QUT Digital Repository: http://eprints.qut.edu.au/



Gudimetla, Prasad V. and Crawford, Ross W. and Oloyede, Adekunle (2007) The influence of lipid-extraction method on the stiffness of articular cartilage. *Clinical Biomechanics* 22(8):pp. 924-931.

© Copyright 2007 Elsevier

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	The Influence of Delipidization Method on the Stiffness of Articular Cartilage
6	D. Cudimette, A. Olevede, D. Cuerrford
7 8	P. Gudimetla, A. Oloyede, R. Crawford
9	
10	Dr Prasad Gudimetla
11	Lecturer
12	School of Engineering Systems
13	Queensland University of Technology
14	Gardens Point Campus
15	P.O. Box 2434, 2 George Street
16	Brisbane Q 4001Australia
17	
18	
19	Associate Professor Kunle Oloyede - Corresponding Author
20	School of Engineering Systems
21	Queensland University of Technology
22	Gardens Point Campus
23	P.O. Box 2434, 2 George Street
24	Brisbane Q 4001Australia
25	
26	Professor Ross Crawford
27	Chair of Orthopaedic Research
28	School of Engineering Systems
29	Queensland University of Technology
30 31	Gardens Point Campus P.O. Box 2434, 2 George Street
31	1.0. Dux 2434, 2 Ocolge Sheel

32 Brisbane Q 4001Australia

- 33 Abstract
- 34

35 Background

Lipid depletion in articular cartilage is known to be an indication of osteoarthritic degeneration. However, the role of lipids in cartilage load-carriage is still poorly understood. In a previous study, we delipidized cartilage with chloroform which induced cell damage and cytotoxicity. In this study, we present comparative results of the biomechanical responses of articular cartilage when delipidized with milder and biocompatible solvents ethanol (C_2H_5OH) and propylene glycol ($C_3H_8O_2$).

42 *Methods*

Fours groups of bovine articular cartilage specimens (n=16/group) were subjected to compressive loading at four different strain-rates before and after delipidization in three solvents. The loaddisplacement curves were recorded and the corresponding stress-strain curves were plotted. The stiffness was calculated from the stress-strain curves at chosen points and compared.

47 Findings

Relative to normal intact articular cartilage, stiffness of delipidized cartilage, at low strain-rates (10^{-49} 3 /s and (10^{-2} /s)), decreases by 45% on the average when rinsed with a strong solvent like chloroform, and by 20% on an average when rinsed with ethanol or propylene glycol. Stiffness increases by at least 25% at higher strain-rates (10^{-1} /s to 10^{1} /s) relative to normal intact articular cartilage. Stronger solvents are able to extract more lipids from the matrix in shorter durations but seem to induce cell damage. Prolonged exposure to mild solvents seems to stiffen the tissue inducing higher stiffness responses.

55 Interpretation

56 Milder solvents used as agents to delipidize articular cartilage do not cause cell damage and are 57 therefore recommended for research involving articular cartilage delipidization.

58 Keywords: articular cartilage, lipids, rinsing methods, propylene glycol, stress attenuation, stiffness

59 response

60 **1. Introduction**

61

Articular cartilage is found at the ends of articulating joints such as knees and hips, and it prevents 62 63 bone-to-bone contact while performing two very important functions: (i) distribution of 64 physiological loads acting on the joint and (ii) joint lubrication. Structurally, articular cartilage has a very complex biological character. It consists of an avascular matrix of collagen and proteoglycans 65 66 (PGs) that is continuously manufactured, remodeled and replaced by the highly metabolically active 67 chondrocytes (cell population) (Broom, 2003). Also present is a trace quantity of lipids in the 68 intracellular matrix which are isolated in minute lacunae attached to the chondrocytes (Stockwell, 69 1967; Bonner et al, 1975).

70 Intact articular cartilage is a prerequisite for the effective physiological activity of the articulating joint. Its biomechanical integrity is regulated by the chondrocytes and determined by the 71 72 mechanical properties of the collagen-proteoglycan architecture (Mow et al, 1995). It undergoes 73 numerous age- and activity-related changes that result in joint diseases such as osteoarthritis. While 74 the aetiology of such joint diseases is speculated to be a confluence of numerous factors, the disease manifests itself as focal cartilage degeneration (Buckwalter et al, 1997). Cartilage swelling and 75 76 surface defects in the form of fibrillation leading to further erosion of the cartilage matrix along 77 with calcification (Bank, et al, 2000). Previous studies on cartilage degeneration have examined the 78 load-bearing characteristics of the tissue using models derived from the depletion of proteoglycans 79 (Olovede et al, 1994) or disruption of collagen fibres (Bank et al, 1997) in the cartilage matrix and 80 lipid extraction (Oloyede et al, 2004).

81 However, also present on the surface and within the articular cartilage matrix are surface active 82 phospholipids and neutral lipids respectively (Stockwell, 1967, Bonner et al, 1975, Pickard et al, 1998; Vecchio and Hills, et al, 1999) Consequent on their classical histochemical studies of 83 84 unloaded articular cartilage Bonner et al (1975), hypothesized that lipids may have a role to play in the overall health and function of the tissue. Guerra et al. (1996) proposed that the tissue is 85 86 nourished by the synovium via a semi-permeable membrane which constitutes a microscopic

overlay of surfactants on the articular surface. These layers of surface active phospholipids (SAPLs)
are already established as being responsible for maintaining lubrication in the joint (Pickard et al,
1998; Vecchio and Hills, et al, 1999). Recently, lipid depletion studies have gained interest, because
lipids are now acknowledged as one of the components that are compromised in osteoarthritis
(Ballantine and Stachowiak, 2002).

92 Despite their apparent importance, there has been no quantitative data relating lipid content to the 93 load bearing responses of articular cartilage until recently (Oloyede, et al. 2003, 2004). These 94 studies applied the lipid extraction procedure of Hills et al (1984). We found that the major drawback with the delipidization procedure was the vacuum dessication procedure which can result 95 in excessive tissue dehydration, thus inducing damaging strain levels which in turn, can influence 96 97 any biomechanical results obtained in subsequent experiments. The method of determining the final 98 moisture condition of the tissue by touch only is unsatisfactory and the integrity of the 99 biomechanical results can be enhanced by finding other means of extracting lipids from the tissue's 100 matrix. Therefore, there is a need to find alternative methods for extracting lipids from articular 101 cartilage for scientific investigations that we can be sure is not too aggressive and with the 102 probability of causing collateral damage to any other matrix component. In this study, we have 103 chosen two milder rinsing agents namely propylene glycol and ethanol and compared their efficacy with that of chloroform, objectively to recommend a biocompatible lipid extracting agent for the 104 development of accurate in vitro degenerated cartilage models relative to lipid loss only. Our 105 106 investigation involves the bulk extraction of lipids from both the surface and the general matrix of 107 cartilage samples, thereby extending this study beyond those carried out to investigate the 108 consequences of surface lipid loss on lubrication. We will conduct histological examination of both 109 normal and lipid-depleted samples to examine the relative changes to the lipid profiles in cartilage 110 samples before and after delipidization and use these as the benchmark parameters for determining 111 whether or not a rinsing agent might lead to collateral effect/damage in a delipidised sample, since 112 our aim is to identify the rinsing agent which will extract an adequate amount of lipid, while 113 preserving the integrity of the other components of a cartilage sample.

114 The previous studies to map the lipid profiles in the articular cartilage matrix discussed above were 115 purely classical, adopting the chloroform/methanol (CHCl₃) rinsing procedure, with none of them. addressing the possibility of (a) collateral damage as a result of the induced cytotoxicity of the 116 117 strong CHCl₃; (b) the probably consequence of vacuum drying on the cartilage when extracting 118 chloroform residue from samples. Consequently, in this study, we will compare the biomechanical 119 properties of cartilage samples which have been delipidized with methods not involving the 120 deleterious effects (a) and (b) above. Also, chloroform is not a biocompatibile solvent and should 121 not be used to treat tissues such as articular cartilage. We will study the viability of propylene 122 glycol ($C_3H_8O_2$) and the relatively stronger solvent, ethanol (C_2H_5OH) as rinsing agents, both of 123 whose action are expected to be milder on cartilage than chloroform. Propylene glycol possesses in 124 vivo biocompatibility (Suggs et al, 1999) and precludes vacuum desiccation which is associated with a complex dehydration-rehydration cycle. The results of this in vitro study will have 125 126 implications for developing experimental models mimicking lipid-related consequences of osteoarthritis in vivo. 127

128

129 **2. Methods**

130 2.1 Materials

Articular cartilage specimens were obtained from the patellar grooves of 3-4 year old bovine animals (prime oxen) and stored at -20 °C until required for testing. The joint samples were thawed out in continuous running water at room temperature and preserved in 0.15M saline solution. Full thickness samples of articular cartilage were shaven off the patellar grooves and trimmed to 15x15 mm square areas. Their thickness were measured using digital Vernier calipers (DigiMax, KWB Swiss, Berne, Switzerland) at 4 different zones, the average of which was used to normalize the deformations that was used to calculate the strain for plotting the stress-strain curves. The sample

138 was then weighed on a digital weighing machine and its wet weight was recorded. Following this, it 139 was glued to a stainless steel of 8mm thickness plinth using Loctite® 454 tissue glue. The stainless 140 steel plinth with the glued cartilage was immersed in a 0.15 M saline bath and subjected to a 141 compressive loading at four different strain-rates, on a 25kN Hounsfield testing facility. All articular cartilage specimens were subjected to a peak load of 25kN using a 10 mm diameter 142 cylindrical stainless steel indenter, whose circular cross-sectional area was used to normalize the 143 load to determine the stresses plotted against strain in the stress-strain data presented in this paper. 144 145 The plotted values of strain were determined by dividing the measured displacement on the Hounsfield testing machine by the original thickness of each tested sample. Following deformation 146 147 at a given strain-rate, the specimen was transferred into a beaker containing 0.15 M saline solution 148 and 0.2 g/l sodium azide where it was allowed to recover for at least one hour before the next 149 loading test. This recovery time had been previously determined as an adequate duration for the 150 cartilage sample to recover to its original unloaded thickness (Oloyede et al, 2004). Once the four different strain-rate loading sequences had been performed on a specimen, a cynoacrylate debonder 151 152 (RS Components, Birmingham, UK) was applied to the interface region between the sample and the stainless steel plinth for two minutes to dissolve the glue and debond the sample from the plinth. In 153 154 a control experiment, we established that this debonding process has no consequence on the stress-155 strain response of articular cartilage. Each sample was then carefully wrapped in a soft tissue paper 156 and sealed using paper tape and stored in another container containing a mixture of 0.15M saline solution and 0.2g/l sodium azide and ready for delipidization. This protocol of wrapping the sample 157 158 was adopted in order to prevent osmotic curling of the sample around itself which would make subsequent tests difficult to implement because of the inherent difficulty in uncurling the tissue. 159

160 2.2 Repeatability Tests

Mechanical experiments involving multiple loading of biological specimens such as articular cartilage under different physiological and constraint conditions require that a statistical "significance level of confidence" is established by performing repeatability studies under well-

164 controlled conditions before any deviations can be considered as a true reflection of alterations in 165 the tissue's condition. In order to ascertain that any variations in the observed biomechanical 166 responses is due to the extraction of lipids, a series of tests were performed on 8 normal intact 167 cartilage samples at four different strain-rates. The tests were repeated twice on each sample. A 168 minimum interval of at least one hour was allowed between each loading test on a given specimen 169 to ensure full recovery of the specimens before further loading. The strain-dependent stiffness of 170 each sample was calculated at 0, 10, 20, 30 and 40% strain by taking the slopes of the tangents to the strain-strain curves at these points for each strain-rate. 171

172 2.3 Surfactant Rinsing and Delipidization Process

173 It is now well established that lipids are present both on the surface of articular cartilage as surface 174 active phospholipids and intramatrix in intimate association with the chondrocytes. The methods of 175 delipidization used in this study extracted indiscriminately all types of lipids from the tissue 176 samples. This was confirmed with the sensitive weighing procedure and for establishing the weight 177 of the samples before and after delipidization. The outcome of weighing was similar to that 178 obtained using NMR spectroscopy (Oloyede et al, 2003), a more expensive process for determining 179 the amount of lipid extracted.

180 (a) Chloroform Rinsing: In accordance with the method of Hills et al (1984), the normal intact 181 articular cartilage specimen was removed from the saline solution and gently blotted with kimwipe 182 to absorb any saline at its surface and then transferred into a 100-ml glass reagent bottle containing 80-ml of 2:1 chloroform/methanol. This process is not expected to have any adverse effect on the 183 184 tissue. The reagent bottle with the cartilage specimen was then placed on an agitator tray to gently agitate the specimen in the chloroform environment at room temperature for 30 minutes. The 185 specimen was removed from the reagent bottle and its surface was again blotted with kimwipe sheet 186 187 before transferring it to a desiccator where the CHCl₃ was evaporated from the cartilage in vacuum 188 for one hour. This one hour duration was obtained as optimum through repeated trail-and-error 189 experiments during which the specimen was touched at regular intervals of 10 minutes to determine

190 its suppleness or state of dehydration. Beyond the one hour dessication, the specimen was found to 191 rapidly dehydrate and assume a leathery condition relative to touch. After the one hour, it was 192 removed from the desiccator and allowed to rehydrate in 0.15M saline solution to minimize its 193 drying or shrinkage of the specimen and hence any concomitant pre-strain. In this type of process, it 194 is practically impossible to avoid a level of dehydration, which might result in prestraining the 195 specimen, but we believe that this touch-based assessment helped minimize this effect. After a 196 recovery period of one hour in saline solution, the sample was glued onto the stainless steel plinth 197 and then returned to saline to recover for another hour, after which the sample was again loaded in 198 compression with intermittent recovery periods as mentioned earlier.

199 (b) Propylene Glycol and Ethanol Rinsing: Four groups of normal articular cartilage specimens (n=16/group) were rinsed with propylene glycol and ethanol. Two groups were rinsed for 30 200 201 minutes while the other two were rinsed overnight (15 hours). Each sample was removed from the 202 saline solution and gently blotted with kimwipe to absorb any excess saline on their surfaces and then transferred into 100-ml glass reagent bottles containing 80-ml ethanol (C₂H₅OH) and 203 204 propylene glycol. Two of the reagent bottles with the cartilage specimens were then placed on an 205 agitator tray to gently shake the specimen in the ethanol environment at room temperature for 30 206 minutes, while the other two bottles were left overnight for 15 hours. After the delipidization 207 process, all the samples were once again subjected to the compressive loading sequence outlined in 208 section 2.1 with intermittent full recovery between loads. All samples were weighed with a digital 209 weighing scale after delipidization and their wet weights were recorded and compared with those of 210 their normal counterparts.

211 2.4 Lipid Extraction and Histology

Histology studies were conducted on articular cartilage samples to evaluate the lipid profiles ofnormal and delipidized samples.

214 <u>2.4.1 Sample Preparation</u>

215 A 4x4 mm cube of cartilage-on-bone sample was first obtained from the lateral plane of the patellar 216 groove. The cube was then sliced into four smaller (1x1) mm samples. One sample was treated as 217 the control group while each of the other three was rinsed in a particular solvent, viz., chloroform, 218 ethanol and propylene glycol for 30 minutes. All the four samples were then decalcified for a period 219 of 28 days with periodic x-ray evaluation to estimate the extent of decalcification. After 220 decalcification, each sample was cryo-frozen in liquid ammonia and several sections of formal-221 calcium fixed slices of the tissues were prepared for microscopic examination. A total of 20 sections 222 were prepared (5/sample) and the lipids were localized by coloration with Oil Red O according to 223 the staining procedure described in Bonner et al (1975). An attempt was made to assess the amount of lipids contained in the intra-cellular matrix of the slices obtained from normal and all delipidized 224 225 samples. The cell count was set at 100 in each case (slice) so that the lipid content could be 226 expressed as percentage, with only the lipid globules that measured 1 µm or greater in diameter counted based on the assumption that all the lipid globules were spherical. Using these cell counts, 227 228 the mean values of the lipid content per cell was estimated for all samples.

229 2.5 Statistical Analysis

230 Repeated Measures (RMANOVA) statistical analysis was performed on the data set using the statistical package SPSS 12.0 for Windows. This analysis was to determine how significant a 231 232 particular delipidization method was on articular cartilage stiffness. Stiffness was set as a dependent 233 variable while cartilage thickness, compressive strain, cartilage types (normal and delipidized) and 234 the method of delipidization were considered as independent variables. RMNOVA at the 95% 235 confidence level, showed that the method of delipidization has a significant influence on the dependent parameter (stiffness) with P = 0.012, n = 16 for chloroform, P = 0.032, n = 32 for 236 237 propylene glycol and P = 0.023, n = 32 for ethanol.

- 238 **3. Results**
- 239 3.1 Lipid Extraction

240 Figure 1 shows the histology of the cartilage matrices post delipidization. The samples were microtoned and stained with Oil Red O. Figure 1b shows the complete absence of any red color in 241 the histology section which indicates that a high level of delipidization occurred when using 242 chloroform as the rinsing agent. Figure 1c shows a close up of Figure 1b which indicates some level 243 of microstructural cell-level changes while these were not perceivable in the histology of cartilage 244 245 that was delipidized with the milder agents. Figures 1(d) and Figure 1(e) correspond to the histology of cartilage rinsed with ethanol and propylene glycol respectively and Figure 1(f) is an enlargement 246 247 of a section of Figure 1(e). Unlike Figure 1(b), a trace presence of lipids can be noticed in these slides indicating the mildness of the rinsing agents. Table 1 presents the average wet weights of 248 249 normal and delipidized cartilage samples which were used to evaluate the average percentage lipid 250 loss in the samples after treatment with chloroform, ethanol and propylene glycol. It can be seen that the percentage reduction in lipids for chloroform after exposure of normal intact tissue for only 251 252 30 minutes is of the same order as the amount extracted with exposure to ethanol and propylene glycol for 15 hrs. Also, it is revealed in this table that very small trace amounts of lipids were 253 254 extracted using the milder rinsing agents, namely, 0.64% and 0.32% for ethanol and propylene 255 glycol respectively after the shorter duration of exposure of 30 minutes.

256 3.2 Stiffness Variation in Repeatability Tests

The analysis of the repeatability tests on normal articular cartilage showed that at 10^{-3} /s strain-rate, the stiffness varied by less than 1% over the 0-40% strain region, by less than 1.5% at a strain-rate of 10^{-2} /s and 10^{-1} /s, and by about 1.8% at the highest strain-rate of 10^{1} /s. We argue that these marginal variations in stiffness values are negligible; thereby rendering any observed changes between normal and delipidized samples in subsequent experiments the consequence of reduction in lipid contents.

263 <u>3.2.1 Influence of vacuum desiccation on stiffness</u>

Four articular cartilage samples were subjected to compression and delipidized after recovery in 0.15M saline solution. After delipidization they were transferred into a desiccator and subjected to vacuum to remove any excess solvent from their matrices before subjecting them to the same compressive loading cycles of load-recovery-delipidize-recovery-load. Our results show that the stiffness of vacuum desiccated samples was on an average 15% greater than those that were not subjected to the procedure.

270 3.3 Stress-strain responses

271 Figure 2 presents the comparison of the representative stress-strain responses of normal and 272 delipidized articular cartilage when delipidization had been carried out using chloroform. This 273 pattern is consistent with our earlier study in which chloroform had been applied as a rinsing agent (Olovede, et al. 2003). Figure 3 compares the representative responses of normal and delipidized 274 275 cartilage where propylene glycol was used to rinse the samples for 30 minutes while Figure 4 shows 276 the responses for ethanol rinsed cartilage samples. It can be seen that the stress at a given strain of delipidized cartilage is lower than that of its normal counterpart at low strain-rates of 10⁻³/s and 10⁻ 277 2 /s and higher at high strain-rates of 10^{-1} /s and 10^{1} /s. The stiffness under different loading rates of 278 279 normal and delipidized articular cartilage specimens were calculated at three strains of 0%, 10%, 280 20% and 40% using a MATLAB program from the original stress-strain curves obtained for each 281 experiment by estimating the slope of the stress-strain curves, at the strains mentioned above,

282

Table 2 presents the values of the stiffness for both normal and cartilage that were dilipidized with the three rinsing agents evaluated at different loading velocities. At the lower strain-rates of 10^{-3} /s to 10^{-2} /s, the samples rinsed with propylene glycol exhibited between 10 and 35% lower stiffness in comparison with to normal counterparts while at the same loading rate, the stiffness of the cartilage samples rinsed with ethanol was lower by 45-50%, with the stiffness values estimated in the strain range of 0 to 40%, relative to that of the normal intact samples. Comparatively, the stiffness of samples rinsed with chloroform dropped by 70-90% at this low strain rate of 10^{-3} /s in the same 290 strain range of 0 to 40%. At the higher rate of loading of 10-2/s, the relative decreases in the 291 stiffness of delipidised relative to that of the normal sample were 5-10%, 30-45% and 60-70% over 292 0 to 40% strain for propylene glycol, ethanol, and chloroform rinsing respectively. The delipidised 293 matrices exhibited an increase in stiffness relative to their normal intact counterparts from the higher loading rate of 10⁻¹/s, with increases of 5-25%, 20-35% and 25-30% in the deformation 294 range of 0 to 40% strain for propylene glycol, ethanol and chloroform rinsing respectively. This 295 296 pattern of increase in the stiffness of the delipidised compared to that of the normal intact matrix continued at the higher loading rate of 10^{1} /s. At this speed of loading and in the strain range 0-40%, 297 298 propylene glycol rinsed samples exhibited higher stiffness of 5-27%, ethanol-rinsed 25-36% and 299 chloroform-rinsed 30-50% relative to their normal intact counterparts.

300

In order to complete this study, the influence of prolonged exposure of cartilage to milder rinsing agents was investigated. 16 samples each were treated with propylene glycol and ethanol for 15 hours. In both cases, the reversal of stiffness was observed at 10^{-2} /s strain as against that seen in the case of 30 minute rinsing where the stiffness of the delipidized cartilage samples became higher than the normal samples at the higher strain-rate of 10^{-1} /s, as can be seen in Table 2.

306

307 **4. Discussion**

308 In this study, we compared the performance of three solvents that could be used to delipidize 309 articular cartilage to determine a safe rinsing procedure. The histology of cartilage sections from the 310 three different rinsing methods indicates that certain effects other than tissue dehydration may occur when using strong rinsing agents such as chloroform. Further, it is still unclear if the use of stronger 311 agents comprises the cell walls, as indicated in Figure 1(c), and the cell environment as lipids are 312 313 found in minute lacunae that are attached to the cells or if it is the vacuum dessication that influences the hydro-capsule surrounding the cells causing damage to the cell walls. While we do 314 315 not expect any microscopic damage to cells to influence the biomechanical behaviour of the loaded 316 cartilage matrix, it is our opinion that any effects other than the removal of lipids by any agent is an

317 unacceptable contribution to the obtained biomechanical data and the subsequent comparative data

318 analysis, especially as we are unable quantify such collateral effects absolutely for different

319 samples.

320 On another note, it is probable that any agent that influences other components of the matrix in

321 combination with delipidization might also adversely affect the collagen-proteoglycan framework

322 which governs the load-induced biomechanical responses of the cartilage. However, it is not the

323 intention in this present study to measure either the collagen disruption or proteoglycan loss.

324 Compressive loading tests at different strain-rates which model physiological loading conditions 325 were carried out to determine how the load-carriage of the tissue is influenced both by the extent and method of delipidization. Our results indicate that irrespective of the type of delipidization 326 327 method, the extraction of lipids from the cartilage matrix results in apparent embrittlement of the 328 tissue leading to a concomitant increase in its stiffness relative to the normal intact tissue especially at high rates of loading of 10^{-1} /s to 10^{1} /s, with an increase, relative to the normal samples of 329 between 20 and 30% on an average. This situation is reversed with the stiffness of the lipid depleted 330 331 samples being lower by between 10 and 30% relative to the normal, at lower rates of loading of 10⁻ 3 /s to 10^{-2} /s. This dramatic pattern exhibited by the stiffness at low and high strain rates relative to 332 333 the normal sample appears anomalous with respect to what has been customarily observed for 334 normal intact cartilage where the stiffness continuously increased with rising strain rate (Oloyede et al, 1992). This phenomenon is not fully understood at this stage. However, we hypothesize that the 335 336 pattern is indicative of the non-linear interaction between the fluid (which is unaffected by the process of delipidization), the solid skeleton (which is stiffened) and the speed of loading. 337 338 Consequently, we argue that at the lower strain rates the fluid's action is more predominant in the 339 load processing of the delipidised samples as a consequence of the slower rate of deformation of the 340 stiffened solid, relative to the solid in the normal intact matrix. In this regime of behaviour the 341 overall response of the matrix is poroelastic. On the other hand, it seems that at the higher rates of 342 loading the stiffened solid, due to its slower deformation, resisted most of the load resulting in 343 significant reduction in fluid loss leading to a viscohyperelastic deformation of this solid 344 component, and an overall matrix response that can be described as poro-viscohyperelastic. Given 345 that joint function is dependent on lubrication (with fluid flow implication – weeping lubrication) [McCutchen, 1959] and deformation of cartilage, the bifurcation of the stiffness into distinct patterns 346 at high and lower strain-rate may have significant consequences for physiological load bearing. This 347 is because the much higher stiffening relative to the normal intact material at high rates of loading 348 349 can be argued to be indicative of a higher susceptibility to inadequate load bearing deformation accompanied by lower volume of exuded water to facilitate lubrication, thereby, leading to an 350 351 increased wear rate and cartilage damage.

352 Our determination of suitability of a rinsing agent has been based on the ease with which the 353 cartilage could be delipidized with minimum or no collateral damage to the tissue's integrity. 354 Essentially, we found that a 30-minute rinsing of cartilage using milder rinsing agents, relative to the highly aggressive chloroform, could also produce substantial lipid reduction in a cartilage 355 356 matrix. However, milder agents, namely propylene glycol and ethanol are not as effective as the stronger agent over short rinsing periods where the milder agents extracted a much smaller amount 357 358 of lipid in comparison to that extracted by chloroform for the same period as seen in Table 1; but 359 the use of milder and biocompatible rinsing agents preclude the need for additional treatments such 360 as vaccum dessication and rehydration and no chance of inducing any cytotoxicity in the tissue. 361 Based on the assessment of Wuthier (1968), the estimated lipid content in bovine articular cartilage 362 is approximately 7%. If this value was equated to the maximum possible in any cartilage (i.e.100%), then the percentages of the lipids extracted by each of the rinsing agents relative to this 363 maximum can be estimated to be 55%, 5% and 10% for chloroform, propylene glycol and ethanol 364 365 respectively when the tissue is exposed the agents for 30 minutes. When the duration of rinsing was increased to 15 hrs, the amount of lipid extracted from the matrix relative to the total quantity 366 367 contained in the normal sample was found to be 55% and 60% for propylene glycol and ethanol

368 respectively. It should be noted that high lipid extraction rates are the most desirable conditions for 369 studying the effects of osteoarthritis on cartilage since the tissue could lose up to 95% of its lipids 370 depending on the severity of the disease. This situation is difficult to achieve with the milder rinsing

371 agents over a short period of time, also there is a distinct possibility that the integrity, relative to

372 subsequent loading test results, of any tissue samples treated in these milder rinsing agents over

- 373 prolonged durations cannot be ascertained. This situation inevitably requires further research.
- 374

5. Conclusions

376 While this study resolves the choice of rinsing agents for delipidizing articular cartilage without

377 collateral damage to its cells and arguably other tissue components, it still leaves a wide gap with

- 378 respect to the extraction of the levels of lipids known to occur in osteoarthritis in a time duration
- that will preserve tissue integrity.

380 **6. Contributors**

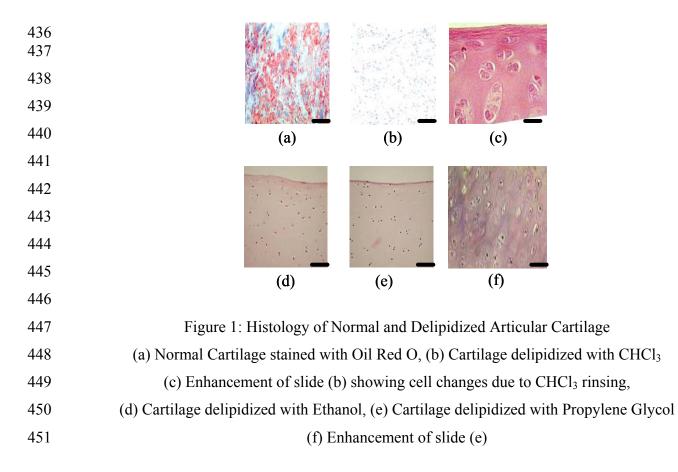
We wish to thank Smith & Nephew, Australia/USA for funding this research project. We also wish
to thank Ms Yvette Hills, Research Assistant, Paediatric Respiratory Research Centre, Mater
Misericordiae Children's Hospital, Brisbane, Australia, for performing articular cartilage rinsing
and Mr Ray Duplock, HPC Group, ITS, QUT for assistance in the statistical analysis.

385

386 7. References

- Ballantine G.C., and Stachowiak G.W., 2002. The effects of lipid depletion on osteoarthritic
 wear. Wear 253, 385-393
- Bank R.A., Krikken M., Beekman B., Stoop R., Maroudas A., Lafebers F., Te Koppele J.M.,
 1997. A simplified measurement of degraded collagen in tissues: Application in healthy,
 fibrillated and osteoarthritic cartilage. Matrix Biology 16, 233-243
- Bank R.A., Soudry M., Maroudas A., Mizrahi J and TeKopple, J.M., 2000. The increased swelling and instantaneous deformation of osteoarthritic cartilage is highly correlated with collagen degradation. Arthritis & Rheum. 43, 2202-2210
- Bonner W.M., Jonsson H, Malanos C, and Bryant M., 1975. Changes in the lipids of human articular cartilage with age. Arthritis Rheum.5, 461-73.
- Broom N.D. and Flachsmann R., 2003. Physical indicators of cartilage health: the relevance of
 compliance, thickness, swelling and fibrillar texture. J. Anat. 202, 481-494
- Buckwalter J.A., and Mankin H.J., 1997. Articular Cartilage Part II: Degeneration and
 Osteoarthritis, Repair, Regeneration and Transplantation. J. Bone & Joint Surgery, 79-A, 612632.
- 402 7. Guerra D, Frizziero L, Losi M, et al., 1996. Ultrastructural identification of a membrane-like
 403 structure on the surface of normal articular cartilage. J Submicrosc Cytol Pathol 28, 385

- 404 8. Higginson G.R., Litchfield M.R., and Snaith J., 1976. Load-displacement-time characteristics
 405 of articular cartilage. Int. J. Mech. Sci. 18, 481-486
- 406
 9. Hills, B.A., Butler, B.D., 1984. Identification of surfactants in synovial fluid and their ability to act as boundary lubricants. Ann. Rheum. Disease 48, 51–57.
- 408
 408 10. Lai W.M., Mow V.C., and Roth V., 1981. Effects of nonlinear strain-dependent permeability
 409 and rate of compression on the stress behaviour of articular cartilage. J. Biomech. Eng. 130, 61410 66
- 411 11. Mow V.C., Setton L.A., Guilak F. and Racliffe A. 1995. Mechanical factors in articular
 412 cartilage and their role in osteoarthritis. In: Osteoarthritic Disorders, K.E. Kuettner and V.M.
 413 Goldberg [Eds.], The American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons, 147-171
- 414 12. Oloyede A., and Broom N.D., 1994. Complex nature of stress inside loaded articular cartilage.
 415 Clin. Biomech. 9, 149-156
- 416 13. Oloyede A., Flachsman R., and Broom N.D., 1992. The dramatic influence of loading velocity
 417 on the compressive response of articular cartilage. Conn. Tissue. Res. 27, 1-15
- 418 14. Oloyede A., Gudimetla P., Crawford R., and Hills B.A., 2003. Biomechanical Responses of
 419 Normal and Delipidized Articular Cartilage subjected to varying Rates of Loading. Conn. Tiss.
 420 Res. 45, 86-93
- 421 15. Pickard, J. E., Fisher, J., Ingham, E., and J. Egan, J., 1998 Investigation into the effects of
 422 proteins and lipids on the frictional properties of articular cartilage Biomaterials, 19 (19), 1807423 1812
- 424 16. Stockwell R.A., 1967. Lipid Content in Human Costal and Articular Cartilage. Ann. Rheum.
 425 Dis. 26, 481-486
- 426 17. Suggs L.J., Shive M.S., Garcia C.A., Anderson J.M., Mikos A.G., 1999. In vitro cytotoxicity
 427 and in vivo biocompatibility of poly(propylene fumarate-co-ethylene glycol) hydrogels. J
 428 Biomed Mater Res. 46, 22-32
- 429 18. Vecchio, P., Thomas, R., Hills, B.A., 1999. Surfactant treatment for osteoarthritis,
 430 Rheumatology, 38(10), 1020-1
- 431 19. Kempson, G.E., Spivey, C.J., Swanson, S.A.V., and Freeman, M.A.R. 1971. Patterns of
 432 cartilage stiffness on normal and degenerate human femoral heads. J Biomech 4, 597–609.
- 433 20. Wuthier, R.E. 1968. Lipids of mineralizing epiphyseal tissues in the bovine fetus. J. Lipid Res.
 434 9, 68-78
- 435 21. McCutchen, C. W., 1959, "Sponge-Hydrostatic and Weeping Bearings," Nature, 184, p. 1284



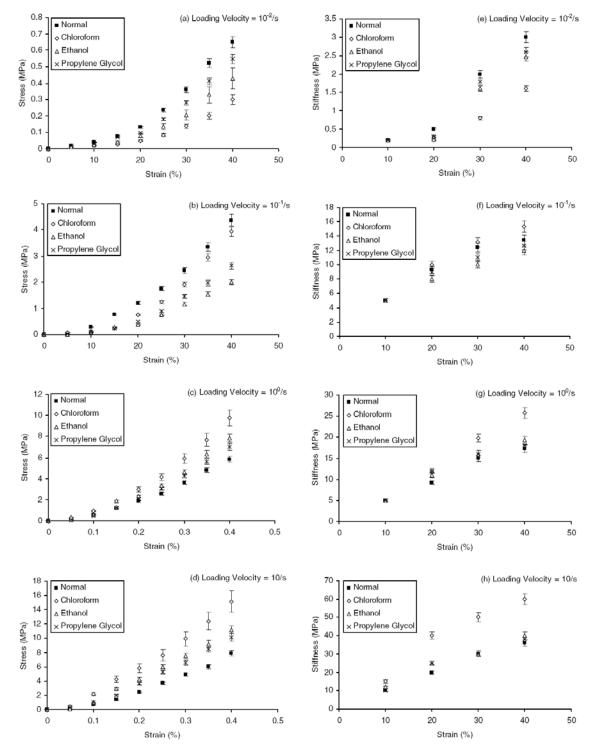


Figure 2: Stress-Strain and Stiffness Curves of Normal and Delipidized Articular Cartilage at
 different Loading Velocities

Table 1: Relative Changes in W/W and Lipid Content in Delipidized Articular Cartilage

Typical Thickness	Normal	Delipidized							
1.4mm		Chloroform Ethanol (CHCl ₃) (C ₂ H ₅ OH)		Propylene Glycol $(C_3H_8O_2)$					
		30 minutes	30 minutes	12 hours	30 minutes	12 hours			
Wet weight (g)	0.32	0.311	0.315	0.309	0.316	0.310			
Lipid Content (%)	3.40	2.600	1.450	3.200	1.000	3.000			

Table 2: Stiffness of Delipidized Articular cartilage

Rinsing Agent	Thickness	Stiffness Relative to Normal (%)				
(30minutes)	(mm)	$10^{-3}/s$	$10^{-2}/s$	$10^{-1}/s$	$10^{1}/s$	
Chloroform (CHCl ₃)	1.1-1.6	35~40↓	20~30↓	20~25↑	25~35↑	
Ethanol (C_2H_5OH)	1.1-1.6	15~20↓	15~35↓	10~20↑	10~20↑	
Propylene Glycol ($C_3H_8O_2$)	1.1-1.6	5~10↓	10~15↓	5~15↑	5~10↑	
12 Hours						
Ethanol (C_2H_5OH)	1.3-1.5	30~40↓	20~35↑	15~25↑	10~25↑	
Propylene Glycol (C ₃ H ₈ O ₂)	1.3-1.5	15~20↓	15~25↑	20~35↑	20~30↑	

↓ - Delipidized cartilage is softer than normal counterpart
 ↑ - Delipidized cartilage is stiffer than normal counterpart