

1 **Title:** The relationship between the mechanical properties of heel-pad and common clinical
2 measures associated with foot ulcers in patients with diabetes

3

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28 **Abstract:**

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30 **Aim:** The present study aims at investigating the correlation between the mechanical properties of the
31 heel-pad of people with type-2 diabetes and the clinical parameters used to monitor their health and
32 also to assess ulceration risk.

33 **Methods:** A new device for the in-vivo testing of plantar soft tissues was built and pilot-tested. This
34 device consists of an ultrasound probe connected in series with a dynamometer. Loading is applied
35 manually using a ball-screw actuator. A total of 35 volunteers with type-2 diabetes were recruited and
36 the thickness, stiffness of their heel-pads as well as the energy absorbed during loading was assessed.
37 The participants with diabetes also underwent blood tests and measurements of Ankle Brachial Index
38 and Vibration Perception Threshold.

39 **Results:** Pearson correlation analysis revealed strong correlations between triglycerides and heel-pad
40 stiffness ($r=0.675, N=27, p<0.001$) and between triglycerides and energy ($r=-0.598, N=27, p=0.002$). A
41 correlation of medium strength was found between Fasting Blood Sugar (FBS) and stiffness
42 ($r=0.408, N=29, p=0.043$).

43 **Conclusions:** People with type-2 diabetes and high levels of triglycerides and FBS are more likely to
44 have stiffer heel-pads. Increased stiffness could limit the tissues' ability to evenly distribute loads
45 making them more vulnerable to trauma and ulceration.

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48 **Keywords:** In-vivo tissue stiffness, diabetic foot, ulceration risk, ultrasound indentation, FBS,
49 Hypertriglyceridemia.

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56 **1. Introduction**

57 Recent reports indicate that approximately 15% of people with diabetes world-wide will at some stage
58 develop diabetic foot ulceration (Boulton, 2000). Indeed diabetes mellitus (type-2) is the most
59 frequent cause of non-traumatic lower-limb amputations. In the UK up to 100 people per week have a
60 limb amputated as a result of diabetes even though up to 80% of these amputations could have been
61 prevented with correct management (Diabetes UK, 2011). The severity of this fact becomes even
62 more pronounced considering that eight out of ten people die within five years of having an
63 amputation (Khanolkar et al., 2008).

64

65 Foot ulcers in people with Diabetes are multi-factorial and linked to a variety of risk factors like
66 peripheral neuropathy, vascular insufficiency and physiological measures (Crawford et al., 2007).
67 Whilst, some of the epidemiological studies demonstrate that the indicators of neuropathy like
68 impaired sensation, Vibration Perception Threshold (VPT) are predictors of ulceration (Crawford et
69 al., 2007; Frykberg et al., 1998), other studies show that peripheral vascular disease indicated by
70 Ankle Brachial Index (ABI), glycohaemoglobin (HbA_{1c}) level and duration of diabetes are the main
71 contributing factors to ulcers (Boyko et al., 2006). Although these major risk factors are known to
72 contribute to foot ulceration, it is not completely understood how they affect the mechanical
73 properties of plantar soft tissue.

74

75 From previous research, it is clear that diabetes can affect the internal structure and the mechanical
76 properties of the plantar soft tissues. Some in-vivo studies performed with age-matched groups of
77 non-diabetic and diabetic volunteers have found that diabetic plantar tissue tends to be thicker (Chao
78 et al., 2011), stiffer (Chao et al., 2011; Klaesner et al., 2002), harder (Piaggesi et al., 1999) and shows
79 higher energy dissipation ratios (i.e. the ratio of the energy-input over the energy-return after the end
80 of a load/unload cycle) (Hsu et al., 2007, 2002, 2000). On the other hand Erdemir et al. (Erdemir et
81 al., 2006) studied the mechanical behaviour of heel-pad using a novel methodology which combined
82 in-vivo testing and finite element modelling to inverse engineer the tissue's material coefficients. The

83 authors of that study found no statistically significant stiffness or thickness difference between age-
84 matched groups of people with diabetes and non-diabetic volunteers (Erdemir et al., 2006).

85

86 Despite this there is a clear paucity of studies which explore the relationship between the mechanical
87 properties of plantar soft tissue and commonly employed clinical and biochemical measures. Hsu et
88 al. (Hsu et al., 2000) found a weak correlation between the tissue's energy dissipation ratio and the
89 patient's neuropathy score measured based on 10g monofilament test. These authors also indicated a
90 strong correlation between energy dissipation ratio and the duration of diabetes.

91

92 The most popular technique for the in-vivo study of plantar soft tissues' mechanical behaviour is the
93 combined use of ultrasonography and dynamometry. Previous research have developed different
94 devices to perform in-vivo indentation (Chao et al., 2011; Erdemir et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2007, 2000;
95 Tong et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 1999) or bulk compression tests (Hsu et al., 2009; Rome et al., 1998;
96 Zheng et al., 2012). Typically, during an indentation test the plantar soft tissue is compressed between
97 the indenting device and a bony prominence. During the test the applied force is recorded using a
98 load sensor (i.e. dynamometer or load cell) and tissue deformation is measured from the ultrasound
99 images.

100

101 Given this background, the overall aim of the present study is to investigate if significant correlation
102 exists between the mechanical properties of the heel-pad of people with diabetes and the clinical
103 parameters used to monitor their health and ulceration risk.

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106 **2. Patients and method**

107 A total of seventeen (17) volunteers with no known musculoskeletal disease or diabetes (Group 1)
108 with average age $35.0(\pm 5.8)$ years, average height $158.3(\pm 9.8)$ cm and average body mass $65(\pm 14)$ Kg
109 were recruited to pilot-test the in-vivo loading procedure and produce reference data. Moreover, thirty
110 five (35) volunteers with type-2 diabetes (Group 2) with average age $54.8(\pm 9.1)$ years, average height

111 167.4(\pm 9.3) cm, average body mass 73(\pm 16) Kg and average duration of diabetes 13.9(\pm 7.8) years
112 were recruited at a diabetic referral centre to participate in this non-invasive study. The ethical
113 approval was sought and granted by the Ethics committee and all volunteers provided full informed
114 consent.

115

116 All volunteers were subjected to in-vivo mechanical tests to study the mechanical behaviour of their
117 heel-pads. The participants with diabetes also underwent blood tests, ABI and VPT measurements.
118 All tests were performed on the same day and besides the biomechanical measurements all clinical
119 and biochemical tests were part of the normal treatment plan of each volunteer. The biochemical
120 parameters measured from the blood tests included the levels of HbA_{1c}, Fasting Blood Sugar (FBS),
121 Post Prandial Blood Sugar (PPBS), Serum Creatinine, Serum Cholesterol and triglycerides. All
122 participants were screened for dry skin, callosity and ulceration and were excluded from this study if
123 they had any signs of cutaneous conditions affecting the plantar surface of the foot.

124

125 The mechanical behaviour of the heel-pad was studied using a custom made loading device (Figure
126 1). This device consists of a 13 MHz linear array ultrasound probe connected in series with a
127 dynamometer (500N Cytec, C.I.T. Technics, Centre for Innovative Technics, Netherlands) and
128 mounted on a rigid metallic frame. The footprint-area of the ultrasound probe is equal to 12.7 mm \times
129 47.1 mm. The ultrasound probe and the dynamometer are connected with a custom made probe holder
130 which is capable of gripping ultrasound probes of different sizes and shapes (Figure 1c). Different sites
131 of the foot can be tested by changing the distance of the probe from the base of the frame while
132 different planes can be imaged by rotating the probe around its central axis. Loading is applied
133 manually with the help of a ball-screw actuator by rotating a hand wheel. A complete anti-clockwise
134 revolution of the hand wheel generates 5 mm of forward movement. The metallic frame is also
135 equipped with adjustable foot supports that can rigidly fix the subject's foot.

136

137 After fixing the subject's foot on the metallic frame the ultrasound probe was rotated and pressed
138 against the plantar surface of the heel until the calcaneus was clearly visible. The calcaneus was

139 initially imaged in the antero-posterior (sagittal) plane. After identifying the medial process of the
140 calcaneal tuberosity the height of the probe was modified to shift the apex of the calcaneus at the
141 centre of the ultrasound image. The probe was then rotated by 90° and fixed to image the medio-
142 lateral (frontal) plane.

143

144 The right heel of each volunteer was subjected to five preconditioning load/unload cycles followed by
145 three measurement cycles to a maximum compressive force of 30 N. Given that the contact area
146 between the ultrasound probe and the foot was equal to 6.58 cm² the maximum applied pressure was
147 ≈55 kPa. Although this pressure may appear less than the heel pressures reported within the literature
148 during walking, due to the nature of the static position of the foot and the way that the force was
149 applied, and given that there are no baseline measurements on the direct application of any force in
150 plantar surface of the foot in diabetic patients, this magnitude was considered to be sufficient for
151 experimental purposes. The dynamometer readings and the ultrasound images were recorded during
152 loading for the last three load cycles with a sampling rate of 20 Hz. The loading rate was controlled
153 with the help of a metronome. The crank handle was rotated with an angular velocity ≈90 deg/sec
154 moving the probe with a speed of ≈1.25 mm/sec. The speed of the ultrasound probe was the same
155 during loading and unloading.

156

157 The value of the minimum bone to probe distance was measured after the end of the tests using video
158 analysis software (Kinovea open source project, www.kinovea.org). The initial heel-pad thickness
159 was measured from the first ultrasound image of the first load cycle after preconditioning (Figure 2a)
160 while tissue deformation was calculated by subtracting the minimum measured probe to bone distance
161 from the initial heel-pad thickness (Figure 2a-c). The measured forces and deformations were
162 synchronized by matching the instances of maximum deformation with those of maximum force to
163 create force/deformation curves for each one of the three cycles of loading per volunteer. The heel-
164 pad's stiffness was calculated as the slope of the final part of the force/deformation curves.
165 Furthermore the energy input during loading was calculated as the area below the force-deformation
166 curves (Figure 2d). The normalized energy and stiffness over initial thickness were also calculated.

167

168 The reliability of the testing procedure was assessed for the non-diabetic volunteers. More specifically
169 the deformation rate of each load cycle was measured and its average value and standard deviation
170 was calculated. The reproducibility of the entire testing procedure was assessed for a single
171 participant through a test-retest procedure. Moreover the impact of the heel-pad's loading history on
172 its mechanical behaviour was assessed by comparing the results for the three load cycles using paired-
173 sample t-tests.

174

175 To assess the ability of the followed methodology to differentiate between different groups of
176 volunteers the statistical significance of the differences between the results of the two groups was
177 assessed by independent-samples t-tests (statistical significance level = 0.05). The correlation between
178 the measured mechanical parameters (i.e. stiffness, normalized stiffness, energy, normalized energy
179 and thickness) and age or BMI was investigated for both groups of volunteers using Pearson
180 correlation analysis. In the case of volunteers with diabetes the correlation between the mechanical
181 parameters and the duration of diabetes, ABI, VPT, HbA_{1C}, FBS, PPBS, Serum Creatinine, Serum
182 Cholesterol and triglycerides were also included into the correlation analysis. All statistical analyses
183 were performed using IBM® SPSS®v.21.

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185

186 **3. Results**

187 The average value of the deformation rate calculated during the pilot-testing of the device was equal
188 to 0.96 mm/sec \pm 0.14 mm/sec which results in an inter-subject variability of 14%. The average intra-
189 subject variability of the deformation rate was equal to 7%. The reproducibility of the mechanical
190 measurements assessed by a test-retest procedure was 5% for tissue thickness, 4% for tissue stiffness
191 and 8% for energy. The comparison between the results from different load cycles showed that the
192 mechanical behaviour of the heel-pad was not influenced by its loading history. No statistically
193 significant difference was found between the results of different load cycles ($p > 0.05$).

194

195 The results for both groups of volunteers are presented in table 1 while representative results in terms
196 of force/normalised deformation curves are shown in figure 3. As it can be seen the heel-pads of
197 volunteers of the two groups appear to exhibit different mechanical behaviour. In quantitative terms,
198 the heel-pads of the second group had a significantly higher stiffness ($p=0.034$, two-tailed) and a
199 significantly lower energy ($p=0.007$, two-tailed). Similar results were found for the normalised
200 stiffness and energy ($p=0.001$ and $p=0.038$ respectively). The participants of Group 1 showed a 38%
201 higher energy absorbed during loading (35% higher when normalised to the initial thickness) as
202 compared to Group 2. Furthermore Group 2 showed 36% higher stiffness (38% higher normalized
203 stiffness) as compared to Group 1. No statistically significant difference was found between the
204 groups in terms of thickness ($p=0.985$, two-tailed).

205

206 The Pearson correlation analysis revealed a medium strength positive correlation between stiffness
207 and FBS ($r=0.408$, $N=29$, $p=0.043$) (Figure 4a). Strong correlations were found between the level of
208 triglycerides of the volunteers with diabetes and the mechanical measurements (Figure 4b and Figure
209 4c). More specifically strong positive correlations were found between triglycerides and stiffness
210 ($r=0.675$, $N=27$, $p<0.001$) (Figure 4b) as well as normalized stiffness ($r=0.667$, $N=27$, $p<0.001$). On
211 the other hand strong negative correlations were found between triglycerides and energy ($r=-0.598$,
212 $N=27$, $p=0.002$) (Figure 4c) and between triglycerides and the normalized energy ($r=-0.599$, $N=27$,
213 $p=0.002$).

214

215 No statistically significant correlation was found between the mechanical measurements and the
216 volunteers' age or BMI for both groups. Moreover in the case of diabetic volunteers no correlation
217 was found between the mechanical measurements and duration of diabetes, ABI, VPT and the
218 remaining biochemical parameters.

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223 **4. Discussion**

224 The present study aimed at investigating the correlation between the mechanical behaviour of heel-
225 pad and common parameters measured routinely in a clinical practice (Table 1). For this purpose a
226 custom ultrasound-based device was designed and built to load the foot and study the in-vivo
227 mechanical behaviour of plantar soft tissues. A linear array ultrasound probe with a relatively big
228 foot-print ($\approx 6\text{cm}^2$) was connected in series with a dynamometer and mounted on a rigid frame. The
229 instrumented probe could be moved in a controlled manner with the use of a ball-screw actuator to
230 load the foot.

231

232 Ultrasonography enables the in-vivo, non-invasive measurement of internal tissue deformations and
233 therefore it is ideal for the study of plantar soft tissue biomechanics. So far ultrasonography has been
234 used to perform indentation (Chao et al., 2011; Erdemir et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2007, 2000; Tong et
235 al., 2003; Zheng et al., 1999) and bulk compression tests (Hsu et al., 2009; Rome et al., 1998; Zheng
236 et al., 2012). Ultrasound indentation tests are usually performed using cylindrical or prismatic
237 indenters with footprint-area between 0.6 cm^2 (Chao et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 1999) and 4.7 cm^2
238 (Erdemir et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2007). On the other hand for bulk compression tests the foot is
239 loaded using a plate with dimensions similar or bigger than to the foot itself. The effect of the probe's
240 footprint-area on the measured stiffness of the heel-pad was investigated numerically by Spears et al.
241 (Spears and Miller-Young, 2006). They concluded that larger probes can produce more reliable and
242 robust measurements of the stiffness of the heel-pad.

243

244 Ultrasound indentation is usually performed either with the use of hand held systems or with the use
245 of custom made loading frames. In the latter, an instrumented ultrasound probe is moved either
246 manually using a linear guide or an actuator ("assisted" loading) or with the use of motorized drive
247 mechanisms ("automated" loading). The reliability of different loading techniques for ultrasound
248 indentation tests was investigated by Kawchuk et al. (Kawchuk et al., 2006). The authors of that study
249 concluded that the use of a rigid frame can significantly improve the reliability of the indentation
250 procedure compared to the use of a hand held system. However, no significant difference was found

251 for the cases of “assisted” or “automated” loading. The main disadvantage of “assisted” loading is the
252 poor control over the loading rate. Previous studies showed that this problem can be addressed using a
253 metronome (Hsu et al., 2007, 2005). In the case of the present study the use of a metronome enabled
254 the realization of load/unload cycles with a variability of 14% in terms of deformation rate.

255

256 The device presented here was used to measure the thickness and the force/deformation curve of the
257 heel-pads of 17 volunteers with no known musculoskeletal disease or diabetes and 35 volunteers with
258 type-2 diabetes. The slope of the force deformation curve as well as the area below the curve was
259 calculated to quantify heel-pad’s macroscopic response to loading. The statistical analysis of the
260 results revealed statistically significant correlations between the mechanical and clinical parameters
261 for the volunteers with diabetes. More specifically a strong positive correlation was found between the
262 level of triglycerides and the stiffness of the heel-pad as well as the energy absorbed during loading.
263 More specifically volunteers with high levels of triglycerides tended to have stiffer heel-pads that
264 absorb less energy during loading. The stiffness of the heel-pads was also correlated to the FBS with
265 higher FBS values linked to higher tissue stiffness. These results demonstrate for the first time that
266 there is a link between the biochemical profile of a person with diabetes (type-2) and the mechanical
267 behaviour of his/her plantar soft tissues. These results can have implications in assessing the risk of
268 ulceration in people with diabetes and neuropathy.

269

270 The correlation between FBS and the heel-pad stiffness found in this study can be attributed to the
271 effect of hyperglycaemia and the role of glycation on the collagen fibrils within the septal wall of the
272 plantar soft tissue (Hsu et al., 2002). Through microscopic studies of the heel-pad fragmented and
273 distorted collagen fibrils were found in the heel-pad structure of people with diabetes as compared to
274 a parallel structure of collagen fibrils in the heel-pad of non-diabetic adults (Hsu et al., 2002).

275 Although no previous study has investigated the correlation between hyperglycaemia and plantar
276 heel-pad stiffness, the results of this study can be justified by the fact that high blood sugar levels can
277 further attribute to non-enzymatic glycosylation that alter the soft tissue microscopic structure that
278 result in a stiffer heel–pad (Paul and Bailey, 1996).

279

280 Hypertriglyceridemia on the other hand is commonly seen in patients with altered carbohydrate
281 metabolism. In patients with hyperglycaemia, more so in Noninsulin-Dependent Diabetes Mellitus
282 (NIDDM), there is elevated Free Fatty Acids (FFA) which increases the levels of Very-Low-Density-
283 Lipoprotein Triglyceride (VLDL TG). Hypertriglyceridemia is an important risk factor for coronary
284 artery disease since it increases the stiffness of the blood vessels (Koniari et al., 2011). Previous
285 research has also demonstrated that the level of triglycerides affects the mechanical behaviour of
286 tendons and is linked to the formation of Achilles tendon xanthomas and increased risk of rupture
287 (Abboud et al., 2012; Beason et al., 2013). To the knowledge of the authors of the present study no
288 correlation between triglycerides' level and the mechanical behaviour of plantar soft tissues has been
289 found before. In the case of plantar soft tissues Hsu et al. (Hsu et al., 2000) found that their
290 mechanical behaviour (i.e. energy dissipation ratio) is influenced by neuropathy and the duration of
291 diabetes.

292

293 The comparison between the two groups of participants showed that Group 2 (i.e. the volunteers with
294 type-2 diabetes) had significantly higher stiffness and absorbed less energy during loading. No
295 statistically significant difference was found in terms of heel-pad thickness.

296

297 At this point it has to be stressed out that comparing between diabetic and non-diabetic populations
298 was not the main objective of this study and therefore the two groups were not age-matched. Indeed
299 the non-diabetic volunteers were recruited for the pilot testing of the device and the in-vivo
300 measurement procedure. Based on that the differences observed in terms of stiffness and energy
301 between the two groups could be caused either by aging or by diabetes or by a combination of both.
302 Indeed the average age of the volunteers of Group 1 was significantly lower than Group 2. According
303 to literature the stiffness of plantar soft tissues can increase either as a result of aging (Kwan et al.,
304 2010) or because of diabetes (Chao et al., 2011; Klaesner et al., 2002; Pai and Ledoux, 2012, 2010).
305 Similarly heel-pad thickness can also increase either as a result of ageing (Kwan et al., 2010) or
306 diabetes (Chao et al., 2011).

307

308 Although the difference in age between the control and the experimental group could be perceived as
309 a weakness of this study, based on the above the most interesting finding of the comparison between
310 the two groups of volunteers is not the difference in terms of stiffness and energy but the lack of
311 statistically significant difference in terms of thickness (even though both aging and diabetes are
312 reported to increase thickness). Future studies could possibly look at substantiating these results using
313 age/ gender matched cohort of participants.

314

315 The main limitation of the present study stems from the fact that loading was applied manually. The
316 use of a metronome gave a satisfactory control over the deformation rate at low loading speeds but the
317 application of more “dynamic” loading scenarios requires the use of an automated and motorised
318 loading system. Regardless of this limitation the in-vivo measurement technique presented here was
319 able to reveal for the first time a strong correlation between the biochemical profile of people with
320 type-2 diabetes and the mechanical behaviour of their plantar soft tissues.

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323 **Acknowledgments**

324 Funding from DiabSmart project is acknowledged. DiabSmart project was funded by the European
325 Commission, Grant Agreement Number 285985, under Industry Academia partnerships and Pathways
326 (FP7-PEOPLE-2011-IAPP). This project has a focus on development of a new generation of Diabetic
327 footwear using an integrated approach and Smart materials.

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329 **Competing interests:** None declared

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396 scanner for assessing the mechanical properties of plantar soft tissues under different
397 bodyweight loading in standing. *Med. Eng. Phys.* 34, 506–511.

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404 **Tables:**

405 Table 1: The size (N) of the two groups of volunteers, the average values and standard deviations of
 406 their age, body mass index (BMI), tissue stiffness, tissue thickness and energy absorbed during
 407 loading (energy). For group 2 the average values and standard deviations of the clinical
 408 parameters included into this study are also presented (if not otherwise indicated the sample size
 409 of a measurement is equal to group size).

410

411

| | Group 1 | Group 2 | <i>P value</i> |
|---|----------------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| Group size (M/F) | 17(5/11) | 35(27/8) | - |
| Age (y) | 38.4 ± 8.7 | 54.8 ± 9.2 | - |
| BMI | 0.260 ± 0.055 | 0.262 ± 0.049 | - |
| Duration of diabetes (y) | <i>N/A</i> | 13.9 ± 7.9 | - |
| ABI | <i>N/A</i> | 1.18 ± 0.20 | - |
| VPT (Volt) | <i>N/A</i> | 37 ± 25 | - |
| FBS (mg/dl) | <i>N/A</i> | 180 ± 86 (<i>N</i> =29) | - |
| PPBS (mg/dl) | <i>N/A</i> | 251 ± 99 (<i>N</i> =28) | - |
| HbA_{1C} (%) | <i>N/A</i> | 9.1 ± 2.6 (<i>N</i> =33) | - |
| Serum Creatinine (mg/dl) | <i>N/A</i> | 0.88 ± 0.29 (<i>N</i> =32) | - |
| Cholesterol (mg/dl) | <i>N/A</i> | 164 ± 45 (<i>N</i> =29) | - |
| Triglycerides (mg/dl) | <i>N/A</i> | 141 ± 72 (<i>N</i> =27) | - |
| Stored energy (mJ) | 34.7 ± 9.8 | 25.1 ± 9.7 | 0.002 |
| Norm. energy (mJ/mm) | 1.76±0.44 | 1.30±0.45 | 0.001 |
| Stiffness (N/mm) | 17.1 ± 6.0 | 26.6 ± 16 | 0.022 |
| Norm. Stiffness (N/mm²) | 0.89±0.37 | 1.43±0.97 | 0.038 |
| Thickness (mm) | 19.5 ± 4.7 | 19.4 ± 3.5 | 0.985 |

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423 **Figure legends:**

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425 Figure 1: The custom made device used for the in-vivo loading tests. a) Ultrasound probe, b)
426 dynamometer, c) probe holder, d) ball-screw actuator, e) hand wheel and f) foot support.

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428 Figure 2: Representative ultrasound images for the measurement of heel-pad thickness (a) and
429 deformation (a-c) and the results finally recorded after the end of each test (d), namely
430 stiffness and energy absorbed during loading.

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432 Figure 3: Representative force/ normalised-deformation curves for non-diabetic and diabetic tissues.
433 The results of all three load cycles performed for each volunteer are shown.

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435 Figure 4: Scatter-plots for the correlation between Stiffness and FBS (a) Stiffness and Triglycerides
436 (b), and Energy and Triglycerides (c).

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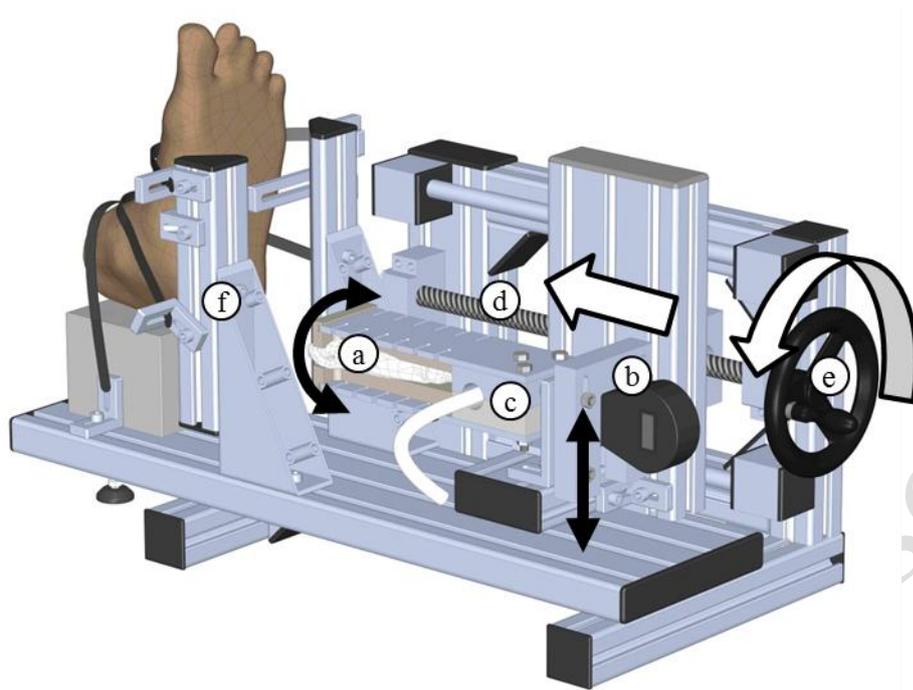
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443 **Figure 1:**



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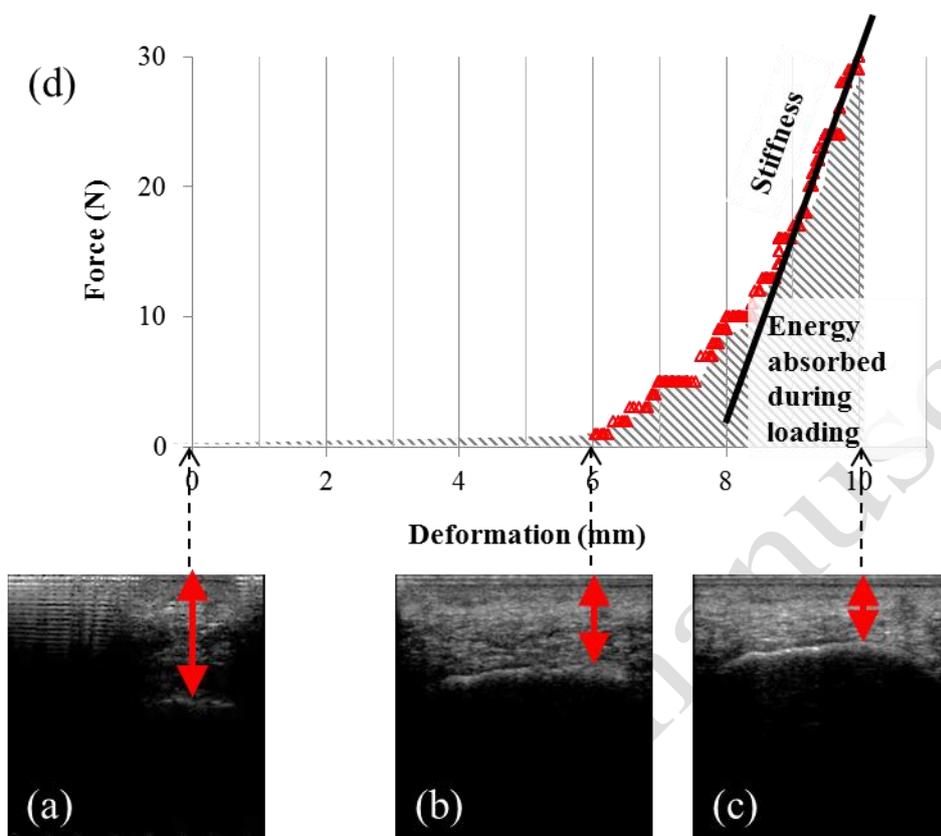
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455 Figure 2:

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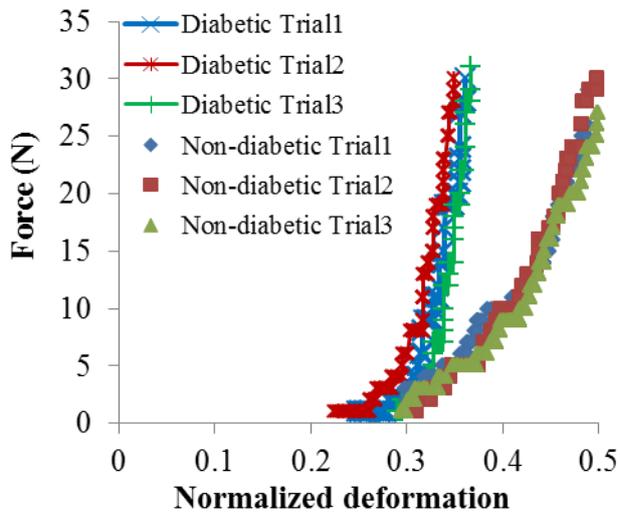
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465 **Figure 3:**



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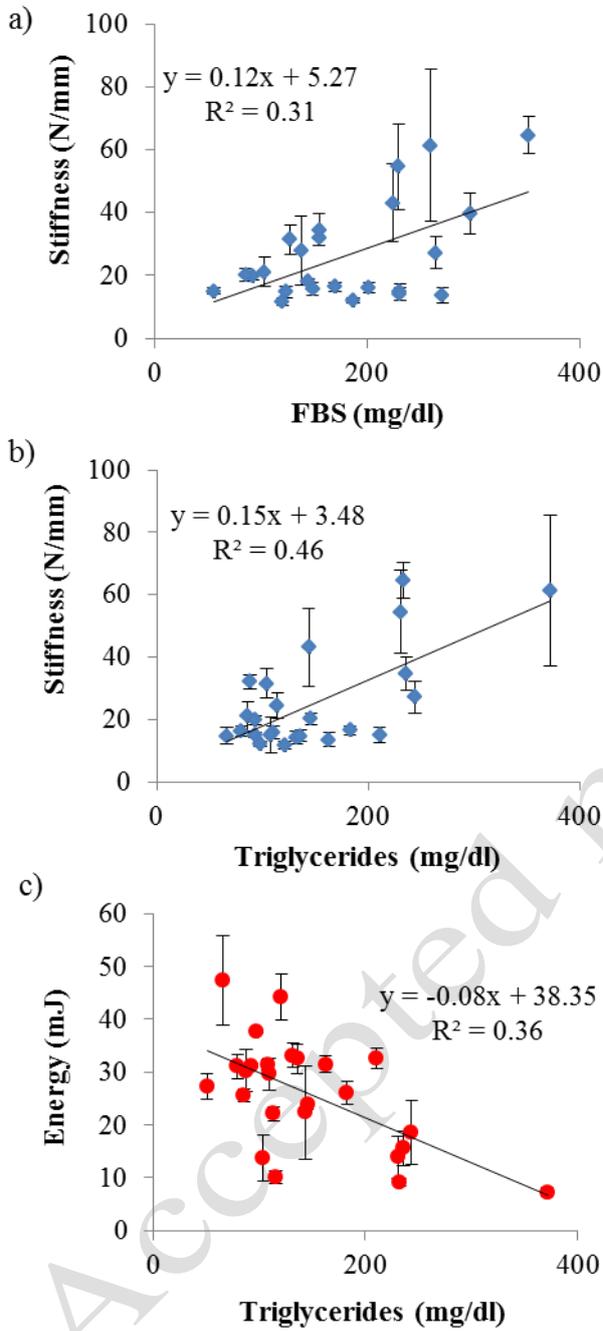
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478 **Figure 4:**



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