1 Raman Spectroscopy identifies differences in ochronotic and non-ochronotic cartilage; a

2 potential novel technique for monitoring ochronosis.

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1 Abstract

2 **Objective**

Alkaptonuria (AKU) is a rare, inherited disorder of tyrosine metabolism, where patients are unable to breakdown homogentisic acid (HGA), which increases systemically over time. It presents with a clinical triad of features; HGA in urine, ochronosis of collagenous tissues, and the subsequent ochronotic arthritis of these tissues. In recent years the advance in the understanding of the disease and the potential treatment of the disorder looks promising with the data on the efficacy of nitisinone. However, there are limited methods for the detection and monitoring of ochronosis *in vivo*, or for treatment monitoring.

10 The study aim was to test the hypothesis that Raman spectra would identify a distinct11 chemical fingerprint for the non-ochronotic, compared to ochronotic cartilage.

12 Design:

Ochronotic and non-ochronotic cartilage from human hips and ears were analysed using
Raman spectroscopy.

15 Results:

Non-ochronotic cartilage spectra were similar and reproducible and typical of normal articular cartilage. Conversely, the ochronotic cartilage samples were highly fluorescent and displayed limited or no discernible Raman peaks in the spectra, in stark contrast to their non-ochronotic pairs. Interestingly, a novel peak was observed associated with the polymer of HGA in the ochronotic cartilage that was confirmed by analysis of pigment derived from synthetic HGA.

21 **Conclusion:**

1 This technique reveals novel data on the chemical differences in ochronotic compared with 2 non-ochronotic cartilage, these differences are detectable by a technique that is already 3 generating *in vivo* data and demonstrates the first possible procedure to monitor the 4 progression of ochronosis in tissues of patients with AKU.

- 5 Keywords: Alkaptonuria, Ochronosis, Arthropathy, Raman Spectroscopy, Osteoarthritis,
- 6 Cartilage
- 7 **Running Headline**:
- 8 Raman Spectroscopy detects ochronosis
- 9

1 Introduction

2 Alkaptonuria (AKU) is a rare autosomal recessive disorder of tyrosine metabolism. The 3 condition affects 1 in 250,000-500,000 people and results from the absence of the enzyme 4 homogentisate 1,2-dioxygenase (HGD). This enzyme undertakes the highly specific process of 5 cleaving the benzene ring of homogentisic acid (HGA) to produce maleylacetoacetic acid¹. The 6 condition presents with a triad of clinical features; the first and earliest, presenting from birth, 7 is homogentisic aciduria, which darkens on exposure to air, or on addition of alkali. The second is ochronosis of collagenous tissues, such as the pinna, sclera and articular cartilages 8 of weight bearing joints, usually seen in the third decade of life, but it is unclear exactly when 9 this commences. The third and final feature is ochronotic osteoarthropathy, which usually 10 manifests in the 4th decade of life and affects larger weight-bearing joints that have been 11 12 subject to many years of ochronosis². There is still no approved treatment for AKU, but nitisinone has shown excellent capacity for preventing HGA, the causative molecule in the 13 condition, building up³ and is completely effective at inhibiting ochronosis in AKU mice⁴. A 14 recent study has shown that nitisinone arrests ochronosis and decreases rate of progression 15 of Alkaptonuria in patients⁵. The effectiveness of nitisinone has shown no adverse effects on 16 osteoarticular cells but can cause corneal opacities, which reverse following withdrawal of 17 the drug^{6,7}. 18

For patients who have long term established ochronosis the only treatment is joint replacement surgery; however, this shows high variability within a patient and between patients, as not all joints progress to this state at the same rate⁸. The reasons for this are still to be fully understood, but it has been suggested that local inflammation, damage or other factors may contribute⁹.

1 The process of ochronosis in collagenous tissues has been shown to disrupt the molecular/atomic structure of type II collagen¹⁰. Most recently glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) 2 have been shown to be absent or not extractable from macroscopically ochronotic cartilage¹¹. 3 The changes that occur in the extracellular matrix of ochronotic cartilage change both the 4 5 mechanical and biochemical properties⁸. Whilst there has been an advance in the understanding of AKU, it is still unclear when ochronosis starts and whether the process can 6 be reversed in vivo. One of the most accessible and easily observable areas that becomes 7 pigmented is the pinna, which can therefore be used for monitoring ochronosis over time. 8 However, although visual estimates are possible, the most accurate measure of ochronosis is 9 a biopsy, which can be painful and potentially disfiguring. 10

Raman spectroscopy is a non-destructive technique that provides a chemically specific 11 signature of a given sample. It has a broad range of applications but is used extensively to 12 probe the chemistry of *in vitro* and *ex vivo* human samples from a range of pathologies¹². 13 14 Furthermore, in recent years numerous techniques have emerged and been developed that will allow and support in vivo measurements13. As a laser-based technology it uses a specific 15 monochromatic wavelength to excite molecular bonds in a given sample. Following the 16 molecular vibration, the photons are, either, released at the same energy and wavelength 17 (Rayleigh scattering), or an exchange in energy occurs and the photons released have either 18 lost or gained energy, resulting in a wavelength shift; this is known as Raman scattering, and 19 20 specific to the energy of the molecular bonds. Therefore, it enables the acquisition of a 21 specific Raman signature or fingerprint of a given material by characterising the chemical bonds within it. Compared to current clinical diagnostic techniques for bone disorders, Raman 22 23 spectroscopy has some advantages as it can provide information on both the inorganic and 24 organic material present, and is non-ionising¹⁴. An example of the potential for bone disease

diagnosis is osteogenesis imperfecta, a collagen disorder, which can be identified ex vivo and 1 in vivo using Raman spectroscopy¹⁵. It has also been used ex vivo to identify osteoarthritis¹⁶ 2 3 and there is some evidence that it may be useful for identifying osteoporosis^{13,18}. Furthermore, chemical differences have been found with AKU cartilage samples using Fourier 4 5 transform infrared spectroscopy, a technique complementary to Raman spectroscopy, but 6 which does not lend itself to clinical applications due to its sensitivity to water²⁰. The aim of this study is to investigate the chemical composition and potential differences in ochronotic 7 and non-ochronotic cartilage using Raman spectroscopy. 8

9 Methods

10 <u>Materials</u>

11 Hip cartilage samples

Hip cartilage samples, (n=3 pairs (pigmented and non-pigmented)) were obtained as surgical
waste with informed patient consent following ethical approval by Liverpool REC
(07/Q1505/29). The samples were dissected immediately following surgery into ochronotic
and non-ochronotic pairs and stored unfixed at -80° C.

16 Ear cartilage biopsy

Ear biopsy samples (n=27; aged 16-67 years, 12 males and 15 females, equal males and females within each age group) were obtained, with ethical approval from Preston REC (15/NW/0749), as part of the Subclinical Ochronotic Features In Alkaptonuria (SOFIA) study; patient characteristics given in Table 1.

21 Ear Visual Ochronosis Score

Ear visual ochronosis score was undertaken by a single blinded scorer, this was performed as part of the Subclinical Ochronotic Features in Alkaptonuria (SOFIA) study where pigmentation across both ears of a single patient was measured. Ears were classified into 1 of 4 groups as having none (0), slight (1), moderate (2) or marked (3) pigmentation. The scores from each ear were combined to give the overall ear visual ochronosis score. We have added a supplementary figure (Suppl. Fig 1) to demonstrate the 4 groups. <u>Ear biopsy % ochronosis</u>

7 <u>score</u>

8 A 4mm diameter biopsy was taken from the conchal bowl of the ear using a posterior 9 approach under local anaesthetic. A single stitch was used at the end of the ear biopsy. The 10 biopsy was fixed in a 4% solution of formaldehyde in phosphate buffered saline for 48 hours 11 and then transferred to a solution of 70% ethanol in water.

Each biopsy contained a disc of cartilage 4mm in diameter and 1-2 mm thick. The disc was 12 bisected along the diameter and a thin slice of 0.8mm was taken from the cut face. This 13 sample was examined using an Olympus SZH binocular microscope in darkfield mode at 7.5 X 14 15 magnification. The biopsy section was photographed using a 9M pixels DCM 900 camera and 16 images stored as TIFFS. TIFFs were opened in Image J as 8-bit RGB images. An oval region of interest 3 mm long by 1 mm wide was selected and the mean colour intensity in the blue 17 channel was quantified on 255 scale, transformed so that white = 0 and black = 255. Following 18 subtraction of the absorbance of non-ochronotic tissue the % absorbance was calculated 19 (non-ochronotic tissue = 0 and completely ochronotic tissue =100), which provided an ear 20 21 biopsy % ochronosis score. Presence of ochronotic pigmentation was confirmed by histology 22 on serial sections followed by Schmorl staining and microscopy (data not shown).

23 Sample Preparation

For analysis via Raman, individual cartilage samples were placed onto an inert calcium fluoride
(CaF₂) disc for analysis. Samples were secured using clingfilm, with a hole where
measurements were taken, which also ensured the samples did not dry out during spectral
acquisition.

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6 Instrumentation

Raman spectra were acquired from the samples using an InVia Raman microspectrometer
(Renishaw plc, Gloucestershire, UK), equipped with a 785 nm laser, 200 mW at source, ~10
mW at sample. A minimum of five spectra were collected from each sample, all spectra were
acquired in the spectral range 600 – 1700 cm⁻¹. Spectral resolution was 1 cm⁻¹.

11 Hip sample spectral acquisition and processing

12 Spectra were collected over 60 s (20 s x 3 accumulations), at 100% power, from the nonochronotic tissue. However, applying the same settings to the ochronotic tissue resulted in 13 detector saturation. Therefore, spectra were collected over 10 s (1 s x 10 accumulations), at 14 15 100 % power, from the ochronotic tissue. This setting was also tested on the non-ochronotic sample but resulted in spectra with a very low signal to noise (S/N) ratio. Data were baseline 16 17 corrected, using polynomial (order 5) subtraction, to remove fluorescence and normalised to the phenylalanine peak (1000 cm⁻¹). A further liquid sample of pure HGA polymer, 18 synthesised in the lab, was analysed with a drop placed on the disk. The polymer was analysed 19 20 to help identify a characteristic Raman spectrum that might have been present in the tissue samples. Six spectra were acquired at 50% power for 60 s (1 s x 60 accumulations); higher 21 power resulted in detector saturation. 22

1 Ear sample spectral acquisition and processing

To acquire spectra from the majority of the samples, i.e., to avoid detector saturation from the highly ochronotic regions, while collecting good quality S/N from the non-ochronotic regions the spectra were collected over 5 s (1s x 5 accumulations) at 50 % power, with cosmic ray removal turned on. Spectra were collected every 200 µm across the longest axis of each sample (samples were ellipsoidal in shape), with a minimum of 15 spectra per sample. 448 spectra were collected in total, 44 were saturated, leaving a total of 404 spectra for analysis.

All spectra were baseline corrected using a 5th polynomial subtraction and vector normalised using an in-house written Matlab (v2017a, The Mathworks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA) script. Principal component analysis (PCA) and PCA-linear discriminant analysis (PCA-LDA) was then performed on this data. Data were grouped by ear ochronosis and ear pigmentation scores, and by degree of fluorescence in the raw spectra. The latter, with PCA, was used to enable a 'blind' and unsupervised approach to identify natural variation in the Raman spectral data.

A fluorescence to Raman ratio was calculated by comparing the peak height of the raw intensity (counts on y-axis) to baselined spectra at 783 cm⁻¹. This peak was chosen as it was consistently present in the spectra and was identified as contributing to differences between non-ochronotic and ochronotic samples from PCA-LDA. As the ochronotic samples were highly fluorescent the area under the curve was calculated for each raw spectrum to provide a measure of the amount of fluorescence.

20 <u>Results</u>

21 <u>Hip samples</u>

The average spectrum from each of the non-ochronotic samples is presented in Figure 1A; it
 can be observed by eye that they are similar and reproducible. FIGURE 1 LOCATED HERE

Raw spectra acquired from the ochronotic samples are presented in Figure 1B; they are remarkably similar to each other. The strongest feature of these spectra is that they reveal a high degree of fluorescence and do not contain easily identifiable peaks that are comparable to either the non-ochronotic cartilage or the cartilage spectra in the literature. Upon baseline correction (Figure 1C) it was possible to identify several peaks, although the quality of the spectra is poor. The main peaks identified were at 626 cm⁻¹, 775 cm⁻¹ and 1675 cm⁻¹.

9 The synthesised HGA polymer produced similar results to the ochronotic samples, in that the 10 spectra showed high levels of fluorescence and with 100% power resulted in detector 11 saturation. Upon baseline correction (Figure 1D), peaks were identifiable, the largest and 12 most distinct at 1675 cm⁻¹, with others at 1072 cm⁻¹ and a broad band at 1310 cm⁻¹.

13 Ear Samples

As with the non-ochronotic spectra from the hip cartilage, the equivalent from the ear samples also provided spectra that had clearly identifiable spectral bands, and a different fluorescence profile to the ochronotic samples, which were highly fluorescent (Figure 2A). Once processed the Raman spectral profiles were more comparable to non-ochronotic spectral profiles (Figure 2B). FIGURE 2 LOCATED HERE

The fluorescence, as determined by the area under the curve, was strongly correlated with both the visual ear ochronosis score (R^2 = 0.73; Figure 3A) and the ear biopsy % ochronosis score (R^2 = 0.63; Figure 3B). Of the samples, one in particular had clearly defined ochronotic and non-ochronotic regions (Figure 3C), the spectral ratio of fluorescence to Raman (raw

divided by baseline corrected peak height at 783 cm⁻¹) signal clearly maps onto the image;
specifically, regions of high ochronosis have a higher fluorescence to Raman ratio (Figure 3D).
Of note is that the darker regions on the right of the sample (Figure 3C) resulted in spectra
that were saturated, so we hypothesise that had they been measurable the fluorescence
would have been higher from point 12-16 (Figure 3D). FIGURE 3 LOCATED HERE

6 In a PCA scores plot the closer two scores are to each other the more similar they are 7 spectrally, and therefore biochemically, and vice versa. Figure 4A demonstrates that there is 8 a clear separation in the PCA scores plot between samples classified as non-ochronotic compared to ochronotic. There is some overlap of the 95% confidence intervals, however, 9 10 this is likely because some of the samples contained regions that were both ochronotic and non-ochronotic, such as the one shown in Figure 3C. This is further demonstrated in the PCA-11 LDA scores plot of the same data (Figure 4B); this 1D plot shows that the most ochronotic 12 spectrum is furthest to the right. The loadings plot (Figure 4C) reveals that the spectral, and 13 14 therefore biochemical, reason for the separation is primarily due to variation at 783 cm⁻¹ (collagen), 879 cm⁻¹ (tryptophan/hydroxyproline), 718 cm⁻¹ (DNA), 886 cm⁻¹ (collagen), 1199 15 cm⁻¹ (NH₂), 1657 cm⁻¹(carbonyl; C=O) 1451 cm⁻¹ (CH₂) and 1333 cm⁻¹ (collagen), 1149 cm⁻¹ 16 (NH₂), 976 cm⁻¹ (C-H stretch phenylalanine/C-C stretch tryptophan) in order of highest 17 contribution to the variance, to the lowest. FIGURE 4 LOCATED HERE 18

Further analysis (Figure 4D) highlights the spread of individuals' data compared to the data grouped by ochronosis. This not only demonstrates the separation of samples based on ochronosis but also the intra-sample variation, i.e., the heterogeneity of ochronosis within one patient sample.

Analysing the Raman spectra with PCA-LDA according to ear biopsy % ochronosis score
demonstrates that the samples without ochronosis are distinct from those with at least 60%
ochronosis (Figure 4E). The samples with varying degrees of ochronosis appear as a spread
across both regions but reveal differences within and between samples.

1 Discussion

2 This study demonstrates the novel application of Raman to the rare genetic disease AKU, its 3 use demonstrates the ability to distinguish clear chemical differences between nonochronotic and ochronotic cartilage. The ability to demonstrate subtle differences, 4 undetectable by visual methods, using a technique that is already used clinically means that 5 6 this could be applied to AKU patients *in vivo* for real time monitoring of ochronosis and to 7 determine appropriate time to treat. The spectra from the non-ochronotic samples, hip 8 (hyaline) and ear (elastic) cartilage were comparable to each other and are typical of articular¹⁹ and elastic²¹ cartilage spectra, respectively. The main difference is the presence of 9 elastin fibres, and while a direct comparison of the two cartilage types may identify spectral 10 differences, this is not clear from the raw spectra, and no direct comparisons were made. 11 Although the hip spectra were acquired using 1 min spectra, this setting was the optimal for 12 signal to noise ratio and discernible peaks could be identified on smaller collection times, as 13 14 observed with 5 s ear spectra. Spectra acquired from the ochronotic cartilage from all the 15 samples produced the same comparable spectra, which were inundated by fluorescence. Furthermore, it was only possible to collect spectra using minimal exposure settings; any 16 higher resulted in detector saturation and therefore no recorded measurement. However, 17 upon baseline correction and normalisation, peaks become recognisable. Of these peaks one 18 was also present on the HGA polymer spectra (1675 cm⁻¹), which is due likely due to yellow 19 chromophores, specifically p-quinone²². This observation presents some of the first evidence 20 21 of the existence of a quinone-intermediary in the ochronosis process, the exact structure and binding site of this product is still elusive. 22

The HGA polymer is chemically similar to melanin, the pigment found in skin²³. However, as 1 2 reported in the literature it is possible to acquire distinct spectra from a range of skin types with differing levels of melanin²⁴. The intermediate in the tyrosine to melanin pathway is L-3 dopaquinone, which is chemically similar to benzoquinone, the intermediate in the 4 5 polymerisation of HGA. While it may have been hypothesised that high levels of melanin may produce the same results that have been measured with ochronotic tissue, this was not the 6 case. This is very likely due to a difference in the chemical environment. Specifically, melanin 7 is found intracellularly, whereas HGA becomes bound to the extracellular matrix in addition 8 to cellular deposition. Therefore, the combination of small chemical differences and the 9 environment likely explain the very different vibrational fingerprints. One particular feature 10 of the HGA is the large degree to which it fluoresces and is Raman active. 11

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Fluorescence occurs when there is an overall increase in energy to all the molecules present 13 in a given sample and is a separate and distinct phenomenon to Raman scattering, which 14 15 provides molecule-specific information. In the majority of Raman spectroscopy studies the first step after acquisition is to remove the fluorescence to leave behind the pure Raman 16 spectrum, it is then necessary to perform analysis, which, as each spectrum can contain ~1000 17 variables, often requires multivariate analysis to identify differences due to the presence of 18 19 different chemicals, e.g., in disease. Utilising both the fluorescence and Raman information 20 (Figure 3) revealed that differences due to ochronosis could be detected. Specifically, there 21 was a strong exponential trend between fluorescence and both the ear ochronosis (visual) 22 and ear biopsy (ear biopsy % ochronosis) scores. Furthermore, the fluorescence to Raman 23 ratio identified that differences within a sample, due to ochronosis, could be observed; the

sample in Figure 3C was so pigmented at one side that the detector saturated for the last 5
spectra. It is assumed that the fluorescence to Raman ratio, had it been measurable, would
have been higher here. However, the result of a saturated spectrum is a result in itself as it is
strongly associated with high pigmentation.

AKU is a rare disease, and although there is active research, much is still unknown. Although 5 6 ochronosis is known to occur, the rate and anatomical location varies and is patient-specific. 7 A technique that could monitor pigmentation, to aid in clinical decision making for treatment 8 and in monitoring treatment efficacy would be very valuable. Its most significant use would be the ability to determine the exact time point when an individual should commence 9 nitisinone therapy. This technique has revealed that the presence, or absence, of ochronosis 10 could be identified by measuring fluorescence. Therefore, potentially a visible light source 11 12 may provide similarly useful information. However, Raman has the added value of providing chemical information. The results shown in Figure 4 have provided insight into the intra-class, 13 14 intra-sample and inter-class variation. A comparison of the Raman data to the ear biopsy % 15 ochronosis showed a strong correlation for non-ochronotic and ochronotic cartilage, with overlap in between. This is perhaps expected due to the difference in measurements and the 16 17 heterogeneous nature of the samples, specifically once ochronosis has started. Furthermore, the biochemical differences between the ochronotic and non-ochronotic samples are due to 18 changes in collagen spectral bands, specifically hydroxyproline, amide groups and 19 20 phenylalanine/tryptophan which gives indication as to the association with the pigment and extracellular binding sites, similar to those already identified¹⁰. Therefore, the technique is 21 providing information about the underlying chemical changes due to the pigmentation, as 22 23 well as the presence and relative amount of ochronosis.

1 Overall, the spectra acquired from the non-ochronotic and ochronotic samples are distinctly 2 different at the point of data collection, suggesting that the Raman technique can be used to 3 sensitively detect ochronosis and monitor its progression. Therefore, this has the potential to be a powerful in vivo diagnostic tool for AKU. The limitations of this study include a small 4 5 sampling aperture; future studies would benefit from using an image map analysis approach 6 or a smaller magnification objective, the latter of which may allow a higher power laser to be used. The advantage of this investigation is that although AKU is a rare disease, we were able 7 8 to collect ear biopsy data from a significant number of participants, and from a range of 9 disease stages. The technique of Raman spectroscopy is already available in a clinical setting to measure bone transcutaneously, albeit in the early trial stages, for osteoporosis¹⁸, 10 osteoarthritis and osteogenesis imperfecta¹⁵. The technique lends itself to a clinical setting as 11 it benefits from the advantages of being non-invasive and non-ionising, it has also been used 12 13 to generate distinct spectra from other areas of the body containing connective tissue²⁵. The 14 promising benefits of nitisinone for treating AKU is not without its side effects, this technique would enable targeted treatment of patients with this drug by monitoring sites of superficial 15 ochronosis in sites such as the ear, Achilles tendon or patella tendon. Overall, this technique 16 17 has the potential to be used routinely in clinics for the diagnosis, monitoring and treatment 18 efficacy of individuals with AKU with no adverse health risks.

19 Author contributions

AMT, JGK, JAG & LRR conceived and designed the study. VDK, DDJ and BN collected samples and undertook data acquisition. JPD processed the ear cartilage biopsies and undertook data acquisition. All authors analysed and interpreted the data, contributed to drafting the manuscript and revising it critically for important intellectual content.

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6 Disclosures:

7 All authors have no disclosures in relation to this manuscript.

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3	Figures
4	Figure 1: Raman spectra from ochronotic and non-ochronotic hip cartilage samples from
5	patients with AKU. [A] Average spectrum from each hip sample of non-ochronotic cartilage,
6	baseline corrected and normalised; [B] Average raw spectrum from each sample of
7	ochronotic cartilage; [C] Average spectrum from each sample of ochronotic cartilage,
8	baseline corrected. Blue boxes highlight identifiable peaks; [D] Baseline corrected spectrum
9	of the synthesised HGA polymer. Blue boxes highlight identifiable peaks.
10	
11	Figure 2: Raman spectra from ear cartilage samples from patients with AKU. Average
12	spectrum from each class of ear sample: non-ochronotic vs ochronotic cartilage (based on
13	observation of the spectra), [A] raw; [B] baseline corrected and normalised.
14	
15	Figure 3: Comparison of Raman spectroscopy and visual ochronosis assessment in ear
16	cartilage samples from AKU patients. [A] Ear ochronosis score vs. fluorescence; [B] biopsy
17	% ochronosis score vs. fluorescence; [C] image of an example ear sample with defined
18	ochronotic and non-ochronotic regions, red line is the location Raman spectra were
19	acquired along Spectra were acquired every 200 μ m. A scale bar is provided; [D]
20	fluorescence to Raman ratio at 783 cm ⁻¹ related to position along the sample in [C].

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1 Figure 4: PCA of Raman spectroscopy distinguishes between ochronotic and non-

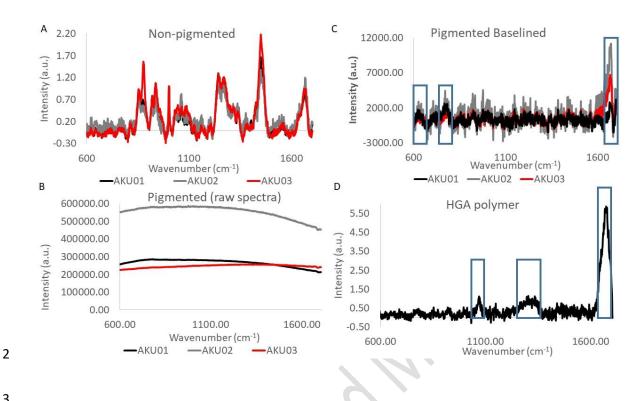
2 ochronotic cartilage [A] PCA scores plot of non-ochronotic (blue circles) vs. ochronotic 3 (black squares) spectra, with 95% confidence ellipses; [B] PCA-LDA scores plot of non-4 ochronotic (blue circles) vs. ochronotic (black squares) spectra; [C] PCA-LDA loadings plot 5 corresponding to [B], with the labelled peaks showing those that contribute the most; [D] 6 PCA-LDA scores plot of the same data as [B] but with 3 samples worth of spectra classed individually (non-ochronotic, green triangles; a sample with both ochronotic and ochronotic 7 regions (sample image in Figure 3C) red diamonds; ochronotic sample, blue inverted 8 triangles); [E] PCA-LDA scores plot with the data classed by ear biopsy % ochronosis. 9 Supplementary Figure 1: Photographs showing 4 stages of pigmentation as scored in the 10 Ear Visual Ochronosis Score. [A] Photograph showing an ear with zero pigmentation, scored 11 0. [B] Photograph showing an ear with slight pigmentation, scored 1. [C] Photograph 12 showing an ear with moderate pigmentation, scored 2. [D] Photograph showing an ear with 13 marked pigmentation, scoring 3. 14

<u>Table 1</u>: Table of patient demographics and their visual and biopsy ochronosis scores 1

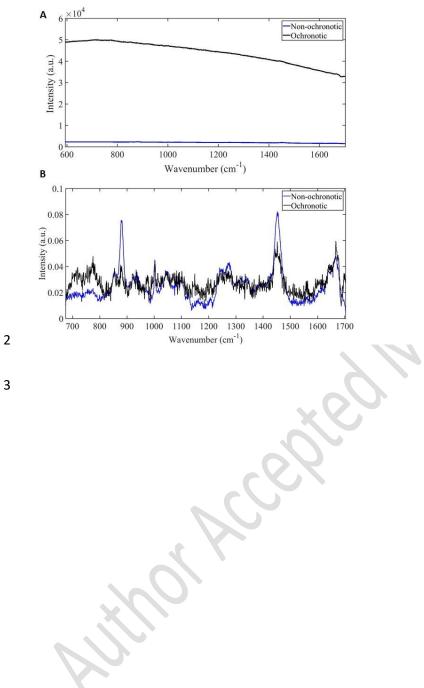
COLIA			Visual ear	Ear biopsy %	
SOFIA	A = a	Canalan	ochronosis	ochronosis	
ID	Age	Gender	score	score	
3	62	M	2	60	
5	59	F	3	4	
6	43	М	3	100	
7	46	M	6	99.6	
8	36	F	1	29	
9	57	М	6	59	
10	33	М	0	9	•.•
11	34	F	2	0	5/2
12	46	F	3	58	()
13	43	F	0	38	
14	67	F	6	81	
15	29	F	0	20	
16	43	F	4	71	
17	33	М	0	0	
18	49	М	3	20	
19	49	М	3	11	
20	37	F	0	44	
21	35	F	0	11	
22	31	F	0	0	
23	20	F	0	29	
24	16	М	0	0	
25	16	М	0	0	
26	26	F	0	0	
27	24	F	0	0	
28	22	М	0	0	
29	23	М	0	0	
30	23	F	0	0	
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1 Figure 3



