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# Effect of rocker shoe design features on forefoot plantar pressures in people with and without diabetes

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1 **Title: Effect of rocker shoe design features on forefoot plantar pressures in people with**  
2 **and without diabetes**

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14

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19 **Abstract**

20 *Background*

21 There is no consensus on the precise rocker shoe outsole design that will optimally reduce  
22 plantar pressure in people with diabetes. This study aimed to understand how peak plantar  
23 pressure is influenced by systematically varying three design features which characterise a  
24 curved rocker shoe: apex angle, apex position and rocker angle.

25 *Methods*

26 A total of 12 different rocker shoe designs, spanning a range of each of the three design  
27 features, were tested in 24 people with diabetes and 24 healthy participants. Each subject also  
28 wore a flexible control shoe. Peak plantar pressure, in four anatomical regions, was recorded  
29 for each of the 13 shoes during walking at a controlled speed.

30 *Findings*

31 There were a number of significant main effects for each of the three design features,  
32 however, the precise effect of each feature varied between the different regions. The results  
33 demonstrated maximum pressure reduction in the 2nd-4<sup>th</sup> metatarsal regions (39%) but that  
34 lower rocker angles (<20°) and anterior apex positions (> 60% shoe length) should be  
35 avoided for this region. The effect of apex angle was most pronounced in the 1<sup>st</sup>  
36 metatarsophalangeal region with a clear decrease in pressure as the apex angle was increased  
37 to 100°.

38 *Interpretation*

39 We suggest that an outsole design with a 95° apex angle, apex position at 60% of shoe length  
40 and 20° rocker angle may achieve an optimal balance for offloading different regions of the

41 forefoot. However, future studies incorporating additional design feature combinations, on  
42 high risk patients, are required to make definitive recommendations.

43 **Keywords:** Rocker shoe, Footwear, Plantar pressure, diabetes.

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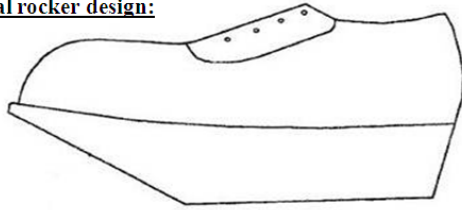
## 60 **Introduction**

61 Specially designed footwear is often prescribed to patients with diabetes to reduce in-shoe  
62 pressures (Cavanagh et al., 2000). Prospective clinical trials have demonstrated that  
63 therapeutic footwear can reduce the incidence of foot ulcers (Chantelau, 2004; Uccioli et al.,  
64 1995), however, further research is required to understand whether pressure reducing  
65 footwear is an effective strategy for the primary prevention of ulcers (Bus et al., 2008). Over  
66 recent years, there has been large growth in the number of individuals suffering with diabetes  
67 (Sicree and Shaw, 2007). It may therefore be appropriate to encourage all individuals with  
68 diabetes to wear pressure reducing footwear, irrespective of whether they are at high risk or  
69 not. This would ensure that all individuals with diabetes experience minimal plantar tissue  
70 damage would help protect individuals who do not attend for regular foot health checks  
71 against ulceration and would encourage patients to accept specialist footwear as normal  
72 health behaviour. However, for pressure reducing shoes to become the footwear of choice for  
73 low risk diabetic patients, they must be aesthetically acceptable so that they are actually worn  
74 (Knowles and Boulton, 1996).

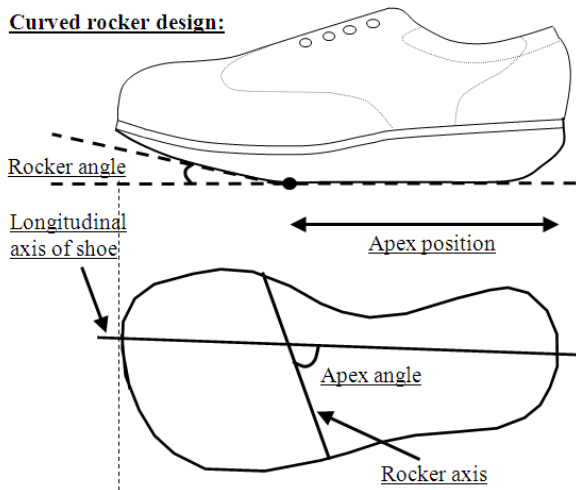
75         One of the most effective designs for reducing in-shoe pressure is the rocker outsole  
76 (Hutchins et al., 2009a). With this type of footwear, a rocking motion of the foot is created  
77 which reduces the range of metatarsophalangeal joint motion and subsequent plantar pressure  
78 (Brown et al., 2004). There are two variations in this design: the traditional rocker and the  
79 curved rocker. Although both designs use a stiffened outsole, the traditional rocker has an  
80 outsole geometry incorporating a sharp apex, at approximately 55% of shoe length (Hutchins  
81 et al., 2009b), and rocking occurs about this point. In contrast, with the curved rocker shoe,  
82 the rocking motion is achieved with a gradually contoured outsole profile (Figure 1). Given  
83 that the curved rocker design can be manufactured to look more like conventional footwear, it

84 is more likely to be accepted by low risk patients, especially those who have not experienced  
85 foot problem severe enough to cause them to alter their footwear choices.

Traditional rocker design:



Curved rocker design:



86

87 Figure 1: The traditional rocker design and the curved rocker design with the three design  
88 features: 1) rocker angle, 2) apex position and 3) apex angle.

89 The geometry of the curved rocker outsole can be characterised by three design  
90 features: 1) apex angle 2) apex position and 3) rocker angle (Figure 1). The rocker axis is a  
91 theoretical line across the shoe where the outsole begins to curve upwards. This axis can be  
92 moved proximally or distally (altering apex position) or angled differently with respect to the  
93 longitudinal axis of the shoe (altering apex angle). For a fixed apex position, the rocker angle  
94 is typically varied by increasing/decreasing the thickness of the outsole. In order to optimise  
95 the design of the rocker shoe, it is necessary to understand how each of the three outsole  
96 design features influence plantar pressure. Given that apex angle and apex position can be  
97 adjusted without any obvious change to the appearance of shoe, it is especially important to  
98 understand the effect of these parameters on plantar pressure across a range of different

99 individuals. It is possible that a single combination of apex angle, apex position and rocker  
100 angle may be optimal for all individuals and would therefore be the recommended design.  
101 However, it is also possible that different individuals may need different combinations of the  
102 three design features in order to maximise pressure reduction. In this scenario, in-shoe  
103 pressure measurement technology could be used, at the point of sale or in the clinic, to  
104 establish the most effective design for an individual patient.

105 To date, most studies aimed at investigating the capacity of rocker shoes to reduced  
106 pressure have simply compared peak pressure between two or three off-the-shelf shoes  
107 (Brown et al., 2004; Bus et al., 2009; Fuller et al., 2001; Nawoczenski et al., 1988; Praet and  
108 Louwerens, 2003; Schaff and Cavanagh, 1990). With this approach, it is not possible to  
109 understand the independent effect of the three design features which characterise outsole  
110 geometry: apex angle, apex position and rocker angle. There have been only two studies  
111 (Nawoczenski et al., 1988; van Schie et al., 2000) which have used a systematic approach to  
112 investigate the effect of these design features. However, both studies investigated healthy  
113 participants rather than people with diabetes, neither investigated the effect of varying apex  
114 angle and the study by van schie et al. (2000) investigated the less aesthetically acceptable  
115 traditional rocker shoe rather than the curved rocker shoe.

116 This study was undertaken as part of an EU funded project (SSHOES) which aimed to  
117 develop footwear to prevent foot problems associated with plantar pressure and diabetes. The  
118 project focussed specially on the needs of people early in the diabetes disease process. The  
119 aim of this study was to understand the effect of varying (1) apex angle, (2) apex position and  
120 (3) rocker angle (Figure 1) on plantar pressure in the curved rocker shoe. We sought to  
121 understand the mean effect of varying these three parameters in a cohort of low risk patients  
122 with diabetes and to establish whether the same effects would be observed in a healthy  
123 population. We also sought to understand whether a specific combination of the three design

124 features would be optimal for all individuals or whether different combinations may be  
125 required for different patients. This was addressed by describing inter-subject variability in  
126 the optimal value for each of three design features.

## 127 **Methods**

### 128 Participants

129 Following ethical committee approval, 24 volunteers with diabetes (14 males) and 24 healthy  
130 participants (17 males) were recruited at two sites: the University of Salford (UK) and the  
131 German Sport University (Germany). Participants were selected based on their shoe size (43  
132 for men and 39 for women) and had to be able to walk unaided for a period of 45 min.  
133 Patients with diabetes were excluded if they suffered with any foot deformity. This was  
134 necessary as the shoes used in this study were all manufactured using a standard last because  
135 this helps maintain shoe aesthetics. Patients had a mean (SD) age of 57(8), a mean weight of  
136 86.0(12.4) Kg and a mean height of 1.71 (0.09) m and healthy participants had a mean (SD)  
137 age of 49(15), a mean weight of 79.8(11.9) Kg and a mean height of 1.75(0.09)m.

138 Patients with diabetes were only included in the study if they did not demonstrate any  
139 serious neuropathy. The absence of neuropathy was assessed using two separate tests. Firstly,  
140 patients were required to sense a 10g monofilament at a minimum of 5 out of 6  
141 sites on the plantar aspect of the foot (Feng et al., 2009). Secondly they had to be able to  
142 sense the vibration of a 128Hz tuning fork on the interphalangeal joint (Meijer et al., 2005).  
143 If patients were unable to detect more than one site or had absent vibration perception they  
144 were classed as neuropathic and not recruited for the study. Limiting the experimental work  
145 to low-risk patients with diabetes limits the generalisability of the findings. However, it was  
146 felt that this study would provide insight into the general principles of footwear design which  
147 could be incorporated into future footwear studies developed for high risk patients.



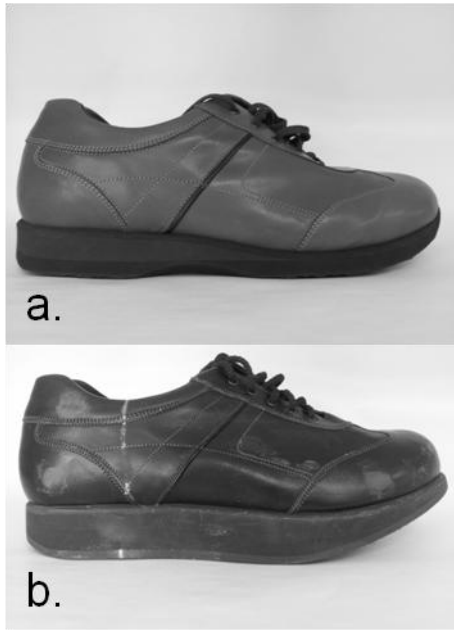
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149 Footwear

150 All participants were required to walk in total of 12 pairs of rocker shoes plus one flexible  
151 control shoe which were manufactured specifically for the study by Duna®, Falconara  
152 Marittima, Italy. All shoes were made using the same last with a soft leather upper. In the  
153 control shoe, the outsole was manufactured from micro cellular rubber and this shoe had a  
154 bending stiffness similar to a running shoe (Figure 2a). For the rocker shoes (Figure 2b) the  
155 outsole was also constructed from micro cellular rubber and incorporated a 5mm thick piece  
156 of folex which created a very stiff outsole which did not flex. Different outsole geometries  
157 were produced for the rocker shoes using CAD CAM technology to ensure accuracy in apex  
158 location, orientation and rocker angle.

159 It was not feasible to cover every possible combination of apex angle, apex position  
160 and rocker angle due to the large number of shoes that would be required. Therefore we  
161 selected a typical curved rocker design with apex angle of 80°, apex position of 60% and  
162 rocker angle of 20° and attempted to understand the effect of varying each of the three design  
163 features around these reference values. A set of four rocker shoes was manufactured in which  
164 the apex angle was varied (70, 80, 90,100°) and the rocker angle (20°) and apex position  
165 (60%) fixed (Figure 1). A second set of five shoes was then produced in which the apex  
166 position was varied (50, 55, 60, 65, 70% shoe length) and the rocker angle (20°) and the apex  
167 angle (80°) fixed. In the final set of five shoes, the rocker angle was varied (10, 15, 20, 25,  
168 30°) and apex position (60%) and apex angle (80°) fixed. Although the shoe with the apex  
169 position at 60%, rocker angle 20° and apex angle 80° was included three times in the data  
170 analysis, it was only necessary to measure this shoe once.

171



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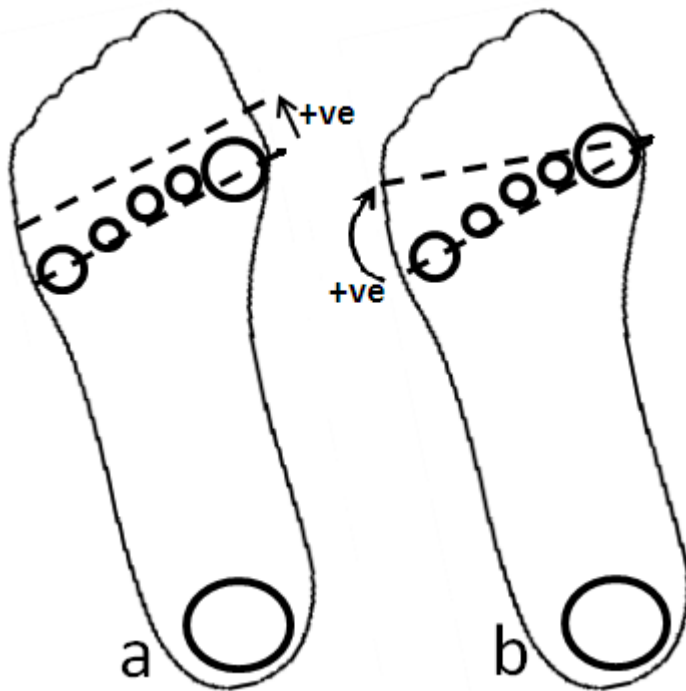
173 Figure 2: a) Control shoe and b) example rocker soled shoe used in the experiment. The  
174 rocker shoe had an 80° apex angle, 60% apex position and 20° rocker angle.

#### 175 Data Collection

176 In-shoe plantar pressure was collected as participants walked at  $1\text{m/s} \pm 10\%$  along a 20m  
177 walkway. Timing gates were used to ensure that participants walked within the defined  
178 speeds as walking speed has been shown to influence plantar pressure (Segal et al., 2004).  
179 All participants wore thin nylon socks during pressure testing and the order of shoes was  
180 randomised. This randomisation was carried out using a custom written Matlab program  
181 which generated a random sequence for each individual participant. Plantar pressure data was  
182 collected using a Novel Pedar system, (Munich Germany) (50Hz) with the pressure sensitive  
183 insole on top of a 3mm poron insole. A total of 25-35 continuous steps per shoe were  
184 obtained for each participant and the Pedar data exported into Matlab for processing.

185 For each participant, the shoe apex angle and apex position were expressed relative to  
186 both the shoe geometry and also foot anatomy using a line joining the 1<sup>st</sup> metatarsophalangeal  
187 joint (MTP) joint to the 5<sup>th</sup> metatarsal head (MTH) (“metatarsal break”). For this calculation

188 data were used from a single 3D foot scan (INESCOP, Spain) taken in normal standing and  
189 from measurements of the foot position within the shoe. Figure 3 illustrates how these design  
190 features were defined relative to foot anatomy.



191

192 Figure 3: Apex position (a) and apex angle (b) relative to the metatarsal heads (MTH). Apex  
193 position, relative to the foot, was measured from the midpoint of the line joining the 1<sup>st</sup>-  
194 5<sup>th</sup> MTH (metatarsal break) and was normalised to shoe length. Apex angle, relative to the  
195 foot, was define relative to metatarsal break and expressed in degrees.

#### 196 Data analysis and statistics

197 Peak plantar pressure during the stance phase of walking was used to characterise the effect  
198 of the three design features: apex angle, apex position and rocker angle. This outcome was  
199 calculated for 1) 1<sup>st</sup> MTP joint, 2) 2nd-4<sup>th</sup> MTH, 3) the hallux, 4) 5<sup>th</sup> MTH and 5) the heel.  
200 The first three are the plantar regions at greatest risk of ulceration (Weijers et al., 2003) and  
201 were defined following Cavanagh et al. (1994). Peak plantar pressure was calculated for each

202 of the four regions for each of the 25-35 steps in each shoe. It was then averaged across all  
203 steps to give a single value for each region and shoe. The analysis (described below) of the  
204 left and right data showed the same trends and therefore only the left side data is presented  
205 here. Although it is possible to report pressure time integral in addition to peak plantar  
206 pressure, a recent review concluded that the added value of this parameter is limited (Bus and  
207 Waaijman, 2012) and therefore it has not been presented.

208 Two-way repeated-measures ANOVA testing was used to understand mean effects.  
209 Specifically, we tested for (1) main effects of varying each of the three design features (2)  
210 main effects of group (healthy and diabetic) and finally (3) interaction effects, i.e. whether  
211 the effect of the footwear differed between the two groups. A separate ANOVA test was  
212 conducted for each design feature (plus the flexible control shoe) in each anatomical region  
213 with a significance level of  $p=0.05$ . Further Bonferroni post hoc testing was then used to  
214 examine any significant main effects of design features.

215 In order to quantify inter-subject variability, the apex angle which gave the minimum  
216 peak pressure was identified for each participant in each of the four anatomical regions. This  
217 data was then used to calculate the distribution of optimal apex angles (across individuals) for  
218 each anatomical region. This analysis was repeated for apex position and rocker angle.

## 219 **Results**

### 220 *Mean effect of the different rocker shoe designs:*

221 There were a number of significant main effects for footwear design features (Figure 4) and  
222 significant differences between the control shoe and the individual rocker shoes (Table 1).  
223 When the apex angle was increased from  $70^\circ$  to  $100^\circ$  there was a corresponding reduction in  
224 pressure under the 1<sup>st</sup> MTP joint (Figure 4a), with a maximum pressure reduction of 14% in

225 comparison to the control shoe (100° condition). However, only minimal differences were  
 226 observed in the 2-4<sup>th</sup> MTH and hallux regions (Figure 4b-c) between the shoes with differing  
 227 apex angles. The biggest reduction in pressure relative to the control shoe (39%) was  
 228 observed in the 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH regions (80° condition) but minimal reductions were observed  
 229 in the hallux and MTH5 regions. In contrast to the other regions, pressures increased in the  
 230 heel region relative to the control shoe, but again there was a little change across the different  
 231 apex angles.

232

	Apex Angle (Degrees)				Apex Position (% of shoe length)					Rocker Angle (Degrees)				
	70	80	90	100	50	55	60	65	70	10	15	20	25	30
<b>1<sup>st</sup> MTP</b>			R	R										
														235
														236
<b>2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH</b>	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R
														237
														238
<b>Hallux</b>			R						I	I	I			239
<b>5<sup>th</sup> MTH</b>	R	R			R	R	R					R	R	R
														240
														241
<b>Heel</b>	I	I	I	I	I	I	I					I	I	242

243

244

245 **Table 1: Significant differences between control shoe and the rocker shoe design**  
246 **features for the 5 plantar regions. “R” denotes significant reduction, “I” denotes**  
247 **significant increase.**

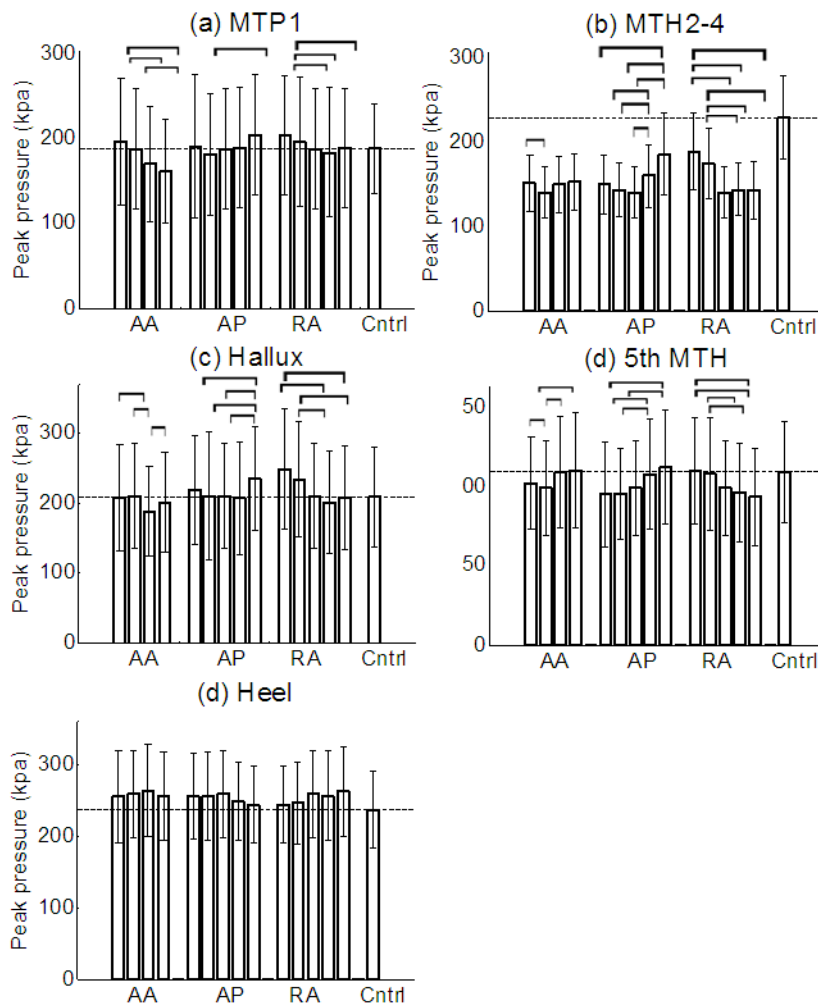
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249 When the apex position was varied from 50 to 70% there was no clear trend in peak  
250 pressure in the 1<sup>st</sup> MTP region (Figure 4a). However, in the 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH, hallux and 5<sup>th</sup>  
251 MTH regions, pressures were observed to be higher for the shoes with apex positions further  
252 forward in the shoe (Figure 4b-d). In comparison to the control shoe, a maximum pressure  
253 reduction of 13% was observed under the 5<sup>th</sup> MTH, however a 39% reduction was observed  
254 under the 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH but there was no difference in peak pressure in the hallux region  
255 between the control and any of the shoes with varying apex position (Table 1). In the heel  
256 region, shoes with an apex position further back were observed to significantly increase peak  
257 pressure relative to the control shoe (Figure 4e & Table 1).

258 As rocker angle was increased from 10 to 30° there was a decrease in peak pressure  
259 under the 5<sup>th</sup> MTH and an initial decrease followed by a plateau under the 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH  
260 (Figure 4b). However, although a similar trend was observed under the 1<sup>st</sup> MTP joint, the  
261 differences between the different rocker angles were relatively small. In the hallux regions  
262 the lower angle designs actually increased pressure relative to the control shoe (Figure 4c &  
263 Table 1). Peak pressures were again observed to increase in the heel region with the higher  
264 angle designs.

265 There was a significant effect of group ( $p < 0.05$ ) only in the 2<sup>nd</sup>-4<sup>th</sup> MTH regions with  
266 the control subjects having lower peak pressures than the patients with diabetes. However,  
267 with the exception of the apex angle in the hallux region, there were no design features by

268 group interactions, meaning that the effect of varying the footwear features was the same for  
269 the patients with diabetes as it was for the control subjects.



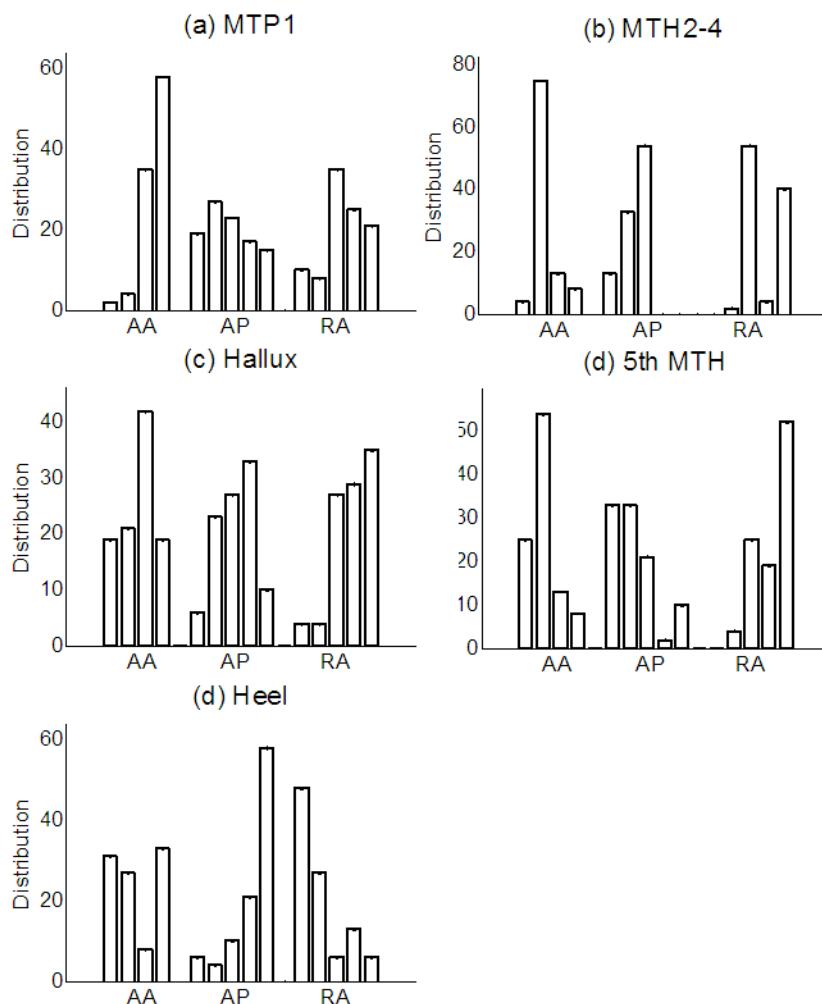
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271 Figure 4: Histograms to show mean peak pressure for varying apex angle (AA=70, 80, 90 &  
272 100° from left to right), apex position (AP=50, 55, 60, 65 & 70%) and rocker angle (10, 15,  
273 20, 25 & 30°) for each of the different anatomical regions (a-d). The horizontal dotted line  
274 represents the pressure from the control shoe. The horizontal lines indicating pairings on  
275 each graph indicate significant differences between footwear conditions (P<0.05 with  
276 Bonferroni correction). Significant differences between the control and a specific design of  
277 rocker shoe have been identified with a ‘\*’ at the base of the bar.

278

279 *Inter-subject variability between the different rocker shoe designs*

280 In order to understand inter-subject variability associated with the effects of varying  
 281 the design features, and given the absence of design feature by group interactions, the data  
 282 from all subjects was pooled (n=48) and has been presented in Figure 5. The effect of apex  
 283 angle showed the least inter-subject variability of the three design features; however the mean  
 284 optimal apex angle differed across regions, being larger (90 or 100) for pressures in the 1<sup>st</sup>  
 285 MTP joint and hallux regions and lower (70 or 80) for pressures in the 2nd-4<sup>th</sup> MTH and 5<sup>th</sup>  
 286 MTH regions (Figure 5 & Table 2).



287

288 Figure 5: Histograms to show the relative distribution (%) across all 48 participants of  
 289 optimal apex angle (AA=70, 80, 90 & 100° from left to right), optimal apex position (AP=50,



290 55, 60, 65 & 70%) and optimal rocker angle (10, 15, 20, 25 & 30°) for each of the different  
 291 anatomical regions (a-e).

292 Optimal apex position demonstrated a high level of inter-subject variability in the 1<sup>st</sup>  
 293 MTP joint and hallux regions, with no clear optimal position. However, in the other two  
 294 forefoot regions, the optimal apex position was almost always between 50 and 60% (Table 1).  
 295 the participants. Although optimal rocker angle displayed some inter-subject variability in the  
 296 forefoot regions, rocker angles of 10° or 15° were rarely found to be optimal. This again  
 297 contrasted with the heel region where the lower angles performed better.

	1st MTP	2-4 MTH	Hallux	5th MTH	Heel
Optimal AA (shoe)	95(6.8)	82.5(6.7)	86(10.1)	80.4(8.5)	84.4(12.5)
Optimal AA (foot)	18.8(6.2)	5.5(7.6)	9.8(9.4)	3.6(9.3)	7.8(14)
Optimal AP (shoe)	59.1(6.7)	57.1(3.5)	60.9(5.5)	56.1(6.2)	66(5.9)
	-			-	
Optimal AP (foot)	17.5(25.8)	-22.7(24.7)	-11.7(29.3)	25.3(31.2)	3.3(27.2)
Optimal RA (shoe)	21.9(6.1)	24.1(5)	24.4(5.4)	25.9(4.8)	15.1(6.4)

298

299 **Table 2: Mean (SD) optimal values for apex angle (AA), apex position (AP) and rocker**  
 300 **angle (RA), expressed both relative to the shoe and relative to the foot.**

301

302

303



## 305 **Discussion**

306 The purpose of this study was to understand the effect of varying apex angle, apex position  
307 and rocker angle on peak plantar pressure in a curved rocker shoe. Our analysis demonstrated  
308 differing effects of the three features between the different anatomical regions. Highest  
309 pressure reductions (39%) were observed in the 2nd-4 MTH regions and, in these regions,  
310 both low rocker angles ( $<20^\circ$ ) and anterior apex positions ( $>60\%$  shoe length) increased  
311 pressures, however, the apex angle had little effect on peak pressure. Similar trends were  
312 observed in the 5<sup>th</sup> MTH region. In the hallux region, provided lower rocker angles ( $<20^\circ$ )  
313 were excluded, peak pressures were very similar across the different shoe designs. The only  
314 exception was a modest reduction in peak pressure in the shoe with a  $90^\circ$  apex angle.  
315 Similarly, in the 1<sup>st</sup> MTP region, peak pressures seemed relatively unaffected by apex  
316 position and rocker angle. However, there was a clear decrease in pressure as apex angle was  
317 increased to  $100^\circ$ . Finally, in the heel region, small increases in peak pressure were observed  
318 across all designs.

319 One of the objectives of this study was to establish some general design principles  
320 which could be incorporated into preventative rocker shoes. It was not possible to cover  
321 every possible combination of design feature and thus we cannot make definitive  
322 recommendations. However, the results suggest that rocker angles of  $<20^\circ$  should be avoided  
323 along with apex positions of  $>60\%$  shoe length. Furthermore, given that we tested four shoes  
324 with a rocker angle of  $20^\circ$ , apex position of  $60\%$  and varying apex angle, we can make some  
325 provisional recommendation for apex angle. Ulceration is less common under the 5<sup>th</sup> MTH  
326 and therefore we suggest the shoes should be designed to prioritise offloading across the three  
327 forefoot regions. The 2nd-4<sup>th</sup> MTH regions were unaffected by apex angle and therefore we  
328 suggest a  $95^\circ$  angle as a compromise for the 1<sup>st</sup> MTP region and the hallux.

329 Another objective of the study was to establish whether different combinations of  
330 design features may be required for different patients. Optimal values of each of the design  
331 features varied across individuals suggesting that the use of individually tailored outsole  
332 geometries would give improved offloading compared to a one-design-suits-all approach.  
333 Expressing apex position relative to the metatarsal break instead of the shoe (Figure 4) did  
334 not reduce the level of variability (Table 2). This suggests that differences between  
335 participants cannot be attributed to differences in the foot position within the shoe. Instead, it  
336 is possible that these differences are the result of structural (Cavanagh et al., 1997) or  
337 biomechanical variability between people (Morag and Cavanagh, 1999). For example, it is  
338 possible that differences in the range of motion at specific joints or the foot progression may  
339 have resulted in varied responses to varying the footwear design features. However,  
340 irrespective of the mechanism, this study demonstrates that in-shoe pressure testing in a shop  
341 or clinic should be considered when deciding on the best rocker shoe design for an individual  
342 patient.

343 For this study, we recruited low risk patients with diabetes who did not have foot  
344 deformity or serious neuropathy. This choice was driven by our focus on improving footwear  
345 for those in the early stages of diabetes. However, this limits the generalisability of our  
346 finding to high risk patients. Despite low levels of neuropathy in our diabetes cohort, we  
347 observed differences in plantar pressure in the 2nd-4 MTH regions, suggesting disease-  
348 related changes independent of neuropathy (e.g. increased joint stiffness (Sacco et al., 2009)).  
349 However, despite these differences, the effect of varying each footwear feature was almost  
350 the same between the groups. Studies have shown that neuropathy can affect gait (Sawacha et  
351 al., 2009), and possibly plantar pressure, therefore future work might focus on a group more  
352 affected by sensory loss. Nevertheless this study has provided important insight into the

353 effects of outsole geometry on plantar pressure and the results can be used to inform future  
354 footwear studies involving high risk patients.

355 Two other studies have investigated the effect of outsole geometry on plantar pressure  
356 (Nawoczinski et al., 1988; van Schie et al., 2000). Van Schie et al. (2000) also found that  
357 apex position may need to be individually adjusted to maximise offloading. However, in  
358 contrast with our findings, they observed that increasing the rocker angle from 20 to 30°,  
359 continued to reduce pressure. This may be a difference between curved rocker shoes and the  
360 traditional rocker design.

361 Nawoczinski et al (1988) investigated the curved rocker design, but used the  
362 parameters of “takeoff point” and sole radius of curvature to parameterise outsole properties.  
363 They found that a takeoff point at 50% shoe length reduced pressures under the 3<sup>rd</sup> MTH  
364 compared to a takeoff point at 60%. This may correspond to our observed minimum pressure  
365 at apex positions 55-60% (Figure 4 & 5). Nawoczinski et al (1988) also found that pressure  
366 decreased with increasing radius of curvature (increased rocker angle).

367 There are some limitations to the present study. Firstly, in order to test the relatively  
368 large numbers of shoes used in this study, participants were only given a few minutes to  
369 become accustomed to each different design. However, pilot work showed that peak  
370 pressures in rocker shoes typically stabilise after a short amount of time. Therefore, we  
371 believe the data collected is representative of pressure patterns which would be observed in a  
372 real-world scenario. The second limitation is that we did not study the interaction between the  
373 different design features. However, in order to study all possible interactions, it would be  
374 necessary to test in excess of 100 shoes on each participant. This would be practically  
375 infeasible and therefore future studies are required, with a different range of designs, to build  
376 on the knowledge generated in this study. A final limitation is that, although two separate

377 tests were used to screen out patients with neuropathy, it is possible that a small number of  
378 patients with low levels of neuropathy may have been included. However, this is arguably a  
379 characteristic of our target group of low risk patients with diabetes.

### 380 **Conclusions**

381 This is the first study aimed at understanding the effect each of the design features which  
382 characterise the outsole geometry of a curved rocker shoe. Although not definitive  
383 recommendations, the results suggest that low rocker angles ( $<20^\circ$ ) and anterior position and  
384 apex position ( $> 60\%$  of shoe length) should be avoided. Furthermore, the results suggest that  
385 an apex angle of  $95^\circ$  could balance offloading across the forefoot and hallux, the regions  
386 most susceptible to ulceration. Further work is required to understand whether the findings of  
387 this study can be generalised to high-risk patients. This work is an essential step which must  
388 be carried out before any future large-scale trials are used to test the efficacy of therapeutic  
389 footwear in the reduction/prevention of ulceration.

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