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1 Article

2 Morphology-related Foot Function Analysis: 3 Implications for Jumping and Running

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10 **Abstract:** Barefoot and shod running has received increased attention in recent years, however, the
11 influence of morphology-related foot function has not been explored. This study aimed to
12 investigate the morphology-related jumping and running biomechanical functions in habitually
13 barefoot and shod males. A total of 90 barefoot males (Indians) and 130 shod males (Chinese), with
14 significant forefoot and toes morphology differences, participated in a vertical jump and running
15 test to enable collection of kinematic and kinetic data. The difference of pressure distribution in the
16 hallux and forefoot was shown while jumping and running. The unrestricted forefoot and toes of
17 the barefoot group presented flexible movement and leverage functions to expand the forefoot
18 loading area during performance of the two tasks. Findings related to morphology functions,
19 especially in the forefoot and toe may provide useful information for footwear design.

20 **Keywords:** foot morphology; toes function; biomechanics; barefoot; jumping; running

21

22 1. Introduction

23 Human feet are the basic terminal structures that support human walking, running, jumping
24 and other locomotion. The foot is a complex structure that controls balance and movement [1,2]. Foot
25 morphology has been studied since the early 20th century [3]. Previous studies have demonstrated,
26 that the foot differs significantly between habitually barefoot and shod people [4–6], and differences
27 in the kinetics of walking, running and jumping have been observed [7–9].

28 Different foot morphology may also be a contributory factor for injury during motion [10], and
29 may also influence physical activity performance [11,12]. There are many reasons for morphological
30 differences in humans, which include disease, foot malfunctions, genetics and deformity [13].
31 Research findings have indicated that external factors, such as footwear, may deform foot structure,
32 and result in conditions such as hallux valgus (HV) [3,14]. HV could induce foot dysfunction [15],
33 influence foot morphology [16] and may impair quality of life [17], which may result in depression
34 and pain [18].

35 In addition, when comparing habitually shod populations, habitually barefoot populations
36 demonstrate more toe separation [3,4,14]. Studies on foot morphology have focused on the width
37 and length of the foot [6], and several studies have investigated the morphological differences
38 between the hallux and other toes [4,14]. However, whether these differences influence the motions
39 needed for physical activity is unclear.

40 Jumping, is a typical movement in many sports, and has attracted much attention from the
41 research community [19,20]. Jumping performance has been evaluated using a one-foot and a
42 two-foot jump [19], and toe flexor function has also been examined [20]. Furthermore, the
43 countermovement jump has been important to support clinicians in the medical diagnosis of muscle
44 power during prolonged recovery periods following ankle injuries [21]. The contribution of the

45 forefoot and toes has been evaluated while performing the vertical jump, and kinematics, kinetics
46 and spatiotemporal parameters have been recorded and analyzed [22].

47 Lieberman et al. [23] indicated that habitually barefoot populations and shod populations
48 would present different foot strike patterns. Habitually barefoot populations would land on the
49 forefoot, then bring down the heel, and have been observed landing with a flat foot, but seldom on
50 the heel. Habitually shod populations mostly land with a rearfoot strike. The elevated and
51 cushioned heel of the modern running shoe may be a contributory factor that has facilitated the
52 differences in the strike patterns observed. However, strike patterns have been observed to be
53 variant even between shod or barefoot populations in recent studies [2,7,8,24]. In spite of the
54 conflicting opinions about barefoot locomotion, it has gained in popularity in recent years, and is
55 now included in athletic training [25], recreational running [26], and rehabilitation [27]. A previous
56 study has revealed the foot shape and function differences in native barefoot walkers [5] and
57 runners [24]. The morphological differences between habitually barefoot and shod runners were
58 found to exist in the forefoot and toe regions [4]. However, morphology based on the function of the
59 forefoot and toes' while performing vertical jumping and running has not been investigated.

60 Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the morphology related performance
61 differences while conducting vertical jumping and running tasks between habitually barefoot males
62 and shod males. A further aim was to explore any functional differences in the forefoot and toes
63 based on the foot morphological characteristics. It was hypothesized that the lower extremity
64 kinematics and plantar forefoot loading distribution would be different due to the morphological
65 difference in the forefoot and toes region.

66 2. Materials and Methods

67 2.1. Participants

68 Sample size was calculated prior to this study using power package in R-3.6.1 (effect size = 0.5,
69 α level = 0.05, power value = 0.9, type: two-sample, alternative: two sided). A total of 90 barefoot
70 males (Indians) and 130 shod males (Chinese), who presented significant forefoot and toes
71 morphology differences from a previously published study [4], volunteered to participate in the
72 vertical jumping and running test to enable collection of kinematic and kinetic data. All participants
73 were students in the University and had the history of running or other physical activities.
74 Participants of Indian ethnicity originated from South India (Kerala state), who were running or
75 taking part in physical activities barefoot since birth and wore slippers during daily life. Participants
76 of Chinese ethnicity were shod runners since birth and kept wearing different kinds of shoes in daily
77 life. Participants with hallux valgus, high-arched foot, flat foot, diabetic foot or any other foot
78 deformities were excluded via foot scan prior the test. All participants had no injuries or surgeries to
79 their lower limbs in the previous half year.

80 Data for 62 barefoot males (age: 22 ± 1.9 yrs; weight: 65 ± 8.6 kg; height: 1.69 ± 0.16 m), presenting
81 with a forefoot strike during running, and 112 shod males (age: 23 ± 2.8 yrs; weight: 66 ± 7.8 kg; height:
82 1.71 ± 0.11 m), presenting with a rearfoot strike during running, were included for analysis via post
83 data procession. This study with detailed guidelines for participants' safety and experimental
84 protocols was approved by the Human Ethics Committee at the Research Institute of Ningbo
85 University (ARGH20160819). The study was conducted in accordance with the declaration of
86 Helsinki. Prior to the test, all subjects gave informed consent with full knowledge of test procedures
87 and requirements.

88 2.2. Experiment Protocol

89 The test protocol is consistent with a previously reported experiment [23], which has been
90 published from our laboratory recently [1,24]. After completion of foot scanning, participants
91 revisited the motion capture lab for experimental vertical jump and running tests. Participants were
92 instructed to warm up and to familiarize themselves with the lab environment for 5 min prior to
93 data collection. Before data collection, three familiarization trials were performed for each task.

94 While performing the vertical jump, participants stood on the ground in an akimbo position
95 (right foot on the force platform) to reduce the interference from the upper body during performance
96 of a maximal vertical jump. Each participant completed six trials with the right foot on the force
97 platform (Model 9281B, Switzerland).

98 Running tests were conducted on a runway in the lab. Subjects performed barefoot running
99 with the right foot striking the force platform, which was located in the middle of the runway and
100 was used for kinetic data collection. The force platform and pressure data were used to assist in the
101 definition of striking patterns following a previously established protocol [28,29]. Each participant
102 performed six trials of running using a self-selected running speed, to present natural strike patterns
103 during running and collection of biomechanical characteristics. For both jumping and running
104 sessions, there were 30 second rest intervals between each trial to minimize the effect of fatigue.

105 The pressure platform (Novel EMED System, Germany) was reported to have high reliability
106 correlations (>0.7) [30], and the insole (Novel Pedar System, Germany) plantar pressure distribution
107 system also displayed excellent reliability correlations (>0.9) [31]. The pressure plate was used to
108 record barefoot jumping and running plantar pressure distribution data with a frequency of 100Hz.
109 The in-shoe plantar pressure measurement system was placed in the shoes for collection of the shod
110 jumping and running plantar pressure distribution data among habitually shod males, with a
111 frequency of 100Hz. The habitually shod males (shod) performed shod running wearing shoes that
112 were the same brand and model for consistency.

113 2.3. Data Acquisition

114 Previous studies have outlined data collected from insole pressure sensors and pressure plates
115 and show high reliability [32]. All the anatomical region division analysis was performed in the
116 Novel Database in the data post-processing based on an auto-masking algorithm [33]. For trials of
117 barefoot and shod vertical jumping, only the data in the forefoot and toes were included. The
118 collected plantar pressure data while performing vertical jumping were separated into the push-off
119 and landing phases for analysis. Thus, the plantar surface was divided into five anatomical regions:
120 medial forefoot (MF), central forefoot (CF), lateral forefoot (LF), hallux (H), and other toes (OT), as
121 this study mainly focused on the instant push-off and landing phase of the vertical jump. For trials
122 using barefoot and shod running, the plantar surface was divided into eight anatomical regions,
123 including medial rearfoot (MR), lateral rearfoot (LR), medial midfoot (MM), lateral midfoot (LM),
124 medial forefoot (MF), lateral forefoot (LF), hallux (H) and other toes (OT). The variables for jumping
125 and running included peak pressure, contact area and pressure-time integral of each anatomical
126 region.

127 The kinematic test used the 8-camera Vicon motion analysis system (Oxford Metric Ltd.,
128 Oxford, UK) to collect the lower extremity kinematic data with a frequency of 200 Hz. Sixteen
129 reflective points (diameter: 14 mm) were attached with adhesive tape on the lower limbs of subjects,
130 respectively, following a previously published protocol [34]. The anatomical landmarks included the
131 anterior-superior iliac spine, posterior-superior iliac spine, lateral mid-thigh, lateral knee, lateral
132 mid-shank, lateral malleolus, second metatarsal head and calcaneus. A Kistler Force Platform
133 (Model 9281B, Switzerland) was used to record ground reaction forces (GRFs) with a frequency set
134 at 1000 Hz, to define the running foot striking patterns and contact time. The force platform was
135 zero-levelled prior to testing each participant. The on and off force platform was defined from the
136 value of vertical GRF as 20N. Participants were required to strike the force platform with the right
137 foot while performing the running and jumping tests on the force platform. The variables of running
138 included spatiotemporal parameters, such as stride length, stride time and contact time, peak angles
139 during stance and joints range of motion (ROM) in a gait cycle. The spatiotemporal parameters were
140 generated from the Workstation in the Vicon Nexus software (v1.8.5), including hip, knee and ankle
141 angles in the sagittal plane, coronal plane and horizontal plane computed from the Vicon
142 Plug-in-Gait Model using established protocols [20,30]. Vertical jump height was calculated by the
143 equation (1) [35]:

144

$$\text{Jump height (m)} = \frac{9.80\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2} \times \text{flight time(s)}^2}{g} \quad (1)$$

145 2.4. Statistical Analysis

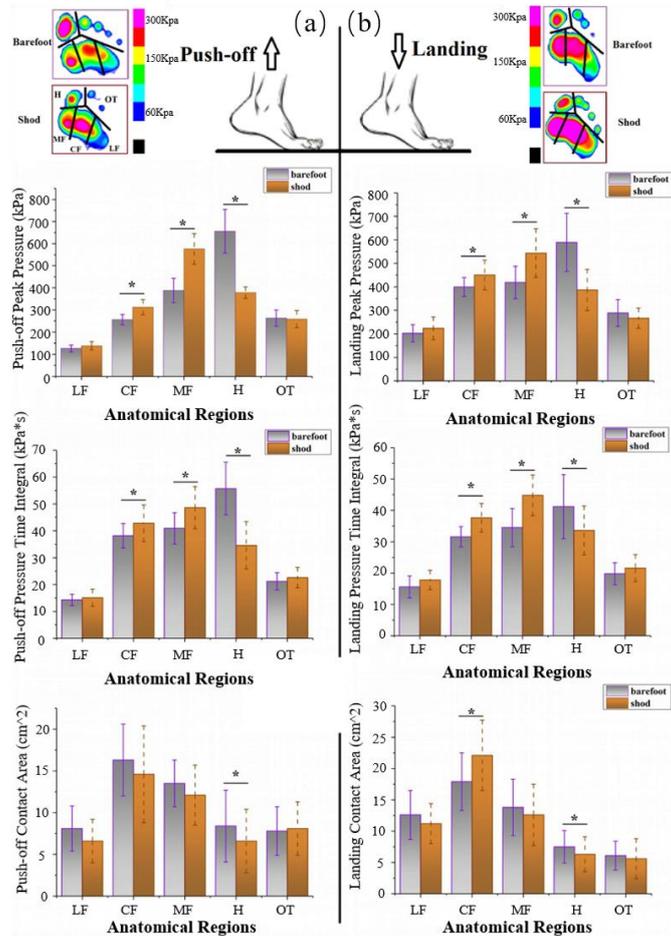
146 Normal distribution was checked for all variables, including jump height, peak pressure,
 147 pressure time integral and contact area of vertical jumping, and running spatiotemporal parameters,
 148 such as stride length, stride time and contact time, running peak angles during stance and joints
 149 range of motion in a gait cycle. Independent-sample *T* tests were used to analyze the significance of
 150 kinematic, plantar loading and spatiotemporal variables between the barefoot and shod group. SPSS
 151 18.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) software was used for the analysis, with statistical significance set
 152 at $p < 0.05$.

153 3. Results

154 After calculation and comparison of jump height, there were no significant differences between
 155 the height of the barefoot jump ($386.4 \pm 13.6\text{mm}$) and shod jump ($408.2 \pm 12.9\text{mm}$), with $p > 0.05$.

156 As shown in Figure 1, during the take-off phase (left), significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were
 157 found between barefoot and shod jumping in H ($p = 0.02$ & 0.01), MF ($p = 0.018$ & 0.029) and CF
 158 ($p = 0.026$ & 0.03) for peak pressure and the pressure time integral. Significance for contact area was
 159 also found in H ($p = 0.032$).

160 During the landing phase (right), significant differences were found between barefoot and shod
 161 jumping in H ($p = 0.016$ & 0.021), MF ($p = 0.026$ & 0.031), and CF ($p = 0.04$ & 0.033) for peak pressure and
 162 the pressure time integral. For contact area, significant differences were found in H ($p = 0.034$) and CF
 163 ($p = 0.02$).



164

165 **Figure 1.** The peak pressure, pressure time integral and contact area in the anatomical regions during
 166 the push-off (left) and landing (right) phases of the vertical jump. lateral forefoot (LF), central
 167 forefoot (CF), medial forefoot (MF), hallux (H), and other toes (OT). * indicates significance between
 168 variables, $p < 0.05$.

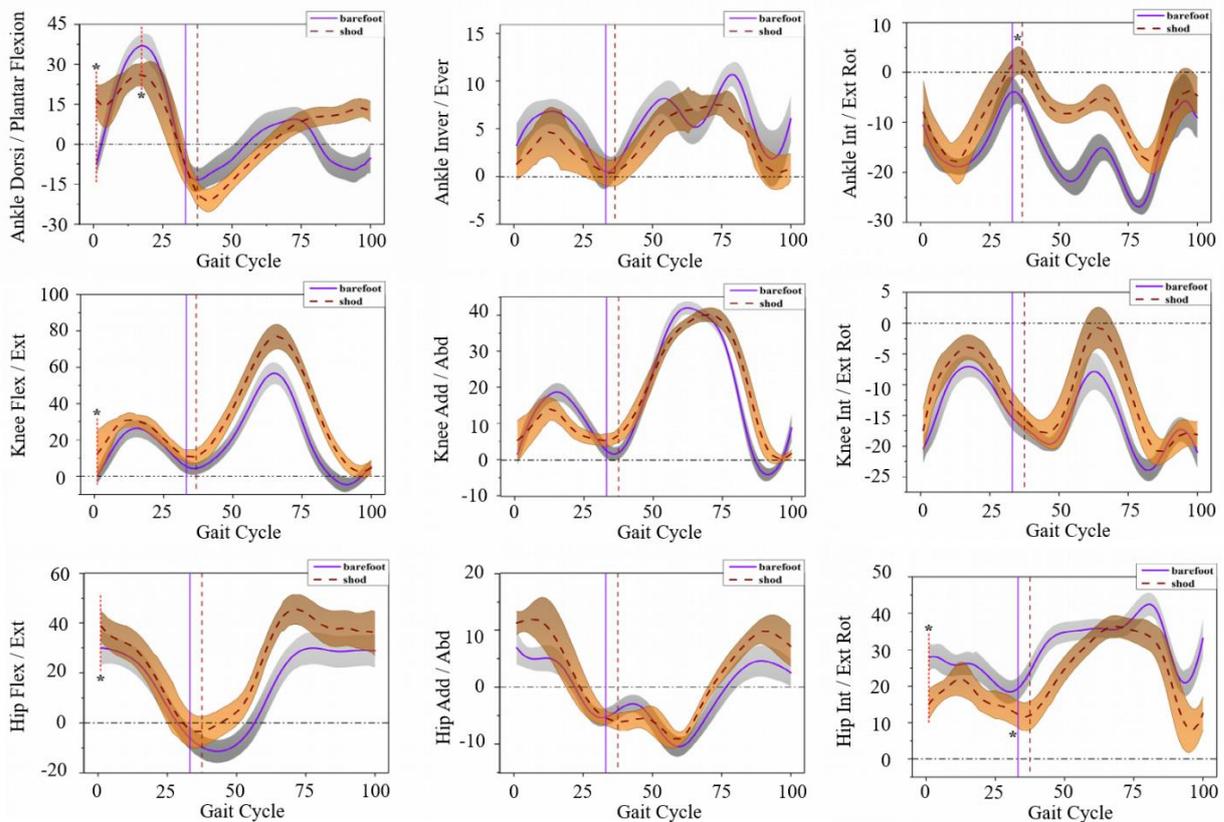
169 As measured from the running test, participants' running speeds were self-selected as
 170 comfortable from the generated spatiotemporal parameter. The comparison of collected
 171 spatiotemporal parameters, including stride length, stride time and contact time in one gait cycle
 172 between barefoot and shod running, are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The spatiotemporal parameters between barefoot and shod running

	Stride length (m)	Stride time (s)	Contact time (s)
Barefoot	2.35±0.19*	0.76±0.027*	0.252±0.018*
Shod	2.46±0.21	0.794±0.032	0.298±0.013

174 Note: * Significance between barefoot and shod runners, $p < 0.05$.

175 As shown in Figure 2, the stance of barefoot and shod running were highlighted with solid
 176 (33.2±0.7%) and dashed (37.5±0.8%) vertical lines, which were calculated from the percentage of
 177 contact time in stride time. The peak angles during the stance were thus obtained between barefoot
 178 and shod running, and statistical significance was highlighted with a red dot line with the asterisk
 179 (*), with Table 2 presenting detailed values.



180 **Figure 2.** Joint angles curves of ankle, knee and hip in sagittal, frontal and horizontal planes during
 181 one gait cycle. Red dot lines with * indicate significant difference, $p < 0.05$.

183 The foot strike angle of the ankle between shod and barefoot running showed a significant
 184 difference with the foot strike angle of shod running at $17.1 \pm 4.3^\circ$, and barefoot running at $-7.2 \pm 3.9^\circ$

185 (minus indicates plantarflexion), $p=0.00$. Internal and external ankle rotation also showed a
 186 significant difference, $p<0.05$. The maximal rotation angle during the push-off phase of the stance
 187 was $3.24\pm 2.26^\circ$ (shod running) and $-3.76\pm 1.5^\circ$ (barefoot running). Barefoot running showed
 188 significantly larger ankle ROM than shod running, $p=0.00$ (Table 3).

189 The knee joint contact angles while foot landing were $12.33\pm 8.45^\circ$ (shod) and $0.1\pm 2.3^\circ$ (barefoot),
 190 showing significance ($p=0.012$) (highlighted in Figure 2). Smaller knee joint ROM in the sagittal
 191 plane was also observed, with $p=0.021$ (Table 3).

192 For hip movement, shod running ($38.79\pm 7.81^\circ$) presented larger flexion angle than barefoot
 193 running ($30.12\pm 5.66^\circ$) while landing ($p=0.03$) (Table 2). Greater internal rotation angle while barefoot
 194 running ($27.21\pm 3.66^\circ$) was observed than shod running ($14.21\pm 2.66^\circ$) as the foot landing ($p=0.32$)
 195 (Figure 2). Shod running presented significantly larger ROM than barefoot running in gait cycle
 196 (Table 3).

197 **Table 2.** Peak joints' angles between barefoot and shod running during stance.

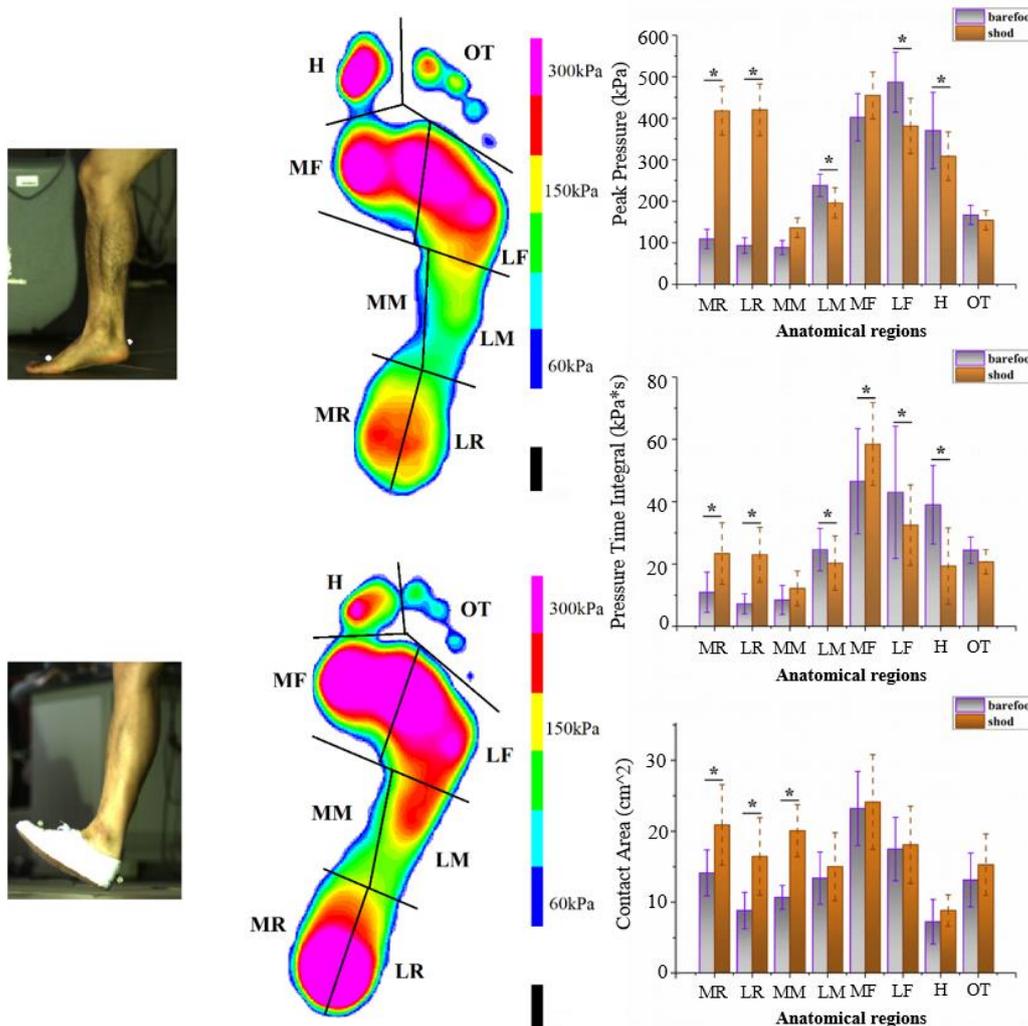
		Barefoot (Mean \pm SD)		Shod (Mean \pm SD)	
		Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
Ankle	Sagittal	$37.12\pm 2.8^\circ$ *	$-11.22\pm 5.4^\circ$	$28.47\pm 2.6^\circ$	$-18.7\pm 6.3^\circ$
	Coronal	$6.98\pm 2.1^\circ$	$0.46\pm 1.5^\circ$	$4.13\pm 2.5^\circ$	$0.73\pm 1.23^\circ$
	Horizontal	$-3.76\pm 1.5^\circ$ *	$-19.14\pm 1.66^\circ$	$3.24\pm 2.26^\circ$	$-19.73\pm 3.5^\circ$
Knee	Sagittal	$26.33\pm 4.45^\circ$ *	$0.1\pm 2.3^\circ$	$32.2\pm 3.1^\circ$	$2.57\pm 3.6^\circ$
	Coronal	$18.75\pm 3.1^\circ$	$1.98\pm 2.1^\circ$	$14.39\pm 3.1^\circ$	$4.28\pm 3.99^\circ$
	Horizontal	$-6.98\pm 1.99^\circ$	$-20.4\pm 3.1^\circ$	$-3.1\pm 1.9^\circ$	$-18.2\pm 2.2^\circ$
Hip	Sagittal	$30.12\pm 5.66^\circ$ *	$-7.04\pm 2.99^\circ$	$38.79\pm 7.81^\circ$	$-5.57\pm 4.88^\circ$
	Coronal	$6.9\pm 2.89^\circ$	$-5.37\pm 2.33^\circ$	$13.3\pm 4.1^\circ$	$-6.1\pm 1.68^\circ$
	Horizontal	$28.57\pm 4.1^\circ$	$18.3\pm 3.6^\circ$	$22.86\pm 4.5^\circ$	$11.17\pm 4.17^\circ$

198 **Table 3.** Lower extremity joints' ROM between barefoot and shod running in gait cycle.

		Barefoot (Mean \pm SD)	Shod (Mean \pm SD)
Ankle	Sagittal	$50.93\pm 3.81^\circ$	$49.67\pm 5.12^\circ$
	Coronal	$10.58\pm 3.56^\circ$ *	$3.89\pm 1.66^\circ$
	Horizontal	$23.86\pm 5.22^\circ$	$24.09\pm 7.6^\circ$
Knee	Sagittal	$61.67\pm 8.26^\circ$ *	$74.67\pm 9.15^\circ$
	Coronal	$46.11\pm 7.55^\circ$	$39.9\pm 5.45^\circ$
	Horizontal	$17.56\pm 2.3^\circ$	$21.05\pm 4.3^\circ$
Hip	Sagittal	$42.62\pm 9.59^\circ$	$42.44\pm 11.2^\circ$
	Coronal	$17.39\pm 5.66^\circ$	$22.09\pm 7.58^\circ$
	Horizontal	$24.43\pm 6.89^\circ$ *	$31.61\pm 9.16^\circ$

199 Peak pressure, contact area and pressure-time integral are shown in Figure 3. For peak
 200 pressure, MR, LR, LM, LF and H showed significant differences between shod and barefoot running.
 201 Specifically, barefoot running demonstrated less peak pressure in MR ($p=0.00$) and LR ($p=0.00$) than
 202 shod running. In contrast, barefoot running showed larger peak pressure in LM ($p=0.028$), LF
 203 ($p=0.019$) and H ($p=0.005$) than shod running. For the pressure-time integral, shod running showed
 204 larger pressure-time integral in MR ($p=0.00$), LR ($p=0.00$) and MF ($p=0.02$) than barefoot running. In
 205 contrast, barefoot running indicated larger pressure-time integral in LM ($p=0.03$), LF ($p=0.009$) and H

206 (p=0.028) than shod running. For the contact area, shod running presented larger area in MR
 207 (p=0.00), LR (p=0.00) and MM (p=0.00) than barefoot running.



208

209 **Figure 3.** Foot pressure of barefoot and shod running. medial rearfoot (MR), lateral rearfoot (LR),
 210 medial midfoot (MM), lateral midfoot (LM), medial forefoot (MF), lateral forefoot (LF), hallux (H)
 211 and other toes (OT). * indicates significance, p<0.05.

212 **4. Discussion**

213 This study aimed to analyze the foot morphology-related jumping and running biomechanics
 214 and evaluate any potential functional differences. Participants in this study were from different
 215 parts of Asia, with a barefoot group from Indian ethnicity, and shod group from Chinese ethnicity.
 216 The main findings were that, (i) during the push-off and landing phases of the vertical jump, the
 217 separate hallux of barefoot individuals shared loading from the metatarsals, and thus expanded the
 218 loading concentrated region, (ii) during the push-off phase of running, there were plantar pressure
 219 differences in the hallux and forefoot of barefoot individuals compared with shod individuals, (iii)
 220 barefoot individuals with separate toes presented flexible range of motion, particularly in the
 221 coronal plane of the ankle, sagittal plane of the knee and horizontal plane of the hip.

222 Hallux angle has been reported to be different among populations of different ethnicities [11].
 223 However, few studies have focused on the minimal distance between the hallux and the
 224 interphalangeal joint of the second toe. Compared with results of our previous study [4], barefoot
 225 groups in this study had a larger distance and smaller hallux angle, while the shod group had larger
 226 hallux angle and smaller distance. It may be concluded that the barefoot group had more flexible
 227 hallux than the shod group [1,3,36]. Lambrinudi et al. [36] reported that if the separate hallux has

228 ambulatory and prehensile functions, it could work fundamentally the same way as the fingers.
229 However, wearing shoes may block these prehensile and separate functions of the toes due to the
230 sharp-headed or ill-fitted space restrictions [3,6,14]. The hallux angle and minimal distance are the
231 basis of the morphological differences for the vertical jumping and running test in this study.

232 Results from the vertical jump test, indicated that the hallux presented larger plantar loading in
233 the barefoot group compared with shod group (Figure 1). During the push-off phase, the plantar
234 loading of the barefoot group was larger under the hallux, while the pressure of the shod group was
235 larger under the medial forefoot and central forefoot. The same pressure time integrals were
236 presented in these anatomical regions, which may imply that the hallux of the barefoot group was
237 used predominantly, while the forefoot of shod group was used primarily. Moreover, the peak
238 pressure of the barefoot reduced in the forefoot regions while landing. This suggests that the
239 gripping function of the hallux could firm and expand the supporting base during push-off and
240 landing phases by the separate toes [3,36]. In addition, large loading under the hallux could reduce
241 the impact force to the forefoot [24]. Previous research has reported that excessive loading under the
242 metatarsal head area (forefoot) would lead to forefoot injuries [7]. These findings imply that the foot
243 morphology related to toe gripping functions may link with a possibility of forefoot metatarsal stress
244 injuries. However, this study did not investigate the injury risks between the two-population
245 groups. The jumping height showed no significance, which implies that the morphological
246 differences may not be linked with jumping performance or there may be a limitation in the akimbo
247 position. Further research is needed and should focus on jumping performance via comprehensive
248 kinematic analysis.

249 Research pertaining to habitually barefoot and shod people has received increased attention in
250 recent years. Different ethnicities [4,5,24], pathological factors [37] and different forms of sport
251 participation [10] could influence foot morphological differences. Among all the barefoot and shod
252 participants, biomechanical data for the forefoot strike barefoot running and rearfoot strike, shod
253 running were included in this study. Barefoot running was reported to be different to minimalist,
254 racing or regular shoe conditions in a previous biomechanical study of experienced runners [38].
255 Extrinsic muscles of the foot presented reduced muscular activity during barefoot running, for
256 instance peroneus longus [39,40]. Other controversial opinions were proposed between the
257 minimalist and barefoot running when compared to traditional shoe running [41,42]. This study
258 focused on the biomechanics from the forefoot and toes morphology, thus shod running from
259 barefoot group and barefoot running from shod group were not performed during the test, which
260 was aimed to reduce the acute response of altering to shod (for barefoot group) or barefoot (for shod
261 group) running.

262 During the running test, each participant performed running with comfortable speed so as to
263 present natural running biomechanics [7,43]. The results indicated significant differences in strike
264 length, strike time and contact time between shod and barefoot groups, which are consistent with
265 previous studies [2,7,8]. In previous barefoot running studies, the barefoot group was observed to
266 reduce these spatiotemporal parameters [8,44,45]. The stride time of the barefoot group was
267 significantly less than the shod [46]. The running performance of the barefoot group was
268 characterized by landing on the forefoot, and the ankle changed from plantarflexion to dorsiflexion
269 in the sagittal plane, which contributed to the greater dorsiflexion angle during stance. The shod
270 running resulted in landing with the rearfoot, and ankle in the dorsiflexion position, which could
271 explain the ankle angle difference as the foot strikes. Different foot strike patterns could be a reason
272 for the strike time differences observed [8].

273 The observed knee contact flexion angle and peak flexion angle difference of shod running in
274 this study may be a compensatory movement (with larger sagittal knee ROM), resulting from the
275 previously established greater knee impact while rearfoot shod running [9,45,47]. As shown by the
276 hip flexion angle, the contact flexion angle was larger than that of barefoot running, and this could
277 explain the increased stride length of shod running, and although not significant, an about hip
278 flexion-extension ROM was observed.

279 In terms of the plantar pressure distribution, the barefoot group showed smaller peak pressure
280 and pressure-time integral than the shod group in the rearfoot. This may have been caused by the
281 rear foot landing during shod running, which results in larger contact area in MR and LR. The
282 difference in contact area in MM may be related to the uppers and soles of the footwear while shod
283 running. Owing to the forefoot strike of barefoot running, the larger peak pressure and pressure
284 time integral to the LM and LF may result from landing impact. This finding could explain the
285 previously reported forefoot metatarsus fatigue injury due to the repetitive impact and lack of
286 cushioning protection from footwear [1,24]. The hallux showed increased peak pressure and
287 pressure time integral during barefoot running while not significant; this was observed for the
288 contact area. This may result from the active gripping motion of separate hallux, “leverage function”
289 expanding the push-off supporting area (fulcrum) [1,36]. Thus, less loading was found in the MF
290 compared with shod running presenting greater MF loading and smaller H loading. The greater
291 ankle ROM in coronal plane and peak angle while pushing off may be kinematic evidence for the
292 active toes function related to the morphological differences in this study. As reported, the function
293 of the remaining toes may also be used for balance and stability control under static and dynamic
294 conditions [48], it may also be useful during running and jumping performances. Further benefits
295 from the toes in relation to balance and coordination, especially contributions to long distance
296 endurance racing and related events [49] needs further investigation.

297 Several limitations should be considered in this study. Firstly, participants were physically
298 active males in their early twenties, which may be a limiting factor for generalizing findings from
299 this study to different age group and both genders. Secondly, this study lacked information of
300 vertical jump biomechanics between the two-population groups, which should be a future research
301 project to investigate potential differences in jumping performance. Thirdly, the entire test was
302 conducted in a lab-based environment, possibly the jumping and running biomechanical
303 performances may be different in an outdoor environment.

304 Previous research revealed that running injury is a multifactorial issue, including systemic
305 factors, training (experience), health factors and lifestyle factors [50]. The foot type, structure or
306 morphology were considered for musculoskeletal injuries in several studies [10,51-53]; however,
307 morphology-related foot functions have been rarely investigated. This needs investigation as a
308 potential contributory factor for injury research.

309 5. Conclusions

310 This study analyzed the morphology-related jumping and running biomechanical functions of
311 habitually barefoot and shod males. The unrestricted forefoot and toes of the barefoot group
312 presented flexible movements and ‘leverage function’ to expand the forefoot loading area during
313 jumping and running. Findings from the study in relation to morphology-related functions,
314 especially the contribution of the forefoot and toes, may provide useful information for footwear
315 design and injury prevention.

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