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Effects of *ex vivo* Ionizing Radiation on Collagen Structure and Whole-Bone Mechanical Properties of Mouse Vertebrae

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Abstract:

Bone can become brittle when exposed to ionizing radiation across a wide range of clinically relevant doses that span from radiotherapy (accumulative 50 Gy) to sterilization (~35,000 Gy). While irradiation-induced embrittlement has been attributed to changes in the collagen molecular structure, the relative role of collagen fragmentation versus non-enzymatic collagen crosslinking remains unclear. To better understand the effects of radiation on the bone material without cellular activity, we conducted an *ex vivo* x-ray radiation experiment on excised mouse lumbar vertebrae. Spinal tissue from twenty-week old, female, C57BL/6J mice were randomly assigned to a single x-ray radiation dose of either 0 (control), 50, 1,000, 17,000, or 35,000 Gy. Measurements were made for collagen fragmentation, non-enzymatic collagen crosslinking, and both monotonic and cyclic-loading compressive mechanical properties. We found that the group differences for mechanical properties were more consistent with those for collagen fragmentation than for non-enzymatic collagen crosslinking. Monotonic strength at 17,000 and 35,000 Gy was lower than that of the control by 50% and 73% respectively, ($p < 0.001$) but at 50 and 1,000 Gy was not different than the control. Consistent with those trends, collagen fragmentation only occurred at 17,000 and 35,000 Gy. By contrast, non-enzymatic collagen crosslinking was greater than control for all radiation doses ($p < 0.001$). All results were consistent both for monotonic and cyclic loading conditions. We conclude that the reductions in bone compressive monotonic strength and fatigue life due to *ex vivo* ionizing radiation are more likely caused by fragmentation of the collagen backbone than any increases in non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks.

Key Words (6 max): ionizing radiation; bone strength; fatigue; collagen; sterilization; bone-graft

Highlights (3-5 bullet points; maximum 20 words per bullet):

- *Ex vivo* ionizing radiation of whole-bones caused a reduction in compressive monotonic strength and fatigue life.

- Decreased strength was best explained by collagen fragmentation, not the accumulation of non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks.
- Non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks may play a smaller role in degrading mechanical strength of bone than previously considered.
- Irradiation has unique effects on cyclic behavior that are not manifested in static behavior.

1 1 Introduction

2 For a variety of clinical applications, bones are exposed to a wide range of ionizing radiation doses.
3 *In vivo*, radiotherapy treatment results in an accumulated localized dose of ~50 Gy¹ in cancer patients [1–
4 3]. *Ex vivo*, bone allografts are sterilized at a dose of 30,000 ± 5,000 Gy [4,5]. While these high-dose
5 applications are critical for overall patient health and safety, high levels of ionizing radiation exposure have
6 been shown to increase risk of fracture [6,7]. For example, for women with anal, rectal or colon cancer,
7 those treated with radiation therapy were more than three times as likely to suffer a pelvic fracture than
8 those without radiation therapy [8]. Furthermore, for patients with implanted bone allografts, allografts
9 sterilized with radiation were twice as likely to fail compared to allografts sterilized using other methods
10 [9]. The increased risk of fracture clinically has led to research into the effect of high levels of ionizing
11 radiation exposure on the mechanical and biochemical properties of bone.

12 Numerous *ex vivo* studies on either cortical or cancellous bone have demonstrated that ionizing
13 radiation degrades mechanical properties and collagen molecular structure independent of cellular activity.
14 The demonstrated reduction in post-yield properties — ultimate strain, ultimate strength, fracture
15 toughness, work-to-failure — of irradiated bone [10–15] has been attributed to changes in collagen
16 molecular structure [16–18]. Though the exact mechanism dominating irradiation-induced collagen
17 degradation is not fully known, two mechanisms have been suggested as causes for diminished mechanics
18 [10,12–14,19–23]. First, the collagen backbone can be fragmented when the molecular bonds are cleaved
19 directly by x- and gamma-rays, breaking the intact protein chain into smaller polypeptides. Second, collagen
20 molecules can be non-enzymatically crosslinked when radiolysis of water molecules creates free radicals,
21 which cause inter- and intra- molecular bonds within collagen chains. However, it remains unclear which
22 mechanism is more causative and at what dose these mechanisms manifest. Because changes in collagen

¹ Abbreviations: Gy, Gray; N_f, Fatigue Life; ε_f, Strain-to-Failure; K_{elastic}, Elastic Stiffness; AGEs, Advanced Glycation End Products; FU, Fluorescence Unit;

23 structure are associated with a number of clinical conditions, an improved biomechanical understanding of
24 each mechanism (i.e. non-enzymatic crosslinks and fragmentation) may provide insight into applications
25 of irradiation [22], and also aging [24] and diabetes [25–28].

26 Addressing these issues, we conducted an *ex vivo* ionizing radiation experiment on mouse vertebrae
27 spanning a range of clinically-related radiation doses (i.e. radiation therapy to allograft sterilization) and
28 conducted a suite of mechanical and biochemical assays to assess radiation-induced changes. Specifically,
29 our objectives were to: 1) quantify the effects of radiation dose on the monotonic strength and fatigue life
30 of murine vertebrae; and 2) determine whether the degradation in mechanical properties is dominated by
31 the amount of non-enzymatic crosslinks or fragmented collagen.

32 **2 Materials and Methods**

33 *2.1 Animals*

34 Forty-eight female, 20-week old (skeletally-mature) C57BL/6J mice (Jackson Labs, Sacramento,
35 CA) were randomly assigned to five groups (N = 9–10 per group). Mice were euthanized prior to *ex vivo*
36 irradiation. All procedures were approved by the University of California Berkeley Animal Care and Use
37 Committee.

38 *2.2 Specimen preparation*

39 Lumbar vertebrae (L3, L4, L5, S1) were excised and gently cleaned of soft tissue, wrapped in
40 saline-soaked gauze (Gibco PBS 1X, pH 7.4), and stored at -20°C. In preparation for mechanical testing,
41 the vertebral bodies of the L4 and L5 levels were isolated, endplates precisely planed using a diamond
42 microtome (Leica SP1600 Saw Microtome, Wetzlar, Germany) and posterior elements removed [29].

43 *2.3 Ex Vivo X-Ray Irradiation*

44 After specimen preparation, *ex vivo* irradiation was performed on all vertebrae. Mice were
45 randomly assigned to one of five dose groups for x-ray irradiation: 0, 50, 1,000, 17,000, or 35,000 Gy; all

46 vertebral levels from the same animal remained in the same radiation dose group (e.g. an animal assigned
47 to the 50 Gy group had its L3, L4, L5, and S1 irradiated with 50 Gy). Irradiation was performed (Advanced
48 Light Source synchrotron facility at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory) using an x-ray synchrotron
49 micro-tomography beam line, at 21 keV and 500 mA, for a dose rate of 13.3 Gy/sec (see [30] for details on
50 dose calculations). Specimen hydration was maintained during irradiation via saline-soaked gauze.

51 2.4 *Quantitative micro-CT Imaging*

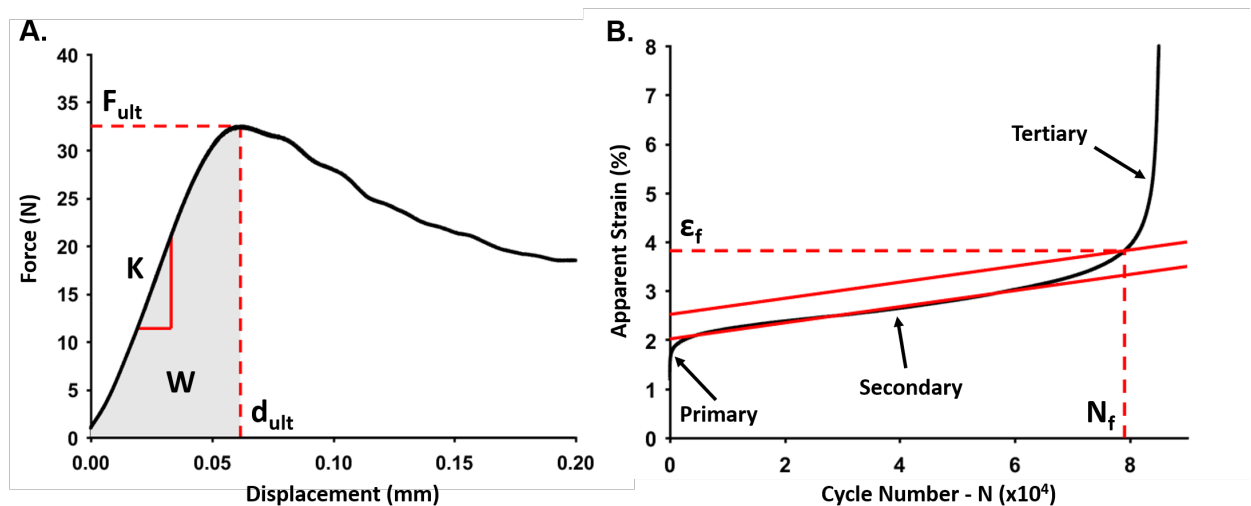
52 After irradiation, the L4 and L5 specimens were imaged with quantitative micro-CT (μ CT 50,
53 Scanco Medical AG, Bruttisellen, Switzerland) using a 10- μ m voxel size (55 kV, 109 μ A, 1000 projections
54 per 180°, 500 ms integration time). Micro-CT images of the L4 and L5 specimens were analyzed for height
55 (ImageJ 2.0, Java 1.6.0). The total bone volume of the vertebrae was measured on the L5 only (ImageJ 2.0,
56 BoneJ2). After manual segmentation of the trabecular compartment, the following parameters were
57 measured between the top and bottom surface of the L5 vertebra: trabecular bone volume fraction
58 (Tb.BV/TV), number (Tb.N), thickness (Tb.Th), and separation (Tb.Sp) (Scanco Medical μ CT Evaluation
59 Program v6.5) [29]. **The micro-CT analysis confirmed successful random sample distribution; there were
60 no significant differences in bone quantity or microarchitecture between the groups.**

61 2.5 *Mechanical Characterization*

62 After micro-CT imaging, uniaxial compressive monotonic (L4) and cyclic (L5) mechanical testing
63 was performed (TA ElectroForce 3200, Eden Prairie, MN; 25 mm linear encoder “High Accuracy
64 Displacement Sensor”, resolution ± 1 nm, accuracy ± 25 μ m). Monotonic testing was conducted
65 (displacement rate of 0.01 mm/sec; strain rate ranged from 0.5 to 0.8% strain/s) to provide measurements
66 of stiffness, strength (maximum force), ultimate strain (displacement at maximum force, divided by
67 specimen height), and work-to-fracture (**Figure 1A**).

68 Cyclic testing was conducted using methods described in detail by **Pendleton et al. [29]**. **In brief,
69 in order to compare the fatigue life across all radiation dose groups, the fatigue test was designed such that**

70 the same initial strains were applied to all samples [29]. Using micro-CT based finite element models of
 71 each specimen, we computationally derived the specimen-specific forces (F_{\min} and F_{\max}) required to achieve
 72 the desired initial strains ($\epsilon_{\min} = 0.05\%$ and $\epsilon_{\max} = 0.5\%$) during cyclic testing. Thus, specimens were
 73 cyclically loaded in uniaxial compression between the specimen-specific F_{\min} and F_{\max} values until failure
 74 (TA ElectroForce 3200, Eden Prairie, MN; 50 lb. load cell, resolution ± 0.1 N). Cyclic loading properties
 75 measured include fatigue life (N_f) (i.e. number of cycles to failure), strain-to-failure (ϵ_f), and specimen
 76 elastic stiffness (K_{elastic}) (**Figure 1B**). Cyclic testing was not performed for specimens where the calculated
 77 F_{\max} exceeded the dose group strength observed from monotonic testing, as these specimens would have
 78 failed within one loading cycle (confirmed by testing a small sample; data not shown).



79

80 **Figure 1:** Representative plots generated from mechanical testing of the vertebral specimens. (A) For
 81 monotonic compression testing, a force-displacement curve was used to calculate stiffness (K), ultimate
 82 force (F_{ult}), ultimate displacement (d_{ult}), and work to fracture (W ; area in gray). (B) For cyclic testing,
 83 maximum apparent strain per cycle was plotted to obtain fatigue life (N_f), strain-to-failure (ϵ_f), and elastic
 84 stiffness (K_{elastic}), see [29] for details.

85 2.6 Biochemical Characterization

86 After irradiation, two biochemical tests ($N = 4$ specimens for each test) were conducted to assess
 87 the two primary molecular mechanisms that are thought to alter bone mechanics: (1) the accumulation of
 88 non-enzymatic crosslinks was measured on the S1 vertebrae; (2) the fragmentation of the collagen backbone
 89 was quantified on the L3 vertebrae.

90 To assess non-enzymatic collagen crosslinking, we quantified the relative amount of fluorescent
91 advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) on the S1 vertebrae. AGEs, which form intra- and inter-fibrillar
92 crosslinks along the collagen backbone through oxidation or glycation processes [26,31–33], were
93 quantified using a fluorometric assay (protocol adapted from Sell et al. [34]). Each S1 specimen was
94 demineralized in 0.5 M ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) and hydrolyzed in 12N HCl at 120°C for
95 3 hours to break down peptide bonds. The hydrolysate was then resuspended in PBS (0.1X) and pipetted in
96 triplicate onto a black-walled 96 well plate. The non-enzymatic collagen crosslink content was determined
97 using fluorescence readings taken using a microplate reader at wavelengths of 370 nm excitation and 440
98 nm emission. The readings were standardized to a quinine-sulfate standard (quinine dissolved in H₂SO₄)
99 and then normalized to the amount of collagen present in each sample, approximated by the amount of
100 hydroxyproline [13,35]. The quantification of non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks was achieved via the
101 fluorometric assay that determined the relative fluorescence due to advanced glycation end-products
102 (AGEs) relative to the amount of collagen in the bone matrix. The relative amount of non-enzymatic
103 collagen crosslinks (fluorescent AGEs) for each radiation group was compared to the control.

104 To assess collagen fragmentation, we used an automated electrophoresis assay (2100 Bioanalyzer,
105 Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) to quantify the molecular weight distribution of collagen isolated
106 from the L3 vertebrae. First, we isolated the collagen via methods adapted from Burton et al. [10] (see [30]
107 for details). In brief, L3 specimens were demineralized over 3 weeks in 0.5M ethylenediaminetetraacetic
108 acid (EDTA) with the solution changed every 2-3 days. Demineralized specimens were defatted for 24-
109 hours in a 1:1 solution of chloroform and methanol and then soaked in 100% methanol for another hour.
110 Specimens were dried in a desiccator overnight, and then flash-frozen with liquid-nitrogen and crushed into
111 bone powder using a mortar and pestle. Bone powder was then lyophilized (Sequence: -38°C for 180
112 minutes, -38°C at 120 mTorr for 90 minutes, -20°C at 770 mTorr for 900 minutes, -10 °C at 930 mTorr for
113 270 minutes, and 23°C at 120 mTorr for 55 minutes) (VirTis AdVantage Plus Benchtop Freeze Dryer XL
114 Model, SP Scientific, Stone Ridge, NY). For tissue digestion, the powder was added to a solution of 0.5M

115 acetic acid and pepsin (1mg of pepsin per 10 mg of bone powder) and placed on a rocker at 4°C for 72-
116 hours. To neutralize the digestion process 5M NaOH was added until pH was neutral (pH = 6-8). To remove
117 non-soluble collagen and non-collagenous proteins, samples were centrifuged for 30 minutes at 13,000
118 RPM. The supernatant, containing the soluble collagen, was collected. To precipitate the collagen out of
119 solution, solid NaCl was added to a final concentration of 2M NaCl and placed on a rocker at 4°C for 24-
120 hours. Samples were centrifuged for 30 minutes at 13,000 RPM. The supernatant was removed, and the
121 pellets were resuspended in 200 uL of 0.5M acetic acid. Samples were then lyophilized and stored at -20°C
122 until electrophoresis. In preparation for electrophoresis, the isolated collagen was dissolved in 1X PBS,
123 mixed with additional reagents (Agilent Technologies Protein 230 Manual), and loaded on a bioanalyzer
124 chip for automated electrophoresis. Rat-tail collagen (Sigma Aldrich, C7661-25MG) was run as a standard.
125 From this assay, the distribution of molecular weights of the collagen protein was assessed in two ways:
126 (1) visually with a software-generated “gel” and (2) quantitatively with a software-generated fluorescence
127 unit (FU) chart, called an “electropherogram” (Agilent 2100 Expert software). The nominal size of a type-
128 I collagen, either alpha-1 or alpha-2, is between 130-150 kDa. To identify chain fragmentation, we looked
129 for evidence of less protein in this range, and a wider distribution of molecular weights. On the gel, this
130 was observed as a lighter-colored band or smeared band at ~150 kDa. On the electropherogram,
131 fragmentation can be observed when the peak at ~150 kDa is diminished, indicating fewer fluorescence
132 units and therefore fewer collagen chains of the nominal size. **The quantification of collagen fragmentation**
133 **was achieved via the software-generated electropherogram by comparing the quantity of fluorescence units**
134 **(FU) at the nominal collagen chain length (~150 kDa) for each radiation group to the control.**

135 2.7 Statistics

136 We used a one-way ANOVA to test for radiation effects, followed by Dunnett’s *post-hoc* test (at p
137 ≤ 0.05) to compare each group against the control (0 Gy) (JMP v 14.0, SAS Institute). For those
138 measurements that were not normally distributed (ultimate strain), a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted
139 instead, followed by the Steel *post-hoc* to compare each group against the control (JMP v 14.0, SAS

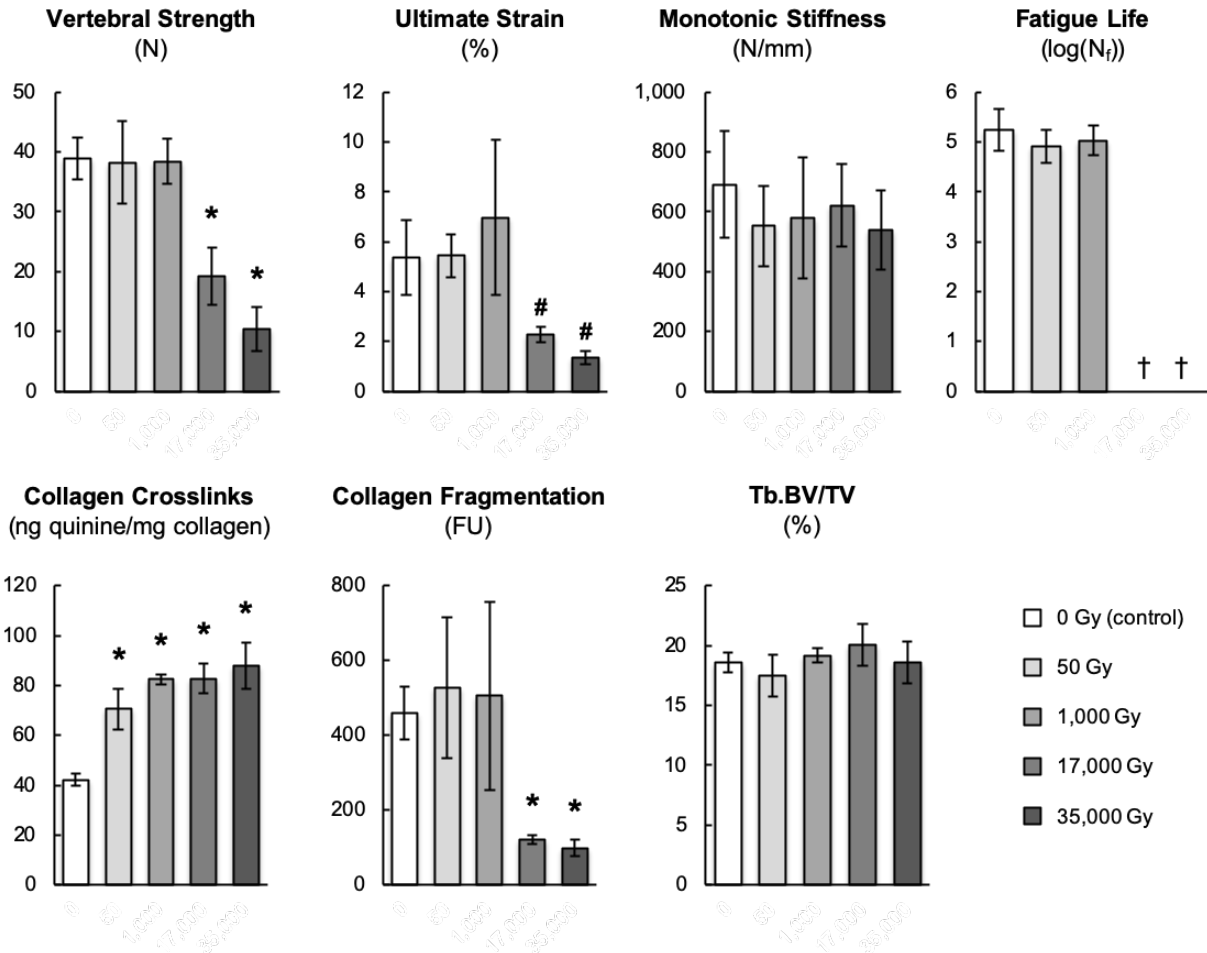
140 Institute). In order to compare the magnitude of responses across the different measurements – vertebral
141 strength, crosslink AGEs, and fragmentation fluorescence – each datum for the individual specimen was
142 normalized by the mean value of that measurement for the control group. Then, the means of these
143 normalized values for the crosslink AGEs and fragmentation fluorescence measurements were individually
144 compared against the mean normalized value for vertebral strength, using a Student’s t-test ($p \leq 0.05$) (JMP
145 v 14.0, SAS Institute).

146 **3 Results**

147 *3.1 Mechanical Characterization*

148 For monotonic compression testing, the vertebral strength, ultimate strain, and work-to-fracture
149 were lower than the control group for radiation exposures of 17,000 and 35,000 Gy but were not different
150 than the control group for exposures of 50 and 1,000 Gy. Compared to the control group, for the exposures
151 of 17,000 and 35,000 Gy, vertebral strength was 50% and 73% lower ($p < 0.001$, **Figure 2**), respectively,
152 ultimate strain was 58% and 77% lower (Steel post-hoc $p < 0.05$, **Figure 2**), and work-to-fracture was 76%
153 and 92% lower ($p < 0.01$, data not shown). In contrast, monotonic stiffness remained unchanged for all
154 radiation dose groups compared to the control group (691.3 ± 179.5 N/mm; $p = 0.67$, **Figure 2**).

155 Similar trends, but more accentuated, were observed for the cyclic properties. Monotonic strength
156 of 17,000 and 35,000 Gy groups were less than the prescribed cyclic loading force, F_{\max} , and thus cyclic
157 testing was not conducted for these two groups since the specimens would have fractured after one cycle
158 of loading (confirmed by testing a small sample, data not shown). Fatigue life (5.2 ± 0.4 log(cycles); $p =$
159 0.50 , **Figure 2**), strain to failure (3.8 ± 1.0 %; $p = 0.41$, data not shown), and elastic stiffness (1273 ± 162
160 N/mm; $p = 0.31$, data not shown) for the 50 and 1,000 Gy exposures did not differ from the control.



161

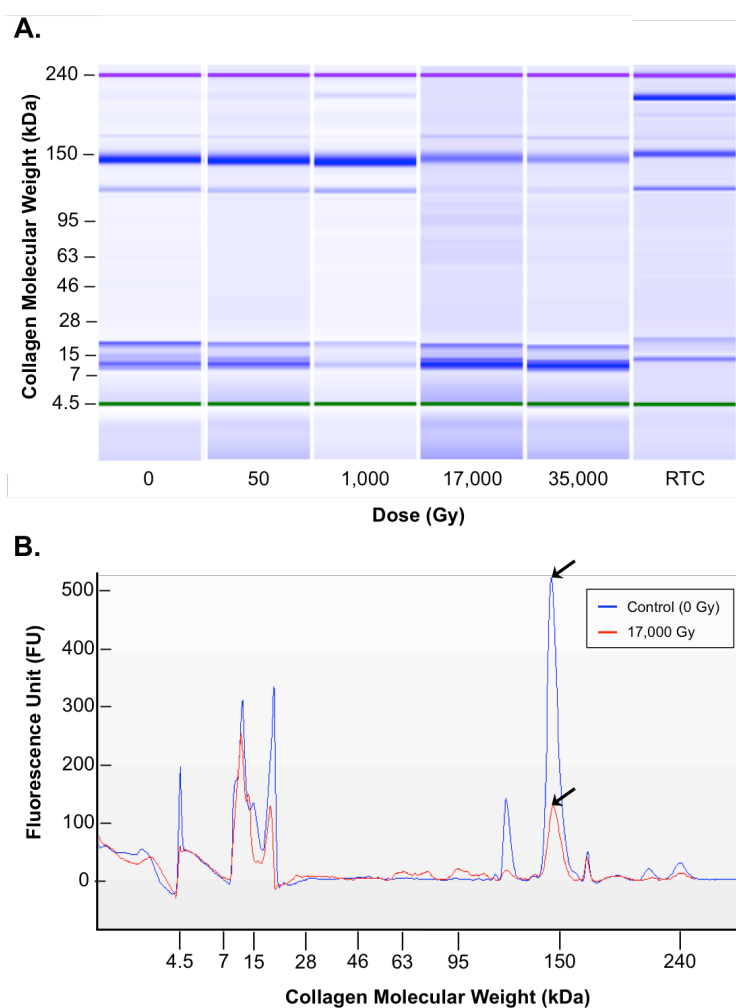
162 **Figure 2:** Effect of *ex vivo* x-ray radiation on mechanical (monotonic vertebral strength, ultimate strain and
 163 stiffness; cyclic fatigue life), biochemical (collagen crosslink AGEs and collagen fragmentation), and
 164 micro-CT (Tb.BV/TV) properties of mouse lumbar vertebrae. Data are shown as least-square means; error
 165 bars represent 95% confidence intervals. † indicates cycles to failure not measured. * $p < 0.05$ using
 166 Dunnett's post-hoc test; # $p < 0.05$ using Steel's post-hoc test.

167

168 3.2 Biochemical Characterization

169 The relative amount of non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks (fluorescent AGEs) was greater for all
 170 radiation groups by nearly twofold, and increased in a dose-dependent manner: by 67%, 95%, 96%, and
 171 108% for 50, 1,000, 17,000 and 35,000 Gy, respectively, compared to the control (42.2 ± 2.3 ng quinine /
 172 mg collagen; $p < 0.001$, **Figure 2**).

173 In contrast, collagen fragmentation was only observed at doses of 17,000 and 35,000 Gy (**Figure**
174 **2**). Fragmentation at these doses was observed on both the software-generated gel (**Figure 3A**) and
175 electropherogram (**Figure 3B**). On the gel, a dark band was visible at the nominal collagen chain length of
176 150 kDa for samples of 0, 50, and 1,000 Gy. This band began to lighten at 17,000 and 35,000 Gy, indicating
177 fewer collagen proteins of this chain size. Also, a "smearing" of bands was observed below 150 kDa,
178 suggesting that there was a greater amount of collagen fragmented chains with lower molecular weights.
179 On the electropherogram, the same result can be observed. The peak fluorescence unit found at 150 kDa
180 for 17,000 Gy decreased by 74% compared to the control (460 ± 72 FU; $p < 0.02$).

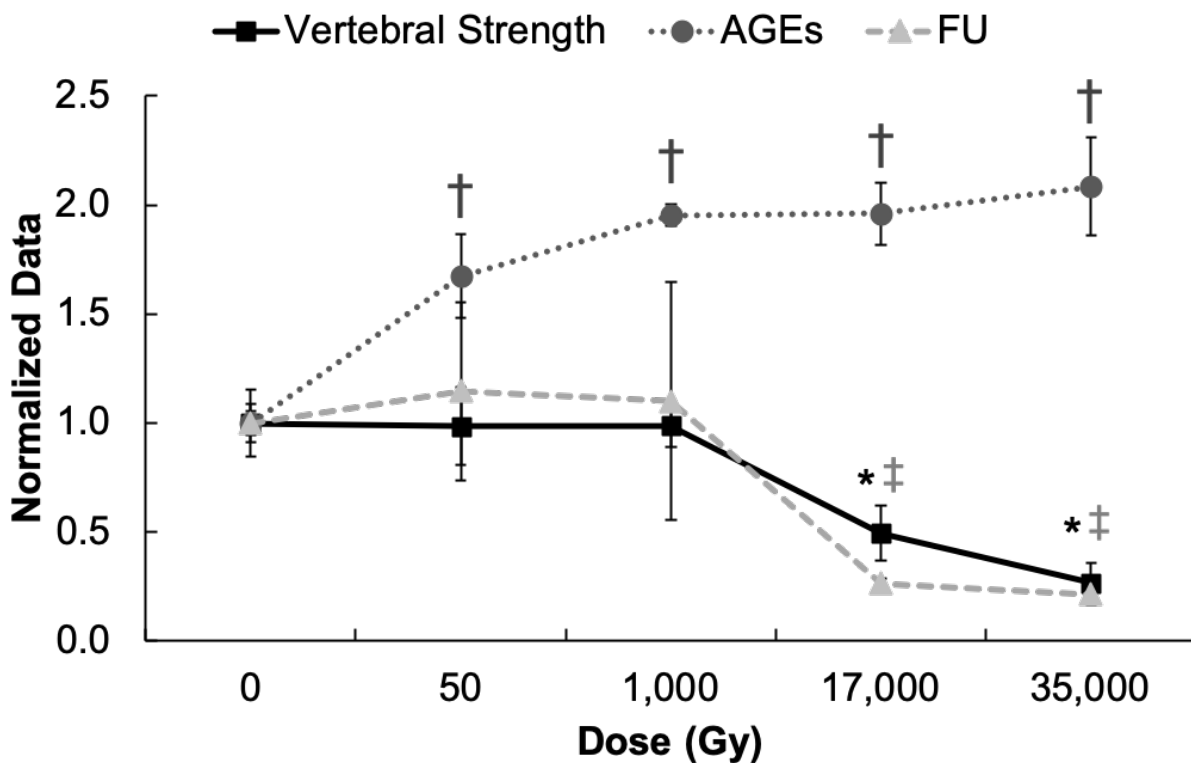


181
182 **Figure 3:** Output from the automated electrophoresis assay (collagen fragmentation). (A) A
183 representative gel. (B) A representative electropherogram with the results of 0 and 17,000 Gy overlaid. The

184 peak fluorescence unit found at 150 kDa for 17,000 Gy (red) is significantly lower compared to the 0 Gy
185 control (blue).

186

187 When comparing the magnitudes of the effects across the different (normalized) measurements, for
188 all radiation doses, the normalized values were higher for crosslinking than for vertebral strength ($p < 0.01$)
189 (Figure 4). By contrast, the normalized values for the unfragmented collagen chains were not different than
190 for vertebral strength ($p > 0.55$), except at the 17,000 Gy dose, for which the difference was significant (p
191 = 0.03) but small (vertebral strength 0.50 ± 0.06 ; fragmentation 0.26 ± 0.03) (Figure 4).



192

193 **Figure 4:** Comparison of vertebral strength with two primary mechanisms of collagen degradation: (1)
194 collagen crosslinks represented by AGEs, and (2) collagen fragmentation indicated by a lower fluorescence
195 unit (FU) value indicating less collagen with a nominal chain length, by radiation dose. Data were
196 normalized by the mean of their respective 0 Gy control, and shown as normalized least-square means, with
197 error bars signifying 95% confidence intervals analyzed by ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test, $p < 0.05$.
198 * represents $p < 0.0001$ for vertebral ultimate strength; † represents $p < 0.0001$ for AGEs; ‡ represents $p <$
199 0.05 for FU.

200

201 3.3 Quantitative micro-CT Imaging

202 The micro-CT analysis confirmed successful random sample distribution; there were no significant
203 differences in bone quantity or microarchitecture between the groups. Total bone volume ($1.41 \pm 0.16 \text{ mm}^3$,
204 $p = 0.71$, data not shown), as well as trabecular bone volume fraction ($18.79 \pm 0.94 \%$, $p = 0.20$, **Figure 2**),
205 number ($3.92 \pm 0.13 \text{ 1/mm}$, $p = 0.35$, data not shown), and separation ($256.97 \pm 8.81 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $p = 0.47$, data not
206 shown) were the same for all groups. ANOVA results for trabecular thickness were significant ($p = 0.036$),
207 however a Tukey post-hoc analysis found no differences between any groups ($50.17 \pm 68 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$, $p > 0.05$,
208 data not shown).

209 4 Discussion

210 These results demonstrate that the monotonic strength of murine vertebral bodies was only
211 diminished when exposed to ionizing radiation at or above 17,000 Gy. While the relative amount of non-
212 enzymatic collagen crosslinks was greater for all radiation groups compared to the control, the increase in
213 crosslinks measured at lower doses (50 and 1,000 Gy) did not coincide with the observed reduction in
214 mechanical strength (**Figure 4**). In contrast to crosslinks, collagen fragmentation was only observed at
215 doses where reduced mechanical properties were also observed (17,000 and 35,000 Gy; **Figure 4**). Thus,
216 our results suggest that the fragmentation of collagen — and not the accumulation of non-enzymatic
217 collagen crosslinks — was the primary molecular mechanism that caused the observed reductions in
218 mechanical properties in whole bones exposed to ionizing radiation.

219 Our results are consistent with previous radiation studies, and provide novel insight into the effect
220 of *ex vivo* ionizing radiation on bone mechanics. In accordance with previous investigations of cortical
221 bone, we observed a reduction in both monotonic and fatigue properties at a dose equivalent to nominal
222 allograft sterilization of $\sim 30,000 \pm 5,000 \text{ Gy}$ [10,15,20,36–38], and a reduction of monotonic strength at
223 17,000 Gy [11]. While our study is consistent with earlier observations, our findings expand upon previous
224 knowledge in three important areas. First, previous inquiries have been conducted on either cortical

225 [10,11,15,20,36–38] or trabecular [39] bone tissue specimens, not whole-bones. Second, mechanical
226 characterization has been primarily conducted in either monotonic or fatigue loading conditions, not both.
227 Finally, only a subset of these studies has conducted concurrent collagen biochemical analysis, quantifying
228 either crosslinks [13] or fragmentation [10,36,38]. For the first time, we have demonstrated the effect of
229 irradiation on whole-bones (with both cortical and trabecular tissue) across a spectrum of clinically-relevant
230 doses (i.e. radiation therapy at 50 Gy to allograft sterilization at 35,000 Gy) with both monotonic and fatigue
231 mechanical tests, as well as parallel collagen biochemical assays. We expand on the work of Currey et al.
232 [11] and demonstrate that in addition to a reduction in monotonic strength following irradiation at 17,000
233 Gy, fatigue properties are also significantly reduced. Importantly, we have demonstrated the doses at which
234 the differences in collagen structure and mechanics arise. Our results provide new insight into the type of
235 molecular change driving the degradation of whole-bone strength and fatigue life following irradiation.

236 While the exact collagen modifications dominating reduced strength following irradiation are not
237 fully understood, we examined the two proposed mechanisms: photon-induced fragmentation of the
238 collagen backbone [10,20] or radiolysis-induced non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks [12,13,21–23]. Our
239 results suggest that increased collagen fragmentation, and not non-enzymatic crosslinking, is the dominant
240 factor. While no previous studies have quantified the fragmentation of collagen in irradiated whole-bones,
241 our results are in agreement with previous work on cortical bone, which demonstrated that diminished
242 fracture toughness at doses of ~35,000 Gy was a result of collagen fragmentation [10,36]. Expanding on
243 this knowledge, we demonstrate that collagen fragmentation leads to degraded murine whole-bone
244 mechanics at 17,000 Gy, a dose significantly lower than the standard for allograft sterilization (25,000 –
245 35,000 Gy). Our findings emphasize the need for further research into novel radioprotectants that target
246 fragmentation in order to maintain bone strength when sterilizing allografts with radiation [10].

247 Importantly, our findings suggest that non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks may play a smaller role
248 in degrading mechanical strength of bone than previously considered. Previously, numerous studies
249 attributed the increase in non-enzymatic crosslink concentration as the primary mechanism for degraded

250 bone strength, specifically in applications of natural aging [24,35,40], drug treatments [41], irradiation
251 sterilization [13], and diseases such as osteoporosis [42] and diabetes [26,43–46]. While the concentration
252 of non-enzymatic crosslinks does accumulate in bone collagen in these applications, any causation of those
253 crosslinks with respect to degraded mechanical properties has not been established. Here, we observed that
254 despite a substantial (95%) increase in crosslink concentration, we could not detect any effect on vertebral
255 strength. Indeed, studies have demonstrated that an increase in non-enzymatic crosslinks induced via ribose
256 incubation can be used to counter the loss of strength due to the fragmentation of the collagen network, not
257 degrade it further [38,47,48]. Taken together, our results strengthen the argument that the contribution of
258 non-enzymatic crosslinks to diminished bone strength with disease and aging plays a smaller role in
259 comparison to other factors, such as collagen network connectivity [49].

260 There are some limitations in this study. First, because we tested mouse bone, the direct application
261 of our findings to human bone is unclear. However, as discussed above, similar trends in irradiation-induced
262 degraded bone strength [10,11,53,54,15,20,36–38,50–52] and molecular-level changes [10,52] have been
263 seen in other studies across a number of anatomic sites and species, including human bone. That consistency
264 suggests our results are not limited to murine bone. Second, as an *ex vivo* study, we excluded the impact of
265 any biologically induced responses to radiation in order to explore the extent to which radiation directly
266 alters the mechanical behavior of the bone matrix. For applications of allograft sterilization, which are only
267 conducted *ex vivo*, excluding cellular effects is appropriate. However, for *in vivo* applications of radiation
268 therapy, there can be cellular-driven changes, such as reduced bone volume fraction or altered trabecular
269 microarchitecture [49], which can alter bone mechanics beyond what is reported here. Additionally, we
270 performed all mechanical tests, monotonic and cyclic, in compression. While compressive loading is most
271 relevant for *in vivo* behavior, the response may be different for isolated specimens tested in pure tension.

272 Finally, because our study did not investigate doses between 1,000 and 17,000 Gy, it is unclear at
273 what dose within this range reduced mechanical properties can first be observed. To address this gap, we
274 conducted a post-hoc study for doses of 5,000 and 10,000 Gy (see Appendix) with the same mechanical

275 and biochemical assays described above. We found some mechanical differences occurred with radiation
276 exposure of 5,000 Gy (and above), but only for cyclic loading: compared to the control, fatigue life was
277 lower by 18% ($p < 0.01$) but monotonic strength was not different ($p = 0.12$). These ad hoc results confirm
278 previous observations that cyclic loading may be a more sensitive test than monotonic loading for detecting
279 mechanical effects of radiation [13,20]. Clinically, radiation-induced fractures are often observed months
280 to years after irradiation and classified as spontaneous or insufficiency fractures (i.e. fractures which are
281 not the result of a fall or trauma, and more likely due to repetitive loading at low forces over time) [55–57].
282 As such, it is clinically important to consider mechanisms that can affect cyclic loading properties
283 differently than static loading properties. Furthermore, our findings have expanded our knowledge to show
284 fatigue properties are also significantly reduced with doses as low as 5,000 Gy.

285 Clinically, our results have implications for safe sterilization of allografts and potential
286 radioprotectants. A dose of 11,000 Gy has been proposed as a safe sterilization dose for allografts [58], as
287 this dose achieves the same sterility level as the current standard dose of $30,000 \pm 5,000$ Gy [4,5]. However,
288 our supplemental findings suggest collagen fragmentation and associated loss of cyclic mechanical
289 properties can begin with a dose as low as 5,000 Gy (see Appendix). To mitigate the loss of mechanical
290 integrity, further studies are needed to investigate how to safeguard the bone with a radioprotectant. Several
291 radioprotectants have been considered for their ability to preserve tissue properties following irradiation
292 [4,48,59]. Based on our results, we would recommend studies focused on radioprotectants which can
293 prevent or offset the fragmentation of collagen, as these types of radioprotectants may preserve bone
294 mechanics to a greater degree than those which protect against non-enzymatic collagen crosslinks.

295 Our results also have implications for understanding the etiology of the increased fracture risk
296 associated with *in vivo* radiation therapy treatment for cancer [2,8,60–65]. We did not observe any change
297 in mechanical behavior for *ex vivo* dose levels relevant to radiation therapy (i.e. 50 Gy), despite an increase
298 in collagen crosslinks. Thus, direct effects of radiation on the collagen matrix from radiation therapy are
299 not solely responsible for the increased fracture risk observed clinically. From this, we can infer that the

300 cellular processes of bone remodeling due to *in vivo* irradiation are likely the root cause. Indeed, previous
301 *in vivo* irradiation studies of bone in a murine model have shown reduced trabecular bone mass, number
302 and connectivity associated with hyperactive osteoclast activity [66–68]. Taken together with our *ex vivo*
303 observations, cell-mediated changes in bone quantity, trabecular microarchitecture, or tissue material
304 quality are more plausible explanations for the increased fracture risk from radiation therapy than direct
305 changes to the bone material.

306 In summary, we quantified the level of collagen fragmentation and non-enzymatic collagen
307 crosslinks in the organic matrix of murine whole-bones at clinically-relevant *ex vivo* radiation doses. Our
308 results suggest that the fragmentation of collagen — and not the accumulation of non-enzymatic collagen
309 crosslinks — was the primary molecular mechanism that caused the observed monotonic mechanical
310 degradation at 17,000 Gy and above, and cyclic mechanical degradation at 5,000 Gy and above.

311 **Disclosures**

312 TMK: Consultant for Amgen, AgNovos Healthcare, and O.N. Diagnostics; equity in O.N.
313 Diagnostics.

314 **Conflict of Interest**

315 All authors certify that there are no conflicts of interest related to the work presented in this
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328 **5 Appendix: Supplemental Study**

329 To gain insight into the effect of ionizing radiation between 1,000 and 17,000 Gy, we conducted an
330 additional *ex vivo* x-ray radiation experiment on excised mouse lumbar vertebrae from 20-week old, female,
331 C57BL/6J mice, randomly assigned to a one-time *ex vivo* radiation dose of either 0 (n = 4), 5,000 (n = 5),
332 or 10,000 Gy (n = 5). As detailed above, we measured mechanical properties, collagen crosslinks, and
333 collagen fragmentation (data not shown). We observed compressive fatigue life to be lower for the
334 irradiated groups, being 18% ($p < 0.01$) and 37% ($p < 0.0001$) lower for 5,000 and 10,000 Gy doses,
335 respectively, compared to the control ($5.0 \pm 0.4 \log(\text{cycles})$). We detected no significant effect of radiation
336 dose for any of the compressive monotonic mechanical properties, either for strength ($p = 0.12$), stiffness
337 ($p = 0.62$), or maximum displacement ($p = 0.51$). Collagen crosslinks increased significantly for all
338 irradiated groups, by 71% and 101% for 5,000 and 10,000 Gy, respectively ($p < 0.05$). Collagen
339 fragmentation was evident for 5,000 Gy, observed as a significant decrease in the amount of nominally
340 sized collagen chains (~150 kDa) compared to the 0 Gy control ($p = 0.008$); data for the 10,000 Gy group
341 was lost due to a processing error. These findings suggest that doses well below sterilization standards
342 ($30,000 \pm 5,000$ Gy) and a proposed alternative (11,000 Gy) may compromise the mechanical strength and
343 collagen integrity of bone allografts, making them more susceptible to failure under cyclic loading [4,5,58].

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