Fig. 7 .A, B, C). Roundness remained similar for both micro-CT and histology throughout the sample
214 215 216 217 218 219 220	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7). Density of cellular features reduced with distance from the subchondral bone for both methods (Fig. 7 .A, B, C). Roundness remained similar for both micro-CT and histology throughout the sample height (Fig. 7 .D).
214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7). Density of cellular features reduced with distance from the subchondral bone for both methods (Fig. 7 .A, B, C). Roundness remained similar for both micro-CT and histology throughout the sample height (Fig. 7 .D).
214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222	[Suggested placement for Figure 6] Depth-dependent feature analysis (n = 12) was carried out between micro-CT and histology (Fig. 7). Density of cellular features reduced with distance from the subchondral bone for both methods (Fig. 7.A, B, C). Roundness remained similar for both micro-CT and histology throughout the sample height (Fig. 7.D). [Suggested placement for Figure 7]

225 Discussion

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227 We report for the utility of a standard laboratory micro-CT scanner to visualise and quantify features 228 of the chondrocyte population within intact articular cartilage in 3D. Histological staining was used 229 to confirm these cartilaginous features observed by micro-CT at the cellular level. Images between 230 both methods were successfully registered, confirming the location and distribution of features. 231 Measurements of cellular density measured with micro-CT yielded values within the range of 232 chondrocytes and their lacunae measured with histological images. Morphology was compared with 233 cellular roundness, for which both techniques yielded similar values. Repeatability of measured C/N 234 values was confirmed for both PBS and EtOH-stained samples. Imaging was successful using 235 propagation phase contrast imaging with the sample maintained within a liquid environment and is 236 compatible with either PBS or EtOH as a medium, achieving the aims of the study. It is pertinent also 237 that we find that simultaneous imaging of hard and soft tissues did not impede image quality. 238 Propagation phase contrast increases the contrast of individual chondrocytes compared to using 239 absorption contrast. This offers researchers the opportunity to image chondrocyte distributions in 240 3D without specialised synchrotron equipment, enabling investigations such as chondrocyte 241 morphology across grades of cartilage damage, 3D strain mapping techniques such as digital volume 242 correlation to evaluate mechanical properties in situ, and models for 3D finite element analysis in 243 silico simulations.

244

This study represents a complimentary addition to the growing body of evidence supporting the non-destructive imaging of the constituents of articular cartilage. Previous studies have differed in focus on other aspects of the cartilage structure¹⁴; involved the use of highly specialist synchrotron facilities^{25, 27, 39}; or drying and dehydration that may change the organisation and mechanical properties of the tissue¹⁶. We have compared and quantified the output scans of samples prepared

250 using different preparation techniques and scanning signals. As with previous studies it was found that heavy metal staining provided an improvement in signal attenuation^{6, 14}. The use of PBS as the 251 252 medium during sample preparation and subsequent staining is atypical in previous literature and 253 provides a more physiological environment than EtOH or formalin fixation. The visualised features in 254 this study are comparable to those achieved for similarly prepared samples in micro-CT and synchrotron facilities using a similar voxel size^{14, 25}, and additionally can image the adjacent 255 256 subchondral bone. For sample (e) which was processed with EtOH and PTA staining we found the 257 cellular density of chondrocyte features to reduce from 663 mm⁻² to 511 mm⁻² when approaching 258 the cartilage surface. An earlier study using confocal microscopy and sectioning of bovine samples 259 found cellular density to follow a similar trend with the lowest density furthest from the articular surface⁴⁰. We note that there was a discrepancy in density between the chondrocytes and their 260 261 lacunae. A potential cause of this was damage incurred by sectioning and associated processing, this 262 is avoided with non-destructive visualisation techniques such as micro-CT. Micro-CT values for 263 roundness were approximately 7% higher than with histology. This may be due to partial volume 264 effect artefacts observed with micro-CT scanning⁴¹.

265

266 Our study has several limitations. Host tissue was stored frozen at -25 °C and thawed for use. 267 Successful histological staining of nuclei and cells post-scanning suggest that tissue disruption is not 268 any more extensive than would be expected in samples prepared in this way. Previous studies have reported no difference in mechanical properties between fresh and frozen soft tissues⁴² yet testing 269 270 the method works with fresh tissue would be beneficial. Currently, this method has only been 271 applied to a small number of juvenile bovine samples, and future studies are needed to increase the 272 sample size and to confirm that the method works with human articular cartilage. Penetration 273 issues were experienced by virtue of the low-energy X-rays being easily absorbed by the sample and 274 surrounding container, and the method is limited by specimen size. It was found that the thickness

275 of the sample container had an effect on the signal reaching the detector. Wall thickness was kept 276 below 1 mm to reduce weakening of the signal. Given that samples were scanned within liquid, using 277 containers of large internal diameter decreased the detected signal due to increased liquid volume. 278 The largest samples we have scanned with this technique were 6 mm in diameter. This provided 279 sufficient resolving power at the perimeters and centre of the sample but suffered from inconsistent 280 signal quality in the intermediate region. The scans presented in this study include ≈ 2 mm of the 281 bovine cartilage height in the volume of interest. Ideally the whole cartilage thickness would have 282 been included yet owing to the large thickness of bovine cartilage we sought to preserve resolution 283 where possible. For the absorption scans a pixel size of 3.5 μ m was used, compared to 2 μ m for the 284 phase contrast scans. Ideally this variable would have been removed but limitations with the scanner 285 required a larger pixel size. Scanning parameters could not be kept consistent between scans owing 286 to differences in sample density due to the different preparation techniques. Attempts were made 287 to keep the overall scanning time similar for all samples but differences in exposure time and 288 number of projections may still have affected comparison between the scans. Previous studies have 289 shown that ionizing radiation can have a significant effect on a range of measured properties in 290 articular cartilage samples^{43, 44}, including its mechanical properties⁴⁵; bone is also negatively 291 affected⁴⁶. Low energy X-rays interact with these low-density materials and cause more damage 292 than high energy beams causing particular problems for the low voltages used throughout this study⁴⁷. Further to this, the heating effect on the sample has been shown to affect protein structures 293 and illicit physical shrinkage⁴⁸. These effects could be reduced by limiting the number of projections, 294 295 and therefore scanning time. Moini et al., have reported colour changes in amino acids upon 296 irradiation⁴⁷, and we observed that some of the samples stored in EtOH and stained with PTA had a 297 temporary blue hue after scanning. Further work is necessary to determine whether these 298 observations have negative implications for this mode of imaging. Currently the method has been 299 validated in 2D against histological sections, further work is recommended for validation against 300 established 3D techniques such as confocal imaging.

302	Herein, we report a novel and validated non-destructive technique to visualise chondrocyte features
303	through a region of several millimetres in articular cartilage. This enables an objective quantification
304	of chondrocyte distribution and morphology in three dimensions allowing greater insight for
305	investigations into studies of cartilage development, degeneration and repair. One such application
306	of our method, is as a means to provide a 3D pattern in the cartilage which, when combined with
307	digital volume correlation, could determine 3D strain gradient measurements enabling potential
308	treatment and repair of cartilage degeneration. Moreover, the method proposed here will allow
309	evaluation of cartilage implanted with tissue engineered scaffolds designed to promote chondral
310	repair, providing valuable insight into the induced regenerative process.
311	
312 313	Acknowledgements
314	
315	The authors wish to thank Maria Parkes for providing specimens, Farah Ahmed and Brett Clark for
316	their assistance with the micro-CT imaging, Lorraine Lawrence for histological sectioning and staining
317	and Kiron Athwal for assistance with the statistical analysis.
318	
319	Author contributions
320	
321	Conceived and designed the experiments: JNC, JRTJ, UH
322	Performed the experiments: JNC, AG, SAF
323	Analysis and interpretation of the data: JNC, SAF, BJ, AAP, SMR, JRTJ, UH

324	Drafting of the article: JNC, JRTJ, UH									
325	Critical revision of the article for important intellectual content: JNC, AG, SAF, BJ, AAP, SMR, JRTJ, UH									
326	Final approval of the article: JNC, AG, SAF, BJ, AAP, SMR, JRTJ, UH									
327	Obtaining of funding: SMR, JRTJ, UH									
328	JNC (j.clark14@imperial.ac.uk), JRTJ (j.jeffers@imperial.ac.uk) and UH (u.hansen@imperial.ac.uk)									
329	take responsibility for the integrity of the work as a whole, from inception to finished article.									
330										
331	Role of the funding source									
332										
333	The authors gratefully acknowledge the financial support of EPSRC funding (EP/N025059/1) and the									
334	first author holds the Imperial College Class of 1964 Scholarship. The authors (BJ and AAP) are also									
335	indebted to Versus Arthritis (grant no. 20581) for their support. Beyond financial support, the									
336	funding sources had no involvement in the preparation of this manuscript.									
337										
338	Competing interest statement									
339										
340	The authors report no conflicts of interest.									
341										
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464

465 Figure legends

466 Fig. 1. Sample preparation methodology for the four preparation methods using osteochondral plugs extracted from a

467 *similar position in the bovine condyles.*

468

469 Table 1. Micro-CT scan parameters. All scans took place at 40kV and 75μA. AC = Absorption contrast, PPC = Propagation

470 phase contrast signal. SOD = Source-to-Object Distance, ODD = Object-to-Detector Distance. No x-ray filters were used. The

471 supplementary table provides a further breakdown of parameters for each individual sample and includes sources for each

472 sample.

473

474	Fig. 2. Methodology to extract contrast to noise (C/N) values in the micro-CT scans of osteochondral plugs. A volume of
475	interest within the cartilage region of the osteochondral plug (A.) was scanned, as shown by the black dashed cube (B.). To
476	measure changes through the cartilage height, eleven layers equally spaced 100 layers apart (~ 200 μ m; C.) were taken
477	from within the 1000-layer thick z-stack and on each of these layers ten features were analysed with the Surface Plot Tool in
478	ImageJ (denoted by dashed lines; D.) to extract the grayscale intensity as a function of distance from the cell (E.), resulting
479	in 110 plots per sample. Greyscale values were processed in MATLAB: the amplitude of the signal ("A") was divided by the
480	standard deviation of the noise ("N") to give the C/N. Images shown are for sample (d.1) EtOH+PTA with PPC.

481

482 Fig. 3. Contrast to noise (C/N) data, as described in Figure 2, was statistically analysed with t-tests in SPSS and displayed are

483 mean contrast to noise ratio for the three variables: scan type (absorption and propagation), medium (PBS and EtOH) and

484 staining (none and PTA-staining) with their 95% CIs. (A.) Between mediums for the two scan protocols C/N was greater for

485 EtOH than the PBS in both scanning methods (both p < 0.0001) with mean differences of 1.243 (95% CI 0.709 to 1.778) for

- 486 absorption contrast and 6.231 (95% CI 5.772 to 6.690) for propagation contrast. (B.) Between unstained and unstained
- 487 samples for the two scan protocols. For absorption contrast, staining increased C/N by a mean value of 2.325 (p < 0.0001,
- 488 95% CI 1.824 to 2.837) and by 7.202 (p < 0.0001, 95% CI 6.786 to 7.618) for the propagation method. (C.) Between mediums
- 489 with and without staining. Unstained, there was an increase in the C/N of 0.524 (p = 0.001, 95% CI 0.220 to 0.828) using
- 490 ethanol rather than PBS and when using PTA staining there was an increase of 6.279 (p < 0.0001, 95% CI 5.83 to 6.730). (D.)
- 491 Mean contrast to noise values for all scans divided by preparation technique. PPC increase C/N for all groups compared to
- 492 AC: (a) PBS by 0.400 (p < 0.038, 95% CI (0.022 to 0.779), (b) PBS+PTA by 2.490 (p < 0.0001, 95% CI 2.093 to 2.885), (c) EtOH
- 493 by 3.654 (p < 0.0001, 95% CI 2.782 to 4.527) and (d) by 8.224 (p < 0.0001, 95% CI 7.686 to 8.762). (E.) Two repeat
- 494 propagation scans were taken of samples from the PTA-stained groups. No difference in mean C/N was found with either
- 495 medium: PBS had a mean difference of 0.058 (p = 0.852, 95% CI -0.560 to 0.676), EtOH had a mean difference of 1.183 (p =
- **496** 0.112, 95% CI 0.281 to 2.648).*P < 0.05, **P < 0.001, ***P < 0.0001.

- 498 Fig. 4. Mean contrast to noise ratio (C/N) values (with 95% Cls) through the height of osteochondral plugs prepared with
- 499 various methods and micro-CT scanned using the two Absorption Contrast (A.) and Propagation Phase (B.) protocols.
- 500 Chondrocyte grayscale intensity (n = 10) was plotted across 11 scan layers per sample as described in Fig. 2. The scans
- 501 included a depth of approximately 2 mm of articular cartilage mid-way through its height. 100 micro-CT slices equates to
- 502 approximately 200 μm. For comparison, data collected without cellular features is given as a control for signal variation in
- 503 the surrounding matrix.

- Fig. 5. Comparison of image quality through the height of samples under the different sample preparation techniques and
 micro-CT protocols. Layer 1 is in the cartilage above the subchondral bone, and layer 950 is distally located closer to the
 articular surface. For illustrative purposes brightness was normalised between sets of images, all analysis was carried out
 on unedited images.
- 509
- Fig. 6. Micro-CT comparison with histology. (A.) Reconstructed micro-CT volume and light microscopy (LM) histological
 slices (Alcian Blue, Masson's Trichrome; Picro-Sirius Red and Safranin O) of sample (e): 70% EtOH and PTA staining. The
 scale of the micro-CT and histology images is comparable. (B.) A high magnification region of interest between the two
 techniques is shown with symbols denoting corresponding features. Equivalent 500 x 500 µm areas were analysed between
 both methods (each n = 36) and mean values (with 95% Cls) are shown for cellular density (C.) and cellular roundness (D.).
 Measurements for lacunae encompass the chondrocytes and other cellular features.

- 516
- 517 Fig. 7. Reconstructed micro-CT slice of 1.97 μm thickness of osteochondral plug sample (e): 70% EtOH and PTA staining (A.),
- 518 with higher magnification volume renderings of different regions through the height of the cartilage: deep, middle and
- 519 superior (B.). Renderings are of a volume of 135 x 135 x 80 μm produced with Fiji's Volume Viewer. Measures of density (C.),
- 520 and roundness (D.) were calculated over 500 x 500 μm areas at the three locations for both micro-CT and histology (n = 12).
- 521 Measurements for lacunae encompass the chondrocytes and other cellular features. Displayed values are mean and 95%
- 522 Cls.









A. A bsorption Contrast Scans PBS Unstained Layer 1 Layer 500 Layer 950 Layer \$200 Layer 950 Sigurn Sig

B. Propagation Phase Contrast Scans



Figure6





- 1
- 2 Table 1. Micro-CT scan parameters. All scans took place at 40kV and 75μA. AC = Absorption contrast, PPC = Propagation
- 3 phase contrast signal. SOD = Source-to-Object Distance, ODD = Object-to-Detector Distance. No x-ray filters were used. The
- 4 supplementary table provides a further breakdown of parameters for each individual sample and includes sources for each
- 5 sample.

Sample	Method	Medium	Stain	n	Voxel (µm)	SOD (mm)	ODD (mm)	Exposur	Projections
group								e (s)	
(a)	AC		-	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	5	2401
	PPC	PBS		1	1.99	23.5	55.8	22	2401
(b)	AC		ΡΤΑ	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	8	2001
	PPC			3	1.97 - 2.09	23.5 - 25 .0	55.0 - 60.0	30 - 34	2001 - 3201
(c)	AC		-	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	6	2301
	PPC			1	1.99	23.5	55.8	25	2301
(d)	AC	EtOH		1	3.53	20.0	18.0	7	2001
			ΡΤΑ	5	1.97 - 2.85	23.5 -30	40 - 73	25 - 40	2001 - 3201
(e)	РРС			1	1.97	30	73	30	3201

Table 1. Micro-CT scan parameters. All scans took place at 40kV and 75μA. AC = Absorption contrast, PPC = Propagation phase contrast signal. SOD = Source-to-Object Distance, ODD = Object-to-Detector Distance. No x-ray filters were used. The supplementary table provides a further breakdown of parameters for each individual sample and includes sources for each sample.

Sample	Method	Medium	Stain	n	Voxel (µm)	SOD (mm)	ODD (mm)	Exposur	Projections
group								e (s)	
(a)	AC		-	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	5	2401
	PPC	PBS		1	1.99	23.5	55.8	22	2401
(b)	AC		PTA	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	8	2001
	PPC			<mark>3</mark>	1.97 - 2.09	23.5 - 25 .0	55.0 - 60.0	30 - 34	2001 - 3201
(c)	AC		-	1	3.53	20.0	18.0	6	2301
	PPC			1	1.99	23.5	55.8	25	2301
(d)	AC	EtOH		1	3.53	20.0	18.0	7	2001
			PTA	<mark>5</mark>	1.97 - 2.85	23.5 -30	40 - 73	25 - 40	2001 - 3201
(e)	РРС			1	1.97	30	73	30	3201

