

# EFFECTS OF MEDIAL AND LATERAL WEDGED ORTHOSES ON KNEE AND ANKLE JOINT LOADING IN FEMALE RUNNERS.

**Keywords:** Biomechanics; orthoses; kinetics; running.

## Abstract

The aim of the current investigation was to examine the effects of orthoses with a 5° medial and lateral wedge on knee and ankle joint kinetics in female runners. Twelve healthy female runners ran at 3.5 m/s over a force platform in three conditions (medial, lateral and no-orthotic). Lower extremity kinematics were measured using an 8-camera motion capture system, which allowed knee and ankle loading to be explored using a musculoskeletal modelling approach. The peak Achilles tendon force was significantly larger in the no-orthotic condition (5.34 BW) compared to the lateral orthosis (5.03 BW). The peak patellofemoral stress was significantly larger in the medial orthosis (7.32 MPa) compared to the no-orthotic (7.02 MPa) condition. Finally, the peak knee adduction moment was significantly larger in the medial condition (1.14 Nm/kg) compared to the lateral (0.99 Nm/kg) orthosis. The findings from the current investigation indicate that lateral orthoses may be effective in attenuating risk from medial tibiofemoral osteoarthritis and Achilles tendinopathy, but medial wedge orthoses may increase the risk from patellofemoral pain in female runners.

## Introduction

Running is linked to a high incidence of overuse injuries (Taunton et al., 2002; Hreljac, 2004), with an occurrence rate of up to 70% per year (Van Gent et al., 2007). The knee and ankle joints have been demonstrated as the most commonly injured musculoskeletal sites (van Gent et al., 2007). Importantly female runners are renowned for being at increased risk from chronic injuries in relation to males (Taunton et al., 2002).

Patellofemoral pain is the most common chronic injury encountered in sports medicine (Crossley, 2014), characterized by pain at or anterior to the patella exacerbated by cyclic physical activities such as running that frequently load the patellofemoral joint (Crossley et al., 2016). Pain symptoms typically persist for many years (Collins et al., 2013), and force many runners to mediate or even cease their training (Waryasz & McDermott, 2008). The peak patellofemoral joint stress; a manifestation of the patellofemoral joint reaction force divided by the patellofemoral contact area, is widely regarded as the most prominent biomechanical mechanism linked to the aetiology of patellofemoral pain syndrome (Farrokhi et al., 2011). Importantly, a recent systematic review has shown that there may be a link between patellofemoral pain in younger adults and subsequent osteoarthritis (OA) at this joint (Thomas et al., 2013).

Furthermore, chronic tibiofemoral pathologies are also common running injuries, and associated with up to 16.8% of all knee injuries (Taunton et al., 2002). The medial aspect of the knee is significantly more susceptible to injury than the lateral compartment (Wise et al., 2012). In vivo analyses have shown that compressive loading experienced by the medial aspect of the tibiofemoral joint is correlated positively with the magnitude of the knee adduction moment (KAM) (Zhao et al., 2007; Kutzner et al., 2013). Therefore, the KAM is frequently utilized as a pseudo measure of medial tibiofemoral contact loading (Birmingham et al., 2007), and the peak KAM has been cited as an important predictor of radiographic knee OA (Miyazaki et al., 2002; Morgenroth et al., 2014).

51 Finally, Achilles tendinopathies are also frequently occurring chronic musculoskeletal  
52 disorders in runners, accounting for approximately 8–15% of all injuries (Van Ginckel et al.,  
53 2009). Although the Achilles is regarded as the strongest tendon in the body, it is the most  
54 common site of tendinous injury (Rice & Patel, 2017). During running the Achilles tendon  
55 experiences forces up to 7 BW (Almondroeder et al., 2013). Excessive cyclic forces  
56 experienced by the tendon during activities such as running are regarded as the main  
57 pathological stimulus for the initiation of Achilles tendinopathy (Abate et al., 2009). With  
58 repeated high and insufficient time for repair, the reparative capability of the tendon is  
59 exceeded breaking the cross-links and causing degeneration of the tendons collagen fibrils  
60 (Cook & Purdam, 2009).

61  
62 Taking into account the high incidence of running injuries, and the debilitating nature of  
63 chronic pathologies, a range of preventative mechanisms have been explored in  
64 biomechanical literature in order to attenuate the risk from injury in runners. Foot orthoses  
65 are one of the most commonly utilized modalities for the prevention/ treatment of running  
66 injuries (Bonanno et al., 2017). Foot orthoses are available in both medial and lateral  
67 configurations, which are utilized in order to specifically modify the alignment of the lower  
68 extremities and redistribute the loads experienced at the lower body joints (Liu & Zhang,  
69 2013). The effects of medial/ lateral orthoses on the biomechanics the lower extremities have  
70 been examined previously, however they have habitually been examined during walking in  
71 pathological patients (Pham et al., 2004; Rubin et al, 2005; Baker et al, 2007; Barrios &  
72 Davis, 2010; Bennell et al., 2010; Rafianee & Karimi, 2012; Barrios et al., 2013) and there is  
73 only limited information concerning their effects during running.

74  
75 Boldt et al., (2013) examined the effects of 6° medially wedged orthoses on the biomechanics  
76 of the hip and knee joint in female runners with and without patellofemoral pain. Their  
77 findings showed in both groups, that the peak KAM increased and the hip adduction  
78 excursion decreased when wearing the medial orthoses. Almonroeder et al., (2015), examined  
79 the effects of prefabricated foot orthoses with 5° of medial wedging in female runners.  
80 Medial orthoses significantly increased peak patellofemoral stress in comparison to running  
81 without orthoses. Lewinson et al., (2013) who explored the influence of 3, 6, and 9 mm  
82 medial and lateral wedged footwear on the KAM in males, showed that laterally wedged  
83 running footwear were associated with significant reductions in the peak KAM. Sinclair,  
84 (2018) studied the effects of 5° medial and lateral orthoses on knee joint loading in male  
85 runners. Their findings showed that patellofemoral loading was significantly increased in the  
86 medial and lateral orthoses compared to no-orthoses and the peak KAM was significantly  
87 increased in the medial compared to the lateral orthoses. Nigg et al., (2003) examined the  
88 effects of medial, lateral and neutral shoe inserts on knee joint moments during heel-toe  
89 running in males. Compared with the neutral insert condition, the maximal external knee  
90 rotation moment was found to be significantly greater in the medial insert condition. Starbuck  
91 et al., (2017) examined the effects of an off-the-shelf lateral wedge orthotic on knee loading  
92 in a mixed sample of runners. Their results showed that the orthoses did not statistically  
93 influence knee loading parameters during the stance phase. Using an in-vitro analysis Kogler  
94 et al., (1999) investigated the influence of medial and lateral orthotic wedges on loading of  
95 the plantar aponeurosis. Their findings showed that wedging under the lateral aspect of the  
96 forefoot decreased strain in the plantar aponeurosis but medial wedges increased plantar  
97 aponeurosis strain.

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99 However, whilst the effects of foot orthoses on the biomechanics the knee joint during gait  
100 have been examined previously, there has yet to be any investigation which has collectively

101 explored the effects of medial and lateral orthoses on patellofemoral, tibiofemoral and  
102 Achilles tendon kinetics in female runners. Therefore, the aim of the current investigation  
103 was to examine the effects of orthoses with a 5° medial and lateral wedge on patellofemoral,  
104 Achilles tendon and KAM loading parameters during stance phase in female runners. A  
105 clinical investigation of this nature may provide insight into the potential efficacy of wedged  
106 foot orthoses for the prevention of knee and ankle pathologies in female runners.

107

## 108 **Methods**

### 109 *Participants*

110 Twelve healthy female recreational runners who trained at least 3 times/week over a  
111 minimum distance of 35 km (age  $28.75 \pm 6.69$  years, height  $1.62 \pm 0.06$  m and body mass  
112  $62.21 \pm 3.31$  kg) volunteered to take part in this study. Each runner exhibited a rearfoot strike  
113 pattern as they exhibited an impact peak in their vertical ground reaction force curve. All  
114 identified as recreational runners, who trained a minimum of 3 times/week. Participants were  
115 also free from knee and pathology at the time of data collection and had not previously had  
116 any knee or ankle surgery. The participants provided written informed consent and the  
117 procedure was approved by a University, ethical panel (REF 357). The runners did not  
118 habitually utilize orthoses during their training activities.

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### 120 *Orthoses*

121 Commercially available orthotics (Slimflex Simple, Algeos UK) made from Ethylene-vinyl  
122 acetate with a shore A rating of 65 were examined (Sinclair, 2018). The orthoses were  
123 modifiable, allowing either a 5° varus or valgus configuration spanning the full length of the  
124 device (Figure 1). To ensure consistency each participant wore the same footwear (Asics,  
125 Patriot 6) (Figure 2). The experimental footwear had a mean mass of 0.265 kg, heel thickness  
126 of 22 mm and heel drop of 10 mm. To prevent any order effects in the experimental data,  
127 participants ran in each orthotic condition in a counterbalanced manner. This was achieved by  
128 giving each orthotic condition a letter either A, B or C and presenting the orthoses in each of  
129 the six available sequences (ABC, ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB and CBA) to the first six  
130 participants, then repeating the process for the second six.

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132 @@@ **Figure 1 near here** @@@

133 @@@ **Figure 2 near here** @@@

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### 135 *Procedure*

136 Participants ran over-ground at 3.5 m/s (Fukuchi et al., 2017), in three conditions (medial,  
137 lateral and no-orthotic), striking a piezoelectric force platform (Kistler, Kistler Instruments  
138 Ltd) sampling at 1000 Hz, with their right (dominant) foot. Limb dominance was determined  
139 by asking participants which foot that they would utilize to kick a ball. Running velocity was  
140 monitored using infrared timing gates (Newtest, Oy Finland) and a maximum deviation from  
141 the experimental running velocity was allowed. To ensure that a constant running velocity  
142 was measured with no evidence of targeting the force platform, the anterior-posterior ground  
143 reaction force was qualitatively examined following each trial, and the running trials were  
144 inspected visually for evidence of modification to the stride pattern. The stance phase was  
145 delineated as the duration over which  $>20$  N vertical force was applied to the force platform.  
146 Runners completed five successful trials in each orthotic condition. Kinematic data was  
147 captured at 250 Hz via an eight camera motion capture system (Qualisys Medical AB,  
148 Goteburg, Sweden).

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150 Lower extremity segments were modelled in 6 degrees of freedom using the calibrated  
151 anatomical systems technique (Cappozzo et al., 1995). To define the segment co-ordinate  
152 axes of the right foot, shank and thigh, retroreflective markers were placed unilaterally onto  
153 the 1st metatarsal, 5th metatarsal, calcaneus, medial and lateral malleoli, medial and lateral  
154 epicondyles of the femur. To define the pelvis segment, further markers were positioned onto  
155 the anterior (ASIS) and posterior (PSIS) superior iliac spines. The centers of the ankle and  
156 knee joints were delineated as the mid-point between the malleoli and femoral epicondyle  
157 markers (Graydon et al., 2015; Sinclair et al., 2015), whereas the hip joint centre was  
158 obtained using the positions of the ASIS markers (Sinclair et al., 2014). The Z (transverse)  
159 axis was oriented vertically from the distal segment end to the proximal segment end. The Y  
160 (coronal) axis was oriented in the segment from posterior to anterior. Finally, the X (sagittal)  
161 axis orientation was determined using the right-hand rule and was oriented from medial to  
162 lateral. To track the shank and thigh segments, carbon fiber tracking clusters comprising of  
163 four non-linear retroreflective markers were positioned onto these segments. Furthermore, the  
164 foot was tracked using the 1st metatarsal, 5th metatarsal and calcaneus markers and the pelvis  
165 using the ASIS and PSIS markers. Following marker placement, static calibration trials (not  
166 normalized to static trial posture) were obtained in each orthotic condition allowing for the  
167 anatomical markers to be referenced in relation to the tracking markers/ clusters.

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#### 169 *Processing*

170 Dynamic trials were digitized using Qualisys Track Manager then exported as C3D files to  
171 Visual 3D (C-Motion, Germantown, USA). Ground reaction force and kinematic data were  
172 smoothed using cut-off frequencies of 50 and 12Hz with a low-pass Butterworth 4<sup>th</sup> order  
173 zero-lag filter (Sinclair, 2018). Knee loading was examined through extraction of the peak  
174 KAM, peak patellofemoral contact force and contact stress, whereas ankle loading was  
175 explored by extracting the peak Achilles tendon force.

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177 Patellofemoral force and stress were estimated using the model of Ward & Powers, (2004).  
178 This model has been shown to be sufficiently sensitive to resolve differences in  
179 patellofemoral loading between sexes (Sinclair & Selfe, 2015) and orthoses (Sinclair, 2018).  
180 Input parameters into the model were knee flexion angle, quadriceps moment arm, quadriceps  
181 force and knee extensor moment (Ho et al., 2012; van Eijden et al., 1986):

Firstly, an effective moment arm of the quadriceps muscle was quantified:

$$\text{Quadriceps moment arm} = 0.00008 * \text{knee flexion angle}^3 - 0.013 * \text{knee flexion angle}^2 + 0.28 * \text{knee flexion angle} + 0.046$$

Quadriceps force was then estimated using the below formula:

$$\text{Quadriceps force} = \text{knee extensor moment} / \text{quadriceps moment arm}$$

Patellofemoral contact force was estimated using the quadriceps force and a constant:

$$\text{Patellofemoral contact force} = \text{quadriceps force} * \text{constant}$$

The constant was described in relation to the knee flexion angle using a curve fitting technique based on the non-linear equation described by Eijden et al., (1986)

$$\text{constant} = (0.462 + 0.00147 * \text{knee flexion angle}^2 - 0.0000384 * \text{knee flexion angle}^2) / (1 - 0.0162 * \text{knee flexion angle} + 0.000155 * \text{knee flexion angle}^2 - 0.000000698 * \text{knee flexion angle}^3)$$

Contact stress (MPa) was estimated as a function of the contact force divided by the sex specific patellofemoral contact areas as described by Besier et al., (2005):

$$\text{Patellofemoral contact stress} = \text{patellofemoral contact force} / \text{contact area}$$

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Achilles tendon force was determined using the musculoskeletal model of Self and Paine (2001), which has been shown to be sufficiently sensitive to resolve differences in Achilles tendon loading between sexes (Greenhalgh & Sinclair, 2014) and orthoses (Sinclair et al., 2014). Input parameters into the model were ankle plantarflexion moment, ankle sagittal plane angle and Achilles tendon moment arm:

$$\text{Achilles tendon force} = \text{ankle plantarflexion moment} / \text{Achilles tendon moment arm}$$

$$\text{Achilles tendon moment arm} = -0.5910 + 0.08297 * \text{ankle sagittal plane angle} - 0.0002606 * \text{ankle sagittal plane angle}^2$$

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Patellofemoral and Achilles tendon forces were normalized by dividing the net values by bodyweight (BW), whereas the KAM was normalized by dividing by body mass. Patellofemoral and Achilles tendon average load rate (BW/s) were quantified as the peak force divided by the time to peak force, whereas instantaneous load rate (BW/s) was determined as the maximum increase in force between frequency intervals. The KAM average load rate (Nm/kg/s) was quantified as the peak KAM divided by the time taken, whereas the instantaneous KAM load rate (Nm/kg/s) was determined the maximum increase between frequency intervals. The patellofemoral/ Achilles tendon (BW·s) and KAM (N/kg·s) impulse were calculated by multiplying the load during the stance phase by the stance phase duration.

#### *Statistical Analyses*

Means, standard deviations (SD) and 95 % confidence intervals (95% CI) were calculated for each outcome measurement for all three orthotic conditions. Differences between orthotic conditions were examined using one-way repeated measures ANOVA. Effect sizes were calculated using partial eta<sup>2</sup> ( $\eta^2$ ). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted on all significant main effects. In the event of a post-hoc comparison indicating statistical significance, the number of participants (N) who followed the direction of the statistical difference was reported. Finally, the mean difference and 95% CI of the difference between orthotic conditions for each outcome measurement were also calculated. Statistical actions were all conducted using SPSS v23.0 (SPSS, USA).

#### **Results**

216 Figure 3 and tables 1-2 present knee and ankle kinetic parameters as a function of different  
217 orthotic conditions.

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### 223 **Achilles tendon kinetics**

224 A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.27$ ) was evident for peak Achilles tendon force. Post-hoc  
225 analyses showed that peak Achilles tendon force was significantly larger in the no-orthotic  
226 condition ( $P=0.03$ ,  $N=9$ ) compared to the lateral orthosis (Figure 3a). A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  
227  $p\eta^2=0.39$ ) was evident for Achilles tendon instantaneous load rate. Post-hoc analyses showed  
228 that Achilles tendon instantaneous load rate was significantly larger in the medial orthotic  
229 compared to the lateral ( $P=0.003$ ,  $N=11$ ) and no-orthotic ( $P=0.03$ ,  $N=10$ ) conditions. A main  
230 effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.30$ ) was shown for Achilles tendon impulse. Post-hoc analyses showed  
231 that Achilles tendon impulse was significantly larger in the no-orthotic ( $P=0.004$ ,  $N=11$ )  
232 condition compared to the lateral orthosis.

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### 234 **Patellofemoral kinetics**

235 A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.29$ ) was evident for the magnitude of peak patellofemoral  
236 force. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that peak patellofemoral force was  
237 significantly larger in the medial condition compared to the lateral ( $P=0.027$ ,  $N=9$ ) and no-  
238 orthotic ( $P=0.008$ ,  $N=10$ ) conditions (Figure 3b). In addition, a main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  
239  $p\eta^2=0.26$ ) was found for peak patellofemoral stress. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed  
240 that peak patellofemoral force was significantly larger in the medial condition compared to  
241 the no-orthotic ( $P=0.04$ ,  $N=10$ ) condition (Figure 3c). A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.51$ ) was  
242 evident for the magnitude of patellofemoral instantaneous load rate. Post-hoc pairwise  
243 comparisons showed that patellofemoral instantaneous load rate was significantly larger in  
244 the medial ( $P=0.00001$ ,  $N=11$ ) and lateral ( $P=0.03$ ,  $N=9$ ) orthotic conditions compared to no-  
245 orthotic. Finally, a main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.25$ ) was evident for the magnitude of  
246 patellofemoral impulse. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that patellofemoral impulse  
247 was significantly larger in the medial orthotic in comparison to the lateral ( $P=0.009$ ,  $N=10$ )  
248 orthotic conditions.

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### 250 **Knee kinetics**

251 A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.28$ ) was evident for the magnitude of peak KAM. Post-hoc  
252 pairwise comparisons showed that peak KAM was significantly larger in the medial condition  
253 compared to the lateral ( $P=0.03$ ,  $N=9$ ) orthosis (Figure 3d). A main effect ( $P<0.05$ ,  $p\eta^2=0.39$ )  
254 was also evident for the magnitude of KAM impulse. Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed  
255 that KAM impulse was significantly larger in the medial ( $P=0.001$ ,  $N=9$ ) and no-orthotic  
256 ( $P=0.02$ ,  $N=11$ ) conditions in comparison to the lateral orthosis.

257

### 258 **Discussion**

259 The aim of the current investigation was to examine the effects of orthoses with a 5° medial  
260 and lateral wedge on knee and ankle joint kinetics in female runners. This represents the first  
261 investigation to compare the effects of medial/ laterally wedged orthoses on patellofemoral,  
262 Achilles tendon and KAM loading parameters in female runners.

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264 The current study importantly demonstrated that peak patellofemoral stress was significantly  
265 greater when running with medial orthoses compared to the no-orthoses condition. This

266 observation specifically supports the findings of Almonroeder et al., (2015) who observed  
267 increases in patellofemoral loading when running in medial orthoses. Similar to the  
268 suggestion presented by Almonroeder et al., (2015) and Sinclair, (2018), it is proposed that  
269 the increases in patellofemoral loading were mediated via an enhanced knee extension  
270 moment. The additional heel elevation provided by the orthotic conditions may have  
271 influenced the orientation of the ground reaction force vector such that the magnitude of the  
272 knee extensor moment, a key input parameter into the patellofemoral model was enhanced.  
273 This observation may be important regarding the initiation of patellofemoral pain, as the  
274 initiation of symptoms is mediated through excessive patellofemoral joint stress (Farrokhi et  
275 al., 2011). The findings from the current investigation indicate that running with medial  
276 orthoses may increase female runners' susceptibility to patellofemoral pain. This conclusion  
277 opposes those provided via previous randomized trials (Collins et al., 2008) and the recent  
278 meta-analytic review of Bonanno et al., (2017), which designate that foot orthoses are  
279 effective in preventing injuries. Therefore, further mechanistic trials are required to better  
280 understand the biomechanical causes responsible for the improvements in patellofemoral  
281 symptoms mediated via orthotic intervention.

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283 In addition, peak KAM and the KAM impulse were significantly reduced in the lateral  
284 orthotic condition compared to the medial condition. This is in agreement with previous  
285 walking analyses described by Shimada et al., (2006); Hinman et al., (2008); Hinman et al.,  
286 (2009); Jones et al., (2013), who also reported reductions in the KAM in when lateral  
287 orthoses were utilized. Furthermore, this observation agrees with the running observations of  
288 Lewinson et al., (2013) and Sinclair, (2018) who showed that laterally wedged orthoses  
289 significantly reduced the peak KAM. It is proposed that this observation is caused by the  
290 configuration of the lateral orthoses, which reduce the moment arm of the ground reaction  
291 force vector about the knee joint centre. An interesting qualitative observation is that of an  
292 early peak in the KAM waveform, which is present only when running in the medial and  
293 lateral orthoses (Figure 3d). It is proposed that this is a reflection of the increased stiffness of  
294 the orthoses, which are more firm than typical running shoe insoles (Janakiraman et al.,  
295 2011). This causes the rate at which the medial ground reaction force changes to increase,  
296 causing a discernible peak in the KAM curve in the orthotic conditions. Importantly the  
297 KAM is an effective measure of medial compartment loading (Birmingham et al., 2007), and  
298 both the peak KAM and KAM impulse are important predictors of knee OA (Miyazaki et al.,  
299 2002; Kean et al., 2012). Thus, it appears that the utilization of lateral orthoses may have  
300 potential to attenuate the risk of medial compartment knee OA in female runners.

301

302 The current investigation also revealed that Achilles tendon loading parameters were  
303 significantly reduced in the lateral orthotic condition. As lateral orthoses would be expected  
304 to increase the ankle eversion angle, this observation lends further weight to recent findings  
305 which oppose the long standing notion that hyper pronation augments the loads borne by the  
306 Achilles tendon. Indeed, in their prospective examination of 129 runners, Van Ginckel et al.,  
307 (2009) found that lateral foot roll-over was a significant risk factor linked to the development  
308 of Achilles tendinopathy. As excessive tendon forces are the main stimulus for the initiation  
309 of Achilles tendinopathy (Abate et al., 2009), this finding may also have clinical relevance,  
310 and indicates that lateral orthoses may have the potential to be efficacious for female runners  
311 susceptible to Achilles tendinopathy.

312

313 A limitation in relation to the current investigation is that only the acute effects of wedged  
314 orthoses were examined in runners who did not habitually utilize foot orthoses. Therefore,  
315 although the lateral orthoses appear to attenuate tibiofemoral and Achilles tendon risk factors

316 linked to the aetiology of chronic pathologies, it is currently unknown whether this will  
317 prevent or delay the initiation of injury symptoms. Furthermore, the duration over which the  
318 orthoses would need to be utilized in order to mediate a clinically meaningful change in  
319 patients is also not currently known. Although Hinman et al., (2008) found that the  
320 biomechanical effects of lateral orthoses do not appear to decline through continuous use, a  
321 longitudinal examination of these orthoses in runners would nonetheless be of practical and  
322 clinical relevance in the future. A further potential drawback is that it is only pain free  
323 controls were examined, meaning that only prophylactic inferences can be made in regards to  
324 the clinical efficacy of the orthoses examined in this study. Based on the observations of the  
325 current study it is important that forthcoming clinical investigations seek to examine the  
326 efficacy of lateral foot orthoses in runners with existing tibiofemoral and Achilles tendon  
327 pathologies. Future developments of this nature will help to determine the efficacy of wedged  
328 orthoses as treatment modalities for runners with chronic pathologies.

329  
330 The current study adds to the current literature in the field of clinical biomechanics by  
331 providing a comprehensive examination of the effects of medial and lateral orthoses on knee  
332 and ankle loading parameters in female runners. The current investigation demonstrated that  
333 lateral orthoses reduced the magnitude of KAM and also the Achilles tendon force but that  
334 medial orthoses increased patellofemoral loading. The results from this study indicate that  
335 lateral orthoses may be effective in attenuating risk from medial tibiofemoral OA and  
336 Achilles tendinopathy, but medial wedge orthoses may increase the risk from patellofemoral  
337 pain in female runners.

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571 **Competing interests**

572 No conflict of interest will arise from any of the authors involved in this paper.

573 **Author contributions**

574 All named authors have made a significant and substantial contribution to all aspects of the  
575 study. Each of the named authors provided a meaningful contribution to the conception,  
576 design, execution and interpretation of the study data in addition to writing, drafting and  
577 revising the paper itself. This paper is submitted with the agreement and approval of both  
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Table 1: Knee and ankle loading parameters (Means, standard deviations and 95% confidence intervals) as a function of the different orthotic conditions.

	Medial			Lateral			No-orthotic			
	Mean	SD	95% CI	Mean	SD	95% CI	Mean	SD	95% CI	
<b>Peak Achilles tendon force (BW)</b>	5.18	0.77	4.69-5.67	5.03 <i>A</i>	0.71	4.58-5.47	5.34	0.85	4.80-5.88	*
<b>Achilles tendon average load rate (BW/s)</b>	44.87	10.28	38.47-51.40	43.39	8.48	38.00-48.78	46.83	12.60	38.82-54.83	
<b>Achilles tendon instantaneous load rate (BW/s)</b>	190.74 <i>AB</i>	83.92	137.42-244.06	141.23	45.33	112.43-170.03	138.55	43.49	110.92-166.18	*
<b>Achilles tendon impulse (BW·s)</b>	0.55	0.10	0.48-0.62	0.52 <i>A</i>	0.11	0.45-0.59	0.58	0.11	0.51-0.65	*
<b>Peak patellofemoral force (BW)</b>	2.77 <i>AB</i>	0.74	2.30-3.24	2.62	0.80	2.11-3.12	2.60	0.76	2.11-3.08	*
<b>Patellofemoral average load rate (BW/s)</b>	23.85	7.32	19.21-28.50	22.25	7.03	17.78-26.71	22.53	7.71	17.63-27.43	
<b>Patellofemoral instantaneous load rate (BW/s)</b>	172.67 <i>B</i>	63.59	132.27-213.08	159.14 <i>A</i>	75.00	111.49-206.79	132.51	50.91	100.16-164.86	*
<b>Patellofemoral impulse (BW·s)</b>	0.22 <i>B</i>	0.06	0.18-0.26	0.19	0.08	0.14-0.24	0.19	0.07	0.15-0.24	*
<b>Peak patellofemoral stress (MPa)</b>	7.37 <i>A</i>	1.86	6.19-8.56	7.13	2.07	5.82-8.45	7.02	1.88	5.83-8.22	*
<b>Peak KAM (Nm/kg)</b>	1.14 <i>B</i>	0.49	0.83-1.45	0.99	0.34	0.78-1.21	1.06	0.38	0.82-1.31	*
<b>KAM average load rate (Nm/kg/s)</b>	32.84	28.94	14.46-51.23	28.34	20.90	15.06-41.62	27.76	17.97	16.35-39.18	
<b>KAM instantaneous load rate (Nm/kg/s)</b>	100.61	60.05	62.46-138.77	93.36	45.87	64.21-122.50	94.20	45.50	65.29-123.11	
<b>KAM impulse (Nm/kg·s)</b>	0.08 <i>B</i>	0.05	0.05-0.11	0.06 <i>A</i>	0.04	0.04-0.09	0.08	0.04	0.06-0.11	*

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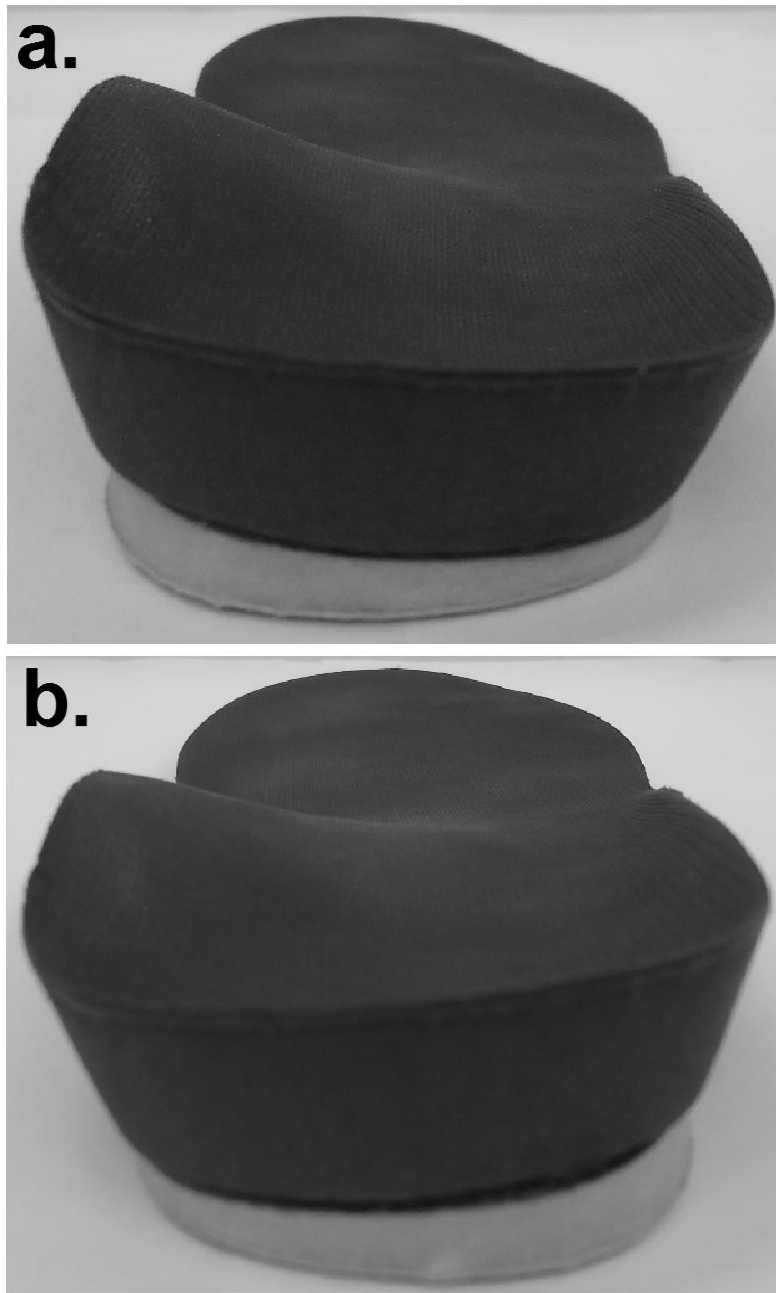
*Notes: \* = significant main effect*  
*A = significantly different from no-orthotic*  
*B = significantly different from lateral orthotic*

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Table 2: Mean and 95% confidence interval differences between experimental conditions.

	<b>Medial vs. Lateral</b>		<b>Medial vs. No-orthotic</b>		<b>Lateral vs. No-orthotic</b>	
	<i>Mean difference</i>	95% CI difference	<i>Mean difference</i>	95% CI difference	<i>Mean difference</i>	95% CI difference
<b>Peak Achilles tendon force (BW)</b>	0.15	-0.16 – 0.46	-0.16	-0.34 – 0.03	<b>-0.31</b>	<b>-0.60 – -0.02</b>
<b>Achilles tendon average load rate (BW/s)</b>	1.48	-2.22 – 5.18	-1.95	-5.60 – 1.69	-3.43	-8.33 – 1.46
<b>Achilles tendon instantaneous load rate (BW/s)</b>	<b>49.52</b>	<b>21.03 – 78.00</b>	<b>52.19</b>	<b>5.58 – 98.80</b>	2.68	-21.73 – 27.08
<b>Achilles tendon impulse (BW·s)</b>	0.03	-0.02 – 0.09	-0.03	-0.07 – 0.01	<b>-0.06</b>	<b>-0.10 – -0.02</b>
<b>Peak patellofemoral force (BW)</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.05 – 0.26</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.02 – 0.31</b>	0.02	-0.16 – 0.19
<b>Patellofemoral average load rate (BW/s)</b>	1.61	-0.05 – 2.64	1.32	-0.32 – 2.97	-0.28	-1.51 – 0.95
<b>Patellofemoral instantaneous load rate (BW/s)</b>	13.53	-4.44 – 31.50	<b>40.16</b>	<b>25.10 – 55.23</b>	26.63	<b>3.59 – 49.67</b>
<b>Patellofemoral impulse (BW·s)</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.01 – 0.04</b>	0.02	-0.01 – 0.05	-0.001	-0.03 – 0.03
<b>Peak patellofemoral stress (MPa)</b>	0.24	-0.07 – 0.55	<b>0.35</b>	<b>0.01 – 0.69</b>	0.11	-0.36 – 0.58
<b>Peak KAM (Nm/kg)</b>	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.003 – 0.29</b>	0.07	-0.10 – 0.25	-0.07	-0.18 – 0.03
<b>KAM average load rate (Nm/kg/s)</b>	4.50	-5.98 – 14.99	5.08	-9.50 – 19.65	0.58	-7.09 – 8.25
<b>KAM instantaneous load rate (Nm/kg/s)</b>	7.26	-16.71 – 31.23	6.41	-22.13 – 34.95	-0.85	-19.01 – 17.32
<b>KAM impulse (Nm/kg·s)</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.003 – 0.03</b>	-0.002	-0.02 – 0.01	-0.02	-0.03 – -0.008

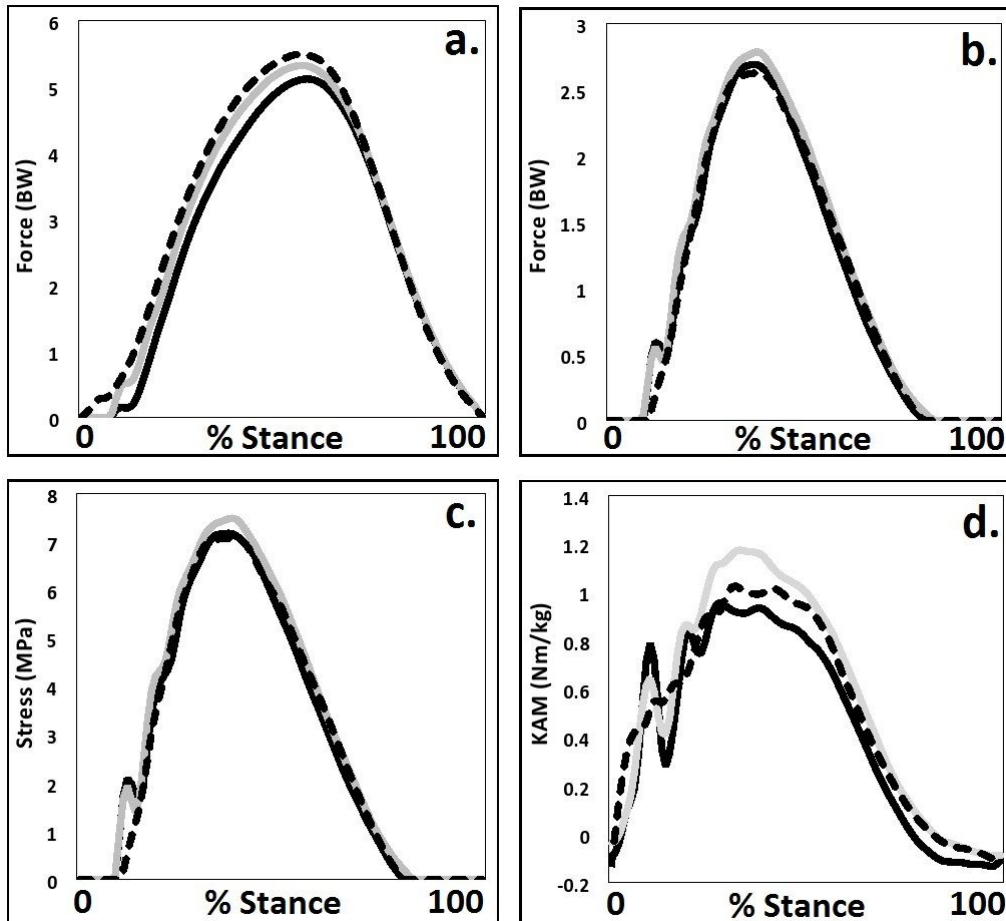
597 *Notes: Bold text = significant difference*  
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601 Figure 1: Experimental orthoses (a. = medial configuration and b. = lateral configuration).



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603 Figure 2: Experimental footwear.  
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606 Figure 3: Knee and ankle kinetics as a function of different orthotic conditions (a. = Achilles  
607 tendon force, b. = patellofemoral force, c. = patellofemoral stress, d. = KAM) (Black =  
608 lateral, dot = no-orthotic, grey = medial).