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Mathematical Model of Interstitial Fluid Flow and Characterization of the Lacunar Canalicular System in Cortical Bone

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MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF INTERSTITIAL FLUID FLOW AND
CHARACTERIZATION OF THE LACUNAR CANALICULAR SYSTEM IN
CORTICAL BONE

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Purdue University

by

Melanie B. Venderley

In Partial Fulfillment of the

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of

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To my parents Joe and Sherry, my brother Tim, and my sisters Anne and Samantha
for their unwavering support and encouragement.

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SYMBOLS

A	constant of integration
a	radius of osteocyte process
B	body containing all points within mixture
\underline{B}^s	Left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor for the solid constituent
b	radius of canaliculus
\underline{b}^α	body force(s) acting on constituent α
C	constant of integration
\underline{C}	Right Cauchy-Green deformation tensor
c^α	interconversion of mass of constituent α
Dh	diameter of horizontal fibers in the glycocalyx structure
Dv	diameter of vertical fibers in the glycocalyx structure
\underline{D}^f	time rate of change of the deformation tensor for the fluid constituent
E	elastic modulus
I_1	first invariant of the Right Cauchy-Green tensor, \underline{C}
I_2	second invariant of the Right Cauchy-Green tensor, \underline{C}
\underline{I}	identity tensor
J^α	determinant of deformation gradient for constituent α
\underline{K}_o	reference configuration
\underline{K}_t	current configuration
k_o	magnitude of the permeability tensor \underline{k}
\underline{k}	permeability tensor
Lh	length of horizontal fibers in the glycocalyx structure
Lv	length of vertical fibers in the glycocalyx structure

M^α	total mass of constituent α
N	Nauman number
n	total number of constituents within mixture
n_c	total number of input terms in Cotter's Method
\underline{n}	normal vector
P_o	reference configuration region that contains B
P_t	current configuration region that contains B
\underline{P}	First Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor
p	pressure
R_o	region within reference configuration, containing S
R_t	region within current configuration, containing S
S	subset of points of B
\underline{S}	Second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor
\underline{T}^α	stress tensor for constituent α
\underline{t}^α	traction vector acting on constituent α
v_o	magnitude of initial velocity
\underline{v}^α	velocity of constituent α
W	Mooney-Rivlin strain energy function
\underline{X}	location within reference configuration
\underline{x}	location within current configuration
α	constituent within mixture
β_o	coefficient in the constitutive equation for \underline{T}^s
β_1	coefficient in the constitutive equation for \underline{T}^s
β_2	coefficient in the constitutive equation for \underline{T}^s
ϵ	strain
η	Poisson's ratio
μ	viscosity
ρ^α	apparent density of constituent α

$\underline{\pi}^\alpha$	internal (within RVE) force acting on constituent α due to interaction with other constituents
ρ_T^α	true density of constituent α
ϕ^α	volume fraction of constituent α
χ^α	mapping of constituent α from one configuration to another
∂P_o	surface of region P_o
∂P_t	surface of region P_t
∂R_o	surface of region R_o
∂R_t	surface of region R_t

ABBREVIATIONS

AFM	atomic force microscopy
CFD	computational fluid dynamics
CLSM	confocal laser scanning microscopy
CT	computed tomography
EtOH	ethanol
FIB-SEM	focused ion beam scanning electron microscopy
FITC	fluorescein isothiocyanate
LCS	lacunar canalicular system
NBF	neutral buffered formalin
NO	nitric oxide
PG	prostaglandin
ROI	region of interest
RVE	representative volume element
SR-PNT	synchrotron X-ray phase nano-tomography
SR- μ CT	synchrotron radiation micro-computed tomography
UHVEM	ultra high voltage electron microscopy

ABSTRACT

Venderley, Melanie B. M.S.B.M.E., Purdue University, May 2018. Mathematical Model of Interstitial Fluid Flow and Characterization of the Lacunar Canalicular System in Cortical Bone. Major Professors: Eric A. Nauman, Russell P. Main.

While the mechanotransductive capability of skeletal tissue has been acknowledged for decades, the exact mechanisms that enable bone to sense and respond to external stimuli have remained elusive. Numerous theories have evolved to explain this behavior, most notably those involving fluid movement through the tissue's hierarchical structure. Within mineralized bone, osteocytes reside in micro and nanoporosities, known as lacunae and canaliculi, which house the cell body and their long cellular processes, respectively. Through this lacunar-canalicular system (LCS), osteocytes form an interconnected network, which allow signaling and communication with surrounding osteocytes via gap junctions and secreted factors. It has been theorized that external loading-induced interstitial fluid movement along the cell processes results in shear stresses and/or drag forces that elicit stimulatory responses from osteocytes. While length and mineralized tissue render direct measurements inaccessible, mathematical and computational modeling have been utilized to predict these potential stimulatory mechanisms. However, assumptions regarding the presence of a glycocalyx, which is a pericellular matrix within the interstitial fluid space, are typically made despite the inability to fully characterize its structure. Thus, to investigate the importance of the possible compositions of this glycocalyx, a mathematical model of interstitial fluid flow within a canaliculus was developed, utilizing mixture theory. Resulting sensitivity analyses show that assumptions regarding the glycocalyx greatly influence the profile within the LCS, therefore affecting potential mechanotransductive signals. Additionally, confocal microscopy and a custom,

automated reconstruction algorithm, were used to generate three-dimensional renderings of confocal images to further characterize the LCS and improve computational models. Both the mathematical model and reconstruction of the LCS will enhance the development of accurate predictive models and increase understanding of bone's mechanotransductive abilities.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation

In the 1860s, the concept that bone responds to mechanical stimuli was introduced by Dr. Julius Wolff, and since then, the theory has become widely accepted. However, the exact mechanisms by which cells within the tissue sense and transmit these signals have yet to be fully understood [1] [2] [3]. Osteocytes, mature bone cells, are hypothesized to be the main mechanosensors of bone due to their interconnected network within the lacunar-canalicular porosity throughout bone. This irregular nanoporosity contains interstitial fluid that may be the medium by which the processes on the osteocytes are able to sense external loads [4] [5] [6] [7]. The most popular theories of mechanotransduction in bone are the following: 1) fluid shear stress that the osteocyte cell process experiences due to loading-induced flow [2] [3] [8] [9] [10] and/or 2) fluid drag that acts on the cytoskeleton of the osteocyte cell process, where the fluid drag is a resultant of the transmembrane connections to an interstitial glycoalyx [9] [11] [12] [13] [14].

Directly measuring fluid shear stress and drag, both in vitro and in vivo, is currently not an option due to the micro- and nanoscopic scales of the lacunar-canalicular system (LCS). Thus, computational and mathematical models have been developed in order to predict these variables on the surface of the osteocyte cell process. In particular, numerous theoretical, poroelastic models have been used to study the interaction between the solid matrix of mineralized bone and the interstitial fluid flow. However, the structure of the glycoalyx has typically been assumed to exist for these models, even though it has yet to be fully characterized [5] [8] [9] [10] [11] [15] [16] [17] [18]. In addition, idealized structures for the lacunar-canalicular system are commonly used [11] [15]; while a few models have been developed to show the role of the LCS's

complex geometry on strain and stress amplification, they utilize a minimal sample size due to the manual labor needed to create numerous anatomically-correct LCS models [6] [19].

Thus, it is important to understand the impact of the glycocalyx and its effects on interstitial fluid flow. Furthermore, a need exists to develop a three-dimensional reconstruction method for the LCS that is not subject to user bias through manual segmentation processes. Characterizing the LCS will enable more accurate theoretical and computational models to understand and predict bone mechanotransduction. Determining the mechanisms by which bone remodels would ultimately be beneficial for the development of clinical interventions to prevent age-related bone loss.

1.2 Objective

The first objective of this thesis was to mathematically model interstitial fluid flow within the lacunar-canalicular system of cortical bone using mixture theory. The goal of the mathematical model was to determine the impact of the glycocalyx on the flow profile within the interstitial space when an idealized canaliculus is assumed. Additionally, the second objective was to characterize the three-dimensional lacunar-canalicular structure by generating an autonomous method to reconstruct two-dimensional images obtained from confocal laser scanning microscopy.

2. BACKGROUND

2.1 Hierarchical Structure of Bone

Bone has a hierarchical structure that is optimized to support external loads and protect internal structures while also remaining as light as possible. Its organization can be compartmentalized into five different levels: (1) the molecular structure, (2) the sub-nanostructure, (3) the nanostructure, (4) the sub-microstructure and the microstructure, and (5) the macrostructure [20], as shown in Figure 2.1 [21]. As a whole, bone is composed of approximately 65% mineral, 25% organic matrix (of which 90% is Type I collagen and the remainder is noncollagenous proteins), and 10% water [4]. Part of the organic matrix, the collagen molecules form triple helices, which assemble in groups of five to create fibrils. Within the gaps between the collagen molecules in these individual fibrils, nucleation of hydroxyapatite crystals occurs, which is the mineral constituent of bone. Aggregation of the fibrils leads to the formation of a single collagen fiber [21] [4].

At the sub-microscopic level, parallel sheets of Type I collagen are organized, known as lamellae, which are each $3 - 7\mu m$ wide [20]. As shown in Figure 2.1, they concentrically wrap around a central canal, referred to as a Haversian canal. Each canal is approximately $40 - 80\mu m$ in diameter and houses vasculature and innervation [22] [23] [24] [25]. The layering of the lamellae around the Haversian canal forms the basic structural unit of bone, the osteon. The diameter of osteons has been reported to range from $100\mu m$ to $500\mu m$ [20] [22] [23] [24] [26].

At the macroscopic level, the osteons comprise two types of bone, cortical (or compact) or cancellous (or trabecular/spongy). In long bones, cortical bone forms a dense, cortical shell that encompasses an interior, marrow canal [20]. Porous cancellous bone is internally found at the ends to aid in transmitting mechanical loads to

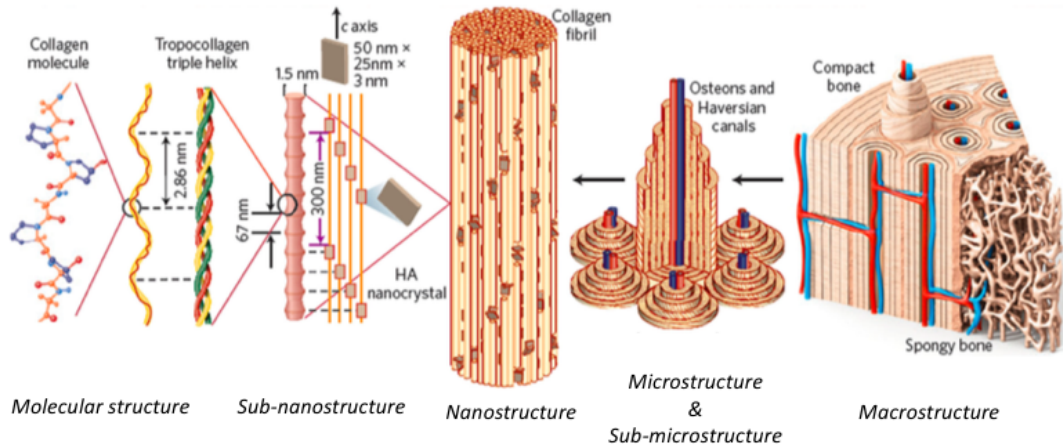


Fig. 2.1. Hierarchical structure of bone. The molecular structure consists of the collagen molecules, which form in groups of 5 to create fibrils (sub-nanostructure). Hydroxyapatite, or the bone mineral, nucleates in the gap regions between the ends of collagen molecules within the fibril. Aggregation of fibrils leads to collagen fibers, which make up the nanostructure. Parallel sheets of the collagen fibers form lamellae which create circumferential bands of bone, known as osteons (sub-microstructure and microstructure). A Haversian canal runs down the center of the osteon to provide an opening for vasculature and innervation. The osteons are then arranged to macroscopically form dense cortical bone or porous (spongy) trabeculae [4]. Image modified from Liu et al. [21].

the cortical bone. It is characterized by a rod and plate structure [4]. On the other hand, flat bones consist of two outer cortical layers with a thin, internal cancellous structure for support [20].

2.2 Lacunar Canalicular System

Bone is a dynamic tissue that can respond to external and internal signals to model and remodel in order to maintain its structural integrity. Three types of cells are responsible for bone maintenance: osteoclasts, osteoblasts, and osteocytes. Osteoclasts are multinuclear cells that manage bone resorption. They are essential

for removing bone for bone modeling during growth and also for bone remodeling due to microdamage. Once osteoclasts are no longer needed, they undergo apoptosis [4]. Osteoblasts, found on the surface of bone, synthesize and secrete unmineralized bone matrix, or osteoid, which they then mineralize. While 60% to 80% of osteoblasts undergo apoptosis following mineralization, the remainder either flatten and become lining cells or are entrapped within the matrix that they are actively producing [4]. A balance between the osteoclastic and osteoblastic activity is needed to ensure bone's overall structure.

The entrapped osteoblasts differentiate into the third cell type, osteocytes. Their cell bodies are contained within cavities known as lacunae while their long, dendritic processes are encompassed in thin cylindrical porosities known as canaliculi. With these processes, the osteocytes form an interconnected network, or the lacunar-canalicular system (LCS), as a means to communicate with surrounding cells. Figure 2.2(a) shows a longitudinally-sectioned osteon, illustrating the complex network that the osteocytes form within the mineralized bone [27]. Figure 2.2(b) is a trabecular section at the metaphysis in a rat tibia. Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) is used to fill and visualize the LCS.

The porosity due to the LCS ranges over multiple length scales. Atomic force microscopy (AFM), confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM), synchrotron radiation micro-computed tomography (SR- μ CT), focused ion beam scanning electron microscopy (FIB-SEM), and studies utilizing tracers, such as ferritin and horseradish peroxidase, have all been employed in order to characterize this network [29] [1] [2]. However, specimens utilized, sample location, sample preparation, and imaging technique are just a few of the differences across studies that have resulted in wide range of measured variables. The length of lacunae has been reported to range from $8 - 70\mu m$ [5] [30] [27] [31] [32], while its width ranges from $2 - 8\mu m$ [27] [32] [33]. Canaliculi are much smaller than the lacunae, with a diameter ranging from $150 - 844nm$ [27] [34] [33] [35] [36] [37] and between 41 and 115 canaliculi per lacuna [33] [37] [35] [38] [39].

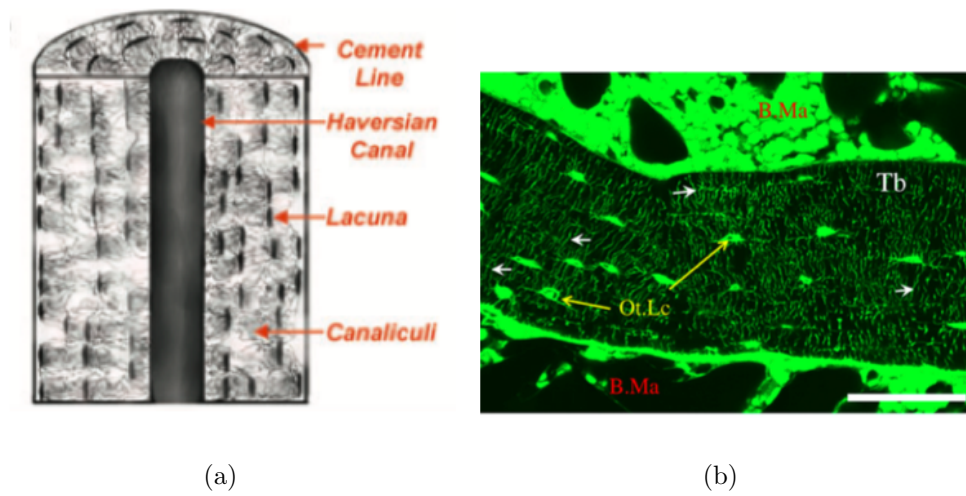


Fig. 2.2. (a) A longitudinally-sectioned osteon illustrating the networking of the lacunar-canalicular system [27]. (b) Cancellous rat tibia metaphysis stained using fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC). Bone marrow (B.Ma), osteocyte lacunae (Ot.Lc), and trabecula (Tb) are indicated. The white arrows point to the canalicular porosity; scale bar = $130\mu m$ [28].

While many of these measurements are made from two-dimensional images, an increasing number of methods have been developed to acquire three-dimensional representations of the network. In 2004, McCreadie et al. reconstructed confocal stacks of trabecular bone from the iliac crest of women with and without osteoporotic fracture. Assuming an ellipsoidal shape for the lacunae, the volume and shape of the lacunae were determined using the principle moments of inertia and the eigenvalues of the inertia matrix [40]. Similarly, Carter et al., Palacio-Mancheno et al., and Dong et al. performed analyses using either SR- μ CT or high resolution computed tomography (CT) to characterize lacunar morphology, as shown in Figure 2.3 [30] [41] [42]. More recently, Heveran et al. published a novel open-source tool to reconstruct three-dimensional lacunar morphology from CLSM images, using similar mathematical constructs as McCreadie et al. Their tool eliminates user bias and error when manually segmenting, in addition to greatly reducing the amount of time to reconstruct the confocal z-stacks. Utilizing this automatic segmentation tool, confocal images were reconstructed from cortical bone samples of adult (6-mo) and aged (24-mo) male mice, which had been stained with 1% basic fuchsin. Figure 2.4 shows the comparison between the reconstructed lacunae from the adult (a) and aged (b) mice. They ultimately were able to conclude significant age-related changes to the three-dimensional morphology, with the lacunae from the aged mice being smaller, more spherical, more oblate, and less densely populated within the mineralized bone [43].

Many additional articles have been published, which not only reconstruct the lacunar geometry, but also the much more complex canalicular structure. In 2004, Sugawara et al. stained sixteen-day-old chick calvariae with phalloidin and imaged the osteocytes using CLSM. Multiple softwares were employed in order to reconstruct and characterize the LCS. IMPARIS software was utilized to reconstruct the network for osteocyte cell body measurements (Figure 2.5(a)), NEURON TRACER software was used to trace and determine the length of the osteocyte cell processes, and SURPASS software was needed to determine surface area and volume of the osteocyte cell body and processes, combined [38]. In 2011, Schneider et al. used FIB-SEM on sections

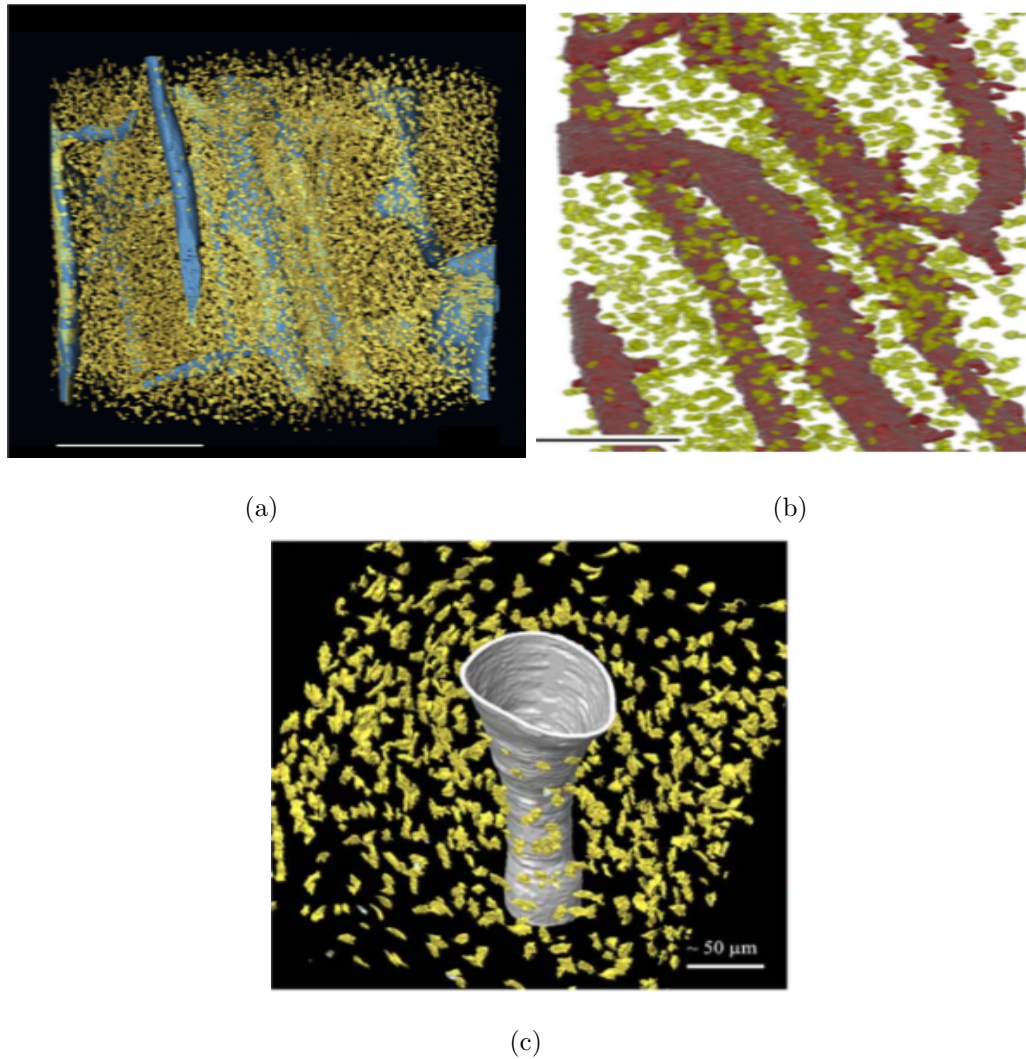


Fig. 2.3. (a) Using SkyScan CT software, SR- μ CT images from a human male anterior cortical bone sample were reconstructed. Lacunae are shown in gold within the region of interest (ROI) with the vascular canals in blue; scale bar= $300\mu m$ [30]. (b) Reconstruction of the anterior proximal tibia of a skeletally-mature rat, using a $1\text{-}\mu m$ -resolution CT scan and Skyscan software. Vasculature is shown in red while the lacunae are in gold; scale bar= $100\mu m$ [41]. (c) Three-dimensional reconstruction of a human female cortical osteon from the femoral mid-diphysis, using SR- μ CT and a custom, automated method to segment and extract lacunar morphology. Haversian canal is shown in white with the surrounding lacunae in gold [42].

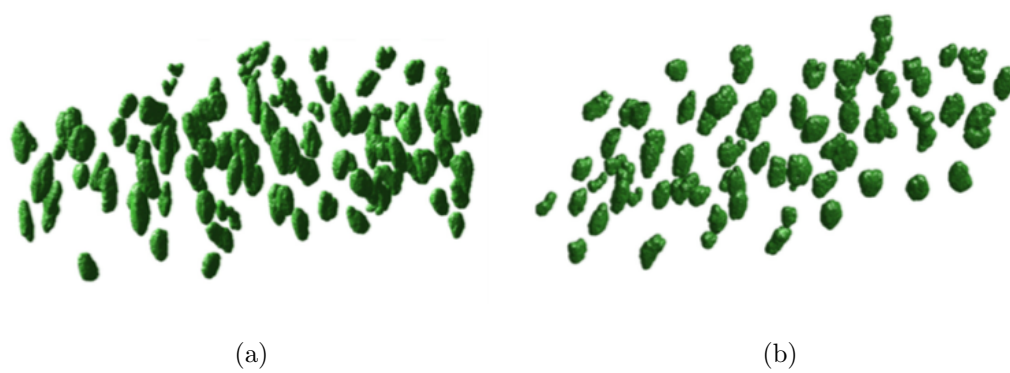


Fig. 2.4. Three-dimensional reconstructions of cortical bone samples from (a) 6-month-old and (b) 24-month-old male mice [43].

from the mid-diaphysis of a murine femur. Post-processing and reconstruction were performed using both ImageJ and IPL software (Figure 2.5(b)). However, as this was just a proof of concept study, only one sample and a limited ROI were analyzed [35]. Sharma et al. provided detailed reconstruction of single lacunae and their connecting canaliculi. Tibial, transverse cortical sections were obtained from 26-week-old female rats, stained with FITC, and imaged using CLSM. For three-dimensional analysis, ImageJ was used to quantify osteocyte lacunar density, Volocity was implemented to determine the number of canaliculi per lacuna (Figure 2.5(c)), and Mimics 3D reconstruction software's segmentation tools were used to isolate lacunar and canalicular volumes [37]. Most recently, in 2015, both Hesse et al. and Varga et al. both utilized synchrotron X-ray phase nano-tomography (SR-PNT) to characterize the LCS. Hesse et al. obtained images from human mandible sections, manually selected ROI without any microdamage, and reconstructed them using Matlab (Figure 2.5(d)) [44]. Human femur cortical bone samples were used by Varga et al. and reconstructed in Matlab using a custom-developed connectivity enhancement algorithm (Figure 2.5(e)) [5].

Unfortunately, many of the current reconstruction techniques characterizing both the lacunar and canalicular morphology involve manual work through segmentation [35] [37] [38], multiple softwares [35] [37] [38], or techniques, such as FIB-SEM and SR-PNT, that are not as accessible as CLSM [5] [35] [44]. Hesse et al. and Varga et al. produce promising results with their custom-implemented Matlab codes [5] [44]; however, creation of a similar code may prove difficult and time-consuming for researchers that could benefit from it. Thus, an open-source code reconstructing the LCS, as Heveran et al. provided for the lacunae, would be beneficial for further research, removing the variable of post-processing from the differences that are seen in characterization of the LCS.

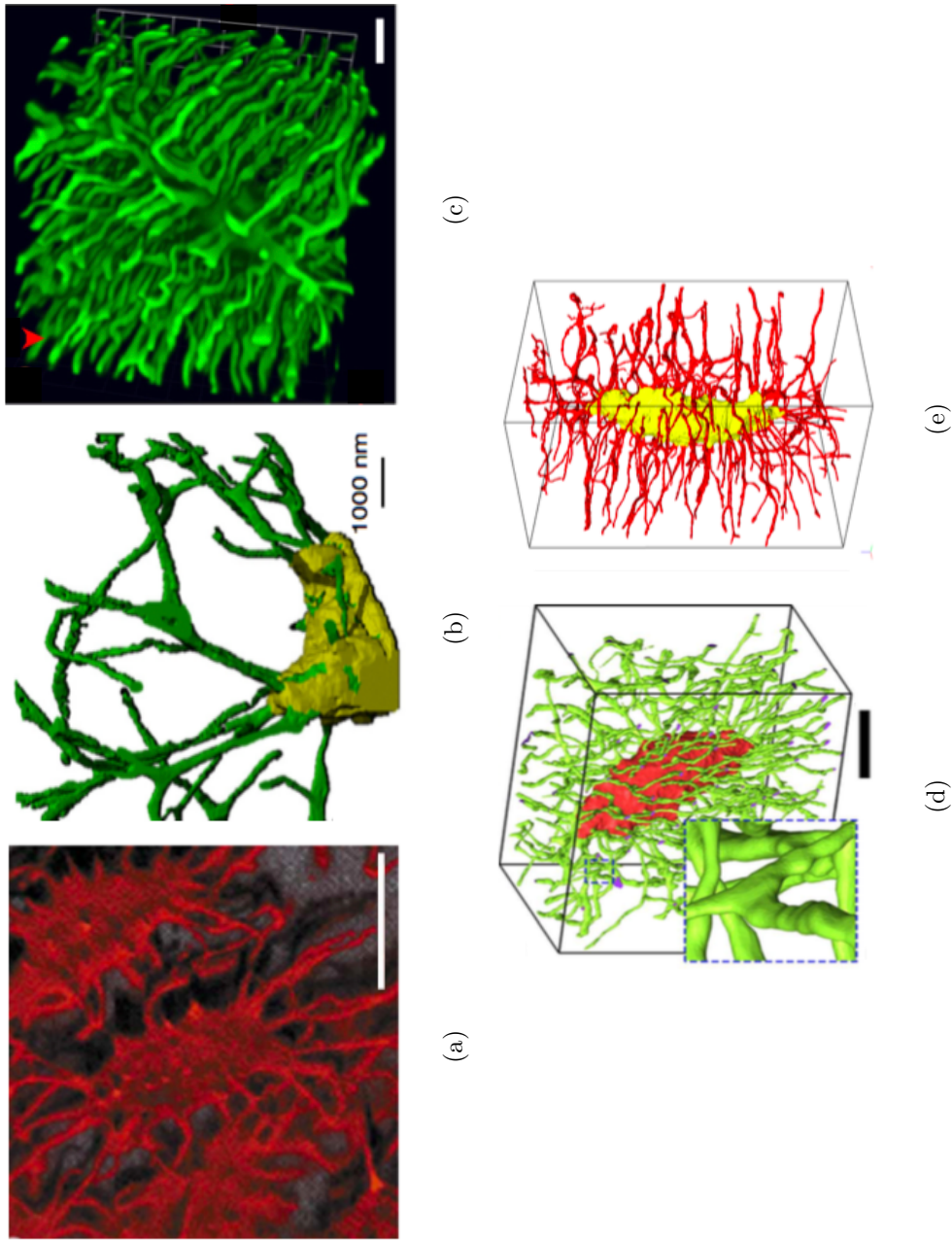


Fig. 2.5. (a) Using IMARIS software, reconstructed osteocytes from a 16-day-old chick calvariae, imaged using CLSM; scale bar= $10\mu m$ [38]. (b) Three-dimensional reconstruction of FIB-SEM images from the mid-diaphysis of a 12-week-old murine femur. Both ImageJ and IPL software were utilized for reconstruction and to obtain LCS morphological parameters. The lacuna is shown in yellow, and its canaliculi are in green [35]. (c) Volocity software was utilized to reconstruct lacunae and canaliculi from the tibial cortex of 26-week-old female rat; scale bar= $5\mu m$ [37].(d) Using Matlab, human mandible sections were reconstructed from images obtained with SR-PNT. Lacuna is shown in orange, and its connecting canaliculi are in green; scale bar= $10\mu m$ [44].(e) Human femoral cortical bone samples reconstructed using a custom-developed connectivity enhancement algorithm. Lacuna is shown in yellow, and the canaliculi are in red [5].

2.3 Mechanosensing and Predictive Models

Bone has been shown to sense and respond to mechanical loading through modeling and remodeling of both the trabecular and cortical surfaces. Therefore, it has the ability to alter its external shape and internal structure in order to sustain the macroscopic loading placed upon it. This concept that bone can adapt in response to mechanical stress was first suggested by Dr. Julius Wolff in the 1860s. Termed "Wolff's Law," it states that the process of bone remodeling follows mathematical laws in response to changes in shape or stress on bone [4] [45]. Since then, the processes by which bones can sense and adapt to external stimuli have been investigated.

In 1977, Piekarski and Munro proposed that fluid flow within the LCS of bone is critical for nutrient delivery, waste removal, and mechanotransduction, which has since become widely accepted [46] [47]. It has been shown that not only does mechanical loading induce fluid convection in bone [46], but also that oscillatory fluid flow due to intramedullary pressure in the absence of mechanical deformation is strongly correlated with bone formation [48]. Because of this, osteocytes are considered to be the mechanosensors in bone as they form an interconnected network throughout the tissue, able to sense and signal to other areas [4]. In addition, osteocytes are surrounded by interstitial fluid flow within the LCS; the irregular nano-porosity of the LCS allows for fluid stress concentrations around the cell processes, which could potentially be a means of mechanotransduction [5] [6] [7].

However, the exact mechanism(s) by which osteocytes sense the mechanical stimuli is still under debate. As shown in Figure 2.6, recent reviews in the field of bone mechanotransduction point out that a definite method has yet to be proven, given the difficulty of performing and measuring in vivo experimental studies within the mineralized bone matrix [1] [2] [3]. A number of theories have arisen over the years to explain the modeling and remodeling behavior of bone in response to external loading. Direct cell strain due to deformation of the bone matrix [8] [9], piezoelectricity due to the direct piezoelectric effect [2] [49] [50] [51], hydrostatic pressure [2] [8] [9], streaming

potentials [3] [8] [52], fluid shear stress [2] [3] [8] [9] [10], drag forces and hoop strains due to an interstitial glyocalyx [9] [11] [12] [13] [14], and chemotransport [2] have all been theorized to transmit external mechanical loadings, therefore regulating bone modeling and remodeling. The interconnectedness of the macroscale loading to each of these mechanisms is outlined in Figure 2.7. Macroscopic loading on the bone causes torsion, bending, and/or compression, resulting in localized areas of bone matrix deformation. Known as the direct piezoelectric effect, collagen and apatite molecules rearrange due to this deformation, which can lead to charged surfaces within the LCS and potentially influence cellular activity [2] [49] [50] [51]. In addition, the localized deformation can cause direct strain on the osteocytes themselves [8] [9]. Hydrostatic pressure can also develop within the LCS due to the impermeability of the bone matrix [2] [8] [9], which can result in interstitial fluid flow. Streaming potentials [3] [8] [52] and chemotransport [2] can occur due to the movement of charged particles within the flow. Fluid shear stress can develop on the osteocyte cell process as a result of this fluid flow [2] [3] [8] [9] [10]. Last, amplified hoop strains and drag forces on the osteocyte's internal cytoskeleton have been theorized due to the presence of a glyocalyx (composed of proteoglycans, glycoproteins, and hyaluronic acid) and transmembrane integrin connections [9] [11] [12] [13] [14].

The piezoelectricity of bone as a possible mechanotransductive means has diminished over the years in favor of direct strain and fluid-related mechanisms, such as shear stress and streaming potentials [51]. By recording whole-bone strain histories from a variety of species, it has been shown that peak bone strains due to activities of daily living result in strains around $2000 \mu\epsilon$ [53] [54] [55]. However, Smalt et al. measured the release of nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandin (PG) of mechanically stimulated *in vitro* cells, which are early *in vivo* responses to mechanical stimulation. A stimulus of $5000 \mu\epsilon$, though, did not elicit an increased response of either NO or PGE(2), even though Fritton et al. reported much lower *in vivo* strains. Thus, this led to a paradox that the tissue and cellular levels of deformation are not equivalent. Recently, a poromicromechanic model was developed, revealing that tissue level phys-

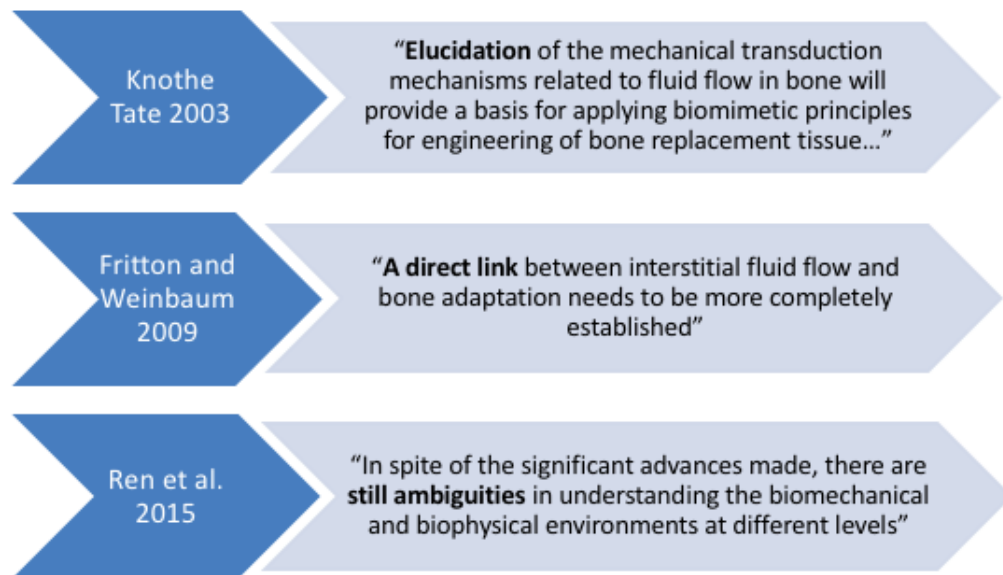


Fig. 2.6. Recent reviews on osteocyte cell mechanobiology and bone mechanotransduction. Each publication states that the exact mechanisms behind bone's remodeling capabilities have yet to be fully understood [1] [2] [3].

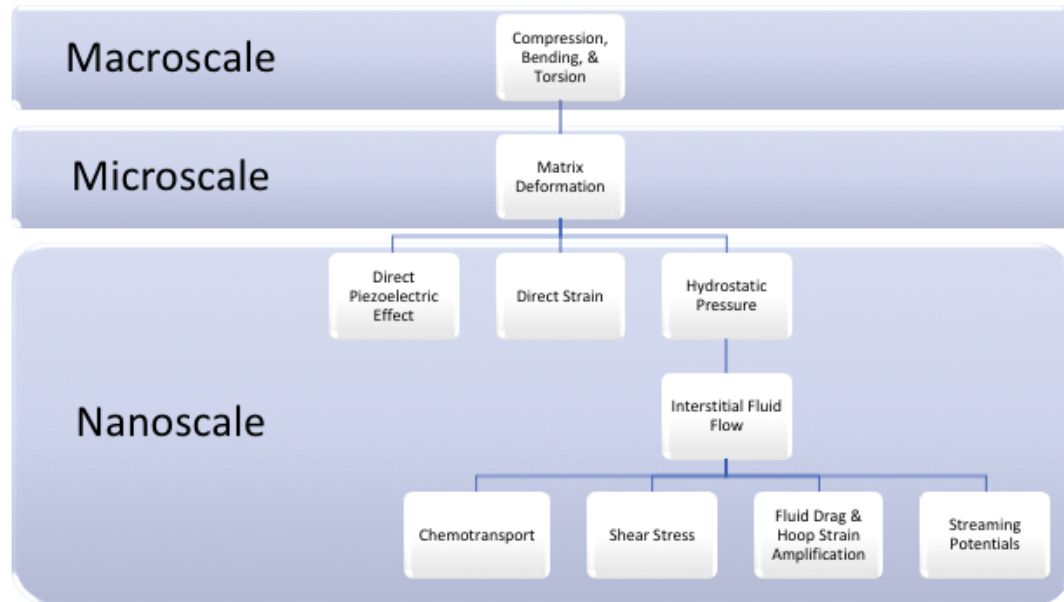


Fig. 2.7. Connection of macroscopic loading to the theories of bone mechanotransduction. Compression, bending, and torsion of the whole bone at the macroscopic level leads to bone matrix deformation in localized areas. Due to this deformation, collagen and apatite molecular rearrangement can lead to charged surfaces known as the direct piezoelectric effect [2] [49] [50] [51] in addition to direct strain placed on the osteocytes themselves [8] [9]. In addition, hydrostatic pressure develops within the LCS due to the impermeable bone matrix, resulting in interstitial fluid flow [2] [8] [9]. Such fluid flow can induce shear stress on the osteocyte cell process [2] [3] [8] [9] [10], amplified hoop strains and drag forces due to transmembrane integrin connections with the internal cytoskeleton and the external glycocalyx [9] [11] [12] [13] [14], and streaming potentials [3] [8] [52] and chemotransport due to the movement of charged nutrients [2].

iological bone strains can induce osteocyte-stimulating lacunar pressure [56]. Thus, the interstitial fluid flow due to this hydrostatic pressure and its potential effects have been more thoroughly studied, with the main focus on fluid-induced shear stress and fluid drag and hoop strain amplification due to integrin-mediated cytoskeletal and glycocalyx interactions.

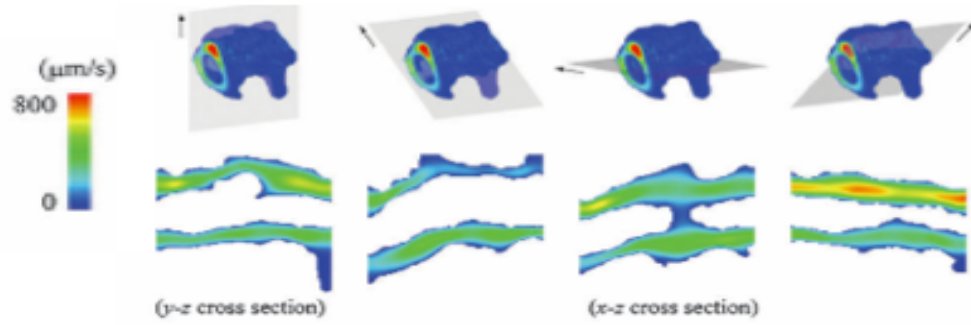
As direct *in vivo* measurements of shear stress and drag forces on the osteocyte cell processes are currently not possible, numerous mathematical and computational models have been developed to predict these measures. In order to model bone at the microscopic and nanoscopic scales, the theory of poroelasticity is commonly implemented, where the interaction of fluid-flow within a fluid-saturated porous medium due to deformation of the solid is studied [25]. Three main approaches have been developed in order to implement poroelastic models: 1) effective medium approach, 2) mixture theory approach, and 3) homogenization. While at the continuum point all of the approaches result in the same set of equations, the three approaches differ in the way that they average the system, taking into consideration all of the different constituents. In general, the effective medium approach is useful in determining solid component parameters, mixture theory allows for the averaging over different fluid phases, and homogenization provides wave propagation parameters. While effective medium approach has been more commonly utilized, mixture theory is beginning to be implemented as it can effectively model multiphase tissues [57] [58].

To implement the fundamental equations for poroelastic theory, a representative volume element (RVE) is developed, which is a continuum element containing all of the constituents in the model (i.e. fluid(s) and solid). A variety of RVEs for bone are used within the literature - either a full osteon, multiple lacunae and their canaliculi, a single lacunae and its canaliculi, or just a single canaliculus - which are then analytically or computationally modeled. In addition, the geometry is either idealized with the lacunae being approximated as an ellipsoid and the canaliculi as long tubes or three-dimensional reconstructions of the actual geometry are utilized with computational software. Last, depending on the assumptions made, the outputs

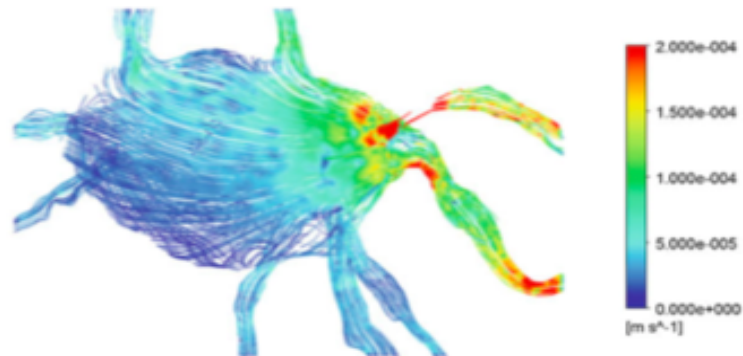
from each model differ, being either fluid shear stress, fluid strain, fluid velocity, pore pressure, or a combination of these measures.

In regards to mathematical models, You et al. proposed a poroelastic model to model strain within an idealized canaliculus with the assumption of tethering units in the interstitial space, which was updated in 2008 by Wang et al. [11] [15]. While popular, other poroelastic models have also been developed of idealized osteons and lacunae to model fluid shear stress, fluid velocity, and pore pressure [16] [59]. In addition, computational models have become widely popular. While idealized models have been utilized using these softwares [7] [17] [60], the ability to import anatomically-correct RVEs of the LCS has become extremely useful. In 2012, Kamioka et al. utilized ultra high voltage electron microscopy (UHVEM) and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) to model fluid velocities within human canaliculi [6]. Verbruggen et al. also implemented CFD to determine fluid velocity, shear stress, and strain within reconstructed CLSM lacunae and canaliculi [19]. Figure 2.8 shows results from both of these CFD simulations.

While these predictive models provide promising results, the majority of them are only valid under the assumption that a glycocalyx, and potentially tethering elements, within the interstitial space are present [5] [8] [9] [10] [11] [15] [16] [17] [18]. Studies utilizing tracers, such as microperoxidase, horseradish peroxidase, reactive red, and ferritin, have been used to indirectly determine the pore size or porosity of the glycocalyx [61]. In addition, protrusions from the canalicular wall have been observed, suggesting that the osteocyte cell process may connect to those points; however, direct attachments to these "hillocks" have yet to be shown [6] [15] [62]. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) has also been used in order to identify tethering elements between the osteocyte process and the canalicular wall [36] [63]. However, the three-dimensional reconstruction of canalicular UHVEM images led Kamioka et al. to conclude that TEM produces images that provide a false connection between the canaliculus and the osteocyte cell process [6]. Using immunohistochemistry, McNamara et al. identified the presence of β_3 integrins along the length of the osteocyte cell



(a)



(b)

Fig. 2.8. Computational models of fluid flow within the LCS. (a) Utilizing three-dimensional canalicular UHVEM reconstructions, Kamioka et al. created CFD models to determine fluid velocities within human canaliculi [6]. (b) Verbruggen et al. used reconstructed CLSM models and CFD to quantify fluid velocity within lacunae and their surrounding canaliculi [19].

processes, possible attachment sites to a glycocalyx [62]. These integrins have shown to aid in mechanotransduction in in vitro osteocytes [64], but have yet to show any significant contribution to transmitting mechanical signals in vivo [9]. In addition, CD44, a transmembrane protein whose extracellular component has been shown to connect to hyaluronic acid (HA), has been identified on osteocyte cell processes [65].

While the presence of a glycocalyx provides a rationale for the strain paradox [36] [11] [13] [63], the actual structure of it has yet to be fully and directly identified or characterized. The parameters used for the glycocalyx and tethering elements within each of these models could greatly affect the predicted fluid shear stresses and drag forces, and thus confound which, if either, is the main mechanism of osteocyte mechanotransduction.

3. MATHEMATICAL MODEL

3.1 Motivation

The majority of poroelastic mathematical and computational models use the assumption that a glycocalyx exists within the interstitial space between osteocytes and the LCS [5] [8] [9] [10] [11] [15] [16] [17] [18]. However, the glycocalyx has yet to be fully identified or characterized due to limitations in imaging and the embedded nature of the LCS. Thus, the purpose of this chapter was to generate a poroelastic model of the LCS using mixture theory, as it allows for expansion into multiphase fluids, and determine the relative importance of the glycocalyx and its structural parameters on velocity and shear stress outputs.

3.2 Theory

In order to model the behavior of interstitial fluid within cortical bone, a continuum mixture theory model was developed. Figure 3.1 illustrates the deformation that a mixture, represented as B , undergoes from the reference configuration to the current configuration. The location of a constituent in one configuration can be directly mapped to the other configuration, shown as $\chi^\alpha(\underline{x}^\alpha, t)$, where α represents any constituent found within the mixture.

Each constituent is considered an individual continuum. The volume fraction for a mixture of n constituents is defined as follows,

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^n \Phi^\alpha = 1 \quad (3.1)$$

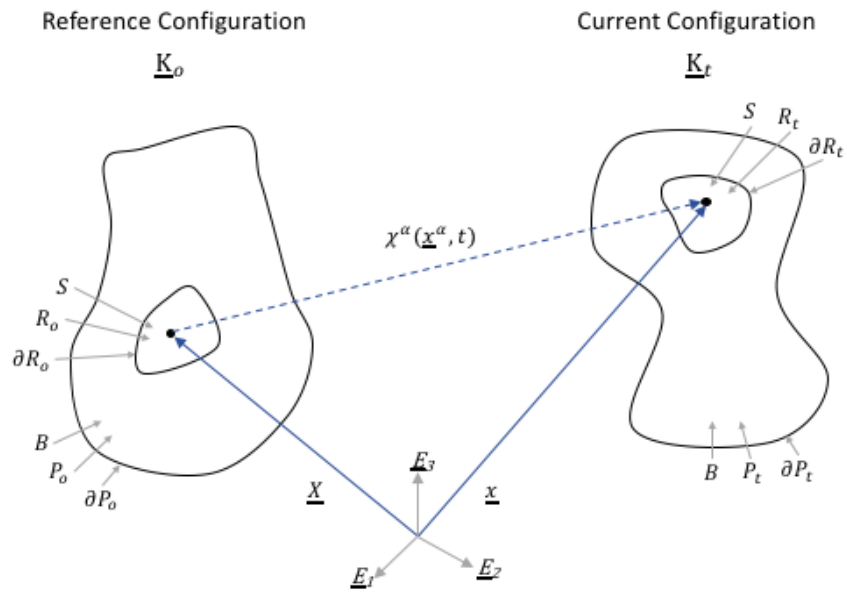


Fig. 3.1. Deformation of body B from the reference configuration to the current configuration. A point within the reference configuration can be directly mapped to the current configuration using χ^α .

3.2.1 Balance of Mass

In the current configuration and within body B that defines the whole mixture, region P_t is defined such that this mixture. The total mass within P_t for constituent α is

$$M^\alpha = \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha dv + \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv \quad (3.2)$$

where ρ^α is the apparent density and c^α is the interconversion of mass of constituent α . The apparent density of constituent α is defined as

$$\rho^\alpha = \rho_T^\alpha \phi^\alpha \quad (3.3)$$

where ρ_T^α is the true density of constituent α and ϕ^α is its respective volume fraction. The interconversion of mass within region P_t must follow

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^n c^\alpha = 0 \quad (3.4)$$

While the location of P_t can change with time, the mass of the region remains constant,

$$\frac{D^\alpha M^\alpha}{Dt} = \frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha dv + \frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv = 0 \quad (3.5)$$

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha dv = \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv \quad (3.6)$$

To map the left side of Equation (3.6) back to the reference configuration, the relationship $dv = JdV$ is needed, where J is the determinant of the deformation matrix. Thus, mapping back to the reference configuration results in,

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_o} \rho^\alpha J^\alpha dV = \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv \quad (3.7)$$

Taking the derivative of the left side of Equation (3.7),

$$\int_{P_o} \left(\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} J^\alpha + \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha J^\alpha}{Dt} \right) dV = \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv \quad (3.8)$$

$$\int_{P_o} \left(\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} + \rho^\alpha \text{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) \right) J^\alpha dV = \int_{P_t} c^\alpha dv \quad (3.9)$$

Mapping region P_o to the current configuration leads to,

$$\int_{P_t} \left(\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) - c^\alpha \right) dv = 0 \quad (3.10)$$

Since the integral in Equation (3.10) is equal to zero, this implies that the integrand is also zero. This results in the final form of the balance of mass for constituent α :

$$\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) = c^\alpha \quad (3.11)$$

3.2.2 Balance of Linear Momentum

As in the balance of mass in Section 3.2.1, region P_t is defined such that it contains all constituents of the mixture in the current configuration. The balance of linear momentum can be expressed as

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha dv = \int_{\partial P_t} \underline{t}^\alpha da + \int_{P_t} (\rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha + c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha + \underline{\pi}^\alpha) dv \quad (3.12)$$

where \underline{v}^α is the velocity of constituent α , \underline{t}^α is the traction vector acting on the surface ∂P_t of region P_t , $\rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha$ represents the body force(s) acting on P_t , and $\underline{\pi}^\alpha$ is the interaction force of constituent α with surrounding constituents.

Mapping region P_t back to the reference configuration on the left side of Equation (3.12) produces the following:

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha dv = \frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_o} \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha dV \quad (3.13)$$

$$= \int_{P_o} \left(\dot{\rho}^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha + \rho^\alpha \dot{\underline{v}}^\alpha J^\alpha + \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) \right) dV \quad (3.14)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \left(\rho^\alpha \dot{\underline{v}}^\alpha + \underline{v}^\alpha \left(\dot{\rho}^\alpha + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) \right) \right) dv \quad (3.15)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha \dot{\underline{v}}^\alpha dv \quad (3.16)$$

where $\dot{\rho}^\alpha + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) = 0$ due to the balance of mass.

Using the divergence theorem, the traction vector in Equation (3.12) can be expressed as the stress tensor of constituent α ,

$$\int_{\partial P_t} \underline{t}^\alpha da = \int_{\partial P_t} (\underline{T}^\alpha \cdot \underline{n}) da \quad (3.17)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \text{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) dv \quad (3.18)$$

The balance equation can then be written as

$$\int_{P_t} \rho^\alpha \underline{\dot{v}}^\alpha dv = \int_{P_t} \left(\text{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) + \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha + c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha + \underline{\pi}^\alpha \right) dv \quad (3.19)$$

As with the balance of mass, the balance of linear momentum must also equate to zero. This, again, implies that the integrands within the integrals must also be equal to zero. Also, the assumption will be made that the interconversion term is also zero, as none of the constituents are being converted to one another. Thus, the final form of the balance of linear momentum is as follows,

$$\rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} = \text{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) + \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha + \underline{\pi}^\alpha \quad (3.20)$$

3.2.3 Balance of Angular Momentum

The initial form of the balance of angular momentum for constituent α can be expressed as

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} (\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) dv = \int_{\partial P_t} (\underline{x} \times \underline{t}^\alpha) da + \int_{P_t} \left((\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha) + (\underline{x} \times \underline{\pi}^\alpha) + (\underline{x} \times c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) + \underline{M}^\alpha \right) dv \quad (3.21)$$

Mapping the left side of Equation (3.21) back to the reference configuration results in

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} (\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) dv &= \frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_o} (\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) J^\alpha dV \\ &= \int_{P_o} \left((\underline{v}^\alpha \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha) + \left(\underline{x} \times \frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha \right) + \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} J^\alpha \right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha \text{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) \right) \right) dV \end{aligned} \quad (3.22)$$

The term $\underline{v}^\alpha \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha$ is equal to zero as it is the velocity vector, \underline{v}^α , crossed with itself. Without this term and rearranging Equation (3.22), the left side of Equation (3.21) becomes

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} (\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) dv = \int_{P_o} \left[\left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} J^\alpha \right) + \left(\underline{x} \times \left(\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) \right) \underline{v}^\alpha J^\alpha \right) \right] dV \quad (3.23)$$

Because the term $\frac{D^\alpha \rho^\alpha}{Dt} + \rho^\alpha \operatorname{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha)$ is the balance of mass and thus equal to zero, the result can be further simplified to

$$\frac{D^\alpha}{Dt} \int_{P_t} (\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha) dv = \int_{P_o} \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} J^\alpha \right) dV \quad (3.24)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} \right) dv \quad (3.25)$$

Next, the traction vector on the surface ∂P_t in Equation (3.21) can be rewritten in component form as follows,

$$\int_{\partial P_t} (\underline{x} \times \underline{t}^\alpha) da = \int_{\partial P_t} (\underline{x} \times \underline{T}^\alpha \underline{n}) da \quad (3.26)$$

$$= \int_{\partial P_t} \varepsilon_{ijk} x_i (T_{jb}^\alpha) \underline{E}_k \quad (3.27)$$

where ε_{ijk} is the alternating tensor.

The divergence theorem is now used to express the traction vector on the surface ∂P_t as the stress tensor of constituent α within region P_t

$$\int_{\partial P_t} (\underline{x} \times \underline{t}^\alpha) da = \int_{P_t} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_b} \left(\varepsilon_{ijk} x_i T_{jb}^\alpha \underline{E}_k \right) dv \quad (3.28)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \varepsilon_{ijk} \left(\frac{\partial x_i}{\partial x_b} T_{jb}^\alpha + x_i \frac{\partial T_{jb}^\alpha}{\partial x_b} \right) \underline{E}_k dv \quad (3.29)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \varepsilon_{ijk} \left(T_{ji}^\alpha + x_i \frac{\partial T_{jb}^\alpha}{\partial x_b} \right) \underline{E}_k dv \quad (3.30)$$

$$= \int_{P_t} \left(\varepsilon_{ijk} T_{ji}^\alpha \underline{E}_k + \varepsilon_{ijk} x_i \frac{\partial T_{jb}^\alpha}{\partial x_b} \underline{E}_k \right) dv \quad (3.31)$$

Equation (3.21) can now be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{P_t} \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} \right) dv = \int_{P_t} \left(\left((\underline{T}^\alpha)^T - \underline{T}^\alpha \right) + \left(\underline{x} \times \operatorname{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) \right) \right. \\ \left. + \left(\underline{x} \times \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha \right) + \left(\underline{x} \times \underline{\pi}^\alpha \right) + \left(\underline{x} \times c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha \right) + \underline{M}^\alpha \right) dv \quad (3.32) \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging Equation (3.32) produces

$$\int_{P_t} \left(\underline{x} \times \left(\rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} - \text{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) - \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha - \underline{\pi}^\alpha - c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha \right) \right) dv = \int_{P_t} \left((\underline{T}^\alpha)^T - \underline{T}^\alpha + \underline{M}^\alpha \right) dv \quad (3.33)$$

From the balance of linear momentum in Section 3.2.2, it has been shown that

$$\rho^\alpha \frac{D^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha}{Dt} - \text{div}(\underline{T}^\alpha) - \rho^\alpha \underline{b}^\alpha - \underline{\pi}^\alpha - c^\alpha \underline{v}^\alpha = \underline{0} \quad (3.34)$$

Therefore, Equation (3.33) can be reduced to

$$\underline{0} = \int_{P_t} \left((\underline{T}^\alpha)^T - \underline{T}^\alpha + \underline{M}^\alpha \right) dv \quad (3.35)$$

Since the integrand in Equation (3.35) is equal to zero, the final form of the balance of angular momentum is, thus,

$$\underline{T}^\alpha - (\underline{T}^\alpha)^T = \underline{M}^\alpha \quad (3.36)$$

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Model Scales

In order to employ the balance laws presented in Section 3.2, different length scales were defined, as shown in Figure 3.2. These scales - nanoscale, mesoscale, and macroscale - were used to create representative volume elements (RVE) in which interstitial fluid flow could be analyzed.

3.3.2 Pressure-Driven Flow

Representative Volume Element

In which to model interstitial fluid flow due solely to pressure, Figure 3.3 shows the representative volume, defined as B , of the system. This RVE consists of a single, idealized canaliculus. The balance laws derived in Section 3.2 were then applied to this RVE.

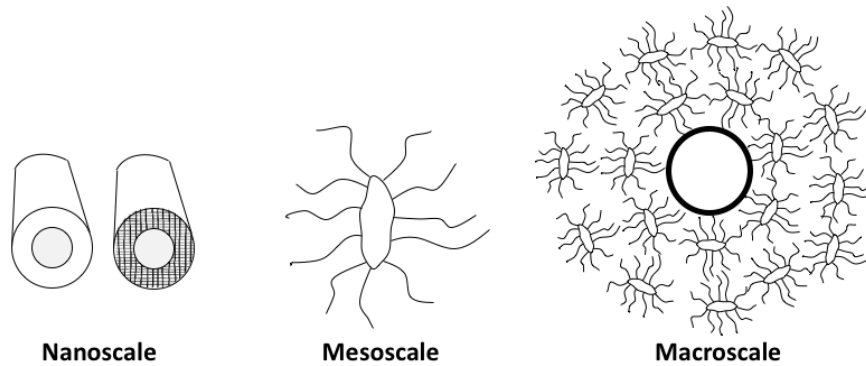


Fig. 3.2. The length scales defined for mathematical modeling. The nanoscale consists of a single, idealized canaliculus with (left) and without (right) a glycocalyx within the interstitial space between the cell process and canalicular wall. At the mesoscale, a single lacuna is present with its branching canaliculi. The macroscale consists of a single Haversian canal with its surrounding LCS.

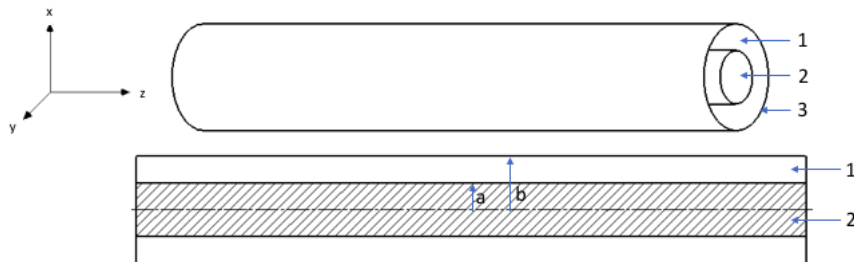


Fig. 3.3. Example of the representative body B containing the mixture: Idealized 3D-representation (top) of a canaliculus, which houses the osteocyte process, surrounded by cortical bone. A cross-section of the volume (bottom) is shown. The numbers indicate the following: (1) interstitial space, (2) osteocyte process, and (3) canalicular wall. The letters indicate: (a) osteocyte cell process radius and (b) canaliculus radius.

Nondimensionalization of Balance of Linear Momentum

The balance of linear momentum, Equation (3.20), was nondimensionalized for each constituent within the mixture in order to make it independent of the physical system and allow for influential terms to be identified.

To apply Equation (3.20) to each constituent, a constitutive equation is utilized to describe the interaction term $\underline{\pi}^\alpha$. Since this term describes internal forces, then the following condition must be met,

$$\sum_{\alpha=1}^n \underline{\pi}^\alpha = \underline{0} \quad (3.37)$$

The balance of linear momentum can then be rewritten for each constituent as,

$$\rho^s \frac{D^s \underline{v}^s}{Dt} = \text{div}(\underline{T}^s) + \rho^s \underline{b}^s + \mu \underline{k}^{-1}(\underline{v}^f - \underline{v}^s) \quad (3.38)$$

$$\rho^f \frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt} = \text{div}(\underline{T}^f) + \rho^f \underline{b}^f + \mu \underline{k}^{-1}(\underline{v}^s - \underline{v}^f) \quad (3.39)$$

where s and f indicate the solid and fluid constituents, respectively, μ is the viscosity of the fluid, and \underline{k} is the permeability tensor of the RVE. \underline{T}^s and \underline{T}^f are represented by constitutive equations to describe the stress field for each constituent,

$$\underline{T}^s = -\phi^s p \underline{I} + \phi^s [\beta_o \underline{I} + \beta_1 \underline{B}^s + \beta_2 (\underline{B}^s)^2] \quad (3.40)$$

$$\underline{T}^f = -\phi^f p \underline{I} + 2\phi^f \mu \underline{D}^f \quad (3.41)$$

where p is the pressure shared by both constituents, \underline{I} is the identity tensor, β_o is a coefficient representing the compressibility of the solid, \underline{B}^s is the left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor, $\beta_1 \underline{B}^s + \beta_2 (\underline{B}^s)^2$ represents the nonlinearity of the stress-strain relationship of the solid, and \underline{D}^f is the time rate of change of the fluid deformation tensor. Equation 3.40 assumes the solid is a hyperelastic material while equation 3.41 assumes that the interstitial fluid is a Newtonian incompressible fluid.

Thus, Equations 3.38 and 3.39 can be rewritten as follows,

$$\rho^s \frac{D^s \underline{v}^s}{Dt} = \text{div} \left(-\phi^s p \underline{I} + \phi^s [\beta_o \underline{I} + \beta_1 \underline{B}^s + \beta_2 (\underline{B}^s)^2] \right) + \rho^s \underline{b}^s + \mu \underline{k}^{-1}(\underline{v}^f - \underline{v}^s) \quad (3.42)$$

$$\rho^f \frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt} = \text{div}(-\phi^f p \underline{I} + 2\phi^f \mu \underline{D}^f) + \rho^f \underline{b}^f + \mu \underline{k}^{-1} (\underline{v}^s - \underline{v}^f) \quad (3.43)$$

In order to nondimensionalize Equations 3.42 and 3.43, three fundamental terms were chosen: mass, length, and time. Table 3.1 shows the RVE variables chosen to represent each fundamental term, where ρ_T^f is the true density of the fluid, v_o is the magnitude of the initial velocity of the fluid, and $\sqrt{k_o}$ is the square root of the magnitude of the permeability tensor \underline{k} .

Table 3.1.

Variables, for each fundamental term, utilized to nondimensionalize the fluid and solid balances of linear momentum.

Fundamental Term	Variable
Mass	$\rho_T^f k_o^{\frac{3}{2}}$
Length	$\sqrt{k_o}$
Time	$\frac{\sqrt{k_o}}{v_o}$

Each variable in Equations 3.42 and 3.43 can be expressed as a function of its dimensionless form (presented as the respective variable with an overbar) and the variables needed to nondimensionalize it. Table 3.2 shows the results of this nondimensionalization.

The solid equation (Equation 3.42) can be nondimensionalized using the forms in Table 3.2,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\overline{\rho}^s \frac{D^s \underline{v}^s}{Dt} \right) = & -\frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\overline{\nabla}(\phi^s \overline{p}) \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k_o}} \overline{div} \left(\phi^s [\beta_o \underline{I} + \beta_1 \underline{B}^s + \beta_2 (\underline{B}^s)^2] \right) \\ & + \frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\overline{\rho}^s \overline{\underline{b}}^s \right) + \frac{\mu v_o \overline{k}^{-1}}{k_o} \left(\overline{\underline{v}}^f - \overline{\underline{v}}^s \right) \quad (3.44) \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{div}(-\phi^s p \underline{I}) = -\overline{\nabla}(\phi^s \overline{p})$.

Table 3.2.

Balance of linear momentum terms and corresponding nondimensionalized forms using the fundamental variables.

Balance of Linear Momentum Term	Nondimensionalized Form
ρ^α	$\rho_T^f \bar{\rho}^\alpha$
\underline{v}^α	$v_o \bar{v}^\alpha$
p	$\rho_T^f v_o^2 \bar{p}$
\underline{D}^f	$\frac{v_o}{\sqrt{k_o}} \bar{D}^f$
$\frac{\partial}{\partial \underline{x}}$	$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k_o}}\right) \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{x}}$
$\frac{D^\alpha v^\alpha}{Dt}$	$\left(\frac{v_o^2}{\sqrt{k_o}}\right) \frac{D^\alpha v^\alpha}{Dt}$
\underline{k}	$k_o \bar{k}$

Multiplying Equation 3.44 through by $\frac{k_o}{\mu v_o}$ results in,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\bar{\rho}^s \frac{D^s \underline{v}^s}{Dt} \right) &= -\frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\bar{\nabla}(\phi^s \bar{p}) \right) + \\ &\bar{div} \left(\phi^s \left[\frac{\beta \alpha \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} \underline{I} + \frac{\beta \mathbf{I} \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} \underline{B}^s + \frac{\beta \mathbf{2} \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} (\underline{B}^s)^2 \right] \right) + \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\bar{\rho}^s \bar{b}^s \right) + \bar{k}^{-1} (\bar{v}^f - \bar{v}^s) \end{aligned} \quad (3.45)$$

Substituting in $N = \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu}$ results in the following nondimensionalized balance of linear momentum for the solid constituent,

$$\begin{aligned} N \left(\bar{\rho}^s \frac{D^s \underline{v}^s}{Dt} \right) &= -N \left(\bar{\nabla}(\phi^s \bar{p}) \right) + \bar{div} \left(\phi^s \left[\frac{\beta \alpha \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} \underline{I} + \frac{\beta \mathbf{I} \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} \underline{B}^s + \frac{\beta \mathbf{2} \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu v_o} (\underline{B}^s)^2 \right] \right) \\ &+ N \left(\bar{\rho}^s \bar{b}^s \right) + \bar{k}^{-1} (\bar{v}^f - \bar{v}^s) \end{aligned} \quad (3.46)$$

Likewise, the fluid equation (Equation 3.43) can be nondimensionalized using the nondimensionalized form of the terms in Table 3.2,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\bar{\rho}^f \frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt} \right) &= -\frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\bar{\nabla}(\phi^f \bar{p}) \right) + \frac{2 \mu v_o}{k_o} \bar{div} \left(\phi^f \bar{D}^f \right) \\ &+ \frac{v_o^2 \rho_T^f}{\sqrt{k_o}} \left(\bar{\rho}^f \bar{b}^f \right) + \frac{\mu v_o \bar{k}^{-1}}{k_o} \left(\bar{v}^s - \bar{v}^f \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.47)$$

where, again, $\overline{div}(-\phi^f p \underline{I}) = -\overline{\nabla}(\phi^f \overline{p})$.

Multiplying Equation 3.47 through by $\frac{k_o}{\mu v_o}$ results in,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\overline{\rho^f} \frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt} \right) &= -\frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\overline{\nabla}(\phi^f \overline{p}) \right) + 2\overline{div}(\phi^f \overline{D}^f) \\ &\quad + \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu} \left(\overline{\rho^f} \overline{\underline{b}}^f \right) + \overline{k}^{-1} \left(\overline{v}^s - \overline{v}^f \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.48)$$

Substituting in $N = \frac{v_o \rho_T^f \sqrt{k_o}}{\mu}$ results in the following nondimensionalized balance of linear momentum for the fluid constituent,

$$N \left(\overline{\rho^f} \frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt} \right) = -N \left(\overline{\nabla}(\phi^f \overline{p}) \right) + 2\overline{div}(\phi^f \overline{D}^f) + N \left(\overline{\rho^f} \overline{\underline{b}}^f \right) + \overline{k}^{-1} \left(\overline{v}^s - \overline{v}^f \right) \quad (3.49)$$

Velocity Profile within the RVE: Glycocalyx Assumed

Pressure-driven interstitial fluid flow with no mechanical stimulus, such as in a bioreactor, flows down the length of the canaliculus in the RVE. The solid constituent, which consists of the osteocyte cell process, is not physically moving. The term v^s and its derivatives in Equation 3.46 are therefore equal to zero. In addition, physical deformation of the solid is not occurring; thus, the portion of the stress tensor that represents solid deformation, $\phi^s[\beta_o \underline{I} + \beta_1 \underline{B}^s + \beta_2 (\underline{B}^s)^2]$, is also zero. The body force terms in Equations 3.46 and 3.49, $\overline{\rho^s} \overline{\underline{b}}^s$ and $\overline{\rho^f} \overline{\underline{b}}^f$, respectively, were assumed to be negligible. An assumption was also made that the flow is steady, i.e. no fluid acceleration. Thus, $\frac{D^f \underline{v}^f}{Dt}$ in Equation 3.49 is neglected. The nondimensionalized forms of the fluid and solid constituents are then,

$$\underline{0} = -N \left(\overline{\nabla}(\phi^s \overline{p}) \right) + \overline{k}^{-1} \overline{v}^f \quad (3.50)$$

$$\underline{0} = -N \left(\overline{\nabla}(\phi^f \overline{p}) \right) + 2\overline{div}(\phi^f \overline{D}^f) - \overline{k}^{-1} \overline{v}^f \quad (3.51)$$

To obtain the velocity profile within the RVE, the fluid balance of linear momentum (Equation 3.51) was utilized. Using the definition of the rate of deformation

tensor $\overline{D}^f = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \overline{v}_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \overline{v}_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$, the balance of linear momentum was rewritten in index notation as follows,

$$0 = -N \frac{\partial \phi^f}{\partial \overline{x}_i} \overline{p} - N \phi^f \frac{\partial \overline{p}}{\partial x_i} + 2 \frac{\partial \phi^f}{\partial \overline{x}_j} \overline{D}_{ij}^f + \phi^f \frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{x}_j} \left(\frac{\partial \overline{v}_i^f}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \overline{v}_j^f}{\partial x_i} \right) - \overline{k}_{ij}^{-1} \overline{v}_i^f \quad (3.52)$$

The RVE is considered homogeneous; thus, $\frac{\partial \phi^f}{\partial \overline{x}_i}$ and $\frac{\partial \phi^f}{\partial \overline{x}_j}$ are equal to zero, resulting in

$$0 = -N \phi^f \frac{\partial \overline{p}}{\partial x_i} + \phi^f \frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{x}_j} \left(\frac{\partial \overline{v}_i^f}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \overline{v}_j^f}{\partial x_i} \right) - \overline{k}_{ij}^{-1} \overline{v}_i^f \quad (3.53)$$

The balance of mass in Section 3.2.1 resulted in Equation 3.11, which can be used to further simplify Equation 3.53. For this system of pressure-driven flow, no interconversion of mass is occurring, and the fluid is assumed to be incompressible. The balance of mass (Equation 3.11) is then reduced to,

$$\rho^\alpha \text{div}(\underline{v}^\alpha) = 0 \quad (3.54)$$

Thus, $\frac{\partial \overline{v}_i^f}{\partial x_i}$ is equal to zero. Using this, Equation 3.53 is further simplified,

$$0 = -N \phi^f \frac{\partial \overline{p}}{\partial \overline{x}_i} + \phi^f \left(\frac{\partial^2 \overline{v}_i^f}{\partial \overline{x}_j^2} \right) - \overline{k}_{ij}^{-1} \overline{v}_i^f \quad (3.55)$$

Equation 3.55, written in tensor notation,

$$\phi^f \overline{\nabla}^2 \overline{v}^f - \overline{k}^{-1} \overline{v}^f = N \phi^f \overline{\nabla} \overline{p} \quad (3.56)$$

is similar in form to the result that Weinbaum et al. developed [10]

This simplified balance of linear momentum was converted to a cylindrical coordinate system to correspond to the geometry of the RVE. In this case, the z-axis is along the longitudinal axis of the canalculus. Using the result in Equation 3.55, the second term can be expanded out in cylindrical coordinates as follows,

$$\phi^f \left(\frac{\partial^2 \overline{v}_i^f}{\partial x_j^2} \right) = \phi^f \left[\frac{1}{\overline{r}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \overline{r}} \left(\overline{r} \frac{\partial \overline{v}_z^f}{\partial \overline{r}} \right) + \frac{1}{\overline{r}^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \overline{v}_z^f}{\partial \theta^2} \right) + \frac{\partial^2 \overline{v}_z^f}{\partial z^2} \right] \quad (3.57)$$

$$= \frac{\phi^f}{\overline{r}} \frac{\partial \overline{v}_z^f}{\partial \overline{r}} + \phi^f \frac{\partial^2 \overline{v}_z^f}{\partial \overline{r}^2} \quad (3.58)$$

when assuming that the flow is steady and uniform.

Equation 3.56 can then be rewritten,

$$\phi^f \frac{\overline{\partial^2 v_z^f}}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\phi^f}{\bar{r}} \frac{\overline{\partial v_z^f}}{\partial r} - \bar{k}_{zr}^{-1} \bar{v}_z^f = N \phi^f \frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z} \quad (3.59)$$

The differential equation in Equation 3.59 has the form of a modified Bessel equation. In order to solve for the velocity profile, a few manipulations were first made to obtain a solvable form. Equation 3.59 was multiplied by $\frac{\bar{r}^2}{\phi^f}$,

$$\bar{r}^2 \frac{\overline{\partial^2 v_z^f}}{\partial r^2} + \bar{r} \frac{\overline{\partial v_z^f}}{\partial r} - \bar{r}^2 \bar{k}_v^{-1} \bar{v}_z^f = N \bar{r}^2 \frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z} \quad (3.60)$$

where $\bar{k}_v = \phi^f \bar{k}_{zr}$.

In addition, Equation 3.60 was put in terms of \hat{r} , which is set equal to $\frac{\gamma \bar{r}}{b}$. γ is $\frac{b}{\sqrt{k_v}}$, where b is the radius of the canaliculus.

Rewriting Equation 3.60 with this substitution leads to,

$$\frac{\bar{b}^2 \hat{r}^2}{\gamma^2} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial^2 v_z^f}}{\partial \hat{r}} \right) \frac{\gamma^2}{\bar{b}^2} + \frac{\bar{b} \hat{r}}{\gamma} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial v_z^f}}{\partial \hat{r}} \right) \frac{\gamma}{\bar{b}} - \frac{\bar{b}^2 \hat{r}^2}{\gamma^2} \bar{v}_z^f = \frac{N \bar{b}^2 \hat{r}^2}{\gamma^2} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.61)$$

Simplifying Equation 3.61 results in the needed form of a modified Bessel function,

$$\hat{r}^2 \frac{\overline{\partial^2 v_z^f}}{\partial \hat{r}^2} + \hat{r} \frac{\overline{\partial v_z^f}}{\partial \hat{r}} - \hat{r}^2 \bar{v}_z^f = \frac{N \bar{b}^2 \hat{r}^2}{\gamma^2} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.62)$$

The homogeneous solution to the differential equation in Equation 3.62 has the following form,

$$\bar{v}_z^f = A \bar{I}_o(\hat{r}) + C \bar{K}_o(\hat{r}) \quad (3.63)$$

$$= A \bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma \bar{r}}{b}\right) + C \bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma \bar{r}}{b}\right) \quad (3.64)$$

where A and C are constants of integration and \bar{I}_o and \bar{K}_o are modified Bessel functions of the zeroth order.

To find the solution to the nonhomogeneous equation, the particular solution was inserted into Equation 3.62. This particular solution is the following,

$$\bar{v}_p^f = D \hat{r}^2 + E \hat{r} + F \quad (3.65)$$

where D , E , and F are constants.

Differentiating and plugging in Equation 3.62 results in,

$$(2D)\hat{r}^2 + (2D\hat{r} + E)\hat{r} - (D\hat{r}^2 + E\hat{r} + F)\hat{r}^2 = \frac{N\bar{b}^2\hat{r}^2}{\gamma^2} \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.66)$$

From Equation 3.66, constants D and E are equal to 0, and constant F is $-N\bar{k}_v \frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$.

Thus, the particular solution to Equation 3.62 is,

$$\bar{v}_p^f = -N\bar{k}_v \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \quad (3.67)$$

The generalized solution to Equation 3.62 is the linear combination of the homogeneous and nonhomogeneous solutions,

$$\bar{v}_z^f = A\bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right) + C\bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right) - N\bar{k}_v \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \quad (3.68)$$

To solve for constants A and B, the boundary conditions must be applied. A no-slip boundary condition is assumed at both the osteocyte cell process (radius = a) and the wall of the canaliculus (radius = b). Thus, $\bar{v}_z^f = 0$ at $\bar{r} = \bar{a}$ and $\bar{r} = \bar{b}$. The finalized form for the velocity profile of pressure-driven interstitial fluid within a canaliculus is,

$$\bar{v}_z^f = N\bar{k}_v \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \left[\bar{A}_1 \bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right) + \bar{C}_1 \bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right) - 1 \right] \quad (3.69)$$

where

$$\bar{A}_1 = \frac{\bar{K}_o(\gamma) - \bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)}{\bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)\bar{K}_o(\gamma) - \bar{I}_o(\gamma)\bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)} \quad (3.70)$$

$$\bar{C}_1 = \frac{\bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right) - \bar{I}_o(\gamma)}{\bar{I}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)\bar{K}_o(\gamma) - \bar{I}_o(\gamma)\bar{K}_o\left(\frac{\gamma\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)} \quad (3.71)$$

Velocity Profile within the RVE: No Glycocalyx Assumed

When a glycocalyx is not assumed to exist, the flow through an annulus (with an internal cylinder) can be modeled using the Hagen-Poiseuille equation, assuming

incompressible, steady-state flow. The differential equation representing this flow is as follows,

$$-\frac{1}{\mu} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial v_z^f}{\partial r} \right) \quad (3.72)$$

As done previously for the balance of linear momentum, the three fundamental terms of mass, length, and time were used to nondimensionalize Equation 3.72. Table 3.3 shows the RVE variables chosen to represent each fundamental term, where ρ_T^f is the true density of the fluid, v_o is the magnitude of the initial velocity of the fluid, and a is the radius of the osteocyte cell process. Each variable in Equation 3.72 can be expressed as a function of its dimensionless form (presented as the respective variable with an overbar) and the variables used to nondimensionalize it. Table 3.4 shows the results of this nondimensionalization.

Table 3.3.

Variables, for each fundamental term, utilized to nondimensionalize the Hagen-Poiseuille type flow within the RVE when a glycocalyx is not assumed.

Fundamental Term	Variable
Mass	$\rho_T^f a^3$
Length	a
Time	$\frac{a}{v_o}$

Table 3.4.

Hagen-Poiseuille flow terms and their corresponding nondimensionalized forms using the fundamental quantity variables.

Hagen-Poiseuille Flow Term	Nondimensionalized Form
$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$	$\left(\frac{\rho_T^f v_o^2}{a}\right) \frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z}$
$\frac{\partial}{\partial r}$	$\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) \frac{\overline{\partial}}{\partial r}$
r	$a\bar{r}$
$\frac{\partial v_z^f}{\partial r}$	$\left(\frac{v_o}{a}\right) \frac{\overline{\partial v_z}}{\partial r}$

The nondimensionalized form of Equation 3.72 is thus the following,

$$-\frac{\rho_T^f v_o^2}{a\mu} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z}\right) = \frac{1}{a^2 \bar{r}} \frac{\overline{\partial}}{\partial r} \left(v_o \bar{r} \frac{\overline{\partial v_z^f}}{\partial r}\right) \quad (3.73)$$

Integrating Equation 3.73 results in the following velocity profile,

$$\overline{v_z^f} = -\frac{a\rho_T^f v_o \bar{r}^2}{4\mu} \frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z} + A \ln(\bar{r}) + B \quad (3.74)$$

where A and B are constants of integration.

Using the boundary conditions that $\overline{v_z^f} = 0$ when $\bar{r} = \bar{a}$ and $\bar{r} = \bar{b}$, the solution of the velocity profile within the RVE in the absence of a glycocalyx is

$$\overline{v_z^f} = -\frac{a\rho_T^f v_o \bar{b}^2}{4\mu} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z}\right) \left[\left(\frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right)^2 - \frac{\left(\left(\frac{\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)^2 - 1\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)} \ln\left(\frac{\bar{r}}{\bar{b}}\right) - 1 \right] \quad (3.75)$$

Table 3.8 shows the values used to determine the sensitivity of these terms on the velocity profile of a Hagen-Poiseuille-type flow. Using the relationship for a Newtonian fluid $\tau_z^f = \mu \frac{\partial v_z^f}{\partial r}$, the shear stress on the osteocyte cell process ($\bar{r} = \bar{a}$) was determined using Equation 3.75,

$$\overline{\tau_z^f} = -\frac{\bar{b}^2}{4} \left(\frac{\overline{\partial p}}{\partial z}\right) \left[\left(\frac{2\bar{r}}{\bar{b}^2}\right) - \frac{\left(\left(\frac{\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)^2 - 1\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{\bar{a}}{\bar{b}}\right)} \left(\frac{1}{\bar{r}}\right) \right] \quad (3.76)$$

where $\tau_z^f = v_o^2 \rho_T^f \overline{\tau_z^f}$.

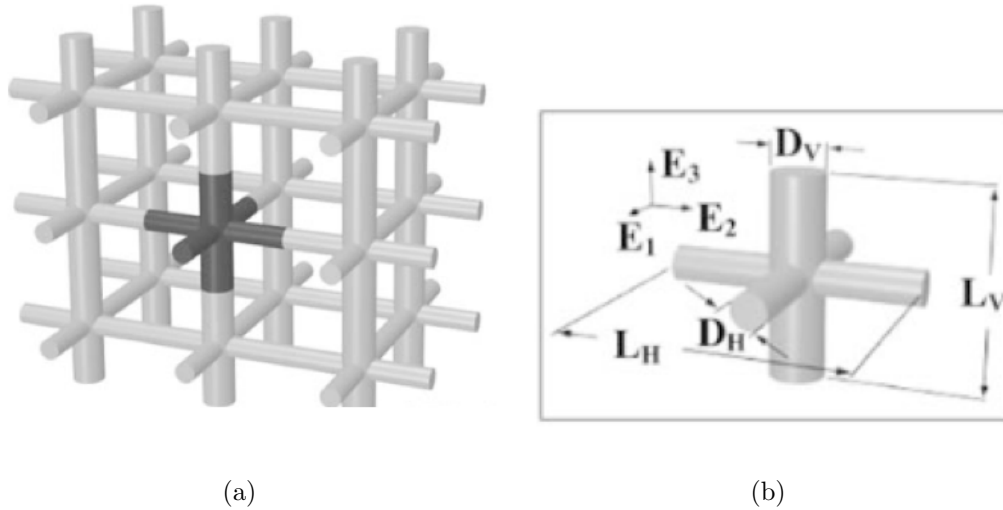


Fig. 3.4. (a) Assumed glycolyx structure. (b) Dimensions of a single unit cell within the structure [68].

3.3.3 Pressure-Driven Flow: Sensitivity Analyses

Using a custom Matlab (MathWorks, Natick, MA) code, a sensitivity analysis was performed using Cotter's Method to rank the input terms based on their influence on the output (velocity) in Equation 3.69 [66] [67]. Cotter's Method involves assigning a minimum and maximum value to each input term using their respective experimental ranges. Simulations are then performed by systematically assigning one term to one of its extreme values, with all the other terms set to the opposite extreme. An additional two simulations are performed with all terms set to their minimum and all terms assigned to their maximum value, respectively. Inputs that the output is sensitive to are identified as $1/n_c$, where n_c is the total number of input terms.

As the glycolyx within the LCS has yet to be fully characterized, approximations regarding its structure were made, in order for the permeability to be determined. An idealized open-cell model, constructed (Figure 3.4(a)) using rectangular unit cells (Figure 3.4(b)), was assumed to be within the interstitial space of the RVE. Values for D_h , L_h , D_v , and L_v were obtained from approximated dimensions used in previous

literature [17] [69] [70] [61]. These structural dimensions were used to determine the minimum and maximum permeability of the glycocalyx, using equations derived by Sander et al. [68]. In addition, the ratio of the osteocyte process radius to the canaliculus radius was used as limited osteocyte process measurements are reported. The pressure gradient was determined using the difference between the nutrient artery and nutrient vein pressures within the human tibia and an average tibial, diaphyseal cortex thickness of $6mm$. Last, approximating the interstitial fluid to be saline, the fluid viscosity at body temperature ($37^{\circ}C$) was determined to be $0.0007Pa \cdot s$, and the true density used was $1000kg/m^3$. Minimum and maximum values for these terms are shown in Table 3.5.

From preliminary calculations, the modified Bessel function constants A and B (Equations 3.70 and 3.71), used to describe the velocity profile within the RVE (Equation 3.69), were unsolvable as the permeability of the glycocalyx decreased due to values set as the minimum and maximum glycocalyx structure terms. When solving the differential equation in Equation 3.60, the modified Bessel function form assumes the velocity is changing as a function of the radius. Thus, the solution containing constants A and B describes a Brinkman-type fluid flow. However, as the permeability of the glycocalyx decreases, the fluid flow within the RVE transitions from a Brinkman-type flow to a Darcy-type flow, where the velocity profile is not dependent upon the radius (except at the no-slip boundaries). This, then, explains the unsolvable behavior of these modified Bessel function constants.

To determine when the transition from Brinkman-type to Darcy-type flow occurs, a sensitivity analysis was performed on the γ term that the velocity profile and modified Bessel constants are functions of (Equations 3.69, 3.70, and 3.71). The γ term is a function of the canaliculus radius, the volume fraction of the fluid constituent, and the permeability of the glycocalyx. Thus, due to the changing permeability, the velocity profile and modified Bessel constants are solvable for only certain ranges of the γ term. From Figure 3.5, the γ term is sensitive to both Dh and Lh , dimensions of the glycocalyx structure.

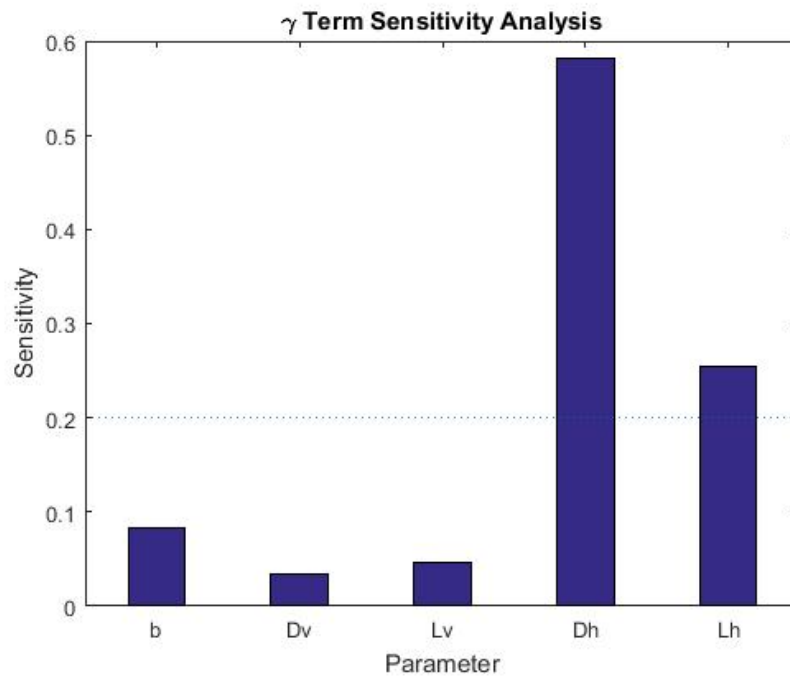


Fig. 3.5. Sensitivity analysis of the γ term, which is a function of the canaliculus radius, the volume fraction of the fluid constituent, and the permeability of the glycocalyx. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The inputs, that the γ term is sensitive to, are Dh and Lh . (b : canaliculus radius, Dv : diameter of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Lv : length of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Dh : diameter of glycocalyx horizontal fibers, Lh : length of glycocalyx horizontal fibers).

From the previous, preliminary calculations, the velocity profile and modified Bessel constants were unsolvable when γ was greater than 700. Thus, the parameters of the glycocalyx structure which are most sensitive to the γ term (Dh and Lh) were systematically modified. The maximum value for Dh and the minimum value for Lh were decreased and increased, respectively, until it resulted in the γ term less than 700. The maximum value for Dh was decreased from $6nm$ to $4.75nm$, and the minimum value for Lh was increased from $6nm$ to $7.25nm$. The modified values for each term, Table 3.6, were then used to determine their sensitivity on the velocity profile of a Brinkman-type flow. In addition, the shear stress on the osteocyte cell process ($\bar{\tau} = \bar{\alpha}$) was computationally computed within Matlab, using the relationship for a Newtonian fluid $\tau_z^f = \mu \frac{\partial v_z^f}{\partial r}$; Cotter's Method was again performed to determine each term's sensitivity of this shear stress.

When the flow within the RVE is not a Brinkman-type flow due to such a small glycocalyx permeability, Darcy-type flow dominates. The first two terms on the left-hand side in Equation 3.60 are zero. Thus, the resulting Darcy-type flow profile within the RVE is as follows,

$$\bar{v}_z^f = -N \bar{k}_v \frac{\bar{\partial p}}{\bar{\partial z}} \quad (3.77)$$

Before Cotter's Method could be performed to determine the sensitivity of the Darcy-type flow to its inputs, the ranges of the inputs needed to be adjusted. Overlap of the estimated values from literature exists for the glycocalyx parameters (such as Lh and Dv being equivalent), which would result in an impermeable interstitial space as the volume fraction of the solid constituent could be either greater than or equal to one. Thus, a sensitivity analysis was performed on the volume fraction (ϕ^s) of the glycocalyx within the RVE using Cotter's Method, as shown in Figure 3.6. From this sensitivity analysis, the volume fraction of the solid constituent is sensitive to both Lv and Dh . Thus, the minimum value of Lv was increased from $6nm$ to $6.75nm$, and the maximum value of Dh was decreased from $6mm$ to $5.25nm$. The value of Dv was also slightly decreased from $6nm$ to $5.9nm$; even though it was not identified as a sensitive parameter, it needed to be reduced in order to not overlap with the

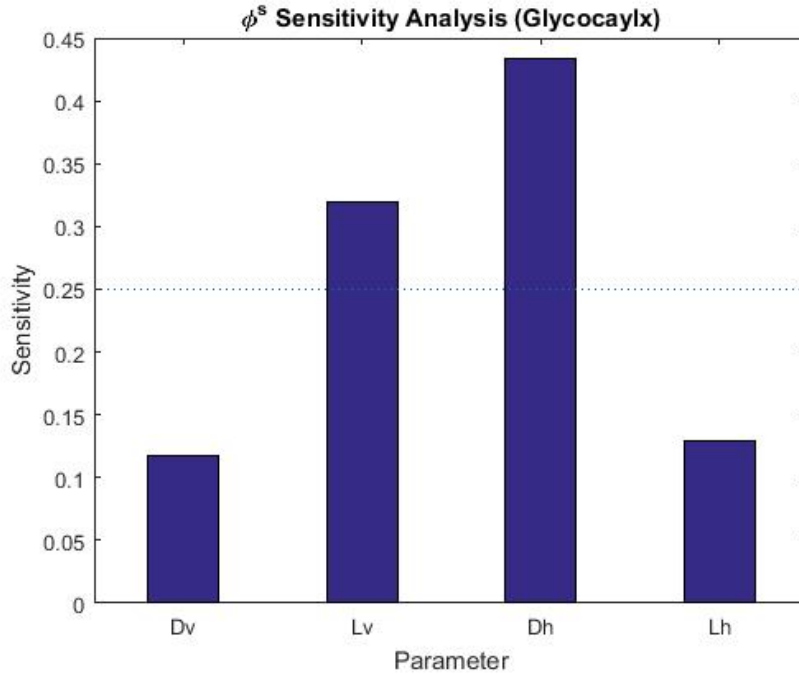


Fig. 3.6. Sensitivity analysis of the ϕ^s term, which is a function of the four geometric parameters of the glycocaylx. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The inputs, that ϕ^s is sensitive to, are Lv and Dh . (Dv : diameter of glycocaylx vertical fibers, Lv : length of glycocaylx vertical fibers, Dh : diameter of glycocaylx horizontal fibers, Lh : length of glycocaylx horizontal fibers)

minimum value of Lh , which is set at $6nm$. With these changes, ϕ^s was below 1 for all simulations. Table 3.7 shows the modified minimum and maximum values, with the blue values indicating those adjusted due to the ϕ^s sensitivity analysis and the red values indicating those previously modified due to the sensitivity analysis on the γ term. Cotter's Method was then performed on Equation 3.77, the Darcy-type flow velocity profile.

Last, Cotter's Method was performed under the assumption that the glycocaylx within the interstitial space of the RVE is not present. Sensitivity analyses were

performed for both the velocity profile and the shear stress acting on the osteocyte cell process, Equations 3.75 and 3.76, respectively.

3.3.4 Compression-Driven Flow: Preliminary Work

Representative Volume Element

In which to model interstitial fluid flow due to compression-driven flow, the RVE consists of multiple, idealized canaliculi in parallel within a block of mineralized bone. This RVE is at length scale of a single osteocyte, or the mesoscale, as shown in Figure 3.2.

Velocity Profile within the RVE

Deformation-induced flow due to external compressive loading is next investigated as this is a common, anatomic loading that bone continually experiences, e.g. ambulation. To obtain the deformation of the solid constituent, a previously generated finite element analysis (FEA) of a mouse tibia, which underwent 12N of compressive loading in Abaqus (Johnston, RI), was utilized [74]. The model was sectioned as indicated by the dashed, red line in Figure 3.7(a). From this section, a reference node was selected, which is indicated as Node 1 in Figure 3.7(b), (c). Twelve surrounding nodes (Nodes 2-13) were next selected. The original coordinates of each node as well as the displacement coordinates were output from Abaqus. The Left Cauchy-Green deformation tensor, \underline{B}^s , can be determined from the original and displaced coordinates as,

$$\underline{B}^s = \underline{F}\underline{F}^T = \left(\frac{\partial \underline{x}}{\partial \underline{X}}\right)\left(\frac{\partial \underline{x}}{\partial \underline{X}}\right)^T \quad (3.78)$$

Four left Cauchy-Green deformation tensors were calculated for Node 1 using the reference node with Nodes 2-4, Nodes 5-7, Nodes 8-10, and Nodes 11-13, respectively.

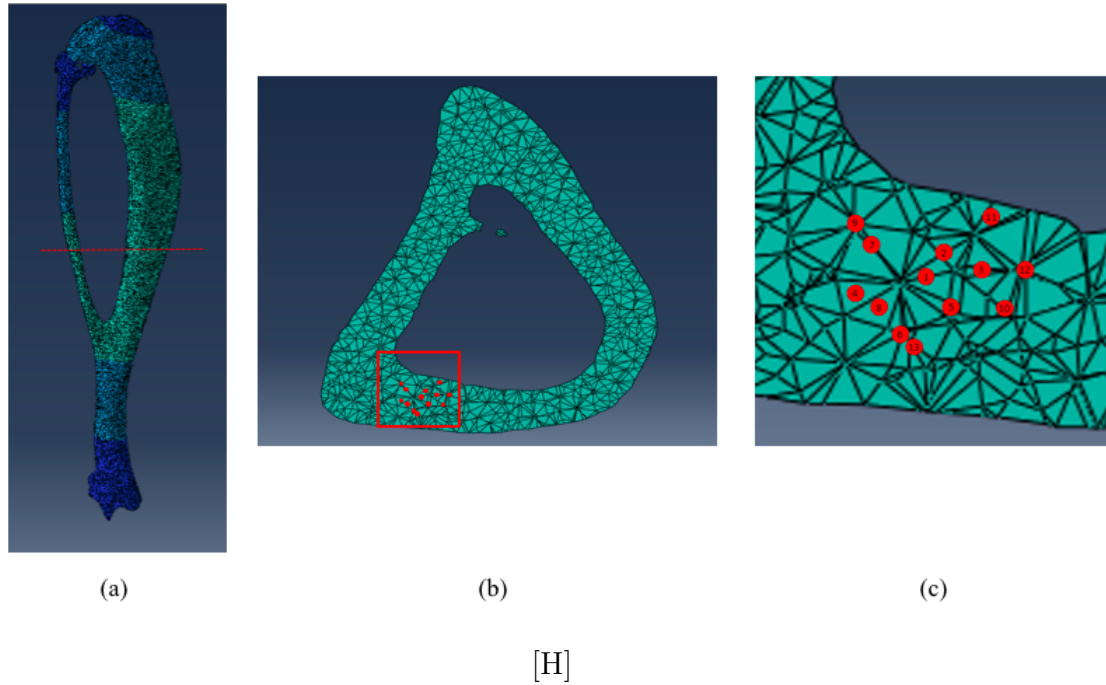


Fig. 3.7. (a) Mouse tibia model in Abaqus, mapping the displacement due to a compressive 12N load at the proximal end [74]. The dashed, red line indicates the location where the bone was computationally sectioned. (b) Cross-section of the cut made in the model. Nodes used to calculate the deformation gradient are indicated by red dots. (c) A close-up image of the red box in (b), showing the locations of the nodes. Node 1 is the reference node.

They were then averaged to obtain an overall, average deformation tensor for reference Node 1,

$$\underline{B}^s = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0032 & 1.8818e - 4 & -0.0014 \\ 1.8818e - 4 & 1.0026 & 0.0028 \\ -0.0014 & 0.0028 & 0.9885 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.79)$$

In order to solve for the stress tensor of the solid constituent \underline{T}^s , the material constants in Equation 3.40, β_o , β_1 , and β_2 , need to be determined. The Mooney-Rivlin strain energy function for a porous material needs to be utilized,

$$W = c_1(I_1 - 3) + c_2(I_2 - 3) \quad (3.80)$$

where c_1 and c_2 are constants and I_1 and I_2 are the first and second invariants of the Right Cauchy-Green deformation tensor \underline{C} , respectively [75]. \underline{C} , I_1 , and I_2 are defined as follows,

$$\underline{C} = \underline{F}^T \underline{F} \quad (3.81)$$

$$I_1 = \text{tr} \underline{C} \quad (3.82)$$

$$I_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left((\text{tr} \underline{C})^2 - \text{tr} \underline{C}^2 \right) \quad (3.83)$$

The Mooney-Rivlin strain energy function is related to the the Second Piola-Kirchhoff stress, \underline{S} , by the following

$$\underline{S} = 2 \frac{\partial W}{\partial \underline{C}} = 2 \frac{\partial W}{\partial I_1} \frac{\partial I_1}{\partial \underline{C}} \quad (3.84)$$

where $\frac{\partial I_1}{\partial \underline{C}}$ and $\frac{\partial I_2}{\partial \underline{C}}$ are the following,

$$\frac{\partial I_1}{\partial \underline{C}} = \underline{I} \quad (3.85)$$

$$\frac{\partial I_2}{\partial \underline{C}} = I_1 \underline{I} - \underline{C} \quad (3.86)$$

Thus, the Second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor is,

$$\underline{S} = 2c_1 \underline{I} + 2c_2 \text{tr}(\underline{C}) \underline{I} - 2c_2 \underline{C} \quad (3.87)$$

\underline{S} can then be related to the First Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor,

$$\underline{P} = \underline{F} \underline{S} \quad (3.88)$$

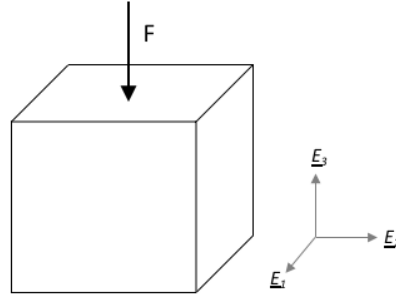


Fig. 3.8. Block of mineralized bone. Tissue is assumed to undergo compression in the E_3 direction as indicated by force F .

As the First Piola-Kirchhoff stress quantifies engineering stress, the following relationship can be made,

$$E\epsilon = \underline{FS} \quad (3.89)$$

where E is the elastic modulus of bone and ϵ is strain.

In order to solve for constants c_1 and c_2 in Equation 3.80, the compression of a block of mineralized bone is assumed, as shown in Figure 3.8. The kinematics of this motion can be derived as follows,

$$x_1 = X_1 - \eta\epsilon X_1 \quad (3.90)$$

$$x_2 = X_2 - \eta\epsilon X_2 \quad (3.91)$$

$$x_3 = X_3 + \epsilon X_3 \quad (3.92)$$

where X_i refers to the reference configuration, x_i refers to the current configuration, and η is Poisson's ratio of cortical bone.

Once the material constants are determined, the balance of linear momentum for each constituent, as shown in Section 3.3.2, can be utilized to determine the flow profile within the interstitial space and predict the shear stresses and/or drag forces that the osteocyte may be experiencing.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Pressure-Driven Flow: Sensitivity Analyses

When utilizing Cotter's Method, a term is deemed sensitive if its sensitivity is greater than $1/n_c$, where n_c is the total number of input terms. The Brinkman-type velocity profile within the RVE (glycocalyx present) is most sensitive to Dv and Dh , as shown in Figure 3.9. The nondimensionalized maximum velocity of the Brinkman-type flow (the midpoint between the canalicular wall and the osteocyte cell process) within the RVE containing a glycocalyx is shown in Figure 3.10(a), using the averages of $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$, b , and v_o . It is plotted as a function of increasing osteocyte cell process radius and γ . These same results are plotted in Figure 3.10(b) but have been re-dimensionalized. The shear stress on the osteocyte cell process due to this Brinkman-type velocity profile is most sensitive to terms Dv , Dh , and v_o (Figure 3.11). Considering all of the simulations performed, the shear stress on the osteocytic cell process ranges from $0.3306\mu Pa$ to $0.01186Pa$. When the permeability is small enough that the γ term is larger than 700, the Darcy-type velocity profile occurs within the RVE, which is most sensitive to Dv and Lh , as shown in Figure 3.12. The re-dimensionalized velocity ranges from $0.0119nm/s$ to $0.0078\mu m/s$ across all simulations performed.

When the glycocalyx is assumed to not exist, the velocity profile can be modeled as a Hagen-Poiseuille equation. This velocity within the RVE is most sensitive to v_o and b , as shown in Figure 3.13. The nondimensionalized maximum velocity of the Poiseuille-type flow (the midpoint between the canalicular wall and the osteocyte cell process) within the RVE is shown in Figure 3.14(b), using the averages of $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$, b , and v_o . It is plotted as a function of increasing osteocyte cell process radius and γ . These results re-dimensionalized are plotted in Figure 3.14(a). The shear stress on the osteocyte cell process due to this Poiseuille-type velocity profile is also most sensitive to v_o (Figure 3.15). Out of the simulations performed, the shear stress experienced on the osteocyte cell process ranges from $0.0182Pa$ to $0.4571Pa$.

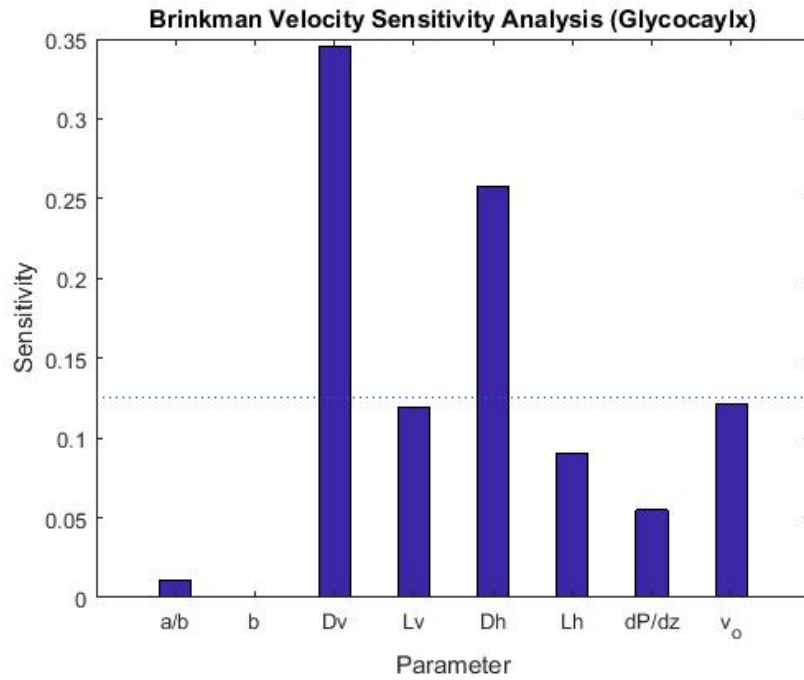
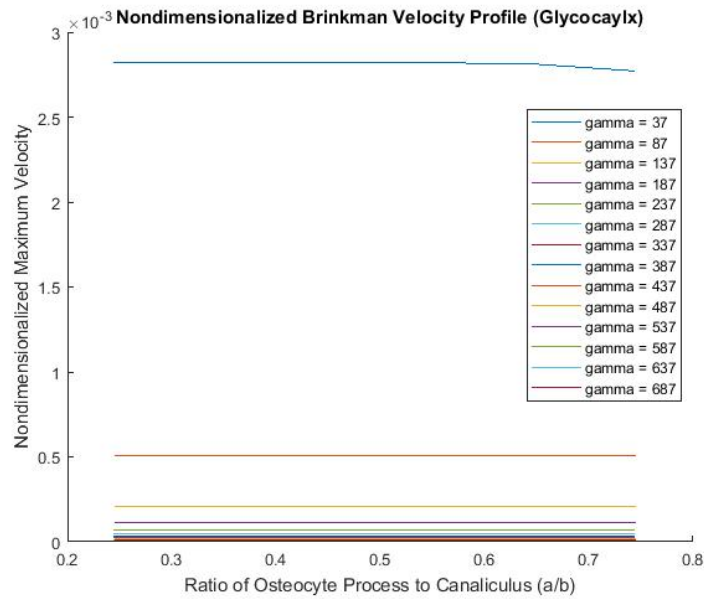
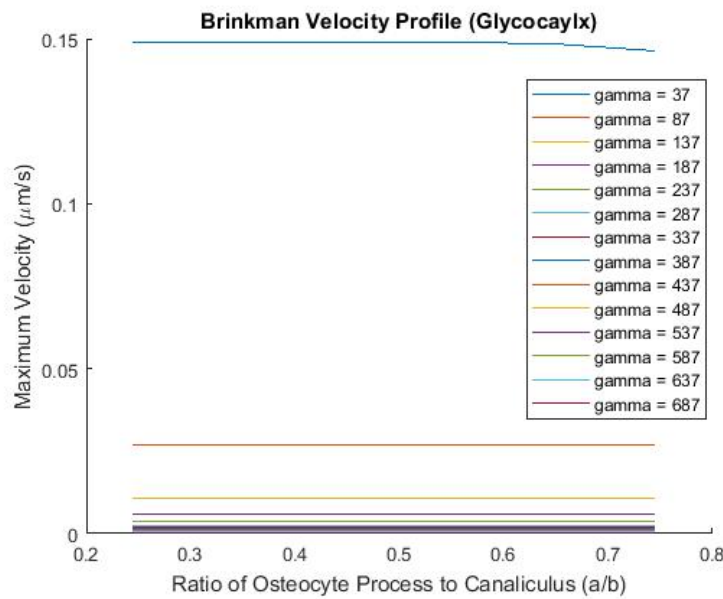


Fig. 3.9. Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis of Equation 3.69, using modified maximum and minimum values from Table 3.6. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The Brinkman-type velocity profile is most sensitive to terms Dv and Dh . (a/b : ratio of osteocyte cell process radius to canaliculus radius, b : radius of canaliculus, Dv : diameter of glyocalyx vertical fibers, Lv : length of glyocalyx vertical fibers, Dh : diameter of glyocalyx horizontal fibers, Lh : length of glyocalyx horizontal fibers, dP/dz : pressure gradient, v_o : initial velocity).



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.10. (a) Nondimensionalized maximum velocity of the Brinkman-type flow profile, when the glycocalyx is present, as a function of increasing cell process radius and γ . Averages of $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$, b , and v_o were used. (b) Re-dimensionalization of the maximum velocities shown in (a).

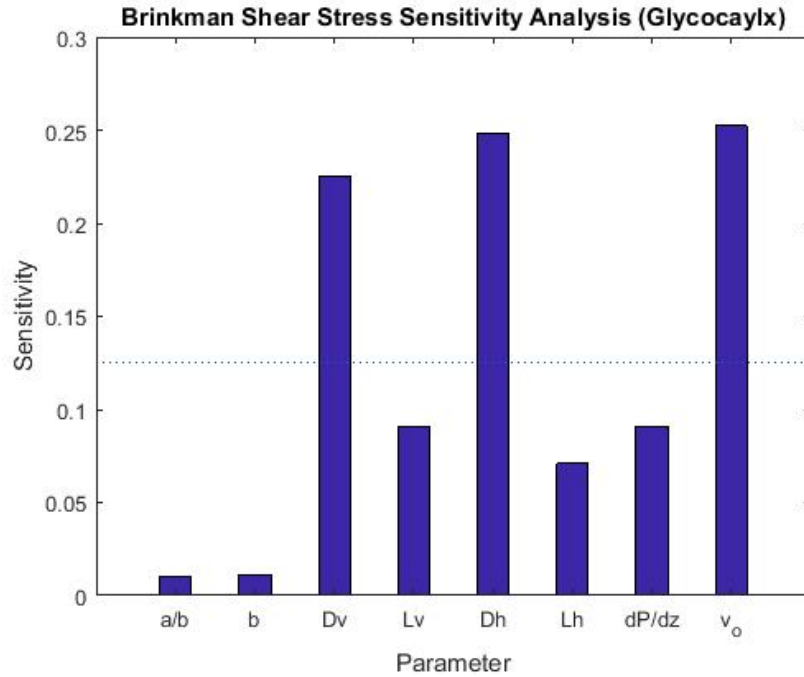


Fig. 3.11. Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis of the computationally derived shear stress on the osteocyte cell process (a) within the RVE, using modified maximum and minimum values from Table 3.6. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The shear stress due to this Brinkman-type velocity profile is most sensitive to terms Dv , Dh , and v_o . (a/b : ratio of osteocyte cell process radius to canaliculus radius, b : radius of canaliculus, Dv : diameter of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Lv : length of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Dh : diameter of glycocalyx horizontal fibers, Lh : length of glycocalyx horizontal fibers, dP/dz : pressure gradient, v_o : initial velocity)

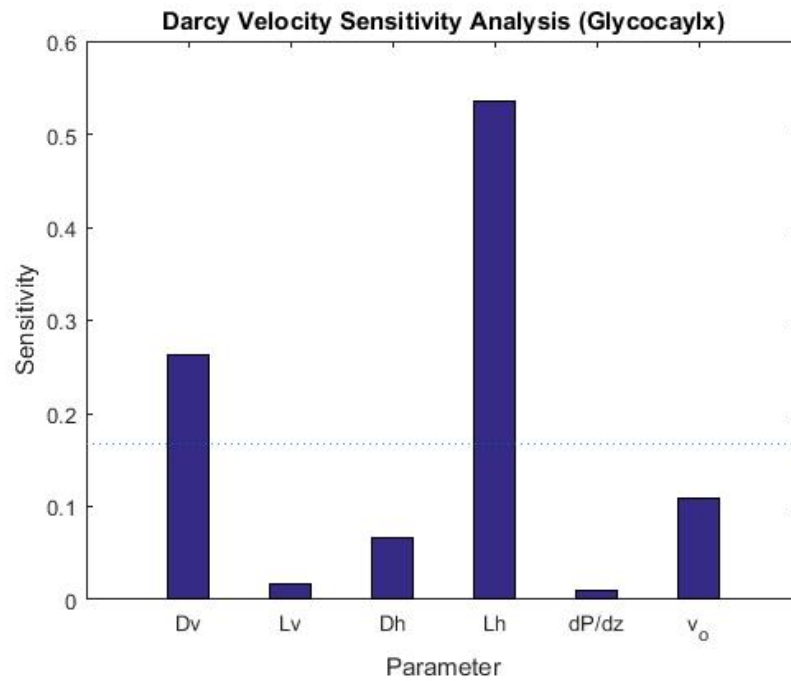


Fig. 3.12. Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis of Equation 3.77, using modified maximum and minimum values from Table 3.7. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The Darcy-type velocity profile is most sensitive to terms Dv and Lh . (Dv : diameter of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Lv : length of glycocalyx vertical fibers, Dh : diameter of glycocalyx horizontal fibers, Lh : length of glycocalyx horizontal fibers, dP/dz : pressure gradient, v_o : initial velocity).

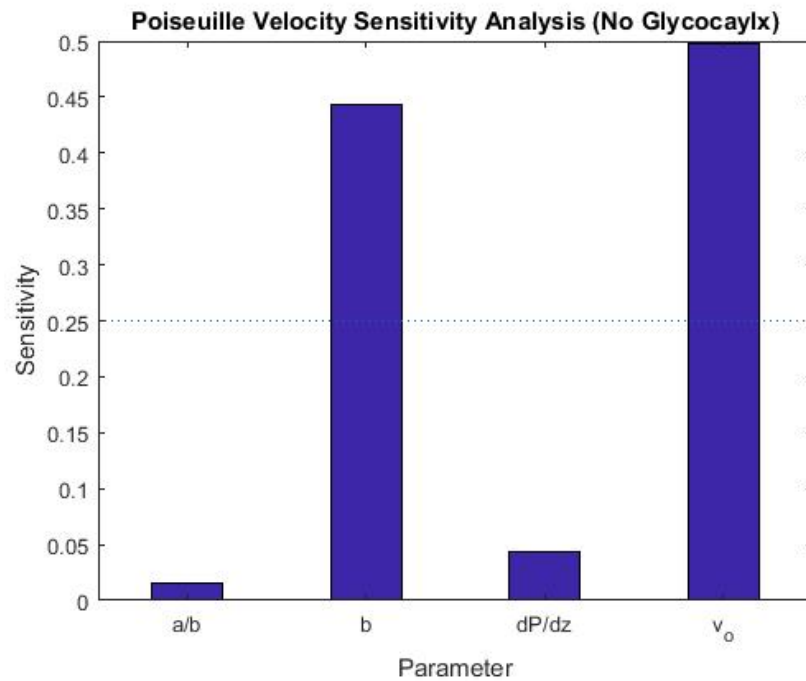
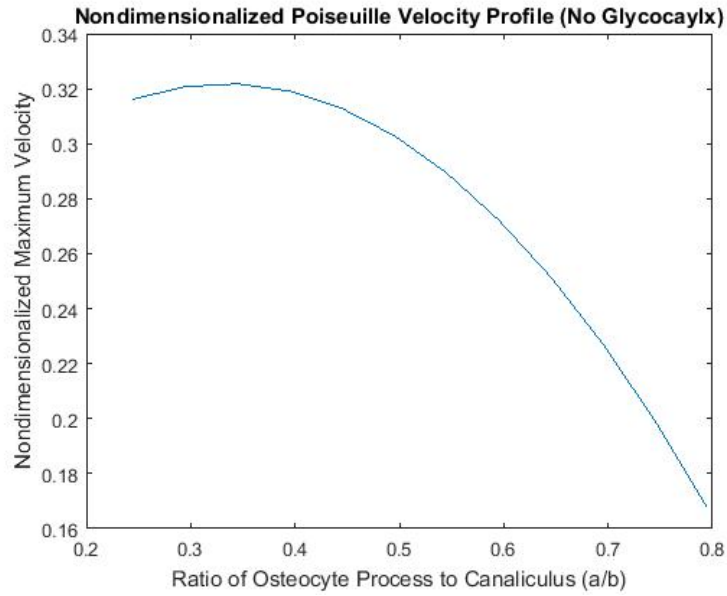
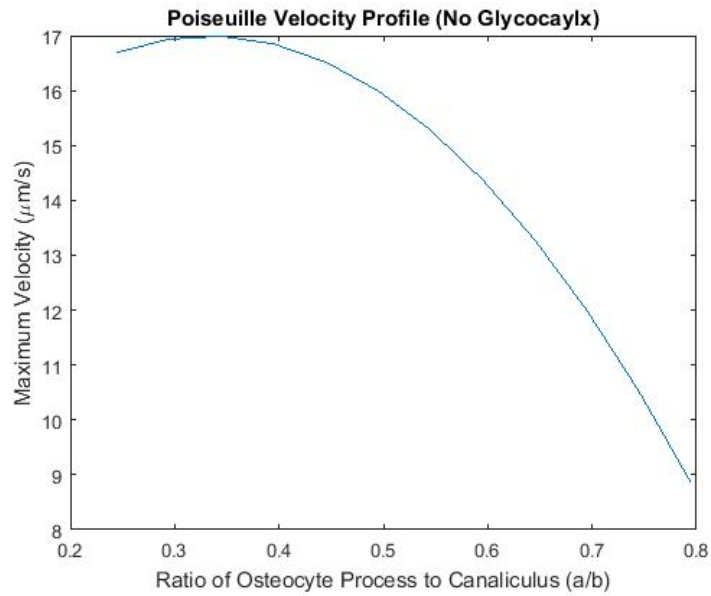


Fig. 3.13. Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis of Equation 3.75, using modified maximum and minimum values from Table 3.8. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The Poiseuille-type velocity profile (assuming no glycocalyx) is most sensitive to v_o and b . (a/b : ratio of osteocyte cell process radius to canaliculus radius, b : radius of canaliculus, dP/dz : pressure gradient, v_o : initial velocity).



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.14. (a) Nondimensionalized maximum velocity of the Poiseuille-type flow profile as a function of increasing cell process radius and γ . Averages of $\frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$, b , and v_o were used. (b) Re-dimensionalization of the maximum velocities shown in (a).

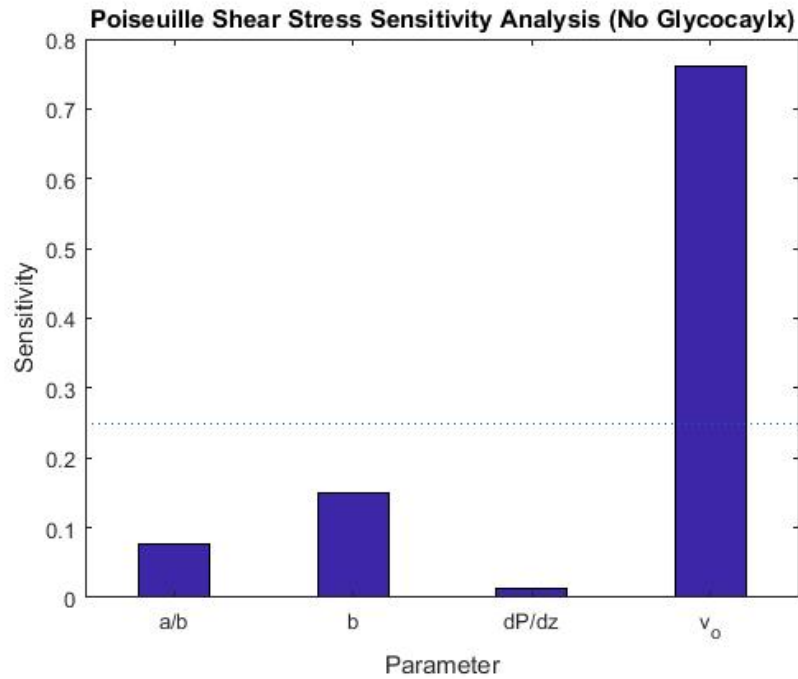


Fig. 3.15. Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis of the shear stress acting on the osteocyte cell process (a) within the RVE (Equation 3.76), using modified maximum and minimum values from Table 3.8. The horizontal line indicates the threshold ($1/n_c$) that a term must be greater than in order to be considered sensitive to the output. The shear stress due to this Poiseuille-type velocity profile (assuming no glycocalyx) is most sensitive to v_o . (a/b : ratio of osteocyte cell process radius to canaliculus radius, b : radius of canaliculus, dP/dz : pressure gradient, v_o : initial velocity).

3.5 Discussion

By utilizing the theory of poroelasticity and the mixture theory approach, velocity and shear stresses within an idealized canaliculus were able to be determined, along with the impact of the glycocalyx on these results. Based upon the presence and structure of the glycocalyx, three different types of flow were determined to exist within the interstitial space: 1) Brinkman flow, 2) Darcy flow, and 3) Poiseuille flow. Brinkman flow occurs when a glycocalyx was assumed to exist and its permeability results in a γ term greater than 700. As the permeability decreases, causing an increase in the γ term above 700, the flow is modeled as a Darcy-type flow. Last, when no glycocalyx is assumed to exist, Poiseuille flow exists between the canalicular wall and the osteocyte cell process.

Due to arterial pressure-driven flow, the Brinkman-type maximum velocity is approximately $0.15 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ when γ is equal to 37. As the γ term increases to just 87, the maximum velocity within the interstitial space is greatly reduced to just $0.025 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$. The shear stress on the osteocytic process due to the Brinkman flow ranges from $0.3306 \mu\text{Pa}$ to 0.01186 Pa . Both the velocity and shear stress are sensitive to the glycocalyx diametric parameters Dv and Dh with the shear stress also being sensitive to the initial velocity v_o . When the γ term is greater than 700, the maximum Darcy velocity that occurs ranges from $0.0119 \text{ nm}/\text{s}$ to $0.0078 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$; this velocity is also sensitive to structural parameters of the glycocalyx, Dv and Lh . When a glycocalyx is not assumed to be within the interstitial space, Poiseuille flow results in a maximum velocity of $17 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ when the ratio of the osteocyte process to the canalicular wall is 0.35 and decreases parabolically to approximately $9 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ when the ratio is increased to 0.80. The shear stress on the cell process ranges from 0.0182 Pa to 0.4571 kPa . The Poiseuille velocity and shear stress are both sensitive to the initial velocity v_o , with the velocity also being sensitive to the canalicular radius b .

From these results, it is shown that the presence of glycocalyx greatly impacts not just the values of the velocity and shear stress but also the type of flow that dominates

within the interstitial space. While this model does assume a rectangular unit cell of the glycocalyx, it still clearly shows the impact of the ranges of values that have been assumed of the glycocalyx [17] [69] [70]. For example, Kamioka et al. did not assume a glycocalyx in their UHVEM canalicular reconstruction (Figure 2.8(a)), which lead to maximum velocity values of $800 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$. In comparison to the idealized model Poiseuille velocities modeled within this thesis, the irregularities from the reconstructed images as well as a much larger pressure gradient of $1 \text{ Pa}/\text{nm}$ [10] in Kamioka et al.'s model explain the large discrepancies observed between the two models [6]. On the other hand, Verbruggen et al. assumed a glycocalyx within their computational models of CLSM lacunar canalicular structures, resulting in maximum velocities of only $200 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ (Figure 2.8(b)). They reported an average velocity of approximately $60.5 \mu\text{m}/\text{s}$ and an average shear stress of approximately 11 Pa . Again, differences in this model and the one discussed here are due to the non-idealized structure of the LCS and the modeling of vigorous activity by Vergruggen et al. (Input pressure: 300 Pa) [19]. Thus, mathematical and computational models need to take these uncertainties of the glycocalyx into account, especially since the type of dominating flow will enable determination of the type of stimulus the cell process is experiencing, i.e. shear stress or drag forces/amplified hoop strains.

Finally, expanding this mixture theory analysis to model compression-driven flow, as in Section 3.3.2, will enable more relevant, physiologic constituent relationships to be determined. It will be able to take into account the deformation of the solid and determine its impact on the fluid profile within the interstitial space with or without the presence of a glycocalyx. Overall, these results will be a more accurate prediction to the forces that the osteocyte may be experiencing during mechanical loading.

Table 3.5.

High and low values for each input term in Equation 3.69 for implementing Cotter's Method.

Term	Variable	Low	Method	High	Method
Canaliculus radius (nm)	b	75	SEM, human tibiae [34]	422	AFM, bovine tibiae [27]
Ratio of osteocyte process radius to canaliculus radius	a/b	0.245	TEM, rat tibiae [71]	0.819	TEM, rat tibiae [71]
Diameter of vertical fibers (nm)	Dv	0.5	Estimated value [17] [69]	6	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of vertical fibers (nm)	Lv	6	Tracer study, rat tibiae [70]	10	Tracer study, rat tibiae [61]
Diameter of horizontal fibers (nm)	Dh	0.5	Estimated value [17] [69]	6	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of horizontal fibers (nm)	Lh	6	Tracer study, rat tibiae [70]	10	Tracer study, rat tibiae [61]
Pressure gradient (kPa/m)	$\partial p/\partial z$	-1978.33	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]	-2645	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]
Initial velocity ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	v_o	21.6	FRAP and mechanical loading, murine tibiae [17]	84	FRAP and mechanical loading [46]

Table 3.6.

Modified high and low values for each input term in Equation 3.69 (Brinkman-type flow) for implementing Cotter's Method. Red numbers indicate modified values.

Term	Variable	Low	Method	High	Method
Canaliculus radius (nm)	b	75	SEM, human tibiae [34]	422	AFM, bovine tibiae [27]
Ratio of osteocyte process radius to canaliculus radius	a/b	0.245	TEM, rat tibiae [71]	0.819	TEM, rat tibiae [71]
Diameter of vertical fibers (nm)	Dv	0.5	Estimated value [17] [69]	6	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of vertical fibers (nm)	Lv	6	Tracer study, rat tibiae [70]	10	Tracer study, rat tibiae [61]
Diameter of horizontal fibers (nm)	Dh	0.5	Estimated value [17] [69]	4.75	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of horizontal fibers (nm)	Lh	7.25	Tracer study, rat tibiae [70]	10	Tracer study, rat tibiae [61]
Pressure gradient (kPa/m)	$\partial p/\partial z$	-1978.33	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]	-2645	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]
Initial velocity ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	v_o	21.6	FRAP and mechanical loading, murine tibiae [17]	84	FRAP and mechanical loading [46]

Table 3.7.

Modified high and low values for each input term in Equation 3.77 (Darcy-type flow) for implementing Cotter's Method. Red values indicate modified values to satisfy the γ sensitivity analysis, and blue values indicate those modified due to the ϕ^s sensitivity analysis.

Term	Variable	Low	Method	High	Method
Diameter of vertical fibers (nm)	Dv	0.5	Estimated value [17] [69]	5.9	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of vertical fibers (nm)	Lv	6.75	Tracer study, rat tib- iae [70]	10	Tracer study, rat tib- iae [61]
Diameter of horizontal fibers (nm)	Dh	4.75	Estimated value [17] [69]	5.25	Estimated value [17] [69]
Length of horizontal fibers (nm)	Lh	6	Tracer study, rat tib- iae [70]	7.25	Tracer study, rat tib- iae [61]
Pressure gradient (kPa/m)	$\partial p / \partial z$	-1978.33	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, hu- man tibiae [72] [73]	-2645	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, hu- man tibiae [72] [73]
Initial velocity ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	v_o	21.6	FRAP and mechanical loading, murine tibiae [17]	84	FRAP and mechanical loading [46]

Table 3.8.
 High and low values for each input term in Equation 3.75 (Poiseuille-type flow) for implementing Cotter’s Method, using the assumption that the glycoocalyx is not present.

Term	Variable	Low	Method	High	Method
Canaliculus radius (nm)	b	75	SEM, human tibiae [34]	422	AFM, bovine tibiae [27]
Ratio of osteocyte process radius to canaliculus radius	a/b	0.245	TEM, rat tibiae [71]	0.819	TEM, rat tibiae [71]
Pressure gradient (kPa/m)	$\partial p/\partial z$	-1978.33	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]	-2645	Change in nutrient vascular pressure, human tibiae [72] [73]
Initial velocity ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	v_o	21.6	FRAP and mechanical loading, murine tibiae [17]	84	FRAP and mechanical loading [46]

4. CHARACTERIZATION OF THE LCS

4.1 Motivation

Advancements in nanoscale imaging and reconstruction softwares have enabled three-dimensional characterization of the LCS. However, the current techniques utilized to reconstruct both the lacunar and canalicular morphology require either manual segmentation which is subject to a user bias [35] [37] [38], multiple softwares [35] [37] [38], or techniques, such as FIB-SEM and SR-PNT, that are not as accessible as CLSM [5] [35] [44]. Hesse et al. and Varga et al. have shown promising results with their custom-implemented Matlab codes [5] [44]; however, creation of a similar code may prove difficult and time-consuming for researchers without the computational background. Thus, an open-source code reconstructing the LCS from CLSM images, as Heveran et al. provided for the lacunae, would enable further advancements in the field, removing the variable of post-processing from the differences that are seen in characterization of the LCS.

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Sample Preparation

For this study, the femora of 20-week-old and 52-week-old female wild type C57BL/6 mice were utilized to visualize the lacunar-canalicular structure within cortical bone. These mice, as genetic controls for previous experiments, had been previously sacrificed. The left femora from the 20-week-old mice and right femora from the 52-week-old mice had been harvested, cleaned of soft tissue, fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF), and stored in 70% ethanol (EtOH) (Fisher Scientific, Hampton, NH) following euthanasia.

Three femora from each age group were obtained for sectioning. In order to handle and support the bones, Eppendorf PCR tubes were filled approximately three-fourths full with Quickset Epoxy (Loctite, Düsseldorf, GER). Once the epoxy was set, each femur was inserted into a PCR tube so that the distal end of the bone was in contact with the epoxy. Holding the femora upright, the remainder of the PCR tubes were filled with epoxy. A thin coat of epoxy was then applied around the portions of the bones not embedded within the PCR tube; this was done in order to prevent splintering of the bone during sectioning.

The PCR tubes were horizontally inserted into a single saddle chuck (Buehler, Lake Bluff, IL) which was attached to the swivel arm of an Isomet 1000 Precision Cutter (Buehler, Lake Bluff, IL). A diamond blade was used to cut multiple cross sections from the metaphysis and diaphysis of each bone. Samples were then stored in individual PCR tubes filled with 70% EtOH for at least 24 hours.

After soaking in EtOH, the epoxy coating the outside of each section was peeled off using forceps. Using deionized water and 600 grit waterproof sandpaper (Norton, Worcester, MA), one metaphyseal cross-section from each mouse bone was ground down to a final thickness of 150 μm . Each section was washed in ascending concentrations of 70%, 85%, and 100% EtOH for 5 minutes each. Samples were placed in a 24-well plate (one sample per well) and stained with 0.1 mg/mL Alexa Fluor 488 carboxylic acid, succinimidyl ester (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) for 24 hours. During this incubation time, the covered 24 well-plate was placed on a standard analog shaker (Setting 1; VWR, Radnor, PA) to ensure penetration into the LCS.

After the Alexa 488 was removed from the wells, each sample was submerged in 10% NBF and again placed on the shaker for at least 48 hours. Once the samples were fixed, ascending concentrations EtOH were again used to wash the samples. Last, samples were placed on microscope slides; no. 1.5 cover glass (VWR, Radnor, PA) and ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) were used to secure the samples on the slides. Slides were covered and left to dry for at least 36 hours before imaging.

4.2.2 Confocal Imaging

All slides were imaged on a Zeiss LSM 880 Upright Confocal (ZEISS, Oberkochen, GER), using the Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.40 Oil DIC objective. In order to keep image settings consistent between samples, all slides were first briefly imaged to determine overall optimal imaging parameters. Three z-stacks were then obtained from the posterior surface of each sample. The goal of each z-stack was to focus and obtain images on a single full lacunae and its connecting canaliculi. The x-y resolution of the images (1024 x 1024) approximately ranged from 0.030 μm - 0.040 μm , while the z-resolution was 0.394 μm . The depth, or number of slices for each z-stack, was variable as it depended on the size and orientation of the lacunae. The settings used for each z-stack for all samples were as follows: master gain: 586, pixel dwell: 0.38 μs , pinhole: 1 AU, averaging: line 8, and pixel depth: 16-bit. As laser penetration diminishes greatly with depth due to the mineralized structure of the samples, the laser power was increased from 5% to 7.5% at 50% thickness of the scan and also from 7.5% to 10% once 75% of the sample had been scanned. All z-stacks were saved with and without a scale-bar as the scale-bar interferes with automated volume reconstruction.

In addition, a z-stack was performed on the medial surface of each sample in order to make quantitative measurements regarding volumetric lacunar density. Using the Plan-Apochromat 20x/.8 M27 objective, each image (1024 x 1024) had an x-y resolution of 0.142 μm and a z-resolution of 0.832 μm , resulting in an overall image size of approximately 146 μm by 146 μm and an average depth of 33 μm . The settings for these scans were the following: laser power: 10%, master gain: 586, pixel dwell: 0.38 μs , pinhole: 1 AU, averaging: line 8, and pixel depth: 16-bit. The z-stacks were then imported into Mimics (Materialise, Leuven, BEL) where the lacunae were masked, with a lower threshold of -994 and an upper threshold of -842. From this segmentation, a three-dimensional reconstruction of the lacunae was generated, as shown in Figure 4.1. Using the annotation tool, all internal, full lacunae were counted. In addition, partial lacunae were counted if they were on the proximal (top), lateral,

or anterior surface of the reconstructed volume. In order to determine if the two ages had significantly different volumetric lacunar densities, a Kruskal-Wallis H test was performed in Stata (StatCorp, College Station, TX), with significance defined as $p < 0.05$.

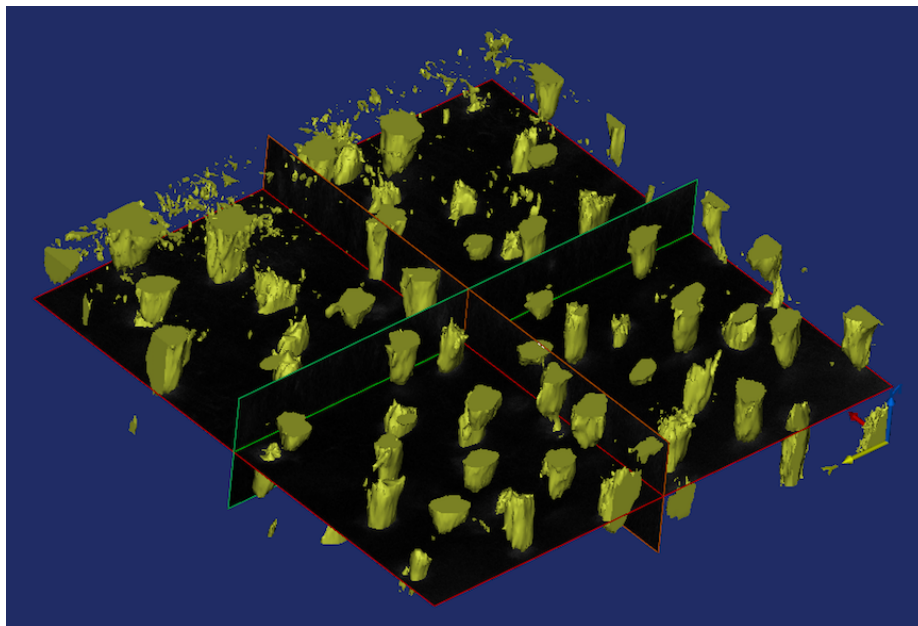


Fig. 4.1. Reconstruction in Mimics of a z-stack collected to determine volumetric lacunar density.

4.2.3 LCS 3D Reconstruction

Current reconstruction softwares, such as Mimics, were created for clinical, larger-scale applications, mainly to reconstruct and model computed tomography (CT) scans. As the laser power needed to be increased during confocal scanning (due to depth into the mineralized bone sample), the obtained confocal z-stacks were too noisy for the software to accurately segment, mask, and reconstruct. Using Mimics, the thresholding of the Alexa 488 stained LCS was unreliable and would have involved manual editing on every slice for each z-stack. Thus, a custom Matlab code was developed in order to reconstruct the Zeiss confocal z-stacks for each sample.

Before running the code, the x-y and z resolutions were entered into the code for 'xyRes' and 'zRes' variables, respectively. These are the only parameters that *need* to be modified. Additionally, the following parameters can be either set to '0' for false or '1' for true: 'display3D', 'displayRaw', and 'display3DCan', 'runValidation'. 'display3D' allows for an output three-dimensional representation of the lacuna of interest and its connecting canaliculi. 'displayRaw' displays the raw data slices and 'display3DCan' displays the final reconstruction of the z-stack containing just the main lacuna of interest and all the canaliculi. 'runValidation' allows for validation of the segmentation processes (given a manually thresholded z-stack in addition to the raw dataset).

By running the custom code, the two-dimensional image (TIF) files of a z-stack (without the scale bars) were imported into Matlab (when prompted), where they were first converted into greyscale. A simple image adjustment was next automatically performed on each slice to maximize its contrast. Another image adjustment was automatically executed to conform all slices to the same intensity scale. Next, a non-localized means filter was utilized for noise filtering on each slice [76] [77] [78]. In order to segment the lacunae and canaliculi, a 2D Frangi filter, which is a Hessian-based multi-scale filter, was used [79] [80] [81], followed by smoothing of the canaliculi [82] [83] [84]. Finally, both the lacunae and canaliculi were masked.

In order to determine the accuracy of this segmentation process, a validation dataset was created using Mimics. A previously prepared mouse femoral transverse cross-section, stained with 0.1 mg/mL Alexa 488, was scanned using a Zeiss LSM Confocal. A $51.58 \mu\text{m} \times 51.58 \mu\text{m} \times 14.31 \mu\text{m}$ z-stack was obtained (16-bit, $1024 \times 1024 \times 30$). The following settings were utilized: laser power: 5.0%, master gain: 759-784, pixel dwell: $0.34 \mu\text{s}$, averaging: line 8, and pinhole: 1.29 AU. Importing the 30 slices into Mimics, a mask was created, and the images were thresholded. On each z-stack slice, the mask was edited by manually drawing in regions of the LCS that had not been captured by the thresholding. Figure 4.2 shows an example of this process on slice 10 of the z-stack where (a) is the original confocal image, (b) is the thresholded

slice in Mimics, and (c) is the manually reconstructed image in Mimics. Following contouring, the corrected dataset was reconstructed (for visualization purposes) in Mimics, as shown in Figure 4.3.

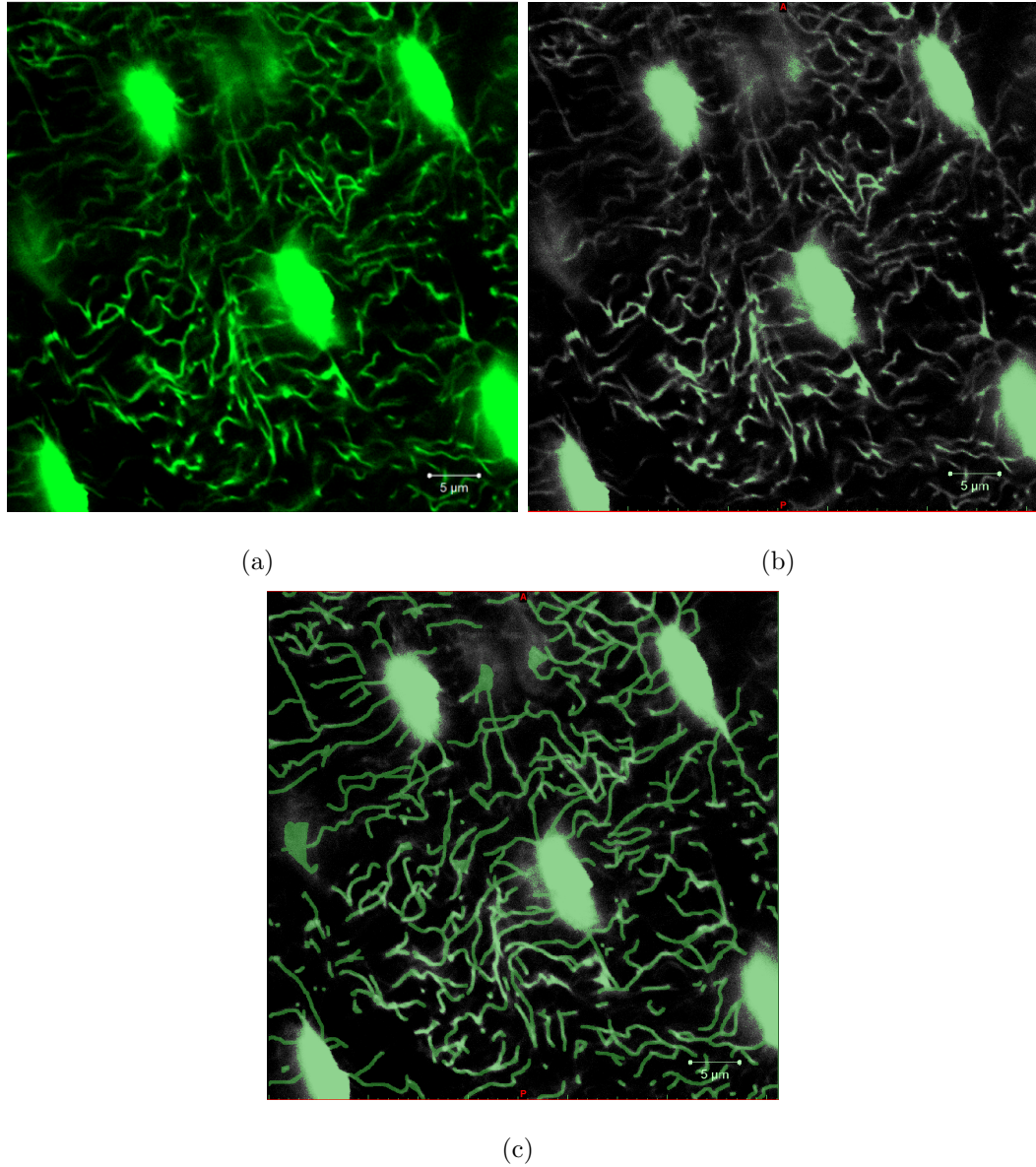


Fig. 4.2. (a) Slice 10 of the validation data z-stack. (b) Slice after being thresholded in Mimics software. (c) Manual reconstruction of the confocal image within Mimics.

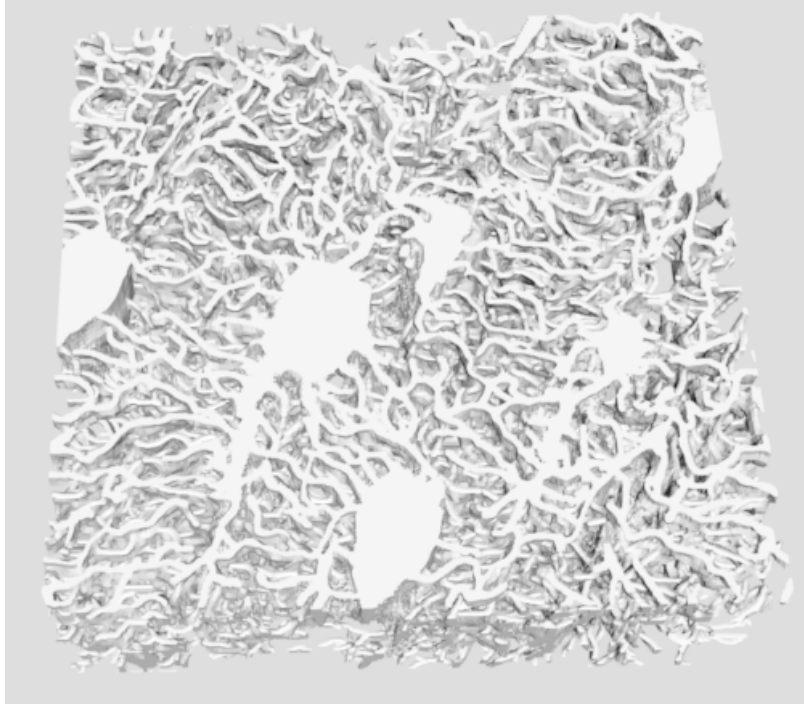


Fig. 4.3. Reconstruction in Mimics of the validation data set from the confocal z-stack.

In order to assess the code's accuracy, the variable 'runValidation' was set from '0' (false) to '1' (true) in order for the validation dataset to be analyzed. The raw 2D slices of the validation dataset were read into Matlab, segmented, masked, and then compared to the 2D slices of the Mimics-corrected dataset. The accuracy of both the lacunae and canaliculi were determined using the following equation,

$$accuracy = \frac{RegionOverlap}{RegionOverlap + ReconstructedData + RawData} \quad (4.1)$$

where *RegionOverlap* is the area of overlap of the raw dataset and the reconstructed dataset, *ReconstructedData* is the area that the reconstructed dataset demarcates as part of the LCS whereas the raw dataset does not, and *RawData* is the area that the raw dataset delineates as the part of the LCS whereas the reconstructed dataset does not.

Once the accuracy was determined, the 2D canaliculi were skeletonized on each slice [85], and an approximated average canalicular diameter was determined using the total 2D area of the canaliculi divided by the total length of the canaliculi. This diameter calculation assumes a circular cross-section for each canaliculi.

The data was next adjusted so that it was isometric. This was done by stacking each slice in multiples to equalize x-y and z resolutions. The 3D canaliculi and lacunae were then smoothed [82] [83] [84] before being segmented [86]. As it is the typical idealized structure of a lacuna, an ellipsoid was then automatically fitted to the largest volumetric imaged lacuna (lacuna of interest) by minimizing the error between the actual lacuna and the fitted ellipsoid [43] [87] [88]. In order to identify connecting, primary canaliculi, a shell of the lacuna was created by expanding its lacunar surface by a distance of twice the smallest ellipsoid axis length. The canaliculi were then skeletonized in 3D [89] [90], and the endpoints were used to identify which canaliculi directly connect to the lacuna (if an endpoint falls within the generated shell). Finally, the skeletonized canaliculi were dilated to the average canalicular diameter. The following outputs were generated for each z-stack, based upon the reconstructed z-stack: average canalicular diameter, average canalicular length, average canalicular porosity (volume fraction of the canaliculi within the volume of the z-stack), lacunar volume, canalicular density (with respect to lacunar volume). In addition, the following parameters were output to describe the fitted ellipsoid: ellipsoid diameters (1 major and 2 minors), ellipsoid orientation (major axis with respect to the z-axis), ellipsoid sphericity and oblateness, and ellipsoid surface area and volume [43].

Using Stata, Kruskal-Wallis H Tests were performed between the 20-week-old and the 52-week-old age groups for the measurements based upon the reconstructed z-stack (canalicular diameter, canalicular length, canalicular porosity, lacunar volume, and canalicular density). In order to account for the multiple comparisons, the Bonferroni correction was utilized so that the family-wise error rate remained at 5%; thus, for these 5 comparisons, a p-value less than 0.01 indicates significance. For the measurements based upon the fitting of the ellipsoid [ellipsoid diameters (1 major

and 2 minors), ellipsoid orientation (major axis with respect to the z-axis), ellipsoid sphericity and oblateness, and ellipsoid surface area and volume], Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, using Bonferroni's correction, were again performed between age groups. A p-value less than 0.00625 indicates significance due to a total of 8 comparisons made.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Confocal Imaging

Using CLSM, three z-stacks were obtained on the posterior surface of a proximal, femoral diaphyseal cross-section. A total of three mice were imaged for each age group: 20-week-old and 52-week-old. Figure 4.4 shows example z-stack slices from 20-week-old mice ((a) and (c)) and from 52-week-old mice ((b) and (d)).

Figure 4.5 illustrates slices from (a) a 20-week-old mouse z-stack and (b) a 52-week-old mouse z-stack on the medial surface of a proximal, femoral metaphyseal cross-section. These z-stacks were utilized to obtain volumetric lacunar density for each mouse age.

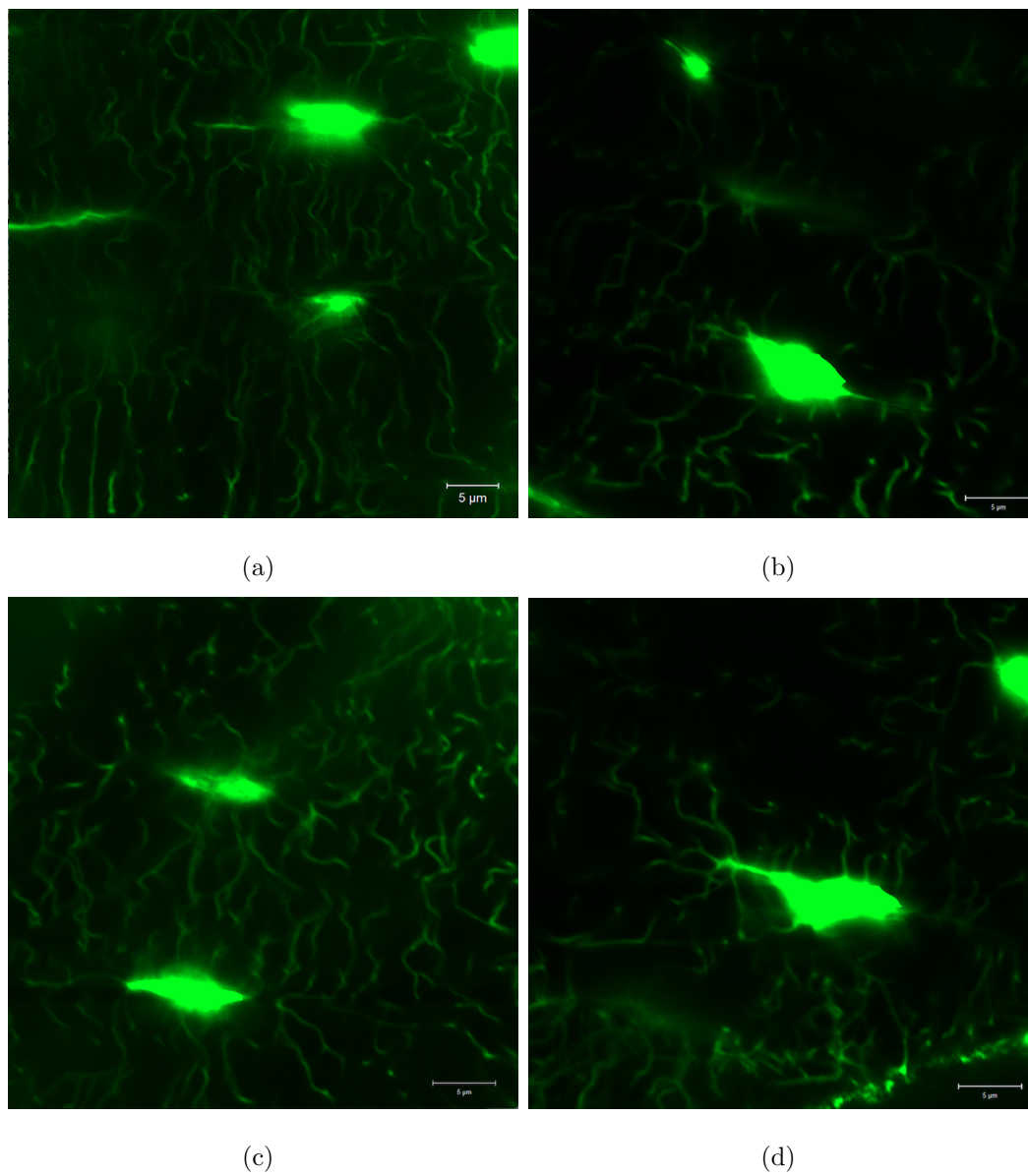


Fig. 4.4. Confocal z-stack slices to characterize the LCS in: (a) and (c) 20-week-old mice, and (b) and (d) 52-week-old mice; scale bar = 5 μm .

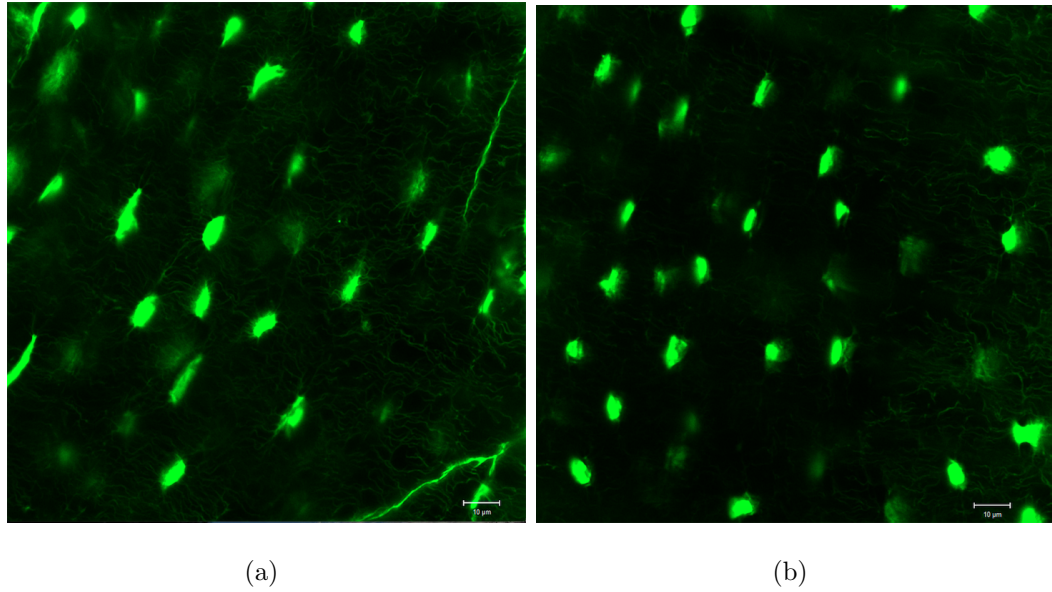


Fig. 4.5. Confocal z-stack slices to determine volumetric lacunar density: (a) 20-week-old mouse (b) 52-week-old mouse; scale bar = 10 μm .

From reconstruction of the lacunae in Mimics, the average volumetric lacunar densities for the 20-week-old and 52-week-old mice are shown in Figure 4.6. Performing a Kruskal-Wallis H test, a statistical difference in volumetric density was determined between the two ages of mice ($p=0.0463$).

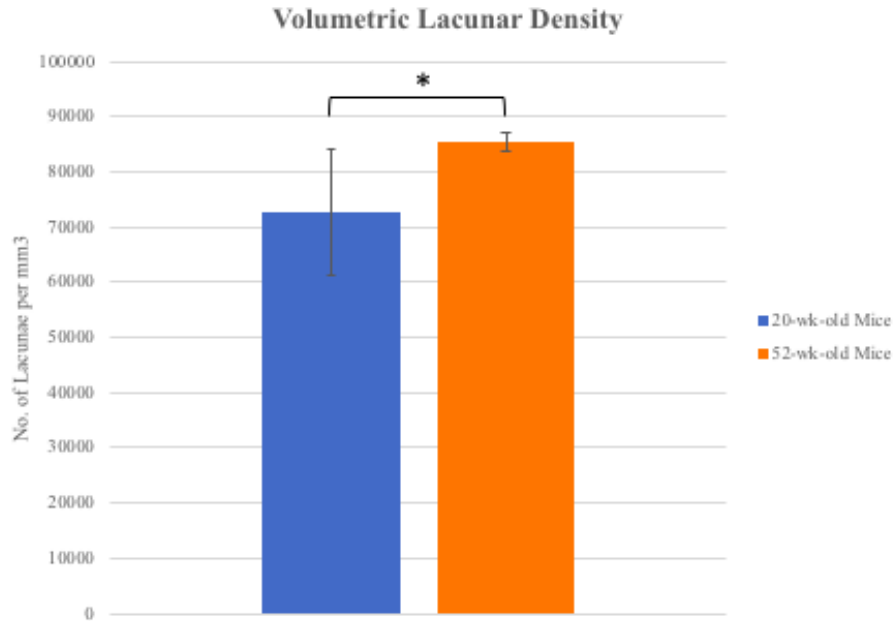


Fig. 4.6. Volumetric lacunar density for 20-week-old and 52-week-old mice (n=3). Statistical significance was found between the two groups of mice (p=0.0463); mean \pm stdev.

4.3.2 LCS 3D Reconstruction

Using the validation dataset, the overall accuracy of the code in segmenting out the LCS is 57.6%. Specifically, for segmentation of the lacunae, its accuracy is 81.7% while for the canaliculi, it is 47.6%. Slice 10 of this validation dataset, as shown in Figure 4.2, is again displayed in Figure 4.7, following implementation of the validation procedure in Matlab. The Matlab segmented lacunae and canaliculi are shown in (a) and (c), respectively. Images (b) and (d) show the overlap of the lacunae and canaliculi, respectively, from the validation dataset (pink) and the Matlab segmentation (light blue). Image (e) shows the overlay of the lacunae and canaliculi (images (b) and (d)) Overlapping regions between the Mimics and Matlab datasets are shown in white.

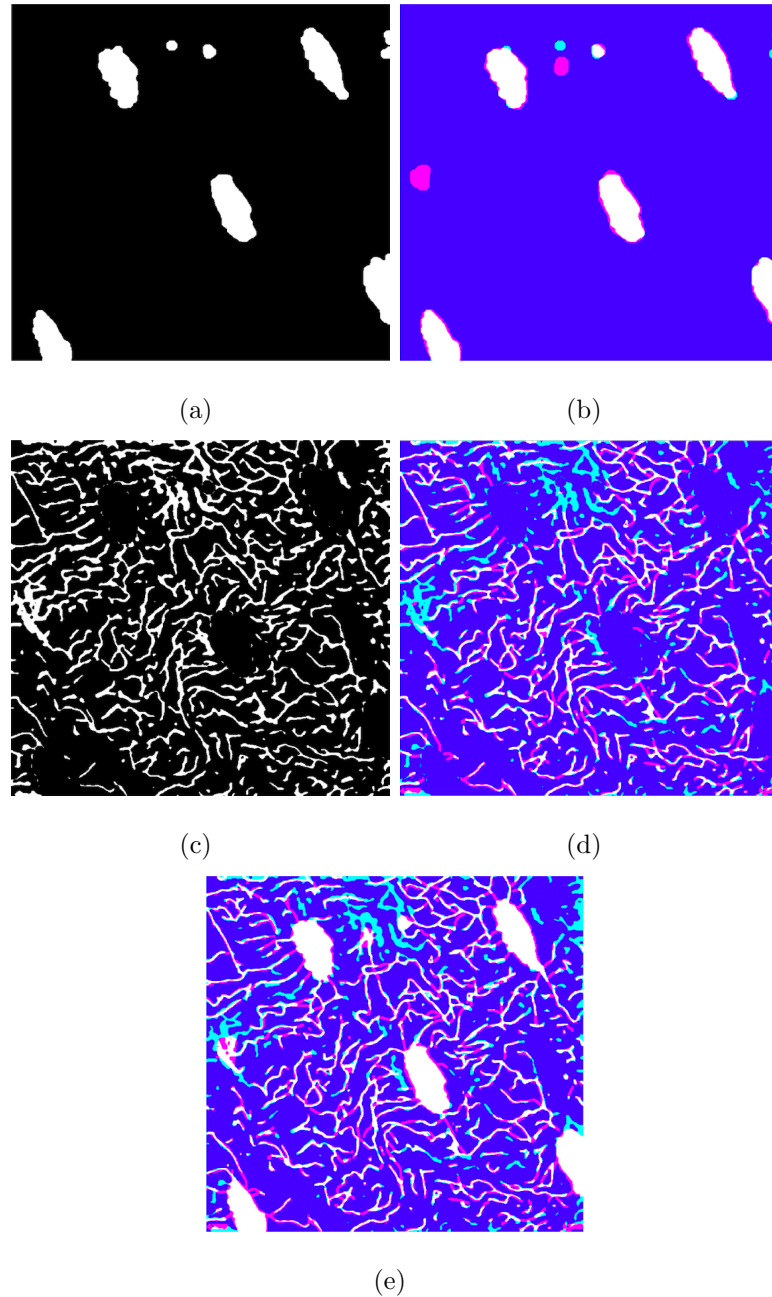


Fig. 4.7. Slice 10 of the validation dataset after processing in Matlab. (a) Processed lacunae in Matlab (b) Overlay of lacunae from the validation dataset (Mimics) and processed segmentation (Matlab). (c) Processed canaliculi in Matlab. (d) Overlay of canaliculi from the validation dataset (Mimics) and processed segmentation (Matlab). (e) Overlay of (b) and (d). Validation dataset (Mimics) = pink, processed dataset (Matlab) = light blue, overlapping region = white.

A total of 18 z-stacks were reconstructed using the custom Matlab code: 3 mice per age group (20-week-old and 52-week-old) and 3 lacunae per mouse imaged. During 3D reconstruction of individual lacuna, numerous lacunae were observed to not be ellipsoidal in shape but actually appeared to be separating or branching in the longitudinal direction, as shown in Figure 4.8(a). The yellow volume is the reconstruction of the single lacuna that appears to be splitting in the z-direction, where the top of the sample is the most proximal. The green surrounding tendrils are the reconstructed canaliculi that directly connect to the lacunae. Figure 4.8(b) shows the ellipsoid (green) that attempted to be fit to the shape of the lacuna, where the blue data points indicate the portion of the segmented lacuna that lies outside the fitted ellipsoid. From this, it becomes apparent that an ellipsoid is not an appropriate approximation when this morphology is observed. On the other hand, Figure 4.9(a) shows the reconstruction of a lacuna that is more accurately approximated as an ellipsoid (Figure 4.9(b)).

The lacunar splitting was observed in 6 out of the 9 z-stacks for the 20-week-old mice and 4 out of the 9 z-stacks for the 52-week-old mice. This splitting, or "butterfly-effect" could potentially be a distortion of the true lacuna during imaging due to the objective coming into contact with the coverslip. Thus, all of the split lacunae were removed from subsequent analyses. Figure 4.10 shows the reconstruction of the 3 ideal LCS z-stacks for the 20-week-old mice while Figure 4.11 shows the reconstruction of the 5 ideal LCS z-stacks for the 52-week-old mice. Additionally, the custom Matlab code produced full reconstructions of the lacuna of interest and all surrounding canaliculi, as shown in Figure 4.12 for the 20-week-old mice and Figure 4.13 for the 52-week-old mice.

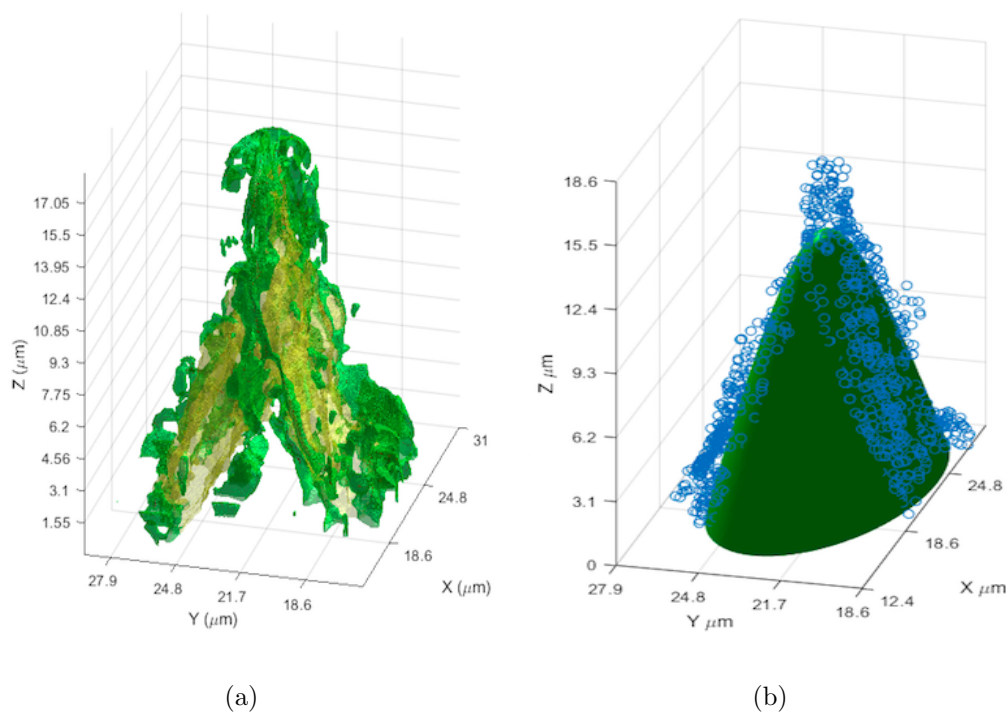


Fig. 4.8. Reconstruction of a branching ellipsoid. (a) Reconstruction of the confocal z -stack for a sample that contains a lacuna that splits in the z -direction. The yellow volume is the reconstructed lacuna volume and the green branches are the reconstructed canaliculi that directly connect to the lacuna. (b) Approximated ellipsoidal fit of the lacuna in (a). The green shape is the fitted ellipsoid and the blue data points indicate the portion of the segmented lacunae that lie outside the fitted shape.

Because of the splitting lacunae, sample sizes were decreased, 3 z -stacks for the 20-week-old mice and 5 z -stacks for the 52-week-old mice. If the z -stacks are treated as independent of the mouse, higher sample sizes can be utilized. Genetically, all of the mice are identical. In addition, each lacuna in the mice undergo their own individual modeling and remodeling processes to grow and adapt; thus, each lacuna (or z -stack sample) can be considered independent of the mouse. In order to quantitatively support this - whether all of the samples in each age group could be treated independently - Kruskal-Wallis H Tests (for the raw measurements and for the fitted ellipsoid measurements) were performed for each age group to determine if any depen-

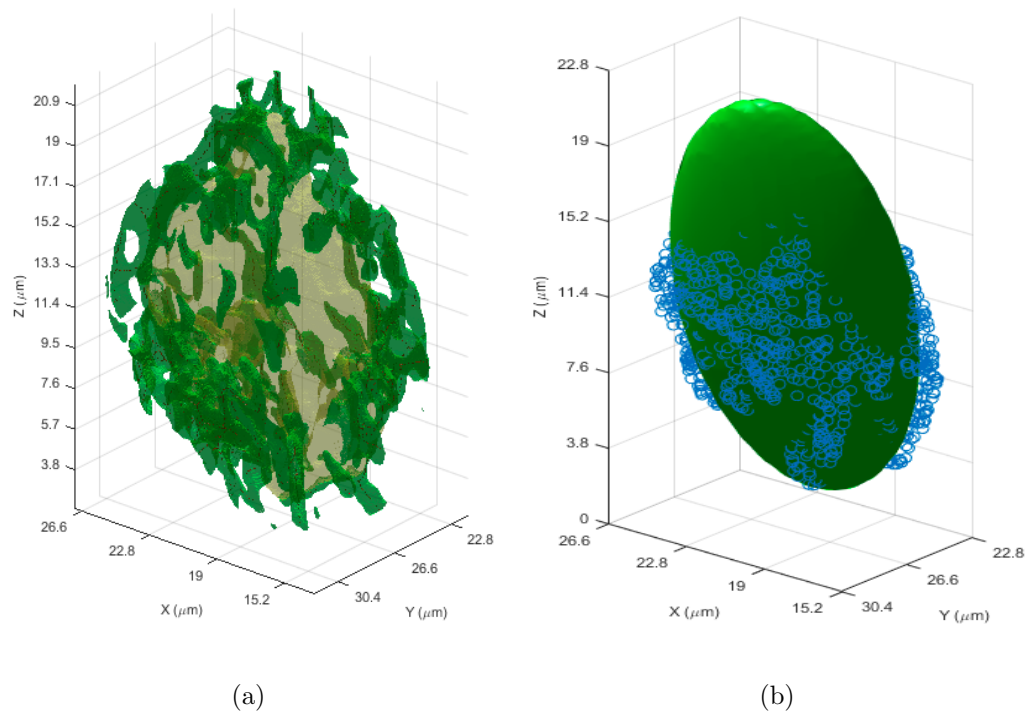


Fig. 4.9. Reconstruction of an ideal ellipsoid. (a) Reconstruction of a confocal z-stack that captures a full lacuna. The yellow volume is the reconstructed lacuna volume and the green branches are the reconstructed canaliculi that directly connect to the lacuna. (b) Ellipsoidal fit of the lacuna in (a). The green shape is the fitted ellipsoid and the blue data points indicate the portion of the segmented lacunae that lie outside the fitted shape.

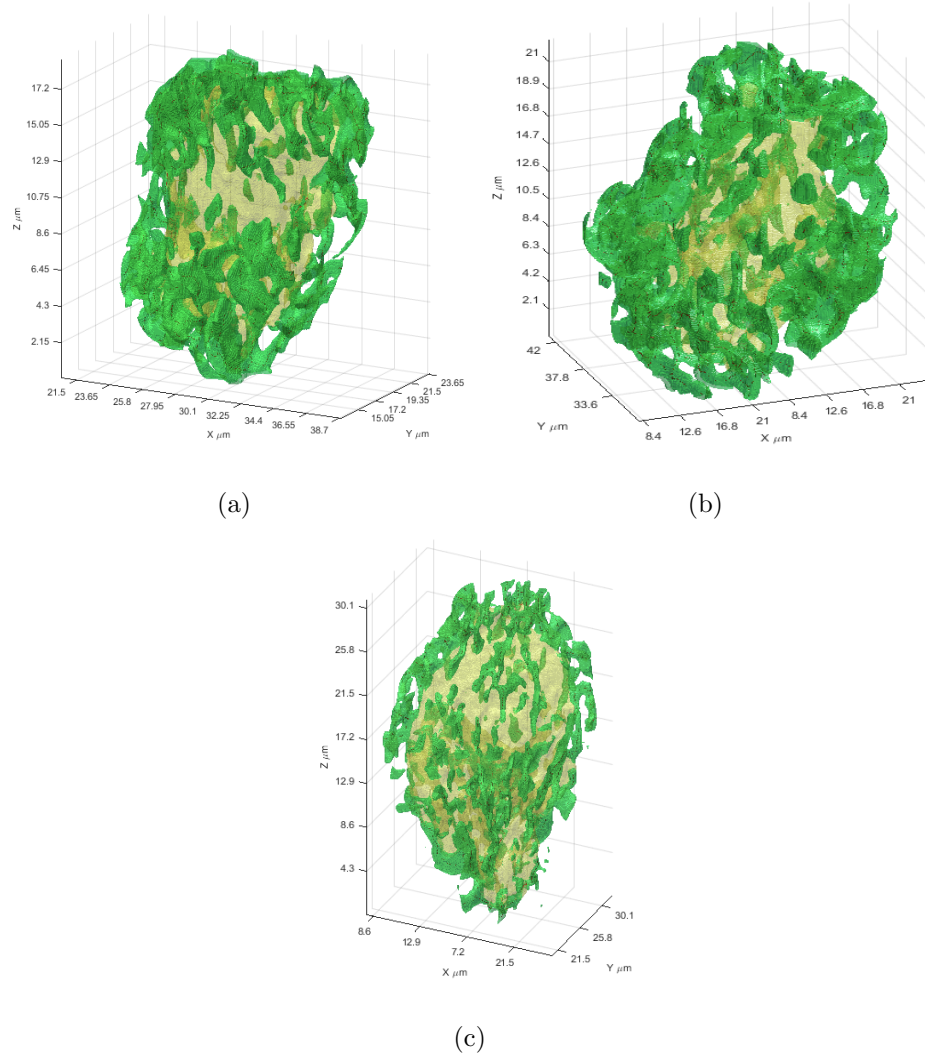


Fig. 4.10. Reconstructions of the 3 ideal lacunae (yellow) and connecting canaliculi (green) for the 20-week-old mice.

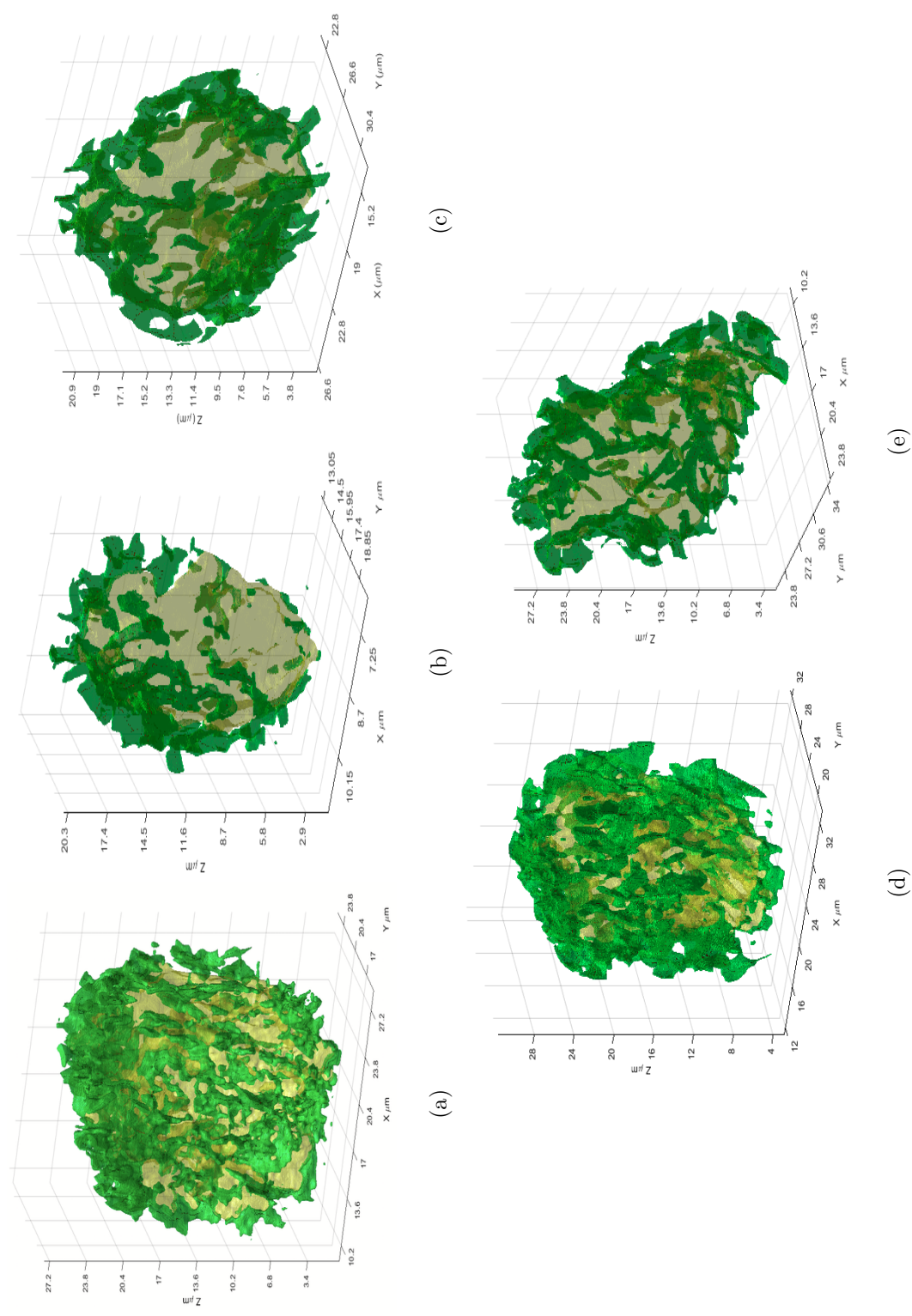


Fig. 4.11. Reconstructions of the 5 ideal lacunae (yellow) and connecting canaliculi (green) for the 52-week-old mice.

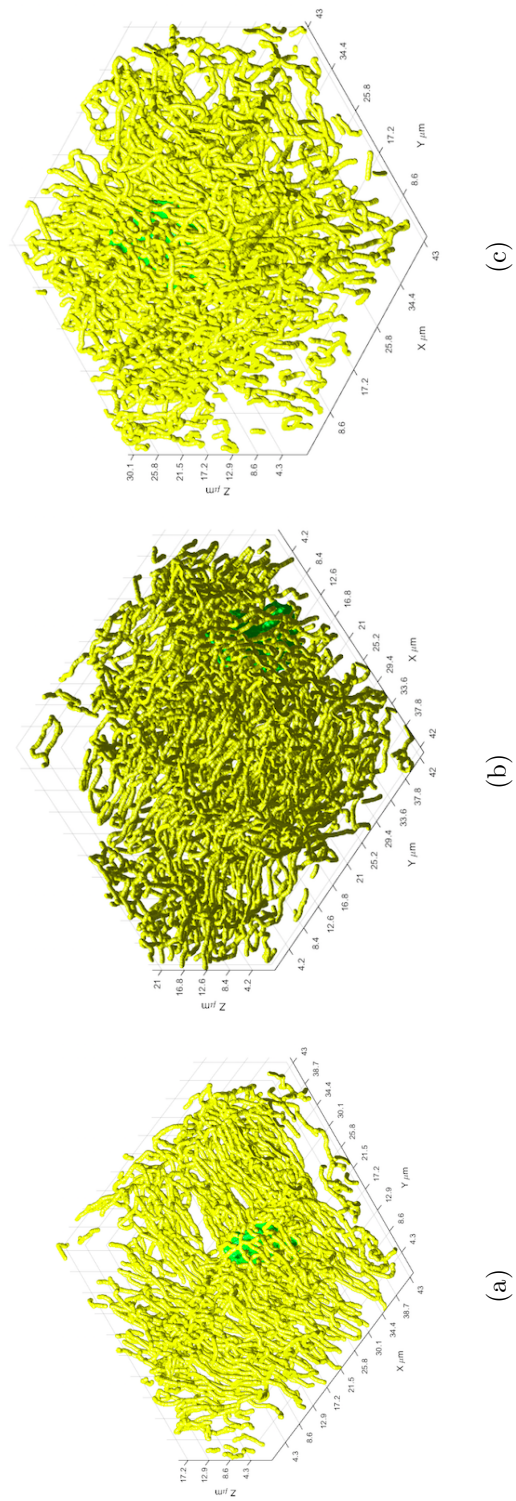


Fig. 4.12. Full reconstruction of a lacuna of interest (green) and the surrounding reconstructed canaliculi (yellow) from 20-week-old mice.

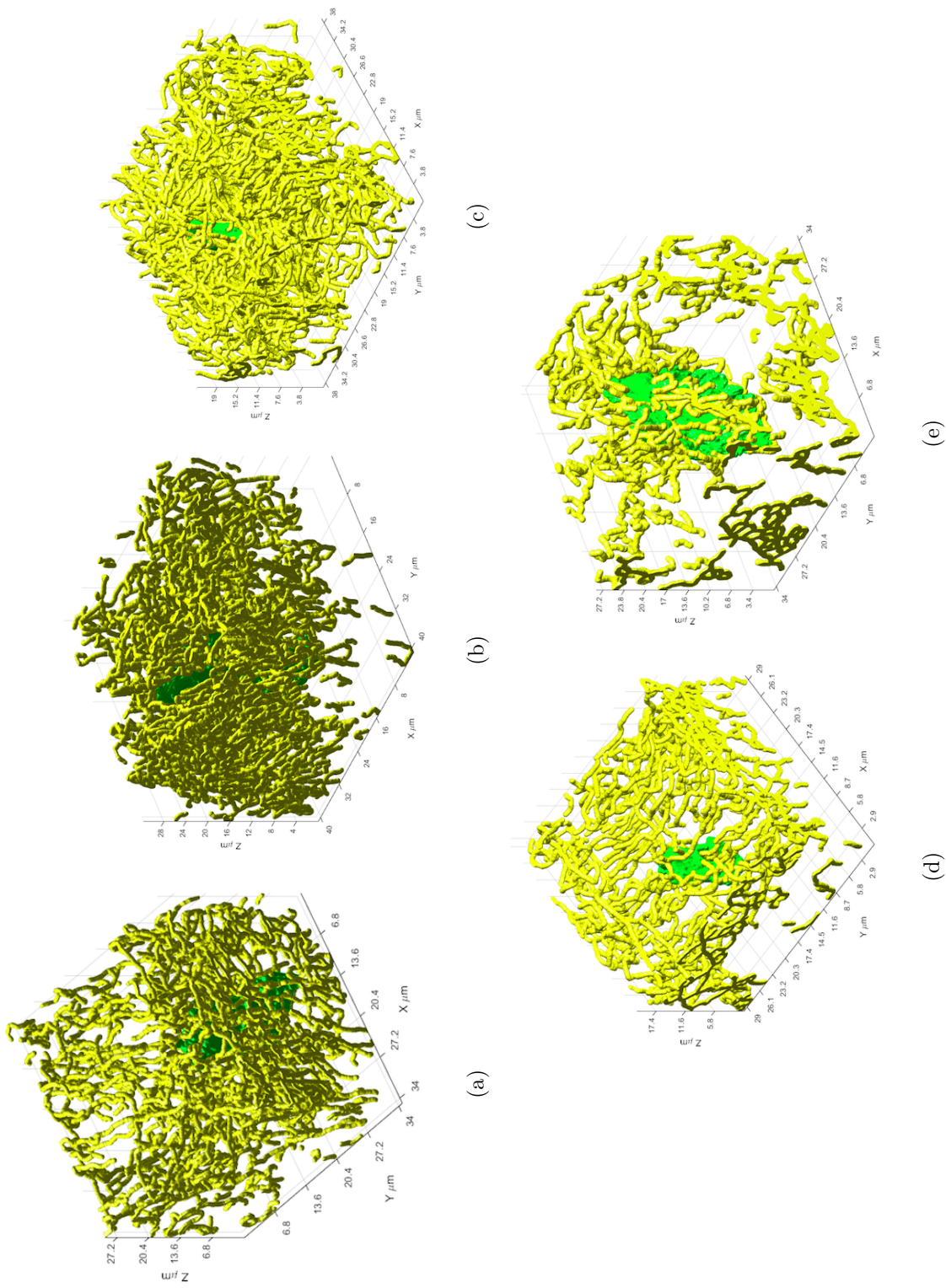


Fig. 4.13. Full reconstruction of a lacuna of interest (green) and the surrounding reconstructed canaliculi (yellow) from 52-week-old mice.

dence exists between the mouse and its measurements, using Bonferroni's correction to account for multiple comparisons. For both age groups, each raw measurement did not depend upon the mouse from which the sample came ($p > 0.01$). Similarly, each ellipsoid fitted measurement also did not depend upon the mouse ($p > 0.00625$). Thus, the samples in each age group were considered to be independent of mouse when performing the following analyses.

In regard to characterization of the raw reconstructed z-stacks, the average canalicular (a) diameter, (b) length, and (c) porosity were determined for each age group ($n=3$ for 20-week-old, $n=5$ for 52-week-old), as shown in Figure 4.14. Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were detected between age group and any of the measures. Figure 4.15 shows the volumes for both the lacunae and for the fitted ellipsoids and also the connecting canalicular density (with respect to lacunar volume). No statistical differences were found for either the lacunar volume or the canalicular density ($p > 0.01$) or the ellipsoid volume ($p > 0.00625$) with respect to age group ($n=3$ for 20-week-old, $n=5$ for 52-week-old).

The surface area of the ellipsoid and its three diameters of are shown in Figure 4.16 for each age group, where 'LacDia1' is the major axis diameter and 'LacDia2' and 'LacDia3' are the two minor axis diameters. Additionally, Figure 4.17 shows the lacunar ellipsoid (a) sphericity, (b) oblateness, and (c) orientation of the major diameter with respect to the z-axis. A sphericity measure of 1 indicates that the ellipsoid is perfectly spherical while an oblateness measures of -1 and +1 indicates that the ellipsoid is either perfectly prolate (rod-shaped) or perfectly oblate (plate-shaped), respectively [43]. Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests Tests, no statistical differences were detected between age group and ellipsoid parameters ($p > 0.00625$).

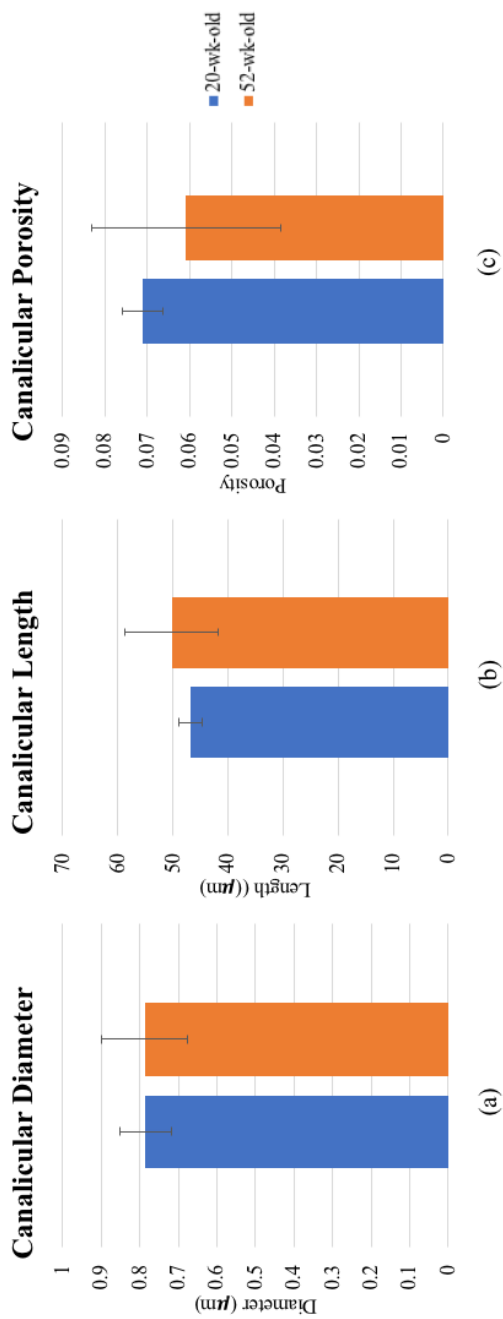


Fig. 4.14. Characterization of canalicular (a) diameter, (b) length, and (c) porosity in 20-week-old and 52-week-old female mouse femora (n=3 for 20-week-old, n=5 for 52-week-old). Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were determined between age group and the measured parameters (p-value>0.01); mean \pm stdev.

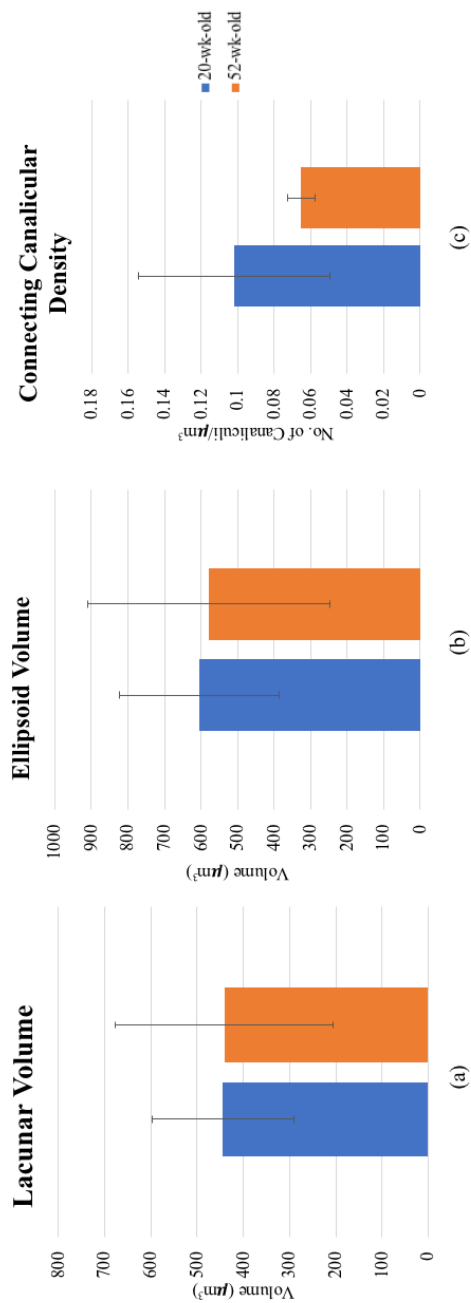


Fig. 4.15. Characterization of true and approximate lacunar volumes and the connecting canalicular density. (a) Volume of segmented lacunae and (b) volume of fitted ellipsoid in 20-week-old and 52-week-old female mouse femora. (c) Density of connecting canaliculi to the lacunar volume. Using Bonferroni corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were found for either the lacunar volume and its connecting canalicular density ($p > 0.01$) or the ellipsoid volume ($p > 0.00625$) ($n=3$ for 20-week-old, $n=5$ for 52-week-old); mean \pm stdev.

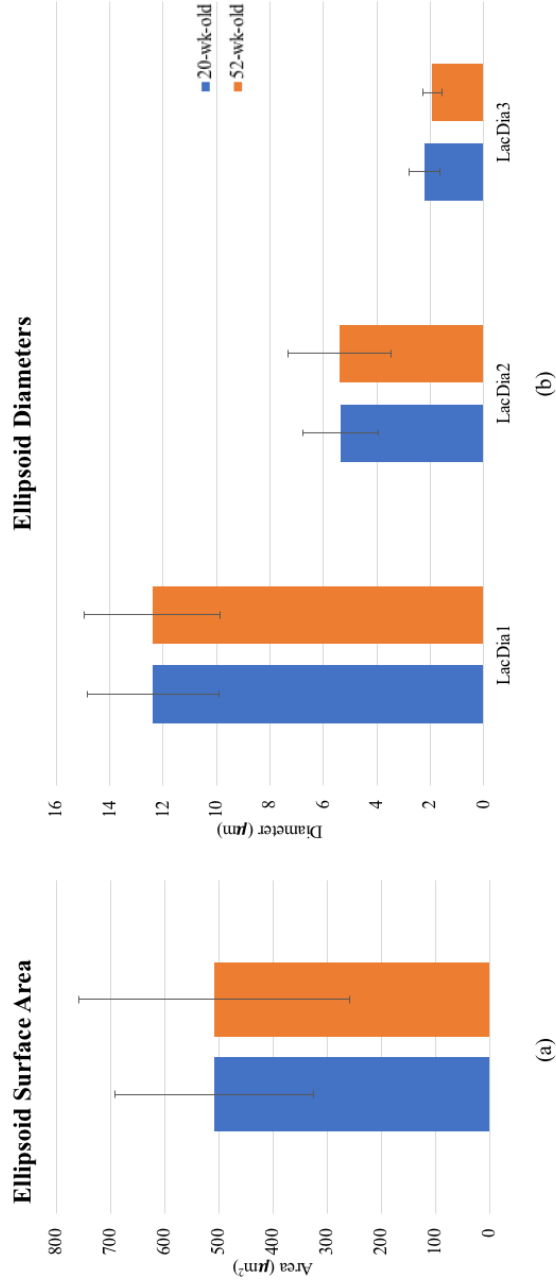


Fig. 4.16. (a) Surface area of fitted lacunar ellipsoids. (b) Lacunar ellipsoid diameters in 20-week-old and 52-week-old female mouse femora, where 'LacDia1' is the major diameter and 'LacDia2' and 'LacDia3' are the two minor diameters (n=3 for 20-week-old, n=5 for 52-week-old). Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were determined between age and any of the lacunar diameters ($p > 0.0056$); mean \pm stdev. Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were determined ($p > 0.00625$); mean \pm stdev.

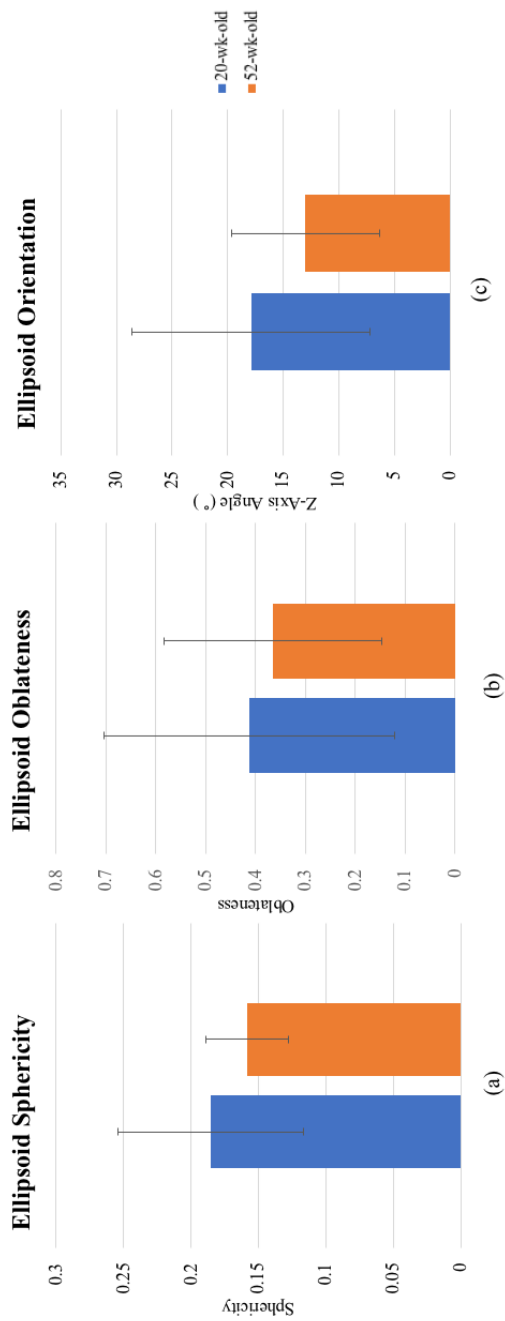


Fig. 4.17. Characterization of lacunar ellipsoid (a) sphericity, (b) oblateness, and (c) orientation in 20-week-old and 52-week-old female mouse femora ($n=3$ for 20-week-old, $n=5$ for 52-week-old). A sphericity measure of 1 indicates that the ellipsoid is perfectly spherical while an oblateness measure of -1 and +1 indicates that the ellipsoid is either perfectly prolate (rod-shaped) or perfectly oblate (plate-shaped), respectively [43]. Using Bonferroni-corrected Kruskal-Wallis H Tests, no statistical differences were determined between age and any of these measured characteristics ($p > 0.00625$); mean \pm stdev.

4.4 Discussion

In order to remain consistent for each z-stack, the same CLSM settings were utilized for each z-stack for LCS characterization and also for volumetric lacunar density imaging, respectively. While optimal when comparing across the samples, the quality of staining, thus, greatly influenced the CLSM and reconstruction results. From the results shown in Figure 4.4, the staining and imaging quality appears to be suboptimal for the 52-week-old samples as compared to the 20-week-old mice. Presumably, this difference in staining and imaging resulted from the sample preparation. While all samples were ground down to an approximate thickness of $150\mu m$, there was no way to verify the overall levelness and flatness of the cross-sections. The levelness would influence the orientation at which the LCS is being viewed, impacting whether it is a true transverse cross-section. Sectioning of the samples would need to better take this into account. In addition, flatness of the sample greatly affects the surface staining of the sample. An uneven surface, or scratches produced by the grinding the sample, led to areas of fluorescent streaking, impeding the quality of the z-stacks. Utilization of a finer grit, such as 1200 or 1500 grit paper, would aid in a smoother surface and eliminate the "butterfly effect" that was observed.

While the quality of the z-stacks for LCS characterization varied due to staining, the intensity of staining for the z-stacks obtained for volumetric lacunar density analysis were more uniform. As the lacunae are several orders of magnitude larger than the canaliculi, the penetration of the Alexa 488 was much less of an issue or concern. Using Mimics, the average volumetric lacunar densities for the 20-week-old and 52-week-old mice were determined to be approximately $72,600 \text{ lacunae}/mm^3$ and $85,400 \text{ lacunae}/mm^3$, respectively. These averages fall within the typical range reported in the literature ($40,0000 \text{ lacunae}/mm^3$ - $90,000 \text{ lacunae}/mm^3$) [31] [37] [41] [91] and were found to be statistically significant using a Kruskal-Wallis H test. However, previous studies have shown that areal lacunar density decreases as a function of age in humans [92] [93]. Additionally, a decrease in volumetric lacunar density in mice

with respect to age has been reported, when comparing 20-week-old and 88-week-old mice [94], as well as a decrease in areal lacunar density between 15-week-old and 32-week-old mice [95]. While these other studies include either young mice (15-week-old) or old mice (88-week-old), the comparison made here was with young adult (20-week-old mice) and adult (52-week-old) mice; moreover, the limited sample size of 3 for each age group needs to be increased in order to determine if this significant change is robust and anatomically correct.

With regards to the LCS 3D reconstruction, the initial validation on the automatic 2D segmentation resulted in a 81.7%, 47.6%, and 57.6% accuracies in segmenting out lacunae, canaliculi, and the LCS as a whole, respectively. While the canaliculi accuracy is lower than desired, the code currently is able to quickly segment the LCS in approximately 1 - 2 hours. More rigorous methods could be employed to reach a higher accuracy, but the computation time would dramatically increase as well as the need for more advanced computing resources to manage the data. Additionally, only one validation dataset was created and tested due to the time demands of manual reconstruction. In order to more accurately validate the code, more than one validation dataset needs to be created, by different users to avoid bias. Moreover, these additional datasets would include higher magnifications to more closely model those which were processed to characterize the LCS. Thus, given the single validation dataset and time and computing constraints, the custom reconstruction code's accuracies were deemed to be acceptable.

While the lacunae and canaliculi have been manually segmented and reconstructed [5] [38] [35] [37] [44], this is the first time, to the author's knowledge, that a custom, automated method has been utilized to reconstruct both the lacunae *and* the canaliculi. From these reconstructions, the dense network of the LCS can be visualized and utilized for predictive modeling, such as finite element analyses. In addition to the three-dimensional reconstruction, key characteristics of the structure of LCS were obtained. To illustrate the capabilities of the reconstruction code, 20-week-old and 52-week-old femora metaphyseal sections were obtained from female mice. Table 4.1

displays the measured values that were obtained during this study for the 20-week-old and 52-week-old mice as well as the range for each variable that has been previously reported. While the diameter of canaliculi have been reported to range from 0.095 - 0.55 μm [35] [37], the average canalicular diameter for the age groups in this study ranged from 0.78 - 0.79 μm . This apparent overestimation of the canalicular diameter could explain the 47.6% accuracy of the code in segmenting out the canaliculi. Using the previously mentioned techniques to improve sample preparation and staining would allow for an enhanced signal-to-noise ratio when imaging. The canalicular length and porosity and the lacunar volume for both age groups fall within the ranges found. For the canalicular density, the 52-week-old mice appear to have a lower number of connecting canaliculi than previously published values. This may tie back into the fact that these older sections did not stain as well as the younger bone.

Finally, an ellipsoid was fit to the reconstructed lacunae to approximate characteristics regarding its shape. Table 4.2 summarizes the data obtained here for the fitted ellipsoid as well as the ranges for these values that have been reported in the literature. The ellipsoids produced in this study were more prolate and less spherical, for both age groups, than those previously reported [43] [96] and more aligned with the z-axis [96]. The diameters of the major and minor axes of the ellipsoid are within or fall just outside the ranges for typical ellipsoid fits [31] [32] [33] [42] [96]. While the volume of the ellipsoid agrees with previous findings [43], it appears to overestimate the actual volume of the lacunae. For both age groups, the average ellipsoid volume overestimated the actual average volume of the lacunae by approximately 150 μm . Thus, while an ellipsoid may be a decent approximation of the lacunar morphology, these results indicate that it may not always be the most accurate.

Table 4.1.

Measured parameters of the LCS using the custom Matlab reconstruction code (n=3 for 20-week-old mice, n=5 for 52-week-old mice) compared to ranges previously reported within literature.

	Measured Values			Reported Values		
	Age	Mean \pm stdev	Low	Method	High	Method
Canalicular Diameter (μm)	20	0.785 \pm 0.066	0.095	FIB/SEM, murine femora [35]	0.553	CLSM, rat tibiae [37]
	52	0.788 \pm 0.111				
Canalicular Length (μm)	20	46.875 \pm 2.142	23	CLSM, murine tibiae [97]	50	CLSM, murine tibiae [97]
	52	50.196 \pm 8.441				
Canalicular Porosity	20	0.071 \pm 0.005	0.007	FIB/SEM, murine femora [35]	0.14	CLSM, rat tibiae [37]
	52	0.061 \pm 0.022				
Lacunar Volume (μm^3)	20	443.968 \pm 153.410	290	SR- μ CT, human femur [31]	455	CLSM, human hip [40]
	52	441.117 \pm 234.813				
Canalicular Density (Number/ μm^3)	20	0.102 \pm 0.053; (52.667 \pm 25.007 canaliculi/lacuna)	49.7	CLSM, murine calvaria [98]	83.9	CLSM, rat tibiae [37]
	52	0.065 \pm 0.008; (28.400 \pm 15.060 canaliculi/lacuna)				

Table 4.2.

Measured parameters of the fitted ellipsoid to the a lacuna of interest using the custom Matlab reconstruction code (n=3 for 20-week-old mice, n=5 for 52-week-old mice) compared to ranges previously reported within literature.

	Measured Values		Reported Values		
	Age	Mean stdev	Low	Method	High
Ellipsoid Diameter (major) (μm)	20	12.378 ± 2.451	8.96	SR- μ CT, human femur [31]	28.7
	52	12.405 ± 2.546			
Ellipsoid Diameter (large minor) (μm)	20	5.358 ± 1.430	5.51	SR- μ CT, rat femora [96]	8.86
	52	5.400 ± 1.930			
Ellipsoid Diameter (small minor) (μm)	20	2.216 ± 0.567	2.00	CLSM, chick calveria [33]	5.16
	52	1.922 ± 0.672			
Ellipsoid Sphericity	20	0.185 ± 0.068	0.283	CLSM, murine tibiae [43]	0.790
	52	0.158 ± 0.031			
Ellipsoid Oblateness	20	0.411 ± 0.292	-0.316	CLSM, murine tibiae [43]	0.080
	52	0.365 ± 0.218			
Ellipsoid Surface Area (μm^2)	20	509.166 ± 183.769	195	CLSM, murine tibiae [43]	460
	52	509.085 ± 250.514			
Ellipsoid Volume (μm^3)	20	604.633 ± 218.021	200	CLSM, murine tibiae [43]	750
	52	578.603 ± 330.213			
Ellipsoid Orientation ($^\circ$)	20	17.879 ± 10.713	23	SR- μ CT, rat femora [96]	37
	52	13.017 ± 6.666			

5. CONCLUSIONS & FUTURE WORK

Mathematical and computational modeling are powerful tools to illustrate the flow profiles within the LCS and to also extrapolate conclusions regarding the mechanosensory capabilities of skeletal tissue. In order to implement such models, assumptions concerning the properties and characteristics are typically made to simplify the analysis. In particular, within the interstitial space of the LCS, a glycocalyx has been assumed to exist in various models. However, from this work, the flow profile within this interstitial space is extremely sensitive to the presence of such a glycocalyx. Its physical structure greatly impacts the permeability of fluid within this space, which can alter the flow. In fact, from the sensitivity analyses presented here, the flow profile can mimic Brinkman, Darcy, or Poiseuille flow depending on the structure of the glycocalyx. Elucidating the dominating flow profile will provide insight into the main mechanotransductive mechanisms that may be playing a role in bone modeling and remodeling. Thus, the nanostructure of the glycocalyx needs to be fully characterized. Predictive models need to modify the assumptions typically made regarding the presence and structure of the glycocalyx and enable it to be a variable. Moreover, this mixture theory model should be expanded to additional cases, such as compression-driven and bending-driven flow, which are more physiologically relevant scenarios when osteocytes are stimulated.

From this work, an automated segmentation and reconstruction code was developed to reconstruct the LCS of cortical bone. This enables quicker and less biased segmentation of the lacunae and canaliculi for more accurate characterization of the LCS, which can then be utilized with computational modeling for fluid analyses. While the code presents promising results, additional validation datasets need to be produced and run in order to improve its segmentation accuracy. Furthermore, improved sample preparation techniques and a smaller z-step, perhaps even imaging on

longitudinal sections, will produce more rigorous results due to noise reduction from staining and less uncertainty between slices. Enhanced staining techniques may also allow for an increased probability in obtaining full lacunae z-stacks. These refinements would further more accurate modeling in determining the main mechanotransductive signal(s) involved in bone modeling and remodeling.

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APPENDICES

A. MATHEMATICAL MODEL SOURCE CODE

A.1 γ Function Sensitivity Analysis

```

1 %Variable input: Low, high inputs for each n number variables
   . Input such
2 %that first and second inputs are low and then high value of
   1st variable (respectively),
3 %third and fourth inputs are the low and high of the 2nd
   variable , etc.
4
5 varargin = [75e-9 422e-9 0.5e-9 4.9e-9 6e-9 10e-9 0.5e-9 4.9e
   -9 6e-9 10e-9];
6 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
   to the number of inputs/2
7 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
   need to be performed
8
9 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
10 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
   zeros
11 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
   matrix
12 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low , low_identity); %combines zero
   and identity matrices
13
14 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables

```

```

15 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
    zeros
16 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
17 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity, all_high); %combines
    zero and identity matrices
18
19 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
    values, in the
20 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
21 for i = 1:1:n/2
22     for m = 1:1:variables
23         values(i, m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i, m))
                ;
24         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i, m)
                );
25     end
26 end
27
28 %Looping through all of the trials
29 for i = 1:1:n
30     m = 1;
31     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
32     b(i,1) = values(i,1); %radius of the osteocyte cell
        process
33     Dv(i,1) = values(i,2); %diameter of vertical fibers
34     Lv(i,1) = values(i,3); %length of vertical fibers
35     Dh(i,1) = values(i,4); %diameter of horizontal fibers

```

```

36     r(i,1) = values(i,5); %length of horizontal fibers
37
38     %Equations from Sander et al. 2003
39     %Determine volume fractions based on glycoalyx
        nanostructure (rectangular
40     %unit cell)
41     phi_s(i,1) = pi/4*((Dv(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1) + (2*Dh(i,1)^2*(r(i
        ,1) - Dv(i,1)))))/(r(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)); %volume fraction
        of the solid glycoalyx
42     phi_f(i,1) = 1 - phi_s(i,1); %volume of the interstitial
        fluid flow
43
44     %Calculate vertical permeability of glycoalyx given
        defined nanostructure
45     Aw(i,1) = pi*(Dv(i,1)*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)) + 2*Dh(i,1)*(r(i
        ,1)-Dv(i,1))); %Wetted surface of the unit cell
46     Cl(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)))/(log(r(i,1)^2/(pi*(Dv(
        i,1)/2))) - 1.476 + (2*pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/r(i,1)^2) - (
        pi^2*(Dv(i,1)/2)^4/(2*r(i,1)^4)) - 0.0150*((pi*(Dv(i
        ,1)/2)^2/r(i,1)^2)^4/(1 + (1.520*(pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/r(i
        ,1)^2)^4)));
47     Ct(i,1) = (4*pi*(r(i,1)-Dv(i,1)))/(log(r(i,1)/(Dh(i,1)/2)
        ) - 1.311 + (pi*(Dh(i,1)/2)^2/r(i,1)^2) - (pi^2*(Dh(i
        ,1)/2)^4/(2*r(i,1)^4)) - 8.756*((Dh(i,1)/2)/r(i,1))^4
        + 63.212*((Dh(i,1)/2)/r(i,1))^6);
48     Cd(i,1) = (128*r(i,1)^2*Aw(i,1)*Lv(i,1))/(pi*(r(i,1)-Dv(i
        ,1))^2);

```

```

49     K(i,1) = r(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)/(Cl(i,1) + 2*Ct(i,1) + Cd(i,1))
        ; %permeability of the glycocalyx in the vertical
        direction

50

51     gamma(i,1) = (b(i,1))/(sqrt(phi_f(i,1)*K(i,1)));
52 end

53

54 sum_measures = 0;
55 for j = 1:1:variables
56     contrast_odd(1,j) = 1/4*((gamma(2*variables+2,1) - gamma(
        j+variables+1,1)) + (gamma(j+1,1)- gamma(1,1)));
57     contrast_even(1,j) = 1/4*((gamma(2*variables+2,1) - gamma
        (j+variables+1,1)) - (gamma(j+1,1)- gamma(1,1)));
58     measure(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd(1,j)) + abs(contrast_even
        (1,j));
59     sum_measures = sum_measures + measure(1,j);
60 end

61

62 for j = 1:1:variables
63     sens(1,j) = measure(1,j)/sum_measures;
64 end

65

66 %Sensitivity analysis for the gamma function
67 names = {'b', 'Dv', 'Lv', 'Dh', 'Lh'};
68 bar(sens(1,:), 0.4)
69 xlabel('Parameter')
70 ylabel('Sensitivity')
71 title('\gamma Term Sensitivity Analysis')
72 hold on

```

```

73 plot(xlim, [.20, .20], ':')
74 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)

```

A.2 ϕ^s Sensitivity Analysis

```

1 %Variable input: Low, high inputs for each n number variables
  . Input such
2 %that first and second inputs are low and then high value of
  1st variable (respectively),
3 %third and fourth inputs are the low and high of the 2nd
  variable, etc.
4
5 %Variables for Cotter's Method Sensitivity analysis
6 varargin = [0.5e-9 5.9e-9 6e-9 10e-9 4.75e-9 5.9e-9 6e-9 7.25
  e-9];
7 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
  to the number of inputs/2
8 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
  need to be performed
9
10 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
11 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
  zeros
12 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
  matrix
13 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low, low_identity); %combines zero
  and identity matrices
14
15 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables

```



```

16 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
    zeros
17 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
18 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity, all_high); %combines
    zero and identity matrices
19
20 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
    values, in the
21 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
22 for i = 1:1:n/2
23     for m = 1:1:variables
24         values(i, m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i, m))
                ;
25         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i, m)
                );
26     end
27 end
28
29 %Define constants within the system (fluid = PBS)
30 mu = 0.0007; %viscosity of the fluid
31 rho_f_true = 1000; %true density of the fluid
32
33 %Looping through all of the trials
34 for i = 1:1:n
35     m = 1;
36     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
37     Dv(i,1) = values(i,1); %diameter of vertical fibers

```

```

38     Lv(i,1) = values(i,2); %length of vertical fibers
39     Dh(i,1) = values(i,3); %diameter of horizontal fibers
40     Lh(i,1) = values(i,4); %length of horizontal fibers
41
42     %Equations from Sander et al. 2003
43     %Determine volume fractions based on glycoalyx
         nanostructure (rectangular
44     %unit cell)
45     phi_s(i,1) = pi/4*((Dv(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1) + (2*Dh(i,1)^2*(Lh(
         i,1) - Dv(i,1)))))/(Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)); %volume
         fraction of the solid glycoalyx
46 end
47
48 sum_measures = 0;
49 for j = 1:1:variables
50     contrast_odd(1,j) = 1/4*((phi_s(2*variables+2,1) - phi_s(
         j+variables+1,1)) + (phi_s(j+1,1)- phi_s(1,1)));
51     contrast_even(1,j) = 1/4*((phi_s(2*variables+2,1) - phi_s
         (j+variables+1,1)) - (phi_s(j+1,1)- phi_s(1,1)));
52     measure(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd(1,j)) + abs(contrast_even
         (1,j));
53     sum_measures = sum_measures + measure(1,j);
54 end
55
56 for j = 1:1:variables
57     sens(1,j) = measure(1,j)/sum_measures;
58 end
59
60 %Plots sensitivity analysis of the solid volume fraction

```

```

61 figure(1)
62 bar(sens(1,:), 0.4)
63 xlabel('Parameter')
64 ylabel('Sensitivity')
65 title('\phi^s Sensitivity Analysis (Glycocaylx)')
66 hold on
67 plot(xlim, [.25, .25], ':')
68 names = {'Dv', 'Lv', 'Dh', 'Lh', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'};
69 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)

```

A.3 Brinkman Velocity and Shear Stress Sensitivity Analysis

```

1 %Variable input: Low, high inputs for each n number variables
  . Input such
2 %that first and second inputs are low and then high value of
  1st variable (respectively),
3 %third and fourth inputs are the low and high of the 2nd
  variable, etc.
4
5 varargin = [0.245 0.819 75e-9 422e-9 0.5e-9 6e-9 6e-9 10e-9
  0.5e-9 4.75e-9 7.25e-9 10e-9 -11.87e3/6e-3 -15.87e3/6e-3
  21.6e-6 84e-6];
6 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
  to the number of inputs/2
7 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
  need to be performed
8
9 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
10 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
  zeros

```

```

11 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
12 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low , low_identity); %combines zero
    and identity matrices
13
14 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables
15 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
    zeros
16 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
17 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity , all_high); %combines
    zero and identity matrices
18
19 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
    values , in the
20 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
21 for i = 1:1:n/2
22     for m = 1:1:variables
23         values(i , m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i , m))
                ;
24         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i , m)
                );
25     end
26 end
27
28 %Define constants within the system (fluid = PBS)
29 mu = 0.0007; %viscosity of the fluid
30 rho_f_true = 1000; %true density of the fluid
31

```

```

32 %Looping through all of the trials
33 for i = 1:1:n
34     m = 1;
35     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
36     ab(i,1) = values(i,1); %radius of the osteocyte cell
        process
37     b(i,1) = values(i,2); %radius of the canaliculus
38     Dv(i,1) = values(i,3); %diameter of vertical fibers
39     Lv(i,1) = values(i,4); %length of vertical fibers
40     Dh(i,1) = values(i,5); %diameter of horizontal fibers
41     Lh(i,1) = values(i,6); %length of horizontal fibers
42     dp_dz(i,1) = values(i,7); %pressure gradient down the
        length of the canaliculus
43     v_o(i,1) = values(i,8); %initial velocity of the fluid
44
45     %Equations from Sander et al. 2003
46     %Determine volume fractions based on glycocalyx
        nanostructure (rectangular
47     %unit cell)
48     phi_s(i,1) = pi/4*((Dv(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1) + (2*Dh(i,1))^2*(Lh(
        i,1) - Dv(i,1))))/(Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)); %volume
        fraction of the solid glycocalyx
49     phi_f(i,1) = 1 - phi_s(i,1); %volume of the interstitial
        fluid flow
50
51     %Calculate vertical permeability of glycocalyx given
        defined nanostructure

```

```

52 Aw(i,1) = pi*(Dv(i,1)*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)) + 2*Dh(i,1)*(Lh(i
    ,1)-Dv(i,1))); %Wetted surface of the unit cell
53 Cl(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)^2/(pi*(Dv
    (i,1)/2))) - 1.476 + (2*pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) -
    (pi^2*(Dv(i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 0.0150*((pi*(Dv(i
    ,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2)^4/(1 + (1.520*(pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh
    (i,1)^2)^4)));
54 Ct(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)/(Dh(i,1)
    /2)) -1.311 + (pi*(Dh(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) - (pi^2*(Dh
    (i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 8.756*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1)
    )^4 + 63.212*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1))^6);
55 Cd(i,1) = (128*Lh(i,1)^2*Aw(i,1)*Lv(i,1))/(pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv
    (i,1))^2);
56 K(i,1) = Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)/(Cl(i,1) + 2*Ct(i,1) + Cd(i,1)
    ); %permeability of the glycocalyx in the vertical
    direction
57
58 N(i,1) = v_o(i,1)*rho_f_true*sqrt(K(i,1))/mu; %Nauman
    number
59 gamma(i,1) = (b(i,1))/(sqrt(phi_f(i,1)*K(i,1)));
60
61 %Equation for A and B, modified Bessel function constants
    in the equation for the
62 %velocity profile within a canaliculus
63 A(i,1) = (besselk(0, gamma(i,1)) - besselk(0, gamma(i,1)
    *(ab(i,1))))/(besseli(0, gamma(i,1)*(ab(i,1)))*besselk
    (0, gamma(i,1)) - besseli(0, gamma(i,1))*besselk(0,
    gamma(i,1)*(ab(i,1))));

```

```

64 B(i,1) = (besseli(0, gamma(i,1)*(ab(i,1))) - besseli(0,
        gamma(i,1)))/(besseli(0, gamma(i,1)*(ab(i,1)))*besselk
        (0, gamma(i,1)) - besseli(0, gamma(i,1))*besselk(0,
        gamma(i,1)*(ab(i,1))));
65
66 nondim_K(i,1) = K(i,1)/K(i,1);
67 nondim_dp_dz(i,1) = (dp_dz(i,1)*sqrt(K(i,1)))/((v_o(i,1))
        ^2*rho_f_true);
68 nondim_b(i,1) = b(i,1)/sqrt(K(i,1));
69
70 %Determines fluid velocity and shear stress as a function
        of symbolic
71 %radius
72 syms radius;
73 nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1) = N(i,1)*phi_f(i,1)*nondim_K(i
        ,1)*nondim_dp_dz(i,1)*(A(i,1)*besseli(0, gamma(i,1)*
        radius/nondim_b(i,1)) + B(i,1)*besselk(0, gamma(i,1)*
        radius/nondim_b(i,1)) - 1); %creates fluid velocity
        equation as a function of radius
74 nondim_sym_shear(i,1) = (1/rho_f_true)*(1/v_o(i,1))*(1/
        sqrt(K(i,1)))*mu*diff(nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1),
        radius); %differentiates (with respect to radius)
        fluid velocity equation to create shear stress
        equation as a function of radius
75 radiusV = ((b(i,1) + ab(i,1)*b(i,1))/2)/sqrt(K(i,1));
76 radiusS = b(i,1)*ab(i,1)/sqrt(K(i,1)); %
        nondimensionalized
77 nd_velocityf(i,1) = subs(nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1),
        radiusV);

```

```

78     nd_shear(i,1) = subs(nondim_sym_shear(i,1), radiusS); %
           substitutes in cell process radius to numerically
           determine value of shear stress
79     shear(i,1) = nd_shear(i,1)*rho_f_true*v_o(i,1)^2;
80 end
81
82 ndd_velocityf(:,1) = double(nd_velocityf(:,1));
83 ndd_shear(:,1) = double(nd_shear(:,1));
84 actual_shear(:,1) = double(shear(:,1));
85
86 sum_measures_v = 0;
87 for j = 1:1:variables
88     contrast_odd_v(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_velocityf(2*variables
           +2,1) - ndd_velocityf(j+variables+1,1)) + (
           ndd_velocityf(j+1,1)- ndd_velocityf(1,1)));
89     contrast_even_v(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_velocityf(2*variables
           +2,1) - ndd_velocityf(j+variables+1,1)) - (
           ndd_velocityf(j+1,1)- ndd_velocityf(1,1)));
90     measure_v(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd_v(1,j)) + abs(
           contrast_even_v(1,j));
91     sum_measures_v = sum_measures_v + measure_v(1,j);
92 end
93
94 for j = 1:1:variables
95     sens_v(1,j) = measure_v(1,j)/sum_measures_v;
96 end
97
98 sum_measures = 0;
99 for j = 1:1:variables

```



```

100     contrast_odd(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_shear(2*variables+2,1) -
        ndd_shear(j+variables+1,1)) + (ndd_shear(j+1,1)-
        ndd_shear(1,1)));
101     contrast_even(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_shear(2*variables+2,1) -
        ndd_shear(j+variables+1,1)) - (ndd_shear(j+1,1)-
        ndd_shear(1,1)));
102     measure(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd(1,j)) + abs(contrast_even
        (1,j));
103     sum_measures = sum_measures + measure(1,j);
104 end
105
106 for j = 1:1:variables
107     sens(1,j) = measure(1,j)/sum_measures;
108 end
109
110 %Sensitivity analysis on the brinkman velocity profile
111 figure(1)
112 bar(sens(1,:), 0.4)
113 xlabel('Parameter')
114 ylabel('Sensitivity')
115 title('Brinkman Shear Stress Sensitivity Analysis (Glycocaylx
        )')
116 hold on
117 plot(xlim, [.125, .125], ':')
118 names = {'a/b', 'b', 'Dv', 'Lv', 'Dh', 'Lh', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'
        };
119 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)
120
121 %Sensitivity analysis on the brinkman shear stress

```

```

122 figure(2)
123 bar(sens_v(1,:), 0.4)
124 xlabel('Parameter')
125 ylabel('Sensitivity')
126 title('Brinkman Velocity Sensitivity Analysis (Glycocaylx)')
127 hold on
128 plot(xlim, [.125, .125], ':')
129 names = {'a/b', 'b', 'Dv', 'Lv', 'Dh', 'Lh', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'}
        };
130 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)

```

A.4 Brinkman Velocity

```

1 %Inputs into Cotter's Method sensitivity analysis
2 varargin = [0.5e-9 5.9e-9 6.75e-9 10e-9 4.75e-9 5.25e-9 6e-9
              7.25e-9 -11.87e3/6e-3 -15.87e3/6e-3 21.6e-6 84e-6];
3 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
              to the number of inputs/2
4 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
              need to be performed
5
6 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
7 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
              zeros
8 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
              matrix
9 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low, low_identity); %combines zero
              and identity matrices
10
11 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables

```

```

12 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
    zeros
13 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
14 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity, all_high); %combines
    zero and identity matrices
15
16 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
    values, in the
17 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
18 for i = 1:1:n/2
19     for m = 1:1:variables
20         values(i, m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i, m))
                ;
21         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i, m)
                );
22     end
23 end
24
25 %Determine volume fraction and permeability for each
    simulation
26 for i = 1:1:n
27     m = 1;
28     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
29     Dv(i,1) = values(i,1); %diameter of vertical fibers
30     Lv(i,1) = values(i,2); %length of vertical fibers
31     Dh(i,1) = values(i,3); %diameter of horizontal fibers
32     Lh(i,1) = values(i,4); %length of horizontal fibers

```

```

33     dp_dz(i,1) = values(i,5); %pressure gradient down the
        length of the canaliculus
34     v_o(i,1) = values(i,6); %initial velocity of the fluid
35
36     %Equations from Sander et al. 2003
37     %Determine volume fractions based on glycocalyx
        nanostructure (rectangular unit cell)
38     phi_s(i,1) = pi/4*((Dv(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1) + (2*Dh(i,1)^2*(Lh(
        i,1) - Dv(i,1))))/(Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1))); %volume
        fraction of the solid glycocalyx
39     phi_f(i,1) = 1 - phi_s(i,1); %volume of the interstitial
        fluid flow
40
41     %Calculate vertical permeability of glycocalyx given
        defined nanostructure
42     Aw(i,1) = pi*(Dv(i,1)*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)) + 2*Dh(i,1)*(Lh(i
        ,1)-Dv(i,1))); %Wetted surface of the unit cell
43     Cl(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)^2/(pi*(Dv
        (i,1)/2))) - 1.476 + (2*pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) -
        (pi^2*(Dv(i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 0.0150*((pi*(Dv(i
        ,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2)^4/(1 + (1.520*(pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh
        (i,1)^2)^4)));
44     Ct(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)/(Dh(i,1)
        /2)) - 1.311 + (pi*(Dh(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) - (pi^2*(Dh
        (i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 8.756*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1)
        )^4 + 63.212*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1))^6);
45     Cd(i,1) = (128*Lh(i,1)^2*Aw(i,1)*Lv(i,1))/(pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv
        (i,1))^2);

```

```

46     K(i,1) = Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)/(Cl(i,1) + 2*Ct(i,1) + Cd(i,1)
        ); %permeability of the glycocalyx in the vertical
        direction
47 end
48
49 %Defining variables needed to plot velocity profile
50 index = 6e-8;
51 %Canaliculus radius (b) (m)
52 b_low = 75e-9;
53 b_high = 422e-9;
54 %Ratio of osteocyte cell process (a) to canaliculus radius (b
        )
55 ratio_ab_low = 0.245;
56 ratio_ab_high = 0.819;
57 %Dimensions (length and diameter) of the glycocalyx in two
        directions
58 %(vertical and horizontal) (m)
59 Lv_low = 6e-9;
60 Lv_high = 10e-9;
61 Lh_low = 6e-9;
62 Lh_high = 10e-9;
63 Dv_low = 0.5e-9;
64 Dv_high = 6e-9;
65 Dh_low = 0.5e-9;
66 Dh_high = 6e-9;
67 %Initial velocity (m/s)
68 v_o_low = 21.6e-6;
69 v_o_high = 84e-6;
70 %Pressure gradient down the length of the canaliculus (Pa/m)

```

```

71 dp_dz_low = -11.87e3/6e-3;
72 dp_dz_high = -15.87e3/6e-3;
73 %Viscosity of the fluid (Pa s)
74 mu = 0.0007;
75 %True density of the fluid (kg/m^3)
76 rho_f_true = 1000;
77 %Fluid constituent volume fractions
78 phi_f_high = max(phi_f);
79 phi_f_low = min(phi_f);
80 %Glycocaylx permeability values (m^2)
81 K_low = min(K);
82 K_high = max(K);
83 %Gamma term
84 gamma_high = b_high/sqrt(phi_f_low*K_low);
85 gamma_low = b_low/sqrt(phi_f_high*K_high);
86 r_gamma_low = round(gamma_low);
87
88 gamma_index = 50;
89 i=1;
90 for gamma = r_gamma_low:gamma_index:700
91     j = 1;
92     for ab = ratio_ab_low:0.1:ratio_ab_high
93         if gamma < 700 %Brinkman flow
94             %Use averages to nondimensionalize parameters and
95             calculate velocity
96             Kv(i,j) = ((b_high + b_low)/2)^2/(gamma^2);
97             K(i,j) = (Kv(i,j)/((phi_f_high + phi_f_low)/2));
98             N(i,j) = ((v_o_high + v_o_low)/2)*rho_f_true*sqrt(
99                 K(i,j))/mu;

```

```

98     radius = ((b_high + b_low)/2 + ab*(b_high + b_low)
99           /2)/2;
100
101     %Nondimensionalization of variables
102     nondim_radius = radius/sqrt(K(i,j));
103     nondim_b = ((b_high + b_low)/2)/sqrt(K(i,j));
104     nondim_Kv = (Kv(i,j)/K(i,j));
105     nondim_dp = ((dp_dz_high + dp_dz_low)/2)*sqrt(K(i,
106           j))/(((v_o_high + v_o_low)/2)^2*rho_f_true);
107
108     %Calculation of bessel constants,
109     nondimensionalized maximum
110     %velocity profile (middle of annulus gap), and
111     %re-dimensionalized maximum velocity profile
112     A(i,j) = (besselk(0, gamma) - besselk(0, gamma*ab)
113           )/(besseli(0, gamma*ab)*besselk(0, gamma) -
114           besseli(0, gamma)*besselk(0, gamma*ab));
115     B(i,j) = (besseli(0, gamma*ab) - besseli(0, gamma)
116           )/(besseli(0, gamma*ab)*besselk(0, gamma) -
117           besseli(0, gamma)*besselk(0, gamma*ab));
118     nondim_vf(i,j) = N(i,j)*nondim_Kv*nondim_dp*(A(i,j)
119           )*besseli(0, gamma*nondim_radius/nondim_b) + B(
120           i,j)*besselk(0, gamma*nondim_radius/nondim_b) -
121           1); %creates fluid velocity equation as a
122           function of radius
123     vf(i,j) = nondim_vf(i,j)*((v_o_high + v_o_low)/2)
124           *1e6;
125     j = j+1;
126
127     end

```

```

115     end
116     i = i+1;
117 end
118
119 ab = ratio_ab_low:0.1:ratio_ab_high;
120 gamma = r_gamma_low:gamma_index:700;
121
122 %Plots nondimensionalized maximum velocity
123 figure(1)
124 hold on
125 for m = 1:1:(i-1)
126     plot(ab(:), nondim_vf(m,:), 'DisplayName', ['gamma = ',
127         num2str(gamma(m))]);
128 end
129 xlabel('Ratio of Osteocyte Process to Canaliculus (a/b)')
130 ylabel('Nondimensionalized Maximum Velocity')
131 title('Nondimensionalized Brinkman Velocity Profile (
132     Glycocaylx)')
133 legend(gca, 'show')
134
135 %Plots re-dimensionalized maximum velocity
136 figure(2)
137 hold on
138 for m = 1:1:(i-1)
139     plot(ab(:), vf(m,:), 'DisplayName', ['gamma = ', num2str(
140         gamma(m))]);
141 end
142 xlabel('Ratio of Osteocyte Process to Canaliculus (a/b)')
143 ylabel('Maximum Velocity (\mum/s)')

```



```

141 title('Brinkman Velocity Profile (Glycocaylx)')
142 legend(gca, 'show')

```

A.5 Darcy Velocity Sensitivity Analysis

```

1 %Variable input: Low, high inputs for each n number variables
  . Input such
2 %that first and second inputs are low and then high value of
  1st variable (respectively),
3 %third and fourth inputs are the low and high of the 2nd
  variable, etc.
4
5 varargin = [0.5e-9 5.9e-9 6.75e-9 10e-9 4.75e-9 5.25e-9 6e-9
  7.25e-9 -11.87e3/6e-3 -15.87e3/6e-3 21.6e-6 84e-6];
6 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
  to the number of inputs/2
7 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
  need to be performed
8
9 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
10 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
  zeros
11 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
  matrix
12 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low, low_identity); %combines zero
  and identity matrices
13
14 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables
15 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
  zeros

```

```

16 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
    matrix
17 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity , all_high); %combines
    zero and identity matrices
18
19 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
    values , in the
20 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
21 for i = 1:1:n/2
22     for m = 1:1:variables
23         values(i , m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i , m))
                ;
24         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i , m)
                );
25     end
26 end
27
28 %Define constants within the system (fluid = PBS)
29 mu = 0.0007; %viscosity of the fluid
30 rho_f_true = 1000; %true density of the fluid
31
32 %Looping through all of the trials
33 for i = 1:1:n
34     m = 1;
35     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
36     Dv(i ,1) = values(i ,1); %diameter of vertical fibers
37     Lv(i ,1) = values(i ,2); %length of vertical fibers
38     Dh(i ,1) = values(i ,3); %diameter of horizontal fibers

```

```

39 Lh(i,1) = values(i,4); %length of horizontal fibers
40 dp_dz(i,1) = values(i,5); %pressure gradient down the
    length of the canaliculus
41 v_o(i,1) = values(i,6); %initial velocity of the fluid
42
43 %Equations from Sander et al. 2003
44 %Determine volume fractions based on glycocalyx
    nanostructure (rectangular
45 %unit cell)
46 phi_s(i,1) = pi/4*((Dv(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1) + (2*Dh(i,1))^2*(Lh(
    i,1) - Dv(i,1))))/(Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)); %volume
    fraction of the solid glycocalyx
47 phi_f(i,1) = 1 - phi_s(i,1); %volume of the interstitial
    fluid flow
48
49 %Calculate vertical permeability of glycocalyx given
    defined nanostructure
50 Aw(i,1) = pi*(Dv(i,1))*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)) + 2*Dh(i,1)*(Lh(i
    ,1)-Dv(i,1)); %Wetted surface of the unit cell
51 Cl(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lv(i,1)-Dh(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)^2/(pi*(Dv
    (i,1)/2))) - 1.476 + (2*pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) -
    (pi^2*(Dv(i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 0.0150*((pi*(Dv(i
    ,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2)^4/(1 + (1.520*(pi*(Dv(i,1)/2)^2/Lh
    (i,1)^2)^4)));
52 Ct(i,1) = (4*pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv(i,1)))/(log(Lh(i,1)/(Dh(i,1)
    /2)) - 1.311 + (pi*(Dh(i,1)/2)^2/Lh(i,1)^2) - (pi^2*(Dh
    (i,1)/2)^4/(2*Lh(i,1)^4)) - 8.756*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1)
    )^4 + 63.212*((Dh(i,1)/2)/Lh(i,1))^6);

```

```

53 Cd(i,1) = (128*Lh(i,1)^2*Aw(i,1)*Lv(i,1))/(pi*(Lh(i,1)-Dv
      (i,1))^2);
54 K(i,1) = Lh(i,1)^2*Lv(i,1)/(Cl(i,1) + 2*Ct(i,1) + Cd(i,1)
      ); %permeability of the glycocalyx in the vertical
      direction
55
56 N(i,1) = v_o(i,1)*rho_f_true*sqrt(K(i,1))/mu; %Nauman
      number
57 nondim_dp(i,1) = dp_dz(i,1)*sqrt(K(i,1))/((v_o(i,1))^2*
      rho_f_true);
58 velocityf_darcy_nd(i,1) = -N(i,1)*phi_f(i,1)*nondim_dp(i
      ,1);
59 velocityf_darcy(i,1) = velocityf_darcy_nd(i,1)*values(i,
      6)*1e6;
60 end
61
62 sum_measures = 0;
63 for j = 1:1:variables
64 contrast_odd(1,j) = 1/4*((velocityf_darcy_nd(2*variables
      +2,1) - velocityf_darcy_nd(j+variables+1,1)) + (
      velocityf_darcy_nd(j+1,1)- velocityf_darcy_nd(1,1)));
65 contrast_even(1,j) = 1/4*((velocityf_darcy_nd(2*variables
      +2,1) - velocityf_darcy_nd(j+variables+1,1)) - (
      velocityf_darcy_nd(j+1,1)- velocityf_darcy_nd(1,1)));
66 measure(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd(1,j)) + abs(contrast_even
      (1,j));
67 sum_measures = sum_measures + measure(1,j);
68 end
69

```

```

70 for j = 1:1:variables
71     sens(1,j) = measure(1,j)/sum_measures;
72 end
73
74 %Sensitivity analysis for the darcy velocity when the
    glycocaylx is very
75 %small
76 figure(1)
77 bar(sens(1,:), 0.4)
78 xlabel('Parameter')
79 ylabel('Sensitivity')
80 title('Darcy Velocity Sensitivity Analysis (Glycocaylx)')
81 hold on
82 plot(xlim, [.1667, .1667], ':')
83 names = {'Dv', 'Lv', 'Dh', 'Lh', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'};
84 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)

```

A.6 Poiseuille Velocity and Shear Stress Sensitivity Analysis

```

1 %Variable input: Low, high inputs for each n number variables
    . Input such
2 %that first and second inputs are low and then high value of
    1st variable (respectively),
3 %third and fourth inputs are the low and high of the 2nd
    variable, etc.
4
5 varargin = [0.245 0.819 75e-9 422e-9 -11.87e3/6e-3 -15.87e3/6
    e-3 21.6e-6 84e-6];
6 variables = length(varargin)/2; %number of variables is equal
    to the number of inputs/2

```

```

7 n = 2*variables + 2; %number of trials or simulations that
   need to be performed
8
9 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the low variables
10 all_low = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
   zeros
11 low_identity = eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
   matrix
12 low_matrix = vertcat(all_low , low_identity); %combines zero
   and identity matrices
13
14 %Creates a matrix to be used to extract the high variables
15 all_high = zeros(1, variables); %creates row vector of just
   zeros
16 high_identity = -1*eye((n/2)-1, variables); %creates identity
   matrix
17 high_matrix = vertcat(high_identity , all_high); %combines
   zero and identity matrices
18
19 %Creates the matrix consisting of the high and low input
   values , in the
20 %necessary format for Cotter's Method
21 for i = 1:1:n/2
22     for m = 1:1:variables
23         values(i , m) = varargin(m + (m-1) + low_matrix(i , m))
           ;
24         values(i + n/2, m) = varargin(2*m + high_matrix(i , m)
           );
25     end

```

```

26 end
27
28 %Define constants within the system (fluid = PBS)
29 mu = 0.0007; %viscosity of the fluid
30 rho_f_true = 1000; %true density of the fluid
31
32 %Looping through all of the trials
33 for i = 1:1:n
34     %Depends upon order the variables were input into the
        function
35     ab(i,1) = values(i,1); %radius of the osteocyte cell
        process
36     b(i,1) = values(i,2); %radius of the canaliculus
37     dp_dz(i,1) = values(i,3); %pressure gradient down the
        length of the canaliculus
38     v_o(i,1) = values(i,4); %initial velocity of the fluid
39
40     a(i,1) = ab(i,1)*b(i,1);
41     nondim_dp_dz(i,1) = (dp_dz(i,1)*a(i,1))/(rho_f_true*v_o(i
        ,1)^2);
42     nondim_b(i,1) = b(i,1)/a(i,1);
43     nondim_a(i,1) = a(i,1)/a(i,1);
44
45     %Determines fluid velocity and shear stress as a function
        of symbolic radius
46     %syms radius;
47     syms nondim_radius;
48     h1(i,1) = -a(i,1)*(nondim_b(i,1))^2*rho_f_true*v_o(i,1)*
        nondim_dp_dz(i,1)/4/mu;

```

```

49     h2(i,1) = (nondim_radius/nondim_b(i,1))^2;
50     h3(i,1) = ((nondim_a(i,1)/nondim_b(i,1))^2 - 1)/(log(
        nondim_radius/nondim_b(i,1)));
51     h4(i,1) = log(nondim_radius/nondim_b(i,1));
52
53     nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1) = h1(i,1)*(h2(i,1)-(h3(i,1)*h4(
        i,1))-1);
54     nondim_sym_shear(i,1) = (1/rho_f_true)*(1/v_o(i,1))*(1/a(
        i,1))*mu*diff(nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1), nondim_radius
        ); %differentiates (with respect to radius) fluid
        velocity equation to create shear stress equation as a
        function of radius
55
56     nondim_radiusV(i,1) = (nondim_b(i,1) + nondim_a(i,1)/2);
57     nondim_radiusS(i,1) = a(i,1)/a(i,1);
58
59     nd_velocityf(i,1) = subs(nondim_sym_velocityf(i,1),
        nondim_radiusV(i,1));
60     velocityf(i,1) = nd_velocityf(i,1)*v_o(i,1);
61     nd_shear(i,1) = subs(nondim_sym_shear(i,1),
        nondim_radiusS(i,1)); %substitutes in cell process
        radius to numerically determine value of shear stress
62     shear(i,1) = nd_shear(i,1)*rho_f_true*v_o(i,1)^2;
63 end
64 actual_velocityf(:,1) = double(velocityf(:,1))*1e6;
65 ndd_velocityf(:,1) = double(nd_velocityf(:,1));
66 actual_shear(:,1) = double(shear(:,1));
67 ndd_shear(:,1) = double(nd_shear(:,1));
68

```



```

69 sum_measures_v = 0;
70 for j = 1:1:variables
71     contrast_odd_v(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_velocityf(2*variables
        +2,1) - ndd_velocityf(j+variables+1,1)) + (
        ndd_velocityf(j+1,1)- ndd_velocityf(1,1)));
72     contrast_even_v(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_velocityf(2*variables
        +2,1) - ndd_velocityf(j+variables+1,1)) - (
        ndd_velocityf(j+1,1)- ndd_velocityf(1,1)));
73     measure_v(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd_v(1,j)) + abs(
        contrast_even_v(1,j));
74     sum_measures_v = sum_measures_v + measure_v(1,j);
75 end
76
77 for j = 1:1:variables
78     sens_v(1,j) = measure_v(1,j)/sum_measures_v;
79 end
80
81 sum_measures = 0;
82 for j = 1:1:variables
83     contrast_odd(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_shear(2*variables+2,1) -
        ndd_shear(j+variables+1,1)) + (ndd_shear(j+1,1)-
        ndd_shear(1,1)));
84     contrast_even(1,j) = 1/4*((ndd_shear(2*variables+2,1) -
        ndd_shear(j+variables+1,1)) - (ndd_shear(j+1,1)-
        ndd_shear(1,1)));
85     measure(1,j) = abs(contrast_odd(1,j)) + abs(contrast_even
        (1,j));
86     sum_measures = sum_measures + measure(1,j);
87 end

```

```
88
89 for j = 1:1:variables
90     sens(1,j) = measure(1,j)/sum_measures;
91 end
92
93 %Sensitivity analysis for the shear stress due to poiseuille
    flow
94 figure(1)
95 bar(sens(1,:), 0.4)
96 xlabel('Parameter')
97 ylabel('Sensitivity')
98 title('Poiseuille Shear Stress Sensitivity Analysis (No
    Glycocaylx)')
99 hold on
100 plot(xlim, [.25, .25], ':')
101 names = {'a/b', 'b', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'};
102 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)
103
104 %Sensitivity analysis for the poiseuille velocity
105 figure(2)
106 bar(sens_v(1,:), 0.4)
107 xlabel('Parameter')
108 ylabel('Sensitivity')
109 title('Poiseuille Velocity Sensitivity Analysis (No
    Glycocaylx)')
110 hold on
111 plot(xlim, [.25, .25], ':')
112 names = {'a/b', 'b', 'dP/dz', 'v_{o}'};
113 set(gca, 'xticklabel', names)
```

A.7 Poiseuille Velocity

```

1 %Defining variables needed for poiseuille velocity profile
2 %Canaliculus radius (b) (m)
3 b_low = 75e-9;
4 b_high = 422e-9;
5 b_avg = (b_low + b_high)/2;
6
7 %Ratio of osteocyte cell process (a) to canaliculus radius (b
   )
8 ratio_ab_low = 0.245;
9 ratio_ab_high = 0.819;
10
11 %Initial velocity (m/s)
12 v_o_low = 21.6e-6;
13 v_o_high = 84e-6;
14 v_o_avg = (v_o_low + v_o_high)/2;
15
16 %Pressure gradient down the canaliculus (Pa/m)
17 dp_dz_low = -11.87e3/6e-3;
18 dp_dz_high = -15.87e3/6e-3;
19 dp_dz_avg = (dp_dz_low + dp_dz_high)/2;
20
21 %Viscosity of the fluid (Pa s)
22 mu = 0.0007;
23 %True density of the fluid (kg/m^3)
24 rho_f_true = 1000;
25
26 i=1;

```

```

27 for ab = ratio_ab_low:0.05:ratio_ab_high
28     ratio(i,1) = ab;
29     %Nondimensionalization of input variables
30     nondim_dp_dz(i,1) = (dp_dz_avg*ratio(i,1)*b_avg)/(
        rho_f_true*v_o_avg^2);
31     nondim_b(i,1) = b_avg/(ratio(i,1)*b_avg);
32     nondim_a(i,1) = (ratio(i,1)*b_avg)/(ratio(i,1)*b_avg);
33
34     %Calculates nondimensionalized and dimensionalized
        maximum velocity in
35     %the middle of the annulus gap as a function of a
        decreasing gap
36     nondim_radius(i,1) = ((b_avg + ratio(i,1)*(b_avg))/2)/(
        ratio(i,1)*b_avg);
37     h1(i,1) = -(ratio(i,1)*b_avg)*(nondim_b(i,1))^2*
        rho_f_true*v_o_avg*nondim_dp_dz(i,1)/4/mu;
38     h2(i,1) = (nondim_radius(i,1)/nondim_b(i,1))^2;
39     h3(i,1) = ((nondim_a(i,1)/nondim_b(i,1))^2 - 1)/(log(
        nondim_radius(i,1)/nondim_b(i,1)));
40     h4(i,1) = log(nondim_radius(i,1)/nondim_b(i,1));
41     nondim_velocityf(i,1) = h1(i,1)*(h2(i,1)-(h3(i,1)*h4(i,1)
        )-1);
42     velocityf(i,1) = nondim_velocityf(i,1)*v_o_avg*1e6;
43     i=i+1;
44 end
45
46 ab = ratio_ab_low:0.05:ratio_ab_high;
47
48 %Nondimensionalized maximum poiseuille velocity

```

```
49 figure(1)
50 plot(ab, nondim_velocityf);
51 xlabel('Ratio of Osteocyte Process to Canaliculus (a/b)')
52 ylabel('Nondimensionalized Maximum Velocity')
53 title('Nondimensionalized Poiseuille Velocity Profile (No
        Glycocaylx)')
54
55 %Re-dimensionalized maximum poiseuille velocity
56 figure(2)
57 plot(ab, velocityf);
58 xlabel('Ratio of Osteocyte Process to Canaliculus (a/b)')
59 ylabel('Maximum Velocity (\mm/s)')
60 title('Poiseuille Velocity Profile (No Glycocaylx)')
```

B. 3D RECONSTRUCTION SOURCE CODE

B.1 LCS 3D Reconstruction

```

1 function [ImgBlock, blobBlock, fiberBinary] = TiffStacker( )
2 %Reconstructs CLSM imaging z-stacks into 3D volume
3 % Using TIF images from CLSM imaging of the lacunar-
   canalicular system (LCS) of cortical
4 % bone, the 2D data is noise and intensity filtered before
   segmentation into lacunae and
5 % canaliculi. Validation of this segmentation process can
   be validated using a raw
6 % dataset and its manual reconstruction. The LCS is then
   reconstructed in 3D and
7 % important morphological characteristics are output to a .
   txt file. In
8 % this code, lacunae are typically referred to as blobs and
   canaliculi
9 % are referred to as fibers.
10
11 %% Parameters for dataset under analysis (can be moved to
   function inputs if desired)
12 xyRes = 0.04; % um (assumes x & y axis have the same
   resolution)
13 zRes = 0.394; % um
14 channel2use = 2; % Channel of tiff image(s) where data is
   located

```

```

15     canFiltDia = 0.8; % um Max diameter of canaliculai in
        the dataset under
16             % analysisThis value is used to
                segment lacunae
17             % from canaliculai
18     blobMinArea = 5000; % Minimum area that a lacunae must
        have to not be noise
19
20     display3D = 0; % Display 3D representation of the
        target lacunae and neighboring fibers
21     displayRaw = 0; % Display stack of raw data slices (
        takes a lot of memory, never save if you can avoid it)
22     display3DCan=1; % Display 3D represntation of final
        canaliculi and lacuna (takes hours)
23     runValidation = 0; % Perform validation on current
        dataset with a second 'true' dataset
24     smooth3D = 1; % Performs 3D smoothing on the
        dataset before 3D skeletonization
25
26     %%
        %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
27     % Load all images in the folder and calculate thresholds
28     %
        %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
29
30     %Load local supporting files to path
31     addpath(genpath('.'));

```

```

32
33 % Get data set from user selection
34 [~,PathName] = uigetfile({'*.tiff;*.tif'}, 'Select the
    first image file in sequence to load');
35 dirData = dir(PathName); % Get the data
    for the current directory
36 dirIndex = [dirData.isdir]; % Find the index
    for directories
37 fileList = {dirData(~dirIndex).name}'; % Get a list of
    the files
38 numSlices = numel(fileList);
39 tic
40
41 ImgStack = cell(numSlices,1);
42 ImgStackOrig = cell(numSlices,1);
43
44 for i = 1:numSlices
45     % Read in slice image file
46     curImgName = strcat(PathName, fileList{i});
47
48     ImgOrig = imread(curImgName);
49     ImgOrig = im2double(ImgOrig);
50
51     % Flatten Tiff images to greyscale values
52     curImgSize = size(ImgOrig);
53     sizeCheck = size(curImgSize);
54     if(sizeCheck(2)>2)
55         if(channel2use==0)
56             ImgNew = ImgOrig(:,:,1);

```



```

57         ImgNew = ImgNew + ImgOrig(:, :, 2);
58         ImgNew = ImgNew + ImgOrig(:, :, 3);
59         ImgOrig = ImgNew;
60     else
61         ImgOrig = ImgOrig(:, :, channel2use);
62     end
63 end
64
65 % Save slice to stack
66 ImgStack{i} = ImgOrig;
67 ImgStackOrig{i} = ImgOrig;
68 end
69
70 %% %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
71 % Perform simple intensity correction
72 %% %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
73 ImgBlock = zeros(size(ImgStack{1},1), size(ImgStack{1},2),
74                 numSlices);
75 for i = 1:numel(ImgStack)
76     ImgBlock(:, :, i) = ImgStack{i};
77 end
78 clear ImgStack
79
80 for i = 1:size(ImgBlock,3)
81     ImgBlock(:, :, i) = imadjust(ImgBlock(:, :, i));
82 end
83
84

```

```

85     sliceAve = mean(mean(ImgBlock,1),2);
86     sliceAve = reshape(sliceAve, size(ImgBlock,3),1);
87     stackAve = mean(mean(mean(ImgBlock)));
88     sliceAdj = stackAve./sliceAve;
89     for i = 1:size(ImgBlock,3)
90         ImgBlock(:,:,i) = ImgBlock(:,:,i).*sliceAdj(i);
91     end
92
93     mVal = max(max(max(ImgBlock)));
94     ImgBlock = ImgBlock./mVal;
95
96
97     opt.kernelratio=4;
98     opt.windowratio=4;
99     opt.verbose=false;
100    for i = 1:size(ImgBlock,3)
101        ImgBlock(:,:,i) =NLMF(ImgBlock(:,:,i),opt);
102    end
103
104    if(displayRaw)
105        figure('Name','Raw Image Stack','NumberTitle','off')
106            % Display processed fibers
107        imshow3D(ImgBlock)
108        drawnow
109    end
110
111    %% Segment blobs (lacunae) and fibers (canaliculi)
112    %% Analyze fibers sections of image utilizing a Hessian-
113        based multiscale filter

```

```

112     fibreBlock = ImgBlock;
113     fibreBlock = fibreBlock*255; % Adjust fiber block values
114     fibBlock2D = ones(size(fibreBlock));
115     fibBlock2DInverse = ones(size(fibreBlock));
116
117
118     % Set up parameters for multiscale filter
119     options.FrangiScaleRange = [1 8];
120     options.FrangiScaleRatio= 0.5;
121     options.FrangiBetaOne= 2;
122     options.FrangiBetaTwo= 15;
123     options.BlackWhite= true;
124     options.verbose= false;
125     for i = 1:size(fibreBlock,3)
126         slice = FrangiFilter2D(fibreBlock(:,:,i),options);
127         fibBlock2D(:,:,i) = slice;
128     end
129     options.BlackWhite= false;
130     for i = 1:size(fibreBlock,3)
131         slice = FrangiFilter2D(fibreBlock(:,:,i),options);
132         fibBlock2DInverse(:,:,i) = slice;
133     end
134
135
136     fiberBinary = false(size(fibreBlock)); % Convert to
        binary block
137     fiberBinary(fibBlock2D==0)=1;
138     fibFix = strel('disk',4);
139     fiberBinary = imclose(fiberBinary, fibFix);

```

```

140
141
142     maskingBinary = false(size(fiberBinary));
143     maskingBinary(fibBlock2DInverse > 0.005) = 1;
144     fiberBinary(maskingBinary == 0) = 0;
145     clear maskingBinary
146
147
148     params.bz_thresh = -0; % Perform smoothing on fiber
           regions
149     params.as_scale = 1/4;
150     params.debug = 0;
151     for i = 1:size(fibreBlock,3)
152         fiberBinary(:, :, i) = bwsmooth(fiberBinary(:, :, i),
           params);
153     end
154
155     % Save full combined mask
156     BinaryStack = fiberBinary;
157
158     % Separate blob and fiber regions
159     voxFiltDia = round(canFiltDia/xyRes);
160     blobSe1 = strel('disk', voxFiltDia);
161     blobBlockStack = fiberBinary;
162     blobMask = imopen(fiberBinary, blobSe1);
163     blobSe12 = strel('disk', round(voxFiltDia/2));
164     blobMask = imdilate(blobMask, blobSe12);
165     blobBlockStack(blobMask == 0) = 0;
166     blobBlockStack = bwareaopen(blobBlockStack, blobMinArea);

```

```

167     clear fibreBlock
168     clear fibBlock2DInverse
169     clear fibBlock2D
170
171     fiberBinary(blobBlockStack==1)=0; % Remove blob regions
        and clean up fibers
172
173     figure('Name','Processed canaliculi','NumberTitle','off')
        % Display processed fibers
174     imshow3D(fiberBinary)
175     drawnow
176
177     figure('Name','Processed lacunae','NumberTitle','off') %
        Display processed fibers
178     imshow3D(blobBlockStack)
179     drawnow
180
181     %% Run validation comparison
182
183     if(runValidation) % Display match with validation dataset
184         expBlock = fiberBinary; % merge analyzed blobs and
            fibers
185         expBlock(blobBlockStack)=1;
186         canDil = strel('disk',5);
187
188
189         % Load and prepare validation dataset
190         [~,PathName] = uigetfile({'*.tiff;*.tif;*.jpg'},'
            Select the first image file in sequence to load');

```

```

191     dirData = dir(PathName); % Get the
        data for the current directory
192     dirIndex = [dirData.isdir]; % Find the
        index for directories
193     fileList = {dirData(~dirIndex).name}'; % Get a list
        of the files
194     numSlices = numel(fileList);
195
196     %Load images in validation dataset folder
197     ImgStackV = cell(numSlices,1);
198
199     ImgStackOrig = cell(numSlices,1);
200     for i = 1:numSlices
201         % Read in slice image file
202         curImgName = strcat(PathName, fileList{i});
203
204         ImgOrig = imread(curImgName);
205         ImgOrig = im2double(ImgOrig);
206
207         % Flatten Tiff images to greyscale values
208         curImgSize = size(ImgOrig);
209         sizeCheck = size(curImgSize);
210         if(sizeCheck(2)>2)
211             ImgOrig = ImgOrig(:, :, 1);
212         end
213
214         % Save slice to stack
215         ImgStackV{i} = ImgOrig;
216         ImgStackOrig{i} = ImgOrig;

```

```

217     end
218
219     ImgBlockV = false (size (ImgStackV {1},1) , size (ImgStackV
        {1},2) , numSlices);
220     for i = 1:numSlices
221         ImgBlockV (: , : , i) = ImgStackV {i};
222     end
223
224     allVals= reshape (ImgBlockV ,1 , []);
225     allVals (isnan (allVals)) = [];
226     stackMean = mean (allVals);
227
228     % Perform thresholding on the image block
229     fiberValid = false (size (ImgBlockV));
230     fiberValid (ImgBlockV >= stackMean) = 1;
231     fiberValid = imopen (fiberValid , strel ('disk' , 3));
232
233
234     % Segment cell bodies , 'aka' blobs
235     blobValid = imopen (fiberValid , blobSel);
236     blobValid = imdilate (blobValid , canDil);
237     fiberValid (blobValid) = 0;
238
239
240     % Compare processed blobs and fibers to validation
        dataset
241     validationBlock = fiberValid; % merge analyzed blobs
        and fibers
242     validationBlock (blobValid) = 1;

```

```

243
244
245 % Check accuracy of entire segmentation to raw data
246 overlapBlock = expBlock;
247 overlapBlock(validationBlock==0)=0; % overlap of two
    datasets
248 evBlock = expBlock;
249 evBlock(overlapBlock==1)=0;
250 veBlock = validationBlock;
251 veBlock(overlapBlock==1)=0;
252 overlap = sum(sum(sum(overlapBlock)));
253 expAlone = sum(sum(sum(evBlock)));
254 validAlone = sum(sum(sum(veBlock)));
255 overallAccuracy = overlap/(overlap+expAlone+validAlone
    );
256 textO = ['Overall Accuracy: ', num2str(overallAccuracy)
    ];
257 disp(textO);
258
259 % Display overall overlap
260 figure('Name', 'Dataset Overlap [Red-Validation, Blue-
    Processed]', 'NumberTitle', 'off')
261 DataBlock = ones([size(ImgBlock), 3]);
262 DataBlock(:,:, :, 1) = validationBlock;
263 DataBlock(:,:, :, 2) = expBlock;
264 imshow3D(DataBlock)
265 clear DataBlock
266
267

```



```

268 % Check accuracy of fibers
269 overlapBlockF = fiberBinary;
270 overlapBlockF (fiberValid==0)=0; % overlap of two
    fiber datasets
271 evBlockF = fiberBinary;
272 evBlockF (overlapBlockF==1)=0;
273 veBlockF = fiberValid;
274 veBlockF (overlapBlockF==1)=0;
275 overlapF = sum(sum(sum(overlapBlockF)));
276 expAloneF = sum(sum(sum(evBlockF)));
277 validAloneF = sum(sum(sum(veBlockF)));
278 fiberAccuracy = overlapF/(overlapF+expAloneF+
    validAloneF);
279 textO = ['Fiber Accuracy: ', num2str(fiberAccuracy)];
280 disp(textO);
281
282 % Display fiber overlap
283 figure('Name', 'Fiber Overlap [Red-Validation, Blue-
    Processed]');%, 'NumberTitle', 'off')
284 DataBlock = ones([size(ImgBlock), 3]);
285 DataBlock(:, :, :, 1) = fiberValid;
286 DataBlock(:, :, :, 2) = fiberBinary;
287 imshow3D(DataBlock)
288 clear DataBlock
289
290
291 % Check accuracy of blobs
292 overlapBlockB = blobBlockStack;

```

```

293     overlapBlockB(blobValid==0)=0; % overlap of two blob
        datasets
294     evBlockB = blobBlockStack;
295     evBlockB(overlapBlockB==1)=0;
296     veBlockB = blobValid;
297     veBlockB(overlapBlockB==1)=0;
298     overlapB = sum(sum(sum(overlapBlockB)));
299     expAloneB = sum(sum(sum(evBlockB)));
300     validAloneB = sum(sum(sum(veBlockB)));
301     blobAccuracy = overlapB/(overlapB+expAloneB+
        validAloneB);
302     textO = ['Blob Accuracy: ', num2str(blobAccuracy)];
303     disp(textO);
304
305     % Display blob overlap
306     figure('Name', 'Blob Overlap [Red-Validation, Blue-
        Processed]', 'NumberTitle', 'off')
307     DataBlock = ones([size(ImgBlock), 3]);
308     DataBlock(:, :, :, 1) = blobValid;
309     DataBlock(:, :, :, 2) = blobBlockStack;
310     imshow3D(DataBlock)
311     clear DataBlock
312 end
313 clear ImgBlock
314 clear ImgOrig
315
316 % Skeletonize 2D Slices to determine diameter of fibers
317 skelStack = false(size(fiberBinary));
318

```

```

319     for i = 1:size(fiberBinary,3)
320         skelStack(:,:,i) = bwmorph(skeleton(fiberBinary(:,:,i)
321             ))>35,'skel',Inf); % Code spends 30 minutes here
322     end
323     fullCNT =sum(sum(sum(fiberBinary)));
324     skelCNT = sum(sum(sum(skelStack)));
325
326     % assuming normally circular radius the diameter should be
327     % fiber volume divide by the length of the skeleton
328     fibDia = round(fullCNT/skelCNT);
329
330     %% Calculate fibre diameter for regions of source image
331     % Find nodes
332     SegmentData = cell(size(skelStack,3),1);
333     maskDil = strel('disk',round(fibDia*1.5));
334     for sli = 1:size(skelStack,3)
335         branchPoints = bwmorph(skelStack(:,:,sli), '
336             branchpoints');
337
338         % Find sections (construct sectional list)
339         allSegment = skelStack(:,:,sli);
340         allSegment(branchPoints==1)=0;
341         segments = bwconncomp(allSegment);
342         sliceData = zeros(segments.NumObjects,2);
343
344         for i = 1:segments.NumObjects

```

```

344     % Mask region for analysis
345     curSkel = false(size(allSegment));
346     curSkel(segments.PixelIdxList{i}) = 1;
347     curMask = imdilate(curSkel, maskDil);
348
349     curSegment = fiberBinary(:, :, sli);
350     curSegment(curMask==0)=0;
351
352     % Make sure analysis is capturing only one region
353     % (no neighbors)
354     stats = regionprops(curSegment, 'PixelList', 'Area'
355     );
356     if(numel(stats)>2)
357         curSegment = false(size(curSegment));
358         largest = 1;
359         curStats = stats(1);
360         area1 = curStats.Area;
361         for k = 2:size(stats,1)
362             curStats = stats(k);
363             if(curStats.Area>area1)
364                 largest = k;
365                 area1 = curStats.Area;
366             end
367         end
368         curPixels = stats(largest).PixelList;
369         for m = 1:size(curPixels,1)
370             curSegment(curPixels(m,2), curPixels(m,1))
371                 =1;
372         end

```

```

370         end
371         segDiam = sum(sum(curSegment))/sum(sum(curSkel));
372
373         sliceData(i,1) = sum(sum(curSkel));
374         sliceData(i,2) = segDiam;
375     end
376     SegmentData{sli} = sliceData;
377 end
378 % Convert data structure to array
379 fiberLenDia = cell2mat(SegmentData);
380
381 % Remove short fiber lengths, invalid readings/noise
382 lenThresh = 10;
383 fiberLenDia(fiberLenDia(:,1)<lenThresh,:) = [];
384
385 % Convert values from pixels to um
386 fiberLenDiaUM = fiberLenDia.*xyRes;
387 disp(['Average canaliculi diameter: ',num2str(mean(
388     fiberLenDiaUM(:,2))), ' um'])
389 OuputData.fiberLenDiaUM = fiberLenDiaUM; % Save fiber
390     diameter data
391
392 clear fiberBinary
393 clear skelStack
394
395 %% Adjust data to be isometric
396 % Thicken binary image blocks to make voxels isotropic
397 sFactor = round(zRes/xyRes);

```

```

396     newBlock = false ( size ( BinaryStack , 1 ) , size ( BinaryStack , 2 ) ,
        size ( BinaryStack , 3 ) * sFactor ) ;
397     for i = 1 : numSlices
398         startInd = ((i-1)*sFactor)+1;
399         endInd = (i*sFactor)+1;
400         for k = startInd : endInd
401             newBlock (: , : , k) = BinaryStack (: , : , i) ;
402         end
403     end
404     BinaryStack = newBlock ;
405     clear newBlock
406
407
408
409     %% Smooth the 3D fibres & Blobs in the datablock
410     if (smooth3D)
411         BinaryStack = imclose ( BinaryStack , strel3d ( round (
            sFactor / 2 ) ) ) ; % smooth 3D geometry
412     end
413     for i = 1 : size ( BinaryStack , 1 )
414         temp = BinaryStack ( i , : , : ) ;
415         temp = reshape ( temp , size ( temp , 2 ) , size ( temp , 3 ) ) ;
416         BinaryStack ( i , : , : ) = bwsmooth ( temp , params ) ;
417     end
418     for i = 1 : size ( BinaryStack , 2 )
419         temp = BinaryStack ( : , i , : ) ;
420         temp = reshape ( temp , size ( temp , 1 ) , size ( temp , 3 ) ) ;
421         BinaryStack ( : , i , : ) = bwsmooth ( temp , params ) ;
422     end

```

```

423
424 %% Re-segment blobs from fibers in 3D post smoothing
425 % Have to do this post 3D thickening and smoothing so
      that the fibers
426 % don't end up massively disconnected from the blob
      regions
427 blobMask = imopen(BinaryStack , strel3d(voxFiltDia)); %
      Segment blobs
428 blobMask = fastDilate( blobMask , sFactor);
429 blobBlock = BinaryStack;
430 blobBlock(blobMask==0)=0;
431 blobBlock = bwareaopen(blobBlock , blobMinArea*sFactor);
432 fiberBinaryIso = BinaryStack; % Assign fibers
433 fiberBinaryIso(blobBlock)=0;
434 clear blobMask
435 clear BinaryStack
436
437 %% Blob Ellipsoid analysis
438
439 blobBlock = bwareaopen(blobBlock , 5000);
440 blobBlock = imopen(blobBlock , strel3d(sFactor));
441 blobBlock(1:2*sFactor , : , :) = 0;
442 blobBlock(size(blobBlock , 1) - 2*sFactor : end , : , :) = 0;
443 blobBlock( : , 1:2*sFactor , :) = 0;
444 blobBlock( : , size(blobBlock , 2) - 2*sFactor : end , :) = 0;
445
446 % Select largest blob for analysis
447 stats = regionprops(blobBlock , 'PixelList' , 'Area');
448 if(numel(stats)>2)

```

```

449     blobBlock = false(size(blobBlock));
450     largest = 1;
451     curStats = stats(1);
452     area1 = curStats.Area;
453     for k = 2:size(stats,1)
454         curStats = stats(k);
455         if(curStats.Area>area1)
456             largest = k;
457             area1 = curStats.Area;
458         end
459     end
460     curPixels = stats(largest).PixelList;
461     for m = 1:size(curPixels,1)
462         blobBlock(curPixels(m,2),curPixels(m,1),curPixels
463             (m,3))=1;
464     end
465
466
467     % Find edge voxels
468     curEdge = imerode(blobBlock, strel3d(3));
469     blobBlockShell=blobBlock;
470     blobBlockShell(curEdge==1)=0; %change MV
471     clear curEdge
472     ind = find(blobBlockShell); %change MV
473     [ yInd, xInd, zInd ] = ind2sub(size(blobBlockShell), ind);
474     %change MV

```



```

475 [ ~, radii, evecs, v, ~ ] = ellipsoid_fit( [ xInd yInd
      zInd ], ' ' );
476
477 mind = [ 0 0 0 ];
478 maxd = size(blobBlockShell); %change MV
479 clear blobBlockShell
480 nsteps = 100;
481 step = ( maxd - mind ) / nsteps;
482 [ x, y, z ] = meshgrid( linspace( mind(1) - step(1), maxd
      (1) + step(1), nsteps ), linspace( mind(2) - step(2),
      maxd(2) + step(2), nsteps ), linspace( mind(3) - step
      (3), maxd(3) + step(3), nsteps ) );
483
484 Ellipsoid = v(1) *x.*x + v(2) * y.*y + v(3) * z.*z +
      ...
485      2*v(4) *x.*y + 2*v(5)*x.*z + 2*v(6) * y.*z + ...
486      2*v(7) *x      + 2*v(8)*y      + 2*v(9) * z;
487 ellipSurf = isosurface( x, y, z, Ellipsoid, -v(10));
488
489 % Display ellipsoid and sample of source datapoints
490 figure()
491 hold on
492 temp = [xInd, yInd, zInd];
493 if(numel(xInd)>2000)
494     temp = datasample(temp,2000);
495 end
496 scatter3(temp(:,1),temp(:,2),temp(:,3));
497 p = patch(ellipSurf);
498 set( p, 'FaceColor', 'g', 'EdgeColor', 'none' );

```

```
499     camlight;
500     lighting phong;
501     daspect([1,1,1])
502     axis equal
503     hold off
504     drawnow
505
506     radiiO = radii;
507     radii = abs(radii);
508     if(radii(1)>radii(2) && radii(1)>radii(3)) % 1 is long
509         axis
510         longAxis = radii(1);
511         if(radii(2)>radii(3))
512             sAxis1 = radii(2);
513             sAxis2 = radii(3);
514         else
515             sAxis1 = radii(3);
516             sAxis2 = radii(2);
517         end
518         longOrient = evecs(:,1);
519     elseif(radii(2)>radii(1) && radii(2)>radii(3)) % 2 is
520         long axis
521         longAxis = radii(2);
522         if(radii(1)>radii(3))
523             sAxis1 = radii(1);
524             sAxis2 = radii(3);
525         else
526             sAxis1 = radii(3);
527             sAxis2 = radii(1);
```

```

526         end
527         longOrient = evecs(:,1);
528     else % 3 is long axis
529         longAxis = radii(3);
530         if(radii(1)>radii(2))
531             sAxis1 = radii(1);
532             sAxis2 = radii(2);
533         else
534             sAxis1 = radii(2);
535             sAxis2 = radii(1);
536         end
537         longOrient = evecs(:,1);
538     end
539
540     longAxisUM = longAxis*xyRes;
541     sAxis1UM = sAxis1*xyRes;
542     sAxis2UM = sAxis2*xyRes;
543
544     % Orientation of long axis with respect to z-axis (in
545     % degrees)
546     theta = atan((sqrt(longOrient(1,1)^2 + longOrient(2,1)^2)
547     )/longOrient(3,1))*57.2958;
548
549     % Calculate sphericity
550     lacSphericity = sAxis2/longAxis;
551     lacSurfArea = 4*pi*(((longAxisUM*sAxis1UM)^1.6+(
552     longAxisUM*sAxis2UM)^1.6+(sAxis1UM*sAxis2UM)^1.6)/3)
553     ^ (1/1.6));
554     lacVolume = (4/3)*pi*longAxisUM*sAxis1UM*sAxis2UM;

```

```

551 lacVolumeTrue = sum(sum(sum(blobBlock)))*xyRes*xyRes*
    xyRes;
552 lacOblat = 2*((sAxis1-longAxis)/(sAxis2-longAxis)) -1;
553 disp(['Lacunae Sphericity: ',num2str(lacSphericity)])
554 disp(['Lacunae Surface Area: ',num2str(lacSurfArea), ' um
    ^2'])
555 disp(['Lacunae Ellip Volume: ',num2str(lacVolume), ' um^3 '
    ])
556 disp(['Lacunae True Volume: ',num2str(lacVolumeTrue), ' um
    ^3'])
557 disp(['Lacunae Oblateness: ', num2str(lacOblat)])
558
559 % Construct volume block of ellipsoid
560 ellipseSolid = polygon2voxel(ellipSurf, size(blobBlock), '
    none');
561 for i = 1:size(ellipseSolid,3)
562     ellipseSolid(:,:,i) = imfill(ellipseSolid(:,:,i), '
        holes');
563 end
564 clear ellipSurf
565
566 % Create shell region around ellipsoid to search for
    connecting
567 % canaliculi
568 shellThick = 2*round(sAxis2);
569 % lacunaShell = imdilate(blobBlock, strel3d(shellThick));
570 lacunaShell = fastDilate( blobBlock, shellThick);
571
572

```

```

573 % Skeletonize the fibres
574 fSkel = Skeleton3D(fiberBinaryIso); % Code spends 26
      minutes here
575
576 w = size(fSkel,1);
577 l = size(fSkel,2);
578 h = size(fSkel,3);
579
580 % Initial step: condense, convert to voxels and back
581 minBranchLen = 4*sFactor;
582 [~,node,link] = Skel2Graph3D(fSkel,minBranchLen);
583
584 % Total length of network
585 wl = sum(cellfun('length',{node.links}));
586
587 skel2 = Graph2Skel3D(node,link,w,l,h);
588 [~,canNode,canLink] = Skel2Graph3D(skel2,0);
589
590 % Calculate new total length of network
591 wl_new = sum(cellfun('length',{canNode.links}));
592
593 % Iterate the same steps until network length changed by
      less than 0.5%
594 while(wl_new~=wl)
595     wl = wl_new;
596
597     skel2 = Graph2Skel3D(canNode,canLink,w,l,h);
598     [~,canNode,canLink] = Skel2Graph3D(skel2,
      minBranchLen);

```

```

599
600         wl_new = sum(cellfun('length',{canNode.links}));
601     end
602     skel3 = Graph2Skel3D(canNode,canLink,w,l,h);
603     OuputData.canNodes = canNode;
604     OuputData.canLinks = canLink;
605
606     % Display result
607     debug = 0;
608     if(debug==1)
609         figure();
610         hold on;
611         for i=1:length(canNode)
612
613             x1 = canNode(i).comx;
614             y1 = canNode(i).comy;
615             z1 = canNode(i).comz;
616
617             if(canNode(i).ep==1)
618                 ncol = 'c';
619             else
620                 ncol = 'y';
621             end
622
623             for j=1:length(canNode(i).links) % draw all
624                 connections of each node
625                 if(canNode(canNode(i).conn(j)).ep==1)
626                     col='k'; % branches are black
627                 else

```

```

627         col='r'; % links are red
628     end
629     if (canNode(i).ep==1)
630         col='k';
631     end
632
633
634     % Draw edges as lines using voxel positions
635     for k=1:length(canLink(canNode(i).links(j)).
        point)-1
636         [x3,y3,z3]=ind2sub([w,l,h],canLink(
            canNode(i).links(j)).point(k));
637         [x2,y2,z2]=ind2sub([w,l,h],canLink(
            canNode(i).links(j)).point(k+1));
638         line([y3 y2],[x3 x2],[z3 z2],'Color',col,
            'LineWidth',2);
639     end
640 end
641
642 % Draw all nodes as yellow circles
643 plot3(y1,x1,z1,'o','MarkerSize',9,...
644 'MarkerFaceColor',ncol,...
645 'Color','k');
646
647 end
648 axis image;axis off;
649 set(gcf,'Color','white');
650 drawnow;
651 end

```

```

652
653
654
655 % Find endpoints on canaliculi skeleton
656 endPts =false ( size ( fiberBinaryIso ) );
657 for i=1:length ( canNode )
658     x1 = round ( canNode ( i ) . comx );
659     y1 = round ( canNode ( i ) . comy );
660     z1 = round ( canNode ( i ) . comz );
661
662     if ( canNode ( i ) . ep==1 )
663         endPts ( x1 , y1 , z1 ) =1;
664     end
665 end
666
667
668
669 % Ouput total lengths of all canaliculai
670 linkLengths = zeros ( numel ( canLink ) , 1 );
671 for i = 1 : numel ( canLink )
672     linkLengths ( i ) = numel ( canLink ( i ) . point );
673 end
674 disp ( [ 'Average canaliculi length: ', num2str ( mean (
        linkLengths ) ) ] )
675
676
677 %% Display canaliculai near the lacunae (i.e. within
        shell region)
678 if ( display3D )

```



```

679     fibre2show = skel3;
680     ellipseShellLocal = false(size(lacunaShell));
681     index = find(sum(sum(lacunaShell,2),3));
682     xF = index(1)-100;
683     if(xF<1)
684         xF = 1;
685     end
686     xB = index(end)+100;
687     if(xB>size(lacunaShell,1))
688         xB = size(lacunaShell,1);
689     end
690     index = find(sum(sum(lacunaShell,1),3));
691     yF = index(1)-100;
692     if(yF<1)
693         yF = 1;
694     end
695     yB = index(end)+100;
696     if(yB>size(lacunaShell,2))
697         yB = size(lacunaShell,2);
698     end
699
700     ellipseShellLocal(xF:xB,yF:yB,:) = 1;
701     fibre2show(lacunaShell==0)=0;
702
703     figure()
704     sSurfaces = isosurface(fibre2show,0.5); %
705         skeletonized fibers
706     xyz = sSurfaces.vertices;
707     tri = sSurfaces.faces;

```

```

707     trisurf(tri,xyz(:,1),xyz(:,2),xyz(:,3),'FaceColor','
        red','EdgeColor','none','FaceAlpha',1)
708     daspect([1,1,1]); view(3); axis tight; camlight;
        lighting gouraud % Format view
709     hold on
710
711     sSurfaces = isosurface(blobBlock,0.5); % simplified
        lacunae
712     xyz = sSurfaces.vertices;
713     tri = sSurfaces.faces;
714     trisurf(tri,xyz(:,1),xyz(:,2),xyz(:,3),'FaceColor','
        yellow','EdgeColor','none','FaceAlpha',0.3)
715
716     fiberBinaryLocal = fiberBinaryIso;
717     fiberBinaryLocal(lacunaShell==0)=0;
718     sSurfaces = isosurface(fiberBinaryLocal,0.5); %
        simplified canaliculi
719     xyz = sSurfaces.vertices;
720     tri = sSurfaces.faces;
721     trisurf(tri,xyz(:,1),xyz(:,2),xyz(:,3),'FaceColor','
        green','EdgeColor','none','FaceAlpha',0.5)
722
723
724     %         for i=1:length(canNode) % end points
725     %             x1 = round(canNode(i).comx);
726     %             y1 = round(canNode(i).comy);
727     %             z1 = round(canNode(i).comz);
728     %
729     %             if (canNode(i).ep==1)

```

```

730 %             ellipseShellT = lacunaShell;
731 %             ellipseShellT(x1,y1,z1)=0;
732 %             if (sum(sum(sum(ellipseShellT)))<sum(sum(sum
( lacunaShell))))
733 %                 plot3(y1,x1,z1,'o','MarkerSize',5,...
734 %                 'MarkerFaceColor','c',...
735 %                 'Color','k');
736 %             end
737 %         end
738 %     end
739 %
740 %     % color all non-connected endpoints that are nearby
741 %     lacunaLocalCK = ellipseShellLocal;
742 %     lacunaLocalCK(lacunaShell)=0;
743 %     for i=1:length(canNode) % end points
744 %         x1 = round(canNode(i).comx);
745 %         y1 = round(canNode(i).comy);
746 %         z1 = round(canNode(i).comz);
747 %
748 %         if (canNode(i).ep==1)
749 %             ellipseShellT = lacunaLocalCK;
750 %             ellipseShellT(x1,y1,z1)=0;
751 %             if (sum(sum(sum(ellipseShellT)))<sum(sum(sum
( lacunaLocalCK))))
752 %                 plot3(y1,x1,z1,'o','MarkerSize',5,...
753 %                 'MarkerFaceColor','y',...
754 %                 'Color','k');
755 %             end
756 %         end

```

```

757 %           end
758         hold off
759         drawnow
760     end
761
762     % Count number of endpoints within the lacunae shell,
763         assume those
764     % segments of fibres are connecting the the lacunae
765     endPts(lacunaShell==0)=0;
766     connectedEndPnts = sum(sum(sum(endPts)));
767     disp(['canaliculi connecting to lacunae: ', num2str(
768         connectedEndPnts)])
769
770     % calculated connecting lacunar density
771     lacCanDensity = connectedEndPnts/lacVolumeTrue;
772     disp(['canaliculi connection density: ', num2str(
773         lacCanDensity), ' per um^3'])
774
775     clear lacunaLocalCK
776     clear ellipseShellLocal
777     clear lacunaShell
778     clear endPts
779     clear fiberBinaryIso
780
781     %% Thicken fiber network
782
783     _____
784
785     % Create fibre diameter, either simple dilate or a ring
786     around

```

```
780 fiberBinaryDil = fastDilate(skel3,round(mean(fiberLenDia
      (:,2)))));
781
782 fiberBinaryDil(blobBlock==1)=0; % Keep original blob
      geometries for this masking
783
784 figure('Name','Final Canaliculi','NumberTitle','off') %
      Display processed fibers
785 imshow3D(fiberBinaryDil)
786 drawnow
787
788
789 %% Create final blocks and save data
      _____
790
791 combineFileName = strcat(PathName,'FiberMask.mat');
792 save(combineFileName,'fiberBinaryDil');
793
794 combineFileName = strcat(PathName,'BlobMask.mat');
795 save(combineFileName,'blobBlock');
796
797 combineFileName = strcat(PathName,'EllipseMask.mat');
798 save(combineFileName,'ellipseSolid');
799
800 combineFileName = strcat(PathName,'LacunaeMask.mat');
801 save(combineFileName,'blobBlock');
802
803 combineFileName = strcat(PathName,'FiberSkeleton.mat');
804 save(combineFileName,'skel3');
```

```

805
806 combineFileName = strcat(PathName, 'OutputResults.mat');
807 save(combineFileName, 'OuputData');
808
809
810
811 % Save mreasured metrics to output file
812 resultFileName = strcat(PathName, 'Results.txt');
813 fid = fopen( resultFileName, 'wt' ); % Check in double
      diameter reporting
814 fprintf(fid, 'Average Canaliculi Diameter: %f um \n', mean
      (fiberLenDiaUM(:,2)));
815 fprintf(fid, 'Average Canaliculi Segment Length (3D): %f
      um \n', mean(linkLengths));
816 fprintf(fid, 'Porosity volume fraction: %f \n', sum(sum(
      sum(fiberBinaryDil)))/(size(fiberBinaryDil,1)*size(
      fiberBinaryDil,2)*size(fiberBinaryDil,3)));
817 fprintf(fid, 'Lacunar ellipsoid axis lengths(long to
      short): %f, %f, %f \n', longAxisUM, sAxis1UM, sAxis2UM);
818 fprintf(fid, 'Lacunar ellipsoid orientation: %f Degrees \
      n', theta);
819 fprintf(fid, 'Lacuna Sphericity: %f \n', lacSphericity);
820 fprintf(fid, 'Lacuna Oblateness: %f \n', lacOblat);
821 fprintf(fid, 'Lacuna Surface Area: %f um^2 \n', lacSurfArea
      );
822 fprintf(fid, 'Lacuna Volume: %f um^3 \n', lacVolume);
823 fprintf(fid, 'Lacuna True Volume: %f um^3 ', lacVolumeTrue)
      ;
824

```

```

825     fprintf(fid, 'Canaliculi connecting to Lacunae: %d \n',
           connectedEndPnts);
826     fprintf(fid, 'Canaliculi connection density: %f per um^3
827 \n', lacCanDensity);
828     fclose(fid);
829
830
831     %% Construct 3D representation of canaliculi and lacunae
           network
832     if(display3DCan)
833         figure()
834         fiberBinaryDisp = padarray(fiberBinaryDil,[1 1 1],0);
835         sSurfaces = isosurface(fiberBinaryDisp,0.5);
836         xyz = sSurfaces.vertices;
837         tri = sSurfaces.faces;
838         trisurf(tri,xyz(:,1),xyz(:,2),xyz(:,3),'FaceColor','
           yellow','EdgeColor','none','FaceAlpha',1)
839         daspect([1,1,1]); view(3); axis tight; camlight;
           lighting gouraud % Format view
840         clear fiberBinaryDisp
841
842         hold on
843         blobBlockDisp = padarray(blobBlock,[1 1 1],0);
844         sSurfaces = isosurface(blobBlockDisp,0.5);
845         xyz = sSurfaces.vertices;
846         tri = sSurfaces.faces;
847         trisurf(tri,xyz(:,1),xyz(:,2),xyz(:,3),'FaceColor','
           green','EdgeColor','none','FaceAlpha',1)

```

```
848         daspect([1,1,1]); view(3); axis tight; camlight;
           lighting gouraud % Format view
849         clear blobBlockDisp
850         hold off
851     end
852
853     toc % report to user how long analysis took
854 end
```