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## Evaluation of the agreement between Ultrasoundbased and bi-planar X-Ray radiography-based assessment of the geometrical features of the Ischial Tuberosity in the context of the prevention of seatingrelated pressure injury

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### 11 Abstract

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12 The proper management of the local mechanical environment within soft tissues 13 is a key challenge central the prevention of Pressure Ulcers (PUs). Magnetic 14 Resonance (MR) imaging is the preferred imaging modality to measure geometrical features associated with PUs. It is a very time-consuming method and it represents 15 a major barrier to the clinical translation of risk assessment tools. There is a growing 16 enthusiasm of the community for the use of B-mode ultrasound imaging as a 17 practical, alternative technology suitable for bedside or outpatient clinic use. The 18 19 objective was to evaluate the agreement between US-derived measurements and bi-20 planar X-ray radiography-derived measurements of geometrical features of the 21 Ischial Tuberosity in a realistic loaded sitting position in healthy volunteers. The 22 reproducibility of the US-based assessment of radii of curvature, evaluated in a 23 subset of 4 subjects using the ISO 5725-2 framework was 1.7 mm and 1.3 mm in the in the frontal and sagittal plane respectively (95 % CI = 3.5 mm and = 2.6 mm 24 respectively). Out of the 13 subjects included, the ischial tuberosity border was 25 visible on the US image of 7 healthy subjects only. The mean of differences 26 27 computed on the 7 subjects using Bland-Altman plots were +3.3 mm and -5.7 mm in the frontal and sagittal planes respectively. The corresponding 95% CI in the 28 frontal and sagittal planes were respectively 1.8 mm and 3.7 mm. These differences 29 however were not statistically significant (Wilcoxon signed-rank test). More effort 30 is needed to establish and standardise optimal measurement procedures and test 31 protocols for the assessment of geometrical features of the IT using US. 32

### 33 1 INTRODUCTION

A Pressure Ulcer (PU) is defined as "*a localized injury to the skin and underlying soft tissue, usually over a bony prominence, caused by sustained pressure, shear or a combination of these*" (NPUAP, EPUAP, PPPIA, 2014). It is a complication primarily related to the care and treatment of individuals who have difficulty moving or changing positions: for example, those people with a disability and the elderly (Demarré et al., 2015). It appears in situations where excessive mechanical loads are applied to the skin, such as, for example, during mechanical interaction between a person and support surfaces (hospital bed) or medical devices (Manual Wheelchair, prosthetic socket, exoskeleton, etc.). PU prevention remains a major health
challenge for Europe due to the human and financial cost of prolonged hospitalization, reduced quality of life, loss of autonomy and social isolation. However, current
risk assessment tools do not allow for a correct identification of the risks nor putting
an effective prevention in place (Coleman et al., 2013).

47 In the literature, a lot of research has sought to explain soft tissue injury risk factors 48 in terms of the local mechanical environment (i.e. internal stresses and strains that 49 satisfy mechanical equilibrium) within soft tissue (Oomens et al., 2015). In 50 particular, it has been shown by combining an animal model of Deep Tissue Injury 51 with computational modeling that direct deformation damage was only apparent 52 when a certain strain threshold was exceeded (Ceelen et al., 2008). In humans, 53 computational modelling of load-bearing soft tissue has shown that bony 54 prominences induce substantial stress concentrations, which explains why these 55 areas are vulnerable to pressure ulcers (Linder-Ganz et al., 2008). Laboratory and 56 animal studies propose several aetiological mechanisms by which stress and internal 57 strain interact with damage thresholds to result in pressure ulcer development 58 including localized ischaemia (Loerakker et al., 2011), reperfusion injury (Jiang et 59 al., 2011), impaired lymphatic drainage (Gray et al., 2016). and sustained cell 60 deformation (Bouten et al., 2003; Gefen et al., 2008)

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62 Based on the rationale that elucidating the relationship between external loads 63 and internal local stresses and strains within loaded soft tissues has the potential of 64 improving the management and prevention of PUs, several Finite Element (FE) 65 models of the buttock have been proposed in the literature based on MRI or CT scan 66 data (Al-Dirini et al., 2016; Levy et al., 2013; Linder-Ganz et al., 2007; Luboz et 67 al., 2018; Zeevi et al., 2017). Because of the limited availability of MRI or CT-Scan 68 systems and of the long segmentation time associated with the creation of full 3D 69 subject specific FE models from these imaging systems, all the studies in the liter-70 ature included the data of only one individual (Al-Dirini et al., 2016; Luboz et al., 71 2014). As far as the authors are aware of, the only attempts to account for this var-72 iability were limited to (i) semi-3D modelling (N=6 able-bodied volunteers in 73 (Linder-Ganz et al., 2007); N=12 in (Linder-Ganz et al., 2008); and N=6 in (Linder-74 Ganz et al., 2009)) and (ii) one attempt at 3D modelling (N=6 in (Moerman et al., 75 2017)). In addition, the representation of a realistic unloaded sitting position is jeop-76 ardized by the experimental limitations of MRIs and CT-scans: Long acquisition 77 times of MR imaging prevent a prolonged unloaded sitting configuration without 78 resorting to devices (Al-Dirini et al., 2016) while the confinement of the scanner 79 limits the acquisition to the lying position only (Luboz et al., 2014).

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Recent developments in 3D reconstruction techniques from low dose calibrated
bi-planar X-ray imaging (EOS imaging, Paris, France) provide a promising
alternative tool for patient-specific validated 3D modelling of the pelvis (Ghostine
et al., 2017). Moreover, unlike CT scanner or MRI systems where the patient is in

a supine position, this technique provide bi-planar images of the subject in a weight-bearing position.

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88 In a previous study, and as an alternative to MRI-based/CT-scan-based assess-89 ment, a methodology combining low-dose biplanar X-ray images (EOS imaging, 90 Paris, France), B-mode ultrasound images and optical scanner acquisitions in a non-91 weight-bearing sitting posture has been proposed for the fast generation of patient-92 specific FE models of the buttock and applied to 6 healthy subjects (Macron et al., 93 2018).To investigate the ability of a local model of the region beneath the ischium 94 to capture the internal response of the buttock soft tissues predicted by a complete 95 3D FE model from a limited number of parameters, a simplified model was devel-96 oped based on data compatible with daily clinical routine (Macron et al., 2020). 97 This study highlighted that the local mechanical environment within soft tissues is 98 very sensitive (in the statistical sense i.e. variance-based sensitivity analysis) to the 99 geometry of bony prominences and the relative thickness of the different soft tissue 100 elements. Of particular interest, the sensitivity analysis showed that the maximum 101 shear strain in the muscle tissue was very sensitive (29%) to the radius of curvature 102 of the ischium in the plane perpendicular to the shortest radius of curvature. These 103 results are in line with other results in the literature supporting the widely accepted idea that bone geometry will affect internal stresses and strains occurring under 104 105 bony prominences (see for example (Gefen, 2010; Luboz et al., 2015) for heel ul-106 cers).

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108 B-mode ultrasound (US) imaging represents a promising alternative for assessing geometrical feature-related risk factor bedside or in a clinic with standard 109 110 medical equipment. US imaging offers the advantages of being portable, non-inva-111 sive, with few contraindications and rapid result interpretation. There is therefore a 112 high interest in the community for developing clinical protocols that are suited to 113 reliable parameter assessment (Akins et al., 2016; Gabison et al., 2019; Swaine et 114 al., 2018). If the measurement of the adipose and muscle tissue thicknesses in the vicinity of the ischium using US has been shown to be both reliable and highly 115 correlated with MRI assessment (Akins et al., 2016), the measurement of the radius 116 117 of curvature of the ischium, was, on the contrary, reported to have a poor inter operator reliability (Akins et al., 2016; Swaine et al., 2018). 118

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120 In this perspective, we propose to evaluate, in this exploratory study, the agreement 121 between US-derived and bi-planar X-ray radiography-derived measurements of 122 geometrical features of the Ischial Tuberosity (IT) in a realistic loaded sitting 123 position in healthy volunteers, to quantify the global standard deviation of 124 reproducibility using the ISO standard 2725-2 and to quantify the influence of the 125 angular position of the pelvis in the seated position on the US-based assessment of 126 radii of curvature

### 127 **2 METHODS**

For the sake of clarity, only the experimental material previously acquired in the studies of (Macron et al., 2020, 2018) and pertaining to the current study are briefly recalled hereunder in Section 2.1.

### 131 **2.1 Participants and protocol**

132 Data of 13 healthy subjects (8 men and 5 women; age:  $26 \pm 5$  years, weight: 133  $70 \pm 9$  kg, BMI:  $22.6 \pm 3.4$  kg/m2) previously acquired in the studies of (Macron et 134 al., 2020, 2018) were used.

135 Biplanar radiographs were taken in frontal and sagittal views using the EOS low-136 dose imaging device (EOS imaging, Paris, France). The US acquisition of the sub-137 dermal tissue in the region beneath the IT was performed using a commercial device (Aixplorer, SuperSonic Imagine, France) with a linear US probe of 8 MHz central 138 139 frequency (SuperLinear SL 15-4). A custom-made stool specifically designed for 140 the experiment allowed to fix the US probe at the level of the seat inside the EOS 141 cabin (figure 1(a)). A cross-shaped notch was made in the seat to fix the US probe 142 in two orthogonal positions.



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Figure 1: (a) Custom-made stool allowing to fix the US probe at the level of the seat inside
the EOS cabin (b) bi-planar X-ray radiographies acquired in the loaded sitting position (c)
US image in sitting loaded configuration with indication of ischium contour

147 The subject was asked to sit on the stool in the EOS cabin and, with the help of 148 the on-screen display of the US device, was instructed to self-adjust the position of 149 his/her ischium with the center of the screen. Two sets of data were then acquired 150 with the subject in the loaded sitting position: the first one with the US probe in the 151 frontal plane and the second one with the US probe in the sagittal plane. For each acquisition, a pair of bi-planar X-rays (EOS imaging, Paris, France) were acquired 152 (with a pixel size of 0.179×0.179 mm) (figure 1(b)) immediately followed by a US 153 154 video clip (pixel size of 0.085×0.085 mm), during which the subject was asked to

155 slowly unload his weight with his arms while visually keeping the ischium as 156 aligned as possible with the probe (figure 1(b-c)). This allowed to measure soft tissue thickness in the unloaded position. An additional pair of radiographs was also 157 acquired in the standardized free standing position (Faro et al., 2004) for the purpose 158 159 of 3D reconstruction of the pelvis from the EOS radiographs according to the pro-160 cedure developed previously by (Mitton et al., 2006)

#### 161 2.2 Data Analysis

### 2.2.1 Bimodal image registration 162

163 3D reconstruction of the pelvis (figure 2(a)) was performed from the EOS radi-164 ographs in the standing position according to the procedure developed previously by (Mitton et al., 2006). The 3D subject-specific model of the pelvis was then pro-165 jected on the frontal and sagittal radiographs in the loaded sitting positions (in both 166 the acquisition with the US probe in the frontal plane and the acquisition with the 167 168 US probe in the sagittal plane). The position of the pelvis was manually adjusted until the contours matched those of the radiographs (figure 2(c)). The pelvic coor-169 170 dinate system (figure 2(a)) was defined from the left and right acetabula and S1 171 endplate of the 3D reconstruction following the definition given by (Dubois, 2014). 172

Similarly, the 3D CAD model of the linear US probe (figure 2(b)) was projected 173 174 on the frontal and sagittal radiographs in the loaded sitting positions. The position 175 was manually adjusted until the contours matched those of the radiographs (figure 176 2(c)). The probe coordinate system (figure 2(b)) was defined from the corners of 177 the top part of the probe (transducer array). The 2D US image was positioned in the 178 3D EOS cabin space using the probe coordinate system (figure 2(d)).







Figure 2: (a) 3D reconstruction of the pelvis and associated coordinate system (b) 3D CAD 182 model of the linear US probe and associated coordinate system (c) cropped frontal and 183 sagittal radiographs in the loaded sitting position with projection of i) 3D reconstruction of 184 the pelvis and ii) 3D CAD model of the probe respectively iv) Bimodal image registration

#### 185 2.2.2 Assessment of morphological parameter

186 US-based assessment of radii of curvature (US-RoC) and soft tissue thickness 187 (US-STT). In both acquisitions (US probe in the frontal and sagittal planes respectively), 10 points were manually selected on the lowest part of the ischial 188 tuberosity border visible on the US image in the seated position (figure 3(a)). The 189

190 radius of curvature (figure 3(b)) was computed using a least-squares regression 191 procedure using a custom-made MATLAB subroutine (MathWorks, Natick, MA, 192 USA). The height of the selection, denoted  $\Delta z$ , was defined as the difference 193 between maximum-altitude and the minimum-altitude points (figure 3(a)). The 194 vertical component of the distance between lowest point of the IT and overlying 195 skin surface was used to define the soft tissue thickness.

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197 EOS-based assessment of the radii of curvature (EOS-RoC) and soft tissue 198 thickness (EOS-STT). In both acquisitions (US probe in the frontal and sagittal 199 planes respectively), the pelvis surface mesh intersecting points with the US probe 200 plane were computed using a custom-made MATLAB subroutine (MathWorks, Na-201 tick, MA, USA). The points in the range  $\Delta z$  (previously determined for each con-202 figuration and for each subject) from the minimum-altitude point were selected. The 203 radius of curvature was computed using the same least-squares regression procedure 204 as for the US-based data points. Both the US-based and EOS-based least squares 205 fitting circles were superposed on US image and 3D reconstruction of pelvis in the 206 EOS cabin (global) coordinate system (figure 3(c)). The vertical component of the 207 distance between the lowest point of the pelvis surface mesh intersecting with the 208 US probe plane and overlying skin surface was used to define the soft tissue thick-209 ness. 210



Figure 3: (a) Points manually selected on the inferior border of each IT (b) least squares
fitting circle (c) US-based and EOS-based least squares fitting circles (respectively in red
and green) superposed on US image and 3D reconstruction of pelvis in the EOS cabin (global
coordinate system).

## 216 2.2.3 Statistical analysis

217 On a subset of 4 subjects  $(26 \pm 1 \text{ year old})$ , the inter-observer reproducibility 218 standard deviation  $(SD_r)$  of the US-based assessment of radii of curvature was 219 computed using the method described in the ISO standard 5725 (ISO, 1994). Each 220 US image was processed 3 times by 3 operators in both acquisitions (US probe in 221 the frontal and sagittal planes respectively). Reproducibility was estimated by 222 computing the 95% confidence interval (95%CI) (=2·SD<sub>r</sub>).

The agreement between the US-based and EOS-based assessment of radii of curvature of the IT was described graphically with a Bland-Altman plot with mean

of differences, reported with corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI), and lower
 and upper limits of agreement, calculated as mean ± 1.96 x standard deviation.
 Differences were assessed using a Wilcoxon-Signed-Rank Test (paired data) at the
 default 5 % significance level and was further described

### 229 **2.2.4 Impact of pelvis angular position on the computed radii of curvature**

A sensitivity study was performed to quantify the influence of the angular position
 of the pelvis in the seated position on the US-based assessment of radii of curvature.

233 Prior to this step, the maximum difference in the relative angular position of each 234 pelvis to that of the average pelvic pose (averaged position and orientation) was quantified as follows: For each acquisition, the angular position of the pelvis frame 235 was expressed in the EOS cabin (global) coordinate system. The orientation matrix 236 237 of the relative angular position of each pelvis to that of the average pelvic pose was 238 calculated. The decomposition of the rotation matrix was done using the XYZ rota-239 tion sequences of Cardan angles. The averaged position and orientation of all the 240 pelvic frames was computed.

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The procedure for the sensitivity study was the following: Each pelvis was repositioned in the averaged pelvic position (i.e. transformed so that the pelvis frame is aligned with that of the average pelvic pose). Then, for each pelvis, the pelvic obliquity (rotation around the global X-axis) and the anterior/posterior tilt (rotation around the global Y-axis) were modified independently by an increment of 5°, 10° and 15°. For each configuration, the (EOS-based) radius of curvature was computed according to the procedure described in section 2.2.2.





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Figure 4: To assess the impact of small perturbations of the pelvic angular position during seating on the radius of curvature estimated using the procedure described in section 2.2.2, both (a) the pelvic obliquity and (b) the anterior/posterior tilt were modified independently by an increment of 5°, 10° and 15° and the radius of curvature was computed.

### 255 **3 RESULTS**

Out of the 13 subjects included, the ischial tuberosity border was visible on the US image of 7 healthy subjects only (4 men and 3 women; age:  $28 \pm 6$  years, weight:  $66 \pm 7$  kg, BMI:  $21.6 \pm 2.2$  kg/m2). The results presented in this section therefore focuses on these 7 subjects only.

### 260 **3.1 Assessment of morphological parameter**

The reproducibility of the US-based assessment of radii of curvature was 1.7 mm (95% CI = 3.5 mm) in the frontal plane and 1.3 mm (95% CI = 2.6 mm) in the sagittal plane respectively.

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The results of the bimodal image registration and of the assessment of the radii of curvature and soft tissue thickness in both acquisitions (US probe in the frontal and sagittal planes respectively) are given in Table 1 below together with the results of the US-based and EOS-based assessment of Radii Of Curvature (RoC) and Soft Tissue Thickness (STT).

Table 1: Results of the bimodal image registration and of the assessment of the radii of
curvature and soft tissue thickness in both acquisitions. US-based (red) and EOS-based
(green) least squares fitting circles are superposed on US image and 3D reconstruction of
pelvis in the EOS cabin (global coordinate system). All dimensions are in mm.

	Probe in the frontal plane (mm)			Probe in the sagittal plane (mm)		
1		US-ROC EOS-RoC	12.2 15.4		US-ROC EOS-RoC	12.5 23.9
		Difference	-3.2		Difference	-11.4
		EOS-STT	11.7 14.4		EOS-STT	12.2 14.5
		Difference	-2.7		Difference	-2.3
2		US-ROC	13.9		US-ROC	18.8
		EOS-RoC	12.3		EOS-RoC	13.6
		Difference	1.6		Difference	5.2
2		US-STT	11.6		US-STT	16.1
		EOS-STT	11.5	a la seconda de la	EOS-STT	16.3
		Difference	0.1	-	Difference	-0.2:
		US-ROC	16.5		US-ROC	13.1
		EOS-RoC	7.4		EOS-RoC	11.7
2		Difference	9.1		Difference	1.4
3		US-STT	12.8		US-STT	12.6
		EOS-STT	14		EOS-STT	14.8
		Difference	-1.2		Difference	-2.2
4		US-ROC	20.4		US-ROC	8.5
		EOS-RoC	8.6		EOS-RoC	6.0
		Difference	11.8		Difference	-2.7
		US-STT	16.3		US-STT	10.2
		EOS-STT	12.6		EOS-STT	21.5

		Difference	3.7		Difference	-11.3
		US-ROC	8.6		US-ROC	7.2
		EOS-RoC	6.8		EOS-RoC	9.9
5		Difference	1.8		Difference	-2.7
5	00	US-STT	15.7		US-STT	13.9
	all and all	EOS-STT	16.6		EOS-STT	19.1
		Difference	-0.9		Difference	-5.2
		US-ROC	9		US-ROC	11.4
		US-ROC EOS-RoC	9 8.4		US-ROC EOS-RoC	11.4 36.8
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference	9 8.4 0.6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference	11.4 36.8 -25.4
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT	9 8.4 0.6 13.3		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3 14	Y	US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7 6.9
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3 14 12.7		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7 6.9 16.2
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3 14 12.7 1.3		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7 6.9 16.2 -9.3
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3 14 12.7 1.3 8.8		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7 6.9 16.2 -9.3 8.7
6		US-ROC EOS-RoC US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT	9 8.4 0.6 13.3 16.3 -3 14 12.7 1.3 8.8 11.7		US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT Difference US-ROC EOS-RoC Difference US-STT EOS-STT	11.4 36.8 -25.4 16.4 18.1 -1.7 6.9 16.2 -9.3 8.7 11.2

Figure 5 below shows the Bland-Altman plot describing the agreement between 275 US-based and EOS-based assessment of radii of curvature in the frontal and sagittal 276 277 planes respectively. The bias or mean of differences were +3.3 mm and -5.7 mm in 278 the frontal and sagittal planes respectively. The mean differences are not zero in 279 either case and this means that, on average, the US measures 3.3 mm more than the EOS-based in the frontal plane (overestimation) and 5.7 less in the sagittal plane 280 (underestimation) respectively. As can be further seen, the differences were of both 281 282 positive and negative values. The corresponding 95% CI in the frontal and sagittal 283 planes were respectively 1.8 mm and 3.7 mm. The lower and upper limits of agree-284 ment were respectively -6.2 mm and 12.8 mm in the frontal plane. The lower and upper limits of agreement were respectively -25 mm and 13.6 mm in the sagittal 285 286 plane.

Results of the Wilcoxon signed-rank-test, however did not allow rejecting the
null hypothesis about the differences between the US-based and EOS-based ROC
(p values of 0.16 and 0.30 in the frontal and sagittal planes respectively). Determining soft tissue thickness in the unloaded position was not always possible because
the IT was not systematically visible on the US images.

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Figure 5 Plot of differences between US-based and EOS-based assessment of radii of curvature vs. the mean of the two measurements (data from table 1) in the frontal (a) and sagittal (b) planes respectively.

### 298 **3.2 Impact of pelvis angular position on the computed radii of curvature**

The maximum difference in the relative angular position of each pelvis to that of the average pelvic pose was 17° (anterior posterior tilt). This allows to estimate an order of magnitude of the inter-individual variability in pelvis pose in realistic loaded sitting position in healthy volunteers.

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Increasing the pelvic obliquity, lead, on average, to a decrease in the EOS-based radius of curvature assessed (0.80 mm, 1.5 mm and 18 mm respectively for a rotation of 5°, 10° and 15° in the frontal plane; 0.2 mm, 0.6 mm and 0.1 mm respectively in the sagittal plane for a rotation of 5°, 10° and 15°).

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Increasing the anterior/posterior tilt, on average lead to a relatively small increase
in the EOS-based radius of curvature assessed (0.80 mm, 1.4 mm and 2.5 mm respectively for a rotation of 5°, 10° and 15° respectively in the frontal plane; 1.4 mm,
1.7 mm and 2.7 mm respectively in the sagittal plane for the 3 rotations).

### 313 4 DISCUSSION

314 The objective of this exploratory study was to evaluate the agreement between 315 Ultrasound-based and bi-planar X-Ray radiography-based assessment of the geometrical features of the Ischial Tuberosity in the context of the prevention of 316 317 seating-related pressure injury. Assessment of the geometry of bony prominences 318 is important for PU prevention because the local mechanical environment within 319 soft tissues – which has been shown to be a correlated to soft tissue injury risk 320 (Ceelen et al., 2008; Loerakker et al., 2011) - is very sensitive (in the statistical 321 sense i.e. variance-based sensitivity analysis) to the geometry of bony prominences 322 (Gefen, 2010; Luboz et al., 2015; Macron et al., 2020). Based on these results, 323 establishing routine ultrasound scans of the ischium could potentially lead to 324 development of new ultrasound-based risk assessment tools that are more specific 325 for identifying susceptibility to seating-related pressure injuries, particularly

considering the individual's internal anatomy. This probably explains the increasing
 enthusiasm of the community for the measurement of this geometrical feature related risk factor using medical imaging.

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330 Results obtained in this contribution on N=7 healthy however suggest that more effort is needed to establish and standardise optimal measurement and processing 331 procedures and test protocols for the assessment of geometrical features of the IT 332 333 using US. On average, US-based assessment of radius of curvature underestimated 334 that of the EOS-based in the frontal plane and overestimated in the sagittal plane respectively. This may be partly due to the fact that approximating the ischial tu-335 berosity by a torus (two radii of curvature in the frontal and sagittal planes which 336 337 are not necessarily aligned with the IT orientation) is too gross and leads to biases 338 in the assessment of morphological parameters. This can also be explained by the ultrasound imaging artefacts inherent to this technology, which, make the detection 339 of bone contours less robust. The fitting of the circle is also dependent on the pelvic 340 posture in sitting. If participants are sitting forward or backward, the circumference 341 342 of the lowest point of the IT changes dramatically and it is very difficult to measure 343 since the IT is flattened.

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345 In the literature, Swaine and colleagues (2008) represented the ischium using 346 two radii of curvature (along anatomical planes, representing the shortest and longest axis) – other authors limiting the analysis to only one plane (Akins et al., 347 2016). If a good inter-rater reliability for soft tissue thickness assessment of the soft 348 349 tissue layers overlying inferior curve of IT (skin & fat, tendon & muscle, while 350 thickness) are generally reported, (Swaine et al., 2018) observed a poor inter-rater 351 reliability of sonographers in measuring diameter of the inferior curve of IT. This result is in contrast to that reported by (Akins et al., 2016) who reported an higher 352 353 concordance value (ICC = 0.712). However, this earlier study utilised a single scan 354 operator to acquire images and two operators to post-process the data on the same 355 images. Such a post processing protocol will inevitably impact the decisions an 356 operator must make during real-time image acquisition and measurement. In this 357 study, a custom-made stool was designed to eliminate the uncertainty related to 358 exclude the impact of inter-operator variability in transducer rotation, medial/lateral 359 and cranial/caudal tiling and pressure exerted over the tissues during examinations. 360 Yet, the reproducibility of the US-based assessment of radii of curvature were 361 relatively high (95% CI = 3.5 mm in the frontal plane and 95 % CI = 2.6 mm in the 362 sagittal plane respectively), highlighting the effect of the procedure for extracting 363 morphologic parameters.

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The results obtained in our study for US-based assessment of radius of curvature are  $13.5\pm4.1 \text{ mm}$  (range [8.6 mm - 20.4 mm]) in the frontal plane and  $11.2\pm4.2 \text{ mm}$ (range [6.9 mm - 18.8 mm]) in sagittal plane respectively. This is within the same range as reported by (Akins et al. 2016) (between 8.5 mm and 20.0 mm) and (Swaine et al. 2018) (24.2 $\pm5$  mm in the short axis,  $30.0\pm8$  mm in the long axis, respectively. Out of the 13 subjects included in the studies of (Macron et al., 2020, 371 2018), 6 were excluded for the assessment of the IT curvature in this study since the 372 ischium was not visible due to thick tissue layer of subjects. This can emphasize 373 US-based measurement of IT curvature is highly dependent not only on operator 374 but also the subject. The use of a linear probe represents a limitation of the current 375 study since it is not adapted it has limited penetration. As a perspective work, the 376 use of a curvilinear ultrasound probe will be explored to allow for imaging patients where the image depth penetration and width capture requirements are greater, such 377 378 as young trauma patients with high muscle bulk, morbidly obese patients with 379 significant subcutaneous fat and patients with fluid overload.

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381 The results obtained in this study for EOS-based assessment of radius of curvature are 10.2±3.2 mm (range [6.8 mm - 15.4 mm]) in the frontal plane and 382 16.9±10.4 mm (range [6.0 mm - 36.8 mm]) in sagittal plane respectively. A 383 plausible explanation for the discrepancy between US-based and EOS-based 384 385 assessment of radii of curvature is the level of accuracy if 3D-reconstructions from 386 bi-planar X-ray images comparaed to CT-scan data. It has been reported that shape 387 differences between 3D models obtained from bi-planar X-rays and CT-scan are, 388 on average 1.6 mm (Mitton et al., 2006). 389

Recent studies suggest that B-mode Ultrasound imaging constitutes a promising alternative that could overcome some limitations of MRI. Further investigations need to be done in order to estimate the system's overall accuracy in a controlled laboratory setting using precisely built phantom. To make a conclusion on the potential clinical accuracy, the differences between the clinical and laboratory settings must be carefully examined.

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