

Acute effect of short foot exercise on dynamic stability and foot kinematic in trail runners (#115361)

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Acute effect of short foot exercise on dynamic stability and foot kinematic in trail runners

Claudio Aguilar-Risco ^{1, 2, 3}, **Mauricio San Martín-Correa** ³, **Felipe Araya-Quintanilla** ⁴, **Joaquín Calatayud** ⁵, **Guillermo Mendez-Rebolledo** Corresp. 1, 6

¹ Master in Health and Sports Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, Finis Terrae University, Santiago, Chile

² Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Odontología y Ciencias de la Rehabilitación, Universidad San Sebastián, Valdivia, Chile

³ Escuela de Kinesiología, Instituto de Aparato Locomotor y Rehabilitación, Universidad Austral de Chile, Valdivia, Chile

⁴ Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Odontología y Ciencias de la Rehabilitación, Universidad San Sebastián, Santiago, Chile

⁵ Exercise Intervention for Health Research Group (EXINH-RG), Department of Physiotherapy, Universidad de Valencia, Valencia, Spain

⁶ Laboratorio de Investigación Somatosensorial y Motora, Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Salud, Universidad Santo Tomás, Talca, Chile

Corresponding Author: Guillermo Mendez-Rebolledo
Email address: guillermomendezr@santotomas.cl

Background. Trail runners face uneven terrains requiring optimal foot stability and postural control. The short foot exercise (SFE) may acutely enhance dynamic balance and foot arch height, potentially mitigating injury risk. This study aimed to evaluate the acute effects of the SFE on postural control and kinematics during a dynamic balance test in trail runners, considering the variations in the weekly training volumes of the participants.

Methods. Sixteen adult trail runners (mean age 36 ± 8.4 years; 50% male) with at least one year of trail running experience were evaluated. Dynamic balance was assessed using the Y-Balance Test (YBT), and foot kinematics were measured via the Arch Height Index (AHI) using a 3D motion capture system. Baseline measurements were taken, followed by an SFE protocol: the participants had to perform 12 repetitions of 5-second contractions, which they did in 3 sets with 2 minutes of rest between sets. Immediately afterward, YBT and AHI were reassessed.

Results. YBT showed significant improvements in all reach directions after the application of the SFE ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, no significant changes were observed in the AHI across reach directions ($p > 0.05$). However, subgroup analysis by weekly training volume revealed that participants with higher weekly volumes experienced a significant increase in anterior AHI (mean difference = -0.54 mm; 95% CI = -1.09 to 0.01 ; $p = 0.027$; effect size = 0.13). The SFE may acutely improve foot kinematics and dynamic balance in trail runners; however, these effects are influenced by the weekly training volume of the participants.

1 Acute Effect of Short Foot Exercise on Dynamic 2 Stability and Foot Kinematic in Trail Runners

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5 Claudio Aguilar-Risco^{1,2,3}, Mauricio San Martín-Correa², Felipe Araya-Quintanilla⁴, Joaquín
6 Catalayud⁵, Guillermo Mendez-Rebolledo^{6,3}

7

8 ¹ Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Odontología y Ciencias de la Rehabilitación, Universidad
9 San Sebastián, Valdivia, Chile.

10 ² Escuela de Kinesiología, Instituto de Aparato Locomotor y Rehabilitación, Universidad Austral
11 de Chile, Valdivia, Chile.

12 ³ Master in Health and Sports Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, Finis Terrae University, Santiago,
13 Chile.

14 ⁴ Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Odontología y Ciencias de la Rehabilitación, Universidad
15 San Sebastián, Santiago, Chile.

16 ⁵ Exercise Intervention for Health Research Group (EXINH-RG), Department of Physiotherapy,
17 University of Valencia, Valencia, Spain.

18 ⁶ Laboratorio de Investigación Somatosensorial y Motora, Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de
19 Salud, Universidad Santo Tomás, Chile.

20

21 ***Corresponding Author:**

22 Guillermo Mendez-Rebolledo

23 Escuela de Kinesiología, Facultad de Salud, Universidad Santo Tomás

24 Postal Code: 3460000 ; Tel: 71 2232444; E-mail: guillermomendezre@santotomas.cl

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39 Abstract

40 **Background.** Trail runners face uneven terrains requiring optimal foot stability and postural
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43 SFE on postural control and kinematics during a dynamic balance test in trail runners,
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47 Test (YBT), and foot kinematics were measured via the Arch Height Index (AHI) using a 3D
48 motion capture system. Baseline measurements were taken, followed by an SFE protocol: the
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54 participants with higher weekly volumes experienced a significant increase in anterior AHI
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57 effects are influenced by the weekly training volume of the participants.

58

59 Introduction

60 Trail running is an outdoor running discipline performed across diverse terrains, including
61 mountains, deserts, native forests, tropical jungles, coastal areas, grassy plains, and arid regions
62 (Scheer et al., 2020). In recent years, this sport has experienced remarkable growth in popularity,
63 establishing itself as the leading all-terrain running discipline (Mocanu, 2015). Trail runners face
64 various challenges, including significant elevation changes, diverse environmental and weather
65 conditions, and uneven terrains (Mocanu, 2015; Scheer et al., 2020). While the physical health
66 benefits of running are well-documented, navigating trails with heterogeneous surfaces increases
67 the risk of injury (Matos et al., 2021; Viljoen et al., 2021). The ankle-foot joint complex is
68 among the most frequently injured regions of the body, accounting for approximately 50% of
69 injuries, characterized by ligament, or joint capsule injuries (Viljoen et al., 2021, 2022).

70 Trail running requires quick cognitive processing of the environment, the ability to respond
71 to variations in the ground surface, obstacle avoidance, and positional adjustments of the foot in
72 response to the terrain's elevations (Vincent, Brownstein & Vincent, 2022). To maintain postural
73 control in this type of activity, runners use anticipatory and reactive strategies in response to
74 obstacles on the roads (Vincent, Brownstein & Vincent, 2022). The short foot exercise (SFE) has
75 been used to improve postural control in various demanding motor tasks by contracting and
76 activating the intrinsic foot muscles (IFM)⁷. The IFM are a subset of the central foot system that
77 play an important role in static and dynamic posture, helping to improve movement control,
78 stabilization, and foot flexibility during stance phase⁸. They allow for the absorption of impact

79 energy, enhance the dynamic alignment of the foot, support the medial longitudinal arch (MLA)
80 of the foot, and provide plantar proprioceptive feedback (Kelly et al., 2014; McKeon et al.,
81 2015). The most important element of foot function is the MLA, as postural demands increase,
82 the IFM stabilize the foot, directly improving the posture of the foot arch via significant changes
83 in the length and height of the MLA (Kelly et al., 2012, 2014; Mulligan & Cook, 2013). These
84 foot arch changes can be compared through validated clinical kinematic methods such as the
85 Arch Height Index (AHI), which is used to evaluate changes in MLA in static and dynamic tasks
86 (Uhan et al., 2023). In recent years, it has been demonstrated that foot training with the SFE
87 provides benefits in static and dynamic postural control in healthy young individuals, people
88 with flat feet, and even those with ankle instability. The SFE improves the muscle strength of the
89 IFM, consequently, achieving adequate support of the medial longitudinal arch (Lynn, Padilla &
90 Tsang, 2012; Mulligan & Cook, 2013; Kim & Kim, 2016; Lee & Choi, 2019; Moon & Jung,
91 2021). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that training this musculature reduces the risk of
92 injury by 2.2 times compared to a control group of recreational runners (Suda et al., 2022). The
93 authors of this study point out that with greater foot strength, the runner may sustain longer
94 distances without developing a running-related injury, as the SFE acts as a protective factor
95 against lower limb injuries. To the best of our knowledge, no studies have explored the benefits
96 of strengthening the intrinsic foot musculature in trail runners.

97 Training workloads are also central to the development of injuries for runners (Drew &
98 Finch, 2016). It has been proposed that higher training loads lead to higher injury rates (Gabbett,
99 2016; Soligard et al., 2016), and if these weekly training workloads increase rapidly, the athlete
100 faces a high risk of injury (Gabbett et al., 2016). Training for more than 5.4 hours per week,
101 including competition hours, is associated with a higher risk of injury in individual sports
102 (Hartwig et al., 2019). Furthermore, in team sports, an additional hour of weekly training has
103 been found to increase the risk of injuries in young athletes, with ankle sprains being among the
104 most common injuries (Giroto et al., 2017). However, if training workloads are applied
105 progressively, they can foster resilience in athletes, resulting in lower injury rates and
106 performance optimization (Gabbett, 2016).

107 Foot stability, directly modulated by the intrinsic foot muscle, may play an important role
108 in motor tasks requiring dynamic postural control or movements that demand more effort, such
109 as climbing slopes, accelerating, decelerating, or jumping (Besomi et al., 2018). However, the
110 potential acute effects of the short foot exercise on dynamic postural control and foot kinematics
111 have not yet been investigated as a possible strategy for injury prevention in trail runners.
112 Furthermore, the influence of weekly training volume on foot stability and kinematics in trail
113 runners remains unknown. This study aimed to evaluate the acute effects of the short foot
114 exercise on postural control and foot kinematics during a dynamic balance test in trail runners,
115 considering the participants' varying weekly training volumes. We hypothesize that the short foot
116 exercise will immediately enhance dynamic balance and increase the arch height index of the
117 foot in trail runners. Furthermore, we anticipate that runners with higher weekly training

118 volumes will exhibit a greater improvement in arch height index and perform better on the
119 dynamic balance test compared to those with lower training volumes.

120

121 **Material & Methods**

122 **Study design**

123 This was a quasi-experimental study. Dynamic balance measurements were taken before and
124 after the application of the short foot exercise using the Y-Balance Test (YBT) in the anterior,
125 posterolateral, and posteromedial directions. Additionally, foot kinematics were assessed through
126 the arch height index during the YBT performance.

127

128 **Participants**

129 A non-probabilistic convenience sampling was conducted, resulting in a sample of 16 volunteers.
130 The sample size was determined using G*Power software (version 3.1.9.7; Franz Faul,
131 University of Kiel, Kiel, Germany) based on an effect size of 0.66 in the SFE, an alpha error of
132 0.05, and a power of 0.80, which were calculated from data from a previous study (Lynn, Padilla
133 & Tsang, 2012). To recruit participants, every running club in the city of Valdivia (Chile) was
134 contacted by sending a form via email to identify potential participants. The club members
135 answered questions regarding the study's inclusion and exclusion criteria. Those who met the
136 criteria were invited by phone to participate in the study. The study included trail runners who
137 were 18 years old or older, both female and male, who were registered and active in an official
138 running club in Valdivia, with at least 1 year of experience in trail running, and who had
139 completed a trail event of 10 km or more in the last year. Additionally, they had to accumulate a
140 weekly distance volume of 20 km or more, with a training frequency of at least three times per
141 week and a total of four hours of training per week (Besomi et al., 2018; Suda et al., 2022).

142 Participants with functional lower limb injuries that prevented them from practicing trail
143 running, such as fractures or ligament injuries, were excluded. Additionally, individuals
144 undergoing physical therapy for strengthening the intrinsic foot muscles and ankle, or for
145 specific balance rehabilitation, as well as those wearing minimalist footwear, were also excluded
146 (Lynn, Padilla & Tsang, 2012; Suda et al., 2022).

147

148 **Ethical approval**

149 All participants received written and oral information about the project and gave informed
150 consent, consistent with the Helsinki Declaration guidelines before participating in the study.
151 The research protocol received approval from the Health Service Ethics Committee, Valdivia,
152 Chile (Nº 159).

153

154 **Procedures**

155 Participants were invited to the Human Movement Analysis Laboratory at the School of
156 Kinesiology of the Universidad Austral de Chile. Before beginning the study, the principal
157 investigator showed and explained the SFE and the YBT. The participants practiced

158 familiarizing themselves with the study protocol. Data such as sex, age, weight, height, BMI,
159 years of running experience, weekly training volume (days per hour of training), and weekly
160 accumulated kilometers were recorded on a data sheet. The study, conducted in a single session
161 lasting approximately 2 hours, began with measurements of leg length, knee width, and ankle
162 width. Reflective markers were then placed on the ankle-foot segment to evaluate kinematics
163 using infrared cameras (VICON model T10-S, Vicon, Oxford, UK). Subsequently, the
164 participants performed the YBT before the foot intervention. As soon as the initial YBT
165 evaluation was completed, the participants immediately performed the SFE protocol. At the end
166 of the SFE protocol, the YBT was immediately performed again to assess the dependent
167 variables (AHI, YBT).

168

169 **Arch Height Index.** For the evaluation of foot kinematics, a 3D motion capture system with 6
170 infrared cameras was used, with a capture frequency of 120 Hz. Reflective markers were
171 attached to the skin using double-sided adhesive tape, and placed specifically on different bony
172 segments, as shown in [Figure 1](#). This allowed for the digital reconstruction and kinematic
173 modeling of the ankle and foot using the Oxford Foot Model (Merker et al., 2015). Through this
174 model, the researchers were able to calculate the AHI of the foot in millimeters and how it varies
175 during motor activity in anterior, posterolateral and posteromedial directions. The AHI
176 represents the kinematic changes that the MLA may undergo during a motor task (Uhan et al.,
177 2023).

178

179 ***Insert Figure 1 near here***

180

181 ***Y-Balance Test.*** Dynamic balance was assessed using the YBT (with an intrarater reliability
182 coefficient ranging from 0.85 to 0.91) (Plisky et al., 2024), which was set up on the floor using
183 adhesive tape in the anterior, posterolateral, and posteromedial directions. Cones placed at the
184 start of each direction were pushed by the subject with the reaching foot. The distance reached
185 was measured in centimeters. Before the official measurements, the participants were allowed to
186 perform 6 practice trials for each reach direction to familiarize themselves with the test. During
187 the official tests, the participants stood barefoot with the toes of the dominant foot (defined as the
188 foot with which they would kick a ball) behind a previously marked line. While maintaining
189 balance on one leg, the subjects attempted to push the reach indicator (cone) with the most distal
190 part of the foot in the three directions, trying to reach the greatest possible distance. To improve
191 the reproducibility of the test and establish a consistent protocol, a standard order was developed
192 and used, which consisted of reaching in the anterior direction first, followed by a posterolateral,
193 and finishing with the posteromedial reach. This sequence was repeated three times per direction.
194 The test was considered invalid and had to be repeated if the subject failed to maintain the
195 unipedal posture on the platform, failed to maintain contact of the reaching foot with the reach
196 indicator, used the reach indicator to maintain balance, or could not return the reaching foot to

197 the initial position (control position) (Plisky et al., 2024). Once each round was completed, the
198 distance reached was recorded, and results were normalized using the following formula:

199
$$\% \text{ Normalized reach distance} = \frac{\text{reach distance (cm)}}{\text{leg length (cm)}} \times 100$$

200

201 **Short Foot Exercise.** The participants familiarized themselves with the SFE to understand the
202 specific muscle contraction they needed to perform. The exercise consisted of the participants
203 sitting with their feet flat on the ground and performing a voluntary and conscious contraction of
204 the IFM of the dominant foot. The participant attempted to bring the metatarsals of the foot
205 toward the heel and the heel toward the metatarsals without generating flexion of the
206 metatarsophalangeal joints. The SFE was applied immediately after completing the YBT. The
207 participants had to perform 12 repetitions of 5-second contractions, which they did in 3 sets with
208 2 minutes of rest between sets (Lee, Cho & Lee, 2019). Once the protocol was completed, the
209 YBT evaluation was immediately repeated to measure the dependent variables after the
210 application of the SFE.

211

212 **Statistical analysis**

213 The study sample was analyzed according to sex, age, weight, height, BMI, accumulated
214 kilometers, years of practice, and weekly training volume, using Percentages, frequencies, and
215 standard deviations. To determine data distribution and variance homogeneity, the Shapiro-Wilk
216 test and Levene's test were used, respectively. The paired sample t-test was used to compare pre
217 and post the application of the SFE. Subsequently, a two-factor repeated measures analysis of
218 variance (ANOVA) (time: pre and post SFE application; training volume: low and high) was
219 performed. Participants who practiced less than 5.4 hours of training per week were considered
220 to have a low training volume, while those who practiced 5.4 hours or more (Hartwig et al.,
221 2019) were considered to have a high training volume. . Consequently, four groups were created
222 for analysis. Multiple pairwise comparisons were applied using Bonferroni-corrected t-tests to
223 determine if there were significant interactions between factors. Additionally, the effect size (ES)
224 was calculated based on Cohen's d and was reported as no effect (0 to 0.19), small effect (0.20 to
225 0.49), moderate effect (0.50 to 0.79), or large effect (0.80 or greater) (Fritz, Morris & Richler,
226 2012). For all analyses, a p-value < 0.05 was utilized. IBM SPSS software version 29.0.1.0 for
227 Windows (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA) was used for statistical analysis, while GraphPad
228 software version (10.2.1.395) was used for graphing the results.

229

230 **Results**

231 [Table 1](#) presents the demographics, anthropometrics, and running variables of the study sample.
232 Study sample characteristics were also divided according to the training volume of the participants.

233

234 *****Insert [Table 1](#) near here***

235

236 Arch Height Index

237 There were no statistically significant differences pre and post-SFE in the anterior [mean
 238 difference (MD) = -0.17mm; CI 95% = -0.59 to 0.26; $p = 0.199$], posterolateral (MD = 0.02 mm;
 239 CI 95% = -0.76 to 0.79; $p = 0.480$) and posteromedial (MD = 0.07mm; CI 95% = -0.69 to 0.82; p
 240 = 0.428) directions of the AHI of the foot. However, when categorizing by weekly training
 241 volume, ANOVA (pre and post-SFE x weekly training volume) revealed a significant interaction
 242 between the factors (df = 1; $F = 8.232$; $p = 0.012$) for the anterior reach direction of the AHI of
 243 the foot. The post-hoc analysis showed significant differences pre and post application of the
 244 SFE among participants with a high training volume (MD = -0.54 mm; CI 95% = -1.09 to 0.01; p
 245 = 0.027; ES = 0.13) as seen in [Figure 2](#), while no significant differences were observed among
 246 participants with a low training volume. No significant differences were observed for the
 247 posterolateral and posteromedial reach directions of the AHI ($p > 0.05$).

248

249 ***Insert Figure 2 near here***

250

251 Y-Balance Test

252 There were significant differences pre and post SFE application in the anterior (MD = -1.9%; CI
253 95% = -3.0 to -0.7; $p = 0.002$; ES= 2.21) posterolateral (MD = -2.6%; CI 95% = -5.4 to 0.3; $p =$
254 0.037; ES= 5.32) and posteromedial (MD = -5.2%; CI 95% = -8.3 to -2.0; $p = 0.002$; ES= 5.88)
255 directions of the YBT. Furthermore, when categorizing by weekly training volume, ANOVA
256 (pre and post-SFE x weekly training volume) revealed a significant interaction between the
257 factors ($df = 1$; $F = 12.377$; $p = 0.03$) for the anterior direction variable of the YBT. The post-
258 hoc analysis showed significant differences pre and post application of the SFE among
259 participants with a low training volume (MD = -2.4%; CI 95% = -4.4 to -0.4; $p = 0.018$; ES=
260 0.09) as seen in [Figure 3](#), while no significant differences were observed among participants with
261 a high training volume. No significant differences were observed for the posterolateral and
262 posteromedial reach directions of the YBT ($p > 0.05$).

263

264 ***Insert Figure 3 near here***

265

266 **Discussion**

267 In the present study, we investigated the acute effect of SFE on dynamic balance and foot
268 kinematics among trail runners, as well as the influence of weekly training volume on the study
269 variables. A significant improvement in the AHI of the foot was observed for the anterior reach
270 of the YBT among participants with a high weekly training volume, while the percentage of
271 anterior reach of the YBT increased significantly among participants with a low training volume.
272 To our knowledge, no studies have analyzed the influence of SFE on the foot kinematics and
273 balance of trail runners. These findings suggest a positive effect of SFE in improving the AHI of
274 the foot and dynamic balance in the anterior reach among trail runners; however, training volume
275 influences the observed changes.

276 The abductor halluc is one of the largest intrinsic muscles of the foot, and it contributes to
277 the supination of the midtarsal joint against the pronation force of the ground reaction. In other
278 words, it stabilizes and even increases the medial longitudinal arch (Jung et al., 2011). Evidence
279 shows that the IFM, such as the flexor digitorum brevis, quadratus plantae, and especially the
280 abductor halluc, exhibit greater intrinsic activation in response to increased postural demands.
281 Consequently, during single-leg support, there is greater IFM activation to stabilize and prevent
282 the collapse of the MLA (Jung et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2012). Our study found that the SFE,
283 which strengthens the IFM, improved the AHI of the foot, which represents the kinematic
284 changes of the MLA, in the anterior reach of the YBT among participants with high training
285 volume. This finding is consistent with prior literature that supports an association between high
286 chronic training loads and better performance and physical condition (Gabbett, 2016), including
287 in individual sports like running (Scrimgeour et al., 1986), provided that the training load is
288 appropriate (Gabbett, 2016). An optimal load maximizes performance potential while
289 simultaneously reducing the negative consequences of training, such as injuries, fatigue, or
290 overtraining (Morton, 1997). Similarly, the load or frequency of the short foot exercise might
291 influence foot mechanics and performance among trail runners, given that fatigue of the IFM is
292 significantly correlated with greater navicular drop (Headlee et al., 2008). This is particularly
293 relevant considering that participants with low training volume did not show changes in the AHI
294 of the foot pre-and post SFE. Muscle activation plays a key role in foot dynamics, but postural
295 control is equally essential (Méndez-Rebolledo et al., 2015; Saavedra-Miranda & Mendez-
296 Rebolledo, 2016). Previous research has shown that the short foot exercise stimulates
297 proprioceptors in the sole of the foot, increasing afferent input to the spinal cord. This, in turn,
298 enhances voluntary muscle activation and stability (Newsham, 2010). This would explain the
299 significant changes in dynamic balance in all directions when comparing pre and post-SFE
300 among the evaluated trail runners. However, when comparing according to training volume, only
301 the subjects with low training volume showed significant improvements in the anterior reach of
302 the YBT. These results contradict the previously described association of high loads with
303 performance improvements (Gabbett, 2016). Our results can be interpreted based on the premise
304 that individuals with lower weekly training volumes are less conditioned. Consequently, their
305 initial adaptation to a functional test like the YBT may result in greater gains following training
306 compared to those with more experience and higher weekly training volumes. For the latter
307 group, the potential for improvement is smaller or occurs more gradually.

308 In the anterior reach of the YBT, the movement is performed in the sagittal plane along the
309 mediolateral axis. The longitudinal arch of the foot plays a crucial role in maintaining unipedal
310 stability within this axis (Jung et al., 2011). The IFM are fundamental for single-leg balance, as
311 their activity is strongly correlated with mediolateral sway (Kelly et al., 2012). In our study,
312 improvements were observed in both kinematics and dynamic balance during the anterior reach.
313 Additionally, previous research indicates that asymmetries in the anterior reach results of the
314 YBT are associated with a higher risk of non-contact injuries in collegiate athletes (Smith,
315 Chimera & Warren, 2015). Therefore, our results support our hypothesis that the SFE can reduce

316 the likelihood of non-contact injuries during running due to better neuromuscular and postural
317 control. However, this hypothesis requires confirmation through longitudinal and prospective
318 studies that evaluate injury incidence rates among a cohort of trail runners exposed to the SFE
319 and a cohort exposed only to regular training.

320 Limitations of this study include that the SFE was performed in a sitting position, which
321 may have influenced muscle recruitment. Previous research suggests that performing the SFE in
322 a standing position elicits a greater maximum voluntary contraction of the intrinsic foot muscles
323 compared to the sitting position (Choi et al., 2021). Additionally, the study sample was recruited
324 by convenience, resulting in a small sample size, and it may not be representative of the general
325 population of trail runners. Furthermore, the long-term effects of the SFE could not be assessed,
326 and the study lacked a control group. Therefore, future research should include extended training
327 and follow-up periods, as well as a larger sample size, to better evaluate the long-term impact of
328 the SFE on trail runners.

329 This study opens a new line of research on trail runners. To our knowledge, it is the first
330 study to measure the effect of the SFE on foot kinematics and postural control in this population.
331 It provides relevant information for runners and sports personnel and indicates that the SFE
332 could be useful as a pre-activation strategy to prepare the foot muscles for the perturbations and
333 loads that trail running may present.

334

335 **Conclusion**

336 The SFE acutely improves the AHI of the foot in the anterior reach of the YBT in participants
337 with high training volume, while runners with low training volume significantly improved their
338 dynamic balance in the anterior reach. Therefore, the SFE can be useful before a race to activate
339 the IFM and provide greater dynamic stability when practicing or competing in trail running.
340 Although these results are promising, longitudinal and prospective studies are necessary to
341 evaluate the injury incidence rates in a cohort of trail runners exposed to SFE training compared
342 to a cohort exposed only to their usual training.

343

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346

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469

Table 1(on next page)

Demographic characteristics, anthropometry and variables associated with the practice of Trail Running (α).

(α) Values are presented by means, \pm (Standard deviation) or percentages.

1 **Table 1.** Demographic characteristics, anthropometry and variables associated with the
2 practice of Trail Running (α).

Variables	Trail Runners (n = 16)	Low training	High training
		volume (n = 9)	volume (n = 7)
Male (n, %)	8 (50)	5 (55.6)	3 (42.9)
Female (n, %)	8 (50)	4 (44.4)	4 (57.1)
Age (year)	36 ± 8.4	38 ± 9.5	32.4 ± 6.5
Size (cms)	165.7 ± 7.1	165 ± 5.7	166.6 ± 9.0
Weight (kg)	66 ± 7.8	66.4 ± 7.26	65.3 ± 9.0
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.0 ± 1.7	24.3 ± 1.65	23.5 ± 1.7
Training volume (h x Training days / Week)	6.0 ± 1.9	4.7 ± 0.61	7.7 ± 1.5
Practice years (years)	3.5 ± 2.7	4.0 ± 3.07	2.9 ± 2.3
Weekly kilometers (km/week)	53.1 ± 17.7	47.8 ± 19.1	60 ± 14.1

3 (α) Values are presented by means, ± (Standard deviation) or percentages.

4

Figure 1

(Left) Markers on the foot shown from a medial view. (Right) Markers on the foot and ankle shown from a lateral view.

RMMA: Medial Malleoli, RHLX: Hallux, RD1M: 1 st Metatarsal, distal medial, RP1M: 1 st Metatarsal, proximal medial, RSTL: Sustaniculum Tali, RHEE: Heel, RCPG: Posterior end of the calcaneus, RPCA: Posterior calcaneus proximal, RLCA: Lateral calcaneus, RP5M: 5 th Metatarsal, proximal lateral, RD5M: 5 th Metatarsal, distal medial, RTOE: 2 nd Finger base, RANK: lateral malleolus.

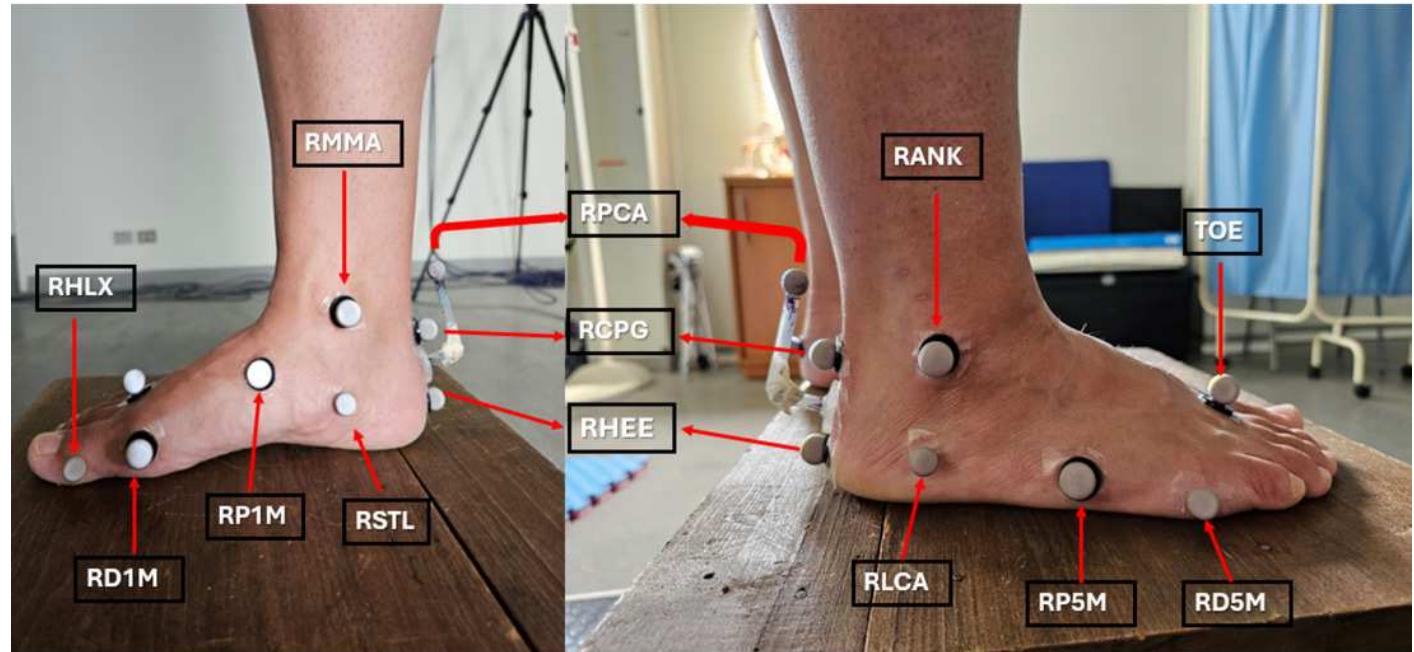


Figure 2

Post-hoc comparison of the Arch Height Index in the anterior reach of the Y-Balance Test between subjects with low and high volume training pre and post Short Foot Exercises application.

* $p < 0.05$.

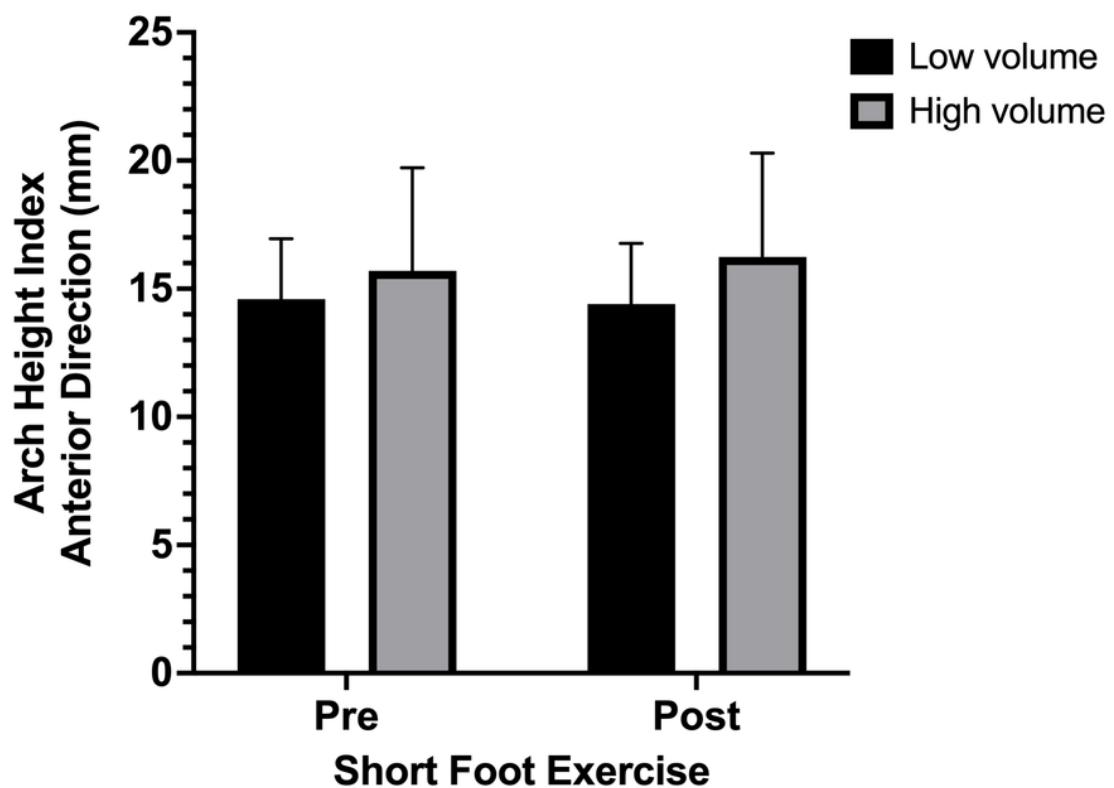


Figure 3

Post-hoc comparison of the percentage of reach in the anterior direction of the Y-Balance Test between subjects with low and high training volume pre and post Short Foot Exercises application.

* $p < 0.05$

