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Biomechanical testing of the calcified metacarpal articular surface and its association with subchondral bone microstructure in Thoroughbred racehorses

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9 **Biomechanical testing of the calcified metacarpal articular surface and its association**
10 **with subchondral bone microstructure in Thoroughbred racehorses**

11

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24

25

26 **Keywords:** horse; fatigue; osteoarthritis; palmar osteochondral disease; subchondral bone

27

28

29 **Summary**

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30 **Background:** Palmar/plantar osteochondral disease (POD) and third metacarpal/-tarsal
31 condylar fractures are considered fatigue injuries of subchondral bone (SCB) and calcified
32 cartilage due to repetitive high loads in racehorses. In combination with adaptive changes in
33 SCB in response to race training, the accumulation of SCB fatigue is likely to result in
34 changes of joint surface mechanical properties.

35 **Objectives:** To determine the spatial relationship and correlation of calcified articular surface
36 biomechanical properties with SCB microstructure and training history in the distal palmar
37 metacarpal condyle of Thoroughbred racehorses.

38 **Study design:** Cross-sectional study.

39 **Methods:** Third metacarpal condyles were examined from 31 Thoroughbred horses with
40 micro-computed tomography (micro-CT). Hyaline cartilage was removed and reference point
41 indentation (RPI) mechanical testing of the calcified articular surface was performed. Training
42 histories were obtained from trainers. The association between indentation distance increase
43 (IDI), an inverse RPI measure of toughness, micro-CT, and training variables were assessed
44 using a mixed-effects generalised linear model.

45 **Results:** Untrained horses had higher IDI than horses that had commenced training
46 ($P < 0.001$). Death as a result of musculoskeletal bone fatigue injury ($P = 0.044$) and presence
47 of POD ($P = 0.05$) were associated with higher IDI. The micro-CT variables connectivity
48 density and trabecular pattern factor were positively ($P = 0.002$) and negatively ($P < 0.001$)
49 correlated with IDI, respectively.

50 **Main limitations:** The application of RPI to the calcified articular surface is novel and there is
51 a potential for measurement variability with surface unevenness.

52 **Conclusion:** Commencement of race training is associated with altered material properties of
53 the calcified articular surface in horses. Reduced articular surface material properties can
54 also be detected in horses that have fatigue injuries of the distal metacarpus and at other
55 sites in the skeleton. Measures of SCB connectivity and trabecular surface shape may be
56 more important determinants of resistance to failure of the calcified articular surface than
57 traditional measures such as SCB volume and density.

58

59 **Introduction**

60 Palmar/plantar osteochondral disease (POD) and third metacarpal/-tarsal condylar fractures
61 are considered fatigue injuries of racehorse subchondral bone (SCB) and calcified cartilage
62 due to repetitive high loads [1]. Both injuries are characterised by the coalescence of
63 microcracks initiated at the articular surface of the calcified cartilage [2-4]. During rigorous
64 training, SCB remodelling is inhibited allowing accumulation of fatigued bone [4; 5]. When
65 rested following such training, intense focal SCB resorption occurs, immediately under and
66 including the calcified cartilage layer [6]. Both resorption and sclerosis are implicated in
67 acceleration of SCB damage due to assumed changes in local mechanical properties [6; 7].
68 There has been limited investigation of the biomechanical roles that both SCB and calcified

69 cartilage play in injury pathogenesis, despite increasing evidence for SCB involvement in
70 articular disease [8-11].

71

72 Reference point indentation (RPI) enables in situ mechanical testing that correlates with
73 traditional whole bone mechanical testing [12; 13]. It is inversely correlated with fracture
74 toughness assessed by three-point bending [13]. The device test probe is housed within a
75 reference probe and performs cyclic indentations at a single location. It induces local
76 separation of mineralised collagen fibrils, and microcrack formation, focal bone compaction
77 and radial damage [12; 14]. The indentation distance increase (IDI) between the first and last
78 indentation cycle has successfully demonstrated deterioration of bone material properties in
79 human patients with osteoporotic and atypical femoral fractures, and has been validated for
80 use in equine cortical bone [12; 15; 16].

81

82 The purpose of this study was to determine the spatial relationship and correlation of calcified
83 articular surface biomechanical properties with training history and microstructure in the distal
84 palmar metacarpal condyle of Thoroughbred racehorses. We evaluated RPI and micro-
85 computed tomography (microCT) features from horses in various stages of race training. We
86 hypothesised that the calcified articular surface would exhibit marked regional variations in
87 resistance to failure, which would correlate positively with SCB volume and negatively with
88 SCB porosity and damage.

89

90 **Materials and methods**

91

92 **Samples**

93

94 Samples were collected within 24 hours of death from Thoroughbred racehorses that
95 underwent post mortem examination at the University of Melbourne, following death or
96 euthanasia at local racetracks or in the referral hospital. Post mortem reports were collected
97 and training histories obtained from trainers. Data collected included age, sex, limb, current
98 work and training status, weeks in work or days spelling, number of race starts, wins and
99 places, prize money earned, and cause of death. Gross metacarpal condylar lesions were
100 subjectively scored as previously described [17]. Specimens with grossly evident articular
101 surface collapse were excluded.

102

103 The palmar epiphysis was removed along a line 55° to the frontal plane through the centre of
104 rotation on both condyles using a bandsaw (Barnes^a). Samples were wrapped in gauze
105 soaked with normal saline (0.9% sodium chloride^a) or Compound Sodium Lactate
106 (Hartmann's^b) and stored in ziplock bags at -20°C.

107

108 A total of 31 independent metacarpii were required to detect a difference of 0.50 between the
109 null hypothesis correlation of zero and the alternative hypothesis correlation of 0.50 between
110 microstructural and mechanical measures, with a power of 80% using a two-sided hypothesis
111 test with a significance level of 0.05[18]. The study population was initially defined to include
112 a range of ages and work status, to increase microstructural variation and maximise
113 opportunity to find a correlation between microstructural and biomechanical properties [6; 7].
114 The required samples were then randomly selected from stored cases available that met
115 these definitions, by use of a random number generator.

116
117 A left or right metacarpus was randomly selected from each horse for analysis, as there is no
118 evidence for side predilection of SCB injury [17; 19]. Samples were thawed at room
119 temperature prior to each experimental stage. Medial condyles were trimmed to
120 approximately 20 mm lateromedial × 10 mm dorsopalmar × 10 mm deep slabs using a self-
121 irrigated diamond saw (Isomet^d). The most axial margin was within the parasagittal groove
122 region (Fig 1).

123 124 **Microstructural analysis**

125 Imaging and microstructural analysis was performed using micro-CT (SkyScan 1172 high
126 resolution micro-CT^e). Samples were stabilised inside a humidified tube. Exposure
127 parameters were set at 70 kV, 142 μ A, and 10 W, with 10.0 μ m pixel size, angular rotation
128 step 0.4°, frame averaging 3, exposure time 1750 ms, and using an aluminum copper filter.

129
130 Images were analysed with proprietary microCT software (CTAn^e). Samples were analysed in
131 thirds; region one was designated as axial, region two mid-condyle and region three abaxial
132 (Fig 1). The depth analysed was 6 mm from the most distal point of the articular surface.
133 Mineral density values were calibrated from the attenuation coefficient by use of two
134 hydroxyapatite calibration phantoms^e and following the microCT manufacturer's standard
135 protocol. The variables connectivity density (ConnDn) and trabecular pattern factor (TbPf)
136 were originally defined in trabecular bone but have here been applied to SCB that
137 demonstrates both trabecular and cortical microstructure. Connectivity density reflects the
138 extent of multiple connections, preventing separation of a structure into two halves [20]. In
139 high bone volume bone structures such as dense SCB, volume increase or porosity reduction
140 are associated with reducing connections. Trabecular pattern factor measures enclosed
141 cavities and reflects surface concavity; increasing porosity and concavity reduce TbPf [21].
142 Presence or absence of attrition or mineralised projections was recorded.

143 144 **Mechanical testing**

145 Mechanical testing was performed using RPI (BioDent™ Hfc RPI instrument^f) fitted with a
146 BP2 probe (test probe 375 μ m diameter, 90° cono-spherical, 2.5 μ m radius tip) [12]. Hyaline
147 cartilage was removed from the articular surface with a scalpel blade [11]. Sample hydration

148 was maintained by periodic moistening with Compound Sodium Lactate (Hartmann's^c). The
149 sample was stabilised on the commercial RPI stage (Active Life stage with XY positioner^h)
150 [22]. Each indentation was applied as perpendicular to the articular surface as possible [12;
151 22]. Test parameters were set at twenty-cycle indentation measurements at 10 N force and 2
152 Hz, based on testing of human cortical bone [12]. Pre-conditioning was set at five cycles, 2 N
153 force and 4 Hz, modified from Diez-Perez 2010 [12]. Measurements were spaced
154 approximately every 1-2 mm across the articular surface based on published cortical bone
155 protocols [12; 23]. The maximum depth of penetration was 134.84 μm which is less than the
156 mean reported thickness of distal metacarpal condylar calcified cartilage (175 μm) [24].
157

158 A custom Matlab^g code was used to determine the increase in penetration distance (IDI) in
159 μm between the first and last indentation cycle. Eighteen discrete measurements were made
160 per region, and the mean used for correlation with regional microCT results.
161

162 **Data Analysis**

163 *Regression analyses*

164 A linear regression model was used to quantify the influence of training history, gross articular
165 pathology and microstructural properties on IDI. There were 34 candidate explanatory
166 variables (Supplementary Item 1), encompassing individual horse, training, history, gross post
167 mortem pathology, microCT pathology, microstructural and RPI (sample storage time and
168 probe re-use) variable pairs. Variables were screened for collinearity and the least biologically
169 plausible of correlated variables excluded where the Pearson product moment correlation
170 ≥ 0.8 , or if the microCT variable did not account for variation in sample volume.
171

172
173 In univariable screening, hypothesised explanatory variables with unconditional associations
174 with IDI that were significant at $P \leq 0.3$ (2-sided) were selected for multivariable modelling.
175 Initially, a fixed-effects linear regression model was developed using a backward stepwise
176 variable selection process. All of the explanatory variables that were associated with IDI with
177 $P \leq 0.3$ were entered into the model. Explanatory variables were then removed from the model
178 one at a time, beginning with the least significant, until only variables associated with the
179 outcome at $P \leq 0.05$ were retained. Each variable that was removed was then added back into
180 the model one by one and retained as a confounder if it was significantly associated with IDI
181 and if it changed the coefficient of any of the other retained explanatory variables in the model
182 by $>20\%$. We assessed biologically plausible two-way interactions between the main effects
183 remaining in the final multivariable model, and none were found to be significant.
184

185 To account for lack of independence in the data arising from repeated condylar observations
186 on the same horse the fixed-effects linear regression model was extended to include a zero
187 mean, Gaussian horse-level random effect term. Frequency histograms of the residuals from

188 the multilevel model and plots of the residuals versus predicted values were constructed to
189 check that the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance had been met.

190

191 Descriptive analysis was performed using SPSS version 22 (IBM Corp, 2013, IBM SPSS
192 Statistics for Windows: Version 22.0^h). The fixed- and mixed-effects linear regression
193 modelling was carried out using Stata version 13 (StataCorp, 2013, Stata Statistical Software:
194 Release 13ⁱ).

195

196 **Results**

197 *Cases*

198 The 31 condyles were randomly selected from 58 available at the start of the study.

199 Descriptive case information is provided in Supplementary Items 1, 2 and 3.

200

201 *Description of microstructure*

202 Subjectively, extension of dense bone from the SCB plate causing loss of trabecular structure
203 was greatest in the mid-condylar and axial regions (Fig 2a). The extent of dense SCB with
204 loss of trabecular architecture appeared to increase with increasing age. Untrained horses
205 had no to mild loss of SCB trabecular structure. Focal pores were concentrated within the
206 superficial SCB to a depth of 100 μm , and often extended through the calcified cartilage layer
207 into the hyaline cartilage; pores were finely continuous with underlying trabecular bone (Fig
208 2b). These were common in untrained horses (5/6). Longer more linear voids 100-200 μm in
209 width, extending through dense trabecular bone, were typically located in the mid condylar
210 region; in one horse they were closer to the axial parasagittal region. In 6/16 condyles these
211 channels were surrounded by a ring of hypomineralised bone (Fig 2c), and channels were
212 finely continuous with the articular surface at the scan resolution.

213

214 Microfractures of the calcified cartilage, determined as microcracks at 45° to and contiguous
215 with the articular surface, were observed in samples from all ages [4]. Microfractures
216 extended varying lengths in the underlying trabecular bone plate and were contiguous with a
217 resorption space or channel. In 3/6 untrained horses, microfractures were short or fine.
218 Hypermineralised and likely healed microfractures were more common in horses in training
219 older than three years (Supplementary Item 4); small numbers of these microfractures were
220 also present in half of the untrained horses.

221

222 Hypermineralised projections extending from calcified cartilage into hyaline cartilage were
223 present in three horses in training. Two horses aged six and seven years additionally had
224 midcondylar resorption channels and articular surface collapse as observed on microCT
225 (Supplementary Item 5). One four-year-old horse had a mineralised projection without
226 articular surface collapse. This horse uniquely had four unassociated voids or pits present on
227 the calcified articular surface (Supplementary Item 6). These voids were located on the axial

228 margin of the mid condyle, which had underlying resorption channels through a region of
229 dense SCB.

230

231 Accumulation of linear voids in the superficial SCB was observed in two cases (2/6), with
232 multiple SCB plate pores present in one case.

233

234 *Mechanical properties*

235 Surface mechanical properties were uniform across the condyle with no difference in IDI
236 between regions (Supplementary Item 7).

237

238 **Modelling**

239

240 *Univariable analysis*

241 Following exclusion of highly correlated variables, univariate screening identified 18 of the 27
242 candidate explanatory variables that were associated with IDI with $P \leq 0.3$ (Supplementary
243 item 2). Of these, nine variables were significant at $P \leq 0.05$ (Supplementary Item 2). Two non-
244 significant variables, cause of death ($P = 0.6$) and POD ($P = 0.5$), were retained due to the
245 biological plausibility of their association with IDI, providing 20 candidate explanatory
246 variables for linear regression modelling.

247

248 *Multivariable analysis*

249 The fixed effects linear regression model identified 11 explanatory variables that were
250 significantly associated with IDI at the alpha level of 0.05: group (trained or untrained), age,
251 race status, cause of death, gross cartilage wear lines, gross cartilage loss, gross linear
252 fissures, attrition, TbPf, ConnDn and sample storage time. After accounting for unmeasured
253 individual horse-level effects using the mixed-effects linear regression model, five explanatory
254 variables were retained.

255

256 Untrained horses had higher IDI than horses that had entered race training ($P < 0.001$, 95% CI
257 3.92-8.39) (Figure 3). Death as a result of any musculoskeletal fatigue injury and presence of
258 POD were associated with higher IDI compared to other causes, ($P = 0.044$, 95% CI 0.048-
259 3.62 and $P = 0.05$, 95% CI 0.038-4.01 respectively). The micro-CT variables connectivity
260 density and trabecular pattern factor were positively ($P < 0.001$, 95% CI 0.49-1.63) and
261 negatively ($P = 0.002$, 95% CI -0.31- -0.068) correlated respectively with IDI, respectively.
262 Examination of the standardised residuals from the final mixed-effects model identified no
263 significant outliers or lack of normality.

264

265 **Discussion**

266 In contrast to our hypothesis, we did not find variation in toughness across the calcified
267 articular surface of the third metacarpal medial condyle. However we observed an association

268 between the initiation of race training and reduced IDI. Two measures of trabecular
269 connectivity were associated with IDI whereas other subchondral bone microstructural
270 measures were not. In addition a higher calcified articular surface IDI was observed in both
271 horses that suffered a catastrophic musculoskeletal injury and horses with POD lesions
272 independently.

273
274 The RPI method predominantly assessed the local biomechanical properties of the calcified
275 cartilage, as our maximum probe penetration depth was less than the mean reported
276 thickness of metacarpal condylar calcified cartilage [24]. In particular it is a measure of the
277 propensity for microcrack formation and the calcified cartilage is the site at which microcracks
278 most commonly originate [4; 25]. Therefore changes in the underlying SCB microstructure
279 are unlikely to directly affect surface IDI measurements. However, we expected to observe
280 indirect associations as SCB microstructure is responsive to its loading environment and
281 deterioration of calcified cartilage mechanical properties are a result of that same loading
282 environment.

283
284 Regional variation in microstructural and gross biomechanical properties between dorsal-
285 palmar and medial-lateral condyle, and sagittal ridge SCB samples has been described [5;
286 11; 26; 27]. We observed relatively uniform calcified cartilage biomechanical properties
287 across the metacarpal condyle. This may be a result of the very different homeostatic
288 mechanisms of cartilage and bone; for example bone's ability to actively remodel.

289
290 Despite previous correlation with elastic modulus and yield stress in compression testing of
291 diseased equine SCB, bone volume fraction and bone mineral densities were not retained in
292 our model [11]. While bone mineral density has traditionally been used to assess fracture risk,
293 changes in bone toughness and fracture risk have been demonstrated in humans, dogs and
294 rats without commensurate changes in bone mineral density [28-30].

295
296 The effect of race training commencement on articular surface IDI may be intensity
297 dependent. Our findings oppose previous nanoindentation testing of equine SCB
298 demonstrating no effect of early preconditioning exercise or early training on elastic modulus
299 [8; 9]. Training has been associated with increased estimated bulk modulus of cortical bone
300 and exercise is associated with reduced cortical bone IDI in mice [31; 32]. Because
301 observations for this study were made at a single point in time it is difficult to determine when
302 calcified articular surface toughness is maximised by race training but a higher risk of
303 fractures that commonly propagate from the calcified cartilage surface is observed in horses
304 in their first year of racing [33].

305
306 We identified an increase in IDI of the metacarpal articular surface in horses that have
307 evidence of accumulating bone fatigue both locally in the distal metacarpus (POD) and more

308 widely in the skeleton (horses that died as a result of any musculoskeletal stress injury). Our
309 findings suggest accumulation of microdamage was not confined to the site of fracture in
310 these cases. This is consistent with the observation of increased bone volume fraction of the
311 distal third metacarpal both in horses with fracture of the third metacarpal condyle or another
312 skeletal site, compared to horses without fracture [6]. The ability of RPI to correlate with
313 global fracture risk has been previously demonstrated, through differentiation of more fragile
314 osteoporotic bone in vivo, and diabetic and bisphosphonate treated cortical bone in vitro [12;
315 13]. No association of musculoskeletal stress injury has previously been identified with
316 Young's Modulus in equine SCB fatigue testing [34]. Fatigue injury may accumulate
317 preferentially at the calcified articular surface and RPI may be more sensitive to changes
318 associated with microdamage.

319

320 Indentation distance increase did increase in the mid-condylar region with the presence of
321 gross POD, consistent with a reduction in SCB plate yield stress identified with severely
322 diseased bone [11]. We observed no significant association between gross linear fissuring of
323 the axial parasagittal groove region and IDI. Changes in parasagittal groove toughness may
324 predispose to metacarpal condylar fracture, although there is no reported association
325 between linear fissures and fracture [8]. Altered calcified cartilage and SCB stiffness has
326 been documented in untrained horses with thickened parasagittal groove calcified cartilage
327 [8]. We also identified three horses in training with mineralised projections extending from the
328 calcified surface into the hyaline cartilage. These projections have previously been found to
329 be stiffer than other mineralised matrix [35]. Although not specifically tested in our study, their
330 presence was not associated with alterations in articular surface IDI, however numbers were
331 small.

332

333 Two microstructural variables of SCB were associated with calcified articular surface IDI.
334 Connectivity density, reflecting the extent of multiple connections, was positively correlated
335 with IDI and therefore negatively correlated with toughness [20]. Unlike in osteoporotic bone
336 where increasing connectivity is associated with decreasing bone porosity, in the very dense
337 bone of the distal metacarpus increasing connectivity density values are associated with
338 greater porosity as there are more individual connections. Our findings contrast with previous
339 gross mechanical testing where connectivity was positively correlated with bulk energy to
340 failure (toughness) of SCB plate explants, although connectivity calculations were based on
341 microCT at a lower resolution (45 μm)[11]. Trabecular pattern factor, a measure of concavity
342 of bone surfaces that tends to decrease as porosity increases, was negatively correlated with
343 IDI [21]. Our findings demonstrate an effect of TbPf on articular surface material properties
344 independent of that of ConnDn. Therefore reduced articular surface toughness was
345 associated with greater numbers of pores - producing more individual connections with
346 concave surfaces. This may reflect increased vascularisation of dense bone or focal
347 remodelling activity, a likely result of injury.

348

349 There were a number of study limitations. Reference point indentation has not previously
350 been applied to calcified cartilage, and our method may not have resulted in complete hyaline
351 cartilage removal. Reference point indentation was developed to minimise overlying soft
352 tissue effects on bone properties, although incomplete removal may result in increased
353 coefficient of variation [23]. This was addressed by utilising preconditioning to displace soft
354 tissue, and utilising a large number of measures per region of interest [23; 36]. Additionally
355 the articular surface of the condyle is curved and uneven. Every effort was made to maintain
356 the reference probe perpendicular to the visible articular surface, well within the effective
357 probe range of $\pm 7.5^\circ$ [22]. In samples with POD lesions the location of the lesions varied in a
358 proximal/distal plane so that the whole lesion was not always within the sample. Sample size
359 calculations were based on detecting a correlation of RPI with microstructural variables, not
360 with historical or post mortem variables. As this was the novel application of RPI to the
361 calcified articular surface, we evaluated all microCT variables as possible explanatory
362 variables in our model. This increases the risk of Type I error.

363

364 In conclusion, the large change in SCB microarchitecture and resistance of the calcified
365 surface to injury that occurs when horses commence training coincides with a period when
366 fracture risk at this site is higher. The distal palmar metacarpal articular surface appears to be
367 a site sensitive to fatigue as a reduction in surface material properties can be detected in
368 horses that have developed fatigue injuries at this site and at other sites in the skeleton.
369 Further investigation of bone microstructural properties is warranted based on our bone
370 connectivity and surface shape findings.

371

372 **Authors' declarations of interests**

373 The authors have no competing interests.

374

375 **Ethical animal research**

376 The use of animal tissues met the requirements of the University of Melbourne Animal Ethics
377 Committee. Trainers and/or owners gave consent for inclusion of their horses.

378

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386

387 **Authorship**

388 A. Williamson and R.C. Whitton contributed to study design, data analysis, and preparation of
389 the manuscript; A. Williamson contributed to data collection and study execution; N. Simms
390 and P.V.S. Lee contributed to study design; M. Stevenson contributed to data analysis. All
391 authors contributed to data interpretation and reviewed and approved the final version of the
392 manuscript.

393

394

395 **Manufacturers' addresses**

396

397 ^aHT Barnes, BMSS Butchers Machinery, North Coburg, Victoria, Australia.

398 ^bBaxter, Old Toongabbie, New South Wales, Australia.

399 ^cFresenius Kabi, Friedberg, Germany.

400 ^dBuehler Ltd, Lake Bluff, Illinois, USA.

401 ^eBruker microCT, Kontich, Belgium.

402 ^fActive Life Scientific, Inc., Santa Barbara, California, USA.

403 ^gMathworks, Natick, Massachusetts, USA.

404 ^hIBM Corp., Armonk, New York, USA.

405 ⁱStataCorp LP, College Station, Texas, USA.

406

407 **Figure legends**

408 **Fig 1:** Palmar condyles were removed at 55° to the frontal plane through the centre of
409 rotation. Medial condyles only were selected, and divided into three regions for
410 microstructural and mechanical analysis.

411

412 **Fig 2:** MicroCT images (10.0 μm resolution) of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial
 413 condyle from Thoroughbred racehorses (abaxial to the left, axial to the right). a) An untrained
 414 horse with multiple pores in the superficial subchondral bone (arrows). b) A two-year-old
 415 horse in training with linear channels (arrows), surrounded by hypomineralisation, through
 416 dense trabecular subchondral bone in the mid-condylar region. c) A three-year-old horse with
 417 densification of subchondral bone and loss of trabecular structure.

418
 419 **Fig 3:** Regional box-and-whisker plot of indentation distance increase (IDI) against training
 420 status for the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle of Thoroughbred racehorses.
 421 Group 1: untrained, n = 6; group 2: trained, n = 25. Region 1 = axial, region 2 = mid-condyle,
 422 region 3 = abaxial. Group 1>2 (P<0.00005).

423
 424

425 **Table 1:** Estimated regression coefficients and their standard errors from a mixed-effects
 426 generalised linear model of factors associated with indentation distance at the calcified
 427 articular surface of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle of Thoroughbred
 428 racehorses.

429

Variable	Categories	Coefficient (Standard Error)	z	P> z	95% Confidence Interval
Intercept		12.19 (1.53)	7.96	<0.001	9.19 - 15.19
Group	Untrained	5.83 (1.18)	4.96	<0.001	3.53 - 8.14
	Trained	Reference			
Cause of death	Musculoskeletal fatigue injury	2.23(0.93)	2.40	0.02	0.41 - 4.05 ^a
	Other	Reference			
Trabecular pattern factor		-0.20 (0.062)	-3.20	0.001	-0.32 - -0.078
Connectivity density		1.02 (0.30)	3.47	0.001	0.44 - 1.60
Random effect ^b	Variance	SE			

Horse 1.96 0.37

430

431

432 ^aCompared with horses where the cause of death was for other reasons and after adjusting for the
433 effect of training status, trabecular pattern factor, connectivity density and unmeasured, individual horse-
434 level effects, indentation distance at the calcified articular surface of the distal third metacarpal palmar
435 medial condyle for horses where the cause of death was due to musculoskeletal fatigue injury was
436 increased by 2.23 (95% CI 0.41 to 4.05) μm .

437

438 ^bVariance and standard error of the variance of the individual horse-level random effect term.

439

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586

587 **Supplementary Information**

588 **Supplementary Item 1:** Potential explanatory variables for indentation distance increase.

589 **Supplementary Item 2:** Univariate screening of variables associated with indentation
590 distance increase.

591 **Supplementary Item 3:** Cause of death and gross distal third metacarpal post mortem
592 pathology.

593 **Supplementary Item 4:** MicroCT image of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle
594 with hypermineralised microcracks, loss of trabecular bone structure, dense bone and an
595 area of attrition.

596 **Supplementary Item 5:** MicroCT image of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle
597 with hypermineralised articular surface projections and an area of marked articular surface
598 collapse.

599 **Supplementary Item 6:** MicroCT image of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle
600 with voids or pits present on the calcified articular surface and an unassociated mineralised
601 projection into the hyaline cartilage.

602 **Supplementary Item 7:** Regional indentation distance increase (um) and cause of death.

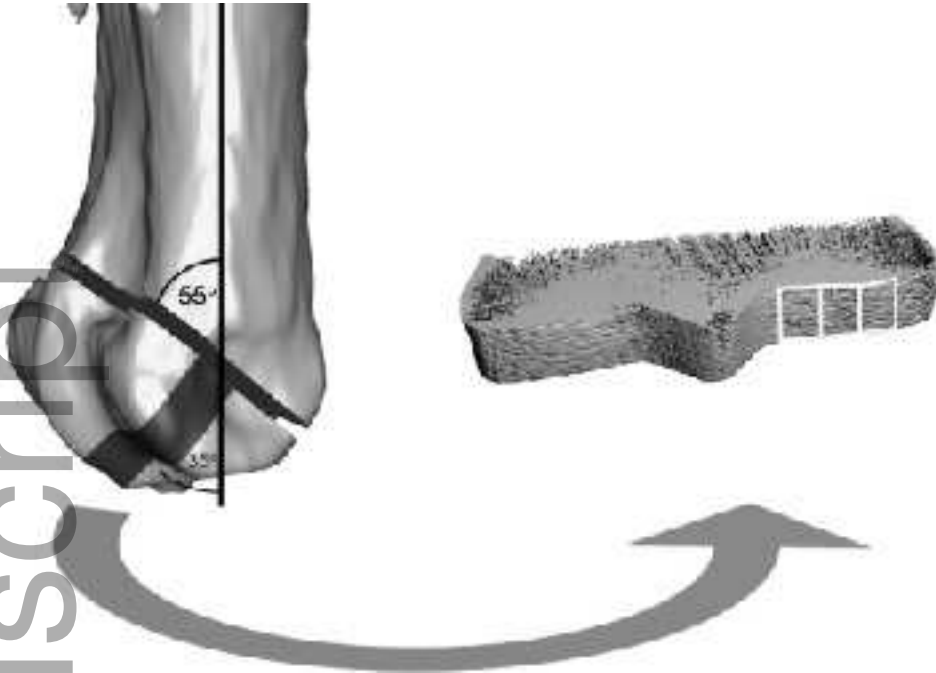
Table 1: Estimated regression coefficients and their standard errors from a mixed-effects generalised linear model of factors associated with indentation distance at the calcified articular surface of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle of Thoroughbred racehorses.

Variable	Categories	Coefficient (Standard Error)	z	P> z	95% Confidence Interval
Intercept		12.19 (1.53)	7.96	<0.0005	9.19 - 15.19
Group	Untrained	5.83 (1.18)	4.96	<0.0005	3.53 - 8.14
	Trained	Reference			
Cause of death	Musculoskeletal fatigue injury	2.23(0.93)	2.40	0.016	0.41 - 4.05 ^a
	Other	Reference			
Trabecular pattern factor		-0.20 (0.062)	-3.20	0.001	-0.32 - -0.078
Connectivity density		1.02 (0.30)	3.47	0.001	0.44 - 1.60
Random effect ^b	Variance	SE			
Horse	1.96	0.37			

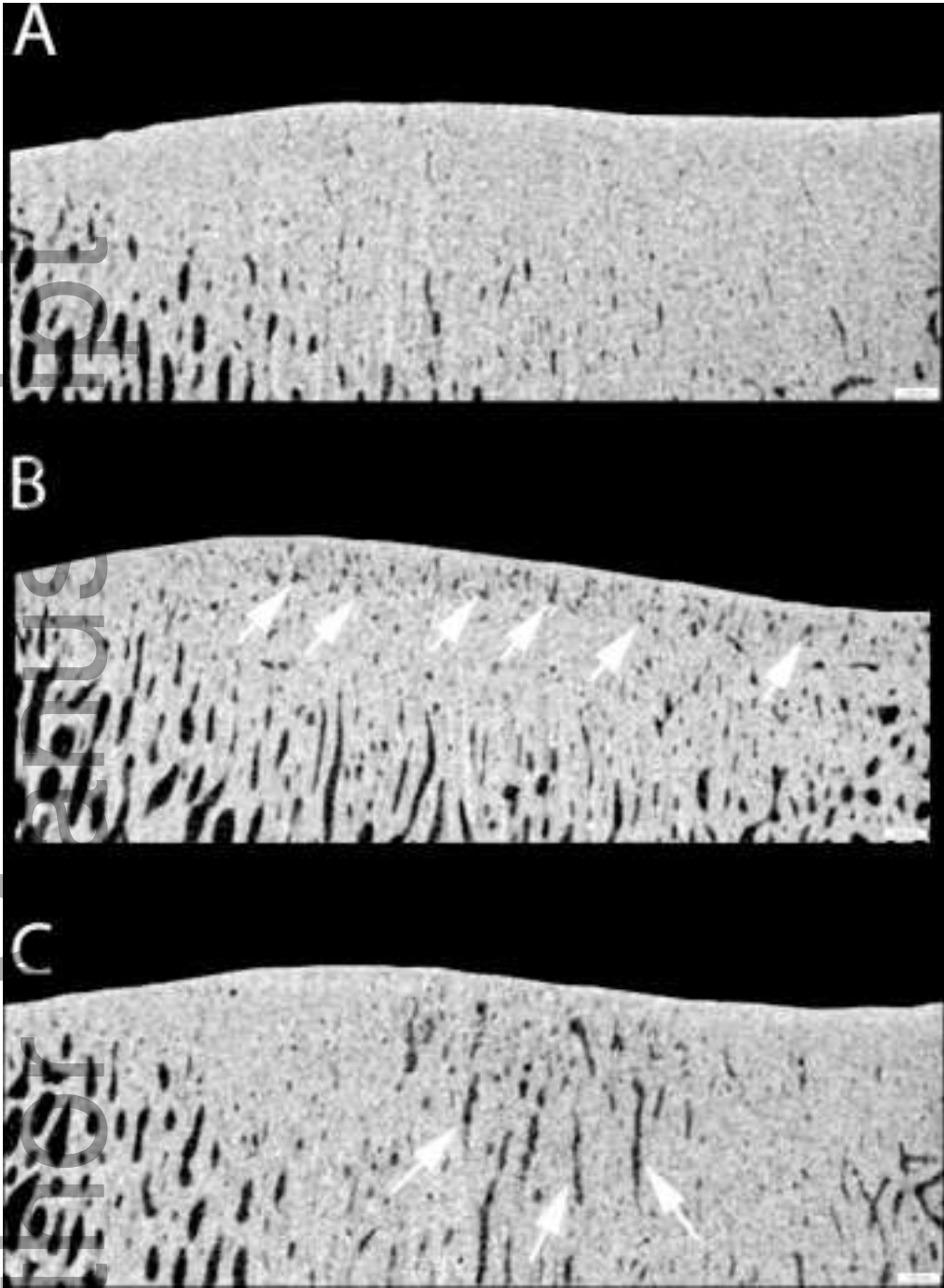
^a Compared with horses where the cause of death was for other reasons and after adjusting for the effect of training status, trabecular pattern factor, connectivity density and unmeasured, individual horse-level effects, indentation distance at the calcified articular surface of the distal third metacarpal palmar medial condyle for horses where the cause of death was due to musculoskeletal fatigue injury was increased by 2.23 (95% CI 0.41 to 4.05) μm .

^b Variance and standard error of the variance of the individual horse-level random effect term.

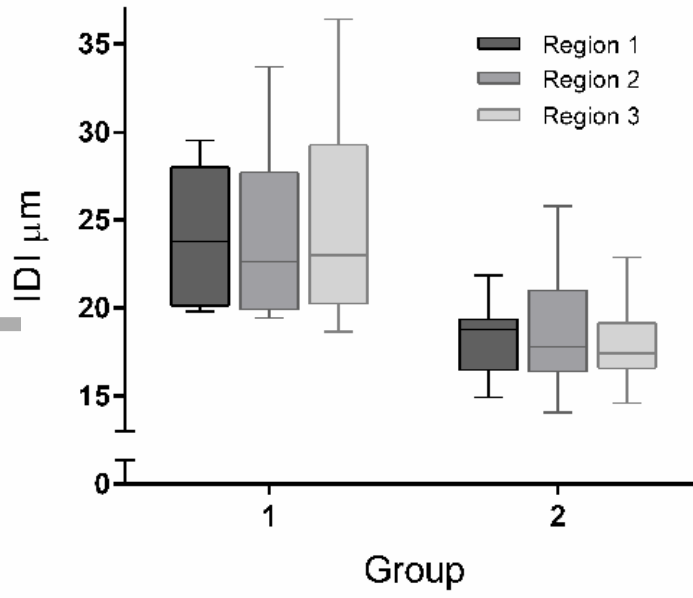
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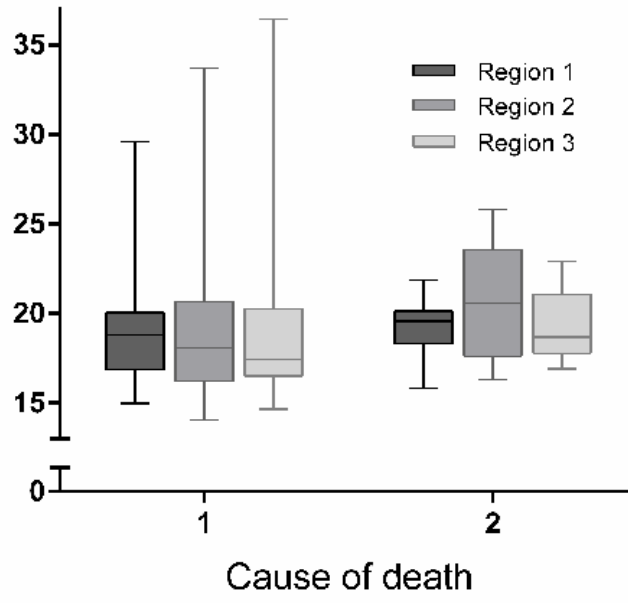
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