

Mechanostat parameters estimated from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-computed tomography data of mechanically driven bone adaptation are logarithmically dependent on loading frequency

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9 **caudal vertebra**

10 Abstract

11 Mechanical loading is a key factor governing bone remodeling and adaptation. Both preclinical and
12 clinical studies have demonstrated its effects on bone tissue, which were also notably predicted in the
13 mechanostat theory. Indeed, existing methods to quantify bone mechanoregulation have successfully
14 associated the frequency of remodeling events with local mechanical signals, combining time-lapsed
15 *in vivo* micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) imaging and micro-finite element (micro-FE)
16 analysis. However, a correlation between the local surface velocity of remodeling events and
17 mechanical signals has not been shown. As many degenerative bone diseases have also been linked
18 to impaired bone remodeling, this relationship could provide an advantage in detecting the effects of
19 such conditions and advance our understanding of the underlying mechanisms. Therefore, in this
20 study, we introduce a novel method to estimate remodeling velocity (RmV) curves from time-lapsed
21 *in vivo* mouse caudal vertebrae data under static and cyclic mechanical loading. These curves can be
22 fitted with piecewise linear functions as proposed in the mechanostat theory. Accordingly, new
23 remodeling parameters can be derived from such data, including formation saturation levels (FSL),
24 resorption velocity modulus (RVM), and remodeling thresholds (RmT). Our results revealed that the
25 norm of the gradient of strain energy density (∇ SED) yielded the highest accuracy to quantify
26 mechanoregulation data using micro-FE analysis with homogeneous material properties, while
27 effective strain was the best predictor for micro-FE analysis with heterogeneous material properties.
28 Furthermore, RmV curves could be accurately described with piecewise linear and hyperbola
29 functions (root mean square error below 0.2 $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$ for weekly analysis) and several remodeling
30 parameters determined from these curves followed a logarithmic relationship with loading frequency,
31 especially FSL and RmT values for both weekly and four-weekly analysis. Crucially, RmV curves
32 and derived parameters could detect differences in mechanically driven bone adaptation, which
33 complemented previous results showing a logarithmic relationship between loading frequency and
34 net change in bone volume fraction over four weeks. Together, we expect this data to support the
35 calibration of *in silico* models of bone adaptation and the characterization of the effects of
36 mechanical loading and pharmaceutical treatment interventions *in vivo*.

37

38 **Introduction**

39 Bone is a dynamic organ capable of adapting to its mechanical environment (Burr et al. 2002).
40 Through a multiscale process, loads are transferred from the organ to the cellular level, eliciting
41 highly coordinated biological responses that remodel its architecture (Wolff 1986, Lanyon 1992,
42 Turner 1998). Indeed, several studies have successfully shown the influence of mechanical loading in
43 bone adaptation, especially in trabecular bone, highlighting how mechanical cues guide the bone
44 structure towards an optimal load transfer (Lanyon 1992, Rubin et al. 1994, Huiskes et al. 2000, De
45 Souza et al. 2005, Lambers et al. 2011). From a mathematical modeling perspective, the mechanostat
46 theory (Frost 1987) is a widely known proposal for the regulatory mechanism driving tissue-level
47 bone adaptation, which has been successfully incorporated into *in silico* models of bone adaptation
48 capable of approximating the trends observed *in vivo* in response to various interventions (Levchuk et
49 al. 2014) and loading frequencies (Kameo et al. 2011). Such models can leverage time-lapsed *in vivo*
50 micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) data, which has also enabled tracking structural changes in
51 response to externally applied loading in preclinical animal studies, contributing to a comprehensive
52 description of both morphometric changes and mechanoregulation information of bone adaptation
53 (Schulte et al. 2013, Birkhold et al. 2017, Albiol et al. 2020, San Cheong et al. 2020). Notably, with
54 aging and in certain disease contexts, this remodeling process becomes unbalanced (Rubin et al.
55 1992, Basseley et al. 1998), often leading to further degenerative conditions such as osteoporosis,
56 which precede an increased risk of fractures and culminate in considerable health and economic costs
57 for society (Gabriel et al. 2002, Becker et al. 2010). An impaired bone mechanoregulation has been
58 suggested as a possible cause of this problem. Therefore, advancing our ability to retrieve
59 mechanoregulation information from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT data can help better understand
60 the underlying mechanisms and, with that, develop more effective treatments for these degenerative
61 conditions.

62 In this regard, preclinical models, such as the mouse caudal vertebrae or tibia loading model, have
63 been foundational to explore bone adaptation processes by enabling controllable experimental
64 settings that can also mimic clinical pathological conditions (Rubin et al. 1994, Robling et al. 2002,
65 Webster et al. 2008, Vandamme 2014, Razi et al. 2015, Roberts et al. 2019). As a result, existing
66 methods to investigate mechanoregulation have successfully linked remodeling events with tissue
67 strains obtained from micro-finite element (micro-FE) analysis, showing strong associations between
68 formation/resorption and high/low tissue strains, respectively (Schulte et al. 2013, Razi et al. 2015,
69 Scheuren et al. 2020), which were summarized in conditional probability curves defined over a
70 continuous range of tissue strains. To this end, several mathematical quantities have been proposed to
71 describe the local mechanical signal: strain energy density (SED), effective strain, and norm of the
72 gradient of SED (∇ SED). Deformation can be quantified using SED or effective strain (Pistoia et al.
73 2002), a derived quantity from SED that accounts for differences in tissue stiffness. Likewise, it is
74 hypothesized that load-induced bone adaptation arises from mechanical deformation perceived by
75 osteocytes, the mechanosensitive cells in bone (direct cell strain), and interstitial fluid flow (shear
76 stress) in the lacunar-canalicular network (Klein-Nulend et al. 1995, Fritton et al. 2009, Weinbaum et
77 al. 2011). Mathematically, ∇ SED represents spatial differences in tissue deformation, which are
78 believed to induce fluid flow (Huiskes 2000). From this perspective, it is unclear which mechanical
79 signal shows the best association with bone remodeling events.

80 Furthermore, conditional probability-based approaches lack quantitative information describing the
81 expected change in bone material for a given strain value. This dependency has been considered *in*
82 *silico* (Levchuk et al. 2014, Goda et al. 2016, Louna et al. 2019) by defining the surface velocity in
83 response to the perceived mechanical signals guiding remodeling events, analogous to the

84 mechanostat theory proposal. Besides, previous work has shown a dose-dependent effect of this
85 mechanical stimulus (Mosley et al. 1998, Sugiyama et al. 2012, Scheuren et al. 2020, Walle et al.
86 2021), but an association of surface velocity with mechanical signal has not been investigated at the
87 tissue level *in vivo*. On the one hand, it hinders more detailed comparisons of degenerative conditions
88 that may conserve the mechanosensation ability of bone cells, associated with mechanical signal
89 thresholds that regulate remodeling events, but influence the magnitude of the response to the
90 mechanical stimuli and the overall bone turnover. On the other hand, from a computational modeling
91 perspective, retrieving such information from *in vivo* data can provide valuable calibration data for
92 the mechanoregulation mechanisms implemented in such models to achieve more realistic bone
93 adaptation representations.

94 Therefore, the present study had two aims. First, we sought to identify which mechanical signal
95 showed the best association with bone remodeling events using conditional probability curves and
96 quantified with the correct classification rate (CCR) (Tourolle né Betts et al. 2020). Second, we
97 aimed to propose a method to retrieve mechanoregulation information from time-lapsed *in vivo*
98 micro-CT data that associates the surface remodeling velocity (RmV) with the local mechanical
99 signal. We express this relationship in RmV curves from which several biologically meaningful
100 parameters can be derived, such as formation/resorption thresholds and saturation levels. Notably, a
101 consistent nomenclature of these parameters is proposed and formalized in alignment with the current
102 understanding of the mechanostat theory. Furthermore, we applied our novel method to an *in vivo*
103 mouse caudal vertebrae dataset (Scheuren et al. 2020) and quantified the local dynamic response of
104 trabecular bone adaptation to static and cyclic loading of varying frequencies. We hypothesized that
105 the effect of increased loading frequencies could be measured with our new analysis and compared
106 through the parameters derived from these RmV curves. Finally, we investigated if there was a
107 relationship between these parameters and loading frequency, analogous to the logarithmic
108 relationship observed between loading frequency and net change in bone volume fraction over the 4-
109 week observation period (Scheuren et al. 2020).

110 **Materials and Methods**

111 **Time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT mouse caudal vertebrae dataset**

112 The experimental data used for this study was collected in a previous longitudinal murine *in vivo*
113 loading study (Scheuren et al. 2020), supporting 3R principles. Briefly, 11-week-old female
114 C57BL/6J mice received surgery to allow mechanical loading of the sixth caudal vertebrae (CV6) via
115 stainless steel pins (Fine Science Tools, Heidelberg, Germany) inserted into the fifth and seventh
116 vertebrae following the protocol by Webster et al. (2008). After surgery and recovery, the 15-week-
117 old mice were split into five groups: sham loading (0 N), 8 N static, or 8 N cyclic loading with the
118 frequencies of 2 Hz, 5 Hz, or 10 Hz. The loading regime was performed for five minutes, three times
119 per week, over four weeks, as previously described by Lambers et al. (2011). With the start of
120 loading, the animals were scanned weekly using *in vivo* micro-CT (vivaCT 40, Scanco Medical AG,
121 Switzerland), with an isotropic voxel size of 10.5 μm .

122 **Automated compartmental analysis of the mouse caudal vertebrae**

123 Consecutive time-points of the micro-CT scans were initially registered to each other using the Image
124 Processing Language (IPL Version 5.04c; Scanco Medical AG, Switzerland). For the identification
125 of the trabecular and cortical compartments in the structure, the images were filtered with a Gaussian
126 filter (sigma: 1.2, truncate: 1) as implemented in (Virtanen et al. 2020), binarized with a threshold of
127 580 mgHA/cm³ (Scheuren et al. 2020), followed by automatic identification of the relevant

128 compartments following the protocol proposed by Lambers et al. (2011). This approach was
129 implemented in Python (version 3.9.9) and validated against the existing pipeline in IPL
130 (Supplementary Material 1.1.1).

131 **Micro-finite element analysis**

132 Micro-CT images were analyzed with micro-finite element analysis (micro-FE) to estimate the local
133 mechanical signal. The simulations computed strain energy density (SED, in MPa) in the vertebrae,
134 from which all derived quantities were determined after rescaling to match the forces applied *in vivo*:
135 8 N for loaded groups and 4 N (physiological loading) for the sham-loaded group (0 N) (Christen et
136 al. 2012). Two sets of simulations were performed for each sample: with homogeneous and
137 heterogeneous material properties based on the binary and grayscale images of the samples. The
138 former considered a Young's modulus value of 14.8 GPa for bone and a Poisson's ratio of 0.3
139 (Webster et al. 2008), whereas the latter applied the linear relationship between bone mineral density
140 and Young's modulus in trabecular bone (Mulder et al. 2007), also using a Poisson's ratio of 0.3.
141 Image voxels were converted to 8-node hexahedral elements, and bone was assumed to behave
142 within the linear elastic regime. Two cylindrical discs were added at the proximal and distal ends of
143 the vertebra model (Webster et al. 2008), mimicking the role of the intervertebral discs. Disc settings
144 were calibrated for micro-FE with homogeneous and heterogeneous material properties
145 (Supplementary Material 1.2). The nodes at the proximal end of the micro-FE mesh were constrained
146 in all directions, while the nodes at the distal end were displaced by 1% of the length in the z-axis
147 (longitudinal axis of the sample). The pipeline was also implemented in Python, and the simulations
148 ran on the Euler cluster operated by Scientific IT Services at ETH Zurich, using the micro-FE solver
149 ParOSol (Flaig et al. 2011) on Intel Xeon Gold 6150 processors (2.7-3.7 GHz).

150 **Mechanoregulation analysis based on conditional probability curves**

151 The mechanoregulation analysis performed in this study considered three mathematical quantities
152 representing the local mechanical signal: strain energy density (SED), effective strain, and the norm
153 of the gradient of SED (∇ SED). In this context, the gradient was computed using the central
154 difference scheme, and the norm was used as a proxy for the fluid flow in each voxel. For SED and
155 effective strain, the values were collected on the voxels on the bone side of the surface interface
156 between bone and marrow, while the values for ∇ SED were collected on the marrow side.

157 The conditional probabilities of a remodeling event (formation, quiescence, resorption) to occur at
158 each value of mechanical signal were calculated as described previously by Schulte et al. (2013), for
159 weekly intervals and the 4-week observation period. The quantification of the amount of
160 mechanoregulation information recovered in the analysis relied on the correct classification rate
161 (CCR), using an implementation proposed by Tourolle né Betts et al. (2020), which summarizes in a
162 single number the ability to accurately classify remodeling events within the range of observed local
163 mechanical signal values.

164 **Mechanostat remodeling velocity curve and parameter derivation**

165 Here, we introduce a novel method to estimate sample-specific remodeling velocity curves and their
166 corresponding mechanostat parameters based on time-lapsed micro-CT data. The proposed method
167 considers the scans from two time-points: baseline and follow-up images. First, the follow-up image
168 is registered to the baseline, revealing volumes of formed, quiescent, and resorbed clusters. Next,
169 these clusters are used to classify surface voxels of the baseline image: formation surfaces consist of
170 the overlap between dilated formed clusters and the baseline surface, resorption surfaces refer to the

171 overlap between resorbed clusters and the baseline surface, and quiescent surfaces contain the
172 remaining surface voxels. A distance transform (DT) algorithm (taxicab metric) is applied to the
173 follow-up image and the inverted follow-up image and masked with the formation and resorption
174 surfaces identified before, yielding the distance of each surface voxel to the surface of the follow-up
175 scan. It is assumed that the distance transform of the follow-up reveals the amount of formed bone,
176 while the inverted follow-up identifies the depth of resorption per surface voxel. The values assigned
177 to formation surfaces are obtained by gray-dilating the distance transform values of the formed
178 clusters into the neighboring formation surface voxels identified. Further, these are linearly scaled in
179 a cluster-specific fashion to match the volume of the corresponding cluster (Supplementary Figure 2).
180 Next, the mechanical signal (ms) computed from the micro-FE analysis of the baseline image is
181 collected using the same remodeling surface masks. Specifically, we selected effective strain in
182 microstrain ($\mu\epsilon$) as the mechanical signal descriptor.

183 Given that each surface voxel contains information on the amount of surface change and the
184 estimated mechanical signal, a 2D histogram is computed, considering the mechanical signal on the
185 horizontal axis and the estimated distance on the vertical axis. The mechanical signal is capped at the
186 99th percentile to eliminate very high (unphysiological) values, and the values are binned at 1% of
187 this value. In the vertical axis, all values are considered and binned at 1% of the maximum value
188 observed. A weighted average of the distance values is computed using the number of counts in the
189 2D histogram as weights, providing a value for each mechanical signal bin and considering a value of
190 0 for the quiescent surface voxels. The last step converts the estimated distance to a remodeling
191 velocity magnitude by multiplying and dividing by the voxel size of the images and the interval
192 between the time-points analyzed, respectively. For consistency with other dynamic morphometry
193 quantities (such as mineral apposition and resorption rates), we chose to also express remodeling
194 velocity in $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$.

195 Finally, mathematical functions are fitted to the curves obtained, yielding their quantitative
196 parametric description, namely: piecewise linear (Equation 1), as proposed in the original
197 mechanostat theory, and a continuous hyperbola function (Equation 2), both illustrated in Figure 1,
198 and which enable quantifying new remodeling parameters *in vivo*. The piecewise linear function is
199 defined by formation and resorption saturation levels (FSL/RSL, $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$) which determine the
200 maximum and minimum remodeling velocities observed, formation and resorption thresholds
201 (FT/RT, $\mu\epsilon$) which determine the minimum/maximum mechanical signal value from which
202 formation/resorption events are observed, and formation and resorption velocity modulus
203 (FVM/RVM, $\mu\text{m}/\text{day} / \mu\epsilon$) which determine the change in remodeling velocity resulting from a
204 change in mechanical signal, defined between FSL/RSL and FT/RT, respectively. Specifically, we
205 highlight the proposal to define FVM/RVM as a modulus, because the values are also proportional to
206 mechanical strain. Comparably, the hyperbola function comprises similar FSL and RSL parameters, a
207 remodeling threshold (RmT, $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$) corresponding to the mechanical signal value at which the
208 RmV curve is zero and a remodeling velocity modulus (RmVM, $\mu\text{m}/\text{day} \times \mu\epsilon$), which is defined as
209 the scale factor determining the rate of change in remodeling velocity resulting from a change in
210 mechanical signal.

211 Piecewise linear:

$$RmV (ms) = \begin{cases} RSL, ms < RT - \frac{RSL}{RVM} \\ -RT \times RVM + RVM \times ms, RT - \frac{RSL}{RVM} < ms < RT \\ 0, RT < ms < FT \\ -FT \times FVM + FVM \times ms, FT < ms < FT + \frac{FSL}{FVM} \\ FSL, FT + \frac{FSL}{FVM} < ms \end{cases} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

213 Hyperbola function:

$$214 \quad RmV (ms) = FSL - \frac{RmVM}{RmT + ms} \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

215 Note that for the hyperbola function, RSL is defined as the value of the RmV function at the
216 minimum mechanical signal value observed.

217 The quality of the fits was assessed using the root mean squared error (RMSE) between the fitted
218 curve and the corresponding velocity value at each mechanical signal value. The curve fitting was
219 done with Scipy 1.7.3 (Virtanen et al. 2020) and Curve-fit annealing (Reinhardt 2019).

220 **Frequency dependency of estimated mechanostat parameters**

221 We implemented a balanced bootstrapping approach (Dvison et al. 1986) to characterize the
222 distribution of the parameters estimated from the mathematical functions fitted to the remodeling
223 velocity curves. Samples were randomly resampled 2500 times per group to generate a synthetic
224 group of the same size, and the corresponding remodeling velocity curves were determined and fitted
225 with the piecewise linear and hyperbola functions, yielding the estimations of the mechanostat
226 parameters. We adopted the formula used previously (Scheuren et al. 2020) to evaluate the
227 dependency of relevant parameters with cyclic loading frequency. Specifically, the median values of
228 the distributions were plotted for each loading frequency and fitted with a logarithmic regression
229 curve (Equation 3). The quality of the fit was assessed with the Pseudo- R^2 (Schabenberger et al.
230 2001) which allows comparing the quality of fitted relationships for parameters with different
231 magnitudes.

232 $y = y_0 + a \times \ln(f)$, f represents the loading frequency (Equation 3).

233 **Statistical analysis**

234 Statistical analysis was performed with Python 3.10.5, using the packages SciPy 1.7.3 (Virtanen et al.
235 2020) and Scikit_posthocs 0.7.0 (Terpilowski 2019), and in R (R Core Team 2022). The analysis of
236 longitudinal measurements of bone structural parameters was performed through repeated
237 measurements ANOVA (Scheuren et al. 2020), implemented as a linear mixed model from the
238 lmerTEST package (Kuznetsova et al. 2017), after inspection of linear regression diagnostics plots.
239 All other parameters were first checked for normality, using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Non-normally
240 distributed parameters were presented as median and inter-quartile range, while the remaining were
241 presented as mean and standard deviation. Subsequently, parametric (one-way ANOVA followed by
242 Tukey HSD) and non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney U-test; Kruskal-Wallis followed by Conover-
243 Iman test for multiple comparisons, corrected by Holm-Bonferroni method) were chosen based on
244 the result of the normality test and indicated accordingly for each comparison. Mechanostat

245 parameter distributions generated by bootstrapping were compared using the Kolmogorov Smirnov
246 test. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$ in all experiments, otherwise significance levels are reported.

247 **Results**

248 **Performance comparison of mechanical signal descriptors for mechanoregulation analysis**

249 First, we extended previous results (Scheuren et al. 2020) by comparing SED, effective strain and
250 ∇ SED and their ability to quantify mechanoregulation information from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-
251 CT data. Figure 2A illustrates the conditional probability curves for each combination of mechanical
252 signal and group between weeks 0-4. This qualitative evaluation highlighted that, for all mechanical
253 signal descriptors, resorption was tightly regulated within a small interval of low mechanical signal
254 values (normalized mechanical signal $< 10\%$ for SED and ∇ SED and normalized mechanical signal
255 $< 29\%$ for effective strain), where it was associated with a higher conditional probability of
256 occurrence. Furthermore, for higher magnitudes of the mechanical signal, the conditional probability
257 curve displayed a more stochastic pattern oscillating around 0.33 for SED and ∇ SED and stabilizing
258 below this value for effective strain. ∇ SED provided the best discriminative ability for formation and
259 quiescence events for all groups, supported by statistically significant differences when comparing
260 the difference between the conditional probability associated with formation and quiescence between
261 the mechanical signal descriptors ($p < 0.001$ for ∇ SED-SED, ∇ SED-effective strain and SED-
262 effective strain). This was also substantiated by the increasing separation between both curves with
263 an increase in mechanical signal magnitude (Figure 2A). The 10 Hz group achieved the widest
264 difference between these events with 38% for ∇ SED, in comparison to 33% for SED and 20% for
265 effective strain, respectively, while the sham-loaded group showed a maximum difference of 33%,
266 24% and 12% for ∇ SED, SED and effective strain, respectively. Conversely, effective strain was the
267 best descriptor for resorption events based on the sharp increase in the conditional probability for this
268 event within the interval of low mechanical signal values (normalized mechanical signal $< 29\%$),
269 reaching its maximum conditional probability value between 64% (2 Hz group) and 80% (static and
270 5 Hz groups), contrasting with values ranging between 47% (sham-loaded group) and 52% (5 Hz
271 group) for ∇ SED.

272 CCR was computed from the conditional probability curves, as a proxy of the amount of
273 mechanoregulation information retrieved, quantifying the number of remodeling events which were
274 correctly classified. Our analysis showed that ∇ SED consistently achieved the best performance for
275 the micro-FE analysis with homogeneous material properties, followed by effective strain and SED
276 (Figure 2B). Across all groups and all timepoints, CCR values for ∇ SED were significantly higher
277 than those of SED (Figure 2B). A similar result was observed for ∇ SED and effective strain,
278 although no statistical differences were found for the loading frequencies groups of 5 Hz and 10 Hz
279 after week 2 (Figure 2B). For the interval 0-4 weeks, CCR values for ∇ SED were also significantly
280 higher than those from SED ($p < 0.001$) and effective strain ($p < 0.05$) for all groups except for the 10
281 Hz group (Table 1). The effect of increasing loading frequencies was also noticeable in the
282 corresponding increase in CCR values in the same period (Table 1). Conversely, for the micro-FE
283 analysis with heterogeneous material properties, effective strain showed the best association with
284 remodeling events, followed by SED and ∇ SED, albeit the accuracy was lower than what was
285 observed for micro-FE with homogeneous material properties, both in the weekly analysis (Figure
286 2B) and between 0-4 weeks (Table 1). Furthermore, there was a weaker increasing trend of CCR
287 values with increasing loading frequencies (Table 1) in comparison to the micro-FE analysis with
288 homogeneous material properties.

289 **Quantification of remodeling velocity curves and mechanostat parameters**

290 Next, we investigated bone mechanoregulation from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT data by deriving
291 remodeling velocity curves and fitting piecewise linear and hyperbola functions to estimate the
292 corresponding mechanostat parameters, namely formation and resorption saturation levels
293 (FSL/RSL), velocity modulus (FVM/RVM) and thresholds (FT/RT) for the piecewise linear function
294 and FSL/RSL, remodeling velocity modulus (RmVM) and remodeling thresholds (RmT) for the
295 hyperbola function, respectively. We analyzed consecutive pairs of scans (Figure 3, Supplementary
296 Table 1), one week apart and summarized the group differences over the four-week period of the
297 study (Table 2).

298 The raw net response curves shown in Figure 3 resemble the shape of the mechanostat schematic
299 proposed by Frost (2000) within the adapted and mild overload windows, providing a qualitative
300 validation of the output which evaluated supraphysiological cyclic loads applied to the mouse
301 vertebrae.

302 Increasing loading frequency led to an increased number of formation events in comparison to
303 resorption for a given strain value, which is visible as a linear translation of the derived curves
304 towards higher RmV values, with formation events starting from lower mechanical signal threshold
305 values (Figure 3). Quantitatively, the parameters derived from the fitted curves showed an increase in
306 the FSL and decreased RT and RmT values with increasing loading frequency for both the weekly
307 and the 0-4 weeks analysis (Table 2, Supplementary Table 1). Furthermore, the RSL values
308 decreased for increasing loading frequencies (Supplementary Table 1), especially for weeks 3-4.

309 The RmV curves also allowed characterizing time-lapsed bone adaptation for each group, where the
310 range of RmV values decreased weekly (Figure 3) and converged towards comparable values
311 between groups. Overall, this result indicated that the magnitude of the mechanical signal in weeks 3
312 and 4 no longer induced the same strong remodeling responses observed in the first two weeks. FSL
313 values followed a similar pattern for each group over the four weeks (Supplementary Table 1). In the
314 first week, the remodeling velocity curves highlighted the acute response to supraphysiological
315 loading, since most loaded groups did not reach a plateau at their FSL value, which only occurred in
316 subsequent time-points. This progression was visible in the raw net response curves and in the fitted
317 mathematical functions (Figure 3). Concurrently, RVM and FVM values (Supplementary Table 1)
318 increased over time such that, at weeks 0-1, only regions of either high or low effective strain could
319 elicit the strongest response associated with the estimated formation and resorption saturation levels,
320 respectively. Over time, as the bone structure adapted to supraphysiological loading, the extent of
321 regions of either high or low effective strain decreased, also visible in the decrease in the range of
322 mechanical signal values (except for the sham-loaded group), and RSL and FSL were reached for
323 lower mechanical signal values (Figure 3, Supplementary Table 1). The remodeling velocity curves
324 showed that even highly loaded groups evolved from a state of predominant formation in the first two
325 weeks towards physiological remodeling conditions, where resorption is tightly regulated within an
326 interval of low mechanical signals and in agreement with the conditional probability curves shown
327 previously (Figure 2). These observations were also corroborated by an increase in Pearson
328 correlation coefficients between net remodeling curves of 5 Hz and 10 Hz loaded groups and the
329 sham-loaded group. Specifically, these increased from 0.828 and 0.822 ($p < 0.0001$) for the weeks 0-1
330 to 0.908 and 0.883 ($p < 0.0001$) between weeks 3-4, for the 5 Hz and 10 Hz groups, respectively,
331 supporting comparable bone remodeling responses between these groups except for their
332 mechanosensitivity, as seen in the differences between FT and RT values. A similar result was

333 observed for Pearson correlation coefficients between the 2 Hz and 10 Hz groups, and the 5 Hz and
334 10 Hz, increasing from 0.872 and 0.874 to 0.899 and 0.925, respectively.

335 Static loading still induced an anabolic response in the first week, characterized by a higher FSL in
336 comparison to the sham-loaded group (Figure 3). However, in weeks 1-2 and 2-3, this group already
337 matched the FSL values of the sham-loaded group suggesting a return to a physiological remodeling
338 condition and eventually reached a lower FSL in week 3-4. RT and FT were visibly higher in the
339 static group than in the sham-loaded group across all weeks, indicating that this loading condition
340 still produced high strains in the structure.

341 Comparing the piecewise linear and hyperbola functions, the RMSE of the fitted curves indicated
342 that these can be determined reliably and accurately, with an average RMSE of 0.357 and 0.314
343 $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$ for the former and latter, respectively, over the 4-week interval (Table 2) and yielding even
344 lower RMSE values for the weekly analysis (Supplementary Table 1), partially given the lower
345 magnitude of remodeling velocities observed. Additionally, lower RMSE values coupled with wider
346 range of remodeling velocities obtained with the fitting of the hyperbola function suggested more
347 accurate curve fits than with the piecewise linear function, which is especially crucial for the
348 quantification of remodeling thresholds in the region where the remodeling velocity is zero (Figure
349 4A, Supplementary Table 1).

350 Finally, our analysis also investigated the trend followed by the mechanostat parameters derived from
351 the fitted remodeling velocity curves with loading frequency. As shown in Figure 4B, a logarithmic
352 function was suitable for several parameters estimated from the piecewise linear and hyperbolic fits
353 (Figure 4B, Supplementary Table 2). For the piecewise linear function, FSL was accurately modeled
354 by a logarithmic function across all time-points (Supplementary Table 2, Figure 4B for the interval 1-
355 2), especially from the week 1 onwards and including between weeks 0-4. Additionally, FT values
356 also followed the same trend for weeks 0-1 and 1-2, while RT showed the same behavior for all
357 weekly time-points between week 1 and 4 (Supplementary Table 2). Similarly, for the hyperbola
358 function, FSL was also accurately modeled by a logarithmic function across all time-points and
359 weeks 0-4 (Supplementary Table 2, Figure 4B for the interval 1-2). RmT also followed a logarithmic
360 relationship until week 2, analogous to the FT estimated with the piecewise linear function.
361 Furthermore, all distributions generated for the fitted parameters were statistically significant from
362 each other ($p < 0.0001$, based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with Bonferroni correction for multiple
363 comparisons), reinforcing the different responses to loading frequency.

364 **Discussion**

365 The present study aimed at evaluating mechanoregulation in trabecular bone adaptation and
366 quantitatively characterizing the effects of loading frequencies on bone adaptation using a novel
367 method to estimate remodeling velocity curves and their mechanostat parameters from time-lapsed *in*
368 *vivo* mouse vertebra micro-CT data. Crucially, we showed that such RmV curves can be accurately
369 determined and that several parameters obtained from them followed a logarithmic relationship with
370 loading frequency, further supporting the trend observed previously for the change in bone volume
371 fraction over the 4-week observation period (Scheuren et al. 2020).

372 First, we consolidated key factors that yield the best association between mechanical stimuli and
373 local bone remodeling using existing methods for mechanoregulation analysis. Our results revealed
374 that micro-FE analysis with homogeneous material properties achieved the best performance in
375 recovering mechanoregulation information. Indeed, previous work on the murine tibia (Oliviero et al.

2021) has shown that micro-FE analysis with homogeneous material properties achieved the highest correlation between experimental and estimated material properties, while micro-FE with heterogeneous material properties of the lumbar vertebra L6 did not improve the prediction of failure force in comparison to homogeneous material properties (Harris et al. 2020). In any case, other applications where more significant changes in bone mineralization are expected, such as during fracture healing of cortical bone in the mouse femur (Tourolle né Betts et al. 2020), were more accurately modeled with heterogeneous material properties. Specifically, a “multi-density threshold approach” (Tourolle né Betts et al. 2020) implemented to assess bone mechanoregulation in fracture healing indicated that subsequent mechanoregulation analysis could leverage the heterogeneous properties assigned during the micro-FE to achieve a more detailed characterization of this mechanobiological process. Still, in the context of load-induced trabecular bone adaptation as explored in this work, the micro-CT images did not show large dynamic ranges in bone mineralization and changes in bone volume (Lambers et al. 2011, Oliviero et al. 2021), suggesting that the use of homogeneous material properties in micro-FE analysis is appropriate to model mechanically driven bone adaptation.

From a mathematical modeling perspective, the mechanostat theory (Frost 1987) is an established paradigm to describe bone adaptation in response to mechanical loading that has also been successfully applied in preclinical *in silico* models (Levchuk et al. 2014, Pereira et al. 2015, San Cheong et al. 2020, San Cheong et al. 2020). The analysis proposed in this work enables a direct estimation of such a relationship from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT data and can be applied in a sample-specific or group-wise fashion and for an arbitrary time interval between the input images. We also proposed a nomenclature of mechanostat parameters, unifying the descriptions used in previous studies. For instance, the change in bone material in response to mechanical loading was originally named bone turnover and bone growth by Frost (1987), and later adapted to growth velocity using a detailed mathematical framework *in silico* (Levchuk et al. 2014, Goda et al. 2016, Louna et al. 2019). Here, we opted for remodeling velocity which fits the context of bone adaptation where there can be negative and positive growth, commonly termed remodeling (Hadjidakis et al. 2006). Conversely, formation/resorption thresholds and saturation levels were consistent with previous approaches (Levchuk et al. 2014, San Cheong et al. 2020). Regarding the change of RmV with mechanical signal, it was appropriate to align this term with the naming structure of the remaining parameters and provide an intuitive, succinct description integrating a modulus terminology: formation/resorption/remodeling velocity modulus. In this way, we aimed to strengthen the association of these terms with the mechanical signals, as modulus is inherently linked with other mechanical terms that relate a change in a quantity with a change in mechanical strain such as Young’s modulus, describing the relationship between stress and strain for a given material.

Skerry (2006) stated that different loading conditions, such as those induced *in vivo* through varying loading frequencies, produce deviations to the habitual strain stimuli of the structure. Furthermore, he argued that different anatomical sites have specific “customary strain stimulus (CSS)” values to which the structure adapts. Our results align with these beliefs, where different loading frequencies produced significantly different responses (Scheuren et al. 2020), and the RmV curves evolved towards a state where remodeling thresholds were very close, suggesting a return to the habitual mechanostat rule and its local CSS value. For this reason, it is understandable that FT and RmT were no longer logarithmic dependent on loading frequency at week 4. Conversely, RT conserved a logarithmic trend with loading frequency for all weeks, which aligns with the tight regulation of resorption events observed in conditional probability and RmV curves. Crucially, an accurate derivation of the mechanostat curve required a calibration of the volume estimated for each remodeling cluster (Supplementary Figure 1A). For instance, smaller clusters with a high surface-to-

423 volume ratio were expectedly overestimated by the distance transform operation. This artifact is
424 particularly noticeable for formation clusters where the identification of the neighboring surface from
425 which they emerged requires a morphological dilation operation, leading to an increase in the number
426 of surface voxels related to this event. While previous studies (Schulte et al. 2013, Razi et al. 2015,
427 Scheuren et al. 2020) assessing bone mechanoregulation focused exclusively on conditional
428 probabilities, which only consider the frequency of mechanical signal values per remodeling event,
429 this volume correction becomes of significant importance in our proposed method, where a new axis
430 focusing on the remodeling velocity at each voxel is considered and ultimately enabling the
431 estimation of critical setpoints such as formation and resorption thresholds, where the RmV curve
432 approaches zero. Importantly, the interval defined by these thresholds is typically described as a lazy
433 zone, i.e., a range of strains where bone formation and resorption balance each other (Frost 1987).

434 In this regard, and in agreement with previous findings (Sugiyama et al. 2012, Schulte et al. 2013,
435 Razi et al. 2015, San Cheong et al. 2020), our results provided no evidence of the existence of a lazy
436 zone. This was further supported by the lower RMSE values associated with the fitted hyperbola
437 mathematical functions which, by definition, cannot accommodate such an interval. Regardless, the
438 estimated remodeling velocity curves agree with previous publications (Schulte et al. 2013, Razi et
439 al. 2015), where resorption seems to be more tightly regulated than formation, based on the width of
440 the interval of mechanical signal values allocated to each remodeling event, consistent for all groups
441 and loading frequencies. Furthermore, the estimated remodeling rates, ranging between 0 and 3
442 $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$, agree with the corresponding bone formation and resorption rates previously reported for
443 this dataset (Scheuren et al. 2020) at around 2 $\mu\text{m}/\text{day}$, averaged across all remodeling clusters
444 identified. Besides, the decreasing RSL values for increasing loading frequencies observed
445 (Supplementary Table 1), especially for weeks 3-4, also align with previous work on the mouse tibia
446 that showed an increase in the depth of resorption cavities with loading (Birkhold et al. 2017). Given
447 the correction included in the curve estimation that ensures accurate volumes, established dynamic
448 morphometry indices characterizing bone formation and resorption rates in a single value can now be
449 expanded into a range of mechanical signals.

450 Nonetheless, there are some limitations to consider in this study. First, although the estimation of
451 RmV curves can be determined in a sample-specific fashion, we observed that the analysis of group
452 average curves was more reliable. These naturally contained more data points which were also
453 filtered such that at least three samples were considered per mechanical signal value. Eventually,
454 these factors were vital to produce relatively smooth RmV curves and enable consistent and plausible
455 piecewise linear and hyperbola fits. In any case, as previous work has focused on group average
456 results both *in vivo* (Schulte et al. 2013, Razi et al. 2015, San Cheong et al. 2020) and *in silico*
457 (Levchuk et al. 2014, San Cheong et al. 2020, Boaretti et al. 2022), our analysis still aligns with such
458 standard practices. Second, contrasting with conditional probability-based approaches, remodeling
459 events are no longer characterized separately since our approach yields a single curve representing
460 the average RmV for a given mechanical signal. Nonetheless, our goal was to derive a relationship in
461 alignment with the mechanostat theory which, by definition, also does not describe remodeling
462 events independently. Although conditional probability curves showed that these events can occur
463 across the entire range of mechanical signals and highlight the interrelated effect of mechanical and
464 biological cues governing targeted and non-targeted bone remodeling (Parfitt 2002, Schulte et al.
465 2013), we consider our approach complementary to this probability-based method. Furthermore, as
466 different mechanical signal quantities performed differently for formation and resorption events,
467 future approaches can attempt to combine both methods and derive separate RmV curves for
468 formation and resorption using the mechanical signal that best associates with each event.

469 It should be noted that the current micro-CT image resolution challenges an accurate identification of
470 sub-voxel phenomena. Indeed, such information would help to elucidate the assumption considered
471 in our remodeling velocity estimation that the remodeling distance measured for each voxel
472 surrounding a remodeling cluster can be linearly scaled to match the measured volume of the cluster.
473 For the same reason, this factor also implies that the proposed method cannot recover single-cell
474 behavior. Nonetheless, loading frequency was shown to be positively correlated with the number of
475 osteocytes recruited in response to an increase in applied strain (Lewis et al. 2017), with a special
476 focus on bone formation in a murine metatarsal model. Additionally, in a rat tibia model, increasing
477 loading frequency was associated with a decrease in the estimated peak microstrain triggering
478 periosteal bone formation and an increase in the rate of bone formation per microstrain (Hsieh et al.
479 2001). Combined, these results would emerge as an increase in FVM and a decrease in FT values
480 with increasing frequency, which is indeed what our RmV curves show until week 3. Furthermore,
481 the decreased anabolic response observed in the RmV curves for high strains may also be linked to a
482 decrease in mechanosensitivity resulting from increased cell stiffness, as previously reported for such
483 high strain values (Nawaz et al. 2012). Therefore, the trends estimated with the mechanostat
484 remodeling velocity curves could be leveraged by *in silico* simulations that also rely on time-lapsed
485 *in vivo* micro-CT data as input, such as novel agent-based models that simulate individual cell
486 populations in 3D (Tourolle 2019, Boaretti et al. 2022) and with that, improve the accuracy of their
487 predictions with respect to *in vivo* data. In this regard, our results demonstrating that several
488 parameters estimated from the mechanostat also follow a logarithmic relationship with loading
489 frequency can help to calibrate such models and investigate loading frequency-dependent responses
490 *in silico*. With the advent of more powerful imaging methods, cell populations may soon be
491 efficiently measured from *in vivo* samples and compared with the results of these *in silico* models.
492 Additionally, our approach can support preclinical *in vivo* studies focusing on bone
493 mechanoregulation. Previous work exploring the effects of aging and degenerative conditions
494 described changes in conditional probabilities between young and aged groups (Razi et al. 2015),
495 while studies focusing on pharmaceutical interventions characterized changes in global morphometry
496 indices and micro-FE properties (Roberts et al. 2020). Therefore, investigating the effects of these
497 conditions on remodeling thresholds (FT, RT, RmT) and remodeling modulus (FVM, RVM, RmVM)
498 could help to identify effective mechanisms to counter degenerative conditions and maximize the
499 potential of pharmaceutical interventions.

500 In conclusion, we have presented a novel method to estimate remodeling velocity curves and their
501 parameters from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT data. Furthermore, we applied this approach to
502 evaluate the effects of different loading frequencies on the time-lapsed changes of bone
503 microarchitecture by quantifying critical parameters describing bone mechanoregulation, such as
504 formation saturation levels and remodeling thresholds. Crucially, we reinforced previous results that
505 revealed a logarithmic relationship of bone volume change with loading frequency by showing that
506 the mechanostat parameters estimated from RmV curves, such as remodeling thresholds and
507 formation/resorption saturation levels, are also logarithmically dependent on loading frequency.
508 Altogether, we expect these results to support future *in silico* and *in vivo* studies comparing the
509 effects of mechanical loading and pharmaceutical treatment interventions on bone mechanoregulation
510 and bone adaptation and, ultimately, identify more effective treatment plans that can be translated
511 into clinical settings.

512

513 **Conflict of Interest**

514 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
515 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

516 **Author Contributions**

517 **Study design:** FM, AS, RM. **Study conduct:** FM, DB, MW. **Data collection:** FM. **Data analysis:**
518 **FM.** **Data interpretation:** FM, DB, FS, RM. **Drafting manuscript:** FM. **Revising manuscript**
519 **content:** FM, DB, MW, AS, FS, RM. **Approving final version of manuscript:** FM, DB, MW, AS,
520 FS, RM. RM takes responsibility for the integrity of the data analysis.

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524 **1 Data Availability Statement**

525 Data and code will be made available upon reasonable request.

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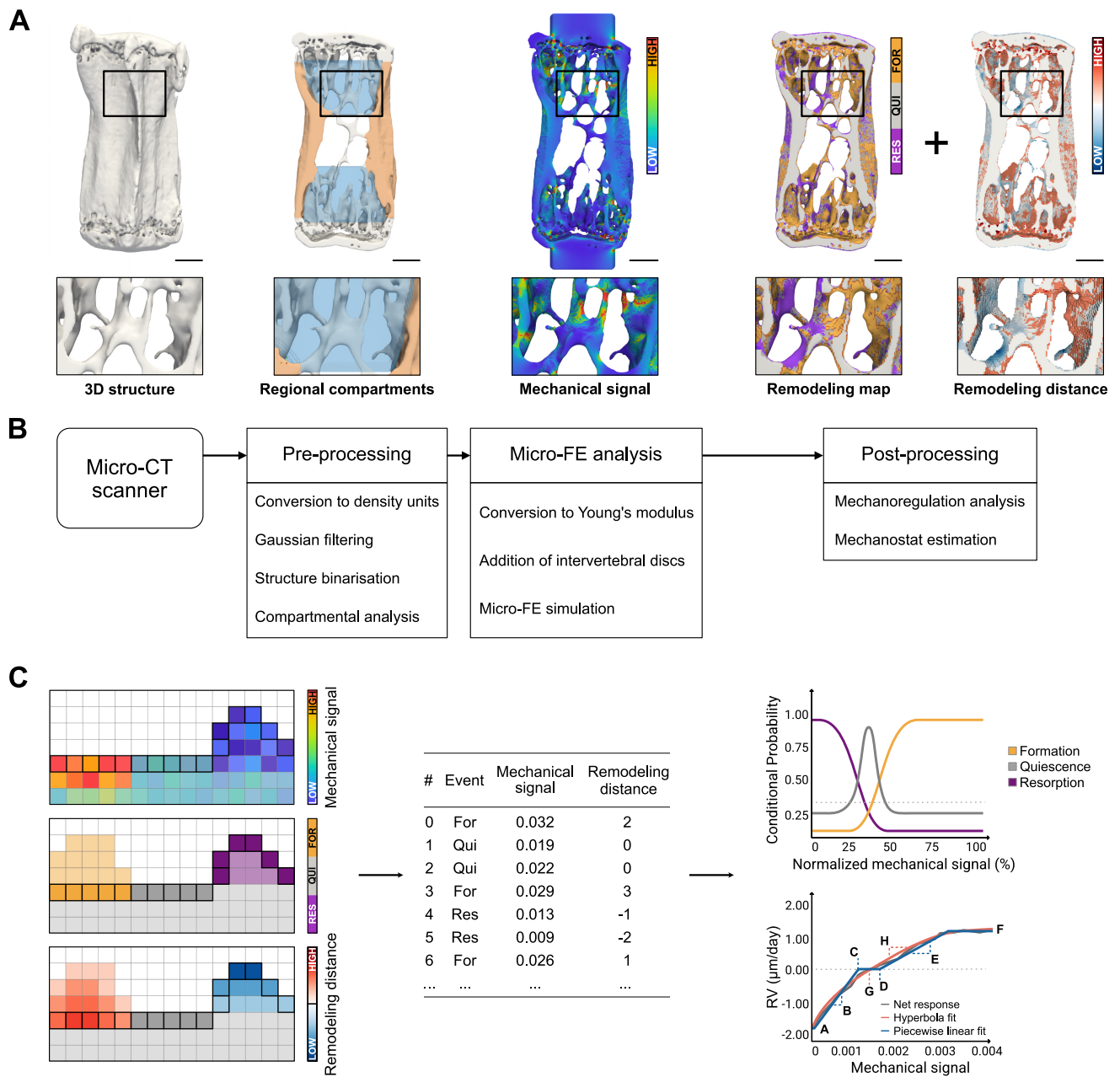
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685

686 **Figure captions**



687

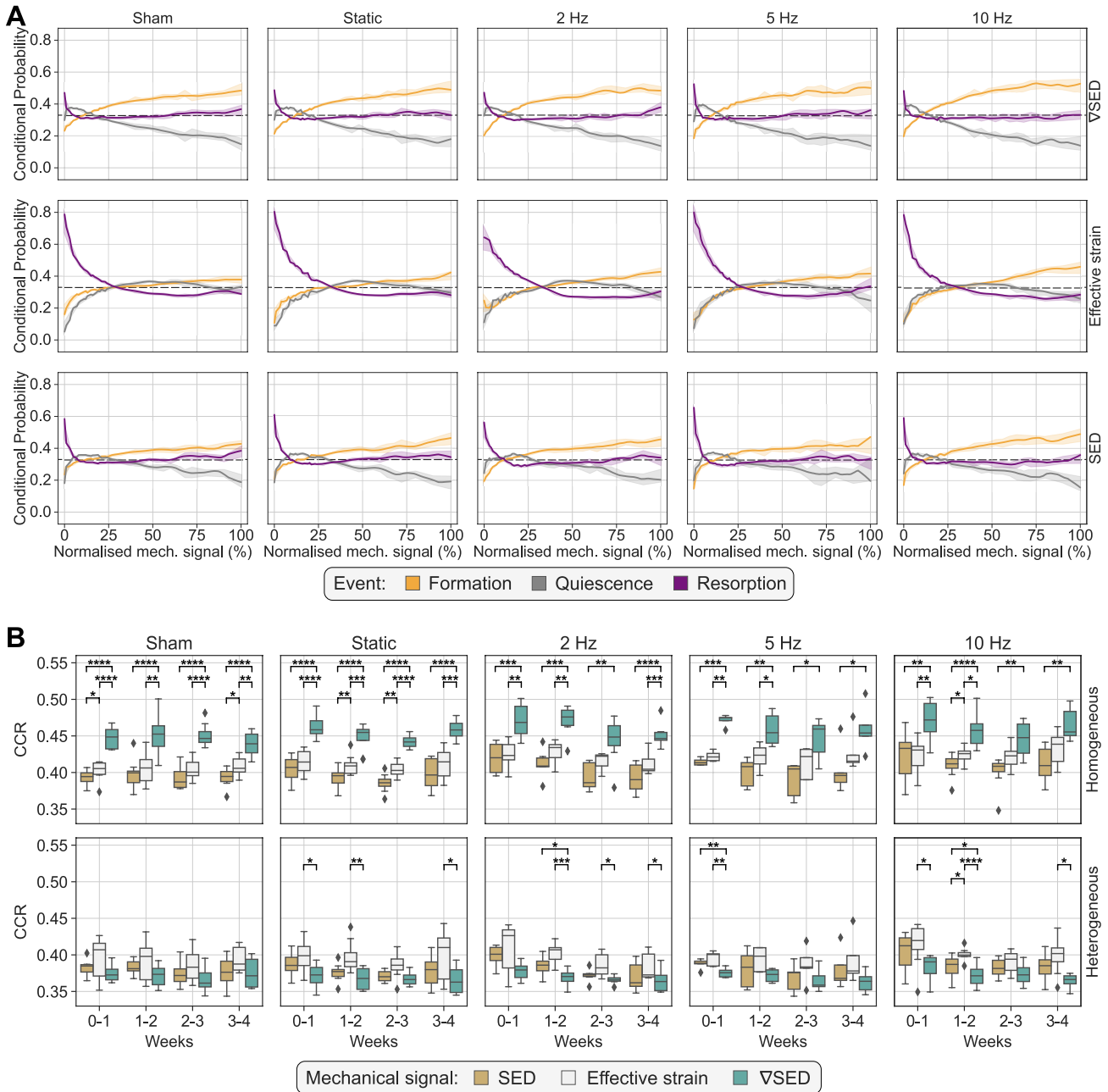
688 **Figure 1**

689 Overview of the computational pipeline for high-throughput analysis of time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT
 690 mouse caudal vertebra samples. A) Qualitative visualization of representative samples highlighting
 691 the original bone structure, the identification of regional compartments (trabecular compartment in
 692 blue and cortical compartment in orange), the local mechanical signal computed as strain energy
 693 density (SED) from micro-FE analysis, the remodeling map obtained from time-lapsed micro-CT
 694 images and the remodeling distance associated with surface voxels (Scale bar: 500 μm). B) Diagram
 695 of the workflow included in the computational pipeline, starting from pre-processing of micro-CT
 696 images to post-processing steps, featuring mechanoregulation analysis. C) Illustration of the
 697 workflow for mechanoregulation analysis and estimation of mechanostat parameters: for each surface
 698 voxel, remodeling events are identified by overlapping consecutive time-points, the mechanical
 699 signal in the structure is computed with micro-FE and the remodeling distance is determined with a

Time-lapsed *in vivo* mechanostat estimation

700 distance transform operation (see Materials and Methods). The data is used to compute conditional
 701 probability curves for each remodeling event (dashed line represents a random probability of
 702 occurrence) and a remodeling velocity curve (dashed line represents zero remodeling velocity),
 703 which can be fitted with a piecewise linear function or a continuous hyperbola function to retrieve
 704 biologically meaningful parameters. Parameter legend (see Materials and Methods for an extended
 705 description): A- Resorption saturation level (RSL), B- Resorption velocity modulus (RVM), C-
 706 Resorption threshold (RT), D- Formation threshold (FT), E- Formation velocity modulus (FVM), F-
 707 Formation saturation level (FSL), G- Remodeling threshold (RmT), H- Remodeling velocity modulus
 708 (RmVM).

709

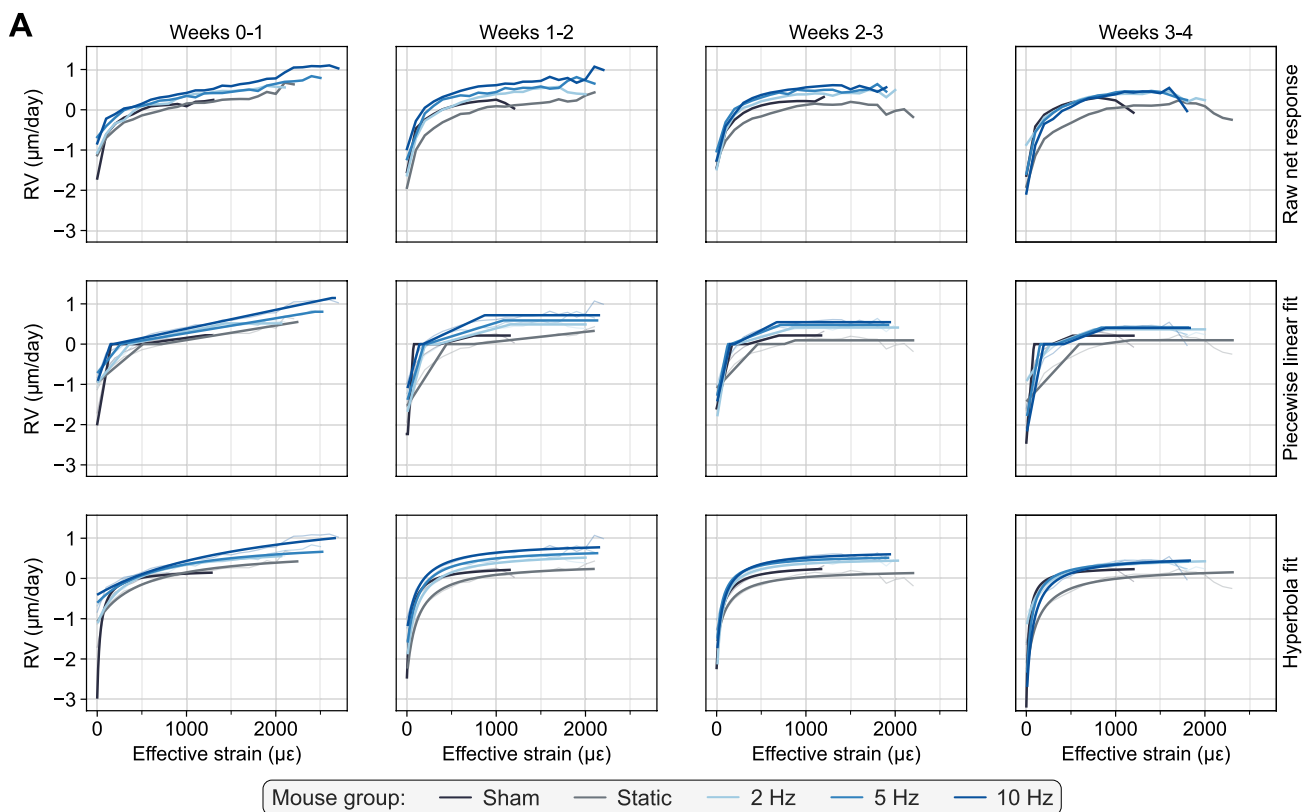


710

711 **Figure 2**

712 Quantification of mechanoregulation information from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT image data. A)
713 Conditional probability curves connecting the mechanical environment with remodeling events,
714 computed for all groups and mechanical signal descriptors considered (SED, effective strain and
715 ∇ SED). The plots show the mean probability line per group after applying a LOWESS operation for
716 the interval 0-4 weeks and its corresponding 95% confidence interval. Dashed line at 0.33 identifies
717 the probability of a random event for a ternary classification case. B) Comparison of correct
718 classification rate (CCR) values obtained by SED, effective strain and ∇ SED as local mechanical
719 signal descriptors, computed from micro-FE with homogeneous or heterogeneous material properties.
720 Higher CCR values indicate higher sensitivity to retrieve mechanoregulation information. Statistical
721 significance determined by Conover-Iman test, corrected for multiple comparisons by Holm-
722 Bonferroni method. Statistical significance legend: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p <$
723 0.0001 .

724

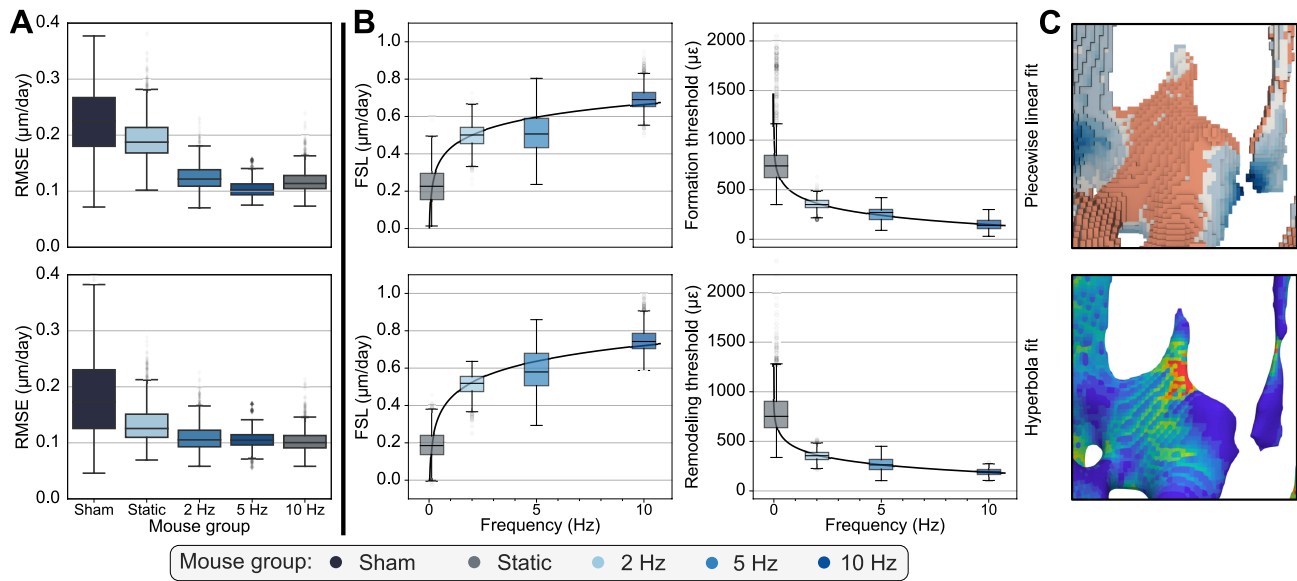


725

726 **Figure 3**

727 Estimation of the mechanostat remodeling velocity (RmV) curve from time-lapsed *in vivo* micro-CT
728 imaging data, illustrated with the average raw net response (top row) per group, the fitted piecewise
729 linear functions (middle row), as described in the mechanostat theory and continuous hyperbola
730 functions (bottom row) for the weeks 1-2. Data points are filtered such that at least three mice are
731 averaged for each mechanical signal value.

732



733

734 **Figure 4**

735 A) Root mean squared errors (RMSE) associated with the piecewise linear (top row) and hyperbola
 736 (bottom row) fitted functions are shown, highlighting that the hyperbola function consistently
 737 achieved lower errors than the piecewise linear function. B) Logarithmic relationships fitted to the
 738 bootstrapped distributions of mechanostat parameters estimated from the piecewise linear (top row)
 739 and hyperbola (bottom row) functions fitted to the remodeling velocity curves for the weeks 1-2.
 740 Formation saturation levels (FSL), formation and remodeling thresholds (FT and RmT) were among
 741 the parameters that follow a logarithmic trend throughout the 4 weeks of the study. C) Qualitative
 742 visualization linking remodeling distance measurements with the mechanical environments *in vivo* as
 743 effective strain.

744

745 **Tables**

746 **Table 1**

747 Correct classification rate (CCR) for all groups, mechanical signal descriptors and material properties
 748 analyzed, for the weeks 0-4. Data presented as “median (IQR)”. Statistical significance legend: a –
 749 “SED – Effective strain”, b – “Effective strain – ∇SED”, c – “SED – ∇SED”; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$,
 750 *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$. Statistical significance determined with Conover’s test corrected for
 751 multiple comparisons with step-down method using Bonferroni-Holm adjustments.

Material properties	Group	Mechanical signal			p-value
		SED	Effective strain	∇SED	
Homogeneous	Sham	0.378 (0.374 - 0.391)	0.400 (0.392 - 0.404)	0.421 (0.413 - 0.440)	*a, **b, ****c
	Static	0.389 (0.375 - 0.395)	0.405 (0.403 - 0.410)	0.434 (0.427 - 0.448)	*b, ***c

Time-lapsed *in vivo* mechanostat estimation

	02Hz	0.402 (0.387 - 0.404)	0.411 (0.407 - 0.417)	0.450 (0.430 - 0.451)	*b, ***c
	05Hz	0.396 (0.387 - 0.397)	0.404 (0.399 - 0.422)	0.446 (0.439 - 0.454)	*a, *b, ***c
	10Hz	0.417 (0.382 - 0.443)	0.418 (0.395 - 0.428)	0.461 (0.431 - 0.489)	ns
Heterogeneous	Sham	0.381 (0.373 - 0.387)	0.423 (0.410 - 0.432)	0.371 (0.366 - 0.374)	*b, **c
	Static	0.386 (0.379 - 0.392)	0.423 (0.416 - 0.434)	0.377 (0.364 - 0.381)	*b, **c
	02Hz	0.387 (0.387 - 0.397)	0.430 (0.399 - 0.434)	0.382 (0.375 - 0.391)	*b, **c
	05Hz	0.394 (0.387 - 0.398)	0.420 (0.412 - 0.431)	0.380 (0.372 - 0.391)	ns
	10Hz	0.397 (0.387 - 0.435)	0.427 (0.414 - 0.447)	0.395 (0.365 - 0.408)	ns

752

753 **Table 2**

754 Parameters of the mathematical functions fitted to the estimated mechanostat group average
 755 remodeling velocity curves for the interval weeks 0-4. Root mean squared error (RMSE) was used to
 756 characterize the quality of the fit. See Materials and Methods for an extended description of the
 757 parameters. The row “Effective strain range” indicates the range of mechanical signal values from
 758 which the fit of the mathematical functions was derived.

Function	Parameter	Unit	Group				
			Sham	Static	2Hz	5Hz	10Hz
Piecewise linear	RSL	μm/day	-4.305	-3.062	-1.729	-2.570	-4.112
	RVM (x10 ³)	(μm/day) / με	29.748	5.737	8.802	16.245	45.003
	RT	με	145	544	246	187	101
	FT	με	440	1511	270	190	110
	FVM (x10 ³)	(μm/day) / με	1.676	1.919	2.435	2.330	2.481
	FSL	μm/day	0.180	0.891	1.274	1.640	1.954
	RMSE	μm/day	0.381	0.382	0.227	0.407	0.388

Time-lapsed *in vivo* mechanostat estimation

Hyperbola	RSL	$\mu\text{m/day}$	-5.776	-4.115	-2.390	-3.208	-4.180
	RmVM ($\times 10^{-3}$)	$(\mu\text{m/day}) \times \mu\epsilon$	-0.236	-1.037	-0.843	-0.769	-0.507
	RmT	$\mu\epsilon$	482	899	268	228	158
	FSL	$\mu\text{m/day}$	0.038	0.522	1.468	1.836	2.051
	RMSE	$\mu\text{m/day}$	0.274	0.347	0.226	0.372	0.350
Effective strain range		$\mu\epsilon$	10–1280	10–2240	10–2060	10–2520	10–2650

759