

**Title:** Running quietly reduces ground reaction force and vertical loading rate and alters foot strike technique.

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Running quietly reduces ground reaction force and vertical loading rate and alters  
foot strike technique

2<sup>nd</sup> Revision

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 This study aimed to determine if a quantifiable relationship exists between the peak  
32 sound amplitude and peak vertical ground reaction force (vGRF) and vertical loading  
33 rate during running. It also investigated whether differences in; peak sound  
34 amplitude, contact time, lower limb kinematics, kinetics and foot strike technique  
35 existed when participants were verbally instructed to run quietly compared to their  
36 normal running. Twenty-six males completed running trials for two sound  
37 conditions; normal running and quiet running. Simple linear regressions revealed no  
38 significant relationships between impact sound and peak vGRF in the normal and  
39 quiet conditions and vertical loading rate in the normal condition. T-tests revealed  
40 significant within subject decreases in peak sound, peak vGRF and vertical loading  
41 rate during the quiet compared to the normal running condition. During the normal  
42 running condition, 15.4% of participants utilized a non-rearfoot strike technique as  
43 compared to 76.9% in the quiet condition, which was corroborated by an increased  
44 ankle plantarflexion angle at initial contact. This study demonstrated that quieter  
45 impact sound is not directly associated with a lower peak vGRF or vertical loading  
46 rate. However, given the instructions to run quietly, participants effectively reduced  
47 peak impact sound, peak vGRF and vertical loading rate.

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50 **Keywords:** augmented feedback, locomotion, biomechanics, ground reaction force,  
51 running technique, foot strike technique

52

## 53 INTRODUCTION

54 Running is a popular sport, however the prevalence of lower limb injuries has been  
55 reported to be between 19% to 79% in long distance runners.(Van Gent et al., 2007)  
56 Although risk factors for injuries in runners are multifaceted,(Fredericson, Jennings,  
57 Beaulieu, & Matheson, 2006) ground reaction forces and vertical loading rate on  
58 impact have been the focus of many studies that investigate the mechanisms of  
59 injuries in runners. (Davis, Bowser, & Mullineaux, In Press; Ferber, Davis, Hamill,  
60 Pollard, & McKeown, 2002; Grimston, Engsborg, Kloiber, & Hanley, 1991; Milner,  
61 Ferber, Pollard, Hamill, & Davis, 2006; van der Worp, Vrielink, & Bredeweg, In  
62 Press; Zadpoor & Nikooyan, 2011) Cross-sectional studies have demonstrated that  
63 runners with previous stress fractures have a significantly greater peak vertical  
64 ground reaction force (vGRF) and vertical loading rate compared to runners with no  
65 history of stress fractures.(Ferber et al., 2002; Grimston et al., 1991; Milner et al.,  
66 2006) A recent prospective study by Davis et al. found that female runners with  
67 greater vGRF impact peaks and loading rate experienced a greater number of  
68 medically diagnosed stress fractures and muscles strain injuries.(Davis et al., In  
69 Press) Interventions aimed at reducing vGRF and vertical loading rate should  
70 therefore be investigated to potentially reduce lower limb injuries in runners.

71

72 In a case-series by Cheung and Davis (2011) a novel intervention was employed to  
73 decrease vertical loading rate in three female runners with patellofemoral pain. In  
74 this study, the runners used an audio biofeedback device affixed to the heel of their  
75 shoe insole that emitted a sound whenever their heel contacted the ground. This  
76 audio feedback guided them in changing their foot strike technique from a rearfoot  
77 strike (RFS) to a non-RFS. In changing their foot strike, vertical loading rate and

78 knee pain were significantly reduced. The results of this study provide preliminary  
79 evidence to support the use of auditory feedback to alter running kinetics and reduce  
80 injury symptoms.

81

82 Anecdotally, some running coaches already use the sound of impact during running  
83 as auditory feedback to change habitual RFS runners' to a non-RFS technique with  
84 the intention of altering ground reaction forces and injury risk. Despite no  
85 established link between foot strike technique and injury incidence, injury location  
86 has been shown to vary between RFS and non-RFS runners (Walther, 2005) which  
87 may in part be related to the different vGRF profiles they elicit. Rearfoot strike  
88 runners typically create a vGRF impact peak while non-RFS (forefoot) runners only  
89 create an active vGRF peak.(Boyer, Rooney, & Derrick, 2014) However, to the best  
90 of the authors' knowledge, no studies have investigated the amplitude of impact  
91 sound during different foot strike techniques and the effect verbal instructions to  
92 change the sound of impact has on lower limb kinematics and kinetics and  
93 furthermore whether verbal instruction causes a change in the runners foot strike.

94

95 Literature has lent support to the use of verbal instructions to change the sound of  
96 impact in drop landings, which resulted in altered kinematics and kinetics. McNair,  
97 Prapavessis, and Callender (2000) and Prapavessis and McNair (1999) demonstrated  
98 that healthy adults and children, respectively, were able to significantly decrease  
99 their peak vGRF during drop landings when using impact sound as a qualitative  
100 feedback mechanism. This task was performed initially with no instructions  
101 regarding sound and then repeated with the instruction to try and land more "softly".  
102 Therefore, it was postulated that impact sound and peak vGRF are related

103 qualitatively during drop landings.(McNair, Prapavessis, & Callender, 2000; Milner,  
104 Fairbrother, Srivatsan, & Zhang, 2012) Recently, Wernli, Ng, Phan, Davey, &  
105 Grisbrook (2016) established a quantitative relationship between peak impact sound  
106 amplitude and vGRF during drop landing, with the higher impact sound amplitude,  
107 the greater the vGRF and vice versa.(Wernli et al., 2016) Little is known about the  
108 relationship between sound and peak vGRF or vertical loading rate during more  
109 complex locomotive tasks such as running.

110

111 Therefore, the primary aim of this study was to investigate if a quantitative  
112 relationship exists between peak sound amplitude, peak vGRF and vertical loading  
113 rate during barefoot running. It was hypothesized that a small impact sound  
114 amplitude during running would be associated with a small peak vGRF and vertical  
115 loading rate and vice versa. The secondary aim of this study was to investigate if  
116 there were any significant differences in; peak sound amplitude, vGRF, vertical  
117 loading rate, contact time and lower limb kinematics (more specifically; ankle, knee  
118 and hip sagittal plane joint angles at initial contact and peak) when runners were  
119 asked to run quietly compared to their normal running technique. It was  
120 hypothesized that when asked to run quietly, runners would decrease their; peak  
121 sound amplitude, vGRF, vertical loading rate and contact time. It was further  
122 hypothesized that habitual RFS runners would increase their plantarflexion angle at  
123 initial contact and thereby change to a non-RFS technique, but that the joint  
124 kinematics of non-RFS runner's would be unaffected.

125

## 126 **METHODS**

### 127 *Participants*

128 Twenty-six healthy male participants were recruited from the local community and  
129 via word of mouth. Participants were excluded if they had an allergy to tape, a  
130 history of lower limb surgery or injuries of musculoskeletal origin within the six  
131 weeks prior to data collection.

132

### 133 *Instrumentation*

134 An 18-camera Vicon MX motion analysis system (Oxford Metrics, Inc.), sampling at  
135 250 Hz, and an AMTI (Watertown, MA) force plate, sampling at 1000 Hz, were used  
136 to collect the kinematic and kinetic data.(Szczerbik & Kalinowska, 2011) A  
137 Sennheiser ME66 shotgun microphone (Wedermark, Germany) with a K6 powering  
138 module connected to the Vicon Nexus software, sampling at the maximum 24 kHz,  
139 was used to collect impact sound data in voltage (V). Impact sound was defined as  
140 the peak sound that was created between the runners' foot and the ground during the  
141 weight acceptance phase of running. The shotgun microphone was positioned on the  
142 same side as the striking leg (right) and the tip of the microphone was at a  
143 standardized 300 mm distance away from the centre of the force plate. The position  
144 of the microphone was determined during pilot testing such that the microphone was  
145 placed as close as possible to the participants' contact foot without interfering with  
146 the run, to ensure a consistent sound amplitude was captured. A Rion NL-11 sound  
147 calibrator (Tokyo, Japan), which provided a consistent 94.1dB amplitude sound, was  
148 used to enable calibration of the sound recorded from the microphone from voltages  
149 to decibels. Measures were taken during testing to ensure that background noise was

150 minimal; the motion analysis laboratory where all the testing was conducted is  
151 located in an isolated building, all testing was conducted outside of work hours and a  
152 unidirectional microphone was used.

153

#### 154 *Procedure*

155 Ethical approval was obtained from the institution's Human Research Ethics  
156 Committee and all participants provided written informed consent prior to  
157 participation. Data collection occurred at the institution's Motion Analysis  
158 Laboratory, where participants' measurement of body height and mass, ankle width,  
159 leg length, knee width, wrist width, hand thickness, elbow width, and shoulder offset  
160 were taken to calibrate the Vicon Plug in Gait system (Oxford Metrics, Inc). Each  
161 participant was then fitted with the Vicon full body Plug-in-Gait retro reflective  
162 marker set and allowed ten minutes to perform a standardized warm-up. The warm-  
163 up consisted of five minutes of run throughs, walking lunges, high knees and  
164 bounding tasks, with retro-reflective markers in place. This ensured that the  
165 participants were familiar with the laboratory environment and the speed of running  
166 required in this study.

167

168 Each participant was required to perform a series of barefoot running trials with the  
169 instruction to run in a straight line from one marker to another, which were  
170 positioned 10 m apart. The runway was a hard surface that consisted of a vinyl sports  
171 flooring over concrete and a predominantly aluminium AMTI force platform. The  
172 starting marker was positioned so that the participant would strike the force plate  
173 with their right foot to achieve a successful trial. However, the participant was not  
174 informed of the location of the force plate to avoid them altering their running style



175 to target it. Running velocity was calculated by tracking the right Anterior Superior  
176 Iliac Spine marker using the Vicon system to confirm the participants were running  
177 at a velocity of  $5.0 \pm 0.5$  m/s. This running speed was chosen as it has been used in  
178 various running studies, as outlined in a systematic review by Schache et al. (2010).  
179 Trials in which the running speed was not achieved or the participant failed to make  
180 full foot contact on the force plate were deemed unsuccessful and removed from the  
181 sample group. The number of trials was limited to ten per condition and participants  
182 were given two minutes rest between trials to avoid fatigue.

183

184 The running task was performed under two different sound conditions: normal and  
185 quiet. The normal sound condition was always performed first so that a baseline  
186 measurement of running sound could be obtained. For the normal sound condition,  
187 the researchers only provided instruction on how to perform the task without any  
188 reference to sound as described above. For the quiet sound condition, participants  
189 were asked to “perform the task as before but this time make a quieter sound when  
190 you land”. These instructions were derived from a similar study regarding qualitative  
191 relationship of impact sound and landing forces in drop-landing studies (McNair et  
192 al., 2000; Wernli et al., 2016). Five successful trials were recorded for each sound  
193 condition, with a one-minute rest period after each condition to minimise the effect  
194 of fatigue.

195

#### 196 *Data management*

197 The Vicon Nexus software (v1.7.1, Vicon Motion Analysis Systems) was used to  
198 manage the anthropometric data and inspect for any breaks that may occur due to  
199 marker occlusion. A Woltering filtering routine was then performed. The Vicon

200 Plug-in-Gait model (Oxford Metrics, Inc.) was then utilized to calculate kinematic  
201 and kinetic variables. Sound data collected from the shotgun microphone was  
202 converted from V to dB via a custom-written program developed in LabVIEW  
203 v2011 SP1 (National instruments, Texas). Sound amplitude was calculated using the  
204 equation;

$$205 \qquad 20*\text{LOG}_{10} (V_2/V_1), \qquad \qquad \qquad (\text{Eq.1})$$

206 where V1 is the Root Mean Square of the voltage recorded for the 94.1 dB standard  
207 and V2 is the voltage reading collected by the microphone.(Rao, 2010) Peak impact  
208 sound amplitude, peak vGRF, vertical loading rate, contact time and sagittal plane  
209 joint kinematic data (ankle, knee and hip angle at initial contact, and peak ankle and  
210 knee angle) were then extracted via a separate custom-written program developed in  
211 LabVIEW.

212

213 Vertical loading rate was calculated as the change in vGRF from the first frame it  
214 exceeded 200 N to where it reached 90% of the impact peak magnitude, this was  
215 calculated with respect to time. If no impact peak was present, the average  
216 percentage of stance that 90% of the impact peak typically occurred was used  
217 (5.3%). This method of calculating loading rate has been previously utilized in the  
218 running literature. (Caulfield et al., In Press; Lieberman, Venkadesan, & Werbel,  
219 2010) Following the loading rate calculation vGRF data was normalized to body  
220 mass and then time normalized to 101 data points.

221

222 Foot strike technique was determined in Vicon using markers placed on the  
223 participant's right heel and toe. The vertical height offset between these markers was  
224 calculated during standing. This offset was then applied to the markers at initial

225 contact during running trials to determine the technique. If the toe marker was higher  
226 than the heel marker at initial contact it was classified as a RFS and if the heel  
227 marker was higher it was classified as a non-RFS. The non-RFS group included both  
228 midfoot and forefoot strike techniques. Foot strike technique was determined for  
229 each running trial.

230

### 231 *Statistical Analysis*

232 IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows Version 22 (IBM Corp, 2013, Armonk, NY) was  
233 used for the statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were performed for the  
234 participant demographics. A Chi-Square test was conducted to examine if there were  
235 any significant difference in foot strike technique used by the participants between  
236 the normal and quiet running conditions.

237

238 The within subject reliability of the dependent variables across the five running trials  
239 for each of the running conditions was assessed by calculating the intra-class  
240 correlation coefficient (ICC<sub>3,5</sub>) using a two-way mixed effects model. An ICC value  
241 of <0.75 was interpreted as moderate, 0.75-0.89 as high, and  $\geq 0.9$  as excellent  
242 (Landis & Koch, 1977).

243

244 Individual mean values from the five successful running trials from each sound  
245 condition were calculated for each of the dependent variables including; peak impact  
246 sound amplitude, peak vGRF, vertical loading rate, contact time, ankle knee and hip  
247 angle at initial contact, and peak ankle and knee angle. The normality of these  
248 variables were assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test and all variables were found to  
249 be normally distributed. Two separate simple linear regression analyses were

250 conducted to determine the coefficients of determination ( $r^2$ ) between; peak impact  
251 sound amplitude and peak vGRF, and peak impact sound amplitude and vertical  
252 loading rate. A series of paired samples t-tests were then conducted to determine if  
253 there were any within-subject differences in the dependent variables between the  
254 normal and quiet running conditions. The alpha level was set to  $p < 0.05$  for all  
255 analyses.

## 256 **RESULTS**

257

### 258 *Participants*

259 Twenty-six healthy males aged  $21.1 \pm 2.0$  years old were recruited. They were on  
260 average  $1.79 \pm 0.05$  m tall, and  $78.3 \pm 12.2$  kg in body mass. During the normal  
261 running condition, 22 of the participants (84.6%) utilized a RFS technique, and four  
262 participants (15.4%) used a non-RFS technique. When instructed to run quietly, 16  
263 of the 22 RFS runners adopted a non-RFS, with six participants maintaining a RFS.  
264 All four of the non-RFS runners maintained this technique during the quiet running  
265 condition. Therefore, 76.9% of the participants utilized a non-RFS during the quiet  
266 running condition. The results of the Chi- square confirmed that there was a  
267 significant difference in foot strike pattern between the normal and quiet running  
268 condition (Chi- square = 19.81,  $p < 0.001$ ).

269

### 270 *Within subject reliability*

271 The ICC's for each of the dependent variables for both of the running conditions are  
272 presented in Table 1. All variables were found to have high or excellent within  
273 subject reliability for both the normal and quiet running conditions, with the

274 exception of peak knee angle during the normal running condition, which had low  
275 reliability.

276

277 INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

278

279 *Relationship between peak impact sound and kinetics*

280 The time-normalized vGRF during the stance phase of running under the two sound  
281 conditions is presented in Figure 1. In general, there was an impact peak during the  
282 normal running condition, while the quiet running condition displayed only an active  
283 vGRF peak. Separate simple linear regressions were calculated to predict peak vGRF  
284 based on peak impact sound in normal and quiet conditions. No significant  
285 relationships were found in the normal condition ( $F(1, 24) = 1.102, p=0.304, 95\%CI;$   
286  $-0.012, 0.037; r^2$  of 0.044) or the quiet condition peak ( $F(1, 24) = 0.327, p=0.573,$   
287  $95\%CI; -0.014, 0.025 r^2$  of 0.013 ). Separate simple linear regressions were also  
288 calculated to predict peak vertical loading rate based on peak impact sound in normal  
289 and quiet conditions. No significant relationship was found in the normal condition  
290 ( $F(1, 24) = 2.211, p=0.150, 95\%CI = -3.855, 23.729 r^2$  is 0.084). However a  
291 significant regression was found to predict vertical loading rate based on peak impact  
292 sound in the quiet condition ( $F(1,24) = 5.476, p=0.028, 95\%CI;1.055, 16.825 r^2$  of  
293 0.186). The participants predicted vertical loading rate ( $BW/sec) = -888.0 + (8.940 x$   
294  $peak\ impact\ sound\ (dB))$  in the quiet condition. (Figure 2B) Participant's average  
295 vertical loading rate increases by 8.9 BW/sec for every dB increase in sound.

296

297 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

298 INSERT FIGURE 2A, 2B, 2C and 2D ABOUT HERE

300 *Difference in sound, kinematics and kinetics between running conditions*

301 The paired samples t-tests demonstrated that peak sound amplitude (mean difference  
302 = 9.1 dB,  $p < 0.001$ ), peak vGRF (mean difference = 0.2 BW,  $p = 0.001$ ), and  
303 vertical loading rate (mean difference = 275.1 BW/sec,  $p < 0.001$ ) were significantly  
304 lower during the quiet running condition compared with the normal running  
305 condition (Table 2). Figure 3 shows the time-normalized ankle, knee and hip joint  
306 sagittal motion during the stance phase of running under the two sound conditions.  
307 Ankle angle changed from 0.2° dorsiflexion at initial contact during normal running  
308 to 8.6° plantarflexion during quiet running ( $p < 0.001$ , Table 2) and hip flexion at  
309 initial contact was greater in the normal compared to the quiet condition (mean  
310 difference = 2.2°,  $p = 0.039$ , Table 2). Peak ankle dorsiflexion (mean difference =  
311 3.5°,  $p = 0.001$ ) and peak knee flexion (mean difference = 2.6°,  $p = 0.014$ ) angles  
312 were significantly reduced in the quiet condition compared with the normal running  
313 condition. There was no significant difference in contact time ( $p = 0.712$ ) and knee  
314 angle at initial contact ( $p = 0.883$ ), between the normal and quiet running conditions  
315 (Table 2).

316

317 INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

318 INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

319 **DISCUSSION**

320 The results of this study demonstrate that individuals can significantly reduce their  
321 peak vGRF, vertical loading rate and peak sound amplitude when instructed to run  
322 quietly. When running quietly runners were also more likely to use a non-RFS than a

323 RFS technique and exhibited the vGRF profile and lower limb kinematics to support  
324 this. However, despite the significant effect running quietly has on an individual's  
325 vGRF and vertical loading rate, this effect cannot be generalized. We found weak  
326 and mostly insignificant correlations between peak impact sound and peak vGRF  
327 and vertical loading rate. Therefore, a quieter impact sound is not directly associated  
328 with a lower peak vGRF or vertical loading rate.

329

330 This is the first study to investigate impact sound during running and hence there is  
331 no literature to directly compare our results. Wernli et al. (2016) examined the  
332 impact sound during a drop-landing task where participants were asked to land  
333 normally, softly and loudly and they found a significant relationship between peak  
334 impact sound and peak vGRF. An explanation for why Wernli et al. (2016) found a  
335 significant relationship where the current study did not may be that they combined  
336 the results of their three sound conditions into one regression model rather than  
337 conducting individual analyses. The contrasting findings may also be owing to the  
338 fact that running is a more complex motor skill than drop-landing. Additionally, the  
339 participants in the current study had not received any formal running coaching; it is  
340 therefore likely that individual technique variation existed between trials. However,  
341 despite the fact participants were not highly trained runners, intra-class correlation  
342 coefficients (Table 1) for all variables recorded were high. A stronger relationship  
343 between impact sound and peak vGRF and vertical loading rate may exist in well-  
344 trained runners, however this requires further investigation.

345

346 Numerous studies have confirmed that runners who have previously experienced a  
347 lower limb stress fracture have greater peak vGRF and vertical loading rates than

348 uninjured runners (Ferber et al., 2002; Grimston et al., 1991; Milner et al., 2006).  
349 More recently, a prospective study by Davis et al. (Davis et al., In Press) found that  
350 runners with greater peak vGRF and vertical loading rates experienced a greater  
351 number of stress fractures and muscle strains than runners who had never been  
352 medically diagnosed with an injury. This suggests that these GRF variables are risk  
353 factors for injury rather than a result of changed movement patterns following the  
354 injury. The results of the current study may have significant implications for athletes,  
355 as it demonstrated that ‘loud’ runners do not necessarily have greater peak vGRF and  
356 vertical loading rates than ‘quiet’ runners. Nevertheless individuals can reduce their  
357 vGRF and vertical loading rate simply by running quietly, however whether this type  
358 of intervention can effectively reduce running injuries requires further investigation.  
359  
360 Lower limb kinematics were altered when runners were instructed to run quietly.  
361 Most notably the average ankle angle at initial contact changed from a dorsiflexion  
362 angle to plantarflexion when participants ran quietly (normal 0.2° dorsiflexion vs  
363 quiet 8.6° plantarflexion,  $p < 0.001$ ). The changes in ankle angle at initial contact  
364 suggest that when participants were instructed to run quietly, majority adopted a  
365 non-RFS running pattern. This was confirmed by the foot marker positions recorded  
366 in Vicon. Ankle range of motion also increased during the quiet condition (normal  
367 27.7° vs quiet 33.0°), and peak ankle dorsiflexion, peak knee flexion and hip flexion  
368 at initial contact decreased from the normal to quiet condition, these changes are all  
369 consistent with a change from a RFS to a non-RFS technique (Kulmala, Avela,  
370 Pasanen, & Parkkari, 2013; Nunns, House, Fallowfield, Allsopp, & Dixon, 2013).  
371 Adding further support, only one peak was evident in the vGRF (Figure 1) in the  
372 quiet running condition compared to two seen in the normal condition, which is



373 consistent with a non-RFS technique (Bobbert, Schamhardt, & Nigg, 1991; Boyer et  
374 al., 2014; Rooney & Derrick, 2013). Anecdotally, some coaches already instruct  
375 their athletes to run softly in order to change from a RFS to a non-RFS technique,  
376 and the results of the current study suggest that this may be effective. Although,  
377 while this study found that an imposed non-RFS technique initially produces a  
378 quieter sound than a habitual RFS, whether this effect is long term and whether a  
379 habitual non-RFS is quieter than a habitual RFS is unknown. It is also important to  
380 note that not all habitual RFS participants changed to a non-RFS when asked to run  
381 quietly yet were still able achieved a reduction in impact sound, peak vGRF and  
382 vertical loading rate. Changing foot strike technique is therefore not the only  
383 mechanism for reducing these variables. How participants who did not change  
384 technique reduced impact sound warrants further investigation.

385

386 Participants in this study ran barefoot in both the normal and quiet conditions, this  
387 was enforced in order to control for variable shoe cushioning and support  
388 characteristics. A possible limitation of barefoot running however is the difference in  
389 tissue composition between the heel pad and forefoot, which may alter the impact  
390 sound. Although as mentioned previously not all participants changed to a non-RFS  
391 when asked to run quietly yet still reduced their impact sound suggests that the  
392 influence of varied foot composition was minimal. Future research should  
393 investigate if the results of this study are repeatable when wearing shoes and on  
394 varied surfaces. Softer surfaces (such as grass) and shoe midsole cushioning will  
395 increase the time over which contact occurs and therefore vertical loading rate may  
396 be reduced, which based on the findings of the current study we postulate will also  
397 reduce impact sound amplitude.

398

399 This study was conducted in a laboratory setting where background noise was  
400 minimal and the sound created at foot contact during both the normal and quiet  
401 running conditions was clearly audible to the assessor and the shotgun microphone  
402 collected clean raw data. While the authors feel that the laboratory nature of the  
403 study allowed for the collection of quality data they acknowledge that the findings  
404 may be limited to a metallic surface (force platform). The results may also be limited  
405 to amateur male barefoot runners running at 5.0 m/s. It is very likely that different  
406 surfaces, footwear, speeds and running ability will alter the impact sound amplitude.  
407 We postulate that due to the effect of speed on vGRF (Hamner & Delp, 2013) when  
408 individuals run slower they will generate a quieter impact sound and when they run  
409 faster (whilst maintaining a habitual RFS) a louder sound. Based on our results we  
410 believe this will be an individual response and not a general relationship.  
411 Furthermore, for practical application it is important to determine whether an athlete  
412 or a coach can detect differences in sound amplitude without the use of an expensive  
413 microphone. Future research should investigate runners of different abilities, female  
414 runners, different surfaces, shod running, running speeds and an outdoor  
415 environment.

416

#### 417 **Conclusion**

418 This study demonstrated that running quietly is not directly associated with a lower  
419 vGRF or vertical loading rate. However, when healthy male participants were asked  
420 to intentionally run quietly, compared to their normal running, peak impact sound  
421 amplitude, peak vGRF and vertical loading rate were reduced. This may have  
422 important injury prevention implications for coaches, athletes and clinicians.

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**TABLES**509 **Table 1:** Intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC's) and 95% confidence intervals

510 (95% CI) for the dependent variables during the normal and quiet running

511 conditions.

Variable	Normal	Quiet
	(ICC (95%CI))	(ICC (95%CI))
Peak sound amplitude (dB)	0.877 (0.780 – 0.939)	0.876 (0.773 – 0.941)
Peak vGRF (BW)	0.868 (0.763 – 0.935)	0.949 (0.907 – 0.976)
Vertical loading rate (BW/ sec)	0.891 (0.808 – 0.945)	0.885 (0.797 – 0.943)
Contact time (sec)	0.943 (0.899 – 0.972)	0.960 (0.927 – 0.981)
Ankle° at IC	0.947 (0.904 – 0.975)	0.976 (0.958 – 0.988)
Knee° at IC	0.944 (0.899 – 0.972)	0.965 (0.939 – 0.983)
Hip° at IC	0.968 (0.943 – 0.984)	0.948 (0.908 – 0.974)
Peak Ankle°	0.973 (0.951 – 0.987)	0.967 (0.942 – 0.983)
Peak Knee°	0.670 (0.406 – 0.838)	0.944 (0.900 – 0.972)
Peak Hip°	0.967 (0.941 – 0.984)	0.943 (0.899 – 0.971)

512 Abbreviations: dB= decibels, BW= body weight's, IC= initial contact.

513 **Table 2:** Difference in dependent variables between the normal and quiet running conditions.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Normal (Mean (SD))</b>	<b>Quiet (Mean (SD))</b>	<b>Mean Difference</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>95% CI of differences</b>	<b>p value</b>
Peak sound amplitude (dB)	121.24 (6.36)	112.18 (6.19)	9.06	1.17	6.64, 11.48	<0.001*
Peak vGRF (BW)	2.71 (0.38)	2.53 (0.28)	0.18	0.05	0.08, 0.29	0.001*
Vertical loading rate (BW/sec)	390.17 (214.14)	115.04 (125.89)	275.14	40.45	191.84, 358.45	<0.001*
Contact time (sec)	0.20 (0.02)	0.20 (0.02)	-0.001	0.003	-0.007, 0.005	0.712
Ankle° at IC	0.17 (5.76)	-8.57 (9.12)	8.74	1.88	4.87, 12.61	<0.001*
Knee° at IC	24.91 (6.01)	25.12 (8.96)	-0.21	1.43	-3.17, 2.74	0.883
Hip° at IC	50.46 (8.41)	48.23 (7.74)	2.22	1.02	0.13, 4.32	0.039*
Peak Ankle°	27.88 (6.58)	24.43 (6.88)	3.45	0.89	1.61, 5.29	0.001*
Peak Knee°	44.67 (5.22)	42.11 (6.10)	2.56	0.97	0.56, 4.56	0.014*
Peak Hip°	48.69 (12.93)	48.46 (7.44)	0.24	2.41	-4.72, 5.19	0.923

514 Abbreviations: dB= decibels, BW= body weight's, IC= initial contact. Ankle angle: positive denotes dorsiflexion, negative denotes

515 plantarflexion; knee angle: positive denotes flexion; hip angle; positive denotes flexion, negative denotes extension. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ .



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**FIGURE CAPTION**

518 **FIGURE 1** – Time and body weight normalized vertical ground reaction force  
519 during the stance phase of running under normal (solid line) and quiet (broken line)  
520 sound conditions.

521

522 **FIGURE 2** - The relationship between impact sound amplitude and; A) normalized  
523 vertical ground reaction force (vGRF) in normal sound condition B) normalized  
524 vGRF in quiet condition, C) vertical loading rate in normal sound condition and, D)  
525 vertical loading rate in quiet sound condition.

526

527 **FIGURE 3** - Time normalized sagittal ankle (top), knee (middle) and hip (bottom)  
528 joint angles during the stance phase of running under the two different sound  
529 conditions; normal (solid line) and quiet (broken line).

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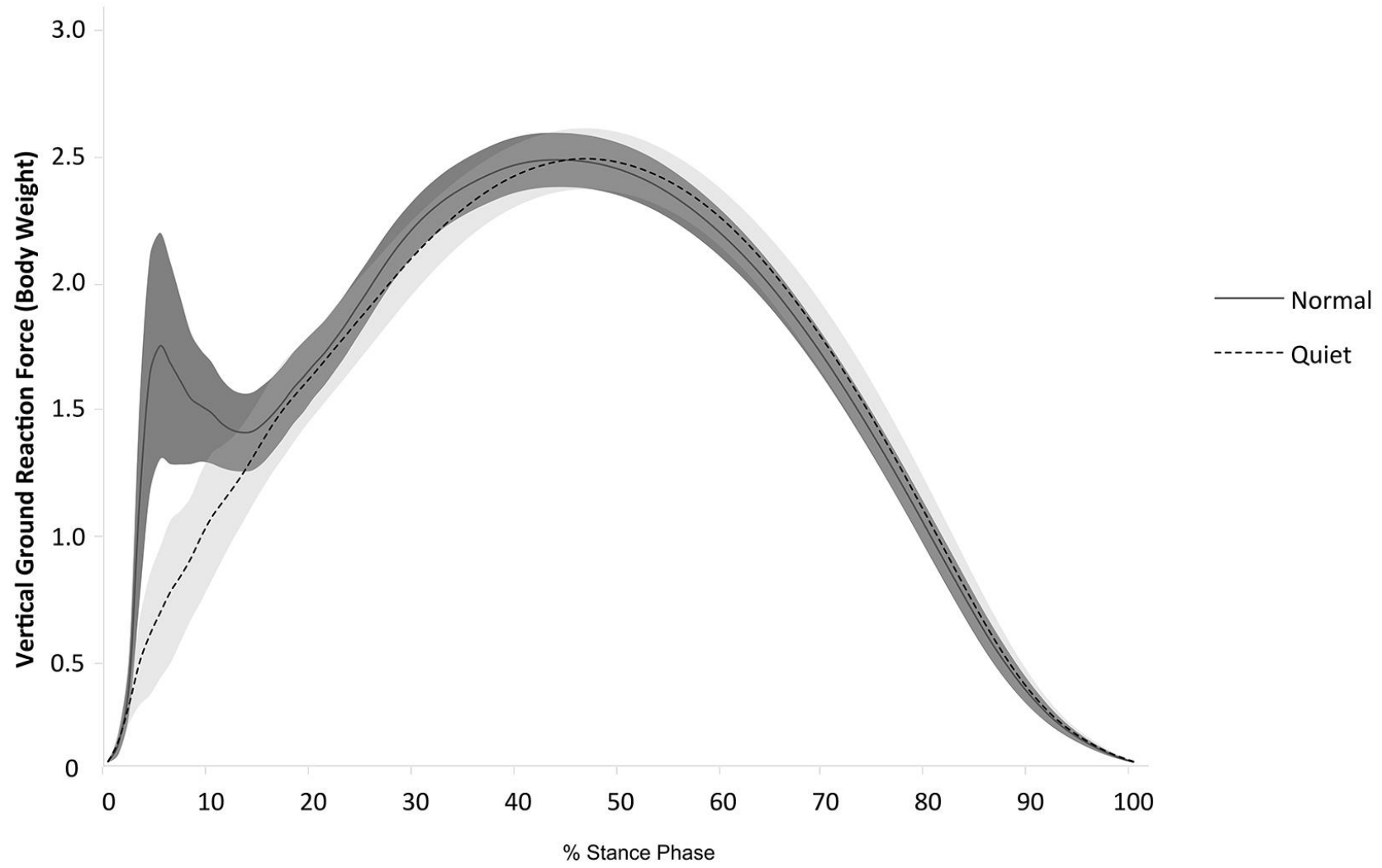
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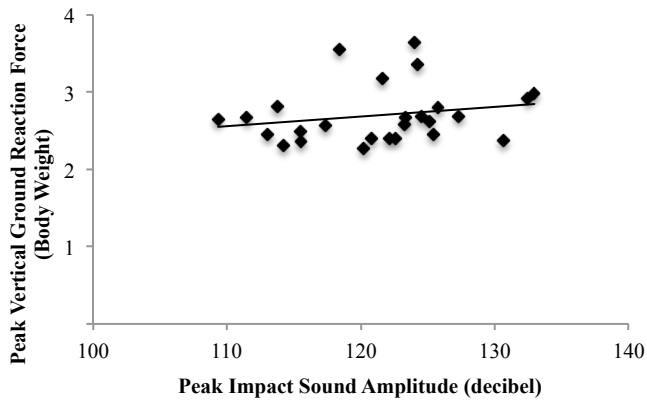
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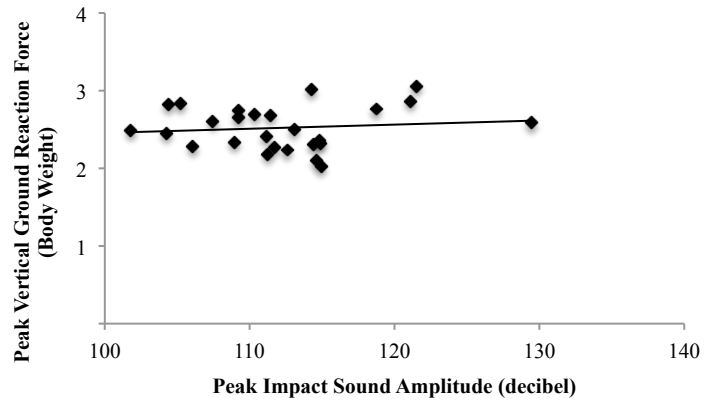
Fig. 1



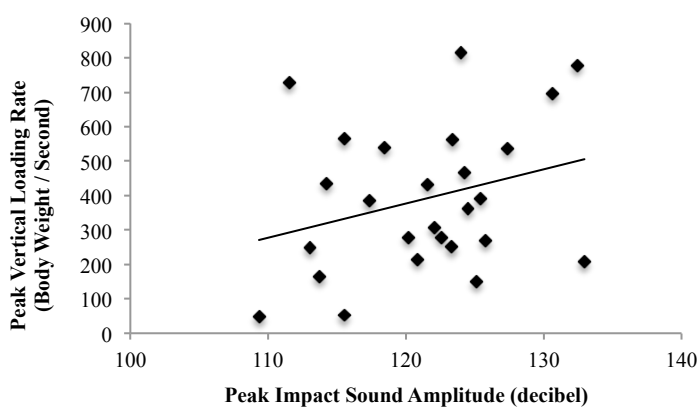
**Figure 2A**



**Figure 2B**



**Figure 2C**



**Figure 2D**

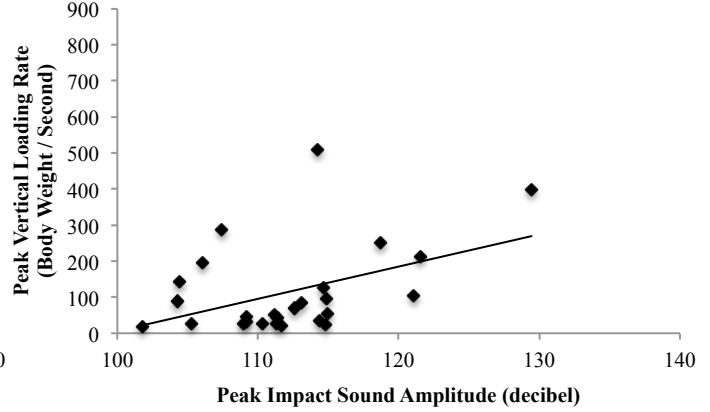


Fig. 3

