



## 25 **Abstract**

26 Arterial function and wall mechanical properties are important determinants of  
27 hemodynamics in the circulation. However, their non-invasive determination is not widely  
28 available. Therefore, the aim of this work is to present a novel approach for the non-invasive  
29 determination of vessel's distensibility and elastic modulus.

30 Simultaneous measurements of vessel's Diameter ( $D$ ) and flow velocity ( $U$ ) were recorded to  
31 determine local wave speed ( ${}_nC$ ) in flexible tubes and calf aortas non-invasively using the  
32 InDU-loop method, which was used to calculate the Distensibility ( ${}_nD_s$ ) and Elastic Modulus  
33 ( ${}_nE$ ), also non-invasively. To validate the new approach, the non-invasive results were  
34 compared to traditionally invasive measurements of Dynamic Distensibility ( $D_{sd}$ ) and  
35 Tangential Elastic Modulus ( $E_m$ ).

36 In flexible tubes, the average  ${}_nD_s$  is higher and  ${}_nE$  is lower than  $D_{sd}$  and  $E_m$  by 1.6% and  
37 6.9%, respectively. In calf aortas, the results of  ${}_nD_s$  and  ${}_nE$  agreed well with those of  $D_{sd}$   
38 and  $E_m$ , as demonstrated by Bland-Altman technique.

39 The results of  ${}_nD_s$  and  ${}_nE$  are comparable to those determined using traditional techniques.  
40 Our results suggest that  ${}_nD_s$  and  ${}_nE$  could be measured *in-vivo* non-invasively, given the  
41 possibility of measuring  $D$  and  $U$  to obtain  ${}_nC$ . Further studies are warranted to establish the  
42 clinical usefulness of the new approach.

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47 **Keywords:** Arterial function, Distensibility, Tangential Elastic modulus, Wave speed, InDU-  
48 loop

## 49 Introduction

50 The mechanical properties of the aortic wall have a direct implication on the cardiovascular  
51 risk. Arterial hypertension (Heintz et al., 1993), diabetes (Salomaa et al., 1995) and atherosclerosis  
52 (Dart et al., 1991) are associated with marked changes in the structure and mechanical properties of  
53 large arteries. For example, Vaccarino et al. (2000) found a 10 mmHg increase in pulse pressure, as a  
54 measure of arterial stiffness, was correlated with a 12% increased risk of coronary heart disease, a 14%  
55 increased risk of congestive heart failure and a 6% increase in overall mortality. Furthermore, arterial  
56 stiffness has been shown to be an independent risk factor for cardiovascular events such as primary  
57 coronary events, stroke, and mortality (Boutouyrie et al., 2002; Laurent et al., 2003). Therefore, the  
58 evaluation of aortic mechanical properties is important in the understanding and early detection of  
59 cardiovascular disease.

60 Several techniques have been developed *in-vivo* and *ex-vivo* to assess the mechanical properties  
61 of arteries. For example, Bergel (1961) introduced a classical apparatus to measure the pressure and  
62 radius for the determination of segmental distensibility. Humphrey et al. (1993) designed a  
63 comprehensive test system by which simultaneous extension, inflation, and torsion experiments on  
64 cylindrical segments of vessels could be performed. To avoid the invasive measurements and increase  
65 the potential for clinical use, several investigators proposed non-invasive techniques for assessing the  
66 mechanical properties of the aorta. Arndt et al. (1968) first reported non-invasive measurements of  
67 arterial diameter by means of pulsed ultrasound technique. Tardy et al. (1991) proposed a novel method  
68 which estimated the mechanical properties of the peripheral arteries based on the analysis of the arterial  
69 diameter against pressure curves derived from ultrasonic and photoplethysmographic measurements.

70 Wave speed,  $C$ , is an important property of an artery and is inversely related to the square root  
71 of compliance/distensibility (Merillon et al., 1982).  $C$  has been used as a surrogate marker for aortic  
72 stiffness (O'Rourke et al., 2002), and has been demonstrated to have a predictive value of risk  
73 evaluation in several cardiovascular studies (Boutouyrie et al., 2002; Laurent et al., 2003).  $C$  can be  
74 determined regionally using the foot-to-foot method (Laurent et al., 2003), and several methods have

75 been proposed to determine  $C$  locally, such as the PU-loop (Khir et al., 2001) and lnDU-loop (Feng and  
76 Khir, 2010).

77         The elastic modulus is a widely used parameter to evaluate the stiffness of a material. However,  
78 the non-linear mechanical behaviour of the arterial wall limits its application as a unique value  
79 describing arterial stiffness. Nevertheless, arterial distension *in-vivo* ranges in a limited interval of strain  
80 levels, and tangential elastic modulus,  $E_m$  (the tangent to the stress-strain relationship at a given  
81 strain/stress level) can provide valuable insight on the mechanical properties in the physiological  
82 pressure range (Panpho et al., 2019).  $E_m$  is commonly characterised using *in-vitro* testing of arterial  
83 samples subjected to uniaxial/biaxial loading conditions (Haskett et al., 2010). Given the clinical  
84 interest, non-invasive methods for determination of  $E_m$  have been devised (Payen et al., 2016; Uejima  
85 et al., 2019), and the current study is in-part an effort to advance the possibility of using  $E_m$  clinically.

86         The aim of this work is to introduce a novel approach to determine arterial function  
87 (distensibility; wave speed) and the mechanical properties (circumferential tangential elastic modulus)  
88 of flexible tubes and calf aortas using non-invasive measurements of diameter distension ( $D$ ) and blood  
89 flow velocity ( $U$ ). We also aim to examine the relative accuracy of the new approach against traditional  
90 techniques that use invasive measurements, such as the PU-loop method for determining wave speed  
91 and tensile testing for determining the  $E_m$ .

## 92 **Materials and Methods**

93         Ultrasound technologies are now available in almost every cardiac and arterial function clinic  
94 around the globe. Relying on the ability of such technologies to measure  $D$  and  $U$  relatively accurately  
95 and non-invasively, we have designed our experiments for measuring these parameters also non-  
96 invasively, i.e. without crossing the vessel wall, although using suitable laboratory equipment. Flexible  
97 tubes and calf aortas were used in the experiments, noting the mechanical properties of the flexible  
98 tubes are non-physiological, and were used to provide validation of the technique.

99         The general approach can be summarised as follows; first, determine  $C$  non-invasively in  
100 flexible tubes and calf aortas using the lnDU-loop method. The results are then used in the Bramwell-

101 Hill (Bramwell et al., 1923) and Moens-Korteweg (1878) equations to establish distensibility and elastic  
 102 modulus (non-invasively), respectively. When testing calf aortas, we hypothesised that, given the  
 103 pressure dependency of  $C$  due to the non-linear mechanical properties of the arterial wall (Spronck et  
 104 al., 2015), the non-invasive estimation of the elastic modulus provided an estimation of  $E_m$  at the  
 105 pressure level the artery was subjected to during the experiment. To validate our approach, the results  
 106 were compared to those determined using the traditional dynamic distensibility test and mechanical  
 107 tensile testing. The flowchart in **Figure 1** explains the steps we followed, and the sections below  
 108 describe the theoretical and experimental details.

### 109 **Non-invasive determination of wave speed**

110 The theoretical basis of the lnDU-loop method for the non-invasive determination of wave  
 111 speed ( ${}_nC$ ) has been described previously (Feng and Khir, 2010), can be written as

$$112 \quad {}nC = \pm \frac{1}{2} \frac{dU_{\pm}}{d \ln D_{\pm}} \quad (1)$$

113 Eq.1 describes a linear relation between  $U$  and  $\ln D$  for unidirectional waves, the slope of which  
 114 indicates wave speed, unit of  ${}_nC$  is m/s, '+' and '-' indicate the forward and backward directions. The  
 115 lnDU-loop method has been validated in previous work (Li and Khir, 2011). Here, we determined the  
 116 initial linear part by fitting the data corresponding to the early ejection upstroke of the loop, as  
 117 previously used with the PU-loop (Khir et al., 2001)).  ${}_nC$  will be compared with the foot-to-foot wave  
 118 speed  $C_{ftf} = L / \Delta t$ , where  $L$  is the distance between two pressure measurement sites,  $\Delta t$  is the time it  
 119 takes the wave to travel between the two measurements, and wave speed calculated using the PU-loop  
 120 as previously shown,  $C_{PU} = \pm \left( \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dP_{\pm}}{dU_{\pm}} \right)$ , where  $dP$  and  $dU$  are the change in pressure and velocity  
 121 respectively.

### 122 **Non-invasive determination of distensibility ${}_nDs$**

123 It is well established that  $C$  is a function of the tube distensibility ( $Ds$ ) according to the  
 124 Bramwell-Hill equation (Bramwell et al., 1923)

$$125 \quad C^2 = \frac{1}{\rho D_s} = \frac{A (\Delta P)}{\rho (\Delta A)} ; \quad D_{sd} = \frac{\Delta A}{A \Delta P} \quad (2)$$

126 where  $\rho$  (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) is the fluid density,  $D_s$  is the distensibility of the arterial wall and defined as the  
127 fractional change in the vessel cross sectional area ( $\Delta A$ ) in response to the change in pressure ( $\Delta P$ ) with  
128 respect to the initial cross sectional area ( $A$ ). Rearranging Eq.2 gives the non-invasive determination of  
129 distensibility ( ${}_nD_s$ );

$$130 \quad {}_nD_s = \frac{1}{\rho {}_nC^2} \quad (3)$$

### 131 **Non-invasive determination of Elastic modulus ( ${}_nE$ )**

132 Elastic modulus, defined as the ratio of stress to strain, is a material property of the vessel.  
133 Moens and Korteweg (1878) arrived independently to the equation that is named after them, which  
134 describes the relationship between the physical (wall thickness ( $h$ ) diameter ( $D$ )) and the mechanical  
135 properties (wave speed ( ${}_nC$ ), Elastic modulus ( ${}_nE$ )). Following (Fung, 1997), relaxing the thin wall  
136 assumption allows for determining the elastic modulus as

$$137 \quad {}_nE = {}_nC^2 \rho \frac{D + h}{h} \quad (4)$$

138 Eq.4 is used to determine  ${}_nE$  for both elastic tubes and calf aortas. **Note that both  $h$  and  $D$  are the**  
139 **dimensions of the inflated unperturbed tubes/aortas.**

## 140 **Experimental work**

### 141 *Specimens*

142 Ten ascending aortas of matured calves (average 18 months, unknown gender) were obtained  
143 from an abattoir, stored at a freezing temperature of -20°C and allowed to thaw at room temperature for  
144 3 hours before testing without pre-conditioning. All side branches were occluded at their root using  
145 wired snares to avoid both leakage and reflections from the small branches. The length of the aorta was  
146 measured before mounting in the experimental setup for the wave speed evaluation (average  
147 37.5±3.4cm). Fresh water was used in all of the experiments due to similarity to blood density  
148 (difference <5%). As viscosity plays a negligible role in large arteries, we did not consider its effects in  
149 the current results.

### 150 *Determination of wave speed*

151 Set up: The setup of the *in-vitro* experiment for measuring wave speed in flexible tubes was  
152 introduced in a previous paper (Li and Khir, 2011). The properties of the flexible tubes used in this  
153 work are summarised in **Table 1**. The setup of the *in-situ* experiment for the calf aortas is shown in  
154 **Figure 2**.

155 BCM pump (Cardiacare, Minneapolis, MN, USA) is a flexible diaphragm pulsatile left  
156 ventricle assist device that was used to generate a pulse at the inlet of each flexible tube and calf aorta.  
157 The BCM was operated by an Intra-Aortic Balloon Pump (Datascope 97XT, Datascope, NJ, USA) and  
158 produced pressure and flow waveforms that are similar to those observed *in-vivo* (Khir et al., 2006).  
159 Heart rate was set to 80bpm and augmentation was set at the highest level. The inlet and outlet reservoirs  
160 were interconnected and the height of the fluid in the reservoirs was adjusted to 100cm above the  
161 longitudinal axis of the tube, producing an initial hydrostatic pressure of 10kPa to replicate a  
162 physiological diastolic pressure of 75mmHg. Aortas were stretched in the axial direction until  
163 horizontal (not bent). This set of experiments were performed at room temperature (~20-24°C).

164 Simultaneous waveforms of pressure ( $P$ ), external diameter ( $D_o$ ) and flow rate ( $Q$ ), from which  
165  $U$  was determined, were measured in a location approximately 20cm proximal to the outlet (**Figure**  
166 **2b**).  $D_o$  was measured using a pair of ultrasonic crystals (Sonometrics Corporation, Ontario, Canada)  
167 with a resolution of 0.024mm and **unloaded wall thickness** was measured using a digital caliper after  
168 the experiment.  $P$  and  $Q$  were measured using high-fidelity 6F tipped catheter pressure transducer  
169 (Millar Instruments, Texas, USA) and ultrasonic flow probe (Transonic System, Inc, NY, USA),  
170 respectively. All data were sampled at 500Hz using Sonolab (Sonometrics Corporation) and analysed  
171 using Matlab (The Mathworks, MA, USA).

172 The dynamic distensibility ( $D_{sd}$ ) was calculated as shown above (Eq.2), where  $\Delta A$  and  $\Delta P$  are  
173 respectively the difference between systolic and diastolic  $A$  and  $P$ .

#### 174 ***Mechanical determination of Tangential Elastic modulus ( $E_m$ )***

175  $E_m$  was determined using uniaxial tensile test (Model 5540, Instron Corporation, Norwood,  
176 MA, USA), and the experiments were performed at room temperature (~20-24°C).

177 Flexible tubes: Samples from the flexible tubes were cut into the standardized cross-section. The  
178 specimen was slowly stretched until a small increase in load was observed and initial specimen length  
179 was noted. The specimens were stretched until specimen failure at a crosshead rate of 10mm/min  
180 (Figure 3a, b).

181 Calf aorta: The protocol for this test comprises the following steps:  
182 Immediately following the *in-situ* experiments, symmetrical rings at the measurement sites were  
183 dissected. Each ring was free of arterial branches or irregular sections. Measurements of width ( $w_0$ ),  
184 thickness ( $h_0$ ) and circumference were taken several times using digital calliper and averaged; diameter  
185 was calculated from the circumference. Samples were kept wet by spraying water onto them.

186 The sample was placed and preloaded until 0.005N was reached. 3 cycles from 0 to 60mmHg,  
187 60 to 160mmHg and 30 to 200mmHg at loading rate of 10mm/min (Dobrin, 1978), were applied  
188 sequentially (Figure 3c, d). Pressure-equivalent stress levels were estimated using the Laplace's  
189 formula (Burton, 1954),

$$190 \quad \sigma = \frac{PD}{2h} \quad (5)$$

191 using the deformed diameter ( $D = D_0(1 + \epsilon)$  where  $D_0$  is the unloaded internal diameter). Stresses  
192 were calculated using the Cauchy's formulation (i.e. assuming the incompressibility of the arterial wall)  
193 (Duprey et al., 2010).

$$194 \quad \sigma = \frac{F}{A_0}(1 + \epsilon) \quad (6)$$

195 where  $F$  is the applied load,  $A_0 = w_0h_0$  the unloaded cross-sectional area, and  $\epsilon$  the strain.

196  $E_m$  was calculated at the loading part of the last cycle of each test as the slope of the tangent to  
197 the non-linear stress-strain relationship. Considering the initial 75mmHg pressure and  $\approx 20$ mmHg pulse  
198 pressure in the wave speed experiment,  $E_m$  was evaluated at a stress levels equivalent to pressures  
199 ranging from 70 to 90mmHg at intervals of 5mmHg.

200 Wall thickness in Eq.5 was assumed constant throughout the experiments and Table 2 includes  
201 the formulae used in the determination of all of the measured and calculated parameters.

202 **Statistical analysis**

203 All of the *in-situ* measurements were taken twice for each sample and the results averaged.  
204 Then, results were averaged across samples and presented as mean  $\pm$ SD. Student's t-test were  
205 performed using SPSS version 22 to compare the distensibility and elastic modulus calculated by  
206 different methods. For the wave speed  $C$ , differences between the three methods, i.e. InDU-loop, PU-  
207 loop and foot-to-foot, first evaluated using repeated measures ANCOVA, and then pairwise comparison  
208 was performed using Student's t-test as detailed before.  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.  
209 Bland-Altman technique (Martin Bland and Altman, 1986) was used to establish the agreement between  
210 different techniques, and the limits of agreement was taken as  $\pm 2$ SD of the mean difference.

## 211 Results

212 Examples of the measured  $D$  and  $U$  waveforms are presented in **Figure 4a** (*in-vitro*) and **Figure**  
213 **4b** (*in-situ*).

### 214 *In-vitro* results

215 The results of  ${}_nC$ ,  $D_{sd}$ ,  ${}_nD_s$ ,  ${}_nE$  and  $E_m$  in flexible tubes are shown in **Table 1**. As expected,  
216  ${}_nC$  increased with increasing  $h$  and decreased with increasing  $D$ .

217 The average difference between  $D_{sd}$  and  ${}_nD_s$  is  $0.35\text{MPa}^{-1}$  (limits of agreement:  $-19.9$  to  
218  $20.6\text{MPa}^{-1}$ ), with  ${}_nD_s$  being slightly higher (1.6%) than  $D_{sd}$ .

219 The results indicate that  ${}_nE$  is 6.9% smaller than  $E_m$ , and the average difference between the  
220 two methods is  $-0.28\text{MPa}$  (limits of agreement:  $-1.77$  to  $1.22\text{MPa}$ ). Overall, the two techniques showed  
221 good agreement, as most of the points lie in proximity of the identity line (**Figure 5a**). However, large  
222 differences between the two techniques in a few samples contributed to increasing the limits of  
223 agreement in the Bland-Altman plot (**Figure 5b**).

### 224 *In-situ* results

225 The dimensions of calf aortas were obtained after the water experiment. At the measurement  
226 site, the internal diameter ranges from 22.1 to 29.1mm (average:  $24.7 \pm 2.1\text{mm}$ ),  $h$  ranges from 4.5 to  
227 6.4mm (average:  $5.4 \pm 0.5\text{mm}$ ).

228 At the measurement site, the average  ${}_nC$  is  $3.80\pm 0.41$  m/s. The average  $C_{PU}$ , and  $C_{ftf}$  are  
229  $3.87\pm 0.43$  m/s and  $4.08\pm 0.73$  m/s, respectively. Repeated measures ANOVA indicated that there was a  
230 significant difference between wave speed measures ( $p<0.05$ ) and pairwise comparison yield significant  
231 difference between  ${}_nC$  and  $C_{PU}$ . The limit of agreement was  $\pm 1.34$  m/s between  $C_{PU}$  and  $C_{ftf}$ ,  $\pm 1.32$   
232 m/s between  ${}_nC$  and  $C_{ftf}$ , and  $\pm 0.16$  m/s between  $C_{PU}$  and  ${}_nC$  (**Figure 6**). We note that large limits of  
233 agreement between either of the loops methods ( $C_{PU}$  or  ${}_nC$ ) and foot-to-foot were caused by a single  
234 artery, where  $C_{ftf}$  was  $\sim 2$  m/s higher than  $C_{PU}$  or  ${}_nC$ . There was a small difference between  ${}_nC$  and  
235  $C_{PU}$  ( $-0.08\pm 0.08$ ), which was significant ( $P<0.05$ ), but not between  ${}_nC$  and  $C_{ftf}$  ( $P=0.31$ ). **Figure 7a**  
236 shows  $C$  calculated using different techniques.

### 237 *Non-invasive determination of distensibility and elastic modulus*

238 Average  ${}_nD_s$  is  $71.5\pm 14.4$  MPa<sup>-1</sup> and average  $D_{sd}$  is  $69.2\pm 13.7$  MPa<sup>-1</sup>. The average difference  
239 is  $1.2$  MPa<sup>-1</sup> ( $P=0.51$ , limits of agreement:  $-19.2$  to  $23.9$  MPa<sup>-1</sup>), **Figure 7b**.

240 Average  ${}_nE$  is  $0.179\pm 0.036$  MPa and average  $E_m$  is  $0.171\pm 0.030$  MPa and  $0.178\pm 0.031$  MPa at  
241 the experimental diastolic pressure 75 mmHg and at 80 mmHg, leading to an average difference between  
242 these two methods of  $0.008$  MPa (limits of agreement:  $-0.088$  to  $0.104$  MPa) ( $P=0.622$ ) and  $0.002$  MPa  
243 (limits of agreement:  $-0.094$  to  $0.097$  MPa) ( $P=0.917$ ), respectively, and indicating that  ${}_nE$  closely  
244 matched  $E_m$  in proximity of the diastolic pressure, (**Figure 7c**). The results of both techniques are in  
245 good agreement as demonstrated using the scatter plot with identity line and Bland-Altman plot, **Figure**  
246 **5c** and **d**.

## 247 **Discussion**

248 In this work we demonstrated the viability of a novel approach for the determination of arterial  
249 function and wall mechanical properties non-invasively.

250 The basic measurements of  $D$  and  $U$  were taken simultaneously at the same location. The novel  
251 approach relies chiefly on the determination of  ${}_nC$ , using the lnDU-loop; which was previously  
252 validated against invasive measurements (Li and Khir, 2011). Wave speed determined non-invasively

253 was used in the Bramwell-Hill equation (Bramwell et al., 1923) to establish arterial function;  
254 distensibility, and in the Moens-Korteweg equation to establish wall mechanical property: i.e. elastic  
255 modulus. The results were validated against classical invasive techniques, and our main finding  
256 demonstrate the good agreement between non-invasive and invasive techniques for determining  $nC$ ,  
257  $nD_s$  and  $nE$ .

258 Arterial function and mechanical properties are important determinants of blood pressure. Most  
259 current clinical techniques for determining arterial function refer to wave speed as the parameter of  
260 interest, and use non-invasive measurements of pressure (Mackenzie et al., 2002) or flow (Wentland et  
261 al., 2014) at two different sites, applying the foot-to-foot method to determine wave speed. The current  
262 gold standard technique uses MRI measurement (Huybrechts et al., 2011); however, availability of MRI  
263 limits its applicability in the clinical setting. To determine arterial distensibility and mechanical  
264 properties, most techniques rely on the relationship between area/diameter and pressure changes, Eq.2  
265 (Godia et al., 2007; Mackenzie et al., 2002). However, central pressure (ascending aorta) cannot be  
266 accurately measured directly non-invasively and may only be derived from peripheral recordings (e.g.  
267 carotid and femoral arteries) using transfer functions, which may introduce inaccuracies. Furthermore,  
268 wave speed measured using MRI present regional values of wave speed, indicating an average  
269 distensibility between the two measurement sites. Therefore, the applicability of earlier techniques to a  
270 specific site *in-vivo*, the ascending aorta for example, remains limited.

271 The technique presented in the current work is based on the non-invasive measurements of flow  
272 velocity and diameter at a single site, which could be routinely obtained using ultrasound technologies  
273 currently widely available. This means the function and mechanical properties can be determined at any  
274 arterial site accessible by ultrasound measurements, providing local information, which would be  
275 particularly useful for the assessment/diagnosis of arterial stiffness.

276 All of the parameters assessed non-invasively in this work showed good agreement with the  
277 corresponding values measured invasively both *in-vitro* and *in-situ*. Limit of agreement intervals  
278 between wave speed estimates are smaller than those reported *in-vivo* by Di Lascio (2014). Agreement  
279 between methods is within  $\pm 10\%$  (in the discussion limits of agreement are expressed as percent of the

280 ratio between difference and average of the measures obtained with the two methods) except for one  
281  $C_{ftf}$  value with higher deviation from its corresponding  $C_{PU}$  and  ${}_nC$ . It is worth considering that, from  
282 Eq.3-4, a  $\pm 10\%$  error in the estimation of  ${}_nC$  produces a  $\sim \pm 20\%$  error in the estimation of  ${}_nE$  and  ${}_nD_s$ .  
283 In flexible tubes, no significant difference was found between invasive and non-invasive  $E$  and  $D_s$  (-  
284 6.9% and 1.5%, respectively), and the size of the difference between the two methods is in the order of  
285 the data experimental noise. In the calf aortas, average differences between the invasive and non-  
286 invasive measurements were 1.1% and 3.4% for  $E$  and  $D_s$ , respectively, with limit of agreement  $\pm 54\%$   
287 and  $\pm 30\%$ , similar to differences found in flexible tubes and comparable to the size of the experimental  
288 noise and consequent errors in the estimation of  ${}_nC$ .

289 The lnDU-loop method relies on the linear relationship between  $U$  and  $\ln D$  in early systole  
290 when the assumption of unidirectional forward-travelling waves is reasonable. Therefore, we postulate  
291 that, given the non-linearity of the arterial wall stress-strain relationship, the wave speed obtained with  
292 this method would provide an insight into arterial stiffness ( $E_m$ ) at the early systolic phase of the cardiac  
293 cycle; i.e. at stress level equivalent to the diastolic pressure. Our results seem to support this postulation;  
294 the highest agreement between  ${}_nE$  and  $E_m$  was found at 80mmHg, where the experiments diastolic  
295 pressure was set at 75mmHg and the pulse pressure was  $\approx 20$ mmHg. In any case,  ${}_nE$  and  $E_m$  did not  
296 differ significantly at any of the investigated pressure levels.

297 The nonlinearity of the arterial wall stress-strain relationship is well established (Burton, 1954).  
298 Therefore, it may be misleading to consider a single value of the  $E_m$ , which needs to be determined as  
299 a function of the temporal stress/pressure values. Therefore, given the dynamic distensibility of the  
300 arterial wall,  $D_{sd}$ , with every heartbeat, a more meaningful estimate of  ${}_nE$  or  $E_m$  would be at the  
301 strain/stress levels corresponding to early systolic pressure range. In addition,  ${}_nE$  or  $E_m$  is a stiffness  
302 index, differently from wave speed, has the advantage of being independent on the geometrical features  
303 (i.e.  $h$  and  $D$ ) and could represent a more powerful indicator of the mechanical status of the arterial  
304 tissue to be used in clinical practice.

305 Previous attempts to non-invasively estimate the arterial wall elastic modulus *in-vivo* relied on  
306 stress-strains relationships using pressure and diameter acquired with applanation tonometry and

307 ultrasound scanning, respectively (Aggoun et al., 2000; Khamdaeng et al., 2012; Pagani et al., 1979).  
308 While this method provided results (Aggoun et al., 2000; Khamdaeng et al., 2012) comparable to those  
309 presented in our study, its clinical applicability remains limited to superficial arteries, such as the carotid  
310 and the femoral artery. More recently, Franquet et al. (2013) developed a technique based on MRI  
311 acquisition of the artery cross-sectional area and brachial pressure measurements. The method involves  
312 tuning the elastic parameters of an artery cross-section finite elements model to match the *in-vivo* time-  
313 deformation acquired with MRI, when the measured brachial pressure is prescribed as input. While the  
314 method elegantly estimates E, it employs a huge assumption; the pressure in the studied artery equals  
315 that of the brachial artery, neglecting the distal pressure amplification characterising the arterial tree.  
316 Further, the cost of MRI represents a major limitation for using this technique in large cohorts.

### 317 **Experimental Considerations**

318         Although, the wall of large arteries is known to be anisotropic, the circumferential direction of  
319 the wall, pertaining to distensibility, is more relevant to arterial function. Therefore, the tensile tests for  
320 the calf aortas were conducted in the circumferential direction only.

321         It has previously been reported that the results of the InDU-loop method for determining  $nC$   
322 could be affected by large reflections (Borlotti et al., 2014), when the diameter and velocity  
323 measurements are taken close to reflection sites. The measurement site in the current experiments is  
324 relatively far from the reflection site, the interface between the calf aorta or the flexible tubes and the  
325 connecting tubes to the reservoir 2 (**Figure 2**). If the measurements were taken closer to the reflection  
326 site, the results may have been affected, and their accuracy may not hold. Segers et al (2014) proposed  
327 a technique for correcting errors incurred by reflections to the PU-loop, however the technique requires  
328 invasive measurements of pressure, which would limit its use in the clinical setting. The relationship  
329 between the size of reflection and the consequent wave speed inaccuracy remains an open question,  
330 which together with a non-invasive correction factor to the loops technique present worthy challenges  
331 that require addressing in future work.

332         The wall thicknesses of calf aortas were measured after the experiments, as we did not have any means  
333 of taking these measurements dynamically. Therefore, average h of our measurements might be slightly  
334 larger than those *in-vivo*. However, we expect these differences to be insignificant (Wells et al., 1998).

335 **Limitations**

336           The applicability of the *in-situ* data presented here to normal vessels *in-vivo* has some  
337 limitations: for example, the mechanical properties of blood vessels *in-vivo* are strongly influenced by  
338 the tethering to surrounding tissues and by the tone of the smooth muscles in the vessel wall, which in  
339 turn depend on the humoral and neural factors. Such factors were not studied in this investigation,  
340 although we expect their effect might be too small and will not significantly affect the results or their  
341 interpretations. Another minor limitation is the use of tap water instead of a blood mimicking fluid;  
342 water-glycerine mix, or physiological saline solution. The imbalance in electrolytes between  
343 intracellular and experimental fluid might have altered the elastic properties of the arterial tissue,  
344 although this is expected to induce negligible effect on the agreement between the two techniques.

345           The temperature clearly affects the behaviour of the arterial wall (here room and not  
346 physiological body temperature), although the changes might be too small. However, the purpose of  
347 this study was to compare the results of two techniques. Since, both experiments have been performed  
348 at the same temperature, comparing the results remain valid and should not be affected by the said  
349 temperature. It has also been shown that freezing affects the mechanical properties of the arterial wall.  
350 However, the effect of freezing on the passive mechanical properties of the arterial wall is small and  
351 should not affect the validity of the study. Additionally, the comparison between techniques was  
352 performed on the same samples, thus further mitigating against risk of possible bias due to freezing.

353 **Conclusions**

354           The novel approach developed in this work using the non-invasively determined wave speed  
355 by InDU-loop method makes it possible to establish arterial function; distensibility, and wall properties;  
356 Em. The results of the current work, evaluated in flexible tubes and calf aortas, agreed well with those  
357 determined using traditional invasive techniques; dynamic distensibility test and tensile test, which  
358 provide confidence in the viability of the new technique. The non-invasive nature and encouraging  
359 results obtained in this work warrant clinical investigation to establish the usefulness of the proposed  
360 novel approach.

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#### 364 **Conflict of interest statement**

365 YL, AG, IBW and AWK have nothing to disclose.

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474 **Table 1:** Materials, dimensions, wave speeds and mechanical properties of the flexible tubes.

<b>Material</b>	<b>D</b> <b>(mm)</b>	<b>h</b> <b>(mm)</b>	<b><math>{}_nC</math></b> <b>m/s</b>	<b><math>D_{sd}</math></b> <b>(MPa<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b><math>{}_nD_s</math></b> <b>(MPa<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b><math>Diff_{D_s}</math></b> <b>(MPa<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b><math>E_m</math></b> <b>(MPa)</b>	<b><math>{}_nE</math></b> <b>(MPa)</b>	<b><math>Diff_E</math></b> <b>(MPa)</b>
<b>Silicone</b>	8	1	22.3	1.9	2.0	0.1	4.88	4.48	-0.41
		2	26.7	1.1	1.4	0.3	4.25	3.56	-0.68
		3	33.5	1.0	0.9	-0.1	4.16	4.11	-0.05
	10	1	20.0	2.9	2.5	-0.4	4.83	4.40	-0.43
		2	25.3	1.4	1.6	0.2	4.71	3.84	-0.87
		3	29.9	1.0	1.1	0.1	4.61	3.87	-0.74
	16	2.4	22.4	1.6	2.0	0.4	4.72	3.85	-0.87
	3	25.1	1.4	1.6	0.2	3.97	3.99	0.02	
<b>Rubber</b>	16.7	1.5	23.9	1.9	1.8	-0.1	5.08	6.70	1.62
	20.6	1.5	20.7	2.1	2.3	0.2	6.28	6.31	0.03
<b>Latex</b>	8.5	0.1	5.2	48.9	37.6	-11.3	0.96	1.56	0.60
	24.2	0.27	3.1	118.2	103.4	-14.8	0.90	0.61	-0.29
	32.3	0.27	2.6	118.3	148.0	29.7	2.67	1.16	-1.51
Average difference						0.3			
Limit of agreement						-19.9 – 20.6	-1.78 – 1.22		

475 D: internal diameter, h: wall thickness,  ${}_nC$ : wave speed determined by  $lnDU$ -loop,  $D_{sd}$ : distensibility  
 476 calculated from the dynamic test,  ${}_nD_s$ :distensibility calculated from  ${}_nC$ ,  $E_m$ : tangential elastic modulus  
 477 given by the tensile test,  ${}_nE$ :Elastic modulus calculated from  ${}_nC$ ,  $Diff_{D_s}=D_{sd}-{}_nD_s$ ,  $Diff_E=E_m-{}_nE$ .

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482 Table 2 - Formulae used in the determination of all of the measured and calculated parameters

	Invasive testing	Non-invasive testing
$D$	$D = D_0(1 + \epsilon)$	$D = \sqrt{D_e^2 - 4D_0h_0 - 4h_0}$
$h$	$h = h_0$	$h = \frac{D_e - D}{2}$
$\sigma$	$\sigma = \frac{F}{w_0h_0} (1 + \epsilon)$	N/A
Laplace equation	$\sigma = \frac{PD_0(1 + \epsilon)}{2h_0}$	N/A
$\epsilon$	$\epsilon = \frac{L - L_0}{L_0 + \frac{\pi\delta}{2}}$	N/A
$E_m$	$E_m = \left. \frac{d\sigma}{d\epsilon} \right _p$	N/A
$Ds$	$Ds = \frac{\Delta A}{A \Delta P}$	N/A
${}_nE$	N/A	${}_nE = {}_nC^2\rho \frac{D + h}{h}$
${}_nDs$	N/A	${}_nDs = \frac{1}{\rho c^2}$

- 483  
 484  $D_e$ : unperturbed loaded external diameter  
 485  $D$ : unperturbed loaded internal diameter  
 486  $h$ : unperturbed loaded wall thickness  
 487  $E_m$ : tangential elastic modulus  
 488  $\sigma$ : Cauchy stress  
 489  $\epsilon$ : strain  
 490  ${}_nC$ : non-invasive wave speed  
 491  $\delta$ : diameter of the tensiometer holding pin  
 492  $L_0$ : Initial distance between tensiometer holding pin  
 493  $L$ : Distance between tensiometer holding pin  
 494  $w_0$ : Initial width of the specimen ring  
 495  $D_0$ : Unloaded diameter  
 496  $h_0$ : Initial wall thickness

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## Figures Captions

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506 **Figure 1:** Flow chart for the experimental design.

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508 **Figure 2:** (a) A schematic diagram of the experimental setup.  $R_{es1}$  and  $R_{es2}$  are the inlet and outlet  
509 reservoirs, which provide the initial pressure to the system, and keep the system air-free. Pressure and  
510 flow were measured using transducer tipped catheters, ultrasonic flow meter and probes, respectively.  
511 Diameter was measured using a pair of ultrasound crystals. (b) The detailed diagram of the aorta and  
512 the measurement site. The average length of the aorta was  $37.5 \pm 3.4$  cm. Two flexible tubes were  
513 inserted into the aorta to connect the aorta to the water tank, and tied with the cable ties. Distance was  
514 measured in the preparation.

515

516 **Figure 3:** Test Sequences for flexible tubes (a, b) and calf aortas (c, d).

517

518 **Figure 4:** (a) diameter and velocity waveforms in rubber tube 16.7 mm in diameter and 1.5 mm wall  
519 thickness at 50 cm away from the inlet of the tube in vitro; (b) diameter and velocity waveforms at  
520 upper thoracic of the calf aorta in situ.

521

522 **Figure 5:** The agreement between Elastic modulus determined by the *ln*DU-loop and tensile test is  
523 assessed by scatter plot and Bland-Altman method in flexible tubes (a, b) and calf aortas (c, d). In a and  
524 c, the dash line indicates the line of equality between the two parameters. In b and d, the dashed  
525 horizontal line indicates the average difference of Elastic modulus determined by the two methods. The  
526 upper and lower solid horizontal indicate  $\pm 2SD$ .

527

528 **Figure 6:** Bland-Altman plots comparing different methods for the estimation of  $C$  in calf aortas: *ln*DU-  
529 loop ( ${}_nC$ ), PU-loop ( $C_{PU}$ ), and foot-to-foot ( $C_{ftf}$ ) methods. Dashed lines indicate the average  
530 difference between methods and horizontal solid lines show  $\pm 2SD$ .

531

532 **Figure 7:** (a) wave speed (b) distensibility and (c) Elastic modulus results.  $C_{ftf}$ : foot-to-foot wave  
533 speed,  ${}_nC$ : *ln*DU-loop wave speed,  $C_{PU}$ : PU-loop wave speed,  ${}_nD_s$ : distensibility determined non-  
534 invasively,  $D_{sd}$ : dynamic distensibility,  ${}_nE$ : Elastic modulus determined non-invasively,  $E_m$ : tangential  
535 elastic modulus from tensile test.  $E_m$  is reported for values of pressure ranging from 70 to 90 mmHg.

536