

# The GH-Method

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## **Viscoelastic or Viscoplastic Glucose Theory (VGT #43): A Research of Statistics Methods Influences on Math-Physical Medicine Subjects by Using Statistical Correlations as Initial Examination Tool to Explore the Inter-Relationships of Three Selected Biomarkers, CVD Risk %, Averaged Daily Glucose (eAG), and HbA1C % (A1C), Within Three Different Selected Time-Windows, 15-Months, 46-Months, and 8.2 Years (98-Months), Also Applying VGT and Viscoelastic Perturbation Model to Predict Three Sets of Predicted CVD Risk % Based on the GH-Method: Math-Physical Medicine (No. 624)**

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**Note:** Readers who want to get a quick overview can read the abstract, results, and graphs.

### **Abstract**

Since 2012, the author has been collecting his body weight and finger-piercing glucose values each day. In addition, he accumulates medical conditions data including a combination of data for blood pressure (BP), heart rate (HR), and blood lipids along with lifestyle details (LD). Based on the collected big data, he further organized them into two main groups. The first is the medical conditions group (MC) with 4 categories: weight, glucose, blood pressures, and blood lipids. The second is the LD group with 6 categories: food & diet, exercise, water intake, sleep, stress, and daily routines. At first, he collected his data on a daily basis since Y2012 and then calculated a unique combined daily score for each of the 10 categories within the MC and LD groups. The combined scores of the 2 groups, 10 categories, and 500+ detailed elements constitute an overall “metabolism index (MI) model”. This MI model includes the root causes from 6 major lifestyle inputs and symptoms from 4 rudimentary chronic diseases: obesity, diabetes, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia. Therefore, it can serve as the foundation and building block for his additional research work that can expand into various diseases associated with different organs, such as cardiovascular diseases (CVD), and various cancers. As we know, lifestyle details cause rudimentary chronic diseases which further influence more complicated diseases, such as heart problems (CVD & CHD), chronic kidney disease

(CKD), stroke, diabetic retinopathy (DR), neuropathy, hypothyroidism, and others. Some genetic conditions and lifetime unhealthy habits, such as smoking, alcohol consumption, illicit drug use would account for approximately 15% to 25% of the root cause for rudimentary chronic diseases & their complications, including cancers and dementia. In addition to the genetic conditions, lifetime bad habits, and lifestyle details, some external factors, i.e., environmental factors, such as radiation, air and water pollution, food poison and pollution, toxic chemicals, and hormonal therapy, can also contribute to the causes for a variety of cancers. All of the above-mentioned diseases fall into the category of “symptoms” which are the “root-causes” of poor and unhealthy lifestyles. In articles No. 622 (over 15-month period), No. 623 (over 46-month period), and No. 624 (over 98-month period or 8.2 years), the author applies the viscoelasticity and viscoplasticity theories to conduct his research to discover some hidden behavior or possible relationship among 3 key biomarkers, CVD risk probability % (CVD risk, a symptom disease), daily average glucose mg/dL (eAG, either CGM sensor or finger-pierced), and its related HbA1C % (A1C, either finger A1C or sensor A1C). The hidden behaviors and possible inter-relationships among the three biomarkers are “time-dependent” which change from time to time. This is why he applies viscoelastic & viscoplastic theories (VGT) from physics and engineering to conduct his medical research work.

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The author previously conducted similar analyses for these same datasets of selected biomarkers using a traditional statistical regression method. Generally speaking, statistical methods only deal with numerical characteristics of collected datasets and do not connect with the internal physical characteristics or behaviors of biomarkers in internal organs. In other words, any statistical method has no implicit connection with any internal biophysical behavior or biomedical phenomenon. Incidentally, the accuracy and applicability of results using any statistical method are heavily dependent on internal characteristics of data sample, size of dataset, and the time-window coverage of the chosen data. Therefore, we must be careful in selecting appropriate statistical methods and treat their analysis conclusions cautiously. For example, in this analysis, the author performed three basic correlation analyses of the same dataset for three biomarkers, CVD risk %, eAG, and A1C %, by choosing three different time-windows, 15-months, 46-months, and 98-months (8.2 years). The following displayed results using “daily data” have shown the vast differences among the three statistical correlation analysis results: (1) Correlations using 15 months (10/1/2020 - 2/28/2022): CVD vs. eAG = -55%; CVD/A1C = -59%; eAG vs. A1C = 97%. (2) Correlations using 46 months (8/8/2018 - 3/3/2022): CVD vs. eAG = 70%; CVD/A1C = 70%; eAG vs. A1C = 99%. (3) Correlations using 98 months in 8.2 years (1/1/2014 - 3/3/2022): CVD vs. eAG = 80%; CVD/A1C = 79%; eAG vs. A1C = 99%. It is evident that the 15-month window results in negative correlations. The 46-month window provides more moderate correlations, while the 98-month window provides high correlations. This has proven that a longer time-window coverage (not necessarily more data elements) would usually provide additional insights of certain biomarker behaviors; therefore, a complete and more accurate picture could be displayed. This particular statement can also be interpreted that a clear CVD risk's picture can be seen with a longer coverage period of time with meaningful inside information of the biomarker, not just the inclusion of more data elements. Nevertheless, the correlations between eAG and A1C, regardless of the time-window selection, are always high (97% to 99%). This is due to the fact that, by definition, A1C is determined by the 90-days moving average of eAG. Therefore, a quick pre-examination by using correlations of the three selected datasets would provide some hints regarding the effectiveness and usefulness for his later analysis results. Obviously, from these studies using 3 different time windows, 15-months or 1.3 years, 46-months or 3.8 years, and 98-month or 8.2 years, a wider time-window coverage of data behaviors, not more data points in the selected time window, usually offers a better understanding of the inner-characteristics for the biomarker datasets which then achieve accurate or useful results. The

following defined equations are used to establish the stress-strain diagram in a space-domain (SD): Strain =  $\epsilon$  (CVD risk %) = individual CVD risk % at present time. Stress =  $\sigma$  (based on change rate of strain, CVD risk, multiplying with a viscosity factor, eAG or A1C) =  $\eta * (d\epsilon/dt) = \eta * (d\text{-strain}/d\text{-time}) = (\text{viscosity factor } \eta \text{ using individual eAG or A1C at present time}) * (\text{CVD risk at present time} - \text{CVD risk at previous time})$ . Next, he applies the viscoelastic perturbation model to calculate the following predicted CVD risk %. Perturbed or predicted CVD risk % = strain value (CVD risk %) at present time + stress value at present time (i.e., CVD risk change rate \* eAG or A1C) \* amplification factor. For example, in the 8.2 years' case, the selected amplification factor for A1C is 1.0 and for eAG is 0.0625 (or divided by 16) which allows the two stress scales (Y-axis scales) to be on even ground. To offer a simple explanation to readers who do not have a physics or engineering background, the author includes a brief excerpt from Wikipedia regarding the description of basic concepts for elasticity and plasticity theories, viscoelasticity and viscoplasticity theories from the disciplines of engineering and physics in the method section. In conclusion, the following three observations outline the findings from this research work of statistical influences on mathematical medical research projects by selecting three different time-windows of CVD risk datasets: (1) From the pre-examination using correlation studies in a time-domain, the smallest data points of 9 (8.2 years with 98-months of information) offers the highest correlations among CVD risk, eAG, and A1C. The shortest time frame of 15-months provides the worst correlations among CVD risk, eAG, and A1C, while the 46-months' time window is situated in the middle. These findings prove that the insight information or behaviors of a biomarker is far more important than the sheer number of data points. Usually, a longer time window of a dataset would reveal more insight into the behavior of its associated biomarker, but this statement is still depending upon case by case in medicine. Generally speaking, the higher positive correlations provide a hint that this longer time-window analysis can usually produce meaningful and useful results. (2) In the stress-strain diagram in a space-domain (SD), the three curves have different appearances from each other. This is due to the following two reasons. The first is that the strain information (CVD risk) is different in different time-windows. The second is that its associated viscosity factors i.e., eAG or A1C are also different at various time instant. Nevertheless, due to the author's continuous improvement on his eAG (higher in Y2014 and then dropping to its lowest in Y2022), and eAG associated A1C, his strain value (CVD risk) is then moving from the right side of the diagram toward the left side. On the stress-scale, both different strain rates and viscosity factors determine the y-scale values. For an overall viewpoint, the 8.2-years' curve shows a complete

view from Y2014 to Y2022 with the biggest CVD risk change rate during the sub-period from Y2014 to Y2017. The 46-months' curve reflects a moderate and confined area for CVD risks and their change rates. The 15-months' curve is the most meaningless case due to its insufficient inclusion of biomarker behaviors. It should be noted that these stress scales have been adjusted by using (A1C) and (eAG / 20 or 16) in order to achieve a better viewing of shape and comparison of the stress-strain curves. (3) Using the viscoelastic perturbation model, a waveform comparison study of the metabolism calculated CVD risk % against two predicted CVD risks, using eAG or A1C, can be done. For both time-window cases of 15-months and 46-months, their negative or moderate correlations are not high enough. As a result, the introduction of a "stronger curve vibrations" effect from the perturbation factors i.e., the "stress element", therefore produces less-meaningful or not so useful CVD risk predictions. On the contrary, the 98-month's case only has 9 data points but with very high correlation results. It can produce highly accurate

predicted CVD risks using the visco-perturbation model. In summary, this particular report shows that if using a shorter 15-month dataset, it would result in unsatisfactory results. If using a moderate 46-month dataset, the CVD risk % would have higher correlations with both eAG and A1C, but their associated predicted CVD risks are still not quite useful due to its moderate amount of biomarker information. Only using the 8.2 years (9 data points covering a 98-month period) case can reveal a better picture of inter-relations between CVD risk versus both eAG and A1C. The author attempts to interpret the above findings using biomedical terminology (not math-physical languages) as follows: Heart problems, such as CVD, do not occur suddenly, and are usually associated with a patient's lifestyle over a longer period of time. The majority of CVD patients (75% to 80%) also reflect diabetes conditions with hyperglycemia (high eAG and high A1C). Therefore, for patients with both heart problems and diabetes, in order to lower their risks of having CVD, a longer period of continuous efforts on lowering their eAG and A1C is necessary.

**Keywords:** Viscoelastic; Viscoplastic; Daily average glucose; Cardiovascular disease; HbA1C

**Abbreviations:** CVD: cardiovascular disease; MC: medical conditions; LD: lifestyle details; MI: metabolism index; eAG: daily average glucose; SD: space-domain; TD: time-domain; MPM: math-physical medicine

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Since 2012, the author has been collecting his body weight and finger-piercing glucose values each day. In addition, he accumulates medical conditions data including a combination of data for blood pressure (BP), heart rate (HR), and blood lipids along with lifestyle details (LD). Based on the collected big data, he further organized them into two main groups. The first is the medical conditions group (MC) with 4 categories: weight, glucose, blood pressures, and blood lipids. The second is the LD group with 6 categories: food & diet, exercise, water intake, sleep, stress, and daily routines. At first, he collected his data on a daily basis since Y2012 and then calculated a unique combined daily score for each of the 10 categories within the MC and LD groups. The combined scores of the 2 groups, 10 categories, and 500+ detailed elements constitute an overall “metabolism index (MI) model”. This MI model includes the root causes from 6 major lifestyle inputs and symptoms from 4 rudimentary chronic diseases: obesity, diabetes, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia. Therefore, it can serve as the foundation and building block for his additional research work that can expand into various diseases associated with different organs, such as cardiovascular diseases (CVD), and various cancers.

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“symptoms” which are the “root-causes” of poor and unhealthy lifestyles.

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= individual CVD risk % at present time

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=  $\eta * (d\epsilon/dt)$

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= (viscosity factor  $\eta$  using individual eAG or A1C at present time) \* (CVD risk at present time - CVD risk at previous time)

Next, he applies the viscoelastic perturbation model to calculate the following predicted CVD risk %.

Perturbed or predicted CVD risk %

= strain value (CVD risk %) at present time + stress value at present time (i.e., CVD risk change rate \* eAG or A1C) \* amplification factor

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## 2. METHODS

### 2.1 Elasticity, plasticity, viscoelasticity and viscoplasticity

The difference between elastic materials and viscoelastic materials (from "Soborthans, innovating shock and vibration solutions").

What are elastic materials?

Elasticity is the tendency of solid materials to return to their original shape after forces are applied on them. When the forces are removed, the object will return to its initial shape and size if the material is elastic.

What are viscous materials?

Viscosity is a measure of a fluid's resistance to flow. A fluid with large viscosity resists motion. A fluid with low viscosity flows. For

example, water flows more easily than syrup because it has a lower viscosity. High viscosity materials might include honey, syrups, or gels – generally things that resist flow. Water is a low viscosity material, as it flows readily. Viscous materials are thick or sticky or adhesive. Since heating reduces viscosity, these materials don't flow easily. For example, warm syrup flows more easily than cold.

What is viscoelastic?

Viscoelasticity is the property of materials that exhibit both viscous and elastic characteristics when undergoing deformation. Synthetic polymers, wood, and human tissue, as well as metals at high temperature, display significant viscoelastic effects. In some applications, even a small viscoelastic response can be significant.

Elastic behavior versus viscoelastic behavior

The difference between elastic materials and viscoelastic materials is that viscoelastic materials have a viscosity factor and the elastic ones don't. Because viscoelastic materials have the viscosity factor, they have a strain rate dependent on time. Purely elastic materials do not dissipate energy (heat) when a load is applied, then removed; however, a viscoelastic substance does.

The following brief introductions are excerpts from Wikipedia:

“Elasticity (physics):

The physical property when materials or objects return to original shape after deformation.

In physics and materials science, elasticity is the ability of a body to resist a distorting influence and to return to its original size and shape when that influence or force is removed. Solid objects will deform when adequate loads are applied to them; if the material is elastic, the object will return to its initial shape and size after removal. This is in contrast to plasticity, in which the object fails to do so and instead remains in its deformed state.

The physical reasons for elastic behavior can be quite different for different materials. In metals, the atomic lattice changes size and

shape when forces are applied (energy is added to the system). When forces are removed, the lattice goes back to the original lower energy state. For rubbers and other polymers, elasticity is caused by the stretching of polymer chains when forces are applied.

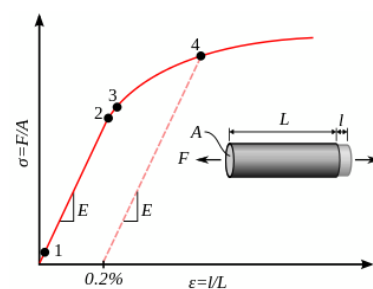
Hooke's law states that the force required to deform elastic objects should be directly proportional to the distance of deformation, regardless of how large that distance becomes. This is known as perfect elasticity, in which a given object will return to its original shape no matter how strongly it is deformed. This is an ideal concept only; most materials which possess elasticity in practice remain purely elastic only up to very small deformations, after which plastic (permanent) deformation occurs.

In engineering, the elasticity of a material is quantified by the elastic modulus such as the Young's modulus, bulk modulus or shear modulus which measure the amount of stress needed to achieve a unit of strain; a higher modulus indicates that the material is harder to deform. The material's elastic limit or yield strength is the maximum stress that can arise before the onset of plastic deformation.

Plasticity (physics):

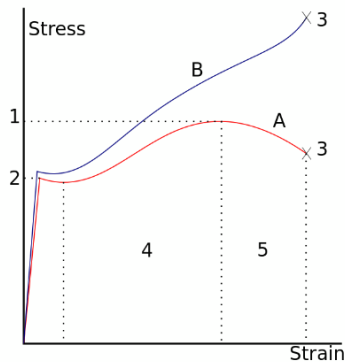
Deformation of a solid material undergoing non-reversible changes of shape in response to applied forces.

In physics and materials science, plasticity, also known as plastic deformation, is the ability of a solid material to undergo permanent deformation, a non-reversible change of shape in response to applied forces. For example, a solid piece of metal being bent or pounded into a new shape displays plasticity as permanent changes occur within the material itself. In engineering, the transition from elastic behavior to plastic behavior is known as yielding.



Stress–strain curve showing typical yield behavior for nonferrous alloys.

1. True elastic limit
2. Proportionality limit
3. Elastic limit
4. Offset yield strength



A stress–strain curve typical of structural steel.

- 1: Ultimate strength
- 2: Yield strength (yield point)
- 3: Rupture
- 4: Strain hardening region
- 5: Necking region
- A: Apparent stress ( $F/A_0$ )
- B: Actual stress ( $F/A$ )

Plastic deformation is observed in most materials, particularly metals, soils, rocks, concrete, and foams. However, the physical mechanisms that cause plastic deformation can vary widely. At a crystalline scale, plasticity in metals is usually a consequence of dislocations. Such defects are relatively rare in most crystalline materials, but are numerous in some and part of their crystal structure; in such cases, plastic crystallinity can result. In brittle materials such as rock, concrete and bone, plasticity is caused predominantly by slip at microcracks. In cellular materials such as liquid foams or biological tissues, plasticity is mainly a consequence of bubble or cell rearrangements, notably T1 processes.

For many ductile metals, tensile loading applied to a sample will cause it to behave in an elastic manner. Each increment of load is accompanied by a proportional increment in extension. When the load is removed, the piece returns to its original size. However, once the load exceeds a threshold – the yield strength – the extension increases more

rapidly than in the elastic region; now when the load is removed, some degree of extension will remain.

Elastic deformation, however, is an approximation and its quality depends on the time frame considered and loading speed. If, as indicated in the graph opposite, the deformation includes elastic deformation, it is also often referred to as "elasto-plastic deformation" or "elastic-plastic deformation".

Perfect plasticity is a property of materials to undergo irreversible deformation without any increase in stresses or loads. Plastic materials that have been hardened by prior deformation, such as cold forming, may need increasingly higher stresses to deform further. Generally, plastic deformation is also dependent on the deformation speed, i.e. higher stresses usually have to be applied to increase the rate of deformation. Such materials are said to deform viscoplastically."

Viscoelasticity:

Property of materials with both viscous and elastic characteristics under deformation.

In materials science and continuum mechanics, viscoelasticity is the property of materials that exhibit both viscous and elastic characteristics when undergoing deformation. Viscous materials, like water, resist shear flow and strain linearly with time when a stress is applied. Elastic materials strain when stretched and immediately return to their original state once the stress is removed.

Viscoelastic materials have elements of both of these properties and, as such, exhibit time-dependent strain. Whereas elasticity is usually the result of bond stretching along crystallographic planes in an ordered solid, viscosity is the result of the diffusion of atoms or molecules inside an amorphous material.

In the nineteenth century, physicists such as Maxwell, Boltzmann, and Kelvin researched and experimented with creep and recovery of glasses, metals, and rubbers. Viscoelasticity was further examined in the late twentieth century when synthetic polymers were engineered and used in a variety of applications. Viscoelasticity calculations depend heavily on the viscosity variable,  $\eta$ .

The inverse of  $\eta$  is also known as fluidity,  $\phi$ . The value of either can be derived as a function of temperature or as a given value (i.e., for a dashpot).

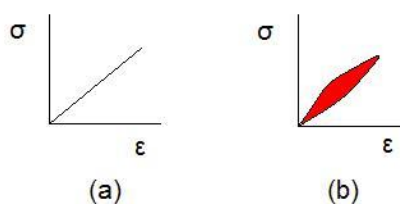
Depending on the change of strain rate versus stress inside a material, the viscosity can be categorized as having a linear, non-linear, or plastic response. When a material exhibits a linear response, it is categorized as a Newtonian material. In this case the stress is linearly proportional to the strain rate. If the material exhibits a non-linear response to the strain rate, it is categorized as non-Newtonian fluid. There is also an interesting case where the viscosity decreases as the shear/strain rate remains constant. A material which exhibits this type of behavior is known as thixotropic. In addition, when the stress is independent of this strain rate, the material exhibits plastic deformation. Many viscoelastic materials exhibit rubber like behavior explained by the thermodynamic theory of polymer elasticity.

Cracking occurs when the strain is applied quickly and outside of the elastic limit. Ligaments and tendons are viscoelastic, so the extent of the potential damage to them depends both on the rate of the change of their length as well as on the force applied.

A viscoelastic material has the following properties:

- hysteresis is seen in the stress–strain curve
- stress relaxation occurs: step constant strain causes decreasing stress
- creep occurs: step constant stress causes increasing strain
- its stiffness depends on the strain rate or the stress rate.

Elastic versus viscoelastic behavior



Stress–strain curves for a purely elastic material (a) and a viscoelastic material (b). The red area is a hysteresis loop and shows

the amount of energy lost (as heat) in a loading and unloading cycle. It is equal to

$$\oint \sigma d\epsilon$$

where  $\sigma$  is stress and  $\epsilon$  is strain.

Unlike purely elastic substances, a viscoelastic substance has an elastic component and a viscous component. The viscosity of a viscoelastic substance gives the substance a strain rate dependence on time. Purely elastic materials do not dissipate energy (heat) when a load is applied, then removed. However, a viscoelastic substance dissipates energy when a load is applied, then removed. Hysteresis is observed in the stress–strain curve, with the area of the loop being equal to the energy lost during the loading cycle. Since viscosity is the resistance to thermally activated plastic deformation, a viscous material will lose energy through a loading cycle. Plastic deformation results in lost energy, which is uncharacteristic of a purely elastic material's reaction to a loading cycle.

Specifically, viscoelasticity is a molecular rearrangement. When a stress is applied to a viscoelastic material such as a polymer, parts of the long polymer chain change positions. This movement or rearrangement is called “creep”. Polymers remain a solid material even when these parts of their chains are rearranging in order to accompany the stress, and as this occurs, it creates a back stress in the material. When the back stress is the same magnitude as the applied stress, the material no longer creeps. When the original stress is taken away, the accumulated back stresses will cause the polymer to return to its original form. The material creeps, which gives the prefix visco-, and the material fully recovers, which gives the suffix -elasticity.

Viscoplasticity:

Viscoplasticity is a theory in continuum mechanics that describes the rate-dependent inelastic behavior of solids. Rate-dependence in this context means that the deformation of the material depends on the rate at which loads are applied. The inelastic behavior that is the subject of viscoplasticity is plastic deformation which means that the material undergoes unrecoverable deformations when a load level is reached. Rate-dependent plasticity is important for transient plasticity calculations. The main difference between

rate-independent plastic and viscoplastic material models is that the latter exhibit not only permanent deformations after the application of loads but continue to undergo a creep flow as a function of time under the influence of the applied load.

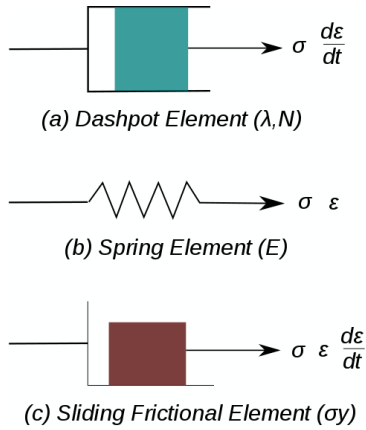


Figure 1. Elements used in one-dimensional models of viscoplastic materials.

The elastic response of viscoplastic materials can be represented in one-dimension by Hookean spring elements. Rate-dependence can be represented by nonlinear dashpot elements in a manner similar to viscoelasticity. Plasticity can be accounted for by adding sliding frictional elements as shown in Figure 1. In the figure  $E$  is the modulus of elasticity,  $\lambda$  is the viscosity parameter and  $N$  is a power-law type parameter that represents non-linear dashpot [ $\sigma(d\epsilon/dt) = \sigma = \lambda(d\epsilon/dt)^{1/N}$ ]. The sliding element can have a yield stress ( $\sigma_y$ ) that is strain rate dependent, or even constant, as shown in Figure 1c.

Viscoplasticity is usually modeled in three-dimensions using overstress models of the Perzyna or Duvaut-Lions types. In these models, the stress is allowed to increase beyond the rate-independent yield surface upon application of a load and then allowed to relax back to the yield surface over time. The yield surface is usually assumed not to be rate-dependent in such models. An alternative approach is to add a strain rate dependence to the yield stress and use the techniques of rate independent plasticity to calculate the response of a material.

For metals and alloys, viscoplasticity is the macroscopic behavior caused by a mechanism linked to the movement of dislocations in

grains, with superposed effects of inter-crystalline gliding. The mechanism usually becomes dominant at temperatures greater than approximately one third of the absolute melting temperature. However, certain alloys exhibit viscoplasticity at room temperature (300K). For polymers, wood, and bitumen, the theory of viscoplasticity is required to describe behavior beyond the limit of elasticity or viscoelasticity.

In general, viscoplasticity theories are useful in areas such as

- the calculation of permanent deformations,
- the prediction of the plastic collapse of structures,
- the investigation of stability,
- crash simulations,
- systems exposed to high temperatures such as turbines in engines, e.g. a power plant,
- dynamic problems and systems exposed to high strain rates.

### Phenomenology

For a qualitative analysis, several characteristic tests are performed to describe the phenomenology of viscoplastic materials. Some examples of these tests are

1. hardening tests at constant stress or strain rate,
2. creep tests at constant force, and
3. stress relaxation at constant elongation.

### Strain hardening test

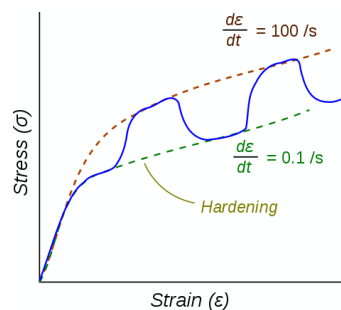


Figure 2. Stress–strain response of a viscoplastic material at different strain rates.

The dotted lines show the response if the strain-rate is held constant. The blue line

shows the response when the strain rate is changed suddenly.

One consequence of yielding is that as plastic deformation proceeds, an increase in stress is required to produce additional strain. This phenomenon is known as Strain/Work hardening. For a viscoplastic material the hardening curves are not significantly different from those of rate-independent plastic material. Nevertheless, three essential differences can be observed.

1. At the same strain, the higher the rate of strain the higher the stress.
2. A change in the rate of strain during the test results in an immediate change in the stress–strain curve.
3. The concept of a plastic yield limit is no longer strictly applicable.

The hypothesis of partitioning the strains by decoupling the elastic and plastic parts is still applicable where the strains are small, i.e.,

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_e + \epsilon_{vp}$$

where  $\epsilon_e$  is the elastic strain and  $\epsilon_{vp}$  is the viscoplastic strain.

To obtain the stress–strain behavior shown in blue in the figure, the material is initially loaded at a strain rate of 0.1/s. The strain rate is then instantaneously raised to 100/s and held constant at that value for some time. At the end of that time period the strain rate is dropped instantaneously back to 0.1/s and the cycle is continued for increasing values of strain. There is clearly a lag between the strain-rate change and the stress response. This lag is modeled quite accurately by overstress models (such as the Perzyna model) but not by models of rate-independent plasticity that have a rate-dependent yield stress.”

**Note:** For a more detailed description, please refer to the “consolidated method” section which is given at the beginning of the special issue.

### 3. RESULTS

Figure 1 displays the data table and calculated results of this study.

Figure 1: Data table and calculation results of this study.

Figure 2 shows monthly or annually correlations in a time-domain among CVD risk %, eAG, A1C over three time-windows.

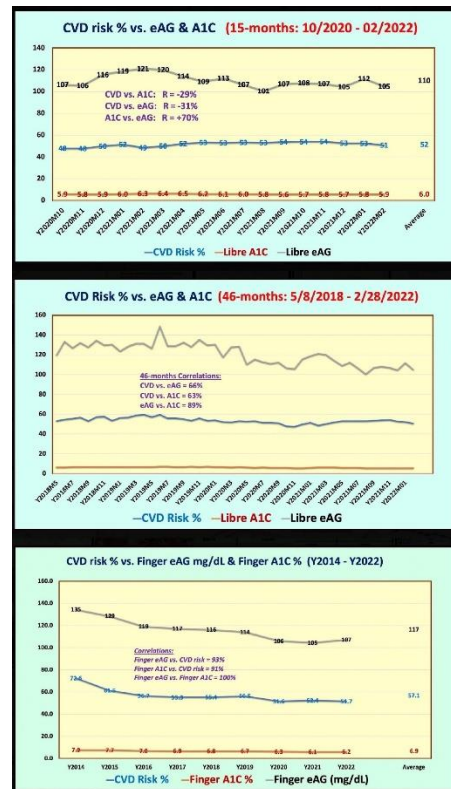


Figure 2: Monthly or annually correlations among CVD risk %, eAG, and A1C over three-time windows.

Figure 3 depicts the results of three SD stress-strain diagrams of CVD risk % using A1C and (eAG / 20 or 16) as their viscosity factors ( $\eta$ ).

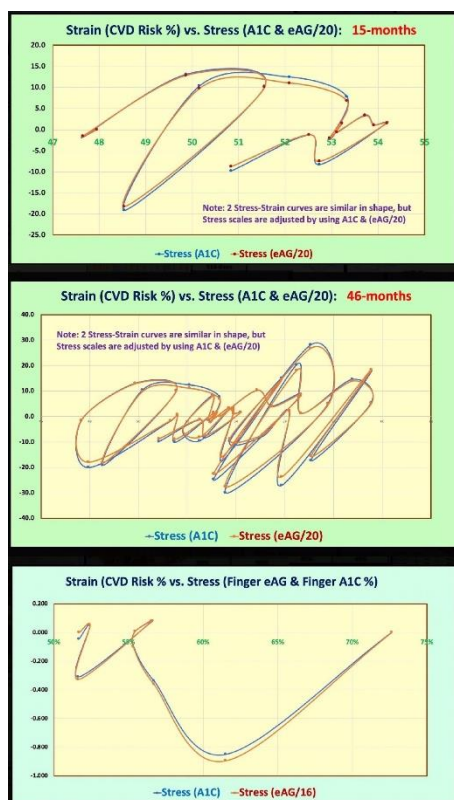


Figure 3: Three SD stress-strain diagrams.

Figure 4 reflects a comparison chart between the calculated CVD risk % versus two predicted CVD risks using viscoelastic perturbation model, within 3 time windows.

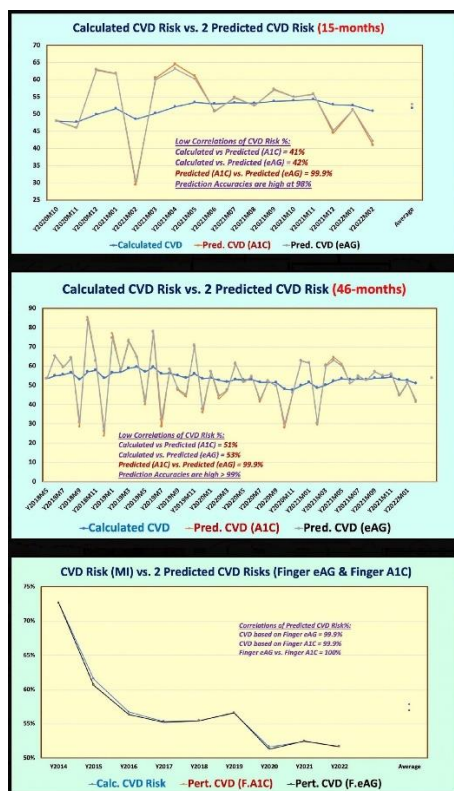


Figure 4: Three daily charts and summarized data table of within 3-time windows of correlations among CVD risk %, eAG, and A1C %.

Figure 5 illustrates three daily charts and a summarized data table within 3 time-windows of correlations among CVD risk %, eAG, and A1C %.

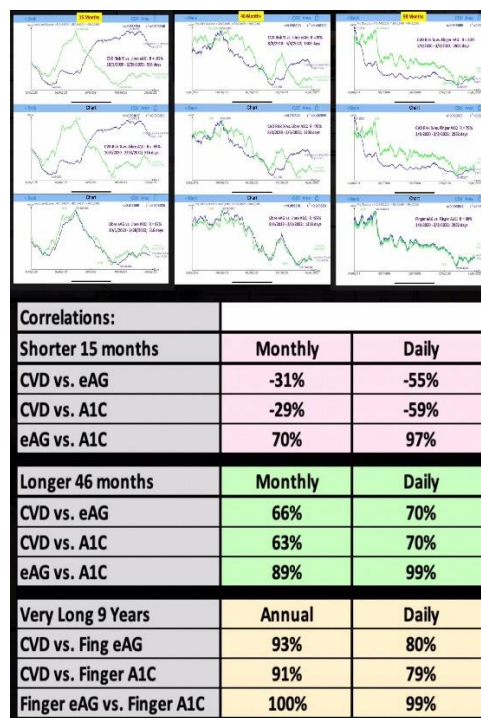


Figure 5: Two Predicted CVD risk % versus calculated CVD risk % using a viscoelastic perturbation model within three time-windows.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the following three observations outline the findings from this research work of statistical influences on math-physical medical research projects by selecting three different time-windows of CVD risk datasets:

- (1) From the pre-examination using correlation studies in a time-domain, the smallest data points of 9 (8.2 years with 98-months of information) offers the highest correlations among CVD risk, eAG, and A1C. The shortest time frame of 15-months provides the worst correlations among CVD risk, eAG, and A1C, while the 46-months' time window is situated in the middle. These findings prove that the insight information or behaviors of a biomarker is far more important than the sheer number of data points. Usually, a longer time window of a dataset would reveal more insight into the behavior of its associated biomarker, but this statement is still depending upon case by case in medicine. Generally speaking, the higher positive correlations provide a hint that this longer time-window analysis can

usually produce meaningful and useful results.

(2) In the stress-strain diagram in a space-domain (SD), the three curves have different appearances from each other. This is due to the following two reasons. The first is that the strain information (CVD risk) is different in different time-windows. The second is that its associated viscosity factors i.e., eAG or A1C are also different at various time instant. Nevertheless, due to the author's continuous improvement on his eAG (higher in Y2014 and then dropping to its lowest in Y2022), and eAG associated A1C, his strain value (CVD risk) is then moving from the right side of the diagram toward the left side. On the stress-scale, both different strain rates and viscosity factors determine the y-scale values. For an overall viewpoint, the 8.2-years' curve shows a complete view from Y2014 to Y2022 with the biggest CVD risk change rate during the sub-period from Y2014 to Y2017. The 46-months' curve reflects a moderate and confined area for CVD risks and their change rates. The 15-months' curve is the most meaningless case due to its insufficient inclusion of biomarker behaviors. It should be noted that these stress scales have been adjusted by using (A1C) and (eAG / 20 or 16) in order to achieve a better viewing of shape and comparison of the stress-strain curves.

(3) Using the viscoelastic perturbation model, a waveform comparison study of the metabolism calculated CVD risk % against two predicted CVD risks, using eAG or A1C, can be done. For both time-window cases of 15-months and 46-months, their negative or moderate correlations are not high enough. As a result, the introduction of a "stronger curve vibrations" effect from the perturbation factors i.e., the "stress element", therefore produces less-meaningful or not so useful CVD risk predictions. On the contrary, the 98-month's case only has 9 data points but with very high correlation results. It can

produce highly accurate predicted CVD risks using the visco-perturbation model.

In summary, this particular report shows that if using a shorter 15-month dataset, it would result in unsatisfactory results. If using a moderate 46-month dataset, the CVD risk % would have higher correlations with both eAG and A1C, but their associated predicted CVD risks are still not quite useful due to its moderate amount of biomarker information. Only using the 8.2 years (9 data points covering a 98-month period) case can reveal a better picture of inter-relations between CVD risk versus both eAG and A1C.

The author attempts to interpret the above findings using biomedical terminology (not math-physical languages) as follows:

Heart problems, such as CVD, do not occur suddenly, and are usually associated with a patient's lifestyle over a longer period of time. The majority of CVD patients (75% to 80%) also reflect diabetes conditions with hyperglycemia (high eAG and high A1C). Therefore, for patients with both heart problems and diabetes, in order to lower their risks of having CVD, a longer period of continuous efforts on lowering their eAG and A1C is necessary.

## 5. REFERENCES

For editing purposes, the majority of the references in this paper, which are self-references, have been removed. Only references from other authors' published sources remain. The bibliography of the author's original self-references can be viewed at [www.eclaircmd.com](http://www.eclaircmd.com).

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# Viscoelastic and Viscoplastic Glucose Theory Application in Medicine

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