

1 Title: Altered dynamic postural stability and joint position sense following British Army foot-
2 drill

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4 Running head: Effects of Foot Drill on Ankle Proprioception and dynamic postural control

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27 Abstract

28 Impaired proprioceptive acuity negatively affects both joint position sense and postural control
29 and is a risk factor for lower-extremity musculoskeletal injury in athletes and military
30 personnel. British Army foot-drill is an occupational military activity involving cyclical high
31 impact loading forces greater than those observed in athletes during high level plyometrics.
32 Foot-drill may contribute to the high rates of lower-extremity overuse injuries observed in
33 recruits during basic training. There is limited research investigating foot-drill specific injury
34 risk factors in women. This study aimed to quantify changes in ankle joint proprioception and
35 dynamic postural stability following a period of British Army foot-drill. Fourteen recruit age-
36 matched women underwent pre-post foot-drill measures of frontal plane ankle joint position
37 sense (JPS) and dynamic postural stability using the dynamic postural stability index (DPSI).
38 Passive ankle JPS was assessed from relative test angles of inversion (IN) and eversion (EV)
39 30% and IN60% using an isokinetic dynamometer. The DPSI and the individual stability
40 indices (medio-lateral [MLSI], anterior-posterior [APSI] and vertical [VSI]) were calculated
41 from lateral and forward jump-landing conditions using force plates. Foot-drill was conducted
42 by a serving British Army drill instructor. Significantly greater absolute mean JPS error for
43 IN30% and EV30% was observed post foot-drill ($p \leq 0.016$, $d \geq 0.70$). For both the lateral and
44 forward jump-landing conditions, significantly greater stability index scores were observed for
45 MLSI, APSI and DPSI ($p \leq 0.017$, $d \geq 0.52$). Significantly greater JPS error and stability index
46 scores are associated with the demands of British Army foot-drill. These results provide
47 evidence that foot-drill negatively affects lower-extremity proprioceptive acuity in recruit age-
48 matched women, which has implications for increased injury risk during subsequent military
49 physical activity, occurring in a normal training cycle.

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51 Key terms: dynamic postural stability; joint position sense; foot-drill; neuromuscular function

52 Introduction

53 The aim of initial military training or Phase one Basic Training (BT) is to transform civilians
54 into trained soldiers. The British Army provides several intense physical training programmes
55 that prepares recruits for combat. Part of the BT syllabus involves recruits performing many
56 hours of British Army foot-drill, or foot-drill training; a fundamental occupational military
57 activity that is frequently practiced by recruits during BT (Rawcliffe et al., 2020). Foot-drill
58 has been suggested as a potential contributing risk factor for lower-extremity musculoskeletal
59 (MSK) injury. British Army foot-drills are characterised by their own unique movement
60 patterns; quick-march (QM) involves marching at two paces per second whilst impacting the
61 ground with an exaggerated heel strike; stand-at-attention (SaA), stand-at-ease (SaE), halt and
62 about-turn (left and right) all involve raising the active limb to 90-degree ($^{\circ}$) hip flexion and
63 forcefully stamping down onto the ground with an extended-knee (i.e., straight-leg landing). It
64 is these regimental movement patterns that have been implicated in the high impact loading
65 forces and tibial accelerations of foot-drill irrespective of sex, experience (i.e., trained
66 [soldiers] vs untrained [recruits]) (Carden et al., 2015) and footwear (drill shoe vs combat boot
67 and gym training shoe) (Rawcliffe et al., 2020).

68

69 Carden et al., (2015) investigated the force and acceleration characteristics of foot-drill in
70 trained (i.e., soldiers) and untrained (i.e., recruits) men and women, reporting peak vGRF,
71 loading rates and peak tibial impact accelerations between 1.3-6.6 bodyweights (BW), 42-983
72 BW/sec and 23-207 m/s^2 , respectively. Rawcliffe et al., (2020) and Connaboy, (2011) both
73 reported similar magnitudes of impact loading forces for recruit age-matched civilian men and
74 women. However, these studies used observational lab-based study designs and assessed foot-
75 drills independent of each other, therefore lacking ecological validity of the cumulative impact

76 loading forces of foot-drill. To date, only one study has assessed cumulative lower-extremity
77 loading of foot-drill in real-time during BT. Rice et al., (2018) used shank-mounted (tri-axial)
78 tibial accelerometers to quantify estimates of lower-extremity loading in the field. Repetitive
79 impacts at high (>10 gravitational accelerations (g)) and very high (>15g) tibial shock
80 magnitudes were observed for both male and female recruits, with peak positive accelerations
81 (PPA) and mean PPA exceeding the g threshold of the device ($\pm 16g$). Despite known
82 limitations of extrapolation (i.e., accuracy), these values repeatedly exceeded 16g and are
83 greater than values reported during running (Lafortune, 1991) and plyometric exercises (i.e.,
84 single-leg drop landings) (Coventry et al., 2006); the latter being a training modality more
85 commonly associated with more experienced and better conditioned athletes (Connaboy, 2011)
86 due to the high risk of MSK injury associated with this type of activity (Davies et al., 2015).

87

88 Altered and/or diminished joint proprioception and postural stability, as measured by joint
89 positional sense (JPS) and the dynamic postural stability index (DPSI), have been prospectively
90 identified as risk factors for lower-extremity injury in athletic and recreational active
91 populations (McGuine et al., 2000; Sell *et al.*, 2013; Mckeon and Hertel, 2008; Ross *et al.*,
92 2009; Trojian and McKeag, 2006), and are likely key risk factors for injury in military recruits
93 during BT. Prospective studies have reported significant reductions in joint proprioceptive
94 acuity and postural stability following military specific exercise (Sell *et al.*, 2013; Mohammadi
95 *et al.*, 2013) and during high impact activity (i.e., plyometrics) similar to that of foot-drill
96 (Twist et al., 2008). Indeed, latent impairments in lower-extremity neuromuscular function
97 following high impact activity have been reported (Twist et al., 2008). However, it is unknown
98 whether the high impact loading forces and regimented movement patterns of British Army
99 foot-drill attenuate the acuity of lower-extremity neuromuscular control, which may have

100 implications for the use of skill-based activities (i.e., obstacle course) and increased injury risk
101 during subsequent BT activities.

102

103 Research investigating military training-related injury risk factors specific to female recruits is
104 limited, despite female recruits demonstrating a two-to-three times greater risk of lower-
105 extremity MSK injury during BT when compared to their male counterparts (Strowbridge and
106 Burgess, 2002; Blacker et al., 2008; Wilkinson et al., 2011; Interim Health Report [UK MoD],
107 2016). This is corroborated in the athletic literature, where athletic females demonstrate a four-
108 to-six times greater incidence of anterior cruciate ligament injury (Arendt et al., 1999) and
109 lateral ankle sprains (Hosea and Carey, 2000) while participating in the same sporting activities
110 as men. Lower-limb sex differences demonstrate that exercising females are generally ligament
111 dominant (i.e., the absence of muscle control of medio-lateral joint motion resulting in greater
112 joint torques and vGRF) (Hewett et al., 2002), employ different landing strategies (Wikstrom
113 et al., 2006), and demonstrate neuromuscular imbalances between dominant and non-dominant
114 lower-limbs (Decker et al., 2003). These predisposing injury risk factors may place female
115 recruits at greater risk of impaired joint proprioception and dynamic postural stability following
116 British Army foot-drill training.

117

118 The aim of this study was to quantify changes in ankle JPS acuity and DPSI (including stability
119 indices [medio-lateral and anterior-posterior]) pre and immediately post a period of British
120 Army foot-drill in recruit age-matched women. It was hypothesised that women would
121 experience significantly greater absolute JPS error of the ankle joint and increased dynamic
122 postural variability from DPSI (and stability indices) post foot-drill.

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124 Methods

125

126 *Participants*

127 Fourteen recruit age-matched women ($n = 14$, age: 26 ± 3 yrs, height: 179.2 ± 6.2 cm,
128 bodymass: 74.4 ± 2.6 kg) were successfully recruited for this study. All participants were
129 recreationally active, taking part in moderate physical activity or sport a minimum of two-to-
130 three times per week, defined as “untrained” as participants obtained no prior experience of
131 British Army foot-drill. Participants reported no injuries or pathological lower-limb, hip or
132 spinal conditions six-months prior to testing, no prior history of balance, jump-landing or foot-
133 drill training, no neurological or vascular compromise, and no known pregnancy at the time of
134 testing. Ethical approval was gained from Edinburgh Napier University’s local ethics
135 committee.

136

137 Experimental Design

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139 This observational study quantified changes in ankle joint proprioception and dynamic postural
140 stability pre and post a period of British Army foot-drill training. To mitigate potential learning
141 effects, participants performed a single familiarisation session involving multiple practice trials
142 of ankle JPS and dynamic postural stability (Hopkins, 2000). Ankle JPS and dynamic postural
143 stability data were collected and analysed from the dominant limb only, defined as the limb
144 used to strike a ball. Measures of ankle JPS were conducted prior to DPSI as to mitigate the
145 effects of jump-landing activity on measures of ankle JPS.

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150 *British Army Foot-drill Training*

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152 A serving British Army foot-drill instructor conducted each standardised foot-drill session,
 153 relative to the British Army foot-drill instructor manual. Each session lasted approximately 88
 154 min (table 1) with JPS and DPSI conducted pre and immediately post foot-drill training. Foot-
 155 drills are characterised by their own unique key performance markers (BADIM, 2009). For
 156 example, QM involves marching at two paces per second whilst impacting the ground with an
 157 exaggerated heel strike. The SaA, SaE, right-turn, about-turn (left-leg), left-turn, and halt foot-
 158 drill (right-leg) involves raising the active limb approximately 90° hip flexion and forcefully
 159 stamping onto the ground, with an extended-knee (straight-leg) landing. All participants wore
 160 the standardised British Army black leather Combat Boot (CB) during their respective foot-drill
 161 training provided by the research team.

162

163 **Table 1:** Illustrates the frequency (repetitions), duration (time) and the total *n* of impacts
 164 performed with the right and left leg during the standardised period of foot-drill.

Foot-Drill	British Army Foot-drill		
	Duration(mins)	<i>n</i> left foot impacts	<i>n</i> right foot impacts
SaA	11	42	-
SaE	9	28	-
Right-turn	12	48	-
Left-turn	9	-	32
About-turn	10	26	-
Halt	18	-	39
March	12	128	118
Rest	7	-	-
Total	88	272	189

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167 *Ankle Joint Position Sense (passive)*

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169 Frontal plane (Inversion/Eversion (IN/EV)) ankle JPS was quantified using a Biodex
 170 dynamometer (Biodex Medical Systems, Shirley, New York, USA) using methods described

171 previously (Sefton *et al.*, 2009; (Brown *et al.*, 2004). Ankle JPS was assessed in the frontal
172 plane rather than the sagittal plane as most injuries occur around the anterior-posterior axis
173 (i.e., lateral ankle sprain). The test ankle was positioned in a clinically designated neutral or 0°
174 position, achieving 90° between the foot and tibia. Participants were blindfolded and wore
175 headphones to eliminate any contribution of visual and audio cues to the positioning of the test
176 ankle. Participants were given a 45 second (sec) recovery between trials to mitigate fatigue and
177 to assist with concentration. Ankle IN/EV range of motion (ROM) was determined prior to
178 testing. From which, 30% and 60% of full inversion ROM and 30% of full eversion ROM of
179 each participant was calculated and utilised as JPS test angles. This accounted for relative ankle
180 joint flexibility whilst reducing the effect of additional sensory input from cutaneous receptors
181 at extreme ROM (Burke *et al.*, 1988). At random, the test ankle was passively moved into one
182 of three test positions, 30% and 60% IN and 30% EV. Each test angle was locked in position
183 for 10 sec and passively moved through its respective ROM (60°/sec) before returning to
184 neutral (0°). Participants attempted to reproduce the test angle and orientation of the foot by
185 actively pressing a handheld trigger recording the absolute degrees of error (°) between the test
186 and reproduced angle. The mean of five trials from each IN/EV JPS condition at BL, and pre-
187 post foot-drill training was collected and processed for further analysis.

188

189 *Dynamic Postural Stability*

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191 Similar to methods used previously (Sell *et al.*, 2013), ground reaction force (GRF) data was
192 collected at 1000Hz via a Kistler force plate (Kistler Instruments AG, 9281CA, Switzerland).
193 Dynamic postural stability was assessed from an anterior-posterior (A/P) and medio-lateral
194 (M/L) jump-landing task and analysed using the DPSI. Relative to the A/P and M/L jump-
195 landings, female participants stood bilaterally at a distance of 40% and 33% of their standing

196 height from the middle of the force plate, respectively. When instructed, participants jumped
197 anteriorly (A/P jump) or laterally (M/L jump) off both legs, over a 12inch (A/P jump) or 6inch
198 (M/L jump) hurdle, landing on the force plate with the dominant-limb (single-leg landing).
199 Participants were asked to stabilize immediately after landing, placing both hands on hips and
200 balancing for 13 sec (Wikstrom *et al.*, 2005). Upper-limb movement was not restricted during
201 the take-off or flight phase of each task. Dynamic trials were discarded and repeated if the
202 participants' non-stance limb made contact with the stance limb or the ground out-with the
203 force plate. Ground reaction force data was extracted from the force plate using Bioware®
204 (5.3.0.7 systems) for subsequent analysis.

205

206 Data Analysis

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208 *Dynamic Postural Stability Index*

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210 All dynamic postural stability data were treated using a 4th order (zero-lag) low pass
211 Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 20Hz (Williams *et al.*, 2015). The DPSI and its
212 directional components [stability index: medial lateral (MLSI), anterior-posterior (APSI),
213 vertical (VSI)] were analysed using a custom Matlab script file. These indices are mean square
214 deviations assessing fluctuations around a 0 point, rather than SDs assessing fluctuations
215 around a group mean (Sell *et al.*, 2013). The MLSI and APSI directional components analyse
216 the fluctuations from zero along the X (A/P) and Y (M/L) axis. The VSI assesses the
217 fluctuations from the participant's bodyweight (as a zero point) along the Z (vertical) axis of
218 the force plate (Eq 1-3). The DPSI is a composite of the MLSI, APSI, and VSI, therefore is
219 sensitive to changes in each directional component. Greater stability index (SI) scores reflect
220 greater variability and potentially altered dynamic postural stability, with MLSI, APSI, VSI,
221 and DPSI calculated as (BW in newtons);

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$$\text{MLSI} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum(0 - \text{GRFx})^2}{\text{number of data points}}\right)} \div \text{BW} \quad \text{Eq1.}$$

$$\text{APSI} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum(0 - \text{GRFy})^2}{\text{number of data points}}\right)} \div \text{BW} \quad \text{Eq2.}$$

$$\text{VSI} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum(\text{BW} - \text{GRFz})^2}{\text{number of data points}}\right)} \div \text{BW} \quad \text{Eq3.}$$

$$\text{DPSI} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum(0 - \text{GRFx})^2 + \sum(0 - \text{GRFy})^2 + \sum(0 - \text{GRFz})^2}{\text{number of data points}}\right)} \div \text{BW} \quad \text{Eq4.}$$

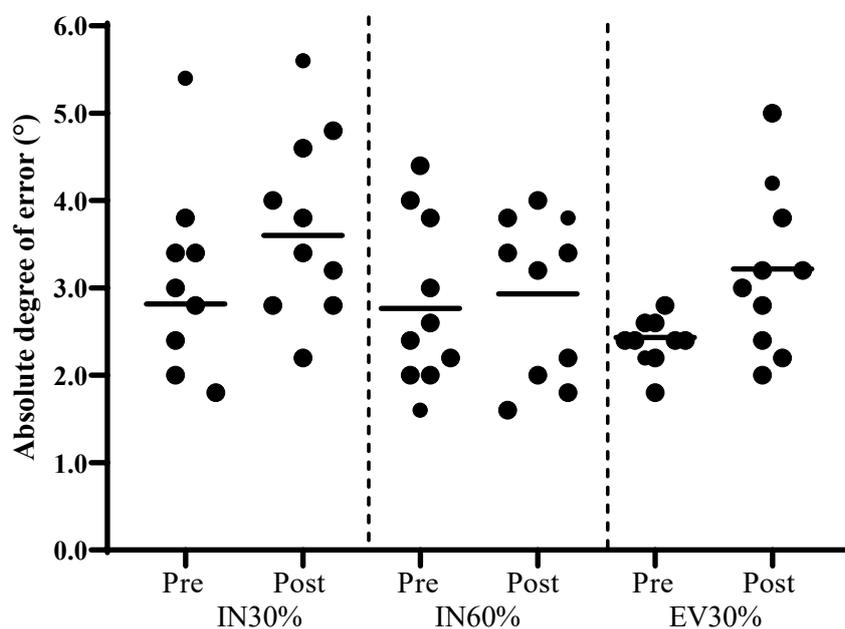
Statistical Analysis

Mean \pm SD for each dependant variable (DV) were calculated (Figure 1 and Table 1). Each DV was examined for normality. Data were analysed from the dominant limb only and averaged across three-trials for each JPS condition. A series of paired samples t-tests were conducted to determine differences in JPS data and differences in dynamic postural stability (pre vs post foot-drill). Cohens d effects sizes were also calculated using the following criteria (0.2= small, 0.5= medium, 0.8= large, >0.8= very large) (Cohen, 1988). Statistical significance was accepted as $p \leq 0.05$.

245 Results

246 *Joint Positional Sense (JPS)*

247 Figure 1 shows the mean absolute JPS error for each test angle pre - post foot-drill. Significant
248 increases in IN30% (mean difference = 0.78 °, p = 0.019, d = 0.76) and EV30% (mean
249 difference = 0.78 °, p = 0.024, d = 1.18) were observed post foot-drill. There was no significant
250 change in IN60% values (mean difference = 0.17 °, p = 0.668, d = 0.19).



251

252 **Figure 1:** Absolute degree of error (°) for IN30%, IN60% and EV30% pre - post foot-drill.
253 Mean data is shown by a solid horizontal line. * denotes a significant increase in JPS score
254 post foot-drill.

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257 *Dynamic Postural Stability Index (DPSI)*

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259 The DPSI and its directional components quantified dynamic postural stability during a
260 forward (A/P) and lateral (M/L) jump-landing. Table 2 shows the A/P jump-landing condition,
261 MLSI (p < 0.001, d = 6.45), APSI (p < 0.001, d = 10.46) and DPSI (p = 0.006, d = 0.70) were

262 significantly greater post foot-drill. Similarly, MLSI ($p < 0.001$, $d = 13.38$), APSI ($p < 0.001$,
 263 $d = 5.38$) and DPSI ($p = 0.017$, $d = 0.52$) were significantly greater post foot-drill for the M/L
 264 jump landing condition. There were no significant changes in VSI for the A/P ($p = 0.906$, $d =$
 265 0.03) or M/L jump-landing conditions ($p = 0.871$, $d = 0.03$).

266

267 **Table 2.** Normalised mean \pm SD for DPSI and stability indices pre - post foot-drill for M/L
 268 and A/P jump-landing conditions (A/P=anterior-posterior, M/L=medio-lateral). ^adenotes a
 269 significant difference from pre-values ($p < 0.05$); mean \pm SD percentage change (% Δ).

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Jump Condition	Stability Index				DPSI
		MLSI	APSI	VSI	
M/L Jump	Pre	0.019 \pm 0.002	0.008 \pm 0.003	0.289 \pm 0.033	0.284 \pm 0.032
	Post	0.097 \pm 0.008 ^a	0.035 \pm 0.007 ^a	0.290 \pm 0.041	0.308 \pm 0.039 ^a
	% Δ (pre-post)	433.0 \pm 88.2	410.4 \pm 147.6	0.4 \pm 8.4	6.6 \pm 8.1
A/P Jump	Pre	0.006 \pm 0.001	0.023 \pm 0.002	0.304 \pm 0.037	0.305 \pm 0.037
	Post	0.028 \pm 0.005 ^a	0.121 \pm 0.013 ^a	0.305 \pm 0.033	0.329 \pm 0.033 ^a
	% Δ (pre-post)	382.2 \pm 100.8	422.0 \pm 67.0	0.8 \pm 9.0	8.7 \pm 9.0

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275 Discussion

276 This is the first study to examine potential deficits in lower-extremity neuromuscular function
 277 measured by passive JPS of the ankle and dynamic postural stability following a period of
 278 British Army foot-drill. In agreement with our hypothesis, significantly greater absolute JPS
 279 error was observed for IN30% and EV30% post foot-drill, demonstrating a medium to large
 280 effect of foot-drill on smaller ($d \geq 0.76$) versus larger ($d = 0.19$) JPS test angles. Participants
 281 demonstrated a 28% and 32% increase in absolute JPS error post foot-drill for IN30% and
 282 EV30%, respectively. Although an increase in absolute JPS error for IN60% (6%) was

283 observed, no significant differences were reported and the size of the effect was considered
284 trivial. Significantly greater GRF variability following foot-drill in DPSI, MLSI and APSI for
285 both the M/L and A/P jump-landing conditions was observed. The magnitude of differences
286 (%) in pre-post foot-drill measures of dynamic postural stability were very high (see Table 2),
287 with effect sizes ranging from medium to very large ($d = 0.52 - 13.38$). The differences in the
288 composite DPSI (an overall score reflective of changes in directional components) are likely
289 from changes in the APSI and MLSI, as no significant differences were observed for VSI post
290 foot-drill for either of the jump-landing conditions. It is acknowledged that efficient movement
291 execution requires an adequate postural stability (Massion et al., 2004). Similarly, the
292 significance of balance to joint function, stability and injury prevention is well documented
293 (Twist et al., 2008)

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295 Ankle injury is among the most common MSK injuries reported in athletes and Army recruits
296 during routine training conditions (Andersen *et al.*, 2016). Joint position sense is commonly
297 used as a functional measure of proprioception as it plays a key role in maintaining dynamic
298 stability of lower-extremity joints and has been shown to predict ankle injury in uninjured
299 athletes (Payne et al., 1997; Willems *et al.*, 2005). Although acute trauma is a key factor in
300 some injury cases, resulting in high rates of recurrence, frequently leading to disruption of
301 ligamentous joint afferents and loss of proprioceptive acuity (Willems *et al.*, 2002; Røijezon et
302 al., 2015), many lower-extremity injuries reported in BT result from the cumulative effects of
303 microtraumatic forces associated with overtraining, repetitive and high impact movements,
304 extreme joint positions and prolonged static positioning (Hauret *et al.*, 2010; Mohammadi *et*
305 *al.*, 2013). This is common for British Army foot-drill, involving long and frequent periods of
306 static upright positioning and impacting the ground repeatedly with extreme joint positions
307 (i.e., extended-knee landings while intentionally mitigating hip and knee flexion at impact).

308 Studies investigating changes in lower-extremity neuromuscular function relative to military
309 specific exercises are limited. However, to the authors knowledge, only one other study has
310 investigated changes in absolute JPS error following military specific exercise. Mohammadi et
311 al., (2013) reported significantly greater absolute JPS error of the ankle joint (using similar
312 methods) in military conscripts immediately following military specific exercise. In our study,
313 participants demonstrated a 0.78° increase in absolute JPS error for both IN30% and EV30%
314 following foot-drill, with medium-to-large effect sizes. Similarly, Mohammadi *et al.*, (2013)
315 reported significant differences and large effect sizes for increases in absolute JPS error of
316 0.70° immediately post military specific exercise. It was further (descriptively) reported that
317 conscripts who sustained an injury after 8- weeks of BT (hamstring and ankle sprains, ACL
318 rupture and stress fracture of the metatarsals) demonstrated significantly greater absolute JPS
319 error (mean $\Delta = 2^\circ$) compared to uninjured conscripts. Indeed, deficits in proprioception are
320 shown to be predictive of injury in uninjured, physically active populations (Payne et al., 1997).
321 However, due to insufficient study power (i.e., small sample) reported by Mohammadi *et al.*,
322 (2013), it is unknown whether an increase in absolute JPS error is predictive of ankle MSK
323 injury in military recruits during BT. Additionally, the specific type of military exercises that
324 led to reductions in ankle JPS acuity were not reported, and in turn, limits our understanding
325 of the potential effects of common military specific exercises on injury risk. We must consider
326 that although a significant increase in JPS error was observed post foot-drill, this increase was
327 $<1^\circ$ and the clinical implications of this small increase in absolute JPS error remain unclear.

328

329 We were unable to determine the precise mechanisms associated with the greater and lower
330 absolute JPS error for IN/EV30% and IN60% respectively, post foot-drill. However, we
331 postulate that the losses in JPS acuity observed for IN/EV30% are associated with the effects
332 of fatigue from foot-drill (Forestier et al., 2002; South and George, 2007; Mohammadi *et al.*,

333 2013). Specifically, it is probable that a combination of both central and peripheral mechanisms
334 contributed to exacerbating JPS performance post foot-drill. Research indicates that muscle
335 spindles and Golgi tendon organs (GTO) may become desensitised as a result of fatiguing
336 (Röijezon et al., 2015; Clark et al., 2015; Johanson *et al.*, 2011). These intramuscular receptors
337 play a key role in controlling joint position and movement; therefore, it is plausible that foot-
338 drill may have led to reduced intramuscular (afferent) receptor activity of stabilising structures
339 which led to significant reductions in JPS acuity for smaller test angles compared to larger test
340 angles (Röijezon et al., 2015; Twist et al., 2008; Allen and Proske, 2006).

341

342 Comparable to our study, South and George, (2007) reported no significant mean differences
343 in absolute JPS error for larger (90% of ROM) IN test angles pre-post fatiguing activity. A
344 possible explanation for the smaller absolute JPS error (0.16°) observed for IN60% post foot-
345 drill may be due to greater joint torque found with greater test angle positions. Studies show
346 that as joint torque demand increases, there is a high potential to increase proprioceptive acuity
347 (Bullock-Saxton et al., 2001; Suprak *et al.*, 2007; Lyons, 2017). In our study, it is possible that
348 the added weight from the foot-plate (and gravity) combined with the greater test angle of
349 IN60% produced a greater theoretical moment arm, resulting in greater joint torque and tension
350 of surrounding muscles. With increased joint torque, an increase in muscle activation
351 (specifically alpha and gamma motor neurons) is observed, thereby increasing the sensitivity
352 of intramuscular receptors (i.e., GTO) that relay proprioceptive feedback during movement.
353 Test angles near to maximum ROM (i.e., 90%IN/EV) are defined as extreme test angles and
354 are considered a limitation due to the effect of additional sensory input from cutaneous
355 receptors on the ability to reproduce the test angle (Burke et al., 1988). The average IN/EV
356 ROM has been identified as 30° and 18° , respectively (Ball and Johnson, 1996). In our study,
357 we employed test angles of IN60% and IN/EV30% of each participants ROM, which

358 corresponds to an approximate 18° IN and 9° EV test angle based on the average IN/EV ROM.
359 Although IN60% is not considered an extreme test angle, this test angle lies much closer to the
360 ankles average end ROM. Therefore, the reduced absolute JPS error for IN60% observed in
361 our study is likely associated with increased muscle activation from greater joint torque demand
362 at this position. Furthermore, these data suggest, in part, that as inversion angles approach their
363 end ROM, an individual's JPS acuity will improve (i.e., reduced absolute JPS error).

364

365 To date, no study has quantified changes in measures of dynamic postural stability post military
366 specific exercise. However, changes in dynamic postural stability have been reported for
367 military related tasks. Sell et al., (2013) reported significantly greater stability index scores
368 with the addition of body armour. Increases were identified in all stability indices, including
369 VSI, indicating that with the addition of tactical body armour (~12kg) greater GRF variability
370 is observed, inferring diminished dynamic postural stability. In our study, no significant
371 changes in the VSI were found, only significantly greater stability index scores (reflecting
372 greater GRFs) were observed for MLSI, APSI and DPSI for both the M/L and A/P jump landing
373 conditions. The greater stability index scores observed post foot-drill for MLSI and APSI
374 during the M/L and A/P jump landing condition respectively, may have placed participants
375 closer to their limits of stability, reflecting greater displacement of the centre of mass and
376 necessitating greater frontal and sagittal plane control (Meardon et al., 2016). As mentioned
377 earlier, differences in the composite DPSI appear to largely reflect changes in the APSI and
378 MLSI as no differences in VSI were observed post foot-drill. The significantly greater VSI
379 reported by Sell et al., (2013) is likely related to the additional load from the body armour.
380 However, it is possible that changes in dynamic postural stability reported in our study may be
381 due, in part, to the effects of fatigue resulting in potential changes in muscle activation patterns
382 and lower-extremity jump-landing kinematics (Meardon et al., 2016; Sell *et al.*, 2013;

383 Wikstrom *et al.*, 2005). Indeed, the effects of fatigue on lower-extremity kinematics during
384 jump-landing activities has been well reported in athletic females (Benjaminse *et al.*, 2007;
385 Cortes *et al.*, 2013; Lessi *et al.*, 2017; Luccia *et al.*, 2011). Since lower-extremity kinematic
386 and EMG data were not collected during our study, we cannot confirm whether increased
387 dynamic postural stability index scores (inferring impaired stability) observed post foot-drill
388 was related to the effects of fatigue on landing kinematics and muscle activation patterns.
389 Therefore, further research is warranted to elucidate these claims.

390

391 A greater dynamic postural stability index infers increased GRF variability during stabilisation
392 following a landing task (Wikstrom *et al.*, 2005). Greater stability indices are typically
393 considered as an indicator of poorer postural stability and impaired neuromuscular function
394 (Sell *et al.*, 2013). This presumption is supported by others reporting increased variability with
395 increased balance task demand (Goldie *et al.*, 1989). Additionally, increased dynamic postural
396 stability has been identified as a risk factor for lower-extremity MSK injury and shown to
397 predict injury in uninjured athletic populations (McGuine *et al.*, 2000; Trojian and McKeag,
398 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2006; Willems and Mahieu, 2005). Recently, traditional perspectives of
399 increased variability within biological systems has been challenged based on non-linear
400 dynamics, commonly referred to as the chaos theory, which associates high variability with a
401 more functional and adaptable system (Van Emmerik and Van Wegen, 2002; (Meardon,
402 Klusendorf and Kernozek, 2016). Therefore, it is recommended that the interpretation of these
403 variability measures be considered in conjunction with other validated measures of
404 neuromuscular function.

405

406 A number of limitations of this study are acknowledged. In our study, we did not collect data
407 on repeated measures of JPS and dynamic postural stability to quantify the transient effects of
408 foot-drill on neuromuscular function. However, based on the literature, it is possible that
409 military recruits may experience prolonged impairments in neuromuscular function as a
410 consequence of foot-drill training (Paschalis *et al.*, 2007; Yaggie and McGregor, 2002). As
411 such, further research is warranted to determine the extent of change in joint movement and
412 position as these results may have important implications for subsequent skill-based military
413 activities (i.e., obstacle course), scheduling of high intense training and recovery sessions, and
414 injury risk.

415

416 Although foot-drill is considered an injury risk factor in both men and women, our study did
417 not compare pre-post foot-drill measures of JPS and dynamic postural stability between sex.
418 However, women generally demonstrate greater risk and incidence of injury compared to their
419 male counterparts (Wikstrom *et al.*, 2006), and research investigating female specific injury
420 risk factors associated with the demands of foot-drill and other occupational military activities
421 are limited, despite the growing role of women in the Armed Forces.

422

423 Impaired neuromuscular function has been shown to alter lower-extremity kinematics
424 associated with injury risk (Benjaminse *et al.*, 2007; Cortes *et al.*, 2013; Lessi *et al.*, 2017;
425 Luccia *et al.*, 2011). Unfortunately, we did not collect data on lower-extremity kinematics and
426 muscle activation patterns, nor did we determine the level of fatigue of participants post foot-
427 drill. In our study, the effects of fatigue have been implicated in the greater absolute JPS error
428 and dynamic postural stability observed post foot-drill. Given that fatigue is associated with
429 reductions in neuromuscular function and altered lower-extremity biomechanics, further study

430 is warranted to better understand the extent of change in predictors of injury risk following
431 foot-drill with participants in a fatigued state, as losses in neuromuscular function may be
432 exacerbated which has implications for additional risk and increased severity of injury.

433

434 Conclusion

435 Significantly greater absolute JPS error and dynamic postural stability was observed in a cohort
436 of female participants following a period of British Army foot-drill, as evidenced by greater
437 absolute JPS error and increased GRF variability in MLSI, APSI and DPSI for the M/L and
438 A/P jump-landing conditions. Irrespective of sex, increased absolute JPS error and dynamic
439 postural stability has been identified as risk factors for lower-extremity MSK injury and shown
440 to predict injury in uninjured populations. As such, our study suggests that following a period
441 of British Army foot-drill, female recruits may be at an increased risk of lower-extremity injury
442 due to reductions in neuromuscular function observed post foot-drill. These results have
443 implications for subsequent skill-based military activities and scheduling of high intense
444 training and recovery sessions, and injury risk.

445

446 Understanding the risk of injury associated with the demands of occupational military activities
447 using robust methodology (i.e., randomised controlled trials) is very difficult to implement in
448 a military setting, due to the additional burden and disruption to military training programmes,
449 while controlling for many other confounding factors that are likely to contribute to the risk of
450 injury during BT.

451

452

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