Three-dimensional mapping of mineral in intact shark centra with energy dispersive x-ray diffraction

J.-S. Park[1], H. Chen[2], K.C. James[3], L.J. Natanson[4], S.R. Stock[5,*]

[1] The Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, Lemont, IL
[2] Mineral Physics Inst., Stony Brook Univ., Stony Brook, NY
[3] Southwest Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA, La Jolla, CA
[4] (retired) Northeast Fisheries Science Center, National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA, Narragansett, RI
[5] Dept. of Cell and Developmental Biology, Feinberg School of Medicine and Simpson Querrey Inst., Northwestern University, Chicago, IL

* Corresponding author:
Mail address: as above 303 E. Chicago Ave., 60611-3008
E-mail address: s-stock@northwestern.edu

Co-author e-mail addresses:
JSP parkjs@aps.anl.gov
HC haiyan.chen@stonybrook.edu
KCJ kelsey.james@noaa.gov
LJN mangrules@yahoo.ca

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Abstract

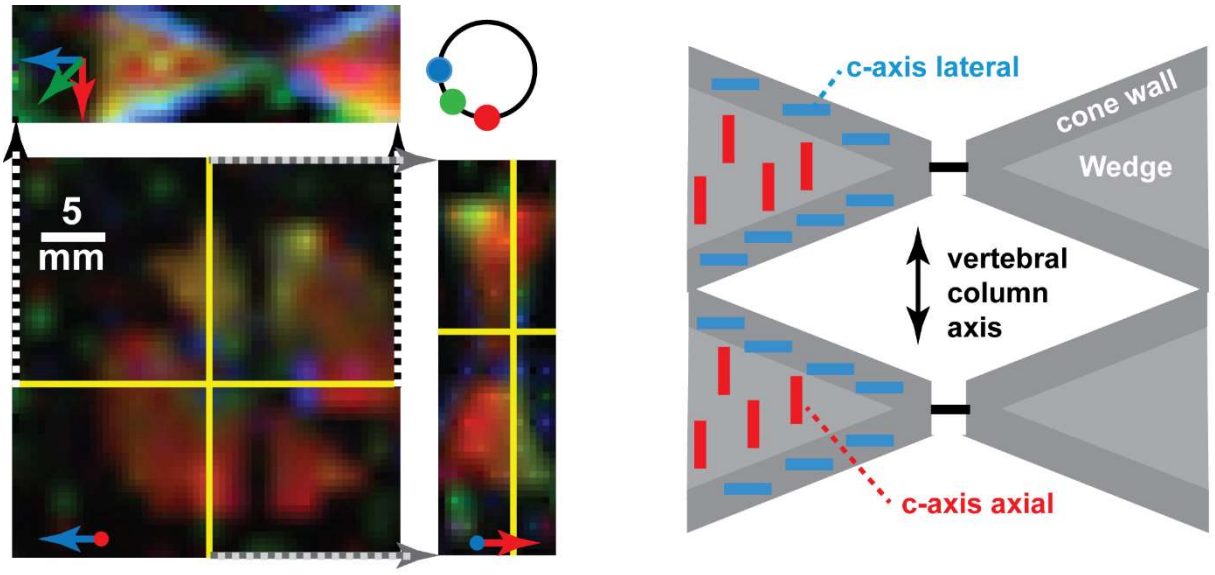
The centra of shark vertebrae consist of cartilage mineralized by a bioapatite similar to bone's carbonated hydroxyapatite, and, without a repair mechanism analogous to remodeling in bone, these structures still survive millions of cycles of high-strain loading. The main structures of the centrum are an hourglass-shaped double cone and the intermedialia which supports the cones. Little is known about the nanostructure of shark centra, specifically the relationship between bioapatite and cartilage fibers, and this study uses energy dispersive diffraction (EDD) with polychromatic synchrotron x-radiation to study the spatial organization of the mineral phase and its crystallographic texture. The unique energy-sensitive detector array at beamline 6-BM-B, the Advanced Photon Source, enables EDD to quantify the texture within each sampling volume with one exposure while constructing 3D maps via specimen translation across the sampling volume. This study maps a centrum from two shark orders, a carcharhiniform and a lamniform, with different intermedialia structures. In the blue shark (*Prionace glauca*, Carcharhiniformes), the bioapatite's *c*-axes are oriented laterally within the centrum's cone walls but axially within the wide wedges of the intermedialia; the former is interpreted to resist lateral deformation, the latter to support axial loads. In the shortfin mako (*Isurus oxyrinchus*, Lamniformes), there is some tendency for *c*-axis variation with position, but the situation is unclear because one dimension of the sampling volume is considerably larger than the thickness and spacing of the intermedialia's radially-oriented lamellae. Because elastic modulus in collagen plus bioapatite mineralized tissues varies significantly with both volume fraction of bioapatite and crystallographic texture, the present 3D EDD-derived maps should inform future 3D numerical models of shark centra under applied load.

Keywords: energy dispersive diffraction; bioapatite (hydroxyapatite); shark; centrum; mineralized cartilage; crystallographic texture

Highlights

- Energy dispersive diffraction mapped, in 3D, bioapatite diffracted intensity/crystallographic texture in shark vertebra.
- In one subvolume (cones), blue shark bioapatite *c*-axes were oriented laterally and elsewhere (intermedialia) axially.
- The blue shark crystals appear oriented to resist lateral deformation (cone) and to support axial loads (intermedialia).
- The shortfin mako's *c*-axis orientation varied with position, but a relationship with microstructure was unclear.
- Incorporation of EDD-derived crystallographic texture into 3D models of shark centra are discussed.

Graphical Abstract



Bioapatite crystal orientations in blue shark centrum. (left) Energy dispersive diffracted intensity in 3D (colors indicate intensity along different anatomical directions). (right) Schematic indicating crystal c-axes in different portions of the centrum.

Introduction

Elasmobranchii, which include sharks, rays and skates, have cartilaginous skeletons, and relatively little is known (either experimentally or numerically) about how their subcranial axial skeletons function under in vivo loads. The sharks studied by Natanson et al. (2018) (elasmobranch orders Carcharhiniformes and Lamniformes) possess more than 80 vertebrae (Fig. 1a), each with a mostly unmineralized neural arch and a mineralized centrum, and these sharks' abdominal centra carry the loads generated during swimming (Porter and Long 2010). When a shark swims, its tail beats from left to right, compressing first one side then the other side of each centrum (Fig. 1b), and the magnitude increases from the juncture of the thorax and abdomen toward the tail. The structure and mineralization of the carcharhiniform and lamniform centra enables shark vertebrae to survive enormous compressive strains of 3-8% (Porter et al. 2014) for millions of cycles of loading (Watanabe et al. 2012), despite the absence of a repair mechanism like remodeling in bone.

Shark centra have complex 3D structures affecting mechanical performance, and there are significant similarities and important differences between carcharhiniform and lamniform centra. The centra of both orders contain an hourglass-shaped double cone of mineralized cartilage (Fig. 1c) termed the corpus calcarea. A fluid filled inter-vertebral capsule lies between the cone walls of adjacent vertebrae. Within a single centrum, the rostral and caudal cone walls are supported by the mineralized intermedialia whose structure differs between the two orders (Fig. 1c). In Carcharhiniformes, the intermedialia consists of four thick wedges (Fig. 1d) with unmineralized (cartilage) gaps separating the wedges. In Lamniformes, two dozen or more, relatively thin, radially-oriented plates (lamellae) comprise the intermedialia (Fig. 1d); these lamellae may be distinct from each other or may combine and separate from their neighbors, e.g.

100 the one o'clock position of the left side of Fig. 1d and Morse et al. (2022). The lamellae are
101 grouped into four sectors separated by four gaps; two sectors are wider and contain more
102 lamellae than the other two sectors. In both carcharhiniforms and lamniforms, the cartilage of
103 one pair of gaps extends to form the neural arch and that of the other pair to form the hemal arch
104 (if present).

105 During swimming, both the left and right sides of shark abdominal centra experience an
106 alternating pattern of compression and tension. Some studies of the macroscopic patterns of
107 strain in the shark vertebral column have appeared (Porter and Long 2010; Porter et al. 2014,
108 Porter et al. 2016), but little is known about the 3D distributions of displacement or of strain
109 within the complex structure of a shark centrum. Experimental measurement of these 3D strains
110 under applied load is one way forward and is, in fact, an eventual goal of the authors, see the
111 preliminary report of Park et al (2022c). An alternative to understanding centrum function is 3D
112 numerical modeling which requires accurate geometrical and materials property inputs, and
113 obtaining some of this information is the focus of the present report. Beyond the centra
114 macrostructure (3D geometry at the ~50 μm and higher scales), mineral density, microstructure
115 (scales 1 μm and above) and nanostructure (scales 0.1 nm and higher) contribute to functionality.
116 These centra structural levels are not independent, and, before introducing the energy-dispersive
117 x-ray diffraction-based nanostructural studies of this paper, prior studies of centra macrostructure
118 and microstructure are reviewed.

119 Macrostructure of entire lamniform and carcharhiniform centra have been studied with
120 microComputed Tomography (microCT) with volume elements (voxels) > 15 μm, e.g. Geraghty
121 et al. (2012), Natanson et al. (2018) and Morse et al. (2022). The last study found mineral levels
122 in the cone wall were significantly greater than in the intermedialia. As elastic moduli increase

123 with increasing mineral content in collagen-based tissues (Currey 2002), such mineral content
124 variation in centra should be incorporated into qualitative and/or quantitative models of response
125 to applied loads. Microstructure in small blocks cut from centra have been studied with microCT
126 with voxels ~ 1 μm in size (Stock et al. 2022), these very limited data need to be supplemented
127 before they can reliably guide understanding of mechanical properties. Nanostructure also affects
128 properties, and the focus here is on the nanocrystals of the mineral phase and the crystallographic
129 orientation of the mineral within the cartilage matrix. Data on bone suggests that mineralized
130 tissues consisting of collagen reinforced by bioapatite often contain a mineral phase where
131 certain crystal axes are strongly oriented relative to anatomical axes of principal in vivo stresses,
132 i.e., contain crystallographic texture (Currey 2002), and that this texture is strong enough to
133 produce significant variation in elastic constant as a function of orientation (Guo 2001). Failure
134 to incorporate such elastic modulus variation, if present in shark centra, into interpretation of
135 mechanical tests or in 3D modeling of shark centra may lead to inaccurate conclusions. Although
136 microstructural, micromechanical and histological studies have appeared on the mineralized
137 cartilage of shark tesserae, e.g. Chaumel et al. (2020) and Seidel et al. (2019, 2021), which is a
138 rather different tissue from that of the centra, crystallographic data are sparse for tesserae. Some
139 data, however, are available on shark bioapatite.

140 An early diffraction study (Urist 1961) showed that the centra's mineral is a bioapatite
141 closely related to hydroxyapatite (hAp), and TEM showed a similar bioapatite in shark tesserae
142 (Dean et al. 2005). Recently Park et al. (2022a) used monochromatic synchrotron x-radiation to
143 collect diffraction patterns from small blocks cut from centra of four species and confirmed that
144 the only crystalline phase visible was a bioapatite with lattice parameters slightly different from
145 those of bone and stronger crystallographic texture than in mammalian long bones. This latter

146 study, however, was not designed to compare texture from different portions of the centra, and
147 3D mapping of centrum texture is the focus of the present study.

148 The present authors hypothesize that, like the collagen fibril (type I collagen) and
149 bioapatite orientations in long bones, the cartilage (2/3 collagen type II, 1/3 collagen type I plus
150 significant proteoglycans) fiber axes and bioapatite crystal *c*-axes in shark centra are aligned
151 along the direction(s) of principal strain and that these directions may vary with position within
152 the centrum. The study reported below, performed at beamline 6-BM-B of the Advanced Photon
153 Source (APS), employs energy dispersive x-ray diffraction (EDD) and a unique array of energy
154 sensitive detectors (Weidner et al. 2010) to obtain 3D position resolved diffraction maps of two
155 shark centra. The maps are obtained by X, Y and Z translation of the specimen across the
156 sampling volume and without sample rotation. Alternative EDD data collection strategies have
157 been used in the past, e.g. to study cement paste degradation due to sulfate attack (Naik et al.
158 2006) and to study the cross-section of bones (Stock et al. 2017), but the present instrument
159 allows direct quantification of the 3D variation of crystallographic quantities (intensity of
160 diffraction peaks, lattice parameters, crystallite size/microstrain, texture) within specimens.
161 Alternative 3D diffraction mapping methods using monochromatic x-ray are available and are
162 contrasted with this EDD approach in the Discussion.

163 This paper reports 3D EDD-derived maps of a carcharhiniform shark and a lamniform
164 shark. Maps of mineral content are already available for intact centra (Morse et al. 2022), and the
165 focus here is on crystallographic texture, something the authors expect will be essential to
166 accurate 3D numerical modeling. Incorporation of texture and of mineral content into 3D models
167 is also discussed.
168

Materials and Methods

One abdominal vertebrae of a species of Carcharhiniformes (*Prionace glauca*, blue shark, from vertebra numbers 81-84) and one of a species of Lamniformes (*Isurus oxyrinchus*, shortfin mako, vertebra number 62) were examined in this study. Laboratory microCT (Morse et al. 2022) showed the diameter and height were diameter 24.3 mm and 12.7 mm, respectively, for the blue shark centrum and 21 mm and 12.4 mm, respectively, for the shortfin mako centrum. Figure 1c shows 3D schematics of the two types of centra with the material closest to the viewer rendered transparent so the inner structure could be seen. Figure 1d shows transverse sections through the axial midplane of each centrum with the mineralized tissue shown in black.

The experimental geometry for EDD at beamline 6-BM-B, APS, is shown in Fig. 2a (Weidner et al. 2010). A collimator forms a pencil beam of polychromatic radiation which passes through the specimen (a schematic transverse section near the middle of a shortfin mako centrum). The conical receiving slits block all radiation except that diffracted from the sampling volume "sv" at an angle $2\theta = 6.5°$. Linear translators move the sample across the sampling volume along the three orthogonal axes X (horizontal, perpendicular to the incident beam), Y (vertical, perpendicular to the incident beam) and Z (horizontal, parallel to the incident beam).

Bragg's law, $\lambda = 2\, d_{hk.l} \sin\theta$, gives the angle θ at which peaks of diffracted intensity occur from crystalline material and shows that this angle depends on the x-ray wavelength (i.e., the inverse of the x-ray energy) and the crystal periodicity or d-spacing $d_{hk.l}$ for lattice planes *hk.l*.[1] With the Bragg angle fixed ($2\theta = 6.5°$), a range of energies in the polychromatic beam and an array of differently oriented crystals with the sampling volume sv, different *hk.l* select different energies and produce diffracted beams which reach one of the ten energy sensitive

[1] Here the abbreviated Miller-Bravais indexing system is used to emphasize the hexagonal crystal system of hAp (Cullity and Stock 2001).

191 detectors of the 6-BM-B array (Fig. 2b). For the bioapatite in the shark centra, each detector
192 measures the intensity of 00.2 diffraction of ~32 keV x-rays as well as the intensity of the
193 unresolved quadruplet of 21.1, 11.2, 30.0 and 20.2 of 38-42 keV x-rays and other reflections that
194 might be intense enough to pick out from the background. Note that the orientation of the
195 crystals diffracting into detector 5 is given by orientation of lattice plane normal $\mathbf{N}_5$ which makes
196 an angle $(90 - \theta)°$ from both the incident beam $\mathbf{S}_0$ and the diffracted beam direction $\mathbf{S}_5$ and which
197 lies in the horizontal plane (Fig. 2b). The same is true each other detector, i.e., for detector 1,
198 normal $\mathbf{N}_1$, $\mathbf{S}_0$ and the diffracted beam direction $\mathbf{S}_1$ are coplanar (vertical plane) and make the
199 same angles. Therefore, comparison of 00.2 diffracted intensities between different detectors
200 gives the relative fractions of crystalline bioapatite with different orientation defined by their
201 lattice normal orientations $\mathbf{N}_i$, i.e., the crystallographic texture within the sampling volume sv.
202 Figure 2c shows two views of the shortfin mako centrum (the side view in the top panel
203 and the central transverse section in the bottom panel). Figure 2d shows the same views of the
204 blue shark centrum. The red squares indicate extent of the specimen covered by the sampling
205 volumes; note that neither the spacing between sampling volumes nor their dimensions are to
206 scale.
207 Table 1 gives the experimental parameters for the scans of the two sharks. For the blue
208 shark and shortfin mako, the pencil beam dimensions were $\delta X = 0.1$ mm and $\delta Y = 0.2$ mm and
209 $\delta X = \delta Y = 0.2$ mm, respectively. A ~0.9 mm thick powdered ceria standard (NIST SRM 674B)
210 was scanned across the sampling volume, and the full-width at half-maximum of the diffracted
211 peak intensities was used as the measure of the gage length δZ along the incident beam direction.
212 The gage lengths for the different detectors varied slightly (see Supplemental Fig. S1, mean of
213 ~1.7 ± 0.15 mm) and sampled the same position within ~0.25 mm; these uncertainties are much

214 smaller than those from other sources and are hereafter ignored. For the beam dimensions used
215 to map the blue shark centrum, δZ averaged 1.7 mm, and for the shortfin mako, δZ averaged 2.5
216 mm. The translation step sizes used to build up the 3D maps were ΔX = 2.0 mm, ΔY = 1.0 mm
217 and ΔZ = 1.9 mm for the blue shark centrum and were ΔX = 1.5 mm, ΔY = 0.5 mm and ΔZ = 1.0
218 mm for the shortfin mako. Note that the entire volume of the blue shark centrum was scanned
219 (diameter 24.3 mm, height 12.7 mm), but only a portion of the shortfin mako centrum (diameter
220 ~21 mm, height 12.4 mm) was covered. For both centra, the 3D reconstruction on a 0.5 mm x 0.5
221 mm x 0.5 mm grid with interpolation of the neighboring volume elements (voxels) with
222 smoothing.
223 As noted in the previous paragraph, data collection parameters (and fraction of centrum
224 covered) differed for the two centra. Point by point mapping of 3D volumes is quite time
225 consuming: Ignoring motion and detector readout overhead, collecting the 16x10x17 = 2,720
226 patterns covering the blue shark centrum required 22.7 hr, and collecting the 3x10x47 = 1,410
227 patterns covering a portion of the shortfin mako centrum required 19.6 hrs. Limited beam time
228 (typically 4 days per scheduling cycle) dictated, therefore, that the sampling parameters were
229 altered match centra characteristics while not exhausting available time. Given the blue shark
230 intermedialia consisted of wedges, a relatively unform sampling grid was selected at the cost of
231 spatial resolution. Because the mako's intermedialia consisted of relatively thin lamellae
232 compared to the sampling volume dimension along the incident beam direction Z, sampling
233 along the beam direction was increased substantially compared to the blue shark, thereby
234 improving the chances that individual lamellae could be resolved, at the cost of decreasing the
235 volume scanned along X and Y.

The energy range of each detector was simultaneously calibrated using an array of ten, pre-aligned ^{57}Co sources. As mentioned above, a ceria standard was used to measure the sampling volume length along the beam direction. The *d*-spacings of the known ceria diffraction peaks were also used to confirm the linearity of the energy range.

The integrated intensity and position for each peak (00.2 and q) were determined by fitting a pseudoVoigt function (custom Matlab scripts). For each point-wise data set, integrated peak intensity for each peak (measured by each detector element in the detector array) was interpolated and smoothed using a 0.5 mm × 0.5 mm × 0.5 mm grid using Matlab *scatteredInterpolant* function with default parameters. The interpolated 3D maps were imported into ImageJ as a stack of slices and viewed with the orthogonal views function. Intensity maps from different detectors were combined using the color/merge function of ImageJ.

Results

Figure 3 shows a diffraction pattern (intensity vs x-ray energy) typical of a shark centra. Calibration lines from radioactive sources appear at high and low energies and are labeled "cal". Two bioapatite reflections are labeled 00.2 and "q", i.e., the closely spaced and unresolved quadruplet of 21.1, 11.2, 30.0 and 20.2. In Fig. 3, the maximum 00.2 and q peak intensities were ~150 cts and ~430 cts above background, respectively (compared to backgrounds of ~100 cts and ~120 cts, respectively). Two sections of the pattern are plotted in red; this is the energy range over which the 00.2 and quadruplet integrated intensities are calculated. The green peaks below the experimental data show peaks expected for a synthetic hAp reference pattern (Powder Diffraction File 86-1201, International Centre for Diffraction Data, Newtown, PA, USA), and there is a clear difference of in energy diffracted by each *hk.l* (the green peak reference position

vs red highlighted experimental data from a centrum), and, hence, a small but significant difference in lattice parameters. The ratio of 00.2 to q peak intensities in Fig. 3 is 35%, somewhat lower than the 45% ratio expected for the crystallographic-texture-free powder of PDF 86-1201.

Blue shark

Figure 4 shows orthogonal sections through the 3D reconstructed volume of the blue shark centrum using the integrated intensity of reflection q (unresolved 21.1+11.2+03.0+20.2). Within each panel, the three sub-panels show orthogonal sections, the square sub-panels being the transverse section through the axial center of the centrum and the yellow lines and arrows indicating the sections' positions in the 3D volume. In the top row, the left panel (labeled 5) is the reconstruction using intensities from detector 5), and the middle panel is intensities from detector 10, diametrically opposite detector 5. The right panel of the top row of Fig. 4 shows a composite of the two reconstructions with detector 5 intensities shown in blue and detector 10 intensities shown in red. The reconstructed transverse cross-sections look like the lab microCT reconstruction in Fig. 1d, if one allows for the lower spatial resolution of the EDD data.

The left panel of the bottom row of Fig. 4 plots intensities from detector 1, the middle panel plots intensities of detector 9 (diametrically opposite detector 1) and the right panel shows a composite with detector 1 intensity shown in red and detector 9 in blue. Although there are regions of red in the 1+9 composite panels, most of the volume appears magenta, i.e., more or less even intensities of the two opposite orientation detectors. In the composite 5+10, most of the volume is magenta but the regions of red intensity are more prominent at the margins of the mineralized tissue.

283 At some positions in longitudinal sections (those parallel to the centrum's axis and
284 running horizontally in Fig. 4), the integrated intensity of the q reflection is greater than in the
285 neighboring volume (yellow arrowheads); the higher intensity corresponds to the location of the
286 cone walls and the lower to intermedialia (Morse et al. 2022). In other portions of the same
287 sections, there is little difference in q intensity across the section (orange arrowheads). Table 2
288 gives values of the mean integrated intensity (and its standard deviation given after the ±
289 symbol) within the 3 x 3 voxel boxes within the cone wall and intermedialia. Inspection reveals
290 that the intensities vary within the intermedialia, and boxes *i* and *i'* were measured and show
291 ~50% variation (Table 2).
292 Crystallographic texture in mineralized tissues containing bioapatite typically manifests
293 in differences in 00.2 diffracted intensity along different anatomical directions. Figure 5, also of
294 the blue shark centrum, shows three orthogonal sections through the 00.2 intensity reconstructed
295 volume. In Fig. 5a, diffracted intensity from detector 5 is shown in blue, that from detector 7 in
296 green and that from detector 9 in red. The colored arrows in each panel indicate the direction of
297 *c*-axis crystallites sampled by the respective detector. Before describing what the different colors
298 within the sections reveal, it is useful to consider the magnitude of the integrated intensities
299 (Table 2). The largest integrated intensity within this 00.2-reconstructed volume is 86 arbitrary
300 units (a.u.) and the mean value within a 3 x 3 voxel box within fluid ("f" in Fig. 5a) is 2 a.u.
301 Within the sampling box in the cone wall, the mean 00.2 integrated intensity was 46 ± 9 a.u. for
302 detector 5 and 21 ± 5 a.u. for detector 1 (the direction equivalent to the detector 9 data plotted).
303 Within the sampling box in the intermedialia, the detector 5 intensity is 5 ± 1 a.u. and detector 1
304 intensity is 35 ± 2 a.u.

The transverse section through the middle of the centrum (the square image, lower left panel of Fig. 5a) has an intensity distribution like the transverse section shown in Fig. 1d, and, over most of the cross-section, the crystallites have *c*-axes oriented axially (red color indicating bioapatite *c*-axes primarily normal to the transverse plane, see coordinate axes at the lower left of this panel). In the side-view cross-section (upper panel of Fig. 5a) the blue voxels represent hAp crystallites with their *c*-axes oriented to diffract along the X direction (blue arrow), i.e., laterally (radially) in relation to the backbone axis, and the red voxels show crystallites with *c*-axes aligned axially. In the section of the right-hand panel of Fig. 5a, little blue appears; in this section blue indicates *c*-axis orientations out of the plane of this section and along the hoop (circumferential) direction; therefore, indicating large fractions of the hAp crystallites in the cone wall are not correctly oriented to diffract in the directions viewed by the respective detectors. Figure 5b schematically indicates observations shown in Fig. 5a: lateral (radial) *c*-axis orientations in the cone walls and axial orientations in the wedge between the cone walls (intermedialia).

Shortfin mako

Figure 6 shows reconstructed transverse sections (diffracted intensity vs position) for all ten detectors; maps for reflection q appear in (a) and for 00.2 appear in (b). A segmented lab microCT section of the mako centrum, at approximately the same axial position as the EDD maps and with the same orientation, is inset in the middle of the detector images in Fig. 6a. Gaps g1 and g2 between sectors can be resolved in all of the EDD maps and can be matched to g1 and g2 in the lab microCT-derived image. A small part of a wide sector s1, which borders gap g1, appears at the top of the maps in Fig. 6; the scan covers the outer ~3 mm of the radial lamellae.

328 A significant portion of sector s3 appears below gap g2, and each panel shows 4 mm of sector s2,
329 excluding the outer-most and inner-most portions of the lamellae.

330 The spatial distribution of q reflection intensities is the same for all of the detectors (Fig.
331 6a). The magnitude of intensities differs somewhat; they are greater for detectors 1-4 than for 6-9
332 and are larger for detector 5 than for the diametrically opposite detector 10. The sectors' borders
333 with the gaps have higher intensity than positions between the borders, consistent with the much
334 closer spacing of lamellae in these locations seen in microCT, i.e., the image in the center of Fig.
335 6a and in Morse et al. (2022). The intensity map of sector s2, for example, shows two radial
336 bands of increased intensity separated by a region of lower intensity. Away from its border with
337 the gap, the reconstructed portion of sector s3 contains three distinct bands radiating from the
338 middle of the centrum (indicated by the red arrows in the detector 8 map of Fig. 6a); the
339 intensities of these bands are substantially lower those bordering the gaps.

340 Outside of the centrum, the q intensity within the fluid is mostly below 100 a.u. although
341 there are scattered points where the measured intensity reaches 300 a.u. The maximum intensity
342 for this volume for all detectors is 1,200 a.u. Within s1, the intensities approach about 900 a.u.
343 for detector 1 and for 800 a.u. in detector 5. In the detector 1 map, the maximum intensities are
344 somewhat larger (~1,000 a.u.) within the 10 o'clock and 9 o'clock oriented radial lamella(e) of
345 s2 with the in-between volume having an intensity ~500 a.u. In the detector 5 map, the intensity
346 of the 10 o'clock lamella(e) is about 800 a.u. and somewhat larger than that in the 9 o'clock
347 band.

348 In many respects. the spatial distribution of 00.2 diffracted intensities mirrors that of the q
349 reflection maps. The radial bands bordering the gaps have higher intensities than sectors'
350 material between the gaps, but the three radial bands at the bottom of sector 3 are less clearly

defined for 00.2 than for q. The 00.2 intensities in the maps of detectors 4-6 are much greater than those collecting intensities at azimuths 90° away (detectors 1 and 2 and 8 and 9) and 180° away (detector 10). Further, the intensities in detector 1 and 2 maps are greater than those at corresponding positions in the 8 and 9 maps.

The maximum 00.2 integrated intensity for this volume for all detectors is 150 a.u., and the volumes containing only fluid (bottom area of the maps, below s3) are quite noisy intensity maps reflecting the especially poor counting statistics. Maximum intensity within the 10 o'clock orientated lamella(e) is about 90 a.u. in the detector 2 map and about 120 a.u in the 9 and 10 o'clock lamella(e) with lower intensities between the two. The base of the s3 band (right hand side of the map, 8 o'clock orientation) has an intensity of 60 a.u. for detector 3 whereas the intensity is 70 a.u. in the detector 5 map.

Discussion

There are at least two contexts where the EDD results reported above would be of interest to readers of a journal concerned with mechanical behavior. First, the successful EDD mapping in this paper is a precursor to 3D mapping of internal strains arising from in situ loading of shark centra. Second, the 3D mapping of various bioapatite characteristics (notably crystallographic texture) is essential input for accurate modeling. Before discussing the present EDD data and considering how these might apply in these two contexts, it is important to summarize what is known about the tissue most closely related to that of the shark centra, i.e., tessellated cartilage of sharks and related elasmobranchs, and to review prior mechanical behavior studies of centra.

Tessellated cartilage of sharks and related species related to centra tissue

To date, tessellated cartilage has received much more attention than the mineralized cartilage of centra and, and these data may or may not guide understanding of centra mechanical functionality. In polished sections of dry stingray tesserae, Seidel et al. (2019) found different regions possess different mineral densities and nanoindentation hardnesses which they related to mechanical functionality. Seidel at al. (2019) correlated tesserae mineral density with nanoindentation hardness and found that stingray mineralized cartilage had a higher mineral content than reported by Gupta et al. (2005) for calcified human cartilage, but the relationship of Young's modulus to mineral content for tesserae was consistent with an extrapolation from data for human calcified cartilage.

Elasmobranch tesserae contain chondrocyte lacunae and canaliculi, but most of their volume is dense mineralized cartilage, at least at the one-micrometer level. In stingray tissue, for example, the lacunae average 6-7 vol%, and the canaliculi may add an additional couple vol% porosity (Chaumel et al. 2020). This tissue microstructure is quite different from that of shark centra, e.g. Fig. 5 of Stock et al. (2022): from this image, the present authors estimate ~76 vol% pores/soft tissue and 3-4.5 μm trabeculae thickness for the intermedialia volume and 59 vol% pores/soft tissue and ~8 μm trabeculae thickness for the cone wall volume. Even if the mineralized cartilage constitutive properties (mineral content, elastic moduli, yield stress, fracture toughness, …) are the same at the 50-1,000 nm scale for both tissues, the very different microarchitectures of tesserae and centra suggest very different mechanical properties at scales one micrometer and above.

Prior studies of centra mechanical behavior

Before discussing prior studies of mechanical functionality of centra, it is useful to consider what is known about the mechanical properties of tessellated tissue, the tissue most closely related to that of centra. Liu et al. (2014) applied compressive loading normal to and parallel to the plane of blue shark jaw tesserae surrounded by uncalcified cartilage; their focus was measuring and modeling stress relaxation behavior during in vivo biting and their values of elastic moduli are informative for the unmineralized cartilage but not for mineralized tesserae. One way to isolate the calcified tissue is to produce polished sections of tesserae and perform nanoindentation, and, depending on the position within stingray tesserae, the resulting Young's moduli range from 15 to 35 GPa for tissue densities 1.5 to 2.7 g/cm^3, respectively (Seidel et al. 2019), which on average are higher than in human cortical bone (Guo 2001).

Porter and Long (2010) tested vertebrae (neural arch plus centrum, centrum alone) from a carcharhiniform shark in uniaxial compression and determined that the arch did not carry appreciable load. The experimental Young's modulus determined was ~150 MPa which combines the tissue's intrinsic properties and deflection of the double cone and intermedialia structure, i.e., the continuum structural modulus.

Porter et al. (2014) studied in vivo and in situ strains of dogfish vertebrae using sonomicrometry. During low velocity swimming, compressive and tensile strains up to 2% were observed; post mortem ex vivo experiments imposing curvatures seen in steadily swimming dogfish revealed tensile strains approaching 4%. Ingle et al. (2018) performed cyclic compressive testing on vertebrae from carcharhiniforms and lamniforms and found anterior vertebrae had lower continuum moduli than posterior vertebrae; in all cases these moduli were less than 10 MPa. In three-point bending, more closely approximating loading in vivo than simple compression, Long et al. (2011) measured the apparent storage and loss moduli (E' and

421 E'', respectively) of segments of multiple shark vertebrae. Depending on the amplitude of
422 maximum curvature, the elastic portion of the modulus E' was between 0.3 and 1.3 MPa, for a
423 fast swimming carcharhiniform species and 0.1 and 0.6 MPa for a carcharhiniform species
424 known less for its speed and more for its maneuverability.
425
426 *Blue shark*
427 Interpretation of EDD intensity maps from the carcharhiniform centrum (blue shark) is
428 much more straightforward than for the lamniform centrum (shortfin mako). Most of the centrum
429 volume outside of the double cones of carcharhiniforms is occupied by four wedges (Fig. 1) with
430 uniform microstructure down to the 15-25 μm level over millimeter lengths (Morse et al. 2022).
431 Cone walls are multiple EDD voxels thick. Away from the edges of the cone walls, therefore,
432 changes in diffracted intensity (greater than random variation) must result from differences in
433 crystallographic texture.
434 As shown in Fig. 5 of the blue shark, bioapatite *c*-axes within the cone walls are strongly
435 aligned laterally (i.e., along radii from the axis of the centrum), and the *c*-axes within the
436 intermedialia are aligned axially. If the variation elastic properties with texture of sharks'
437 mineralized cartilage resembles those of bone, something reasonable to assume for bioapatite-
438 collagen based natural composites, then the strong *c*-axis directionality in the blue shark centrum
439 (Fig. 5) corresponds to directional differences in elastic constants. In the cortices of human long
440 bones, for example, bioapatite *c*-axes tend to be oriented along the axis of the bone, and elastic
441 moduli for longitudinal vs transverse anatomical orientations are 1.8x greater for the former than
442 the latter (Guo 2001). Park et al. (2022a) showed sharper *c*-axis texture in tissue cut from shark
443 centra (both lamniforms and carcharhiniforms) than is observed in bone, and we hypothesize that

spatial/directional variation of moduli may be more pronounced in the mineralized shark centra than in long bones. If, like in bone, it is correct to infer increased stiffness along directions where *c*-axes are concentrated, then it appears that the mineral in the carcharhiniform cone walls is aligned to resist lateral deflections and that the mineral in the intermedialia is aligned to resist axial compression. 3D numerical models could confirm or refute this conjecture by incorporating elastic constants consistent with the 3D EDD maps with geometry derived from lab microCT of centra.

In Fig. 4 (reflection q of the blue shark centrum), comparison of the intensity map of detector 5 vs detector 1 (or 9) shows a difference of intensity only in the small sector oriented at 11 o-clock; however, the intensity map of the 11 o'clock section for detector 10 (diametrically opposite of detector 5) does not differ from those of detectors 1 (or 9). On balance, reflection q of the blue shark reveals weak texture, not unlike the weak texture seen for this set of reflections in mineralized tissues based on a type I collagen matrix (bone, dentin, cementum) reinforced with bioapatite, i.e., Almer and Stock (2005), Stock et al. (2014), Ryan et al (2020), Park et al. (2022b).

Shortfin mako

The EDD maps of the shortfin mako centrum (Fig. 6) cover only part of the intermedialia and none of the cone wall; because the lamellae were so narrow, this choice was made to obtain highest spatial resolution in the available beam time. One cannot compare, therefore, the texture of the cone walls with that of the lamellae for this data set. If the mako intermedialia texture were the same as in the blue shark intermedialia, the 00.2 intensities of detectors 1 and 9 would be substantially larger than those in detectors 5 and 10. The situation, however, appears more

467 complicated in the shortfin mako centrum: the 00.2 intensities of detector 5 and 9 are
468 comparable, that of detector 1 is the largest of all detectors and that of detector 10 is substantially
469 lower than any other detector. Note also that the detectors with an upward component (1-4) have
470 higher intensities than those with a downward component (6-9).

471 The reduced axial orientation in the intermedialia of the shortfin mako compared to that
472 of the blue shark tempts one to speculate that mechanical loading of the lamellae differs from
473 that of the wedges and that this drives the difference in *c*-axis orientation (and in the underlying
474 cartilage). Lamellae must resist out of plane bending produced by applied axial compression.
475 The situation is further complicated by the fact that lamellae experience reactionary axial tensile
476 loading when opposite side of the centrum is compressed. With multiaxial resistance required,
477 one would expect the *c*-axes of growing mineralized tissue to be laid down in more isotropic
478 orientations. In contrast, most of the wedge volume in carcharhiniforms has pronounced lateral
479 constraint from the surrounding material, and one would expect axial reinforcement is the main
480 requirement on the mineral phase. However attractive this speculation is, it needs to confirmed
481 by improved measurements.

482 For the shortfin mako centrum, the quadruplet reflections show some intensity variation
483 between maps with different detectors (Fig. 6). Like that seen in the 00.2 maps, detector 5
484 intensity is greater than detector 10. In Fig. 6, detectors 4-6 also have greater intensities than
485 detectors 1-3 and 7-9. The quadruplet reflection for the shortfin mako centrum, therefore, is more
486 revealing of texture than the same reflection in bone. This is not unexpected because the matrix
487 of shark centra is cartilage (and not type I collagen), and WAXS and SAXS of blocks of tissue
488 cut from centra showed organization of the bioapatite nanoparticles a bit different from that in
489 bone (Park et al. 2022a).

The authors anticipated that the relatively large sampling volume length along the beam direction and the narrow width of the lamellae in the shortfin mako intermedialia (Fig. 1) would complicate analysis and therefore concentrated available scanning time on sampling with a much finer grid over a much smaller volume than in the blue shark. Despite this, interpretation of the shortfin mako EDD data is still confounded by sub-voxel sampling: in some positions it appears two, three or more lamellae contribute intensities and nearby voxels only one lamella contributes. Three radial bands (red arrows at the bottom of Fig. 6a) are structures where individual lamellae or pairs of lamellae are sampled whereas the bands bordering the gaps are examples of signals from larger groups of lamellae combined in a single EDD voxel. As it is unlikely that EDD mapping with isotropic 100 μm voxels will be achieved in the near future, interpretation of data from lamniform centra will require care and be circumscribed with caveats whereas analysis of carcharhiniform centra should be straightforward. Accurate registration of lab microCT and EDD reconstructions could offer a way forward in studying lamniform intermedialia, but implementing, validating and applying such methodologies is apt to be extremely laborious.

In situ EDD strain mapping of centra

The studies cited above (Porter and Long 2010, Long et al. 2011, Porter et al. 2014, Ingle et al. 2018) demonstrated shark centra experience large continuum level strains in vivo but did not reveal (a) whether the mineral and not merely the type II cartilage was deforming nor (b) whether, if the mineral phase does carry strain, this strain varies as a function of position. Stock et al. (2022) used synchrotron microCT to show that cone walls and intermedialia consisted of thin, closely-spaced trabeculae with a substantial volume fraction of unmineralized tissue.

513 Concerning question (a), Stock et al. (2021) found that a polymer matrix composite containing a
514 very large volume fraction of synthetic hAp particles and an open framework of struts
515 experienced large structural distortions (engineering strains > 20%) without hAp carrying
516 appreciable strain. Regarding question (b), Park et al. (2022c) presented a preliminary report of
517 EDD-derived strain maps in a shark centra under compression but did not report detailed
518 analyses.

519 Use of purpose-built load frames for tomography studying specimens under load, e.g.
520 Breunig et al. (1992, 1993), and position-resolved strain quantification under applied load for
521 mineralized tissues, e.g. Almer and Stock (2010), Stock et al. (2011), are not new, but the
522 approach of Park et al. (2022c) is novel because EDD is used and because these are the first
523 positioned resolved and in situ strain measurements for shark mineralized tissue. In this proof of
524 principle experiment, Park et al. used spacers within a plastic jar, between jar's lid and base, to
525 compress the centra by known increments. The sampling volume was scanned across the middle
526 transverse plane of the centra with no applied displacement and after one increment of
527 compression. Changes in diffraction peak positions for the detector pair 5 and 10 and for pair 1
528 and 9 are the basis for the strain determination, a standard x-ray diffraction approach, and Park et
529 al. (2022c) found shifts in bioapatite peak positions for different displacements, indicating the
530 mineral phase was being strained. Work remains before 3D maps of strain distributions are
531 extracted.

532

533 *Modeling of centra response to loading*

534 The authors are unaware of any 2D or 3D modeling of shark centra response to
535 deformation. Mineralized shark cartilage, however, has been modeled numerically for several

536 interconnected tesserae (Seidel et al. 2019). The tesserae modeling was 2D and considered two
537 structural units: stiffer, more highly-mineralized, radially-oriented spokes and inter-spoke
538 volumes. Synchrotron microCT of centra (Stock et al. 2022) indicates the micrometer-level
539 structure of centra is quite different from that of tesserae, so the results of Seidel et al. (2019) are
540 not directly transferrable to centra. MicroCT-based, 3D models of trabecular bone and of antler
541 are well developed, e.g., Kinney et al. (2000), Niebur et al. (2000), van Rietbergen (2001), Gupta
542 et al. (2013), and use of these approaches might be very valuable with centra.

543 Modeling shark centra is outside of the areas in which the authors work. However, the
544 available macrostructural, microstructural, mineral density and crystallographic texture data
545 suggest differences, particularly between cone and wedge, evolved to provide improved
546 mechanical functionality. The authors propose the following sequence of simple-to-complex
547 models (Fig. 7) as an effective approach. For purposes of illustration, the present discussion is
548 restricted to the more geometrically simple carcharhiniform centra (intermedialia consisting of a
549 pair of large medio-lateral wedges and a pair of dorsal-ventral wedges) and ignores lamniform
550 centra (intermedialia consisting of closely-spaced, diverging and merging lamellae), see Morse et
551 al. (2022).

552 A first step could be 2D simplifications based on the diametral section through the center
553 of medio-lateral wedges (locations at "xs" in the middle panels of Fig. 7a-c and sections shown
554 in the bottom panels of Fig. 7a-c). This section is the one that would experience the largest range
555 of in vivo strains. The simplest loading regime is uniaxial compression, applied load P, and
556 simplest centrum model consists of three materials (Fig. 7a): unmineralized cartilage "uc" of the
557 gap regions between wedges ("g" in Fig. 1), mineralized cartilage "mc" of the centrum (ignoring
558 differences in mineralization levels between cone and intermedialia) and intervertebral fluid

559 "ivf" (incompressible, sealed in the volume between cones of adjoining centra). In the 2D model,
560 one could investigate the effect of mineralized cartilage's (isotropic) Young's modulus on strain
561 distribution. Different hourglass angles α, centrum heights h and diameters ϕ occur along the
562 length of the shark vertebral column and for different carcharhiniform species (Ingle et al. 2018,
563 Morse et al. 2022), and the effect of these on strain distributions can also be examined
564 parametrically. Simple uniaxial compression of the same three-component model can be
565 extended to a distribution of loads representing in vivo bending (bottom panel, Fig. 7b).

566 The next level of complexity for a 2D model is partitioning the mineralized cartilage into
567 cone "c" with thickness δ and intermedialia "i" with isotropic Young's moduli E_c and E_W,
568 respectively. Although centra tissue moduli data do not presently exist, one expects $E_c > E_W$
569 because carcharhiniform cones contain more mineral than their intermedialia (Morse et al. 2022),
570 and, as a zero-order approximation, one expects a relationship between tissue mineral level and
571 Young's modulus similar to that in bone (Currey 2002). Different combinations of α, h, ϕ and δ
572 could be examined virtually and compared to what nature has evolved.

573 Centra are 3D structures, and the 2D models would not be expected to capture all aspects
574 of deformation. The 3D macrostructure can be imported into a finite element or other numerical
575 model using 3D microCT data, e.g. Morse et al. (2022). As mentioned above, this approach is
576 widely applied for trabecular bone, and a sampling of such studies can be found elsewhere
577 (Stock 2019). Following the steps outlined above in 2D, a three-component, two-material system
578 with isotropic Young's moduli would be modeled first in uniaxial compression (Fig. 7a, top) and
579 then in bending (Fig. 7b, top). Note that $E_{mc} >> E_{uc}$, where mc and uc denotes the mineralized
580 and unmineralized cartilage, respectively. One expects a slight variation in strains between the

581 the wedge interiors to the volumes bordering the gaps containing unmineralized cartilage. It
582 would also be interesting to see whether strain varied radially and axially within the wedge.
583 The next step might be partition of the mineralized tissue into cone and intermedialia
584 with isotropic Young's moduli $E_c > E_W$. In addition to the spatial variations mentioned in the
585 previous paragraph, strain gradients may occur between cone and intermedialia.
586 Based on the EDD observations reported above, namely, that strong bioapatite *c*-axis
587 crystallographic textures occur in the cone and intermedialia, the authors believe that accurate
588 modeling will require anisotropic moduli for both structures. In the centrum's coordinate system
589 of tangential, radial and axial directions, denoted *t*, *r* and *a*, respectively (Fig. 7d), the anisotropic
590 Young's moduli are denoted E_t, E_r and E_a, , respectively. More experimental work is required to
591 determine how much E_t, E_r and E_a actually differ, but this could be examined virtually via the 3D
592 model.
593
594
595 *Alternatives to EDD and future experiments*
596 Alternatives to EDD exist which are suitable for samples containing nanocrystals (such as
597 are present in bioapatites), which employ monochromatic x-radiation and which might allow
598 diffraction from an individual lamella to be isolated from that of closely spaced neighbors. Use
599 of conical slits (Park et al. 2013) or spiral slits (Martins et al. 2010) with monochromatic x-rays,
600 for example, allows diffraction patterns to be collected with a simple area detector and would not
601 require a specialized detector array. Translation similar to that employed here would allow 3D
602 reconstruction of the volume, but the sampling volume would be elongated along the beam
603 direction like that in the present study. Insertion devices such as that of 1-ID, APS, presently

offer orders of magnitude greater flux at any selected wavelength compared to 6-BM-B, and the greater flux could be traded for finer spatial sampling. Conical slits tailored for monochromatic x-rays and the hexagonal crystal system (i.e., for bioapatites) do not appear to exist, limiting the number of diffraction peaks which can be collected simultaneously, but spiral slits can capture all of the hexagonal reflections at the same time albeit with azimuthal gaps in the diffraction rings. It is, however, extremely difficult to obtain beam time at 1-ID, APS, so EDD at 6-BM-B, APS, remains an extremely attractive option.

An alternative to slit-based approaches is x-ray diffraction tomography with an incident monochromatic pencil beam, an open area detector and translation-rotation data acquisition, e.g. Stock et al. (2008), Birkbak et al. (2015). Reconstruction of cross-sectional variation of diffracted intensity employs back projection or other computed tomography algorithm. Compared to the translation-rotation method, 3D EDD mapping has the advantage of isolating diffraction from the sampling volume from all other scattering. Additionally, EDD mapping does not require specimen rotation, and specimens with complex surrounding tissue can be aligned so these structures do not affect the diffraction signal. For completeness, one should mention the 3D scattering approach termed tensor tomography which has been applied to bone, e.g. Maleki et al. (2014), but only to relatively small sections cut from larger specimens.

Accumulated x-ray damage affects mechanical properties of collagen-based mineralized tissues (Barth et al. 2011), these effects rise with increasing dose and become a concern in the context of in situ loading and strain measurements. While estimating dose is fairly straightforward with monochromatic high-energy x-rays, e.g., Stock et al. (2020), quantitative estimates for polychromatic x-radiation cannot currently be made mainly because incident x-ray spectra (intensity vs energy) are unavailable for the 6-BM-B bending magnet. Were the spectra

627 available, one could then calculate dose for each energy using tabulations such as that of Hubble
628 and Seltzer (2004) and sum the individual contributions.

629 In qualitative terms, 3D mapping with EDD damages the tissue much more than the
630 monochromatic, high-energy techniques described above; this may not be an issue for one-and-
631 done mapping (like the data reported above) but might be for in situ loading experiments. First,
632 photons in the 25-55 keV range (the EDD data) deposit much more energy per photon those at
633 70 keV and above. Second, in monochromatic methods, all of the photons traversing the
634 specimen have the potential to contribute to the diffracted signal whereas in EDD, photons with
635 energies between those diffracted into the detectors, deposit energy in the specimen and do not
636 contribute to signal. Third, all points along the path of the incident beam are exposed when
637 diffraction from one sampling volume is collected: If ten positions through the sample thickness
638 are sampled, then the dose is ten time larger over the entire thickness.

639 Some damage to mineralized tissue samples is inevitable for x-ray-based methods such as
640 diffraction, and damage is minimized if each sampled volume is exposed once for the minimum
641 time required to obtain useful signal. In diffraction quantification of internal strains
642 accompanying four-point bending, for example, Gallant et al. (2014) made use of the fact that the
643 tensile to compressive strain gradients are nominally the same for all cross-sections within the
644 inner span of the apparatus; they translated to a new cross-section before measuring strains for
645 each increment of deflection. This approach could be adapted for EDD mapping of the
646 intermedialia of carcharhiniform centra where strains should vary continuously. With reference
647 to Fig. 2d, one could collect data at the red squares' positions for one increment of deformation
648 and then at an adjacent position for the next.

The preliminary report of Park et al. (2022c) suggests in situ compression and EDD 3D mapping of strains in the bioapatite phase of shark centra will be very informative in describing how the centra function mechanically. It should be straightforward use EDD to apply x-ray diffraction strain quantification under four-point bending (e.g. Gallant et al. 2014) to segments of multiple shark vertebrae (e.g. Long et al. 2011), i.e., in a loading mode more closely approximating that in vivo.

CRediT authorship contribution statement J.S. Park: Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Methodology, Formal analysis. H. Chen: Writing – review & editing, Software, Methodology. K.C. James: Writing – review & editing, Resources, Methodology. L.J. Natanson: Writing – review & editing, Resources, Methodology. S.R. Stock: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

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Data availability Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi. org/10.1016/j.jmbbm.2022.105506.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Schematics of sharks. (a) Side view of a generalized shark. The blocks within the silhouette represent the vertebrae: gray for cervical and thoracic vertebrae and black for abdominal vertebrae. The arrow indicates very approximately the position of the vertebrae in this study. (b) Schematic from above of vertebral compression when a shark swims, illustrated schematically by three positions of the tail. When the tail swings to the right (right tail diagram), the right side of the vertebra is compressed (right trapezoid with arrows indicating compression). As the left side of the schematic indicates, the vertebra's opposite (left) side compresses when the tail moves to the left. Panels (c) and (d) show lamniform (left column) and carcharhiniform (right column) abdominal centra. (c) 3D representation of a lamniform and a carcharhiniform centrum with some material shown transparent so that the structures' cross-sections can be seen. c - hourglass-shaped cone walls, i – intermedialia, L – lamella, W – wedge. (d) Thresholded slices (black in these transverse sections perpendicular to the vertebral column axis and near the centra's axial midplane) of a mako centrum (lamniform shark mapped in this study) showing the radial lamellae and of a sandbar shark centrum (carcharhiniform shark similar to the blue shark mapped in this study). The dorsal-ventral plane is vertical (double arrowed line), and the

827 intersection of the frontal (coronal) plane with each slice is shown as a horizontal red dotted line.
828 Gaps “g” between wedges (sandbar shark) and between groups of closely spaced lamellae (mako
829 shark) are labeled.

830 Fig. 2. Schematic of the EDD apparatus with the arrangement of ten detector elements and of
831 the sampling scheme illustrated for a lamniform and a carcharhiniform shark. (a) Energy
832 dispersive diffraction apparatus illustrated with a schematic of a lamniform centrum. A set of
833 three orthogonal linear translators (along X, Y and Z) scan the specimen across the sampling
834 volume “sv”. The other main components are: detector elements “de”, conical slits “cs” and
835 incident beam collimator “col”. (b) Arrangement of detector elements 1-10 and the orientation of
836 different lattice plane normals $\mathbf{N}_1$ and $\mathbf{N}_5$ for the crystallites producing diffracted intensities
837 measured in detectors 1 and 5. (c) Schematic of shortfin mako and (d) diagram of blue shark
838 sampling grids illustrated by side views (top) and transverse views (bottom) of the two centra.
839 The labels are: cone wall “cw”, lamellae “L”, wedge “W” and vertebral column axis “vca”. Note
840 that only a small portion of the shortfin mako centrum was covered, but the entire volume of the
841 blue shark centrum was scanned.

842 Fig. 3. Typical energy dispersive diffraction pattern from a shark centrum. The 00.2 and “q”
843 (unresolved 21.1, 11.2, 30.0 and 20.2) peaks from hAp are labeled as well as peaks “cal” from
844 the calibration source. The green peaks below the data are for a synthetic hAp reference pattern
845 (Powder Diffraction File 86-1201).

846 Fig. 4. Orthogonal sections through the blue shark centrum reconstructed with the integrated
847 intensity of the quadruplet reflection (21.1+11.2+30.0+20.2). The brighter the pixel, the higher
848 the intensity in the voxel. The number in the upper left of each panel identifies the detector
849 number. The gray scale images of the top row show intensities recorded with detector 5 (left) and

the diametrically opposite detector 10 (middle) and of the bottom row intensities from detectors 1 (left) and diametrically opposite 9 (right). The color panels (right column) show the combined intensities of detectors 5 and 10 (top) and 1 and 9 (bottom) with 5 and 9 in blue and 10 and 1 in red. The yellow arrowheads identify the cone wall diffracting greater intensity than the adjacent intermedialia. The orange arrowheads show portions of the maps where intermedialia and cone wall intensities are comparable. The yellow (and one black) boxes in the detector 5 and 1 panels indicate the positions of 3 voxel x 3 voxel x 1 voxel regions used to measure mean diffracted intensity within the cone wall (*cw*) and intermedialia (*i, i'*); these values are reported in Table 2.

Fig. 5. (a) Orthogonal sections through the blue shark centrum reconstructed with the 00.2 integrated intensity. The brighter the pixel, the higher the intensity in the voxel. Intensities from detectors 5 (blue), 7 (green) and 9 (red) are combined. The different colored arrows show the *c*-axis orientation measured by each detector. (b) Schematic of the bioapatite *c*-axis orientations revealed in panel a. The white boxes indicate the positions of 3 voxel x 3 voxel x 1 voxel regions used to measure mean diffracted intensity within the cone wall (*cw*), intermedialia (*i, i'*) and fluid (*f*) for detectors 1 and 5; these values are reported in Table 2.

Fig. 6. Shortfin mako's spatial distribution of diffracted intensity measured with the ten detectors for the quadruplet q (a) and 00.2 (b) reflections. The color bar between the panels gives the intensity range which was 0 to 1,200 a.u. for q and 0-150 for 00.2. The detector data are placed in their correct relative orientations. The transverse section is from near the centrum's axial center and covers only part of the cross-section. Portions of two gaps (g1 and g2) and of three sectors (s1, s2 and s3) are labeled in the detector 1 map of (a) as is the 2 mm scale bar (white bar at the bottom). The segmented image inset in the middle of (a) is a lab microCT slice of the same centrum (from Morse et al. 2022).

Fig. 7. Illustration of how carcharhiniform centra data could be incorporated into numerical models of mechanical response to loading. Centra 3D macroarchitecture from lab microCT (e.g. Morse et al. 2022) would be converted into a 3D model of the structure. Incompressible intervertebral fluid (ivf) would fill the space between the cones and the rigid platens applying load P. (a) Simple uniaxial compression of centra simplified to contain two isotropic phases: mineralized cartilage (mc, dark gray) and unmineralized cartilage (uc, light gray). The magenta arrows (xs) mark the position of the cross-section shown at the bottom of the panel. The centrum geometry is defined by diameter ϕ, height h and hourglass angle α. (b) Distribution of loads for simulated bending. The location of two large and two small wedges beneath the cone are shown in yellow, and the largest load occurs at the center of the outer edge of the large wedges, mimicking in vivo bending. Here the wedge and cone materials are not differentiated. (c) Non-uniform loading and partition of the mineralized cartilage into cone "c" (with thickness δ, shown in black) and intermedialia "i" (bottom panel). The corresponding 3D model (top panel) includes unmineralized cartilage "uc", the intermedialia is in the form of wedges "W" and isotropic Young's moduli $E_c > E_W >> E_{uc}$. (d) Transverse centrum cross-section at the axial position between the cone apex and its axial end. The radial *r*, tangential *t* and axial *a* directions are indicated as are the potentially differing Young's moduli along these three directions. The text at the bottom of the panel indicates expected relative magnitudes of moduli along different directions for the wedge and cone; this is based on the *c*-axis crystallographic textures reported in this paper.

Table 1. Experimental parameters

	Gage volume (mm)			Step size (mm)			Number of steps			exposure
Shark	δX	δY	δZ	ΔX	ΔY	ΔZ	N_X	N_Y	N_Z	(s)
Mako	0.2	0.2	2.5	1.5	0.5	1.0	3	10	47	50
Blue	0.1	0.2	1.7	2.0	1.0	1.9	16	10	17	30

Table 2. Integrated intensities in the cone wall (cw) and intermedialia (i) of the q and 00.2 reflections for the blue shark centrum. Mean values are for the 3 voxel x 3 voxel regions within the yellow squares of Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. The standard deviation of each mean is the number following ±. The maximum integrated intensity of the 3D reconstructed volume with q reflection was 98 (arbitrary units) and with the 00.2 reflection was 86 (arbitrary units, a.u.). For 00.2, the integrated intensity recorded within fluid-filled volumes were 2 a.u. for detectors 1 and 5, and, for q, values were 2 and 4 a.u., respectively.

Reflection	detector 5		detector 1		
	cw	*i*	*cw*	*i*	*i'*
q	68 ± 7	61 ± 9	66 ± 7	46 ± 10	72 ± 3
00.2	46 ± 9	5 ± 1	21 ± 5	35 ± 2	

Figure 1.

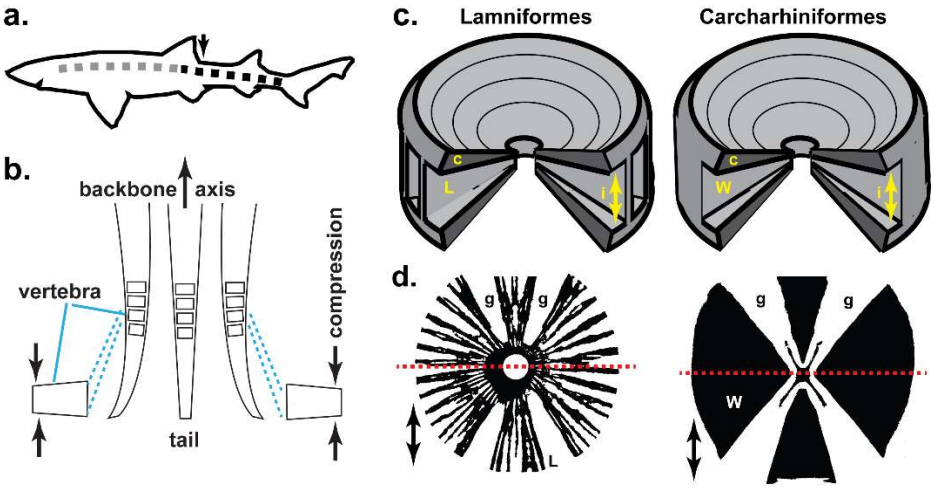
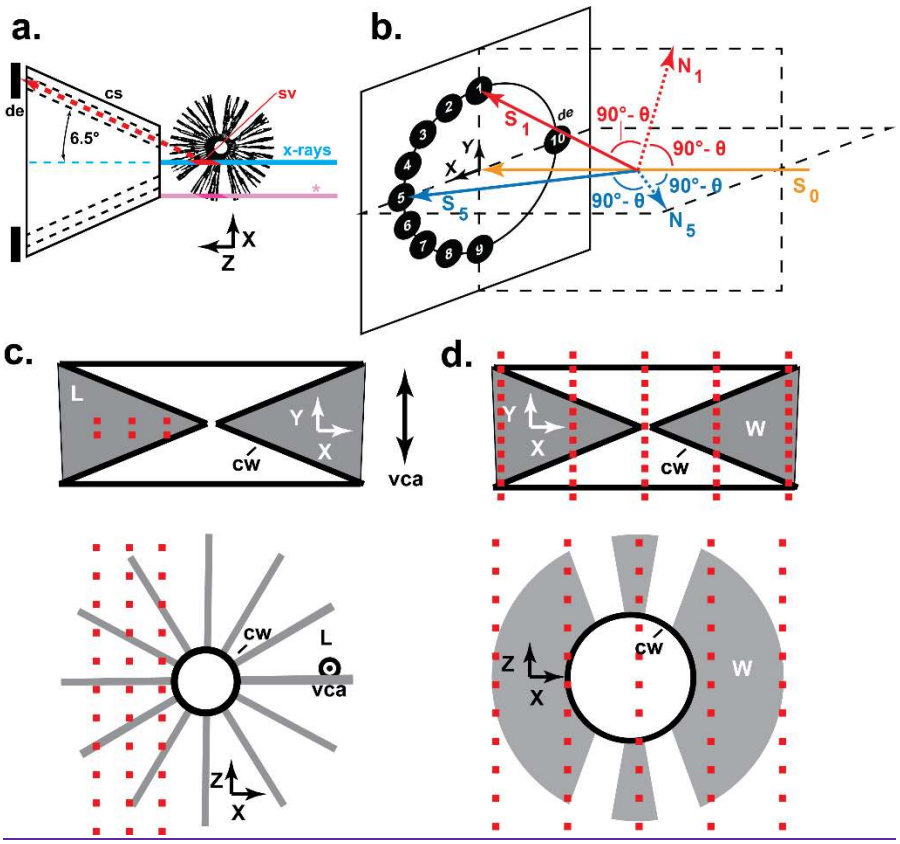


Figure 2.



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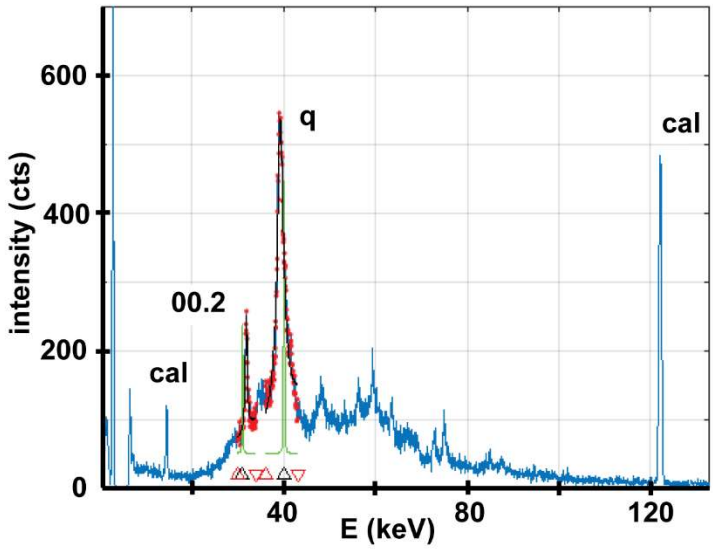
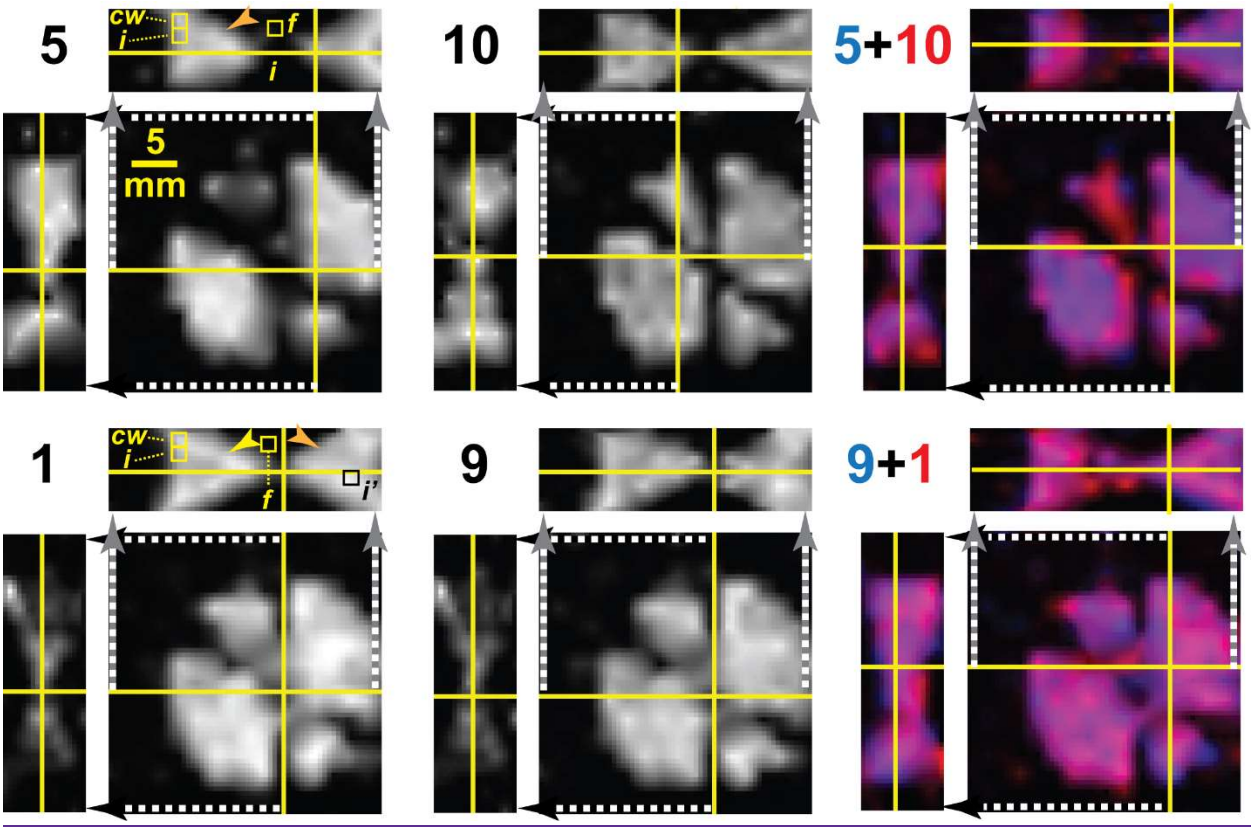


928 Figure 4.



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931 Figure 5.

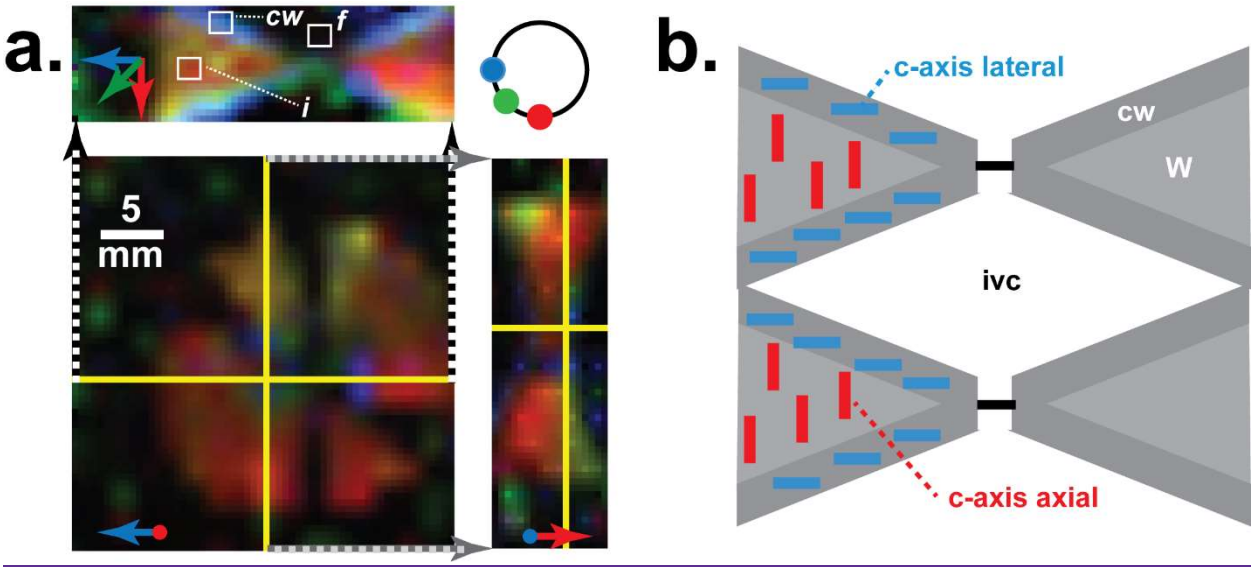

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Figure 6.

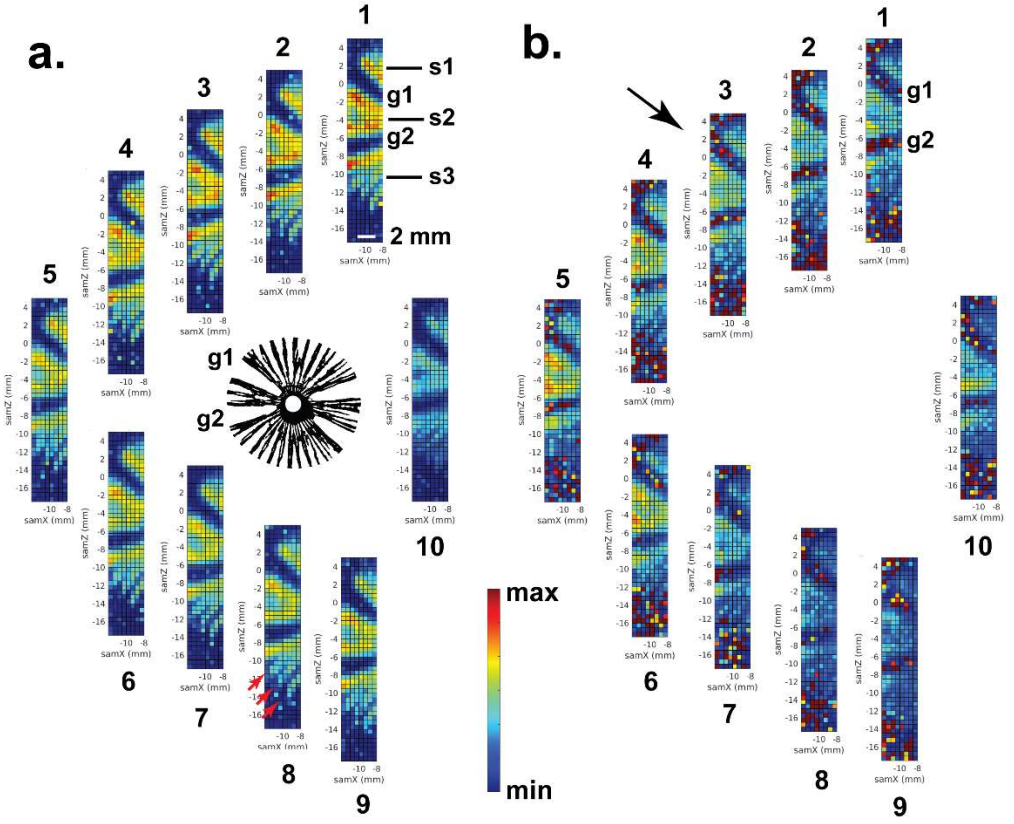

Figure 7.