

Diabetic foot

Wounds International's clinical innovations section presents recent developments in wound care. This issue, we focus on innovations in the understanding of diabetic foot biomechanics and how it should inform footwear selection for these patients.

Biomechanics and choosing footwear for the diabetic foot

Authors: Luigi Uccioli, Claudia Giacomozzi hanges in the biomechanics of the foot, resulting in pressure redistribution, are known risk factors for ulceration of the diabetic foot. Footwear is the most common intervention

for biomechanical abnormalities of the foot. Custommade or commercially available insoles in retail shoes, or in combination with therapeutic shoes, have been proposed as methods of reducing abnormal foot pressures and thus ulceration in the diabetic foot.

An understanding of the biomechanical changes seen as a result of diabetic neuropathy – and its impact on risk of ulceration – is instructive for those involved in the management of the diabetic foot. The role of footwear in ulcer prevention at all levels of diabetic foot ulcer risk is also discussed.

BIOMECHANICAL ALTERATIONS COMMON TO THE DIABETIC FOOT

An investigation of the biomechanics of the foot are informative in understanding how changes to the foot's structure, and the resultant alterations in gait, are associated with the risk of ulceration in the diabetic foot.

Motor neuropathy is responsible for a progressive atrophy of the intrinsic muscles of the foot that may result in a variety of foot deformities, including hammer or claw toes, hallux valgus and prominent metatarsal heads. These deformities of the foot result in areas of increased plantar pressure and among people with diabetes are known to increase the risk of foot ulceration^[1].

Limited joint mobility, especially at the ankle and at the first metatarsal joints, contributes to the onset of increased plantar pressures associated with ulceration. Limited joint mobility in all planes and directions of movement can be read as a consequence of stiffness at those joints which mainly manage the foot–floor interaction during gait. In turn, increased stiffness at the ankle and first metatarsal joint interferes with the correct foot loading pattern, preventing the correct downloading of the metatarsal heads during push-off. The poor inversion/eversion movement confines the progression to the sagittal plane. As a result, the metatarsal heads undergo a greater and longer loading, which may contribute to the onset of ulceration^[2].

Some people with diabetes are known to have increased thicknesses of the plantar fascia. A relationship between plantar fascia thickness and increased forefoot vertical forces, and thus plantar pressure, has been established. This finding supports the hypothesis that soft tissue abnormalities contribute to the development of an altered distribution of pressure under the foot^[3].

As a result of the concurrent action of all the above factors (i.e. intrinsic/extrinsic musculature imbalance, joint stiffness, thickening of tendons and ligaments) people with diabetic neuropathy may develop rigid feet that are less adaptable to the floor. In these circumstances, the foot remains rigid during the whole walking cycle, leading to high plantar pressures under the metatarsal heads^[3].

The association between biomechanical change, foot deformity and sensory neuropathy results in a foot that experiences increased plantar pressures, increased friction with footwear and lacks protective sensitivity to mechanical stress and potentially harmful objects and circumstances. Under these circumstances, the person with diabetes is at increased risk of ulceration.

FOOTWEAR AND BIOMECHANICS

Shoes interfere with the performance of natural gait (i.e. that performed by a healthy person while walking barefoot). While walking in shoes, a "normal" – rather than "natural" – gait, with the aim of moving the body forward in space while taking into account the constraints from the use of shoes, can be achieved^[4].

Shoe heels result in the rear-foot assuming a greater inclination with respect to the ground than is seen barefoot [*Figure 1*]. This elevation of the heel results in faster unloading of the rear-foot during walking, and a

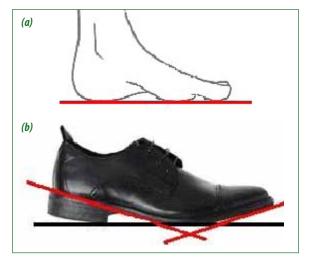


Figure 1. An illustration of the changes in foot—ground contact between (a) barefoot and (b) shoed stance. Shoe heels result in the rear-foot assuming a greater inclination with respect to the ground than is seen in barefoot stance. Lifted shoe tips partially prevents the toes from taking part in propulsion.

greater loading of the metatarsal heads. The higher the heel, the greater the alteration of the loading pattern. Increased heel height also results in a shortening of the Achilles tendon, and thus a power reduction in those leg muscles involved in propulsion. Likewise, the shoe tip is usually 1.5–3.0 cm lifted from the ground. Thus, during walking in shoes, the toes are partially prevented from taking part in propulsion, resulting in a greater involvement of the metatarsal area^[4].

Even more critical is the concavity of the sole under the metatarsal heads, which causes the foot as a propulsive lever to act under adverse conditions. During barefoot walking, the foot flexes >50° at the metatarsal level, while flexion of conventional shoes ranges between 10° and 40°. The less flexible the shoes, the less normal the gait. In low flexibility shoes, a flat-foot gait can be observed, with propulsion phase being focused under the metatarsal heads^[4].

Most conventional shoes are made with a certain flaring, while healthy feet are characterised by a longitudinal straight line. From a biomechanical point of view, this represents a constraint for the performance of the natural helicoidal movements of the foot during gait. Narrow shoes prevent the natural widening of the foot during contact with the ground, resulting in greater loading of those areas that are involved in foot–ground contact. Conversely, overly large shoes may lead to undesirable friction between foot and shoe sole. Even in well-fitted shoes the foot–ground contact may be as little as 50% of the natural barefoot footprint^[4]. The thicker the sole of the shoes, the more pronounced the reduction of the sensory response of the foot. This lack of tactile contact with the ground weakens the reflex action of foot and leg muscles, resulting in a less safe gait. This can be of particular concern for people at risk of falls^[4].

ROLE OF FOOTWEAR IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE DIABETIC FOOT

In the presence of diabetic neuropathy, footwear can play a critical role in the pathogenesis of foot complications^[5,6]. Thus, footwear for people with diabetes should not increase the risk of complications and, ideally, also serve as a form of protection. In general, suitable footwear and insoles for people with diabetes should: (i) reduce abnormal pressure; (ii) limit the formation of callus and ulcers; and (iii) protect from external trauma^[7]. Furthermore, the lifestyle of the person being recommended the shoes should be taken into account, especially with regard to their level of activity^[8].

FOOTWEAR AND ULCER RISK

People with diabetes, at any given time in the natural history of their condition, will experience some level of foot ulcer risk. Measures of risk usually take into account the presence or absence of protective sense perception, presence or absence of vascular disease, significant foot deformities and previous foot ulceration or amputation. One common measure of diabetic foot ulcer risk is the University of Texas classification scheme^[9]. In this scheme, diabetic feet fall into one of four categories of ulcer risk: low, medium, high or very high.

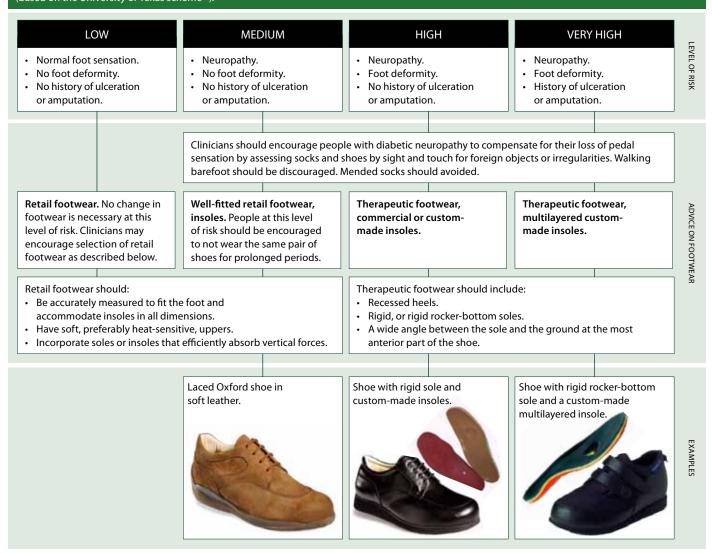
The level of ulcer risk experienced by a person with diabetes should be taken into account when choosing footwear. In the following four sections, the authors provide their guidance on the types of footwear appropriate for each level of ulcer risk [summarised in *Table 1*].

Low risk

People with diabetes who have normal sensation, no foot deformities and no history of ulceration or amputation can be classified as being at low risk of ulceration^[9]. At low level risk, priorities should be protecting sensation and education for self-care and prevention.

No real change in footwear is necessary at this level of risk. However, people in this category might be encouraged to consider the following when selecting footwear:

 Footwear that is well-fitted and wide enough in the forefoot will avoid friction that can lead to blisters, corns or callus. Table 1. Suggestions for appropriate footwear for people with diabetes in relation to the individual's risk of ulceration (based on the University of Texas scheme^[9]).



- Soft, preferably heat-sensitive, uppers should be preferred for the same reasons.
- Shoe soles should be selected for their efficiency in absorbing vertical forces, thus rubber, wide and flexible soles are preferable to leather board soles.
- Tight-fitting footwear with narrow forefoot, tight toe box or tight instep should be avoided.

Medium risk

The development of diabetic neuropathy, with the ensuing loss of protective sensation, places people with diabetes at increased risk of ulceration^[9]. No prospective studies have yet satisfactorily assessed the effectiveness of footwear in primary prevention of diabetic ulceration. Despite this, clinical experience and some observational studies suggest that well-fitting shoes can play a role in protecting neuropathic diabetic feet from ulceration.

Before choosing shoes at this level of risk, the foot should be accurately measured in all its dimensions, and a shoe chosen that contains the foot (and an insole, if being used) with minimal constriction. Soft, preferably heatsensitive, uppers should be selected. Shoe soles should be selected for their efficiency in absorbing vertical forces; rubber, wide and flexible soles are preferable to leather board soles.

Beyond footwear, the clinician can encourage those at medium risk of ulceration to compensate for their loss of pedal sensation by taking other precautions. Before putting on shoes, footwear should be assessed by sight and touch for foreign objects or irregularities. Walking barefoot, even in the home, should be discouraged. Mended socks should be avoided. People with diabetes and a medium or greater risk of ulceration should be encouraged not to wear the same pair of shoes for prolonged periods. Frequent changes of footwear result in less stress on discrete areas of skin that may ultimately reduce the risk of ulceration at that point.

High risk

When the neuropathic diabetic foot is complicated by foot deformities (e.g. bunion, claw toe, hammer toe) the risk of ulceration increases^[9]. Foot deformities, frequently of the toes, often confer biomechanical changes that result in abnormal gait followed by the appearance and persistence of overloading at the metatarsal level in the propulsion and toe-off phases of walking. In these areas of overload, hyperkeratosis can be followed by ulceration^[1].

A recessed heel, allowing a softer impact at heel strike should be included in shoes for this group. An increased reduction in pressure can be achieved with the use of a rigid or rocker-bottom sole, which minimises the metatarsal-phalangeal joint articulation tension and maximises foot contact area during late stance phase^[10]. This kind of shoe induces a modification in the walking pattern and may cause pain in the muscles at the back of the lower leg as they begin to bear a greater load, but has been shown to significantly reduce the number of calluses when compared with retail footwear after 12 months' wear^[11]. When designed with a point of the roll of the step placed immediately behind the metatarsal heads, such shoes reduce peak pressure by up to 30%^[12]. A further reduction up to 20% is gained by the use of customised insoles^[7].

Therapeutic footwear with insoles (e.g. microcellular rubber, polyurethane foam, moulded insoles) have been shown to reduce plantar pressures and ulcer recurrence when compared with retail shoes with leather board insoles^[13]. Total-contact insoles can reduce pressure peaks by maximising the insole device–foot contact area^[14], and custom-made, rather than flat, insoles have been shown to be more effective in offloading the first metatarsal head region^[15].

Special care should be taken using insoles in retail shoes. If the shoe is not designed to accommodate the addition of an insole, the insertion of one will reduce the space available to the foot and increase friction. To avoid this, measure the depth of the foot at the level of the metatarsal heads, add the thickness of the insole to this measurement, and compare this figure with the inside depth of the shoe at the corresponding point. Ideally, the shoes should have soft, preferably heat-sensitive, uppers that enable comfortable accommodation of any foot deformities in addition to insoles. The use of commercial available therapeutic, rather than custom-made, footwear offers a number of advantages, primarily the ease and speed of access (a stock can be kept in the clinic) and a reduction in cost per unit in comparison with custom-made products.

Very high risk

People with diabetes, neuropathy, foot deformity and a history of ulceration or amputation are at very high risk of ulceration^[9]. People in this group experience a 50% rate of ulcer recurrence within 12 months of healing^[16]. Those at very high risk of ulceration are known to have abnormally elevated plantar pressures during walking, with the areas of peak pressure frequently occurring under the metatarsal heads and correlating with sites of callus and, ultimately, ulceration^[1].

In contrast to the primary prevention of diabetic foot ulcers, various studies have demonstrated a protective role for footwear in secondary prevention, for both custom-made and prefabricated commercially available shoe models with the use of insoles. More than 20 years ago, Edmonds et al^[17] reported an ulcer relapse rate of 26% among those who wore custom-made therapeutic footwear, and 83% among those who wore retail shoes. The first author's own research found similar relapse rates to be associated with therapeutic shoes with custommade insoles (28%) versus retail footwear (58%)^[18].

In 2003, Busch and Chantelau^[19] assessed the efficacy of commercially available therapeutic shoes and insoles and found that 15% of people wearing this combination reulcerated 12 months after healing, while 60% in retail shoes reulcerated in the same period. Striesow^[20] tested commercially produced therapeutic shoes, according to Tovey's^[21] guidelines, and observed similar results.

Recommendations for the selection of footwear for this group are as outlined in the high-risk category, in particular footwear with rigid or rocker-bottom soles and moulded insoles. Multilayered, moulded insoles are preferable at this level of risk as they provide the greatest reduction in peak pressures^[14,22].

CONCLUSION

Epidemiological surveys indicate that between 40% and 70% of lower-limb amputations worldwide are diabetes related, and around 85% of these are preceded by foot ulceration^[23]. Thus, the prevention of diabetic foot ulceration is a clinical priority.

Footwear plays a key role in diabetic foot ulcer risk. Indeed, unsuitable or ill-fitting footwear can insufficiently protect the insensate foot from trauma that may precipitate ulceration, or be itself the cause of trauma that progresses to ulceration. Conversely, correctly fitted therapeutic shoes and insoles may protect the at-risk foot from trauma and redistribute plantar pressures, thus protecting it against ulceration. Research suggests that the importance of footwear in diabetic foot ulcer prevention increases with the increasing level of ulcer risk experienced by the individual. However, prospective studies that have been carefully designed and carried out in large populations are needed to confirm the role of footwear in diabetic foot ulcer prevention.

It is important that clinicians are aware of the importance of giving footwear advice to all people with diabetes. Especially for those with neuropathy, the selection and use of suitable footwear may represent a valid means of diabetic foot ulcer prevention.

AUTHOR DETAILS

Luigi Uccioli is Professor of Medicine, University of Rome, Tor Vergata, Italy; Claudia Giacomozzi is a Senior Researcher, Department of Technology and Health, Istituto Superiore di Sanità, Rome, Italy.

References

- 1. Ledoux W (2008) The biomechanics of the diabetic foot. In: Harris GF, Smith PA, Marks RM (eds) Foot and Ankle Motion Analysis: Clinical Treatment and Technology. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL
- Giacomozzi C (2003) Methodologies and Measurement Devices for an Effective Functional Assessment of the Diabetic Foot. Istituto Superiore di Sanità, Rome. Available at: tinyurl.com/ ygg54yn (accessed 03.10.2013)
- 3. D'Ambrogi E, Giurato L, D'Agostino MA et al (2003) Contribution of plantar fascia to the increased forefoot pressures in diabetic patients. Diabetes Care 26(5): 1525–9
- Rossi WA (2000) The Complete Footwear Dictionary (2nd edn). Krieger Publishing Company, Melbourne, FL
- Apelqvist J, Larsson J, Agardh CD (1990) The influence of external precipitating factors and peripheral neuropathy on the development and outcome of diabetic foot ulcers. J Diabet Complications 4(1): 21–5
- Macfarlane RM, Jeffcoate WJ (1997) Factors contributing to the presentation of diabetic foot ulcers. Diabet Med 14(10): 867–70
- Uccioli L (2006) Footwear in the prevention of diabetic foot problems. In: Veves A, Giurini JM, LoGerfo FW (eds) The Diabetic Foot. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ
- 8. Tyrrell W, Carter G (2009) Therapeutic Footwear, A Comprehensive Guide. Churchill Livingstone, London
- 9. Lavery LA, Armstrong DG, Vela SA et al (1998) Practical criteria for screening patients at high risk for diabetic foot ulceration. Arch Intern Med 158(2): 157–62
- 10.Lavery LA, Vela SA, Fleischli JG et al (1997) Reducing plantar pressure in the neuropathic foot. A comparison of footwear. Diabetes Care 20(11): 1706–10
- 11.Colagiuri S, Marsden LL, Naidu V, Taylor L (1995) The use of orthotic devices to correct plantar callus in people with diabetes. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 28(1): 29–34
- 12.van Schie C, Ulbrecht JS, Becker MB, Cavanagh PR (2000) Design criteria for rigid rocker shoes. Foot Ankle Int 21(10): 833–44

- 13.Viswanathan V, Madhavan S, Gnanasundaram S et al (2004) Effectiveness of different types of footwear insoles for the diabetic neuropathic foot: a follow-up study. Diabetes Care 27(2): 474–7
- 14.Foto JG, Birke JA (1998) Evaluation of multidensity orthotic materials used in footwear for patients with diabetes. Foot Ankle Int 19(12): 836–41
- 15.Bus SA, Ulbrecht JS, Cavanagh PR (2004) Pressure relief and load redistribution by custom-made insoles in diabetic patients with neuropathy and foot deformity. Clin Biomech 19(6): 629–38
- 16.Pound N, Chipchase S, Treece K et al (2005) Ulcer-free survival following management of foot ulcers in diabetes. Diabet Med 22(10): 1306–9
- 17.Edmonds ME, Blundell MP, Morris ME et al (1986) Improved survival of the diabetic foot: the role of a specialized foot clinic. Q J Med 60(232): 763–71
- 18.Uccioli L, Faglia E, Monticone G et al (1995) Manufactured shoes in the prevention of diabetic foot ulcers. Diabetes Care 18(10): 1376–8
- 19.Busch K, Chantelau E (2003) Effectiveness of a new brand of stock 'diabetic' shoes to protect against diabetic foot ulcer relapse. A prospective cohort study. Diabet Med 20(8): 665–9
- 20.Striesow F (1998) [Special manufactured shoes for prevention of recurrent ulcer in diabetic foot syndrome]. Med Klin (Munich) 93(12): 695–700 [In German]
- 21.Tovey Fl (1984) The manufacture of diabetic footwear. Diabet Med 1(1): 69–71
- 22.Mueller MJ (1999) Application of plantar pressure assessment in footwear and insert design. J Orthop Sports Phys Ther 29(12): 747–55
- 23.International Diabetes Federation (2005) Position Statement The Diabetic Foot. IDF, Brussels