1	Waveform analysis of shank loaded wearable resistance during sprint running acceleration					
2 3 4 5	Erin H Feser ¹ , Jono Neville ¹ , Neil Bezodis ² , Paul Macadam ¹ , Aaron M. Uthoff ¹ , Ryu Nagahara ³ , Farhan Tinwala ^{1,4} , and John B. Cronin ¹					
6 7 8 9 10	 ¹ Sports Performance Research Institute New Zealand (SPRINZ) at AUT Millennium, Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand ²Applied Sports, Technology, Exercise and Medicine Research Centre, Swansea University, UK ³National Institute of Fitness and Sports in Kanoya, Japan ⁴High Performance Sport New Zealand, New Zealand 					
11 12 13 14	Correspondence: Erin H Feser, Sports Performance Research Institute New Zealand (SPRINZ), AUT Millennium, Auckland University of Technology, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, New Zealand. E-mail: erinfeser@gmail.com					
15 16 17 18	Disclosure of Interest Statement: John Cronin is Head of Research for Lila but was blinded from data and statistical analyses and writing of this manuscript. His participation was limited to methodological design and final proofing. The remaining authors report no conflicts of interest.					
19 20 21	Acknowledgements The authors would like to thank Dr. Ken Clark from West Chester University, USA for his guidance and feedback throughout this project.					
22 23						
24						
25						

27 Abstract (198 words)

Lower-limb wearable resistance (WR) provides a specific and targeted overload to the 28 29 musculature involved in sprint running, however, it is unknown if greater impact forces occur 30 with the additional limb mass. This study compared the contact times and ground reaction force waveforms between sprint running with no load and 2% body mass (BM) shank-positioned WR 31 32 over 30 m. Fifteen male university-level sprint specialists completed two maximum effort sprints with each condition in a randomised order. Sprint running with shank WR resulted in trivial 33 34 changes to contact times at 5 m, 10 m, and 20 m (effect size [ES] = < 0.20, p > 0.05) and a small, significant increase to contact time at 30 m by 1.94% (ES = 0.25, p = 0.03). Significant 35 differences in ground reaction force between unloaded and shank loaded sprint running were 36 37 limited to the anterior-posterior direction and occurred between 20-30% of ground contact at 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m. Shank WR did not result in greater magnitudes of horizontal or vertical 38 39 forces during the initial impact portion of ground contact. Practitioners can prescribe shank WR training with loads $\leq 2\%$ BM without concern for increased risk of injurious impact forces. 40 **Keywords:** GRF, SPM, injury prevention, training modality 41 42 43 44 45 46

48 Introduction

Wearable resistance (WR) can be used for high-velocity resistance training of sport-specific 49 movement patterns.¹⁻⁴ The load magnitude used for limb WR training is often very low (e.g. $\leq 3\%$ 50 51 of body mass[BM]), which allows the resistance training to take place at or near typical movement speeds.² When WR is attached to the limb, the overload can be modulated by moving the load 52 53 proximal-distal from the axis of rotation, thus increasing the rotational inertia of the limb. The loads can be positioned to increase the mechanical work of particular joints and, therefore, target 54 specific musculature.^{5,6} For sprint running, WR can be positioned on the shank to overload the 55 56 muscles spanning the hip and knee joints. This provides a specific and targeted overload to the movements involved in sprint running^{5,6}, making shank WR training of great interest for improving 57 sprint running speed. However, practitioners should be cognisant of how the athlete responds to 58 rotational inertial changes consequent to a specific WR placement and magnitude to ensure the 59 resulting overload adheres to the training stimulus intended. 60

Shank WR has been shown to increase vertical and horizontal braking impulse during sprint 61 running acceleration.⁷ Specifically, 2% BM shank WR resulted in small to large increases in 62 63 relative vertical impulse (3.05-5.23%), effect size [ES] = 0.42-0.92, p < 0.05) and moderate to large increases in relative horizontal braking impulse (9.63–20.8%, ES = 0.67–1.97, p < 0.05) compared 64 to unloaded sprint running for steps at 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m.⁷ These findings led to the 65 suggestion that shank WR provides a unique stimulus which may be used to improve an athlete's 66 ability to resist and reverse horizontal braking forces during acceleration⁷ which is thought to be a 67 68 distinguishing characteristic of faster sprint running.^{8,9}

It is possible however, that greater horizontal and/or vertical impact forces occur with the additionof mass to the shank. In the vertical direction, a contributing factor to the forces at impact

corresponds to the deceleration of the foot and shank.^{10,11} The addition of mass to the shank could 71 have a direct effect on the vertical impact forces by imposing greater deceleration needs, especially 72 at faster speeds when the sprinter is inevitably in a more upright position following in accordance 73 with the two-mass model of human running^{11,12}. In the horizontal direction, the added shank mass 74 could result in greater forward velocity (relative to the ground) of the foot at touchdown especially 75 76 if the sprinter cannot fully counter the increased forward momentum of the limb at the end of the swing phase. The horizontal velocity of the foot at touchdown has been suggested to be related to 77 the horizontal braking forces during sprint running.¹³ Thus, if the forward velocity of the foot at 78 79 touchdown is increased with shank WR, the athlete could experience greater impact forces in the horizontal direction. If sprint running with shank WR results in higher impact forces, there could 80 be concern for risk of repetitive stress injuries. While repetitive stress injury rates may not be as 81 high in sprinters compared to distance runners, sprinters have been reported to sustain bone stress 82 injuries during training¹⁴ and ground reaction force magnitude and rate have been considered one 83 of the biomechanical risk factors of bone stress injury¹⁵. Practitioners would need to exercise 84 caution when prescribing shank WR training to ensure an accumulation of training volume that 85 could be injurious does not occur. 86

The research available to date does not provide the necessary details to determine if the higher vertical and horizontal braking impulse values seen with shank WR are a result of longer contact times, altered proportions of time spent in braking and propulsion, greater force magnitudes at a particular part of stance or throughout the entire stance phase, or some combination thereof. A more detailed investigation into the ground reaction forces produced when sprint running with shank WR is warranted to better understand the underlying cause(s) for increased horizontal braking and vertical impulse. A force waveform analysis and contact time comparison provides

the further detail needed to better understand impulse production during each step. Specifically, a 94 systematic analysis of the force waveforms enables a deeper understanding of ground reaction 95 force production than that available with a discrete variable analysis. Therefore, the purpose of 96 this study was to compare the contact times and force waveforms between sprint running with no 97 load and 2% BM shank WR. Given increased contact times are commonly reported with lower-98 limb WR² but in this study a relatively light loading scheme was employed, it was hypothesised 99 100 that shank WR would result in longer contact times but not greater horizontal or vertical impact 101 forces.

102 Materials and Methods

103 Participants

Fifteen male university-level sprint specialists volunteered to participate in this study (age = 21.1 ± 2.22 years, mass = 67.2 ± 4.58 kg, height = 1.74 ± 0.05 m). The athletes had an average 100 m best time of 11.44 ± 0.42 s and training experience of 9.33 ± 2.74 years. Study procedures were approved by the host University Institutional Review Board and written informed consent was obtained before study participation.

109 Experimental Procedures

Athletes reported to an indoor training facility and began the testing protocol by completing a selfselected warm-up which included dynamic stretching, running drills, and a series of submaximal effort sprints (i.e. 50%, 75%, and 90% of maximal effort). Following the warm-up, each athlete completed four maximal effort 50 m sprint trials from starting blocks wearing their own spiked running shoes. The sprint trials consisted of two repetitions with WR attached to the shank and two repetitions unloaded (no WR) completed in a randomised order. For all sprint trials, the

athletes wore LilaTM ExogenTM (Sportboleh Sdh Bhd, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia) calf sleeves which 116 allowed for Velcro backed "micro-loads" to be attached to the garment for the loaded trials. The 117 loads were attached in line with the long axis of the shank and totalled in magnitude 2% BM (i.e. 118 1% BM attached to each limb) per Feser, Bezodis, Neville, Macadam, Uthoff, Nagahara, Tinwala, 119 Clark, Cronin ⁷ (Figure 1). The exact loading magnitudes ranged from 1.90–2.11% due to the 120 loading increments available (100, 200, and 300 g). The sprint trials were completed on an indoor 121 122 track surface (Hasegawa Sports Facilities Co., Hasegawa, Japan) which housed a series of in-ground 123 force platforms (TF-90100, TF-3055, TF-32120, Tec Gihan, Uji, Japan) that covered a total 124 distance of 52 m. This allowed for ground reaction force measurement at 1000 Hz across the entire acceleration phase (defined here as following block clearance to 30 m). Each sprint start was 125 signalled with an electronic starting gun (Digi Pistol, Molten, Hiroshima, Japan). 126

127 Data Analysis

The ground reaction force data were filtered with a fourth-order Butterworth low-pass digital 128 129 filter, cut-off frequency 50 Hz. Movement onset was defined as the time point where the 130 resultant ground reaction force increased and remained above two standard deviations greater than the mean value during the initial stationary period. Individual steps were identified from the 131 filtered ground reaction force data by detecting the touchdown and take-off with a 20 N vertical 132 133 ground reaction force threshold. The horizontal centre of mass velocity was calculated from the initial movement to maximal velocity⁹ by determining the instantaneous horizontal velocity 134 throughout the entire sprint from the anterior-posterior impulse and estimated aerodynamic 135 136 drag.¹⁶ From the horizontal centre of mass velocity-time data, a distance-time relationship was derived for each sprint trial. This was done so the steps at 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m could be 137 extracted per Feser, Bezodis, Neville, Macadam, Uthoff, Nagahara, Tinwala, Clark, Cronin⁷ and 138

used for analysis. The step number used for each experimental condition along with the
corresponding time, distance, velocity at toe-off, and percent of maximal toe-off velocity are
reported in Table 1.

142 Statistical Analysis

A series of paired-samples t-tests were used to test for differences in contact time between the 143 shank and unloaded conditions at the distance-matched steps of 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m. No 144 outliers, were found as defined by a value greater than 3 box-lengths from the edge of a boxplot. 145 146 The differences between the shank loaded and unloaded contact time measures were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (p > 0.05) and Normal Q-Q Plot visual inspection. 147 Analyses were performed using SPSS Statistics (Version 25, IBM, Armonk, NY, USA). 148 149 Significance was set at $p \le 0.05$. ES statistics (Cohen's d) were calculated as the mean of the within-subjects difference scores divided by the average standard deviation of the two 150 conditions¹⁷ and described as trivial (<0.20), small (0.20), moderate (0.50) and large (0.80).¹⁸ 151 Individual response to the shank WR was classified as an increase or decrease if the individual 152 change from the unloaded condition was $> \pm 0.2 \times$ unloaded between-subject standard deviation 153 (i.e. smallest worthwhile change).¹⁸ 154

The vertical and anterior-posterior components of the ground reaction force waveforms at each
of the distance-matched steps underwent a curve analysis using Statistical Parametric Mapping¹⁹
(SPM, version 0.4, http://www.spm1d.org/) in MATLAB (MATLAB R2019b, The MathWorks,
Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA). This method allowed for identification of differences
throughout ground contact rather than focussing just on discrete events. The force waveforms
were temporally normalised to 0% to 100% of ground contact (i.e. each step was time

normalised to 1000 data points) using an inbuilt cubic spline function. The time normalised

waveforms for the two trials within each experimental condition were then averaged to represent athlete performance at each distance-matched step. As part of the statistical parametric mapping analysis process, a paired-samples t-test was used to test for differences between the shank loaded and unloaded conditions in anterior-posterior force and vertical force (both body weight normalised) at the distance-matched steps of 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m in accordance with previous research.⁷ Significance was set at $p \le 0.05$.

168 **Results**

169 Sprint running with shank WR resulted in 30 m sprint times that were 1.80% slower than unloaded sprint running. Shank WR produced trivial changes to contact times at 5 m, 10 m, and 170 171 20 m (ES < 0.20, p > 0.05) and a small, significant increase to contact time at 30 m by 1.94% 172 (ES = 0.25, p = 0.03) (Table 2). Individual change in contact time between the unloaded and shank loaded conditions (i.e. shank loaded contact time – unloaded contact time) at each 173 distance-matched step are shown in Figure 2. The majority of participants (6/10) that 174 experienced a change in contact time at 5 m demonstrated a reduction in contact time. The 175 176 majority of participants that experienced a change in contact time at 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m demonstrated an increase in contact time (7/11, 6/8, and 8/10, respectively). 177 There were significant differences in the anterior-posterior force waveforms during the early-mid 178 (i.e. 20–30%) part of stance for the steps analysed from 10 m onwards. Specifically, propulsive 179 force was significantly decreased when sprint running with shank WR from 20.8–24.2% of 180 ground contact for the step at 10 m. Horizontal braking force was significantly increased when 181 sprint running with shank WR from 21.4–26.0% and 23.9–28.3% of ground contact for the steps 182

at 20 m and 30 m, respectively (Figure 3). There were no significant differences in vertical force
between unloaded and shank WR sprint running (Figure 4).

185 **Discussion**

Understanding the mechanical effects of shank loaded WR is important to determine its potential 186 as a training tool, but also to determine if the user needs to be aware of the possibility of increased 187 force magnitudes which may be associated with injury risk. This study, therefore, compared the 188 force waveforms and contact times between sprint running with no load and 2% BM shank WR, 189 190 for the distance-matched steps at 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m. The hypothesis that sprint running with shank WR would result in longer contact times but not greater horizontal or vertical impact 191 192 forces was partially supported. The main findings were: 1) group-mean changes to contact time 193 with shank WR were non-significant and trivial until 30 m where contact time was significantly increased by 1.94% (ES = 0.25); and, 2) significant differences in ground reaction force between 194 unloaded and shank WR were limited to the anterior-posterior direction and occurred between 195 20.8–28.3% of ground contact, around the period of transition from braking to propulsion, for the 196 197 distance-matched steps at 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m. Therefore, sprint running with 2% BM shank WR does not result in greater horizontal or vertical forces during the impact portion of ground 198 contact beyond that seen with unloaded sprint running. 199

The WR used in this study did not significantly alter contact times until the distance-matched step at 30 m, in which contact time was increased by 1.94% (ES = 0.25). The individual changes in contact time (Figure 2) show a larger proportion of the athletes increasing contact time at greater movement velocities. Thus, it appears changes in contact time are sensitive to movement velocity when sprint running with 2% BM shank WR. The effect of shank WR on contact times during maximal velocity sprint running has been previously investigated. Researchers reported

increases to contact time with ~0.60% BM shank WR by 0.88% $(p > 0.05)^{20}$ and 1.1% BM shank 206 WR by 10.0% $(p < 0.01)^{21}$. Although the athletes in the current study were close to maximal 207 velocity speeds for the step at 30 m (i.e. 99.4% of maximal velocity, Table 1), the change in 208 contact time was much less than that reported in Zhang, Yu, Yang, Yu, Sun, Wang, Yin, Zhuang, 209 Liu ²¹ who reported a 0.01 s (10%) increase with 1.1% BM shank WR (contact time = 0.10 s 210 211 unloaded; 0.11 s loaded). However, it should be noted that Zhang, Yu, Yang, Yu, Sun, Wang, Yin, Zhuang, Liu²¹ reported contact time to only the hundredths place (rather than thousandths) 212 which possibility has removed the precision needed to accurately compare their results to the 213 214 findings in this study. It is likely the small, significant increase in contact time at 30 m with shank WR in this study contributes to the greater horizontal braking and vertical impulse values 215 reported previously by researchers who used the same loading scheme.⁷ Otherwise, the greater 216 impulse values at steps 5, 10, and 20 m also reported previously with shank WR⁷ must primarily 217 218 come from greater magnitudes of force production across the stance phase as trivial changes to 219 contact times were measured for the steps at these distances in this study. 220 The relationship between anterior-posterior force production and performance has been shown to 221 differ throughout the stages of acceleration. During the earlier stages of acceleration (i.e. the first 222 11 steps), the positive relationship between anterior-posterior force production and sprint performance occurred during the propulsive phase, placing importance on concentric force 223 production for these steps (e.g. 58–92% of ground contact at step two).⁹ In the later stages of 224 acceleration, the positive relationship with performance occurred during the second part of the 225 226 braking phase and the transition in to propulsion, emphasising the importance of being able to attenuate braking forces for improving sprint performance during these steps (e.g. 19–25%, 227 28–35%, and 38–64% of ground contact at step nineteen).⁹ In this study, with shank WR, 228

significantly lower propulsive forces were found at 10 m from 20.8–24.2% of ground contact. At 229 230 20 and 30 m, representing the later stages of acceleration, significantly greater braking forces were found at a similar relative time within ground contact (21.4–26.0% and 23.9–28.3%, 231 232 respectively). Thus, it appears 2% shank WR provides a direct overload to anterior-posterior force production during the early-mid part of stance around the time where the ground reaction 233 force vector transitions between braking and propulsion, and that this appears to closely align 234 with the features of the ground reaction forces that align with performance as the athlete travels 235 from 10 m onwards. Considering the increase to braking force magnitudes and duration during 236 237 the later parts of acceleration, it is possible that shank WR directly challenges the athlete to maintain their lower-limb stiffness resulting in the athletes experiencing greater braking forces 238 before they can transition to propulsion. This may potentially serve as a mechanism for shank 239 240 WR to improve sprint acceleration performance by enabling athletes to better attenuate braking forces following training exposure. Whilst the significant effects of shank WR on anterior-241 242 posterior forces occurred at a very similar part of the step cycle to where the magnitudes of the anterior-posterior force are known to relate to performance⁹, it should be noted that these effects 243 only occurred for ~5% of the stance phase and it remains unknown if this overload would be 244 sufficient as a training stimulus. Future longitudinal studies could investigate if this overload 245 would be sufficient as a training stimulus. 246

The waveform analysis revealed no difference (p > 0.05) in vertical force production between the shank loaded and unloaded sprint trials across the ground contact of each of the distancematched steps. It is possible the athletes altered end-swing phase or touchdown mechanics to prevent substantial increases in vertical impact forces. The initial rising edge of the vertical force waveform at impact is influenced by three factors during upright sprint running; mass, vertical

touchdown velocity, and deceleration time of the shank.¹¹ Athletes can alter two of the three 252 variables (velocity and deceleration time) when sprint running with shank WR to limit an 253 increase in vertical impact force. The findings here suggest these athletes were able to maintain 254 touchdown kinetics with 2% BM shank WR to not incur large vertical impact forces and likely 255 did so by altering vertical touchdown velocity and/or deceleration time of the shank. Visual 256 257 inspection of the entire force waveforms shows slightly greater forces at midstance with shank WR which, although non-significant, are possibly a function of the greater system mass. It has 258 been hypothesized that greater vertical forces than those during unloaded sprint running are 259 needed to produce a greater vertical take-off velocity and, thus, greater flight times.⁷ The greater 260 flight times are thought to be needed to allow for more time to reposition the limb during swing 261 in preparation of the next ground contact due to the constraint of increased rotational inertia. The 262 athletes in this study were able to perform sprint running acceleration with the 2% BM shank 263 WR without a need to significantly increase vertical force production across the stance phase. 264 Thus, it is possible that the addition of 2% BM shank WR does not necessitate greater flight 265 times to allow for limb repositioning. 266

This study was the first to investigate ground reaction force waveforms over the entire stance 267 268 phase during sprint running with WR. It was found that the only significant differences between 269 the loaded and unloaded force waveforms occurred the anterior-posterior direction during the 270 period of transition from braking to propulsion. Future studies could consider investigating the 271 stance by sub-phases, including direction- or feature-specific waveform analyses and contact 272 time comparisons. A possible limitation to the findings of this study includes any influence of acute performance effects that could occur from the use of shank WR. The acute performance 273 effects of lower-limb WR on sprint running performance have only been investigated using a 274

combined thigh and shank WR loading scheme (1-5% BM).²²⁻²⁴ No significant changes to sprint 275 running times were reported in these studies. However, Simperingham, Cronin, Pearson, Ross²² 276 reported substantial changes (i.e. greater than two standard deviations from the baseline mean) in 277 a single-subject analysis for the start and acceleration phase contact times (2.1–2.9%) following 278 40 m sprints with 1%, 3%, and 5% BM WR. Therefore, in effort to minimize any influence of 279 potential acute performance effects for measures in this study, the athletes were provided five to 280 ten minutes of passive rest between sprint trials and the experimental conditions were 281 randomised. 282

Lower-limb WR can be used to provide a specific and targeted overload to the muscles involved 283 in sprint running. This has made lower-limb WR training of great interest for improving sprint 284 running speed. To-date, only a small variety of load placements and magnitudes have been 285 investigated.² However, it is unknown how different load magnitudes and placements may alter 286 ground reaction force production across the stance phase compared to the loading scheme used in 287 288 this study. Practitioners should still be watchful when using different lower-limb WR schemes 289 for any negative individual responses that may occur, especially when using loading schemes 290 that induce greater rotational inertial changes to that studied here. This will help to ensure the 291 appropriateness of the WR training with respect to desired training outcomes and limit the 292 potentially injurious impact forces.

293 Conclusions

This study builds upon the current WR research and identifies specific kinetic effects which may render shank WR as a potentially effective training tool for sprint acceleration performance.

296 Sprint running with 2% shank WR produced a small, significant increase to contact time at 30 m

297	by 1.94% (ES = 0.25 , $p = 0.03$). Significant differences in the anterior-posterior component of
298	the ground reaction force between unloaded and shank WR occurred between 20-30% of ground
299	contact at 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m. The overload provided to anterior-posterior force production
300	coincided closely with the performance demands at these stages within acceleration. In addition,
301	this study assists practitioners in determining if caution needs to be exercised when prescribing
302	shank WR to reduce injury risk. The results of this study do not indicate that greater horizontal
303	braking or vertical forces occur during the impact portion of ground contact when sprint running
304	with 2% BM shank WR up to 30 m. Therefore, practitioners can prescribe shank WR training
305	with loads \leq 2% BM for sprint running training matching the speeds and distances used in this
306	study with little concern such loading will cause injury.

307 **References**

- Dolcetti JC, Cronin JB, Macadam P, Feser EH. Wearable resistance training for speed and agility
 Strength Cond J. 2019;41(4):105-111.
- Feser EH, Macadam P, Cronin JB. The effects of lower limb wearable resistance on sprint running performance: A systematic review. *Eur J Sports Sci.* 2020;20(3):394-406.
- Macadam P, Cronin J, Simperingham K. The effects of wearable resistance training on metabolic,
 kinematic and kinetic variables during walking, running, sprint running and jumping: a systematic
 Sports Med. 2017;47(5):887-906.
- 4. Macadam P, Cronin JB, Uthoff AM, Feser EH. The effects of different wearable resistance
 placements on sprint-running performance: a review and practical applications. *Strength Cond J*.
 2019;41(3):1524-1602.
- 318 5. Martin PE, Cavanagh PR. Segment interactions within the swing leg during unloaded and loaded
 319 running. J Biomech. 1990;23(6):529-536.
- Macadam P, Cronin JB, Uthoff AM, et al. Thigh loaded wearable resistance increases sagittal plane
 rotational work of the thigh resulting in slower 50-m sprint times. *Sports Biomech.* 2020.
- Feser EH, Bezodis NE, Neville J, et al. Changes to horizontal force-velocity mechanical variables and impulse measures during short-distance sprint running with thigh and shank wearable resistance *J Sports Sci.* 2021:10.1080/02640414.02642021.01882771.
- 8. Colyer SL, Nagahara R, Takai Y, Salo AIT. How sprinters accelerate beyond the velocity plateau of soccer players: Waveform analysis of ground reaction forces. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2018;28(12):2527-2535.
- Colyer SL, Nagahara R, Salo AIT. Kinetic demands of sprinting shift across the acceleration phase:
 Novel analysis of entire force waveforms. *Scand J Med Sci Sports*. 2018;28:1784-1792.
- 10. Clark KP, Udofa AB, Ryan LJ, Weyand PG. Running impact forces: from half a leg to holistic understanding comment on Nigg et al. *CISS*. 2018;3:107.
- Clark KP, Ryan LJ, Weyand PG. A general relationship links gait mechanics and running ground reaction forces. *J Exp Biol.* 2017;220(1):247-258.

334	12.	Clark KP, Laurence JR, Weyand PG. Foot speed, foot-strike and footwear: linking gait mechanics
335		and running ground reaction forces. J Exp Biol. 2014;217:2037-2040.
336	13.	Hunter JP, Marshall RN, McNair PJ. Relationships between ground reaction force impulse and
337		kinematics of sprint-running acceleration. J Appl Biomech. 2005;21:31-43.
338	14.	Nattiv A, Kennedy G, Barrack MT, et al. Correlation of MRI grading of bone stress injuries with
339		clinical risk factors and return to play: A 5-year prospective study in collegiate track and field athletes.
340		Am J Sports Med. 2013;41(8):1930-1941.
341	15.	Warden SJ, Davis IS, Fredericson M. Management and prevention of bone stress injuries in long-
342		distance runners. J Orthop Sports Phys Ther. 2014;44(10):749-765.
343	16.	Samozino P, Rabita G, Dorel S, et al. A simple method for measuring power, force, velocity
344		properties, and mechanical effectiveness in sprint running. Scand J Med Sci Sports. 2016;26:648-658.
345	17.	Lakens D. Calculating and reporting effect sizes to facilitate cumulative science: a practical primer for
346		t-tests and ANOVAs. Front Neurosci. 2013:4:863.
347	18.	Cohen I. Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NI: Lawrence Erlbaum
348		Associates: 1988.
349	19	Pataky TC One-dimensional statistical parametric mapping in Python Comput Methods Biomech Biomed
350	17.	Engin 2012:15(3):295-301
351	20	Hurst O. Kilduff I.P. Johnston M. Cronin IB. Bezodis NF. Acute effects of wearable thigh and
352	20.	shank loading on spatiotemporal and kinematic variables during maximal velocity sprinting. Starts
352		Biomoch 2020
357	21	Zhang C. Vu B. Vang C. et al. Effects of shank mass manipulation on sprinting techniques. Storts
255	21.	Biomech 2010
355	22	Simperingham K. Cronin I. Pearson S. Ross A. Acute changes in sprint running performance
257	<i>4</i> 4 .	following ballistic oversise with added lower body loading. L Australian Strength Cond 2015;23(6):86
250		20
220	23	Simparingham K. Cropin I. Changes in sprint kinematics and kinetics with upper body loading and
222	23.	Jower body loading using Excess Excess allotons: A gilot study. I Australian Strength Cond
261		2014.22(5).60 72
262	24	2014,22(5).09-72.
202	<i>2</i> 4.	beinet JP, Sayers MGL, Burkett BJ. The impact of lower extremity mass and mertia manipulation
505		on sphilt kinematics. J Strength Cond Res. 2009;25(9):2542-2547.
364		
365		
366		
367		
268		
508		
369		
370		
371		
372		
373		
374		

Table 1. Time, distance, velocity, percent of maximal velocity (mean \pm SD) and the step number 375 used at each distance of interest for the unloaded and shank conditions' distance-matched steps. 376

		Step (#)		Time at toe-off (s)	Distance at toe-off (m)	Velocity at toe-off (m·s ⁻¹)	Percent of maximal velocity at toe-off (%)
	5 m	3 (n = 2), 4 (n = 12),	U ĩ	1.29 ± 0.08	5.07 ± 0.46	6.49 ± 0.28	70.0 ± 2.45
		$\frac{5 (n = 1)}{6 (n - 2) 7 (n - 11)}$		1.30 ± 0.07	5.02 ± 0.35	6.38 ± 0.25	<u>/1.1 ± 1.99</u>
	10 m	0 (II = 2), 7 (II = 11), 8 (n = 2)	S U	1.98 ± 0.09 2.01 + 0.08	9.90 ± 0.33 9 87 + 0 35	7.73 ± 0.31 7.60 + 0.30	83.3 ± 1.33 84.8 ± 1.45
	20	11 (n = 2), 12 (n = 6),	U	3.20 ± 0.15	20.0 ± 0.72	8.81 ± 0.38	95.0 ± 1.02
	20 m	13 (n = 5), 14 (n = 2)	S	3.26 ± 0.15	19.9 ± 0.57	8.60 ± 0.36	95.9 ± 0.94
	30 m	16 (n = 2), 17 (n = 5),	U	4.36 ± 0.20	30.3 ± 0.84	9.19 ± 0.41	99.0 ± 0.44
~~		$\frac{18 (n = 5), 19 (n = 3)}{10 (n = 3)}$	S	4.44 ± 0.18	30.2 ± 0.42	8.92 ± 0.41	99.4 ± 0.37
3//	Note: U =	= unloaded condition, $S =$	shank	loaded condition	on		
878							
879							
80							
881							
882							
83							
884							
85							
86							
887							
888							
89							
90							
91							
892							
93							
894							
895							
96							
397							

Table 2. Contact time mean and standard deviation measures for each sprint running condition
with paired-samples t-test *p*-value and Cohen's *d* effect size statistics.

_

		Labedu	Shank	Shank loaded -	
		Unioaueu	loaded	Unloaded	
		\overline{x} (SD)	\overline{x} (SD)	<i>p</i> -value; ES	
	5 m CT (ms)	143 ± 12.0	141 ± 13.9	0.18; 0.15	
	10 m CT (ms)	125 ± 7.58	126 ± 8.87	0.42; 0.12	
	20 m CT (ms)	110 ± 8.01	111 ± 8.60	0.15; 0.13	
	30 m CT (ms)	103 ± 7.11	105 ± 6.67	0.03*; 0.25	
400 401	Note: CT = contact	time; * = signific	ant difference be	etween unloaded and shank loaded; E	S = effect size
402					
403					
404					
405					
406					
407					
408					
409					
410					
411					
412					
414					
415					
416					
417					
418					
419					
420					
421					
422					



Figure 1. Example wearable resistance load placement.

Figure 2. Individual change in contact time between the unloaded and shank loaded conditions for each participant (n = 15) at each distance-matched step; A = 5 m, B = 10 m, C = 20 m, D = 30 m. The values are ranked in order of magnitude. A positive value indicates a higher contact

time in the shank loaded condition. Dashed lines indicate the smallest worthwhile change

431 threshold ($\pm 0.20 \times$ unloaded condition between-subject standard deviation).



Figure 3. Anterior-posterior force waveforms (force units standardised to body weight) for the

436 step at 5 m, 10 m, 20 m, and 30 m during unloaded (black) and shank loaded (red) sprint

437 running. The left column shows average force waveforms for each participant at 5 m (A), 10 m

(B), 20 m (C), and 30 m (D). The right column shows mean (solid line) and standard deviation

(dotted line) for each condition at 5 m (E), 10 m (F), 20 m (G), and 30 m (H). The gray bar

indicates the sections of the waveform where the SPM curve exceeded the critical threshold

441 representing a statistically significant difference between the two conditions (p < 0.05).



443 Figure 4. Vertical force waveforms (force units standarised to body weight) for the step at 5 m,

10 m, 20 m, and 30 m during unloaded (black) and shank loaded (red) sprint running. The left

column shows average force waveforms for each participant at 5 m (A), 10 m (B), 20 m (C), and

446 30 m (D). The right column shows mean (solid line) and standard deviation (dotted line) for each

447 condition at 5 m (E), 10 m (F), 20 m (G), and 30 m (H). No statistically significant differences

448 were present between the two conditions at any of the step distances (p > 0.05).

