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## Human dentin characteristics of patients with osteogenesis imperfecta: insights into collagen-based biomaterials

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### Abstract

Osteogenesis imperfecta (OI), also known as "brittle bone disease", is a rare genetic disorder of the skeleton, whose most benign form I corresponds to autosomal dominant mutations in the genes encoding type I collagen (*COLA1*, *COLA2*). Several associated skeletal manifestations are often observed but, surprisingly, while dentin defects often reflect genetic bone disorders, about half of OI patients have no obvious oral manifestations. Here, we investigated the collagen, mineral and mechanical properties of dentin from deciduous teeth collected from patients with mild form of OI and displaying no obvious clinical signs of dentinogenesis imperfecta. For the first time, an increase in the hardness of OI dentin associated with an increase in mineral content compared to healthy patients was reported. In addition, OI altered the tissue characteristics of the dentin-enamel junction but the interfacial gradient was preserved. The impact of changes in molecular structure due to mutations in OI was assessed by Raman microspectroscopy. Our results highlighted a change in the hydroxyproline-proline ratio in direct association with collagen mineralization. Our findings suggest that the evaluation of teeth could be an important aid for mild types of OI that are often difficult to diagnose clinically and provide experimental evidence that hydroxyproline content should be considered in future studies on collagen-based biomaterials.

Keywords: Deciduous teeth, biomineralization, Osteogenesis imperfecta, Hardness, Raman microspectroscopy.

## 1 Introduction

Osteogenesis imperfecta (OI), also known as « brittle bone disease », is a fairly common rare genetic skeletal disorder estimated to affect about 1/13,500–15,000 births [1,2]. The best known classification of OI is given by Sillence, who divided OI cases into four types as early as 1979 [3]. In this classification, type I corresponds to the mildest form, type II to the perinatal lethal form, type III to the most severe form compatible with life, and type IV is an intermediate group. This classification covers 85-90% of OI patients and corresponds to autosomal dominant mutations in the genes encoding type I collagen (*COL1A1* and *COL1A2*). Although this classification is still widely used, several types have been added since 2006, when the first OI recessive gene was identified [4,5]. Over the last ten years, the Sillence classification, which was initially phenotypically based, now includes more than sixteen different types and this number is constantly increasing with new genes discovery [2]. Recently, Forlino *et al.* [6] proposed a classification into five groups based on the metabolic pathways compromised, especially those related to collagen formation, assembly and mineralization.

Consequently, there is a wide variety of clinical manifestations due to OI. Indeed, collagen is the most abundant protein in the human body and type I collagen is by far the predominant type found in connective tissue. The first clinical signs of OI are often the frequency of bone fractures in children, but at the bone-whole scale effects may include short stature and progressive skeletal deformities [7,8]. Several other manifestations such as blue sclera [9], dentinogenesis imperfecta [10–12], joint laxity [13], hearing loss [14], and often respiratory symptoms may be observed [15]. More details about the manifestations of OI and treatments based on orthopaedic surgery or bisphosphonates administration can be found in previous publications [16,17].

At microscopic scale, i.e. tissue scale, large majority of studies performed on OI human bones or OI murine models show an increased mineral content associated with a decreased organic matrix. The crystal size is smaller with a less well organized orientation [18–20], mechanical properties decreased [21] and more pronounced heterogeneity in collagen diameter fibrils is observed [22]. The discovery of numerous recessive OI mutations in various genes [2], such as *SERPINF1* [23,24], *CRTAP* [4,25,26], or *P3H1* encoding prolyl 3-hydroxylase 1 [27,28], has open new potential therapeutic targets. However, the knowledge about how these mutations impact the interactions between collagen fibres and hydroxyapatite crystals at the molecular scale is not fully understood.

Indeed, collagen biosynthesis and mineralization is probably one of the most complicated biological processes. The specific structure of the triple helix conformation of type I fibrillar collagen is characterized by a repeating motif X-Y-Gly amino sequence, with glycine (Gly) in third position being a requirement and the most abundant residues at the X and Y sites being proline (Pro) and hydroxyproline (Hyp), respectively [29]. **In the Pro-Hyp-Gly motif, hydroxyproline is usually in second position allowing the stabilization of the triple helix but many studies are working on several defective genes involved in the stabilization process.** Over the last decade, numerous studies have been carried out on the collagen mechanical properties at the nanoscale, analysing in particular the behaviour of fibrils and fibril-fibril interactions [30–33]. Knowledge of behaviour at the nanoscale is particularly relevant for OI, where glycine substitution in the triple helix is known to be one of the

most common mutations whose clinical forms are classically observed [34,35]. Molecular or coarse grain simulations [36–40] of glycine substitution have shown that the mechanical behaviour of collagen fibrils is strongly modified and that a single point mutation leading to a helical perturbation affects several length scales. Similarly, the most common post-translational modification of proline in hydroxyproline has recently been studied at the nanoscale using molecular dynamics simulations [41], showing that proline-rich collagens have higher stiffness and Young's modulus than hydroxyproline-rich collagens.

All these studies point out the spectacular advances in the understanding of this rare disorder. However, while techniques are now mature to access mechanical properties, crystal quality or post-translational modification of tissues [42], data on human tissues in the literature remain weak. In addition, human samples are often bone fragments obtained during orthopaedic bone alignment surgery, often treated with bisphosphonates that can cause modifications [43]. Due to its accessibility, several studies [12, 44] have been performed on dentin from teeth with or without OI, revealing microstructural and mechanical changes. However, these results need to be reinforced, in particular on deciduous teeth that have been mineralized prior to initiation of bisphosphonate treatment.

The major oral manifestation of OI is altered dentin formation (dentinogenesis imperfecta), manifesting by discoloration of the dentition, brittle teeth prone to early and severe attrition, bulbous crowns and early obliteration of the pulp in both dentitions [45]. Dentin is very similar to bone in terms of the composition of the extracellular matrix, which is secreted by odontoblasts and osteoblasts, respectively. Hence, dentin consists of a mainly type I collagen organic matrix embedded in hydroxyapatite crystals [46]. However, unlike bone, dentin is not remodelled and is not involved in the regulation of the calcium and phosphate metabolism. Surprisingly, while dentin defects reflect genetic disorders affecting bone mineralisation [45], about one half of the patients with OI show no obvious oral manifestations. Here, we raise the hypothesis that OI patients without oral manifestations still display a modification of dentin (subclinical dentinogenesis imperfecta), in terms of collagen, minerals and mechanical properties and that the investigation of these defects may aid in the diagnosis of mild osteogenesis imperfecta.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Samples and preparation

Teeth were extracted from control individuals and patients with OI. None of the donors included in the present study had clinical signs of dentinogenesis imperfecta. The OI group consisted of six deciduous teeth from four patients with mild type OI. The control group consisted of eight deciduous teeth from six healthy donors of the same sex and age. Clinical data about the OI patients are provided in Table 1. All the teeth were acquired with the informed consent of the patients and parents, in accordance with the ethical guidelines laid down by French law (agreement IRB 00006477 and n° DC-2009-927, Cellule Bioéthique DGR1/A5). The whole teeth were gently cleaned with tap water and stored dry at -20°C until their analysis. For each sample, buccolingual sections 3 mm thick in the centre of the tooth were prepared as follows. The specimens were polished on sandpaper (#1200) to obtain plano-parallel surfaces, then polished with 1-µm diamond powder and rinsed in an ultrasonic bath. The diagnostic criterion of DI was performed using radiology and optical images.

Representative optical images of dentin from OI sample without DI, DI sample and control sample are given in supplementary materials (Supplemental Figure). For each sample, as soon as the surface preparation was completed, the samples were directly analyzed by nanoindentation followed immediately by Raman microspectroscopy acquisitions.

Patient number	Form	Phenotype	Bisphosphonate treatment	Gender	Age (y)	Teeth
1	Sporadic	Mild OI (type IV)	Onset at 16 months	M	9	2 deciduous molars
2	Familial	Mild OI (type I)	From 2.5 to 4.5 years/old	F	11	2 deciduous canines
3	Familial	Mild OI (type I)	Onset at 24 months	M	10	1 deciduous molar
4	Familial	Mild OI (type I)	Onset at 13 year/old	M	12	1 deciduous canine

Table 1: Clinical characteristics of the patients with OI.

## 2.2 Nanoindentation

The mechanical properties of the dentin were obtained using a commercial nanoindenter (Agilent Nanoindenter G200, ScienTec, Les Ulis, France) following previously published protocols [20,47]. Fused silica was used to calibrate the contact surface of the Berkovich diamond tip. Two zones of interest were defined within the dentin (Figure 1): an outer zone near the dentin-enamel junction (DEJ) and a middle zone in the centre of the dentin, referred to External (Ext) and Middle (Mid) in the following of the study, respectively. Six measurement points were taken in each area of the sample. The location of each indentation was manually set on a line parallel to the DEJ in the outer areas and on a grid of points in the middle area. A minimum spacing of 200  $\mu\text{m}$  between each point was imposed. A conventional constant strain rate of  $0.05 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and a maximum depth of  $2\mu\text{m}$  were used. The material was assumed to be linear, elastic and isotropic and the classical Oliver and Pharr method was used in the study [48]. The Poisson's ratio was assumed to be 0.3 [49,50]. Young's modulus and contact hardness for each indentation point was averaged over the 800-1800 nm depth plateau obtained from continuous stiffness measurement (CSM).

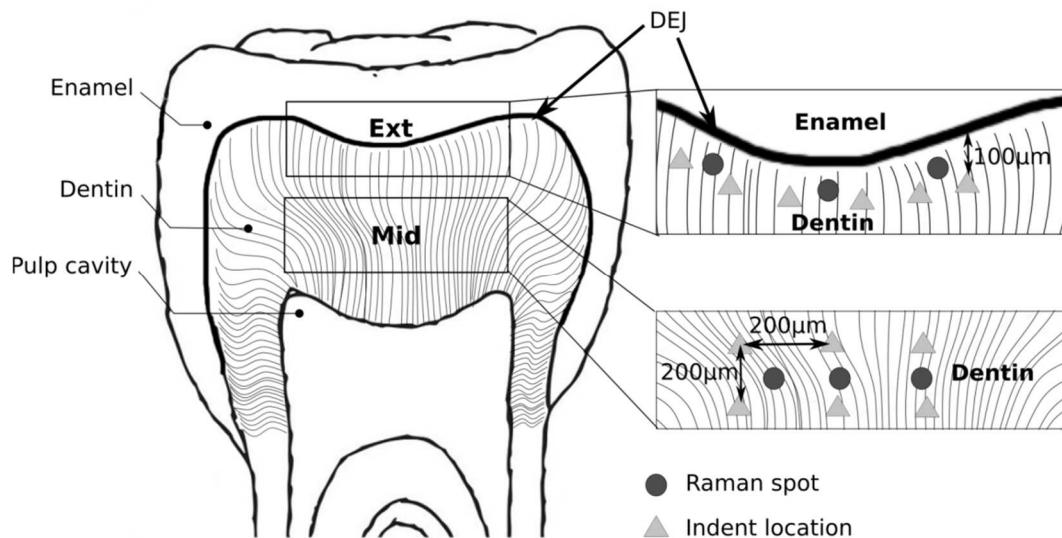


Figure 1: Diagram showing the localization of indents within the two zones of interest in the dentin: external (Ext), near the dentino-enamel junction (DEJ), and middle (Mid). Six indents (triangle markers) and three Raman spectra (circle markers) have been run in each zone.

### 2.3 Raman microspectroscopy

Raman spectroscopy (LabRAM HR 800, Horiba Jobin Yvon, Villeneuve d'Ascq, France) was performed on the same sample surface as that used for nanoindentation according to a previously published protocol [20]. This technique uses Raman diffusion (inelastic) to obtain information on the composition of the material. A monochromatic laser is used to excite the molecules in the sample. The difference between the energy of the incident and emitted light produces a spectrum that provides information about the molecules present within the sample[51].

Figure 2 shows a typical spectrum for a control tooth. A 785 nm laser was used to excite the molecule in the material. The 50x objective and 0.75 numerical aperture produced a laser spot approximately 2  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter on the sample. Acquisitions were made over the spectral range from 350  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  to 1750  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , with an integration time of 60 s and one accumulation. Four spectra were acquired for each point, and 3 points in each area close to the nanoindentation points were measured for each of the samples. **The Raman spectra were acquired at a point below the surface where the intensity of the phosphate peak at 961  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was maximum.** LabSpec software (Horiba Jobin Yvon, Villeneuve d'Ascq, France) was used to despik the spectra. A custom Matlab routine (version R2016a, MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA) was applied on each of the four spectra per point to subtract background. The four spectra were then averaged and deconvolution was performed to compute peak intensity and position of the band of interest.

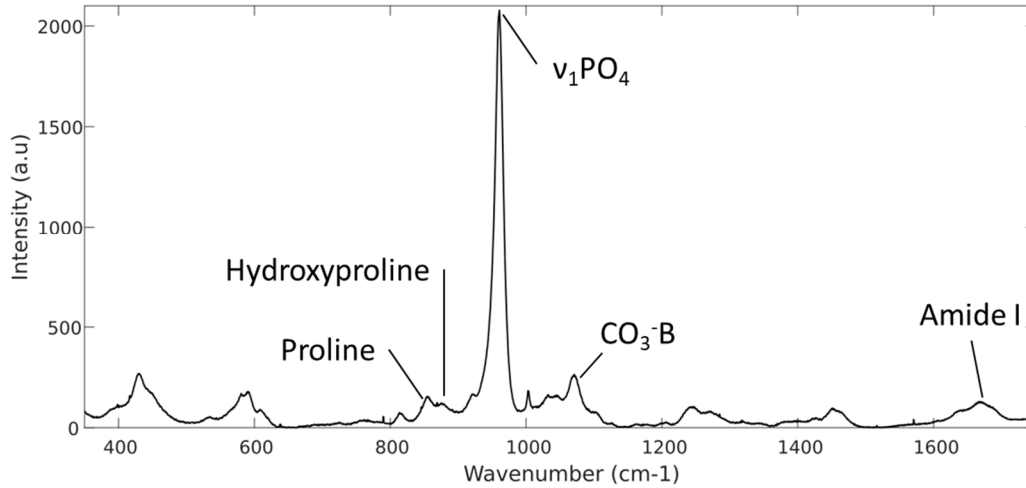


Figure 2: Typical Raman spectra for a control dentin obtained after background subtraction, averaging of the 4 spectra and smoothing. The peak at  $961\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to phosphate, the peak at  $1075\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to carbonate, the peak at  $853\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to proline, the peak at  $875\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to hydroxyproline and the peak at  $1667\text{ cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to Amide I.

Four maximum intensity ratios were calculated from the spectra (Figure 2), i) the mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR), describing the mineral content compared to the collagen matrix, was calculated in two different ways : the ratio between the maximum intensities of  $v_1\text{PO}_4$  ( $961\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and Amide I ( $1667\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), referred to as MMR Amide I, and the ratio between the maximum intensities of  $v_1\text{PO}_4$  ( $961\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and Proline ( $853\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), referred to as MMR Proline, in the following of the study ; ii) the carbonate-to-phosphate ratio, as the ratio between  $\text{CO}_3\text{-B}$  ( $1075\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and  $v_1\text{PO}_4$  ( $961\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), which indicates the rate of substitution of phosphate by carbonate in the B-mode; and iii) the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio ( $875\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $853\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) which reflects the post-translational modifications of the collagen obtained by deconvolution process [42]. The deconvolution parameters were identical for OI group and control group. Crystallinity, which corresponds to the inverse of the full width at half the  $v_1\text{PO}_4$  peak ( $961\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), and the wavenumber shift of the hydroxyproline band were also studied [52,53].

## 2.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using R software (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Mann-Whitney tests were used to assess the significant differences between mechanical properties and biochemical composition of the control ( $n=8$ ) and OI ( $n=6$ ) groups. To assess the effect of the zone, mechanical and biochemical values of the external and middle zones were compared by Wilcoxon test for paired samples. The level of significance for all analyses corresponded to an  $\alpha$ -risk of 5%. p-values were corrected for multiple comparisons by the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Linear correlations between hardness and mineral-to-matrix ratio or between hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio and mineral-to-matrix ratio were evaluated by Spearman's correlation test.

## 3 Results

### 3.1 Mechanical properties

From a mechanical point of view, we analyzed two parameters: hardness and Young's modulus. Particular attention was paid to the hardness of this brittle material which is related to the yield strength and the occurrence of fractures. Figure 3 shows the average hardness measured by nanoindentation in the external and middle zone for the control and OI groups. The mean (S.D) values of the hardness in the external zone were 0.76 (0.05) GPa and 0.98 (0.08) GPa for the control and OI groups, respectively. In the middle zone, the mean hardness values (S.D) for the control and OI groups were 0.84 (0.05) GPa and 1.08 (0.04) GPa, respectively. The mean hardness was then significantly lower for both external zone and middle zone ( $p = 7 \cdot 10^{-4}$  and  $p = 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$ , respectively) for the control group than for the OI group.

Young's modulus showed similar trends with significantly lower values in the control group than in the OI group (data not shown).

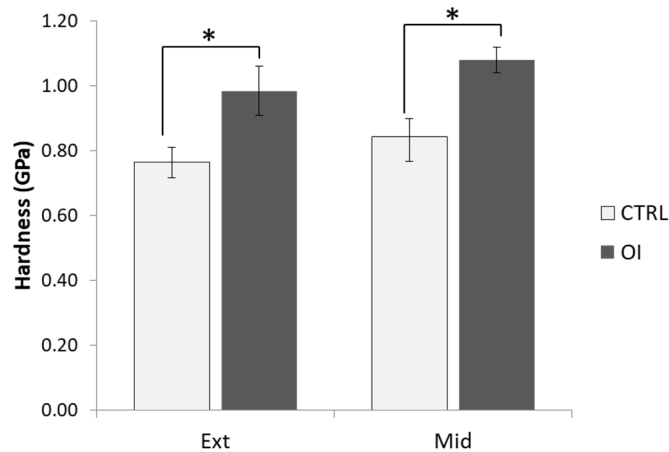


Figure 3: Mean hardness for control (CTRL) and OI groups. Mean hardness is higher in the OI group than in the control group regardless of the zone. Error bars represent standard deviation. \* p-value <0.05 between control and OI group.

### 3.2 Collagen and mineral properties

The different data measured by Raman microspectroscopy and described earlier in the paragraph "Material and methods" are given in figure 4 for the OI and control groups, measured in the middle and external areas.



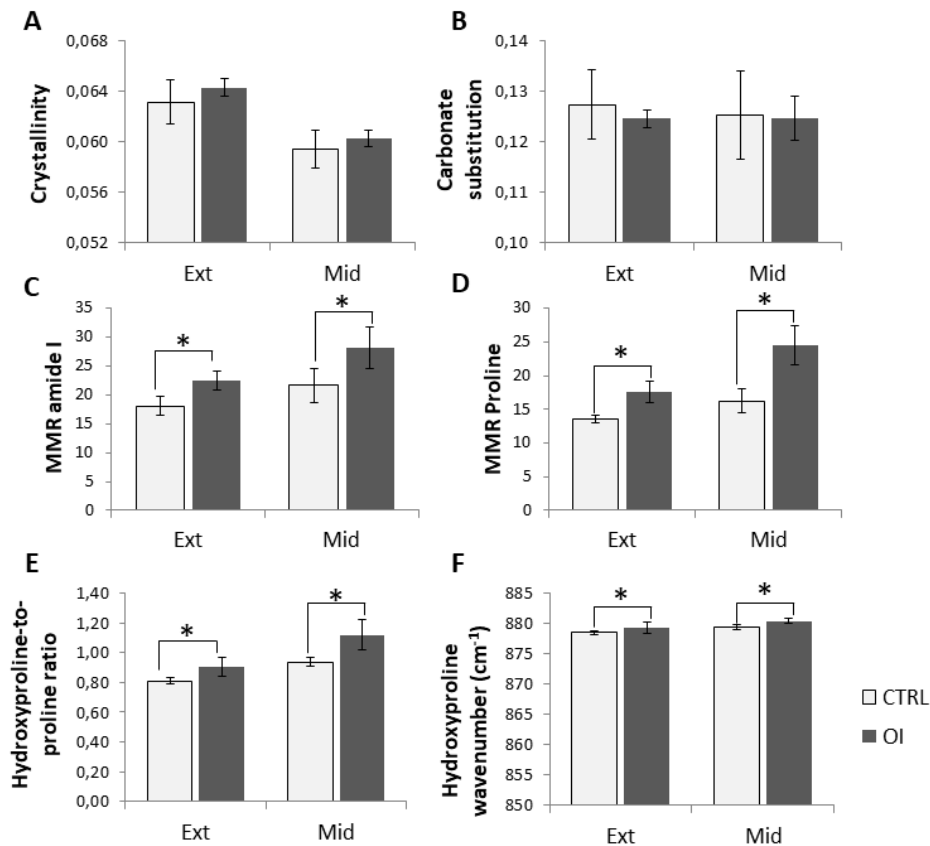


Figure 4: Barplot illustrating (A) crystallinity, (B) carbonate substitution, (C) mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR Amide I), (D) mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR Proline), (E) hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio and (F) Hydroxyproline wavenumber, for control (CTRL) and OI group. Mean MMR and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio are higher in the OI group than in the control group regardless of the zone. Error bars represent standard deviation. \* p-value<0.05 between control and OI group.

Figures A and B show the quality of the mineral through analysis of crystallinity and carbonate substitution rate, respectively. There was a trend of higher crystallinity from 0.059 (0.001) to 0.060 (0.001) (from 0.063 (0.002) to 0.064 (0.001), respectively) and a lower carbonate substitution rate from 0.125 (0.009) to 0.125 (0.004) (from 0.127 (0.007) to 0.125 (0.002), respectively) for the OI dentin samples in the middle zone (in the external zone, respectively)

The mean (S.D.) values of the mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR Amide I) in the external zone, for the control and OI groups were 18.07 (1.64) and 22.43 (1.68), respectively (Figure 4C). The mean (S.D.) values of the mineral-to-matrix ratio in the middle zone for the control and OI groups were 21.68 (2.92) and 28.13 (3.71), respectively. The mineral-to-matrix ratio was significantly higher ( $p = 7 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ) in the external zone ( $p = 5 \cdot 10^{-3}$  in the middle zone, respectively) for the OI group than for the control group.

The mean (S.D.) values of the mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR Proline) in the external zone for the control and OI groups were 13.51 (0.58) and 17.59 (1.52), respectively (Figure 4D). The mean (S.D.) values of the mineral-to-matrix ratio in the middle zone for control and OI groups were 16.26 (1.70) and 24.5 (2.98), respectively. The mineral-to-matrix ratio was significantly higher ( $p = 7 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ) in the external zone ( $p = 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$  in the middle zone, respectively) for the OI group than for the control group.

The same results were obtained on hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio, given on figure 4E. The mean (S.D.) values of the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio in the external zone for the control and OI groups were 0.81 (0.02) and 0.91 (0.07), respectively. The mean (S.D.) values of the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio in the middle zone for the control and OI groups were 0.94 (0.03) and 1.12 (0.10), respectively. The hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio was significantly higher ( $p = 4 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ) in the external zone ( $p = 1 \cdot 10^{-3}$  in the middle zone, respectively) for the OI group than for the control group.

The mean (S.D.) values of the hydroxyproline band wavenumber in the external for the control and OI groups were  $878.53 (0.29) \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $879.30 (1.00) \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively (Figure 4F). The mean (S.D.) values of the of the hydroxyproline band wavenumber in the middle zone for control and OI groups were  $879.37 (0.48) \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $880.43 (0.45) \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. The positive shift in hydroxyproline band wavenumber for the OI group was significant ( $p = 3 \cdot 10^{-2}$ ) in the external zone ( $p = 2 \cdot 10^{-3}$  in the middle zone, respectively) compared to the control group.

Finally, for both the control and OI groups, the crystallinity values measured in the middle zone were lower compared to external zone while the MMR Proline values, the MMR Amide I values and the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio values measured in the middle zone were greater compared to the external zone. A positive shift in hydroxyproline band wavenumber between the external and middle zones was also recorded.

### 3.3 Hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio analysis

To highlight the difference in hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio all Raman spectra in the  $800\text{-}900\text{cm}^{-1}$  range, including hydroxyproline and proline peaks, are given in Figure 5A in the middle zone. A strong difference was observed between the control spectra, in light grey, and the OI spectra, dotted line in dark grey. In particular, all control spectra were higher than the OI spectra. In terms of relative intensity, for each spectrum, the difference between the proline peak at  $853 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the hydroxyproline peak at  $875 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  was less pronounced in the OI group than in the control group. The effect of pathology on the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio is clearly revealed by the average of all the OI and control spectra (Figure 5B) which shows the tightness between the proline and hydroxyproline intensity peaks in the OI group.

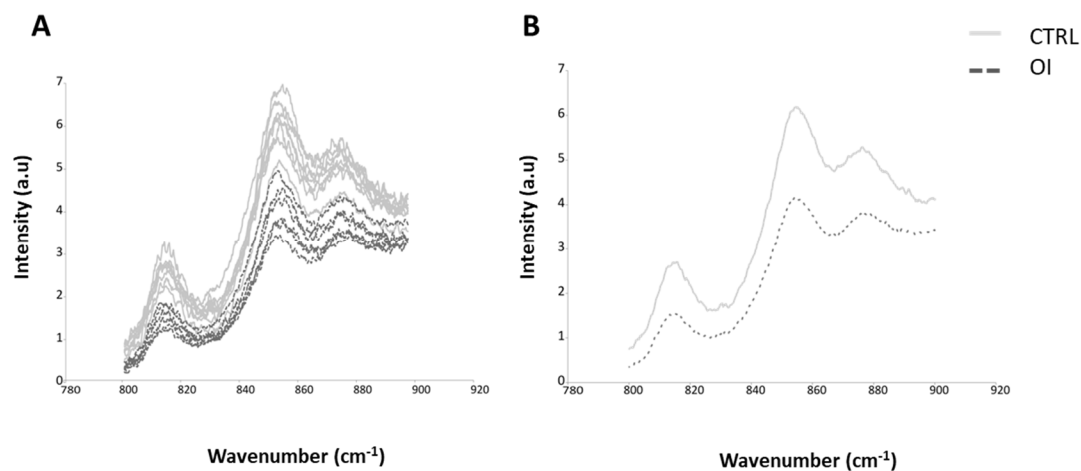


Figure 5: Raman spectra of the range  $800\text{-}900\text{cm}^{-1}$  show that the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio is higher in the OI group than in the control group. A: Spectra in the range  $800\text{-}900\text{cm}^{-1}$  of all the teeth in the middle zone (OI and control group). B: Average spectra of OI and control group in the range  $800\text{-}900\text{cm}^{-1}$  for the middle zone.

### 3.4 Correlations between mineral to matrix ratios and mechanical properties

Linear correlations between hardness and mineral to matrix ratio (MMR Amide I and MMR Proline) values, measured for all individuals in several areas, were investigated. For external zone (respectively middle zone), these parameters are linearly correlated with a reasonably high correlation coefficient;  $r = 0.84$ ,  $p = 1.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$  for MMR Proline and  $r = 0.7$ ,  $p = 5 \cdot 10^{-3}$  for MMR Amide I (respectively,  $r = 0.83$ ,  $p = 2.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$  for MMR Proline and  $r = 0.64$ ,  $p = 1 \cdot 10^{-2}$  for MMR Amide I). Figure 6 also shows a reasonably high correlation coefficient;  $r = 0.70$ ,  $p = 6 \cdot 10^{-5}$  for MMR Amide I and  $r = 0.84$ ,  $p = 1 \cdot 10^{-6}$  for MMR Proline, when considering all measurements. This result indicates that an increase in mineral to matrix ratios leads to an increase in hardness, regardless of the individuals and zones (OI, control, external and middle zone).

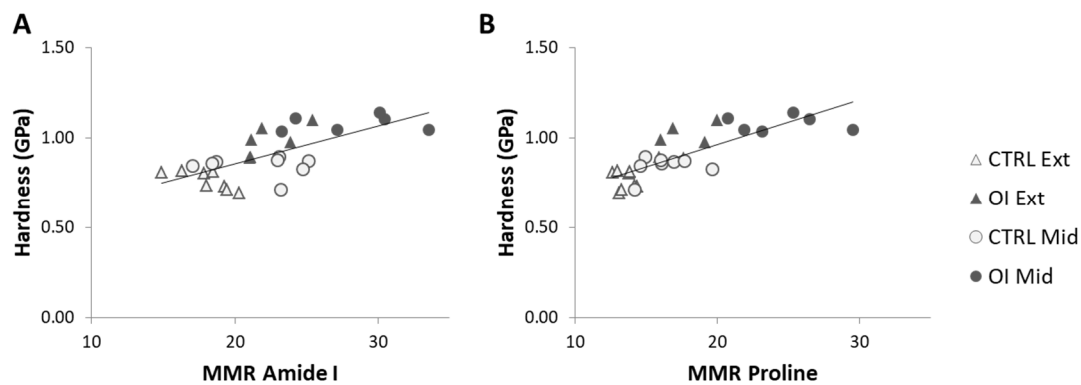


Figure 6: Linear correlation between mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR) and hardness (H). A: MMR Amide I and hardness. B: MMR Proline and hardness.

### 3.5 Correlations between mineral to matrix ratios and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio

The linear correlations between the values of mineral to matrix ratio (MMR Amide I and MMR Proline) and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio were examined for the OI and control individuals (Figure 7). These parameters clearly correlate linearly with a reasonably high correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.82$ ,  $p = 10^{-6}$  for MMR Amide I,  $r = 0.85$ ,  $p = 10^{-6}$  for MMR Proline). This result indicates a positive relationship between the mineral-to-matrix ratio and the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio, whatever individuals and areas (OI, Control, External and Middle).

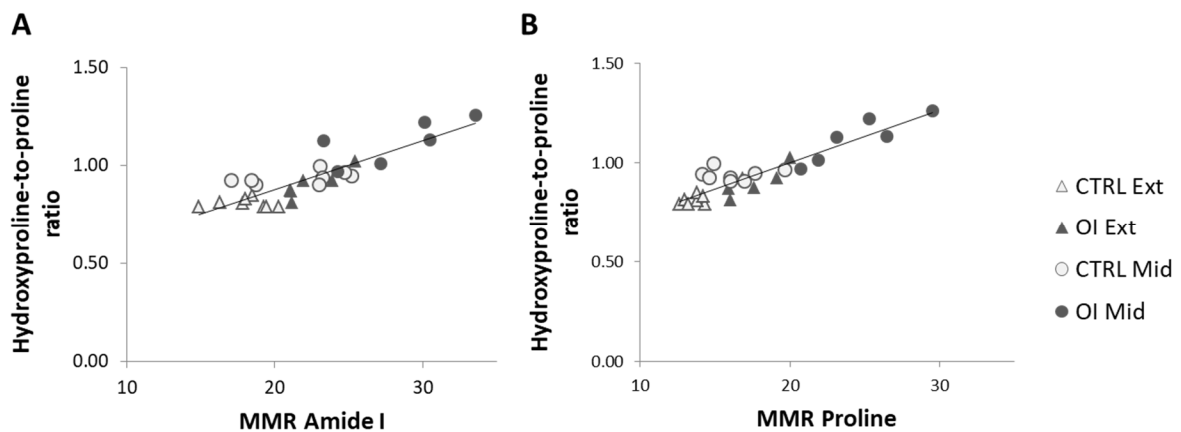


Figure 7: Linear correlation between mineral-to-matrix ratio (MMR) and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio. A: MMR Amide I and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio. B: MMR Proline and hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio.

## 4 Discussion and conclusions

The mechanical properties, especially hardness, of healthy human dentin are well known in the literature [50,54–57]. In the present study, the results are in good agreement with these data with a mean value of dentin hardness in the middle zone close to 1 (0.98 +/-0.08) GPa. In addition, many studies focus on the specific properties of DEJ. A decrease in hardness and an increase in crystallinity of dentin close to DEJ compared to the middle zone are reported [58–60]. In this study, a decrease in hardness close to 9% and an increase in crystallinity close to 6% in the near DEJ zone compared to the middle zone were also observed. Surprisingly, while one half of OI patients have no obvious clinical manifestations of dentinogenesis imperfecta (DI) [11,45], to date and to our knowledge, no human dentin studies have been carried out on OI patients without clinical manifestations of DI. As a result, the only studies available in the literature focus on patients with DI and show lower dentin hardness than healthy ones [12,61,62].

To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first study reporting an increase in dentin hardness in patients with osteogenesis imperfecta without clinical manifestations of DI. In the literature, the only relevant study was carried out by Lopez *et al.* [63] on a mouse model of the Col1a2<sup>oim</sup> mutation displaying also an increase in dentin hardness. The small number of samples and the size of the murine teeth involved in this study made the difference in dentin hardness near and far from the DEJ difficult to assess. In the present study, this spatial difference in hardness of OI dentin was measured and, as in healthy patients, there was a decrease in dentin hardness close to 9% in the area close to DEJ compared to the value measured in the middle area. It is important to note that whatever the healthy or diseased tooth, the spatial gradient of the mechanical properties of dentin is the same, with a decrease in dentin hardness value near the dentin/enamel interface.

The increase in hardness of OI dentin suggests an increase in mineral content. To confirm this hypothesis, the mineral to matrix ratios (MMR), which express the amount of minerals on amount of collagen, were measured by Raman microspectroscopy. The MMR was derived from Amide I and Proline peaks to ensure that the relative increase in mineral content is independent of the selected organic band [51,64–66]. As expected, MMR Raman ratios were higher in OI patients than in healthy patients, independently of the study area. More surprisingly, the mineral quality (crystallinity, maturation) was not affected by the pathology, unlike that found in bone tissue [18,20]. Therefore, a direct linear relationship between dentin hardness and MMR value is obtained for any tooth studied. It should be noted that the best correlation is obtained with the MMR calculated with the proline peak, which was previously reported by Bi *et al.* [25,67] in a mouse model of the Col1a2<sup>oim</sup> mutation. The decrease in the amount of collagen classically observed in OI pathology [18] could explain the increase in the MMR ratio but not the increase in dentin hardness. Consequently, OI dentin contains a greater number of not significantly altered crystals leading to higher hardness.

Unfortunately, the interaction between mineral and collagen is still a subject of debate despite the great progress made over the last decade. Indeed, the process of biomineralization in bones and teeth is difficult to understand because of the complex hierarchic structure of collagen. It is now widely accepted that the crystal is present inside the collagen fibrils: in the "gap region", in the "intermolecular distance" but also in the extrafibrillar zone [30,31]. The mineral crystals themselves

form an interconnected mineral network with a helical morphology that could be shaped by the collagen network [68]. At nanoscale, molecular simulations also showed that changing the characteristic lengths scale of the collagen molecule has a direct effect on the deformation mechanisms and that even a small increase in the mineral density increases the mechanical properties of this complex network [33,69]. In the case of osteogenesis imperfecta, destabilization of the triple helix structure due to glycine substitution leads to changes in the structure of the molecules, including kink, local unfolding in the vicinity of the mutation, or an increase in intermolecular spacing. This new molecule conformation modifies the characteristic lengths scale increasing flexibility and reducing stiffness of collagen fibril [36–40]. These models show also that a single point mutation could lead to a dramatic reduction in mechanical strength of mineralized OI tissue at macroscopic scale.

In the present study, we hypothesize that defects in collagen synthesis, structure or transformation **should be reflected in the hydroxyproline to proline**, which is classically involved in the stabilization of the collagen triple helix. Raman microspectroscopy provides both the ratio of proline to hydroxyproline and the displacement of their respective Raman bands. To date and to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study in which the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio and wavenumber of the hydroxyproline band in the OI group were reported to be increased compared to the control group. This result is obtained irrespective of the dentin area studied.

Recently, molecular dynamics simulations by Ghanaeian *et al.* [41] revealed that hydroxyproline rich collagens have lower stiffness and Young's modulus than proline-rich collagens. The increase in the hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio reported in the present study for the OI group should therefore correspond to a decrease in the stiffness and an increase in the elasticity of collagen, which is consistent with the properties of OI collagen fibrils described above. In addition, an increase in hydroxyproline is also consistent with higher mineralization, as demonstrated by Toworfe *et al.* [70] where hydroxylated surfaces enhanced calcium phosphate nucleation, or Buckley *et al.* [71] reporting Raman microspectroscopy of hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio obtained on different tissue and computational evidence that hydroxyproline is energetically the most favourable [72].

With respect to the wavenumber shift of the hydroxyproline band, several studies have been carried out on the sensitivity of hydroxyproline bands during the stretching of a collagen fibre [52,73,74]. While no significant difference is observed on collagen for low deformation values, this shift in the wavenumber of the hydroxyproline band appears for mineralized fibers at an early stage of deformation and this effect is enhanced as mineralization increases. Although studies have not yet been able to fully understand the molecular mechanisms behind this phenomenon, the shift observed by Raman microspectroscopy seems to reflect the quality of the interface between the mineral and the tropocollagen. It can therefore be hypothesized that the shift of the hydroxyproline band observed in our study between the OI group and the control group could be related to incompetence of collagen matrix mineralization.

This study obviously has several limitations. The first is the choice of samples analyzed. The experiments were conducted only on deciduous teeth. Noteworthy, the deciduous tooth is a convenient sample to study as it is easily available due to the natural shedding of teeth [45]. In addition, primary teeth mainly form before and around birth and mineralize therefore before the onset of treatments such as bisphosphonates which accumulate within mineralized tissues. However,

the present study should be reproduced on permanent teeth in order to consolidate the results. Similarly, we focused on a population of mild OI. It would also be interesting to consolidate this study on more severe cases of OI. And it is obvious that an experimental campaign conduct on bone samples including remodeling process is necessary in a future work. The second limitation arose in the light of our results which show a deficient mineralization of the collagen matrix. A more detailed analysis of the mineral with regard to the spatial distribution and orientation of crystals in dentin at the nanoscale, [28], could have highlighted some mechanisms. **Along this line, several posttranslational modifications, such as hydroxylation of specific lysine residues, glycosylation of specific hydroxylysine residues, or formation of crosslinking were not directly investigated in the present study.**

To our knowledge, this is the first study of human dentin in OI patients without clinical manifestations of DI. This study provides experimental evidence that changes in molecular structure due to mutations in OI can be assessed by Raman microspectroscopy and may shed further light on the molecular mechanisms obtained in future molecular simulations. Our data show an increase in dentin hardness and in hydroxyproline content, which both affect collagen mineralization in OI teeth. Interestingly, the spatial gradient of the mechanical properties of dentin is preserved in OI. Our findings reinforce our hypothesis that proline and hydroxyproline **content should be taken into account in future studies on collagen-based biomaterials.** Further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms at molecular scales leading to a modification in hydroxyproline-to-proline ratio in regard of collagen mineralization. In addition, deciduous tooth evaluation could be an important aid for the mild types of OI that are often difficult to diagnose clinically.

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