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1            **Biomechanical characteristics of peripheral diabetic**  
2            **neuropathy: A systematic review and meta-analysis of**  
3            **findings from the gait cycle, muscle activity and dynamic**  
4            **barefoot plantar pressure.**

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40

41 **Abstract**

42 *Background:* Diabetic peripheral neuropathy is an important cause of foot ulceration and limb loss.  
43 This systematic review and meta-analysis investigated the effect of diabetic peripheral neuropathy on  
44 gait, dynamic electromyography and dynamic plantar pressures.

45

46 *Methods:* Electronic databases were searched systematically for articles reporting the effect of  
47 diabetic peripheral neuropathy on gait, dynamic electromyography and plantar pressures. Searches  
48 were restricted to articles published between January 2000 and April 2012. Outcome measures  
49 assessed included spatiotemporal parameters, lower limb kinematics, kinetics, muscle activation and  
50 plantar pressure. Meta-analyses were carried out on all outcome measures reported by  $\geq 3$  studies.

51

52 *Findings:* Sixteen studies were included consisting of 382 neuropathy participants, 216 diabetes  
53 controls without neuropathy and 207 healthy controls. Meta-analysis was performed on 11 gait  
54 variables. A high level of heterogeneity was noted between studies. Meta-analysis results suggested a  
55 longer stance time and moderately higher plantar pressures in diabetic peripheral neuropathy patients  
56 at the rearfoot, midfoot and forefoot compared to controls. Systematic review of studies suggested  
57 potential differences in the biomechanical characteristics (kinematics, kinetics, EMG) of diabetic  
58 neuropathy patients. However these findings were inconsistent and limited by small sample sizes.

59

60 *Interpretation:* Current evidence suggests that patients with diabetic peripheral neuropathy have  
61 elevated plantar pressures and occupy a longer duration of time in the stance-phase during gait. Firm  
62 conclusions are hampered by the heterogeneity and small sample sizes of available studies.

63

64 *Key Words* – Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy, Biomechanics, Gait, Diabetes Complications, Type 2  
65 Diabetes, Type 1 Diabetes, Plantar Pressure, Electromyography, Movement analysis, Diabetic Foot,  
66 Diabetes Mellitus, Meta-analysis, Systematic Review



## 68 **1. Introduction**

69 One of the many consequences of diabetes is the onset of diabetic peripheral neuropathy (DPN)  
70 (Shenoy, 2012). The prevalence of DPN ranges from 13 to 68% in diabetes populations (van Dieren et  
71 al., 2010). Peripheral neuropathy affects the sensory, motor, and autonomic components of the  
72 nervous system, manifesting as a loss of protective sensation, intrinsic foot muscle dysfunction and  
73 anhydrosis of the foot (Shenoy, 2012). These manifestations often lead to bony deformities and high  
74 plantar pressure areas which result in skin breakdown and ulceration (Boulton et al., 2005). It is  
75 believed that the majority of diabetic foot ulcers develop as a result of the repetitive action of  
76 mechanical stress (pressure) during gait, in the presence of peripheral neuropathy or loss of protective  
77 sensation (Armstrong et al., 2004). Lower-limb amputations in people with diabetes are typically  
78 preceded by foot ulceration, suggesting that better understanding of the mechanisms of ulcer  
79 development are of vital importance (Singh et al., 2005). This includes better understanding of the  
80 biomechanical components (Formosa et al., 2013).

81

82 It has been postulated that DPN-related changes in the lower limbs may lead to functional gait  
83 variations; predominantly related to reduced range of movement of joints, reduced active muscle  
84 power and changes in gait mechanics (Andersen, 2012). The biomechanical changes resulting from  
85 DPN may translate to increased plantar pressures in the foot, which contributes to the pathogenesis  
86 and development of foot ulcers, especially in the forefoot (Van Deursen, 2004). In particular, the first  
87 metatarsophalangeal joint has been implicated as a site of biomechanical dysfunction leading to  
88 elevated plantar pressures during gait, promoting ulceration at this site (Turner et al., 2007).  
89 Therefore, we hypothesised that reductions in spatiotemporal parameters, increases in kinetics  
90 (specifically the vertical ground reaction force and joint moments), and reductions in kinematics of  
91 the lower limb (evident as restrictions in the sagittal plane) and altered dynamic electromyography  
92 (EMG) findings in those with DPN may manifest from or contribute towards altered plantar pressure  
93 loading in this population (Cavanagh et al., 2000). Therefore, this systematic review and meta-  
94 analysis aimed to assess the effect of DPN on gait (spatiotemporal parameters, joint angular kinematic

95 and kinetics), dynamic EMG (muscle activation and deactivation patterns) and dynamic barefoot  
96 plantar pressures (plantar foot pressures during gait). We sought case-control studies comparing  
97 patients with DPN to those with diabetes mellitus without neuropathy (Diabetes Mellitus Controls)  
98 (DMC) or healthy controls (HC).

99

## 100 **2. Methods**

### 101 **2.1 Literature search strategy**

102 Electronic databases (Ovid, CINAHL, PubMed, Scopus and Google Scholar) were searched  
103 systematically by the first author for articles published between January 2000 to April 2012, reporting  
104 studies on DPN in the three biomechanical areas of gait, dynamic EMG and plantar pressure. The  
105 initial search was conducted in April 2012. An additional search was conducted in January 2013 to  
106 ensure any further articles were also assessed for inclusion prior to publication. No new articles were  
107 found. Search results were restricted to articles published between January 2000 and January 2013.  
108 Publications prior to the twenty first century were not included to restrict the focus of the review to  
109 the most recent findings from studies which assessed gait using current technology, which is more  
110 reliable and comprehensive. This is especially true in relation to three dimensional joint angular  
111 kinematic analysis which was introduced at around this time (Sutherland, 2001, Sutherland, 2002,  
112 Sutherland, 2005). The following keywords and MeSH headings were used:

113 #1 Gait AND diabetes

114 #2 electromyograph\* AND diabetes

115 #3 EMG AND diabetes

116 #4 biomechanic\* AND diabetes

117 #5 kinematic AND diabetes

118 #6 plantar pressure AND diabetes

119 #7 (diabetes MeSH) AND 1# AND 2# AND 3# AND 4# AND # 5

120 #8 (diabetic foot MeSH) AND 1# AND 2# AND 3# AND 4# AND # 5

121 #9 (diabetic neuropathy MeSH) AND 1# AND 2# AND 3# AND 4# AND # 5

122

## 123 **2.2 Selection of studies**

124 The titles and abstracts retrieved from the initial database search were screened by the first author  
125 utilising the question ‘Did the study investigate one of the three biomechanical areas of interest?’ The  
126 full text was obtained for articles that remained relevant after the initial screening. One of the authors  
127 then reviewed the full text for the final decision on inclusion utilising the entry criteria. All articles  
128 meeting these initial criteria had their full-texts retrieved and were then further evaluated by two  
129 authors (MF and RC) using the inclusion and exclusion criteria below. All studies meeting the  
130 exclusion criteria were removed from the review.

131 The inclusion criteria were:

- 132 1. Studies published between 2000 and 2012;
- 133 2. Studies in English language;
- 134 3. Studies reporting findings in clearly identified DPN groups in comparison to a DMC and/or a  
135 HC group using eligible inclusion and/or screening criteria;
- 136 4. Studies investigating barefoot walking. Barefoot investigations were chosen over shod as this  
137 was thought to provide insight into biomechanical parameters without the influence of shoes;
- 138 5. Studies in adult populations ( $\geq 18$  years old);
- 139 6. Study reported findings for at least 1 outcome measure of interest in the review.

140

141 Exclusion criteria were:

- 142 1. Any study investigating participants gait, EMG or plantar pressure while wearing shoes,  
143 inserts or orthotic devices;
- 144 2. Any study which included current or past diabetes foot ulcer participants as a part of their  
145 DPN or DMC groups;



- 146 3. Studies that investigated movement on a treadmill;
- 147 4. Studies where reported outcome measures were not comparable with at least one outcome
- 148 measure of interest and could not be converted;
- 149 5. Studies where authors were unable to provide datasets or outcome variables that were
- 150 compatible for comparison (mean and standard deviation, SD), in place of missing data.

151

### 152 **2.3 Outcome measures**

153 Studies were included in the review if they reported at least one of the following outcome measures:

- 154 1. Spatiotemporal- walking speed (m/s) with or without stride length (m);
- 155 2. Kinetics- reported findings on net moments of force (flexion and extension) for at least one
- 156 lower limb joint (ankle, knee or hip) and/or reported ground reaction force at initial contact
- 157 and/or toe-off as separate values;
- 158 3. Kinematics- reported range of motion (ROM) findings for at least one lower limb joint (ankle,
- 159 knee or hip) in both flexion and extension directions;
- 160 4. EMG- activation and deactivation durations of any lower limb muscle during walking in %
- 161 stance or % gait cycle;
- 162 5. Plantar pressure- reported on at least one site at the rearfoot or midfoot or forefoot or in any
- 163 other plantar location in either peak plantar pressure (MPP) or pressure time integral (PTI) or
- 164 both.

165

### 166 **2.4 Assessment of methodological quality of studies**

167 Two assessors (MF and PL) independently evaluated the quality of the studies utilising a modified

168 version of the quality assessment tool by Downs and Black (Downs and Black, 1998). The criteria

169 within the tool which were not applicable to the studies included in this review were omitted from the

170 analysis (see Table 1). The total quality scores were reported as an average score between the two

171 assessors. As a simplified version of the quality assessment instrument tool by Downs and Black

172 (Downs and Black, 1998) was utilised, the original scoring system for the tool was scaled according  
173 to a total score of 18. Therefore, a score of  $\leq 7$  was considered low quality, 8-11 as fair quality and  
174  $>11$  as good quality.

175

## 176 **2.5 Data extraction and reporting**

177 Data extraction was performed by the first author with assistance from a statistician (PB) for data  
178 analysis. Data were entered into tables for ease of comparison and grouping of variables. Only studies  
179 that reported the outcome measures of interest were used in the statistical analysis that followed.  
180 Descriptive characteristics of participants (age, gender, body mass index, BMI), entry criteria for  
181 diagnosis of DPN, site of participant recruitment, exclusion criteria used by study and diabetes  
182 duration of groups were recorded. Where data were missing or unreported, authors from the studies  
183 were contacted in an attempt to obtain or clarify results. Where authors did not reply, the studies were  
184 excluded from the review. The MOOSE guidelines for reporting meta-analysis of observational  
185 studies were utilised in the synthesis of this review (Stroup et al., 2000).

186

## 187 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

188 Where possible, data were transformed into standardised units of measure for comparison and for  
189 statistical analysis. Means (weighted by sample size of the study) were calculated for the reported  
190 demographic variables. Meta-analysis was carried out on individual outcome measures when more  
191 than three studies reported on the particular individual outcome measure. Difference in mean values  
192 divided by pooled SD was used to compute effect size, utilising Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988).  
193 Heterogeneity of studies was calculated using the Q-statistic and  $I^2$  statistic. Results were reported as  
194 standardised mean differences with 95% confidence intervals and p values. In addition to this, the  
195 classic fail safe N was also computed, as this gives an estimation of studies needed to be published  
196 with a null effect to renounce the effects from the meta-analysis (Persaud, 1996). For purposes of

197 analysis, a Cohen's d score of zero was interpreted as no difference in effect; a result of 0 to 0.2 was  
198 interpreted as a small effect; 0.2-0.5 as a medium effect; and  $\geq 0.8$  as a large effect (McGough and  
199 Faraone, 2009). All statistical analyses were carried out by a statistician (PB).

200

## 201 **3. Results**

### 202 *3.1 Search yield*

203 Figure 1 outlines the process and results of each step of the literature search. Overall, 1813 unique  
204 records were originally identified. However, 1800 articles were excluded for a variety of reasons, such  
205 as inappropriate study design, use of inappropriate comparison groups, unsuitable methods used in  
206 data capture, lack of neuropathy classification, missing data, irrelevant data or because data were  
207 unable to be acquired from authors. Thus 13 articles remained eligible for inclusion. Three extra  
208 articles were located by hand searching reference lists of included articles. Therefore, 16 articles were  
209 included in the review. Several studies reported on more than one focus area. Gait findings  
210 (spatiotemporal parameters, kinematics and kinetics) were reported in ten studies. Dynamic EMG  
211 results were reported in three studies and barefoot dynamic plantar pressure in seven studies. Table 2  
212 displays a summary of the characteristics of participants in included studies.

213

### 214 *3.2 Study quality*

215 Although there were minor differences in ratings between quality assessors for studies, the overall  
216 agreement between quality assessors was good. There were no studies which had a score  $\leq 7$  and  
217 therefore seven studies were of fair quality (8-11) and nine studies were of good quality ( $>11$ )  
218 according to the quality assessment instrument (Downs and Black, 1998). The main difference  
219 between the studies that achieved a good quality compared to a fair quality was the reporting of actual  
220 probability values (i.e.  $P = 0.004$ ) rather than approximate values (i.e.  $P < 0.05$ ) along with a more  
221 comprehensive list of confounding variables. Additionally, the 'good quality' studies described the  
222 demographic and recruitment sites of the participants in detail and reported the populations of  
223 recruitment for groups as being the same or different. This information is important for assessing the

224 external and internal validity of studies. The majority of ‘good quality’ studies also used a means of  
225 adjustment for confounding with or without using multiple regression analysis.

226

227 None of the studies reported sample size calculations. All except two studies had clear aims (Sawacha  
228 et al., 2012a, Sawacha et al., 2012b). All studies differed in reporting of confounding variables,  
229 especially pertaining to biomechanical outcomes. Important confounders of relevance included  
230 diabetes duration, severity of DPN, presence of foot deformity, BMI, gender and presence of  
231 claudication pain or presence of peripheral arterial disease (PAD) affecting gait. One study (Melai et  
232 al., 2011) did not report any major confounders. One study did not provide random estimates of  
233 variability in their manuscript, however this was found in the supplementary material (Sawacha et al.,  
234 2012a). It was difficult to ascertain whether or not the recruited samples were representative of the  
235 source population in most studies, however some studies stated the recruitment strategy clearly. Only  
236 one study commented on the number of participants who accepted and rejected invitation for the study  
237 as part of the external validity assessment (Savelberg et al., 2009). Lastly, only one study reported on  
238 time frames for recruitment, as it was a part of a larger study (Caselli et al., 2002). For other studies  
239 this could not be determined.

240

### 241 **3.3 Participant characteristics**

242 There were 382 DPN participants (cases) in total from the 16 included studies. The mean group size  
243 was 25.5 and ranged from 8 to 76 participants. The age range of participants in the DPN group was 54  
244 to 69 years with a weighted mean age of 61 years. The majority (55%) of subjects were males with a  
245 BMI of 24 to 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (weighted mean 28 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). The weighted mean diabetes duration in the DPN  
246 group was 15.2 (range 12 to 27) years.

247

248 Studies utilised a variety of participant recruitment sources including community outpatient settings  
249 (8/16), hospital settings (3/16), volunteers (2/16), previous studies (1/16) or unspecified (2/16).

250 Thirteen studies utilised HC groups for comparison which were recruited on a voluntary basis from

251 the community or through hospital staff. Nine studies (9/16) used DMC groups usually recruited from  
252 the same setting as DPN patients. A summary of the recruitment methods can be found in Table 3.

253

254 Table 3 presents screening criteria for the diagnosis of DPN and population source of samples used in  
255 each study as well as additional exclusion criteria used. A range of methods were used in the  
256 diagnosis of DPN in different studies. Eleven studies utilised a validated screening tool to assess  
257 sensory neuropathy. The most commonly used was the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument  
258 (MNSI). A few studies used only clinical assessment (4/16) and one study utilised nerve conduction  
259 testing to assess both motor and sensory neuropathy (Yavuzer et al., 2006). All studies disqualified  
260 patients with previous or current diabetes foot ulcers from inclusion in the DPN group and excluded  
261 those with additional orthopaedic and neurological conditions, rheumatological conditions and  
262 disabilities which produce walking constraints. Two studies excluded participants with PAD, assessed  
263 on clinical examination or with ankle brachial pressure index (ABPI) values  $<0.85$  (Uccioli et al.,  
264 2001, Guldmond et al., 2008). Two studies did not specify exclusion criteria (Sawacha et al., 2009a,  
265 Caselli et al., 2002).

266

267 The DMC group comprised of 216 participants with a mean sample size of 24. The age of patients  
268 was 50 to 64 years with a weighted mean age of 57 years. The BMI of this group ranged from 25 to  
269  $30 \text{ kg/m}^2$  with a weighted mean of  $28 \text{ kg/m}^2$ . The majority of participants were male (50%) and the  
270 total diabetes duration was lower than for the DPN group; ranging from 8 to 23 years and with a  
271 weighted mean of 14 years. The HC group comprised of 207 participants with a mean sample size of  
272 15.9. The age of participants ranged from 46 to 68 years with a weighted mean age of 58 years. The  
273 majority of HC participants were male (53%) with a BMI range between 24 and  $29 \text{ kg/m}^2$  and with a  
274 weighted mean BMI of  $25 \text{ kg/m}^2$ . The findings from the studies are reported in their respective  
275 sections below and in Tables 4-8. Meta-analysis was carried out for 11 separate gait variables (Table  
276 9). Forest-plots of all significant meta-analyses can be found as additional figures (Figures 2-9).

277

278

279 **3.5 Spatiotemporal parameters**

280 There was a marked difference in the walking speeds reported amongst the three groups in different  
281 studies (Table 4). Three studies reported that DPN participants walked slower than HC subjects  
282 (Gomeset al., 2011, Sawacha et al., 2009b, Savelberg et al., 2010) and two studies reported slower  
283 walking speeds in the DPN group compared to the DMC patients (Savelberg et al., 2010, Sawacha et  
284 al., 2012b). However, two studies reported DPN participants walked faster than both HC and DMC  
285 groups (Savelberg et al., 2009a, Yavuzer et al., 2006).

286

287 Meta-analysis results combining data from studies for walking speed (DPN group vs. DMC group and  
288 DPN group vs. HC group) and stride length (DPN group vs. DMC group) between the three groups  
289 demonstrated no significant difference in walking speed and stride length. There was also a high level  
290 of heterogeneity present. Two studies reported stride length findings for the DPN group compared to  
291 the HC group and both studies reported lower values in DPN patients (Sawacha et al., 2009,  
292 Savelberg et al., 2010).

293

294 One study reported stance phase duration as a percentage of the gait cycle (Sawacha et al., 2012b).  
295 These findings were consistent with the above findings suggesting DPN patients had longer  
296 percentage duration in the stance phase of gait (Table 4). Meta-analysis combining data from three  
297 studies (DPN n=54, DMC n=51) suggested that patients with DPN had a longer stance time at a  
298 moderate effect level (standardised mean difference 0.54, 95% CI 0.15-0.93;  $P=0.006$ ). The  
299 heterogeneity between studies was minimal  $I^2=0$ .

300

301 **3.6 Kinematics**

302 Only one study reported on kinematics at the hip, knee and ankle in both extension and flexion  
303 directions (Table 5) (Gomes et al., 2011). While DPN participants exhibited greater hip flexion

304 (degrees) when compared to HC subjects, the DPN participants also demonstrated reduced hip  
305 extension, knee flexion and knee extension when compared to the HC group. Both maximum ankle  
306 plantar flexion and ankle dorsiflexion were reduced in DPN participants when compared to the HC  
307 group. Meta-analysis was not possible for these results.

308

### 309 **3.7 Kinetics**

310 Five studies reported kinetic variables (Yavuzer et al., 2006a, Savelberg et al., 2009b, Sawacha et al.,  
311 2012a, Uccioli et al., 2001, Saura et al., 2010) (Tables 5 and 6). Two studies reported on the force  
312 generation components at the ankle, knee and hip (Savelberg et al., 2009c, Yavuzer et al., 2006)  
313 (Table 6). According to one study, both the braking and propelling forces were reduced in the DPN  
314 group compared to both DMC and HC groups (Savelberg et al., 2009b). Both the first maximum  
315 support moment and mid stance minimal support moment were elevated in DPN participants  
316 compared to the DMC and HC groups; however the second maximum support moment was slightly  
317 higher in the DMC group when compared to DPN patients (Savelberg et al., 2009b).

318

319 The results for maximum ankle plantar flexion moment were inconsistent. One study reported a  
320 higher value in DPN patients compared to controls (Savelberg et al., 2009b); while another study  
321 reported a lower value in DPN patients when compared to HC subjects (Yavuzer et al., 2006). Results  
322 for knee extension moments were also inconsistent. One study reported reduced extension moments in  
323 DPN patients (Savelberg et al., 2009b) and another higher extension moments in DPN patients when  
324 compared to both the DMC and HC groups (Yavuzer et al., 2006). However, both studies reported  
325 greater knee flexion moment in the DPN group compared to both the DMC and HC groups (Savelberg  
326 et al., 2009c, Yavuzer et al., 2006) (Table 6).

327

328 According to a single study, the hip extension moment was greater in the DPN group when compared  
329 to both control groups (Savelberg et al., 2009b). According to both studies, the hip flexion moment  
330 was also reduced in DPN patients compared to both controls (Savelberg et al., 2009b, Yavuzer et al.,  
331 2006).

332

333 Meta-analysis was only possible for the vertical GRF (first peak) at initial contact. Although reported  
334 vertical GRF were higher in DPN patients compared to both HC and DMC groups, the results from  
335 the meta-analysis were statistically insignificant with a high level of heterogeneity. Meta-analysis was  
336 not possible for vertical GRF at toe-off (second peak) (Table 5). However, one study reported a higher  
337 vertical GRF value in DPN patients at toe-off (Saura et al., 2010) and another a lower value (Yavuzer  
338 et al., 2006).

339

### 340 **3.8 Dynamic EMG**

341 Muscle activation was reported for several different lower limb muscle groups (Table 7). Two studies  
342 reported findings as % stance phase ((Akashi et al., 2008, GOMES et al., 2011) and one study as %  
343 gait cycle (Sawacha et al., 2012b). Three studies reported the duration of activity of the tibialis  
344 anterior muscle (Sawacha et al., 2012b, Akashi et al., 2008, Gomes et al., 2011). Meta-analysis  
345 suggested a non-significant longer duration of muscle activity in the tibialis anterior muscle in DPN  
346 patients when compared to the HC group.

347

348 Meta-analysis was not possible for the other muscle groups due to lack of studies. However,  
349 according to two studies, the lateral gastrocnemius muscle had reduced duration of activity in DPN  
350 patients (% stance phase) when compared to the HC group (Akashi et al., 2008, Sawacha et al.,  
351 2012b). On the contrary, assessment of the vastus lateralis muscle suggested a longer duration of  
352 activation in DPN patients when compared to the HC group (Akashi et al., 2008, Gomes et al., 2011).



353 There were conflicting results from two studies which assessed activity of the peroneus longus muscle  
354 (Table 7). One study reported reduced duration of muscle activation in DPN patients (% stance phase)  
355 compared to the HC group; and another study reported longer duration (% gait cycle) in DPN patients  
356 compared to both HC and DMC groups.

357

358 The findings from the assessment of the gluteus medius muscle, rectus femoris muscle and medial  
359 gastrocnemius muscles were from single studies and are highlighted in Table 7. Both gluteus medius  
360 and rectus femoris muscles were reported to have reduced duration of activity (Sawacha et al.,  
361 2012b), whilst the medial gastrocnemius was reported to have longer duration of activity (Gomes et  
362 al., 2011) in DPN patients.

363

### 364 **3.9 Plantar Pressure (*Peak Pressure and Pressure time Integral*)**

365 Six studies reported plantar pressure data of interest ((Melai et al., 2011, Guldemond et al., 2008,  
366 Bacarin et al., 2009, Sacco et al., 2009, Caselli et al., 2002, Sawacha et al., 2012a) (Table 8). The  
367 majority of studies reported plantar pressure as MPP while three studies reported PTI (Melai et al.,  
368 2011, Bacarin et al., 2009, Sacco et al., 2009).

369

370 Meta-analysis combining data from three studies (DPN n=108, HC n= 55) suggested patients with  
371 DPN had elevated plantar pressure (both MPP and PTI) at the rearfoot at moderate effect levels (MPP  
372 standardised mean difference 0.45, 95% CI 0.09-0.82  $P \leq 0.001$ ,  $I^2=7.0$ ; and PTI standardised mean  
373 difference 0.40, 95% CI 0.05-0.75  $p=0.02$   $I^2=0$ ). Both results contained minimal heterogeneity. Meta-  
374 analysis results for MPP at the rearfoot were insignificant for DPN patients when compared to DMC  
375 patients (Table 9).

376

377 Meta-analysis results for the midfoot (DPN n=108, HC n= 55, combining three studies) revealed  
378 greater MPP and PTI in DPN patients (MPP standardised mean difference 0.72, 95% CI 0.37-1.08  
379  $P \leq 0.001$   $I^2=0$ ; and PTI standardised mean difference 0.50, 95% CI 0.15-0.85  $p=0.005$   $I^2=7.0$ ). There  
380 was minimal heterogeneity between studies.

381

382 Meta-analysis for plantar pressure at the forefoot (DPN n=177, DMC n= 102, HC n= 55, combining  
383 three studies) demonstrated greater MPP in the forefoot of DPN patients at moderate effect levels  
384 compared to the HC group (standardised mean difference 0.55, 95% CI 0.20-0.90  $p=0.002$   $I^2=0$ ) and  
385 DMC group (standardised mean difference 0.51, 95% CI 0.24-0.78  $P \leq 0.001$   $I^2=10.1$ ) respectively.  
386 Furthermore, meta-analysis for PTI at the forefoot (DPN n=177, HC n= 55, combining three studies)  
387 suggested that forefoot PTI was also elevated in DPN patients at moderate effect levels (standardised  
388 mean difference 0.66, 95% CI 0.31-1.02;  $P \leq 0.001$ ;  $I^2=0$ ). There was minimal heterogeneity between  
389 studies. Meta-analysis results for the hallux (MPP and PTI) comparing plantar pressure between the  
390 three groups revealed non-significant differences (Table 9).

391

392 Findings from two studies suggested MPP at the plantar aspect of the first metatarsophalangeal joint  
393 was higher in the DPN group compared to the DMC group (Guldemon et al., 2008, Melai et al.,  
394 2011), while results from one study suggested MPP at the plantar aspect of the first  
395 metatarsophalangeal joint was higher in DPN patients compared to the HC group (Melai et al., 2011).  
396 According to a single study, the PTI values were higher in DPN patients compared to both DMC and  
397 HC groups (Melai et al., 2011). However, according to the same study, there was a lower PTI and  
398 MPP for the DPN group in the lesser toes compared to both control groups (Melai et al., 2011) (Table  
399 7).

400

401

402

#### 403 **4. Discussion**

404 To the best of the authors' knowledge this is the first systematic review and meta-analysis of studies  
405 investigating the gait cycle, muscle activation and plantar pressure exclusively in DPN patients  
406 compared to DMC and HC groups. The aim of this review and meta-analysis was to assess the gait  
407 dissimilarities between DPN, DMC and HC subjects in relation to spatiotemporal, kinetic, kinematic,  
408 EMG and plantar pressure variables. Our findings, within the limitations of the review, indicate gait  
409 differences in DPN patients when compared with DMC and HC subjects, likely resulting from  
410 sensory and motor neuropathy (Kovac et al., 2011, Andersen, 2012). The primary advantage of  
411 relating both HC and DMC groups to DPN patients was the ability to appreciate subtle differences  
412 within each group for comparison and contrast. However, it must be emphasised that there was a high  
413 level of heterogeneity for most variables between studies as highlighted by the Q and I<sup>2</sup> statistics. This  
414 high level of heterogeneity was also evident in other systematic reviewers investigating plantar  
415 pressures in similar patient groups (Monteiro-Soares et al., 2012, Crawford et al., 2007).

416

417 DPN is a significant complication of diabetes and accounts for significant morbidity and mortality  
418 (Boulton, 1998, Cook and Simonson, 2012). The primary risk factor for DPN is hyperglycaemia as it  
419 leads to increased oxidative stress, production of advanced glycation end products, increased polyol  
420 pathway flux and protein kinase C activation. All these factors are believed to contribute to micro-  
421 vascular disease and nerve dysfunction (Park et al., 2004). The end result of DPN can be catastrophic  
422 for patients, as this leads to foot ulceration and increased risk of limb amputation, significant  
423 healthcare costs, reduced quality of life and reduced mobility (Price, 2004, Boulton, 2005, Singh et  
424 al., 2005). Therefore, understanding the impact of DPN on the biomechanical aspects of human  
425 locomotion is clinically important (Formosa et al., 2013).

426

427 We hypothesised that spatiotemporal parameters would be significantly reduced in DPN patients  
428 compared to both controls. The majority of reported findings indicated that DPN patients walked  
429 slower and had reduced stride length when compared to both DMC and HC groups, however, meta-  
430 analysis results were statistically insignificant. The only significant finding was that DPN patients  
431 expended a longer period of time in the stance phase compared to DMC subjects. We hypothesised  
432 that the force generation at the hip, knee and ankle would be significantly increased for both flexion  
433 and extension moments in participants with DPN. There were insufficient studies to carry out meta-  
434 analysis and the two studies which reported findings demonstrated conflicting results. Regardless of  
435 the fact that one study utilised a significantly younger HC group, the differences between studies  
436 could not be solely explained by a difference in the age groups (Yavuzer et al., 2006). Irrespective of  
437 this, increased knee flexion moment in the DPN group was reported by both studies, emphasising that  
438 greater force generation may occur during knee flexion in DPN patients. This finding suggests the  
439 possibility that knee flexion might be an important compensation strategy in patients with DPN, as the  
440 motor component of DPN manifests in a stocking and glove distribution and affects the distal joints  
441 first (Tesfaye and Selvarajah, 2012).

442

443 The first maximum support moment (combination of extensor moments at hip, knee and ankle)  
444 (Winter, 1980) was higher in the DPN group when compared to the DMC and HC groups (Savelberg  
445 et al., 2009). Although reported in a single study, this suggests combined forces at the hip; knee and  
446 ankle during the stance phase are greater in DPN patients compared to both control subjects  
447 (Savelberg et al., 2009). Further studies are needed to confirm this finding.

448

449 Even though meta-analysis of the vertical GRF demonstrated that DPN patients had a higher initial  
450 contact force than DMC and HC subjects, the level of heterogeneity in studies was high and the meta-  
451 analysis results statistically insignificant. It was anticipated that DPN patients would exhibit higher  
452 GRF due to neurological deficit and reduced proprioception but the current findings fail to support

453 this hypothesis. Similarly, we hypothesised that participants with DPN would exhibit reductions in  
454 joint ROM at the hip, knee and ankle during gait, as a result of motor neuropathy (Andersen, 2012).  
455 There were few studies investigating lower limb kinematics of DPN patients during locomotion to  
456 investigate this hypothesis. One study (Sawacha et al., 2012a) reported kinematic variables of the  
457 foot which were outside the scope of this review and were not included. Therefore, current findings  
458 for joint angle kinematics were drawn from one publication investigating barefoot lower limb  
459 kinematics (Gomes et al., 2011). With the exception of hip flexion, the findings demonstrated reduced  
460 ROM in DPN patients compared to HC subjects. This finding was consistent with our hypothesis. A  
461 higher proportion of hip flexion is also another possible compensatory mechanism to increase stability  
462 in the gait strategy of DPN patients. Increased hip flexion could also be a compensatory mechanism to  
463 adjust for impaired ankle dorsiflexion in patients with DPN. We did not directly examine this  
464 possibility in the current review. Further studies are needed to clarify the cause of greater joint force  
465 in knee flexion and greater degree of hip flexion in patients that have DPN.

466

467 Dynamic EMG data suggested that the tibialis anterior muscle remained active for a longer duration  
468 of time in DPN patients compared to HC subjects. Meta-analysis suggested that this finding was not  
469 statistically significant and demonstrated a high level of heterogeneity. Therefore, it was difficult to  
470 ascertain whether this was consistent with our hypothesis of altered muscle activity duration in DPN  
471 participants due to mis-firing and reduction in neural pathways associated with muscle recruitment  
472 and deactivation. It was also challenging to explain the shorter duration of activity of the lateral  
473 gastrocnemius muscle and longer duration of activity of the vastus lateralis muscle and the various  
474 reported findings of other muscle groups from individual studies. It seems that there are clear  
475 differences in muscle activation between DPN, DM and HC subjects; however the findings from  
476 previous studies were not consistent. It could be possible that these observations were due to changes  
477 in action potential amplitude and inconsistency in the number of motor units recruited during EMG  
478 measurement of lower limb muscle activation in DPN patients, however there is currently insufficient  
479 data to support this theory. As hypothesised, the meta-analysis results suggested that DPN participants

480 have higher dynamic plantar pressures at rearfoot, midfoot and forefoot sites when compared to  
481 controls. However, there were insufficient studies to carry out a meta-analysis of data collected at the  
482 hallux and lesser toe joints and the results from studies were highly contradictory.

483

484 Previous reviews have highlighted gait differences in patients that have diabetes mellitus, but have not  
485 concentrated on DPN as the main focus (Wrobel and Najafi, 2010, Allet et al., 2008). The limitations  
486 of this review were the small number of included studies, the small number of participants in included  
487 studies, the high level of heterogeneity between studies, the investigation of barefoot measurements  
488 only, the exclusion of kinematic data of the foot and the language limitation to studies written in  
489 English.

490

491 We can conclude from the current level of evidence that the only biomechanical factors that seems  
492 significantly different in DPN patients compared to DMC and HC groups are elevated plantar  
493 pressure and longer stance time, illustrated by moderate effect sizes from standardised mean  
494 differences. Therefore, it is probable that elevated plantar pressure coupled with a longer period of  
495 time spent in stance in DPN patients contributes to the susceptibility for skin damage through  
496 prolonged mechanical load on tissue, leading to skin break-down and ulceration (van Dieren et al.,  
497 2010). Although it is possible that reduced spatiotemporal parameters, elevated vertical GRF, longer  
498 muscle duration and reduced joint kinematics contribute to foot ulceration; the current knowledge  
499 base is insufficient for firm conclusions. There were significant discrepancies between studies  
500 reporting findings. Our observations were similar to that of Allet et al and Wrobel and colleagues  
501 (Allet et al., 2008, Wrobel and Najafi, 2010).

502

503 While all studies in this review utilised procedures for diagnosing DPN in participants, only two  
504 studies excluded patients with PAD. PAD has been reported to have significant effects on walking

505 patterns (Crowther et al., 2007, Crowther et al., 2008). The BMI of all three groups were similar and it  
506 is unlikely that this accounted for any difference in gait variables. The mean diabetes duration  
507 between DPN and DMC subjects was not significantly different in the studies included. It has been  
508 hypothesised that DPN can manifest in people with a diabetes duration greater than 10 years, as it  
509 does in those with poor glycaemic control (Oguejiofor et al., 2010, Kovac et al., 2011, Valensi et al.,  
510 1997). In addition, small foot muscle atrophy resulting from the effects of hyperglycaemia and small  
511 nerve damage have also been confirmed in diabetes patients utilising MRI, before DPN becomes  
512 clinically detectable (Greenman et al., 2005). Therefore, these factors may also influence gait findings  
513 in DMC groups when compared to DPN patients. This could be a possible explanation for the similar  
514 results in DPN and DMC subjects and lack of statistical significance. However, the scope of this  
515 review was also dependent on the sample sizes of original studies, and thus, reported statistical  
516 insignificant differences may have been due to lack of power.

517

518 There is paucity in biomechanical literature investigating the effects of DPN on barefoot gait  
519 parameters, particularly in relationship to the effects of severe neuropathy resulting in foot lesions and  
520 its effect on human locomotion. The clinical ramifications from this systematic review are limited due  
521 to the high level of heterogeneity and statistically insignificant results from the meta-analyses.  
522 However, it was evident that patients with DPN demonstrated greater overall dynamic plantar  
523 pressure and forefoot plantar pressure (both MPP and PTI) compared to patients without DPN.  
524 Patients with DPN also expended a longer duration of time in the stance phase. Both findings  
525 potentially contribute towards ulceration in patients with DPN. Other biomechanical findings were  
526 less clear and we therefore encourage future biomechanical studies in DPN to assess factors such as  
527 lower limb angular kinematics, kinetics and EMG and to adjust for variables such as PAD,  
528 claudication pain and history of foot ulcers in selection of participants with DPN as these factors are  
529 highly likely to influence walking patterns.

530

531 **Conclusion**

532 Current evidence from the literature indicates DPN patients exhibit significantly elevated plantar  
533 pressures and occupy a longer duration of time in stance phase during gait compared to controls. We  
534 encourage future biomechanical studies in DPN to assess factors such as lower limb angular  
535 kinematics, kinetics and EMG.

536

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543

544 **Conflicts of interest**

545 The authors wish to declare no relevant conflicts of interest.

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