

1 Morphological Profile of Atypical Femoral Fractures: Age-Related Changes of the Cross-  
2 sectional Geometry of the Diaphysis

3

4 Takeshi Imamura<sup>1</sup>

5 Toshiyuki Tsurumoto<sup>1</sup> \*

6 Kazunobu Saiki <sup>1</sup>

7 Keita Nishi<sup>2</sup>

8 Keishi Okamoto<sup>1</sup>

9 Yoshitaka Manabe<sup>2</sup>

10 Joichi Oyamada<sup>2</sup>

11 Keiko Ogami-Takamura<sup>1</sup>

12

13 <sup>1</sup>Department of Macroscopic Anatomy, Graduate School of Biomedical Science, Nagasaki  
14 University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan

15 <sup>2</sup>Department of Oral Anatomy and Dental Anthropology, Graduate School of Biomedical  
16 Science, Nagasaki University, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan

17 \*corresponding author; [tsurumot@nagasaki-u.ac.jp](mailto:tsurumot@nagasaki-u.ac.jp)

18

19 Short running page heading;

20 Cross-sectional Geometry of Femoral Diaphysis

21 Abstract

22 The use of bisphosphonates for osteoporosis patients has markedly decreased the  
23 incidences of femoral neck or trochanteric fractures. However, anti-osteoporosis drugs  
24 have been reported to increase the incidence of atypical femoral fractures (ATFFs), which  
25 involve stress fractures in the subtrochanteric region or the proximal diaphysis. In this  
26 study, the morphological characteristics of the cortical bone in human femoral diaphysis  
27 samples were analyzed from individuals who lived before bisphosphonate drugs were  
28 available in Japan. A total of 90 right femoral bones were arbitrarily selected (46 males  
29 and 44 females) from modern Japanese skeletal specimens. Full-length images of these  
30 femurs were acquired using a clinical CT scanner, and the data were saved in Digital  
31 Imaging and Communication in Medicine (DICOM) format. An image processing method  
32 for binarization was used to calculate the threshold values of individual bones for  
33 determining their contours. The range between the lower end of the lesser trochanter  
34 and the adductor tubercle of each femur was divided at regular intervals to obtain 10  
35 planes. The area of cortical bone to the total area of cross-section (ACS) of the femoral  
36 mid-diaphysis was calculated as the cortical index at Level 5 (CI\_5). Moreover, the mean  
37 value of cortical bone thickness (mCBT), periosteal border length (PBL), and ACS were  
38 evaluated for all planes. A comparison between males and females demonstrated that  
39 most females had lower CI\_5 values than males. The femoral outer shape did not differ  
40 markedly according to age or sex; however, substantial individual differences were

41 observed in the shape of the inner surface of the cortical bone. Both mCBT and ACS  
42 decreased with age in the femoral diaphysis; however, in females, the reduction rate was  
43 higher for mCBT than for ACS. This may be due to a compensatory increase in the  
44 circumference of the femoral diaphysis. In addition, about half of the subjects had a small  
45 gap between the region with maximal mCBT and that with maximal ACS in the femoral  
46 shaft. Biological responses to mechanical stresses to the femoral diaphysis were not  
47 uniform. Bisphosphonate inhibit bone resorption, and may promote non-physiological  
48 bone remodeling. Thus, a nonhomogeneous decrease in cortical thickness may be related  
49 to the fracture=occurrence in the femoral diaphysis in some cases. Thus, long-term  
50 administration of bisphosphonates in patients with morphological vulnerability in the  
51 femoral cortical bones may increase the occurrence of ATFF.

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61 1. Introduction

62 Osteoporosis is an age-related degenerative disease associated with fractures of the  
63 limb bones or spine, which markedly reduces the quality-of-life of elderly patients  
64 (Kanemaru et al., 2010; Abimanyi-Ochom et al., 2015). Accordingly, osteoporosis drugs,  
65 such as bisphosphonates, are administered to increase bone density not only in the  
66 lumbar spine but also in the proximal femur (Bone et al., 2004). In addition, reports have  
67 shown that some of these drugs reduced the incidences of femoral neck or trochanteric  
68 fractures (McClung et al., 2001; Papapoulos et al., 2005). However, osteoporosis drugs  
69 may increase the incidence of atypical femoral fractures (ATFFs), such as stress  
70 fractures, in the subtrochanteric region or the proximal diaphysis. In particular,  
71 bisphosphonate formulations have been associated with such fractures (Shane et al.,  
72 2010; Shane et al., 2014; Schilcher et al., 2015). In addition, some reports have suggested  
73 that the morphology of the proximal femur or the shape of the cortical bone is involved  
74 in the anatomical background of ATFFs (Koeppen et al., 2012; Hagen et al., 2014;  
75 Taormina et al., 2014; Niimi et al., 2015; Szolomayer et al., 2017). Bilateral femoral  
76 stress fractures in patients not taking a bisphosphonate drug have been reported  
77 (Donnelly et al., 2012). Therefore, femoral morphological characteristics may be  
78 responsible for the occurrence of these fractures.

79 As micro-computed tomography (CT) and various morphological analyses are  
80 increasingly being used, more discoveries on the structural analysis of cancellous bone

81 have been reported (Burr, 2010; Geissler et al., 2015). Because osteoporosis drugs with  
82 various mechanisms of action have become available, cortical bone is attracting attention  
83 as a target for fracture prevention (Mizushima et al., 2009). Thus, a morphological  
84 review of the long bones, especially the bone shape of the femoral diaphysis, is necessary.  
85 Marcauo et al. (2014) found that Asians are at high risk of atypical bisphosphonate-  
86 associated fractures. Sex differences in the cross-sectional morphologies of human long  
87 bones with aging were reported in native Americans (Ruff et al., 1983) and in blacks and  
88 whites (Schlecht et al., 2015; Japsen et al., 2015). To clarify the background of ATFFs,  
89 the morphological characteristics of cortical bone in the human femoral diaphysis were  
90 analyzed in Japanese individuals who lived before bisphosphonate drugs were developed.

91 In quantitative evaluations using CT images, the method for calculating the contour  
92 threshold should be strictly defined. This study used the mode method, an image  
93 processing method for calculation of the threshold. This binary method is useful when  
94 the histogram of values shows a bimodal distribution in CT images (Chow et al., 1972;  
95 Bousson et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2010). Using the method, a single threshold was  
96 determined for each individual, and the contour of the cortical bone was strictly  
97 determined. A new method to measure cortical bone thickness (CBT) was used to perform  
98 a quantitative analysis of the cortical bone of the femoral diaphysis.

99

## 100 2. Materials and Methods

### 101 2.1. Materials

102 Among skeletal specimens from modern Japanese stored at Nagasaki University, 90

103 right femurs, including 46 from males aged 20–89 years (mean age, 62.7 years) and 44  
104 from females aged 31–87 years (mean age, 68.3 years), were included in the study. They  
105 were obtained from cadavers provided to the Nagasaki University School of Medicine for  
106 anatomical dissection by medical students between the 1950s and 1970s. Most of them  
107 were voluntarily donated, and most were from anonymous subjects. The sex and exact  
108 ages at death of all the individuals were registered. After their dissection, their soft  
109 tissues were almost entirely removed to produce dry skeletal preparations. Those with  
110 obvious trauma or inflammatory joint diseases were excluded. Because their year of  
111 death was approximately between the 1960s and 1970s, none of the subjects could have  
112 possibly taken bisphosphonate drugs before their deaths. Before being further divided  
113 according to sex, the subjects were divided into two groups by age as follows: group A  
114 ( $\leq 69$  years old; 30 males and 16 females) and group B ( $\geq 70$  years old; 16 males and 28  
115 females).

116

## 117 2.2. CT imaging and extraction of the target images

118 Full-length images of all the examined femurs were obtained using clinical multislice CT  
119 (Activision 16, Toshiba Corp. Japan) (X-tube volume/current = 120 kV/100 mA, Image  
120 matrix size;  $512 \times 512$  pixels, slice thickness; 0.5 mm). The bones were placed in a natural  
121 position with the posterior side down on the table of the imaging device. CT images of  
122 the femurs were obtained after the regions of interest were adjusted to maximize the

123 images, which meant that the field of view (FOV) was approximately 100 mm × 100 mm.  
124 The data were saved in Digital Imaging and Communication in Medicine (DICOM)  
125 format.

126 The range between the lower end of the lesser trochanter and the adductor tubercle  
127 of each femur was divided into nine segments of equal length. Then, all of the cross-  
128 sections, including both ends, were labeled from top to bottom as “Level 1” to “Level 10”.  
129 Namely, Level 1 was the section at the lower end of the lesser trochanter, and Level 10  
130 was the section of the tip of adductor tubercle. Segmenting was performed using a  
131 Microsoft VBA formula with CT image numbers that were assigned automatically by the  
132 CT equipment. These selected ten sections were subjected to the following processes.

133

### 134 2.3. Determination of the threshold and the principle of contour extraction

135 Each of these obtained DICOM data files was opened with ImageJ ver. 1.50 (NIH, USA)  
136 and saved as a text image file. A 512 × 512 matrix consisting of text data of CT values  
137 was obtained. This text file was then opened in Microsoft Excel (Office 2016, 64-bit,  
138 Microsoft Corporation, USA) and converted to an xls file. Based on these values, the  
139 threshold for determining each femoral contour was determined as follows: (i) all of the  
140 matrixes for these ten sections were pasted into one Microsoft Excel sheet; and (ii) a  
141 histogram was created based a frequency table of CT values to calculate the mean CT  
142 value for the first peak (i.e., approximately -1,000; mainly indicating the CT value of the

143 surrounding air) and the CT value for the second peak (i.e., indicating the CT value of  
144 the bone itself). This value was used as a threshold to determine the cortical bone contour  
145 of the target bone (Figure 1). This is a unique value for each individual. The endosteal  
146 and periosteal contours of the cortical bone were determined using a single threshold in  
147 all the slices for each individual.

148

#### 149 2.4. Study items

150 Out of the ten area of cross-section (ACS) evaluations, seven ACS values at Levels 2–8  
151 showing the shape of the diaphysis were selected. The following steps were applied to  
152 calculate each value for each ACS. In addition, the  $512 \times 512$  matrix of the CT values  
153 from each cross-section was opened with Microsoft Excel (Office 2016, 64-bit), and the  
154 following calculations and image processing were performed using Microsoft Excel  
155 functions and Visual Basic for Applications (VBA). In this analysis, all foramina  
156 (openings or holes) in the segmented cortical bone region without continuity with the  
157 bone marrow cavity were regarded as cortical bone regions and analyzed further as  
158 follows.

##### 159 i) Cortical index at the femoral mid-diaphysis level

160 The ratio of the area of the cortical bone to the total ACS of the femoral mid-diaphysis at  
161 Level 5 (i.e., the occupancy rate of the cortical bone) was calculated as the cortical index  
162 at Level 5 (CI<sub>5</sub>; Figure 2, right,  $b / [b + c] \times 100$ ).



163 ii) Mean cortical bone thickness

164 Distances between a point on the periosteal surface and all points on the endosteal  
165 surface of the cortical bone were calculated. The minimum of these values was defined  
166 as the CBT of the point. Such calculations were performed for all points of the periosteal  
167 surface of the cortical bone to calculate the CBT of the entire circumference of the cortical  
168 bone (Figure 2, left). All of the CBT in one cross-section were then averaged to obtain a  
169 mean value for CBT (mCBT).

170 iii) Area of cross-section

171 The ACS of each section was calculated by counting all points (pixels) in the area  
172 surrounded by the periosteal and endosteal perimeters of the cortical bone (Figure 2,  
173 right). b). The area was corrected by calculating the actual length per pixel in the DICOM  
174 data to take into account the magnification ratio at the time of imaging.

175 iv) Periosteal border length

176 The periosteal border length (PBL) of each section was calculated by counting the  
177 number of all points (pixels) on the periosteal surface using Microsoft Excel (Figure 2,  
178 left, a).

179

180 2.5. Statistical analysis

181 Pearson correlations were performed to test the relationship between mCBT, PBL, ACS,  
182 and CI<sub>5</sub> for each slice location and age. Differences in mCBT, PBL, ACS, and CI<sub>5</sub>

183 between the two age groups at each cross-sectional position along the diaphysis were  
184 assessed using Student's *t*-test.

185

### 186 3. Results

#### 187 3.1. Example presentation

188 The analysis results for a 70-year-old female and a 60-year-old female are shown in  
189 Figures 3 and 4. In Figure 3, the degree of CBT is visualized using conditional formatting  
190 in Microsoft Excel; the thicker the cortex, the deeper the red, whereas the thinner the  
191 cortex, the deeper the blue. In Figure 4, the shape of the cross-sections for the seven  
192 levels is visualized. The values of mCBT (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation), PBL, and ACS are  
193 shown in the table. Progression of osteoporosis was observed in the 70-year-old female.

194

#### 195 3.2. Morphological analysis of the section at Level 5

196 In Figure 5, the cross-sectional images at Level 5 for each individual are shown in  
197 ascending order of CI values. Respective scale factors are not the same to determine the  
198 shape and proportion. In addition, all foramina in the cortical bone region are shown as  
199 cortical bone regions. Blue indicates males, and red indicates females. The comparison  
200 between the males and females demonstrated that most females had lower CI values  
201 than males. Regardless of the CI value, the apparent linea aspera tended to remain  
202 unchanged. However, in individuals with lower CI values, the part of the cortical bone

203 corresponding to the linea aspera was thinner on the linea aspera side. Furthermore, in  
204 individuals with higher CI values, the cortical bone became thicker at the three following  
205 places: the posterior part where the linea aspera is located, the inner part, and the outer  
206 part.

207 CI<sub>5</sub> was calculated by extracting the shape of the ACS at Level 5 (i.e., the femoral  
208 mid-diaphysis) in all 90 individuals. Figure 6-a is a scatter plot showing the relationship  
209 between CI<sub>5</sub> and the age of each individual according to sex. This showed a negative  
210 correlation in females ( $r = -0.60$ ). CI decreased with age but without statistical  
211 significance ( $r = -0.28$ ) in males.

212 Figure 6-b shows box plots of the CI<sub>5</sub> values according to age (i.e., group A,  $\leq 69$   
213 years old and group B,  $\geq 70$  years old) and sex. Females showed a significant difference  
214 between these two groups.

215 For the section at Level 5, there was a significant positive correlation between the  
216 ACS and PBL ( $r = 0.74$  in males,  $0.43$  in females); however, the correlative coefficient  
217 between mCBT and PBL was relatively low ( $r = 0.23$  in males,  $0.07$  in females). This  
218 meant that PBL affected the value of ASC more than mCBT.

219

### 220 3.3. Measurements of mean cortical bone thickness

221 Figure 7-a shows box plots of mCBT values at Levels 2–8 according to age (i.e., groups A  
222 and B) and sex. The average mCBT had a maximal value at Level 4 (i.e., a section slightly

223 proximal to the femoral mid-diaphysis) in all the groups. The overall mCBTs in males  
224 was higher than those in females. In females with lower mCBT values for all the sections,  
225 their mCBTs at around Levels 2–5 showed an almost flat curve. A comparison between  
226 groups A and B found significant differences at Levels 7 and 8 (i.e., the distal part) in  
227 males. In contrast, the CBT in group A was significantly greater than that in group B in  
228 all sections except Level 2 in females.

229 Figure 7-b is a scatter plot showing the relationship between average mCBT values  
230 and age in males and females. In females, mCBT decreased significantly with age ( $r = -$   
231 0.53). In males, the mCBT decreased with age but without statistical significance ( $r = -$   
232 0.22).

233

#### 234 3.4. Measurement of the area of cross section

235 Figure 8-a shows box plots of the ACS values at Levels 2–8 according to age (i.e., groups  
236 A and B) and sex. Comparison of the measurement results according to Level and sex  
237 showed higher values in males compared with females. As with mCBT, the mid-diaphysis  
238 had higher ACS values. The ACS curves for all the groups were relatively flatter than  
239 the mCBT curves (Figure 8-a). When individual ACS values were examined, some  
240 females with lower ACS average values for all the sections had flat curves in the mid-  
241 diaphysis. The comparison between groups A and B according to sex showed that in  
242 females, group A had higher ACS values at Levels 5–8 than group B.

243 Figure 8-b is a scatter plot showing the relationship between ACS values and age in  
244 males and females. ACS in males showed almost no decrease with age ( $r = -0.12$ ),  
245 whereas a significant negative correlation was observed in females ( $r = -0.33$ ).

246

### 247 3.5. Measurement of periosteal border length

248 Figure 9-a shows box plots of the PBL values at Levels 2–8 according to age (i.e., groups  
249 A and B) and sex. Both males and females showed similar curves for Levels 2–6 (i.e., a  
250 range between a section slightly below the lower end of the lesser trochanter and a  
251 section slightly distal to the mid-diaphysis). However, the PBL for a range between a  
252 section slightly below the lower end of the lesser trochanter and the mid-diaphysis  
253 tended to decrease slightly in females. Some males also showed a similar tendency. The  
254 comparison between groups A and B according to sex showed that group B had  
255 significantly higher PBLs at Levels 2, 4, 5, and 6 than group A in males.

256 Figure 9-b is a scatter plot showing the relationship between average PBL values  
257 and age for each individual according to sex. The correlation between the PBL values  
258 and age of each individual showed that PBL increased with age ( $r = 0.30$ ) in females.  
259 Namely, the circumference of the femur increased significantly with age in that group of  
260 patients.

261

### 262 3.6. Comparison between the level of the maximal mCBT and that of the maximal ACS

263 The level of the maximal ACS value and that of maximal mCBT in each femoral bone is  
264 shown in Table 1. The mCBT values were principally maximal at Levels 3 or 4. On the  
265 other hand, the ACS values were maximal at Levels 2 or 3. In 48 of 90 individuals, the  
266 region with the largest ACS was located more proximal to the region with the largest  
267 mCBT.

268

#### 269 4. Discussion

##### 270 4.1. Method for determining the contour of the cortical bone using CT images

271 The CT values of the measured objects obtained using a medical CT (Hounsfield units  
272 [HUs]) are proportional to the X-ray linear attenuation coefficients of the objects.  
273 Measurements were performed on data extracted from the DICOM file image format  
274 that was generated using the clinical CT scanner. To measure the shape of the object  
275 based on such CT image data, it is necessary to determine the contour of the object  
276 accurately. The appropriate CT value has been commonly used as a threshold after  
277 setting the regions of interest for each cross-section image and determine the contour  
278 based on the threshold. However, the contour of an object due to the partial volume effect  
279 is difficult to determine accurately (Ward et al., 2005; Scherf et al., 2009). Therefore, if  
280 the method used to determine the threshold is unclear, the size of the object cannot be  
281 measured accurately. The half-maximum height thresholding protocol (Coleman et al.,  
282 2007; Kazakia et al., 2014) adaptive interactive thresholding method (Leung et al., 1996;

283 Ryan et al., 2002) of bone and background showed a clear bimodal distribution in this  
284 study. The mode method, an image processing method for binarization, can be used to  
285 determine the contour of bone (Chow et al., 1972; Bousson et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2010).  
286 This study applied the mode method to determine the contour of bone using CT values  
287 for the first and second peaks in the histogram on images obtained from DICOM data as  
288 the threshold for each individual.

289

#### 290 4.2. Changes in the shape of the human femoral diaphysis with aging

291 In vertebrates with an endoskeleton, bone tissue repeats bone formation and bone  
292 resorption throughout life. During these processes, various changes occur in the  
293 morphology of the bone marrow cavity and cortical bone. Several cross-sectional studies  
294 evaluating age differences in humans have been conducted (Smith et al., 1964; Ruff et  
295 al., 1982; MacIntosh et al., 2013). The femoral diaphysis continues to grow even after  
296 adulthood. A functionally adaptive increase in the contour length of the femoral  
297 diaphysis to compensate for osteoporotic reduction in bone strength may be one of the  
298 reasons for the changes in the morphology of the diaphysis over time. However, an age-  
299 related increase in the contour length of the femoral diaphysis was not observed in males  
300 and females (Shibata, 1992). As shown in Figure 9, we found that PBL increased  
301 gradually with age in males and females. However, CBT decreased significantly with age,  
302 especially in females. This may be due to expansion of the bone marrow cavity by

303 trabecularization of the cortical bone (Ostertag et al., 2014).  
304 Women have less cortical area than expected for their body size and bone size, which in  
305 part explains their reduced bone strength compared with the more robust bones of men  
306 (Japsen et al., 2015; Schlecht et al., 2015). Our study, in which the femoral bones of  
307 middle-aged and older individuals were analyzed, showed differences in the cross-  
308 sectional morphology of the femoral diaphysis between males and females, and the sex  
309 distinction was significant in older individuals.

310 As shown in Figure 9, the femoral outer shape did not differ markedly according to  
311 age or sex. Substantial individual differences were nevertheless observed in the shape of  
312 the inner surface of the cortical bone. Elderly females, in whom a rapid remodeling from  
313 cortical bone to cancellous bone occurred, were found to go through considerable changes  
314 that could not be inferred from the external bone appearance. Even among those whose  
315 linea aspera on the posterior surface of the femoral bone did not show apparent changes,  
316 the bone marrow cavity size of some individuals increased markedly due to the gradual  
317 trabecularization and cortical bone porosity.

318

#### 319 4.3. Anatomical background of ATFF occurrence

320 Bisphosphonate drugs have become widely used as therapeutic agents for patients with  
321 osteoporosis, and cases of stress fractures (i.e., atypical subtrochanteric femoral or  
322 atypical fractures of the diaphysis), which rarely occurred in the past, are being reported



323 more frequently. Indeed, a higher incidence of ATFF in patients with osteoporosis treated  
324 with bisphosphonates has been reported (Schilcher et al., 2011; Schilcher et al., 2015).  
325 Moreover, some morphological characteristics of cortical bones of the femoral diaphysis  
326 may influence the occurrence of ATFF (Koeppen et al., 2012; Hagen et al., 2014; Niimi et  
327 al., 2015; Szolomayer et al., 2017). However, the mechanisms involved are still unknown.

328 In this study, we examined morphological changes with ageing in cortical bones of  
329 the femoral diaphysis. First, the values of mCBT near the mid-diaphysis were larger in  
330 younger individuals. Moreover, thinning of the cortical bones progressed throughout the  
331 entire femoral shafts with ageing. Intra-individual regional differences in ACS values  
332 were smaller than those of mCBT, especially in females. We found that PBL values  
333 affected ACS values more than mCBT, which might be due to age-related expansion in  
334 the medullary cavities of the femoral diaphysis. Second, mCBT values were maximal at  
335 Levels 3 or 4 (i.e., a region slightly above the mid-diaphysis) in males and females. On  
336 the other hand, ACS values were maximal at a region slightly distal to the  
337 subtrochanteric region. Indeed, in more than half of the individuals, the region with the  
338 largest ACS was located more proximal to the region with the largest mCBT. That is,  
339 there were many individuals who had discrepancies between the regions with maximal  
340 mCBT and ACS values.

341 The morphological characteristics of bones change gradually via remodeling in  
342 accordance with Wolff's law. Our results suggested that biological responses to

343 mechanical stresses to the femoral diaphysis are not uniform. Even so, almost all of these  
344 results were physiological phenomena. In contrast, bisphosphonates, which have  
345 different degrees of bone-resorption inhibiting effects, may promote non-physiological  
346 bone remodeling. In particular, the subtrochanteric region of the femoral shaft, which is  
347 a region of many muscle insertions, receives traction forces in various directions as part  
348 of activities of daily living. Additionally, mechanical stress is reported to be high in these  
349 regions if femoral shaft bowing was severe (Oh et al., 2014; Shin et al., 2017). The risk  
350 of the breakdown of the bone structure in advanced osteoporotic femoral diaphysis may  
351 increase with these various composite factors.

352 Fracture incidence is increased in various bones with aging in humans. It is  
353 speculated that not only morphological changes in bone but also qualitative changes,  
354 such as changes in the bone quality of cancellous and cortical bones, are involved. Patton  
355 et al. (2018) examined the relationships among age, sex, strength, and stiffness in both  
356 the femoral neck and femoral diaphysis, and found that a nonhomogeneous decrease in  
357 cortical thickness may be related to the high fracture incidence in the femoral diaphysis  
358 in some cases. Considering these results, when an individual with a morphological  
359 vulnerability in the femoral cortical bones takes long-term bisphosphonate, the risk of  
360 occurrence of ATFF may increase.

361

362 4.4. Limitations of this study

363 This study had some limitations: 1st) All the samples used in this study were femurs  
364 without actual atypical fractures. 2nd) This was a cross-sectional study of right femurs  
365 from 90 individuals. Thus, it was not possible to track morphological changes over time.  
366 3rd) Records of health status, medication, and activities before death for each individual  
367 were not available. 4th) Due to the nature of the anatomical skeletal collection  
368 comprising a donor population, the sample was also skewed towards older age ranges.  
369 5th) In addition, due to the nature of the samples, it was impossible to explore  
370 associations between diaphyseal morphology and mechanical properties.

371

## 372 5. Conclusions

373 In human femoral diaphysis, CBT and ACS decreased with age. This trend was  
374 particularly notable in females. However, a higher reduction rate in CBT than that in  
375 ACS was also observed in females. This may be partly due to an increase in the  
376 circumference of the femoral diaphysis compensating for a decrease in ACS. In addition,  
377 the results also showed that half of the individuals had discrepancies between the  
378 regions with maximal mCBT and those with maximal ACS values in the femoral shaft.  
379 Many muscle tendons are attached to these regions, which receive traction forces in  
380 various directions during activities of daily living. In these biomechanical circumstances  
381 in osteoporotic individuals, some degree of fragility may appear in the femoral bone. As  
382 an additional study, femoral bones of patients with ATFF should be analyzed to clarify

383 their morphological characteristics using the methods adopted in this study.

384 Conflicts of Interest

385 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this  
386 article.

387

388 Ethical approval

389 All procedures performed in this study were in accordance with ethical standards of the  
390 Ethics Committee of Nagasaki University Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences  
391 (approval number: 15033076) and with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later  
392 amendments or comparable ethical standards.

393

394 References

395

396 Abimanyi-Ochom J, Watts JJ, Borgström F, et al. (2015) Changes in quality of life  
397 associated with fragility fractures: Australian arm of the International Cost and Utility  
398 Related to Osteoporotic Fractures Study (AusICUROS), *Osteoporosis International* 26,  
399 1781–1790.

400 Bone GH, Hosking D, Devogelaer JP, et al. (2004) Ten years' experience with alendronate  
401 for osteoporosis in postmenopausal women, *N Engl J Med* 350, 1189–1199.

402 Bousson V, Peyrin F, Bergot C, et al. (2004) Cortical bone in the human femoral neck:  
403 Three-dimensional appearance and porosity using synchrotron radiation, *Bone Miner*  
404 *Res* 19, 794–801.

405 Burr DB (2010) Cortical bone: a target for fracture prevention? *Lancet* 375,1672–1673.

406 Chen H, Zhou X, Shoumura S, et al. (2010) Age- and gender-dependent changes in three-  
407 dimensional microstructure of cortical and trabecular bone at the human femoral neck,  
408 *Osteoporos Int* 21, 627–636.

409 Chow CK, Kaneko T (1972) Automatic Boundary Detection of the Left Ventricle from  
410 Cineangiograms, *Comput Biomed Res* 5, 388–410.

411 Coleman MN, Colbert MW (2007) Technical note: CT thresholding protocols for taking  
412 measurements on three-dimensional models, *Am J Phys Anthropol* 133, 723–725

413 Donnelly E, Meredith DS, Nguyen JT, et al. (2012) Reduced cortical bone compositional

414 heterogeneity with bisphosphonate treatment in postmenopausal women with  
415 intertrochanteric and subtrochanteric fractures, *J Bone Miner Res* 27, 672–678.

416 Geissler JR, Bajaj D, Fritton JC (2015) Cortical bone tissue mechanical quality and  
417 biological mechanisms possibly underlying atypical fractures *J Biomech* 48, 883–894.

418 Hagen JE, Miller AN, Ott SM, et al. (2014) Association of atypical femoral fractures with  
419 bisphosphonate use by patients with varus hip geometry, *J Bone Joint Surg Am* 96,  
420 1905–1909.

421 Jepsen KJ, Bigelow EM, Schlecht SH. (2015) Women Build Long Bones With Less  
422 Cortical Mass Relative to Body Size and Bone Size Compared With Men, *Clin Orthop*  
423 *Relat Res* 473, 2530–2539.

424 Kanemaru A, Arahata K, Ohta T, et al. (2010) The efficacy of home-based muscle training  
425 for the elderly osteoporotic women: The effects of daily muscle training on quality of life  
426 (QoL), *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 51, 169–172.

427 Kazakia GJ, Tjong W, Nirody JA, et al. (2014) The influence of disuse on bone  
428 microstructure and mechanics assessed by HR-pQCT, *Bone* 63, 132–140.

429 Koeppen VA, Schilcher J, Aspenberg P (2012) Atypical fractures do not have a thicker  
430 cortex, *Osteoporos Int* 23, 2893–2896.

431 Leung CK, Lam FK (1996) Performance Analysis for a Class of Iterative Image  
432 Thresholding Algorithm, *Pattern Recognition* 29, 1523–1530.

433 MacIntosh AA, Davies TG, Ryan TM, et al. (2013) Periosteal versus true cross-sectional

434 geometry: A comparison along humeral, femoral, and tibial diaphyses, *Am J Phys*  
435 *Anthropol* 150, 442–452.

436 Marcano A, Taormina D, Egol KA, et al. (2014) Are race and sex associated with the  
437 occurrence of atypical femoral fractures?, *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 472, 1020–1027.

438 McClung MR, Geusens P, Miller PD, et al. (2001) Effect of risedronate on the risk of hip  
439 fracture in elderly women, *N Engl J Med* 344, 333–340.

440 Mizushima S, Sakaue K (2009) Age-Related Changes in the External and Midshaft  
441 Cross-Sectional Geometries of the Adult Recent Japanese Femur, *Anthropol Sci*  
442 *Japanese Series* 117, 99–110.

443 Niimi R, Kono T, Nishihara A, et al. (2015) Cortical thickness of the femur and long-term  
444 bisphosphonate use, *J Bone Miner Res* 30, 225–231.

445 Oh Y, Wakabayashi Y, Kurosa Y, et al. (2014) Potential pathogenic mechanism for stress  
446 fractures of the bowed femoral shaft in the elderly: Mechanical analysis by the CT-based  
447 finite element method, *Injury* 45, 1764–1771.

448 Ostertag A, Peyrin F, Fernandez S, et al. (2014) Cortical measurements of the tibia from  
449 high resolution peripheral quantitative computed tomography images: A comparison  
450 with synchrotron radiation micro-computed tomography, *Bone* 63, 7–14.

451 Papapoulos SE, Quandt SA, Liberman UA, et al. (2005) Meta-analysis of the efficacy of  
452 alendronate for the prevention of hip fractures in postmenopausal women, *Osteoporos*  
453 *Int* 16, 468–474.



454 Patton DM, Bigelow EMR, Schlecht SH. (2018) The relationship between whole bone  
455 stiffness and strength is age and sex dependent, *J Biomech* 83, 125–133.

456 Ruff CB, Hayes WC (1983) Cross-sectional geometry of Pecos Pueblo femora and tibiae -  
457 A biomechanical investigation: I. Method and general patterns of variation, *Am J Phys*  
458 *Anthropol* 60, 359–381.

459 Ruff CN, Hayes W (1982) Subperiosteal expansion and cortical remodeling of the human  
460 femur and tibia with aging, *Science* 217, 945–948.

461 Ryan TM, Ketcham RA (2002) Femoral head trabecular bone structure in two omomyid  
462 primates, *J Hum Evol* 43, 241–263.

463 Scherf H, Tilgner R (2009) A new high-resolution computed tomography (CT)  
464 segmentation method for trabecular bone architectural analysis, *Am J Phys Anthropol*  
465 140, 39–51.

466 Schilcher J, Howe TS, Png MA, et al. (2015) Atypical Fractures are Mainly  
467 Subtrochanteric in Singapore and Diaphyseal in Sweden: A Cross-Sectional Study, *J*  
468 *Bone Miner Res* 30, 2127–2132.

469 Schlecht SH, Bigelow EM, Jepsen, KJ. (2015) How Does Bone Strength Compare Across  
470 Sex, Site, and Ethnicity?, *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 473, 2540–2547.

471 Schilcher J, Michaëlsson K, Aspenberg P (2011) Bisphosphonate Use and Atypical  
472 Fractures of the Femoral Shaft, Bisphosphonate Use and Atypical Fractures  
473 of the Femoral Shaft, *Science* 364, 1728–1737.

474 Shane E, Burr D, Ebeling PR, et al. (2010) Atypical Subtrochanteric and Diaphyseal  
475 Femoral Fractures: Report of a Task Force of the American Society for Bone and Mineral  
476 Research, *J Bone Miner Res* 25, 2267–2294.

477 Shane E, Burr D, Abrahamsen B, et al. (2014) Atypical subtrochanteric and diaphyseal  
478 femoral fractures: Second report of a task force of the American society for bone and  
479 mineral research, *J Bone Miner Res* 29 1–23.

480 Shin WC, Moon NH, Jang JH, et al. (2017) Anterolateral femoral bowing and loss of  
481 thigh muscle are associated with occurrence of atypical femoral fracture: Effect of failed  
482 tension band mechanism in mid-thigh, *J Orthop Sci* 22, 99–104.

483 Smith RW Jr, Walker RR (1964) Femoral Expansion in Aging Women: Implications for  
484 Osteoporosis and Fractures, *Science* 145, 156–157.

485 Szolomayer LK, Ibe IK, Lindskog DM (2017) Bilateral atypical femur fractures without  
486 bisphosphonate exposure, *Skeletal Radiol*, 46, 241–247.

487 Taormina DP, Marcano AI, Karia R, et al. (2014) Symptomatic atypical femoral fractures  
488 are related to underlying hip geometry, *Bone* 63, 1–6.

489 Ward KA, Adams JE, Hangartner TN (2005) Recommendations for thresholds for cortical  
490 bone geometry and density measurement by peripheral quantitative computed  
491 tomography, *Calcif Tissue Int* 77, 275–280.

492

493 Figure and Table Legends

494

495 Figure 1: Method for calculating the threshold using the mode method

496 A histogram was created on the basis of a frequency table of CT values to calculate the  
497 mean CT value of the first peak (i.e., approximately -1,000; mainly indicating the CT  
498 value of the surrounding air) and the CT value of the second peak (i.e., indicating the CT  
499 value of the bone itself). An example of one slice is shown; CT image of the femoral  
500 diaphysis, width level (WL) 500 and windows width (WW) 2500. The calculated threshold  
501 value was 375, and the contour of the target bone was determined.

502

503 Figure 2: Methods to calculate each indicator

504 Left figure

505 Cortical bone thickness (CBT); distances between a point (a) on the periosteal surface  
506 and all points on the endosteal surface of the cortical bone were calculated. The minimum  
507 of these values was defined as the CBT of the point. Such calculations were performed  
508 for all points on the periosteal surface of the cortical bone to calculate the CBT of the  
509 entire circumference of the cortical bone.

510 Periosteal border length (PBL) of each section was calculated by counting the  
511 number of points (pixels) on the periosteal surface.

512

513 Right figure

514 The area of cross-section (ACS) of each section was calculated by counting all the points  
515 (pixels) in the area surrounded by the periosteal and endosteal perimeters of the cortical  
516 bone (b). The area was corrected by calculating the actual length per pixel in the DICOM  
517 data to take into account the magnification ratio at the time of imaging.

518 The ratio of the cortical bone area to the ACS of the femoral mid-diaphysis at Level  
519 5 (i.e., the occupancy rate of the cortical bone) was calculated as the cortical index (CI<sub>5</sub>;  
520 i.e.,  $b / [b + c] \times 100$ ).

521

522 Figure 3: Analysis results from a 70-year-old female and a 60-year-old female

523 In this figure, the degree of CBT is visualized. The thicker the cortex, the deeper the red,  
524 whereas the thinner the cortex, the deeper the blue.

525

526 Figure 4: Analysis of results from a 70-year-old female and a 60-year-old female (same  
527 samples in Figure 3).

528 The shapes of the cross-sections for seven levels are shown. In the tables, the values of  
529 the mean cortical bone thickness (mCBT) (average  $\pm$  standard deviation), periosteal  
530 border length (PBL), and area of cross-section (ACS) are shown. Progression of  
531 osteoporosis was observed in the 70-year-old female.

532

533 Figure 5: Cross-sectional images at Level 5 for each individual are shown in ascending  
534 order of cortical index at Level 5 (CI\_5) values. Blue indicates images from males, and  
535 red indicates those from females. The number at the center of each figure indicates the  
536 age of the individual.

537

538 Figure 6: Values of the cortical index at Level 5 (CI\_5)

539 6-a) Scatter plot showing the relationship between CI\_5 and age in males and females

540 6-b) Box plots of CI\_5 values according to age (i.e., group A,  $\leq 69$  years old and group B,  
541  $\geq 70$  years old) and sex (\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ).

542

543 Figure 7: Results of the measurement of cortical bone thickness (CBT)

544 7-a) Box plots of the comparison of group A ( $\leq 69$  years old, 30 males and 16 females) and  
545 group B ( $\geq 70$  years old, 16 males and 28 females) (\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ).

546 7-b) Scatter plot showing the relationship between mCBT and age in males and females.

547

548 Figure 8: Results of area of cross-section (ACS) measurements

549 8-a) Box plots of ACS values at Levels 2–8 according to age (i.e., group A,  $\leq 69$  years old  
550 and group B,  $\geq 70$  years old) and sex (\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ).

551 8-b) Scatter plot showing the relationship between ACS values and age in males and  
552 females.

553

554 Figure 9: Results of the periosteal border length (PBL) measurement

555 9-a) Box plots of PBL values at Levels 2–8 according to age (i.e., group A,  $\leq 69$  years old  
556 and group B,  $\geq 70$  years old) and sex (\*  $p < 0.05$ ).

557 9-b) Scatter plot showing the relationship between mean PBL and age in males and  
558 females.

559

560 Table 1: Comparison between the level of the maximal mean cortical bone thickness  
561 (mCBT) and that of the maximal area of cross-section (ACS).

562 The level of the maximal ACS value and that of the maximal mCBT in each femoral bone  
563 is shown. The region with the largest ACS was located more proximal to the region with  
564 the largest mCBT in 48 of 90 individuals (asterisk).

Figure 1

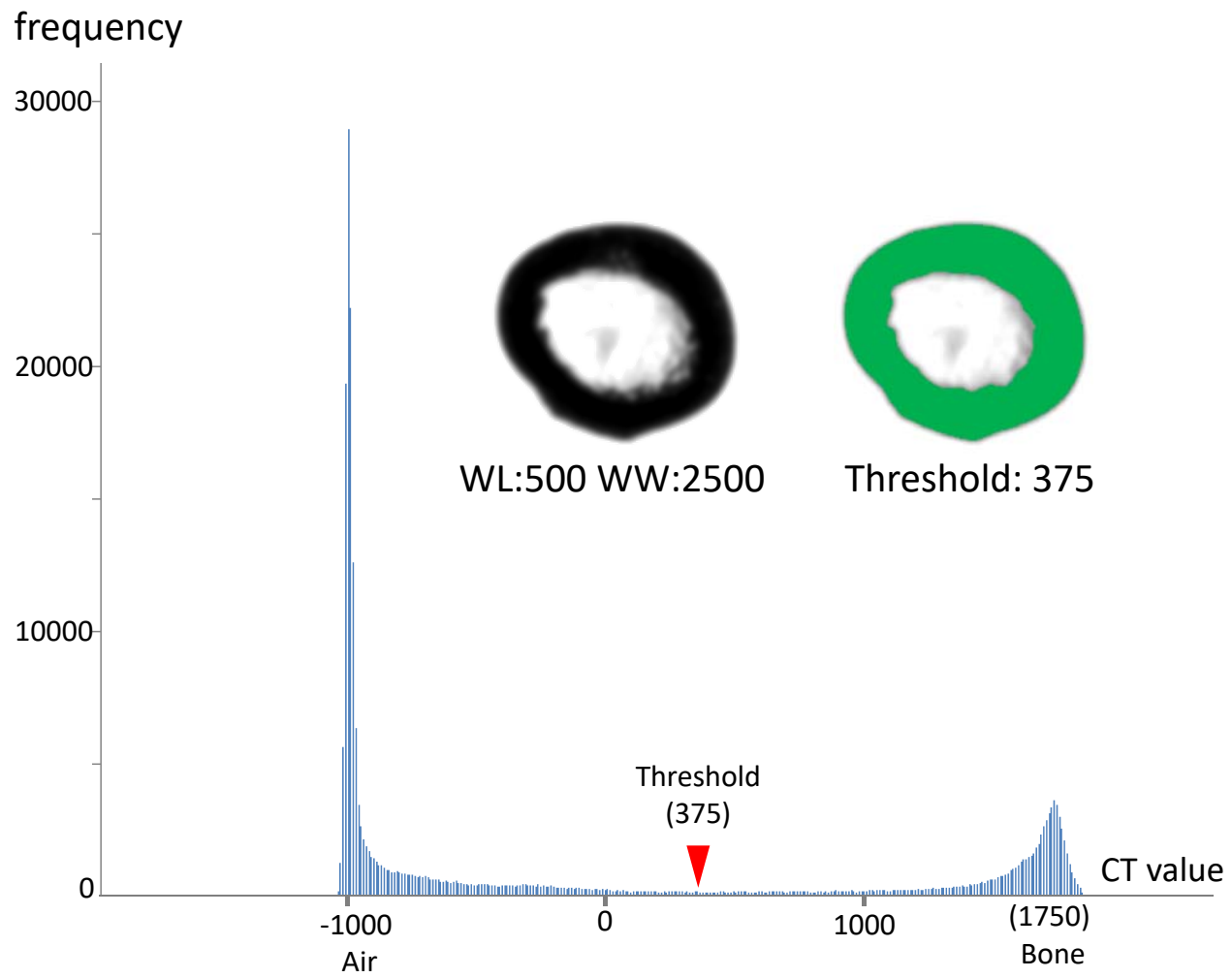


Figure 2

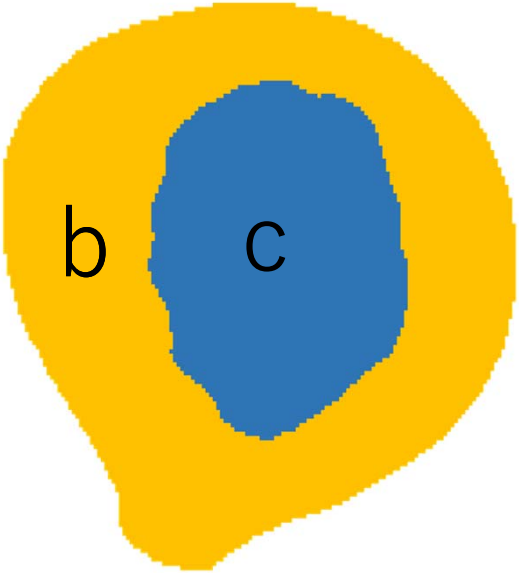
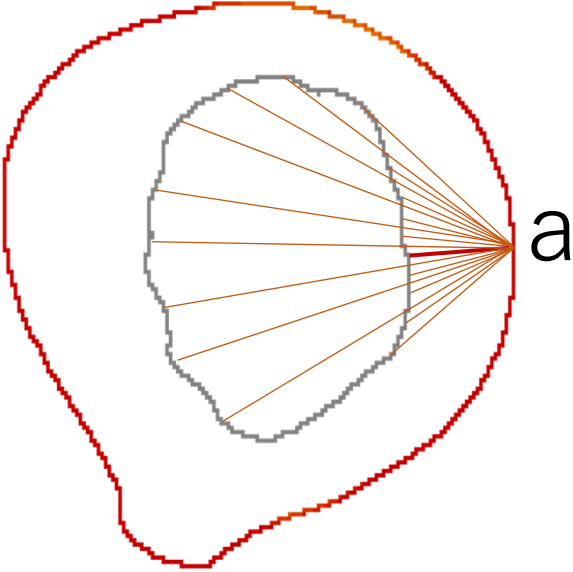




Figure 3

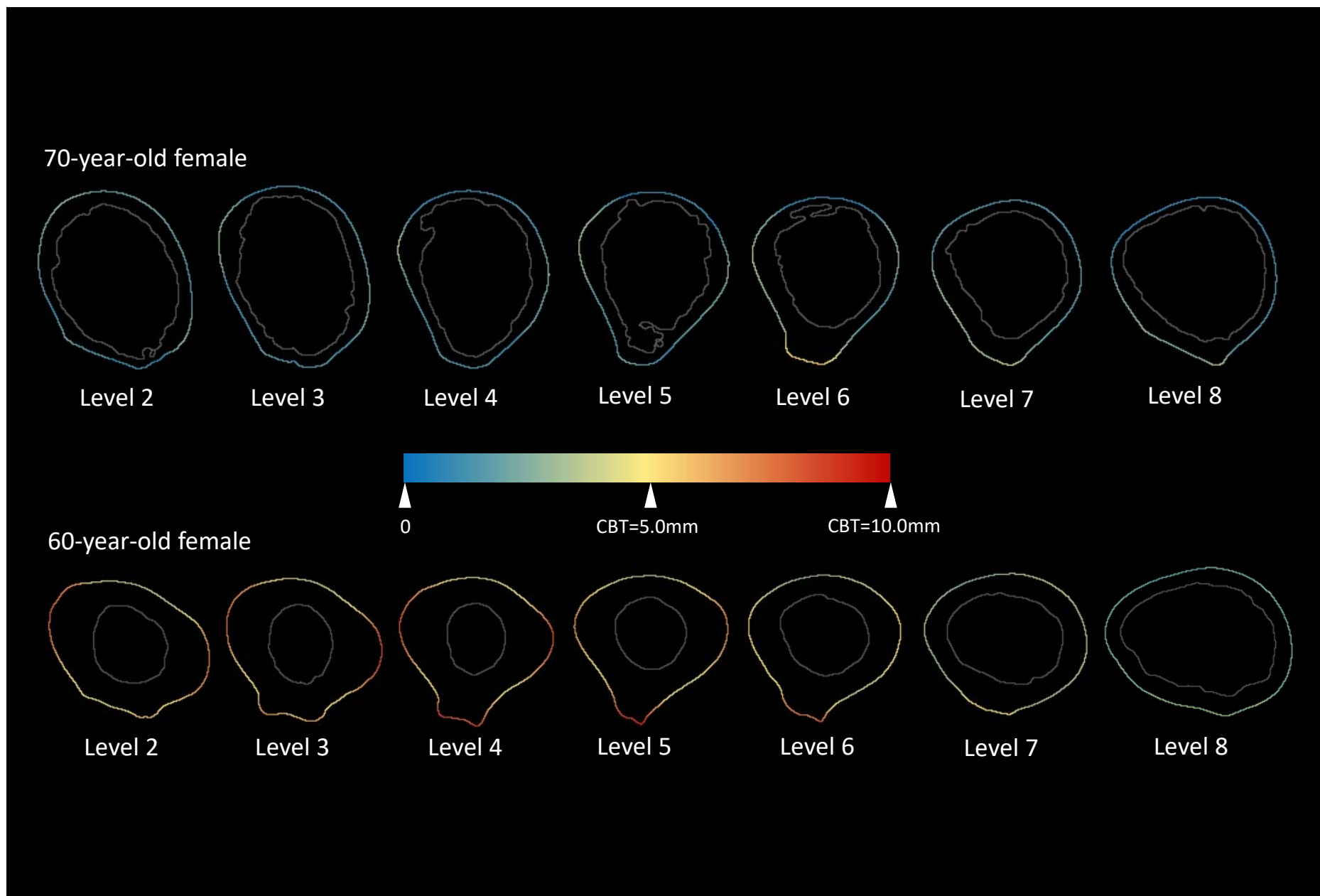
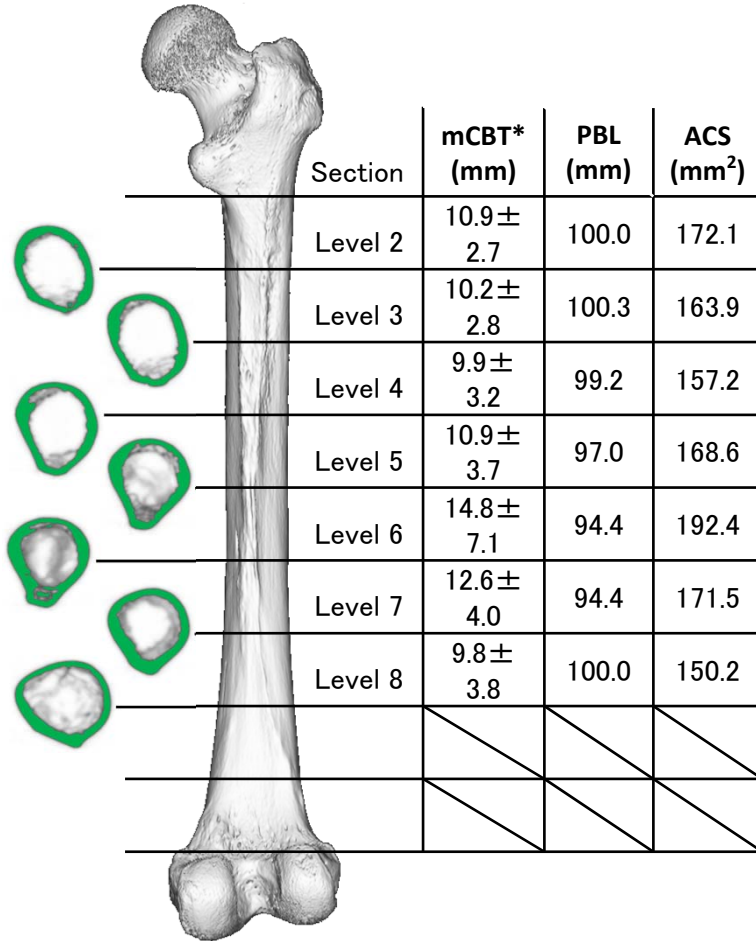


Figure 4

70-year-old female



60-year-old female

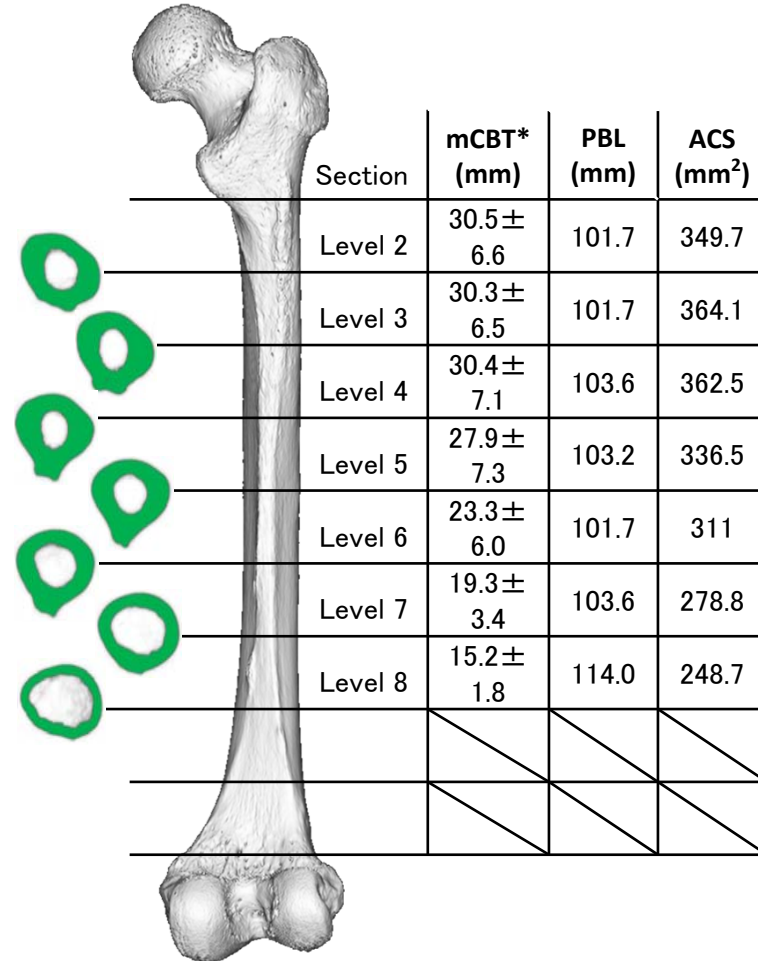


Figure 5

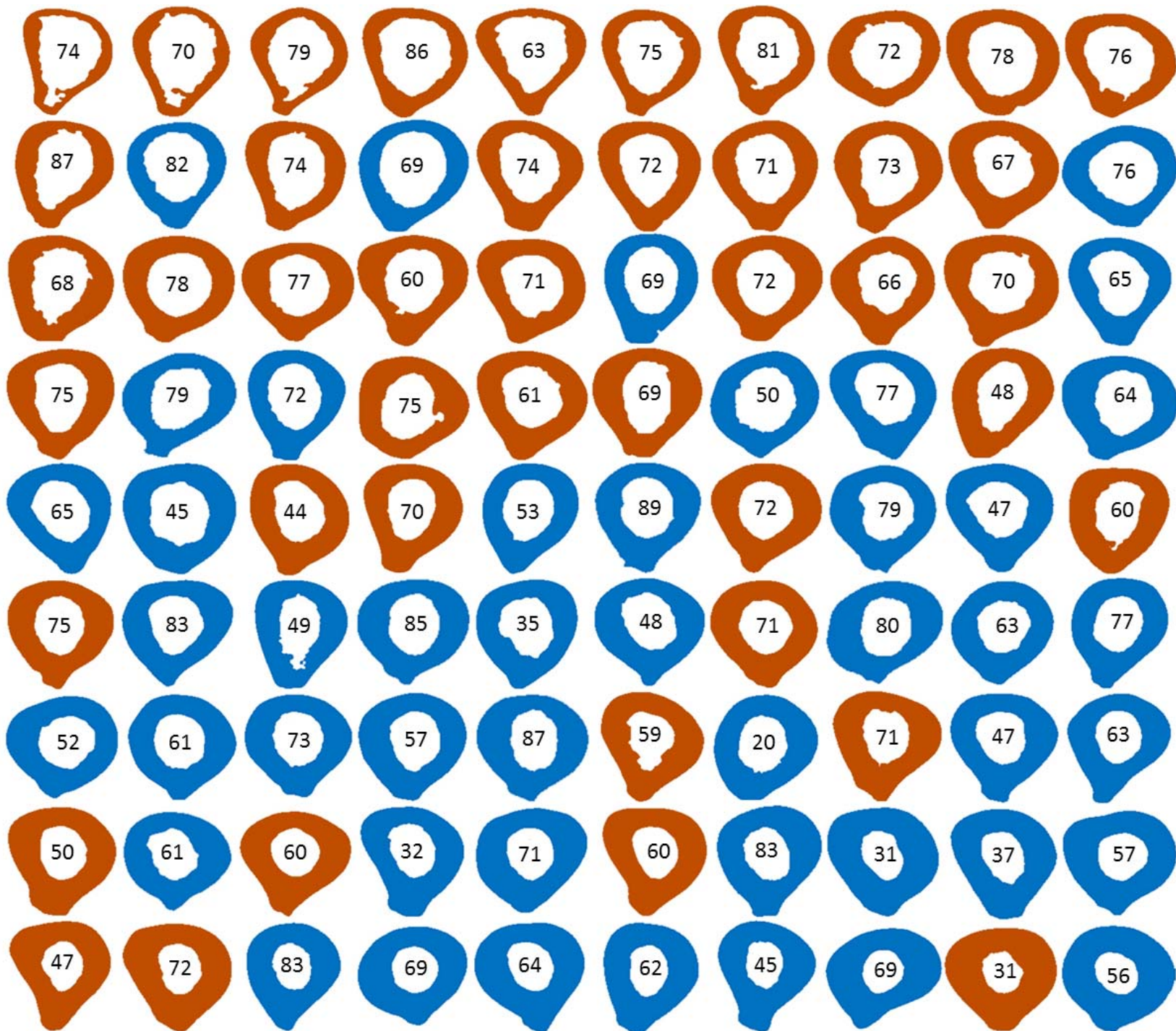


Figure 6

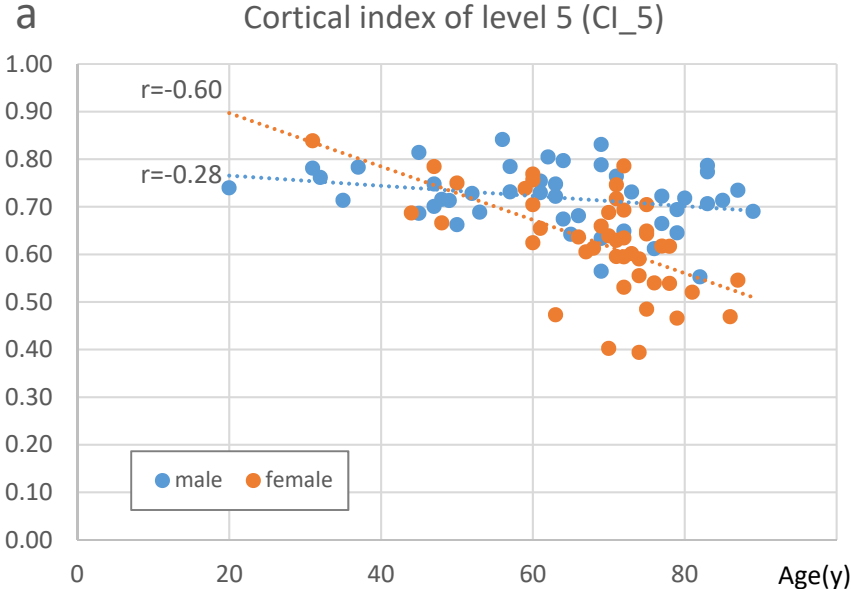


Figure 6-a

**b** Cortical Index (CI<sub>5</sub>)

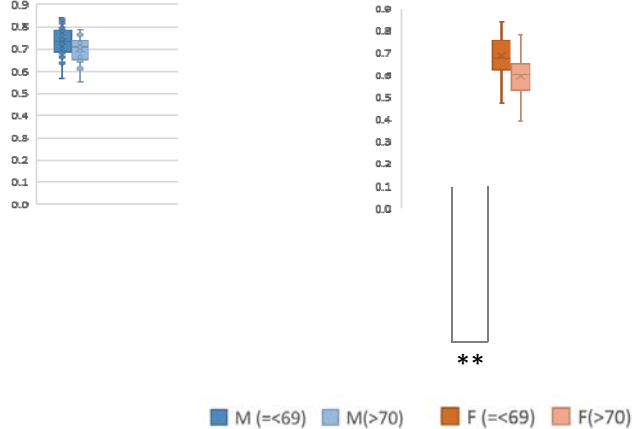


Figure 6-b

Figure 7

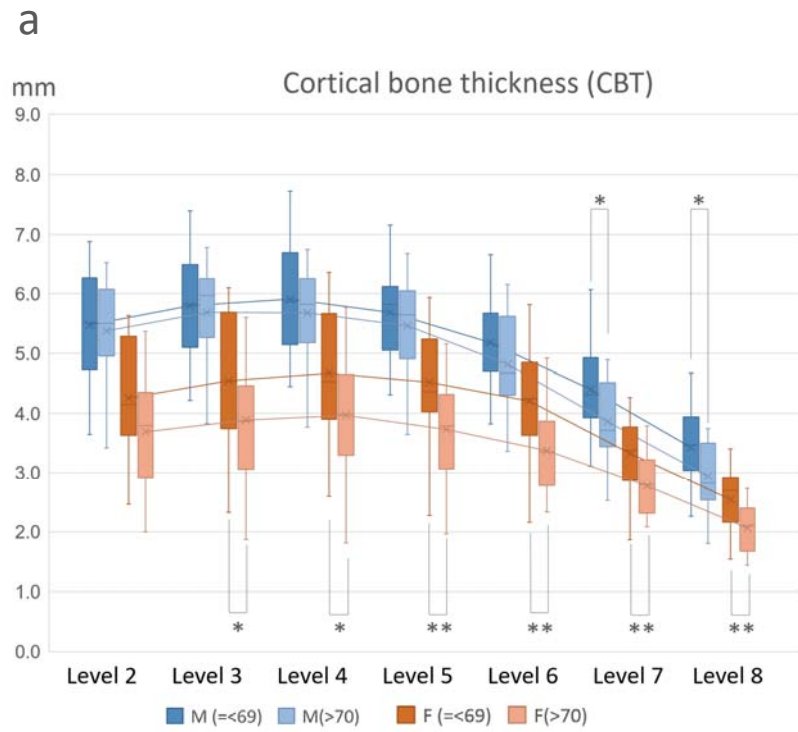


Figure 7-a

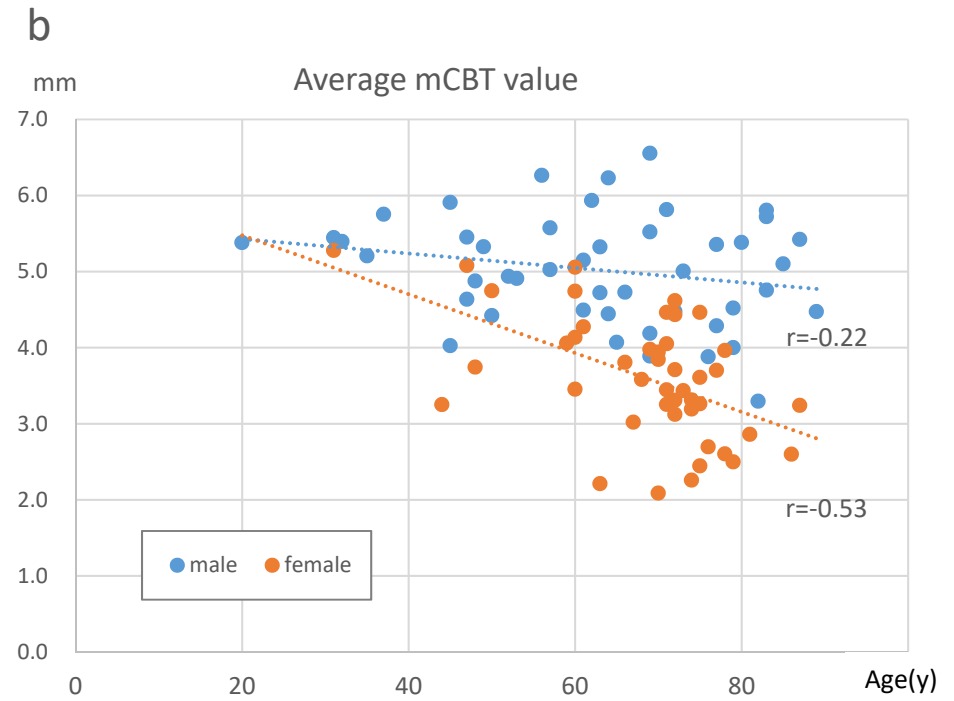


Figure 7-b



Figure 8

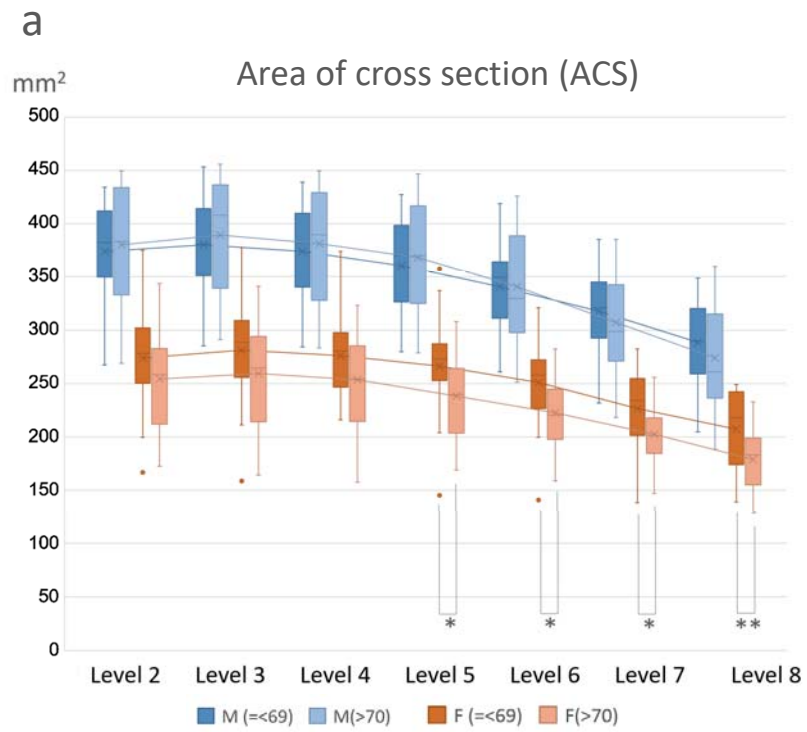


Figure 8-a

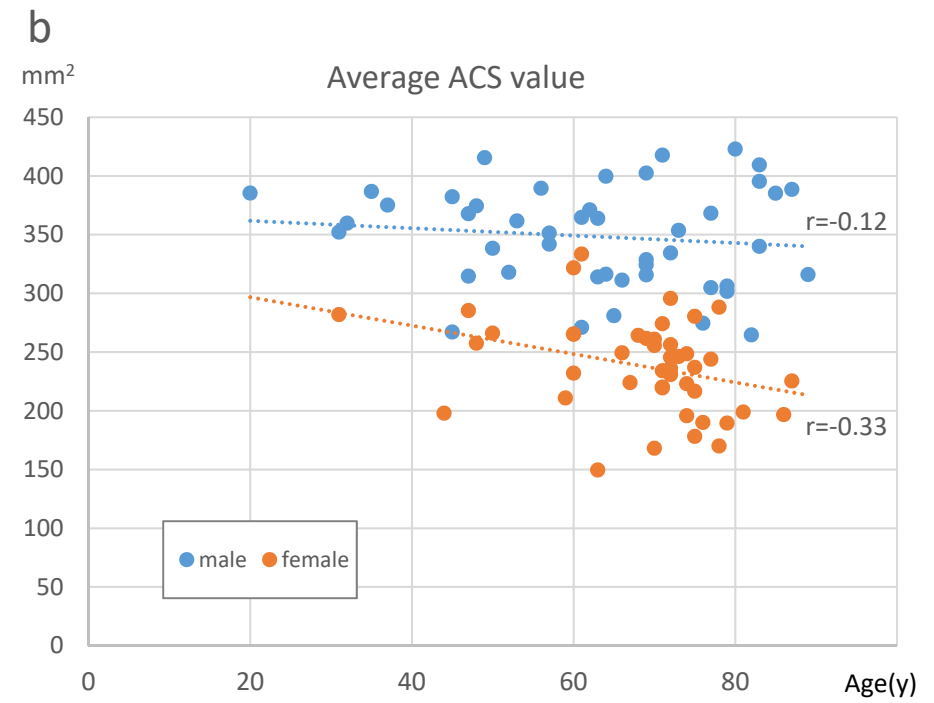


Figure 8-b

Figure 9

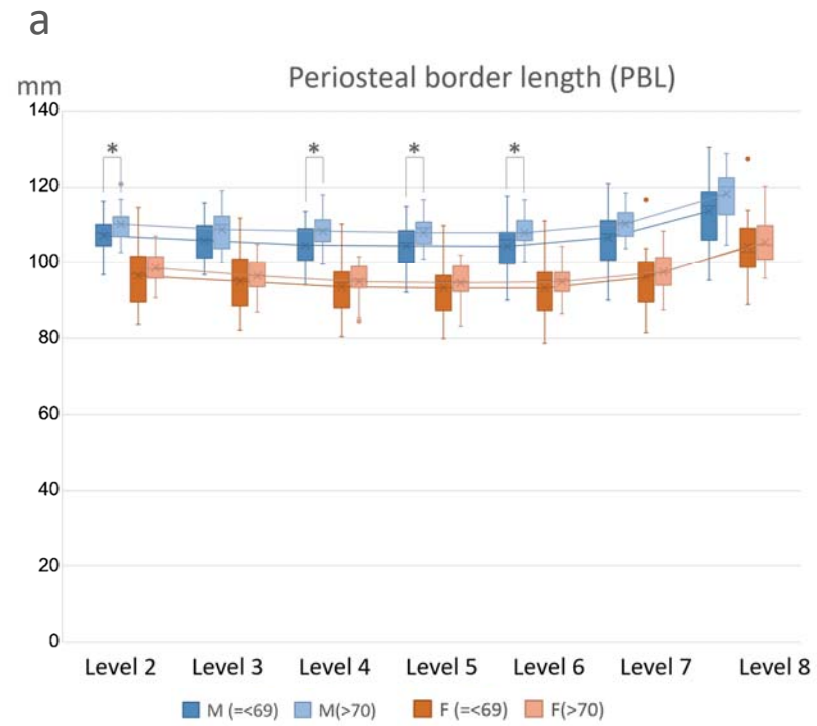


Figure 9-a

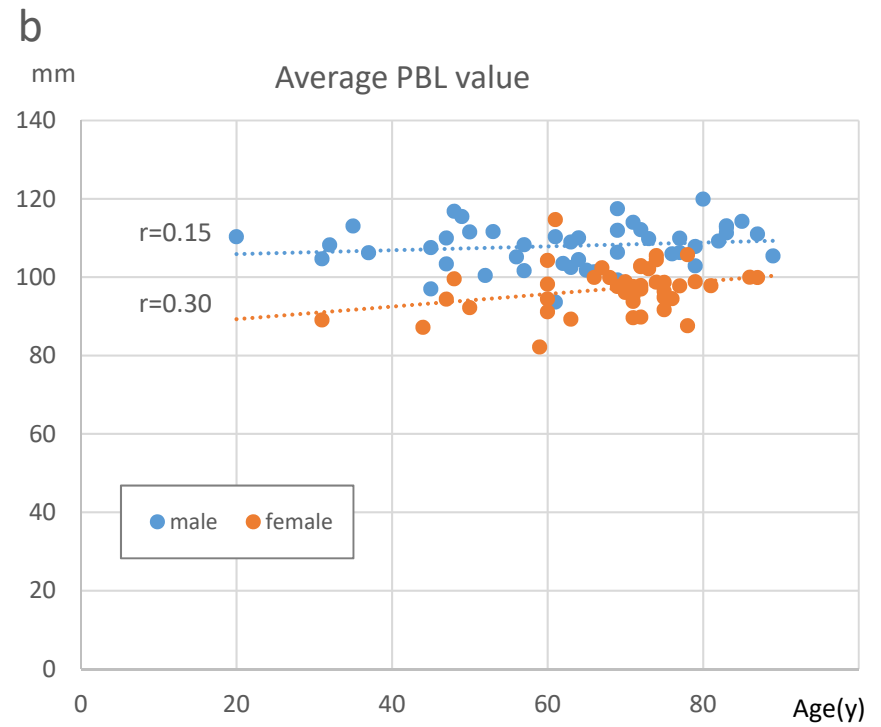


Figure 9-b

Table 1

		mCBT					
		Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level 6	Total
ACS	Level 2	4	6*	7*	0	0	17
	Level 3	1	22	25*	7*	1*	56
	Level 4	0	0	7	2*	0	9
	Level 5	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Level 6	0	0	0	0	3	3
	Total	5	28	39	14	4	90