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1 **Foot pronation contributes to altered lower extremity loading**

2 **after long distance running**

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8 **Abstract**

9 This study presents an investigation of the changes in foot posture, joint kinematics, joint
10 moments and joint contact forces in the lower extremity following a 5k treadmill run. A
11 relationship between knee and ankle joint loading and foot posture index (FPI) is developed.
12 Twenty recreational male heel-strike runners participated in this study. All participants had a
13 history of running exercise and were free from lower extremity injuries and foot deformities.
14 Foot posture was assessed from a six-item FPI to quantitatively classify high supination to high
15 pronation foot poses. The FPI is scored using a combination of observations and foot palpations.
16 The three-dimensional marker trajectories, ground reaction force and surface
17 electromyography (EMG) were recorded at pre and post gait sessions conducted over-ground
18 and 5k running was conducted on a treadmill. Joint kinematics, joint moments and joint contact
19 forces were computed in OpenSIM. Simulated EMG activations were compared against
20 experimental EMG to validate the model. A paired sample t-test was conducted using a 1D
21 statistical parametric mapping method computed temporally. Hip joint moments and contact
22 forces increased during initial foot contact following 5k running. Knee abduction moment and
23 superior-inferior knee contact force increased, whereas the knee extension moment decreased.
24 Ankle plantarflexion moment and ankle contact forces increased during stance. Foot posture
25 index was found to be moderately correlated with peak knee and ankle moments. Recreational
26 male runners presented increased static foot pronation after 5k treadmill running. These
27 findings suggest that following mid distance running foot pronation may be an early indicator
28 of increased lower limb joint loading. Furthermore, the FPI may be used to quantify the changes
29 in knee and ankle joint moments.

30 **Keywords:** Foot posture, Pronation, Knee, Ankle, Contact force, OpenSim, Statistical
31 parametric mapping

32

33 **1. INTRODUCTION**

34 Long distance running has increased in popularity (Hulme et al., 2017; van Gent et al., 2007)
35 due to practicality in many environments, low cost, and links to preventing health issues (Mei
36 et al., 2018). Extensive running participation may lead to increased running-related injuries
37 (RRI) reported as 2.5-33.0 injuries per 1000 hours of running (Hulme et al., 2017; Videbæk et
38 al., 2015) with up to 79.3% RRI reported at the knee joint (van Gent et al., 2007). The human
39 foot, as the primary interface with our environment, presents morphological and postural
40 changes following prolonged running, which is a key intrinsic factor contributing to RRI

41 (Barnes et al., 2008; Mei et al., 2018; Nigg, 2011; Nigg et al., 2015). A 6-item scale (foot
42 posture index, FPI) was previously developed and validated to define foot postures including
43 high supination, supination, neutral, pronation and high pronation in multiple planes and
44 anatomical segments under static palpation measurements and clinical settings (Redmond et
45 al., 2006). This FPI may play a role as a low-cost assessment of foot postures without requiring
46 a lab or imaging evaluation.

47 Over 90% of recreational marathon runners adopt a heel-strike style (Larson et al., 2011). This
48 is associated with a drop in foot arch following long distance running (Mei et al., 2018), which
49 is consistent with a recent finding reporting reduced arch ratio and foot pronation (Fukano et
50 al., 2018). A recent study reported that competitive runners exhibited higher local dynamic foot
51 stability quantified by the ‘Maximal Lyapunov Exponent’ compared with recreational runners
52 during an exhaustive 5k run (Hoenig et al., 2019). A high-intensity treadmill run exhibited
53 symmetry in step length, step frequency, contact time, flight time, maximum force and impulse
54 but asymmetry in impact force (at 5k), and flight time together with impact force (at 7.5k-10k)
55 (Hanley and Tucker, 2018). Skeletal joint work shifted proximally from the ankle to the knee
56 and hip joints reducing long distance running economy (Sanno et al., 2018).

57 Foot pronation and joint impact forces have been proposed as predictors of running-related
58 injuries (Brund et al., 2017; Nigg, 2011). Gait retraining programs (Bowser et al., 2018) and
59 real time feedback studies (Yong et al., 2018) evaluated potential factors contributing to impact
60 RRI, such as peak tibial shock (peak vertical acceleration), and average and peak loading rates.
61 Conflicting opinions concerning foot pronation as a risk factor has reported for neutral shoes
62 (Nielsen et al., 2014), and standard versus motion control shoes (Malisoux et al., 2016). The
63 contradicting results may be explained in part by different runners’ experience, running
64 footwear preferences, and different study designs. Bertelsen et al (2017) proposed a framework
65 to analyze the etiology of RRI, whereby cumulative load exceeding a maximum load capacity
66 would trigger injury. Studies have revealed alterations in gait symmetry, joint stability and
67 power contribution in competitive long distance runners (Hanley and Tucker, 2018; Hoenig et
68 al., 2019; Sanno et al., 2018). The literature presents multiple factors contributing to RRI in
69 competitive athletes, however, few studies consider the effects on recreational runners, who
70 are the majority of the running population (Knechtle et al., 2018; Vitti et al., 2019). Foot
71 pronation has been reported as a predictor of altered joint kinetics and running related injuries
72 (Brund et al., 2017; Nigg, 2011), however, a quantitative measure between the clinical FPI (a
73 score that measures pronation) and joint kinetics has not been presented to date.

74 Thus, the aim of this study was to investigate the changes of foot posture, joint kinematics,
75 joint moments and joint contact forces in the lower extremity following a 5k treadmill run in
76 recreational runners. We present the FPI and its relation to lower limb kinetics pre and post 5k
77 running. It is hypothesized that **1)** joint kinematics, joint moments and joint contact forces in
78 the lower extremity will change post 5k running, and **2)** the FPI will quantify changes in joint
79 kinetics following mid distance running.

80

81 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

82 *Participants*

83 Twenty recreational male heel strike runners (25.8 ± 1.6 yrs, 67.8 ± 5.3 kg, 1.73 ± 0.05 m)
84 participated in this study, consistent with previous running studies (Hanley and Tucker, 2018;
85 Hoenig et al., 2019; Sanno et al., 2018). The inclusion criteria was participants would have
86 over ground or treadmill running history with an average distance of 30km per week and

87 preference using typical running shoes. Participants were free from lower extremity disorders
88 and injuries. Foot deformities, such as hallux valgus, over pronation or supination, pes planus
89 and pes cavus, were excluded during recruitment. Written consent was obtained prior to the
90 test. Ethics was approved from the Human Ethics Committee at Ningbo University
91 (RAGH20161208).

92 *Experimental protocol*

93 Baseline data (pre 5k run) were collected with the participant standing barefoot (static)
94 followed by running barefoot on the over ground runway at their self-selected speed. This
95 included a static foot posture assessment, static marker positions, dynamic marker trajectories,
96 ground reaction force and surface electromyography (EMG). The assessment of foot posture
97 was performed following the established FPI (Redmond et al., 2006), including six
98 observations from the 1) talar palpation, 2) malleoli, 3) inversion/eversion of calcaneus in the
99 rearfoot, 4) talonavicular joint, 5) medial longitudinal arch, and 6) forefoot
100 abduction/adduction to define foot postures in multiple planes and anatomical segments. An
101 eight-camera motion capture system (Vicon Metrics Ltd., Oxford, UK) was used to track the
102 marker trajectories at 200Hz, and an in-ground force plate (AMTI, Watertown, Massachusetts,
103 USA) was utilized to record the ground reaction force at 1000Hz. The force plate was located
104 in the middle of an over ground runway. A 37-marker set was used for all participants during
105 the test, which has been validated in previous studies (Hamner and Delp, 2013; Rajagopal et
106 al., 2016). Surface electromyography (EMG) signals were recorded via a EMG system (Delsys,
107 Boston, Massachusetts, US) for muscle activities, including rectus femoris (RF), vastus
108 lateralis (VL), vastus medialis (VM), biceps femoris (BF), semitendinosus (ST), tibialis
109 anterior (TA), medial gastrocnemius (MG), and lateral gastrocnemius (LG).

110 After warm-up and lab familiarization, the foot posture index was evaluated and recorded as
111 scores (from -2 to 2 per item). The total score would be classed as high supination (-12),
112 supination (-5), neutral (0), pronation (5), and high pronation (12) while static barefoot standing
113 with shoulders' width apart (Redmond et al., 2006). Data of marker trajectories and ground
114 reaction force from two static and five running trials were collected of the right foot striking
115 the force plate. After the baseline test, participants ran 5k on the treadmill at their self-selected
116 speed (which were recorded in the range of 10km/h to 12km/h) using participants' own typical
117 running shoes. This was not chosen to elicit fatigue but elicit submaximal effort (Hanley and
118 Tucker, 2018). The post 5k test started within five minutes of finishing the treadmill run,
119 following the same protocols as the baseline test (with participants barefoot).

120 *Musculoskeletal model*

121 An updated version of the original Opensim musculoskeletal model (Delp et al., 2007), which
122 included the patella (DeMers et al., 2014), was used for this study. This model included the
123 torso and lower extremity, which had six degrees of freedom at the pelvis, a ball-and-socket
124 joint with three degrees of freedom at the hip, pin joints at the ankle, subtalar and
125 metatarsophalangeal joints. A non-frictional patella articulated with the femur and prescribed
126 by the knee angle was also added to direct the quadriceps force, wrapping around the patella
127 and attaching to the tibial tuberosity (DeMers et al., 2014). The default model included a hinge
128 joint for flexion-extension of the knee, and was extended to include abduction-adduction
129 motion based on a previous study (Meireles et al., 2017).

130 Data processing was performed in OpenSim v3.3 as per the established workflow (Delp et al.,
131 2007). Marker trajectories and ground reaction forces were low pass filtered at 6 Hz with a
132 zero-phase fourth order Butterworth filter. The model was firstly scaled to each participant's
133 anthropometric measures collected from static marker positions and body mass. Muscle

134 insertion points and moment arms were scaled to match each participants' segment lengths
135 (DeMers et al., 2014). The '*Inverse kinematics*' (IK) algorithm minimized errors between
136 virtual markers in the model and experimental marker trajectories to compute joint angles, and
137 '*Inverse Dynamics*' (ID) was performed to compute joints moment (Delp et al., 2007).

138 Muscle forces were previously reported as the main factors affecting joint contact forces
139 (DeMers et al., 2014; Lerner et al., 2015; Lerner and Browning, 2016). The '*Static*
140 *Optimization*' (SO) with weighted factors was employed to compute muscle activation and
141 forces, which improves the accuracy of joint contact force prediction (DeMers et al., 2014;
142 Lerner and Browning, 2016). Following previously established protocols to reduce prediction
143 errors (Lerner et al., 2015; Lerner and Browning, 2016), the weighting factors for muscles were
144 set at 1.5 for the gastrocnemius, 2 for the hamstrings and 1 for other muscles in this study. The
145 contact forces to the hip, knee and ankle joints in the anterior/posterior (x), superior/inferior (y)
146 and medial/lateral (z) directions were computed using '*Joint Reaction*' (JR) analysis for the
147 femur, tibia and talus, respectively.

148 *Model validation*

149 Muscle electromyography (EMG) signals were used to validate model-simulated muscle
150 activations (**Supplementary material 1**), which included the rectus femoris (RF), vastus
151 lateralis (VL), vastus medialis (VM), biceps femoris (BF), semitendinosus (ST), tibialis
152 anterior (TA), medial gastrocnemius (MG) and lateral gastrocnemius (LG). Joint kinematics,
153 joint kinetics, and joint contact force were compared with previous literature.

154 *Data and statistical analysis*

155 A simulation of stance phase from right heel strike to toe off was analyzed in this study.
156 Variables included FPI scores, joint angles, joint moments and joint contact force in the
157 anterior/posterior (**ant-post**) (x), superior/inferior (**sup-inf**) (y) and medial/lateral (**med-lat**) (z)
158 directions during Pre 5k and Post 5k tests. For the time sequential kinematics, kinetics and
159 contact force data, raw data from five trials of each participant were interpolated to 50 in data
160 length to represent stance, and averaged for each participant for statistics. The joint moments
161 (flexion/extension, adduction/abduction and internal/external rotation moments of the hip,
162 flexion/extension and adduction/abduction moments of the knee, dorsi/plantar flexion moment
163 of the ankle, inversion/eversion moment of subtalar) and contact forces were normalized to
164 body mass (Nm/kg) for moments and body weight (xBW) for contact forces, respectively. Peak
165 values of joint moments and joint contact forces were selected for statistics. Previously
166 published studies concerning knee **sup-inf** contact force showed similar patterns with vertical
167 ground reaction force (Gerus et al., 2013; Knarr and Higginson, 2015; Steele et al., 2012), thus
168 this study calculated the vertical instantaneous loading rate (VILR) (unit: xBW/%stance) of
169 **sup-inf** knee contact force using an established protocol (Ueda et al., 2016), to provide extra
170 loading information to the knee joint. Stance was divided into three sub-phases as per previous
171 studies (Dugan and Bhat, 2005; Novacheck and Tom, 1998), including initial contact (0~50%),
172 mid stance (~50%~), and push off (50%~100%).

173 Data normality was checked prior to statistical analysis. A paired sample t-test was performed
174 to analyze the difference in FPI scores, running speed, contact times, peak joint moments and
175 joint contact forces. Due to the one-dimensional (1D) time-varying characteristics of joint
176 kinematics, joint moments and joint contact force (Pataky, 2010; Pataky et al., 2015), the open
177 source Statistical Parametric Mapping 1D package (SPM1D), which relies on Random Vector
178 Field theory to account for data variability, was utilized for the statistical analysis. All
179 statistical analyses were performed in MATLAB R2018a (The MathWorks, MA, USA), with
180 significance level set at $p < 0.05$.

181

182 3. RESULTS

183 *Foot posture and gait parameter changes*

184 The FPI scores measured pre 5k and post 5k running showed significant increase towards
185 pronation. The pre and post 5k running speeds measured during the gait test were found to be
186 ~3.1m/s on average. Participants were instructed to run 5k at their self-selected speed, and
187 actual speeds were recorded in the range of 10-12km/h (2.8-3.3m/s), with completion time
188 between 25.3 - 29.7 minutes. A statistically significant increase of running speed was observed
189 post 5k running but stance times remained unchanged (**Table 1**).

190

191 ***Insert **Table 1** here***

192

193 *Hip joint*

194 At the hip joint (**Figure 2**) during post 5k running, increased extension moment was observed
195 across stance at 6% (p=0.050), 14% (p=0.050) and 24%-50% (p<0.001) (**Figure 2A**).
196 Abduction moment increased at 12%-20% (p<0.001), 24%-30% (p=0.001), and 36%-52%
197 (p<0.001), respectively (**Figure 2B**). External rotation angle increased at 0-10% (p=0.048) and
198 external rotation moment increased at 10%-20% (p<0.001) and 26%-28% (p=0.027) (**Figure**
199 **2C**). The contact force increased in the ant-post direction at 22%-28% (p=0.001) (**Figure 3A**),
200 in the med-lat direction at 16%-28% (p<0.001) (**Figure 3B**), and in the sup-inf direction at
201 48%-52% (p=0.009) (**Figure 3C**). Peak hip moments and contact force are presented (**Table**
202 **2**), with increased peak hip extension moment (p=0.024) and abduction moment (p<0.001),
203 and peak hip contact force in the ant-post (p=0.001), med-lat (p<0.001) and sup-inf (p=0.002)
204 directions during post 5k running.

205

206 ***Insert **Table 2** here***

207 ***Insert **Figure 1** here***

208 ***Insert **Figure 2** here***

209 ***Insert **Figure 3** here***

210

211 *Knee joint*

212 At the knee joint, flexion angle showed no change but adduction reduced at 12%-14% (p=0.050)
213 of stance (**Figure 4B**). However, reduced extension moment was observed at 22%-24%
214 (p=0.031) and 36%-96% (p<0.001) (**Figure 5A**). Increased knee abduction moment was
215 observed at 12%-20% (p=0.002) and 26% (p=0.044) during initial contact, and at 74%-88%
216 (p<0.001) and 92%-96% (p=0.017) during push off, respectively (**Figure 5B**). The knee
217 contact force increased during mid stance (46%-58%, p<0.001) in the sup-inf direction (**Figure**
218 **6C**). **Table 3** presents the peak knee joint extension (p=0.001) and abduction (p=0.002)
219 moments, and the VILR (p<0.001) and peak values of sup-inf (p=0.005) knee contact force.

220 Correlation between FPI scores pre 5k and post 5k with peak knee flexion moment, peak knee
221 abduction moment and VILR are presented in **Figure 7**. There was a moderate correlation
222 between FPI and peak knee flexion moment (0.35-0.47), during pre and post 5k treadmill
223 running (**Figure 7A**). The correlation between FPI and peak knee abduction moment was also
224 moderate (0.39-0.44), during pre and post 5k (**Figure 7B**). Interestingly, the correlation
225 between FPI and VILR was only moderate post 5k (0.39) (**Figure 7C**).

226

227 ***Insert Table 3 here***

228 ***Insert **Figure 4** here***

229 ***Insert **Figure 5** here***

230 ***Insert **Figure 6** here***

231 ***Insert **Figure 7** here***

232

233 *Ankle joint*

234 At the ankle joint increased plantarflexion was observed during push off at 80%-92% ($p=0.030$)
235 (**Figure 8A**), and the plantarflexion moment increased at 6%-98% ($p<0.001$) during stance
236 (**Figure 9A**). However, the subtalar joint eversion angle and subtalar moment showed no
237 change. The ankle contact force in the ant-post direction increased at 6%-48% ($p<0.001$) but
238 decreased at 76%-82% ($p=0.011$) (**Figure 10A**). The med-lat ankle contact force decreased at
239 28%-44% ($p<0.001$) (**Figure 10B**). The sup-inf ankle contact force increased at 20%-64%
240 ($p<0.001$) and 72%-86% ($p<0.001$) (**Figure 10C**), respectively. **Table 4** presents the peak
241 ankle plantarflexion moment ($p<0.001$), ankle contact force in the ant-post ($p<0.001$) and sup-
242 inf ($p<0.001$) directions. The correlations between FPI and peak ankle moment (0.5-0.6) and
243 subtalar moment (0.44-0.49) were moderate in both cases (**Figure 11A** & **Figure 11B**).

244

245 ***Insert Table 4 here***

246 ***Insert **Figure 8** here***

247 ***Insert **Figure 9** here***

248 ***Insert **Figure 10** here***

249 ***Insert **Figure 11** here***

250

251 **4. DISCUSSION**

252 The findings in this study suggest that joint moments and joint contact forces in the lower
253 extremity are altered with increased foot pronation following 5k running. Specifically, hip joint
254 moments and hip contact force increased during stance. Knee joint extension moment
255 decreased but abduction moment increased, and sup-inf contact force increased during mid
256 stance. Ankle plantarflexion moment increased throughout stance, and ankle contact force
257 increased in the ant-post and sup-inf directions but decreased in the med-lat direction. The FPI
258 was found to correlate moderately with knee and ankle moments pre and post 5km running.

259 The human foot attenuates shock at the arch during weight bearing in stance. Due to repetitive
260 loading from prolonged running activities, reduced arch height and pronated foot posture are
261 reported in long distance runners (Fukano et al., 2018; Mei et al., 2018), which is consistent
262 with the increased foot pronation assessed using the FPI in this study. Foot pronation may be
263 associated with several RRI, which remain a conflicting issue in the biomechanics community.
264 High arch runners present with higher incidence of ankle injuries, in contrast low arch runners
265 exhibit more knee injuries (Williams et al., 2001), specifically the medial tibia stress syndrome
266 among lower arch and pronated foot runners (Bennett et al., 2001). Greater knee abduction
267 moment has been reported during walking and running in athletes with a low foot arch (Powell
268 et al., 2016). This is consistent with the current study that showed a moderate correlation
269 between FPI (pronated with low arch) and peak abduction moment. It should be acknowledged
270 that participants in this study wore their preferred shoe design and this was not controlled for.
271 Shoe design has been shown to influence pronation including motion control shoes (Malisoux
272 et al., 2016), maximal, neutral and minimal shoes (Mei et al., 2014; Pollard et al., 2018; Xiang
273 et al., 2018). Footwear design or wearing no shoes at all may influence the motor control system
274 during running (Santuz et al., 2017).

275 Stance contact time after 5k running was consistent with a recent study of intersegmental work
276 contribution during a prolonged run (Sanno et al., 2018). However, the average speed of
277 runners in this study was ~3.1m/s, which was slower than the study of exhaustive maximal 10k
278 treadmill running (Hanley and Tucker, 2018) reported as ~4.7m/s. This is likely due to runners
279 in that study being competitive compared to the recreational class of the runners in the present
280 study. Comparison with other recreational running studies revealed speeds of 3.3-3.4 m/s
281 (Hoenig et al., 2019) and 3.2m/s (Chan-Roper et al., 2012), which was consistent with our
282 findings.

283 Sagittal and coronal hip kinematics remained unchanged post 5k running in this study. This
284 was consistent with a 10k treadmill study of recreational runners at the same 5k mark (Sanno
285 et al., 2018). In overuse injuries in recreational runners it has been reported that hip flexor,
286 abductor and external rotator muscle strength is reduced (Kollock et al., 2016; Luedke et al.,
287 2015; Niemuth et al., 2005). The reduced muscles lead to an imbalance of the hip joint moments
288 and the net result is increased extension, abduction and internal rotation moments. This is
289 consistent with the current study where we found increased extension moment, abduction
290 moment and internal rotation moment during the initial contact of stance.

291 The sup-inf hip contact force from this study was 8.8BW to 9.7BW at 3.1m/s, which was
292 consistent with a previous running study that reported hip contact forces of 9.47BW when
293 running at 3.05m/s (Giarmatzis et al., 2015). It should be noted that the hip contact force in the
294 current study further highlighted that sup-inf contact force increased during mid stance,
295 whereas the med-lat and ant-post contact forces only increased during initial contact. Further,
296 the pattern of sup-inf knee contact force was similar to the vertical ground reaction force, which
297 is consistent with previous studies (Gerus et al., 2013; Knarr and Higginson, 2015; Steele et
298 al., 2012).

299 Knee flexion and adduction kinematics and joint moments were consistent in profile and
300 magnitude range with previous running studies (Bonacci et al., 2013; Hamner et al., 2010;
301 Hamner and Delp, 2013). Simulated knee crossing muscle activation patterns (vastus lateralis,
302 rectus femoris and vastus medialis) were in good temporal agreement with EMG signals
303 recoded in our study (see supplementary material). Significantly decreased knee extension
304 moment was observed from mid stance to push off during post 5k running, which may be partly
305 explained by the weak extensor muscles reported for recreational runners (Kollock et al., 2016).

306 The FPI was found to partly explain the knee flexion and knee abduction moments both pre
307 and post 5k running. Specifically, as the foot pronates knee abduction increases. This is
308 interesting since increased knee abduction (or reduced knee adduction) has been associated
309 with reduced medial knee loading in people who walk with increased foot pronation (Levinger
310 et al., 2013). However, in contrast increased pronation has also been reported to be associated
311 with medial loading and tibia stress (Barnes et al., 2008; Levinger et al., 2010) and everted foot
312 kinematics during locomotion (Levinger et al., 2012). This suggests that foot pronation plays
313 a role in medial knee joint loading and should not be too over pronated or supinated.

314 Ankle joint kinematics at heel strike and toe off during pre 5k and post 5k were consistent with
315 recent studies (Reenalda et al., 2016; Sanno et al., 2018) showing similar profiles and range of
316 motion. The subtalar joint angle and moment patterns were unchanged post 5k running,
317 however, the single calcaneus marker used in this study may not be suited for dynamic subtalar
318 joint motions in the frontal plane and should be considered as a limitation (Fischer et al., 2017;
319 Wang and Gutierrez-Farewik, 2011). Our study showed increased plantarflexion during push
320 off and plantarflexion joint moment throughout stance post 5k running. One item exhibited
321 from the FPI in this study was increased calcaneus eversion at the subtalar joint post 5k running.
322 This is consistent with a study that reported subtalar over eversion was found to enlarge the
323 plantar flexors and tibialis anterior muscles (Wang and Gutierrez-Farewik, 2011). Further,
324 increased plantar flexor muscles and tibialis anterior (dorsiflexor) may contribute to increased
325 ankle contact forces. This is consistent with the increased ankle contact force observed in this
326 study.

327

328 5. CONCLUSIONS

329 This study presents an investigation of the changes in foot posture, joint kinematics, joint
330 moments and joint contact forces in the lower extremity following a 5k treadmill run in 20
331 participants. A relationship between knee and ankle joint loading and FPI was developed. It
332 was found that hip joint moments and contact forces increased during initial foot contact
333 following 5k running. Knee abduction moment and superior-inferior knee contact force
334 increased, whereas the knee extension moment decreased. Ankle plantarflexion moment and
335 ankle contact forces increased during stance. A useful finding was that the FPI was moderately
336 correlated with peak knee and ankle moments. The FPI showed that recreational male runners
337 presented increased static foot pronation after 5k treadmill running. These findings suggest that
338 following mid distance running foot pronation may be an early indicator of increased lower
339 limb joint loading. Furthermore, the FPI may be used to quantify the changes in knee and ankle
340 joint moments. Specifically, increase in FPI leads to an increase in knee flexion moment, knee
341 abduction moment, ankle plantarflexion moment and subtalar inversion moment.

342

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347 **Author Contributions Statement:** QM, YG and JF conceived and designed this study. QM
348 and XL conducted the test, collected and analyzed the data. QM, YG, JB and JF prepared the
349 manuscript. QM, YG, XL, JB and JF commented, revised the manuscript and all approved for
350 the submission.

351 **Conflict of Interest Statement:** None declared.

352 **Ethics approval:** This study was approved by the Ethical Committee in the Research Academy
353 of Grand Health Interdisciplinary, Ningbo University (RAGH20161208).

354

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535 **Table 1.** FPI scores, speed and contact time (Mean±SD [95% Confidence Interval])

Variables	Pre 5k [95% CI]	Post 5k [95% CI]	p value
FPI scores	1.7±1.84 [0.84, 2.56]	7.3±1.87 [6.43, 8.17]	<0.001
Speed (m/s)	3.068±0.128 [3.0, 3.13]	3.137±0.152 [3.07, 3.21]	0.007
Contact time (s)	0.253±0.023 [0.242, 0.263]	0.249±0.027 [0.236, 0.262]	0.230

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Table 2. The peak hip moments and joint contact forces in the ant-post, med-lat and sup-inf directions during stance (Mean±SD [95% Confidence Interval])

Variables	Pre 5k [95% CI]	Post 5k [95% CI]	p value
Ext Moment (Nm/kg)	1.13±0.39 [0.95, 1.31]	1.35±0.44 [1.15, 1.56]	0.024
Abd Moment (Nm/kg)	1.14±0.17 [1.06, 1.22]	1.3±0.21 [1.20, 1.40]	<0.001
Rot Moment (Nm/kg)	0.51±0.06 [0.48, 0.54]	0.52±0.07 [0.50, 0.56]	0.087
Ant-Post Contact Force (xBW)	2.10±0.39 [1.91, 2.28]	2.36±0.3 [2.21, 2.50]	0.001
Med-Lat Contact Force (xBW)	2.4±0.72 [2.06, 2.74]	3.0±0.81 [2.62, 3.38]	<0.001
Sup-Inf Contact Force (xBW)	8.76±1.61 [8.0, 9.5]	9.71±1.65 [8.9, 10.48]	0.002

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Table 3. The peak knee moments and joint contact forces in the ant-post, med-lat and sup-inf directions (Mean±SD [95% Confidence Interval])

Variables	Pre 5k [95% CI]	Post 5k [95% CI]	p value
Ext Moment (Nm/kg)	2.33±0.44 [2.12, 2.53]	2.15±0.44 [1.94, 2.35]	0.001
Abd Moment (Nm/kg)	0.99±0.31 [0.85, 1.14]	1.11±0.28 [0.97, 1.23]	0.002
VILR (BW/Stance%)	100.1±33.04 [84.65, 115.58]	131.73±28.83 [118.24, 145.22]	<0.001
Ant-Post Contact Force (xBW)	4.95±3.0 [3.55, 6.35]	4.74±3.3 [3.19, 6.28]	0.46
Med-Lat Contact Force (xBW)	0.63±0.34 [0.47, 0.80]	0.58±0.4 [0.39, 0.77]	0.52
Sup-Inf Contact Force (xBW)	10.12±1.58 [9.38, 10.86]	10.88±1.49 [10.18, 11.58]	0.005

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Table 4. The peak ankle and subtalar moments and ankle joint contact forces in the ant-post, med-lat and sup-inf directions (Mean±SD [95% Confidence Interval])

Variables	Pre 5k [95% CI]	Post 5k [95% CI]	p value
Plantarflexion Moment (Nm/kg)	1.54±0.34 [1.38, 1.39]	2.26±0.43 [2.05, 2.47]	<0.001
Inversion Moment (Nm/kg)	0.34±0.12 [0.29, 0.39]	0.36±0.11 [0.31, 0.41]	0.350
Ant-Post Contact Force (xBW)	2.77±0.62 [2.48, 3.06]	3.71±0.66 [3.41, 4.02]	<0.001
Med-Lat Contact Force (xBW)	0.25±0.11 [0.20, 0.30]	0.27±0.12 [0.22, 0.33]	0.410
Sup-Inf Contact Force (xBW)	8.09±1.55 [7.36, 8.82]	11.24±1.76 [10.4, 12.06]	<0.001

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Figure 1. The hip joint angles (**A, B, C**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 2. The hip moments (**A, B, C**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 3. The hip contact forces (**A, B, C**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 4. The knee joint angles (**A, B**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 5. The knee joint moments (**A, B**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 6. The knee joint contact forces (**A, B, C**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 7. The correlation of peak knee joint loadings (**A**: flexion moment, **B**: abduction moment, **C**: vertical loading rate) with FPI

Figure 8. The ankle and subtalar joint angles (**A, B**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 9. The ankle and subtalar joint moments (**A, B**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 10. The ankle joint contact forces (**A, B, C**) during stance with statistics ($\text{spm}\{t\}$) from spm1d (“+” and “-” represent directions)

Figure 11. The correlation of peak ankle (**A**) and subtalar (**B**) moments with FPI