Accepted Manuscript

Regular Article

Effects of dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position on blood glucose levels among young adult women wearing a maternity simulation jacket

Kumiko Ono¹*, Mao Nishida², Junya Okagawa¹, Ryoga Yamau¹, and Yuto Nakayama¹

¹ Kobe University Graduate School of Health Sciences, 7-10-2 Tomogaoka, Suma, Kobe,

Hyogo, Japan

² Kobe University School of Medicine Faculty of Health Sciences, 7-10-2 Tomogaoka,

Suma, Kobe, Hyogo, Japan

Number of tables and figures: 1 and 6

Running title: Dynamic stretch effect on blood glucose during maternity simulation

*Corresponding author: <u>onoku@tiger.kobe-u.ac.jp</u>

Abstract

During pregnancy, physiological insulin resistance increases due to endocrine factors secreted by the placenta. Gestational diabetes mellitus is an example of a common complication arising from this phenomenon, for which exercise therapy is used as standard treatment. While the acute effects of static stretching on blood glucose levels are known, the effects of dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position are unclear. This study investigated the effects of dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position on blood glucose levels in young adult women with post-load hyperglycemia wearing a maternity simulation jacket. We included 11 healthy women in the luteal phase of their menstrual cycles with blood glucose levels >140 mg/dL 30 min after glucose loading. Four exercise conditions were established: bed-stretching (BSt) involving dynamic stretching in a seated, supine, or lateral position, standing-stretching (SSt) involving dynamic stretching in a standing position, walking (W) involving treadmill walking at a comfortable speed, and control (C) involving sitting at rest. After fasting for 10–14 h, blood glucose levels were measured using self-monitoring blood glucose at baseline and every 15 min for 120 min thereafter. In the BSt and W conditions, the blood glucose levels, peaks, and area under the curve at 45 and 60 min after glucose loading were significantly lower than those in the C condition. Therefore, dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position suppressed blood glucose level elevation after glucose loading in young adult women with post-load hyperglycemia wearing a maternity simulation jacket.

Keywords: dynamic stretching, maternity simulation jacket, post-load hyperglycemia

「妊婦体験ジャケットを着用した若年成人女性における 臥位または座位での動的ストレッチングが血糖値に及ぼす影響」 小野くみ子¹*、西田眞緒²、岡川隼也¹、山卯涼我¹、中山優豊¹ ¹神戸大学大学院保健学研究科パブリックヘルス領域 ²神戸大学医学部保健学科理学療法学専攻

妊娠時、胎盤から分泌される内分泌因子によって生理的インスリン 抵抗性が亢 進される。それによる妊娠合併症の代表例として妊娠糖尿病があり、治療の代表 例として運動療法が用いられる。静的ストレッチングの血糖値に対する急性効 果は知られているが、座位または臥位での動的ストレッチングの効果は明らか ではない。本研究では、座位または臥位での動的ストレッチングの血糖値への影 響を明らかにすることを目的とした。本研究では、妊婦体験ジャケットを着用し た負荷後高血糖の若年成人女性において、座位または臥位での動的ストレッチ ングが血糖値に及ぼす影響を検討した。対象は、月経周期の黄体期にあり、ブド ウ糖負荷 30 分後の血糖値が 140mg/dl を超える健康な女性 11 名とした。運動 条件は、座位または臥位で動的ストレッチングを行う BSt 条件、立位で動的ス トレッチングを行う SSt 条件、快適な速度でトレッドミル歩行を行う W 条件、 安静座位を保持する C 条件の4 種類とした。10~14 時間の絶食後、ベースライ ン時およびその後 120 分間 15 分ごとに自己血糖測定法を用いて血糖値を測定 した。BSt および W 条件では、グルコース負荷後 45 分および 60 分の血糖値、 糖負荷後ピーク血糖値、iAUC が C 条件よりも有意に低かった。したがって、立 位、歩行、安静時に比べ、座位または臥位での動的ストレッチングは、妊婦体験 ジャケットを着用した負荷後高血糖の若年成人女性において、ブドウ糖負荷後 の血糖値上昇を抑制した。

1 Introduction

2 During pregnancy, the placenta secretes various endocrine factors, such as estrogen and 3 progesterone, that alter autonomic nervous system activity and cellular glucose uptake, causing increased heart rate, psychological stress, physiological insulin resistance, and 4 postprandial hyperglycemia (1, 2). Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) is a typical 5 6 complication of pregnancy with a global standardized prevalence of 14.7% in the Western 7 Pacific region as of 2021 (3). A meta-analysis evaluating more than 1.3 million individuals reported that the incidence of type 2 diabetes was approximately 10 times 8 higher in women with a history of GDM than those with normoglycemic levels (4). 9 Currently, exercise, such as walking or aerobics, is generally recommended to treat 10 GDM and improve hyperglycemia. However, although public health guidelines advise 11 12 that adults engage in 30-150 min of moderate-intensity exercise at approximately 60% heart rate reserve (HRR) or 50-60% maximal oxygen uptake (VO2max) per week, the 13 14 rate of achievement remains low (5, 6). Stretching is generally recommended as a form of low-intensity exercise and can be divided into two main categories: static and dynamic. 15 16 Stretching can be performed in a standing, sitting, or supine position. However, pregnant 17 women are prone to back pain while standing because of uterine expansion and lumbar 18 kyphosis, which shift the center of gravity forward and increases pressure on the lower

19	back (7). Reports indicate that habitually implemented stretching performed in a seated
20	or supine position can be effective in treating back pain and preventing GDM and
21	preeclampsia in pregnant women with sedentary behavior (8, 9). Dynamic stretching
22	involves active movements that elongate the target muscle through isotonic contraction
23	of the antagonist muscle, whereas static stretching involves holding a stretched position
24	for a specific duration. Various studies have addressed the acute effects of static stretching
25	on lowering blood glucose after glucose loading (10, 11). The mechanisms by which
26	dynamic stretching improves muscular performance have been suggested to be elevated
27	muscle and body temperature, post-activation potentiation in the stretched muscle caused
28	by voluntary contractions of the antagonist, stimulation of the nervous system, and/or
29	decreased inhibition of antagonist muscles (12). Considering these facts, we hypothesized
30	that dynamic stretching may be one of the potential safety exercise therapies that can
31	contribute to the suppression of blood glucose level elevation after glucose loading.
32	Therefore, this study aimed to clarify the effects of dynamic stretching in a seated or
33	supine position on blood glucose levels and compare the effects with those observed while
34	sitting at rest, dynamic stretching in a standing position, and walking. Moreover, young
35	adult normoglycemic women were included to provide a basis for proposing an effective
36	exercise regimen for patients with GDM.

38 Materials and Methods

39 Participants

37

This study included young adult women with a fasting blood glucose level <110 mg/dL 40 and a blood glucose level of ≥140 mg/dL 30 min after consuming 500 mL of a 41 42 commercially-available glucose-loaded beverage (200 kcal/50 g carbohydrate/0 g 43 protein/0 g fat; Fanta Grape, The Coca-Cola (Japan) Company, Shibuya, Tokyo, Japan). The blood glucose management target for pregnant women with diabetes is to achieve a 44 postprandial hourly value of less than 140 mg/dL, and participants were screened for 45 46 possible deviations from the target level (13). Since the purpose of this study was not to diagnose diabetes, and merely aimed to obtain basic data on non-pregnant healthy women, 47 48 the glucose load was reduced from 75 g with side effects such as nausea to 50g, 49 commercial beverages were used, which are available to everyone. The exclusion criteria were musculoskeletal diseases, comorbid medical conditions, medium- or high-dosage 50 pill (Estrogen-Progesteron) usage, premenstrual syndrome that hinders exercise, and 51 52 irregular menstruation (defined as deviating from the following Japanese Society of 53 Obstetrics and Gynecology criteria: menstrual cycle, 25-38 days; menstruation duration, 3-7 days). Among the 13 participants screened, 11 met the eligibility criteria and were 54

55	included in the study. The participants had a mean age of 22.2±1.0 years, height of
56	159.7 \pm 5.4 cm, weight of 52.6 \pm 5.2 kg, and body mass index (BMI) of 20.6 \pm 1.6 kg/m ² .
57	The full demographic, clinical, and exercise-related characteristics of the participants are
58	shown in Table 1.
59	[Insert Table 1 here]
60	A sample size of 8 participants was calculated using G*Power 3.1.9.4 (effect size f:
61	0.25, α err prob: 0.05 and Power (1- β err prob): 0.95), but set at approximately 10 to
62	account for drop-outs since the participants were asked to take part in the study five times.
63	This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Health Sciences, Graduate School
64	of Health Sciences, Kobe University (approval no. 1093) and performed in accordance
65	with the Declaration of Helsinki. The purpose, content, and risks of the study were fully
66	explained orally and in writing to the participants, and written consent was obtained
67	before the study was conducted.

68

69 *Study protocol*

The exercises were performed under the four following conditions after glucose loading: bed-stretching (BSt), in which participants performed dynamic stretching in a supine, lateral, or seated position; standing-stretching (SSt), in which participants performed dynamic stretching in a standing position; walking (W), in which participants walked on a treadmill at a comfortable speed; and control (C), in which the participants remained in a seated resting position. The order of experimentation for the four conditions was randomly assigned to each participant using a random number table to conduct a randomized crossover study design. Each condition was performed at the same time of day on different days, at least two days apart.

79

80 Luteal phase estimation

To mimic the hormonal dynamics of gestation, all experimental schedules were conducted during the post-ovulatory luteal phase of the participant's menstrual cycles, when progesterone levels were highest (*14*). No measurements of various hormone concentrations were taken. The participants underwent daily basal body temperature charting. After determining the point at which the basal body temperature increased after a low-temperature phase, which is generally used as an indicator of ovulation, the luteal phase was estimated and the dates of each experiment were scheduled.

88

89 Experimental procedure

90 After fasting for a duration of 10–14 h, electrodes were placed on the participant's chest

91	and an electrocardiogram was recorded while wearing a maternity simulation jacket (LM-
92	054; Koken Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) (Fig. 2). Generally, a total of three blood tests,
93	including blood glucose measurements, are performed during antenatal checkups in the
94	first, second, and third trimesters of pregnancy. To investigate effective exercises for
95	preventing GDM, we selected the mid-pregnancy period, when a higher percentage of
96	pregnant women can comfortably ingest food after symptoms such as morning sickness
97	have subsided. In addition, the percentage of high blood glucose levels increases as the
98	gestational period progresses, however, the fact that there is no difference in pregnancy
99	and delivery outcomes associated with appropriate interventions, that approximately half
100	of those diagnosed with GDM in early pregnancy have no GDM pattern in second
101	trimester, and that the majority of abortions are in first trimester, indicates the importance
102	of interventions using physical activity from the middle of pregnancy onwards. Second
103	trimester was set because it was considered to be more important (15, 16). Additionally,
104	the weight of the jacket was set to 4.2 kg to reflect mid-pregnancy. Next, the finger-C7
105	distance, which is the distance from the spinous process of the 7th cervical vertebra (C7)
106	to the apex of the thumb when the upper limb is rotated from behind and below the trunk,
107	was measured in the sitting position, while the knee socket angle was measured in the
108	supine position as an index of range of joint motion (ROM). The fasting blood glucose

109	level was measured while sitting at rest for 15 min. The degree of lower back pain was
110	assessed using a visual analog scale (VAS). Baseline cardiac parasympathetic nervous
111	system (PNS) activity was also measured by electrocardiography. Then, the designated
112	glucose-loaded beverage was consumed over a 10 min period. The rate of perceived
113	exertion (RPE) was measured in the upper extremities, trunk, and lower extremities in the
114	BSt and SSt conditions using the Borg Scale, and after each minute in the W condition.
115	Back pain was measured using the VAS during the rest period between sets. The heart
116	rate was continuously measured during the experiment, and self-monitoring of blood
117	glucose (SMBG) was measured using a blood glucose meter (One Touch Ultra View,
118	LifeScan Japan, Inc., Tokyo, Japan) on nine occasions: immediately before glucose
119	loading and every 15 min after glucose loading for a total of 120 min. Cardiac PNS
120	activity was measured in a sitting position while controlling respiration (inhaling and
121	exhaling for 2 s each) using an electronic metronome for 5 min. High-frequency (HF)
122	components of heartbeat variability within 0.15-0.40 Hz were recorded using a real-time
123	heartbeat fluctuation analysis program (MemCalc/Tarawa, Suwa Trust, Tokyo, Japan).
124	[Insert Fig. 1 and 2 here]

125 Condition setting

126 The BSt and SSt conditions, each comprising 13 dynamic stretching exercises involving

127	the neck, upper limbs, trunk, and lower limbs, were performed at a speed determined by
128	a metronome and within each participant's full ROM as follows: one set of 14 min, a 10-
129	s rest between stretches, and a 2-min rest between sets. The BSt condition was conducted
130	in a supine, lateral, or end-sitting position on a bed, while the SSt condition was conducted
131	in a standing position on a hard surface with a handrail for assistance, if needed. While
132	under the W condition, participants walked on a treadmill and were asked to indicate their
133	Borg RPE every 1 min. The treadmill walking speed and inclination angle were adjusted
134	to correspond to an RPE of 11 (easy). The C condition involved resting for 30 min in an
135	end-sitting position.

136 [Insert Fig. 3 here]

137 Statistical analysis

All measurements are shown as the mean \pm standard deviation, with the exception of RPE (median \pm standard error). The incremental area under the blood glucose response curve (iAUC) from immediately before and 120 min after the start of glucose loading was calculated using the trapezoidal method. Cardiac PNS activity was calculated as the natural log-transformed value of the HF (LnHF). Changes in VAS scores were calculated as the difference in back pain during and before the intervention (Δ during intervention) and the difference in back pain after and before the intervention (Δ after intervention).

145	Two-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to
146	determine the condition and time effects for blood glucose, LnHF, finger-C7 distance, and
147	knee ROM angle <2 h after the start of glucose loading. One-way repeated-measures
148	ANOVA was performed for low VAS change, post-loading peak blood glucose, iAUC,
149	and exercise intensity (%HRR). Mauchly's sphericity test was used to validate the
150	ANOVA. If the assumption of sphericity was rejected ($p<0.05$), the epsilon was adjusted
151	using the Greenhouse–Geisser method. The Holm method was used for post-hoc analysis.
152	All statistical analyses were performed using R for Windows (version 4.1.2; R Core Team,
153	Vienna, Austria). P-values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.
154	
155	Results
156	RPE was 11±0.4, 11±0.3, and 11±0.1 in the BSt, SSt, and W conditions, respectively.
157	Exercise intensity (%HRR) was -0.83% in the C condition, 7.84% in the BSt condition,
158	14.7% in the SSt condition, and 21.5% in the W condition (p<0.01, partial η^2 =0.79,
159	F=36.8, df=10). Regarding exercise intensity, post-hoc analysis revealed that the BSt
160	condition was significantly lower than the SSt and W conditions, the SSt condition was

- 161 significantly lower than the W condition, and the C condition was significantly lower than
- 162 the other three conditions (all p < 0.05).

163	The blood glucose levels of all participants are shown in Fig. 4. Under all conditions,
164	blood glucose levels increased after the start of glucose loading, peaked at 30 min, and
165	decreased until 120 min after the start of glucose loading at the final measurement.
166	Moreover, we found significant differences in the time ($p<0.01$), condition ($p<0.001$), and
167	interaction (p<0.001, <i>partial</i> η^2 =0.46, F=8.39, df=24). Regarding blood glucose levels
168	measured after the start of glucose loading, post-test analysis revealed that the BSt
169	condition was significantly lower than the C condition at 30, 45, and 60 min and the W
170	condition at 60 min, the W condition was significantly lower than the C condition at 30,
171	45, and 75 min, while the SSt condition was significantly lower at 45 and 60 min than the
172	C condition (all p<0.05).

173 [Insert Fig. 4 here]

The iAUCs for each condition are shown in Fig. 5. There was a significant difference in the main effect of conditions (p<0.01, *partial* $\eta^2=0.52$, F=10.87, df=1.61), with posthoc analysis revealing that the BSt and W conditions were significantly lower than the C condition (p<0.05).

178 [Insert Fig. 5 here]

The post-loading peak blood glucose levels in each condition showed a significant difference in the main effect of conditions (p<0.01, *partial* η^2 =0.40, F=6.65, df=3), with 181 post-hoc analysis revealing that the BSt (147.4±18.6 mg/dL) and W (142.6±11.4 mg/dL) 182 conditions were significantly lower than the C (171.6±21.1 mg/dL) condition (all p<0.05). No significant inter-condition differences in LnHF were found over time before and 183 184 after the intervention or in the main effect of conditions and interaction effects. The changes in VAS scores for back pain under each condition are shown in Figure 6. No 185 significant differences in the main effect of conditions during and after the intervention 186 187 (Δ intervention: p=0.12, η^2 =0.13, F=2.61, df=1.40; Δ post-intervention: p=0.056, η^2 =0.21, F=4.06, df=1.32) were found. 188 [Insert Fig. 6 here] 189

The finger-C7 distance in each condition showed significant differences in the main time and interaction effects (p=0.05, *partial* η^2 =0.33, F=4.96, df=2.51), but not in the main effect of conditions. Post-test analysis showed a significant increase in ROM from pre-intervention (11.4±4.4 cm) to post-intervention (9.7±3.6 cm) in the BSt condition (p<0.05), but not in the SSt condition.

- 195 No significant differences in knee socket angles in each condition over time before and
- 196 after the intervention or in main condition and interaction effects were found.
- 197

198 Discussion

199	This study examined the effects of dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position on
200	blood glucose levels in young adult women with post-load hyperglycemia wearing
201	maternity simulation jackets. We found that participants in the BSt condition compared
202	to the C condition had significantly lower blood glucose levels at 30, 45, and 60 min after
203	glucose loading, blood glucose peaks after glucose loading, and iAUC (p<0.05). These
204	results are similar to those obtained in the W condition. Postprandial hyperglycemia and
205	blood glucose spikes <2 h after consuming food are considered risk factors for
206	cardiometabolic disorders not only in patients with diabetes, but also in healthy
207	individuals (17, 18, 19). The present study showed that exercising under the BSt condition
208	could effectively resolve post-load glucose spikes and reduce the increase in blood
209	glucose within 120 min after glucose loading compared with the controls. In contrast, the
210	iAUC and blood glucose levels at 60 min after initiating glucose loading were not
211	significantly different in the SSt condition than those in the C condition. During acute
212	exercise or stretching, skeletal muscle contraction causes glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4)
213	translocation to the plasma membrane (20) and activates insulin-independent glucose
214	transport, ultimately promoting glucose uptake and improving glycemic control (11, 21).
215	The reason why the blood glucose trend was significantly higher at the end of the exercise
216	(45 minutes) compared to the BSt condition is that the exercise intensity was significantly

217	higher in the W condition than in the other conditions, although the RPE was the same
218	(in terms of perception), and the load applied to the front of the trunk required the
219	participant to contract muscles that would not contract in the non-pregnant state, this may
220	be due to the higher heart rate induced by catecholamines and the increase in blood
221	glucose induced by glucocorticoids (22). The BSt condition showed significantly
222	improved ROM before and after the intervention compared to the finger intervertebral
223	distance, suggesting stretching of the target muscle, accompanied by contraction of the
224	antagonist muscle. In contrast, the SSt condition showed no significant difference in pre-
225	and post-intervention finger-C7 distance, and the stretching effect of correcting blood
226	glucose levels was lower than that of the BSt condition. Reports indicate that dynamic
227	balance in the standing position is reduced when wearing a maternity simulation jacket
228	(23); thus, instability may have impacted ROM while stretching under the SSt condition.
229	
230	Although there were no significant inter-condition differences in VAS scores, there was
231	a trend towards reduced back pain after exercise in the BSt condition (Δ post-intervention
232	effect size, $\eta^2=0.21$). Because back pain can hinder physical activity engagement,
233	exercising under the BSt condition may be easily adopted during pregnancy to promote
234	good exercise habits.

235	No significant differences were observed in LnHF, a stress indicator of cardiac PNS
236	activity, either over time or between conditions. Although there are examples of enhanced
237	PNS activity after static stretching and yoga, Farinatti et al. (24) reported that PNS activity
238	in individuals with low flexibility and isometric antagonist muscle contractions during
239	static stretching did not differ significantly before and after the intervention. Moreover,
240	Michael et al. (25) found that PNS activity recovery was delayed after high-intensity
241	exercises and was not significantly different before and after the intervention in pregnant
242	women. Low-intensity exercise that does not decrease PNS activity may be beneficial to
243	reduce stress in pregnant women, whose PNS activity tends to be suppressed due to
244	hormonal changes.
245	These findings suggest that dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position
246	significantly reduced blood glucose levels in young adult women wearing a maternity
247	simulation jacket with post-load hyperglycemia more than when resting, sitting, and

walking. Moreover, stretching in this position improved glycemic control, tended toreduce back pain, and suppressed PNS activity.

250

This study has some limitations. First, since the participants were young adult non-pregnant women, their condition differed from the hormonal dynamics of pregnancy, and

14

253	the results were limited to blood glucose variability during frontal trunk loading. Second,
254	VO2max and energy expenditure were not measured using expiratory gas analysis; hence,
255	exercise intensity was not matched across conditions, making it difficult to examine and
256	directly compare the effects of exercise on blood glucose correction. Lastly, blood glucose
257	data were obtained by SMBG using a glucometer and sensor, which have a specific
258	margin range of error. Therefore, future studies with larger sample sizes should be
259	conducted to validate the results of this study, as well as those examining the effects of
260	different energy expenditure-matched exercise modalities on blood glucose correction
261	and of dynamic stretching in both normo- and hyperglycemic pregnant women.
262	This study found that dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position significantly
263	reduced blood glucose levels and blood glucose peaks within 120 min after glucose
264	loading in young adult women with post-load hyperglycemia wearing a maternity
265	simulation jacket during the luteal phase of their menstrual cycle. This suggests that
266	dynamic stretching in a seated or supine position is superior to exercising while standing
267	and walking in terms of lowering back pain and controlling blood glucose levels in young
268	hyperglycemic women. These findings may also provide a basis for proposing an
269	effective exercise regimen for patients with GDM.

272	OK conceptualized the research design and protocol, and carried out the interpretation of
273	data. NM conceptualized the study design and protocol, collected and assembled the data,
274	and carried out the analysis and interpretation of data. OJ, YY, and YR collected and
275	carried out the interpretation of data. OK and NM drafted the manuscript. All authors
276	have critically reviewed, revised, and approved the manuscript.
277	
278	Clinical trial registration
279	This study was registered with the University Hospital Medical Information Network
280	(UMIN) Clinical Trials Registry (registration number: UMIN000052137).
281	
282	Conflict of Interest
283	All authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this
284	article.
285	
286	Acknowledgements
287	We thank all those who participated in the experiments.

288 References

1) Izumi M, Manabe E, Uematsu S, Watanabe A and Iwasa K. 2019. Autonomic nervous

system activity from gestation to the postpartum period. J JSPOG 24: 149-156. doi:

- 291 10.18977/jspog.24.2_149.
- 292 2) Fukui T and Imoto H. 2019. Practical guide to gestational diabetes care for midwives.
- 293 In: Josanshi no tame no ninshintounyoubyou kea jissen gaido (in Japanese), 13, Ishiyaku
- 294 Publishers Inc., Tokyo, Japan.
- 295 3) Wang, H, Li N, Chivese T, Werfalli M, Sun H, Yuen L, Hoegfeldt CA, Elise Powe C,
- 296 Immanuel J, Karuranga S and Divakar H. 2022. IDF Diabetes Atlas: Estimation of global
- 297 and regional gestational diabetes mellitus prevalence for 2021 by International
- 298 Association of Diabetes in Pregnancy Study Group's Criteria. Diabetes Res Clin Pract
- 299 183: 109050. doi: 10.1016/j.diabres.2021.109050.
- 300 4) Vounzoulaki, E, Khunti K, Abner SC, Tan BK, Davies MJ and Gillies CL. 2020.
- 301 Progression to type 2 diabetes in women with a known history of gestational diabetes:
- 302 Systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ* 369: m1361. doi: 10.1136/bmj.m1361.
- 303 5) Savvaki D, Taousani E, Goulis DG, Tsirou E, Voziki E, Douda H, Nikolettos N and
- 304 Tokmakidis SP. 2018. Guidelines for exercise during normal pregnancy and gestational
- 305 diabetes: A review of international recommendations. Hormones 17: 521-529. doi:

306 10.1007/s42000-018-0085-6.

307 6) Skjold I, Benvenuti MB and Haakstad LA. 2022. Why do so many pregnant women

308 give up exercise? An Italian cross-sectional study. Womens Health (Lond) 18: 1-10. doi:

- 309 10.1177/1745505722111796.
- 310 7) Fiat F, Merghes PE, Scurtu AD, Almajan Guta B, Dehelean CA, Varan N and Bernad
- E. 2022. The main changes in pregnancy-therapeutic approach to musculoskeletal pain.
- 312 *Medicina (Kaunas)* 58:1115. doi: 10.3390/medicina58081115.
- 8) Carvalho AF, Dufresne SS, De Oliveira MR, Furlanetto KC, Dubois M, Dallaire M,
- 314 Ngomo S and da Silva RA. 2020. Effects of lumbar stabilization and muscular stretching
- on pain, disabilities, postural control and muscle activation in pregnant woman with low
- 316 back pain. Eur J Phys Rehabil Med 56: 297-306. doi: 10.23736/S1973-9087.20.06086-4.
- 317 9) Yeo S and Kang JH. 2021. Low-intensity exercise and pregnancy outcomes: An
- 318 examination in the Nurses' Health Study II. Womens Health Rep (New Rochelle) 2: 389-
- 319 395. doi: 10.1089/whr.2021.0011.
- 320 10) Gurudut P and Rajan AP. 2017. Immediate effect of passive static stretching versus
- 321 resistance exercises on postprandial blood sugar levels in type 2 diabetes mellitus: A
- 322 randomized clinical trial. J Exerc Rehabil 13: 581-587. 10.12965/jer.1735032.516.
- 323 11) Nagasawa T and Shiroishi K. 2015. Effect of stretching on suppressing the rise in

- blood glucose levels after a glucose tolerance test and correcting postprandial
 hyperglycaemia. *Ther Res* 36: 673-678.
- 326 12) Behm DG, Chaouachi A. 2011. A review of the acute effects of static and dynamic
- 327 stretching on performance. Eur J Appl Physiol 111: 2633–2651. doi: 10.1007/s00421-
- 328 011-1879-2.
- 329 13) Araki E, Goto A, Kondo T, Noda M, Noto H, Origasa H, Osawa H, Taguchi A,
- 330 Tanizawa Y, Tobe K, Yoshioka N. 2020. Japanese Clinical Practive Guideline for Diabetes
- 331 2019. Diabetology International 11:165-223.
- 14) Okaniwa Y. 2018. Visible Illness: Gynaecology and breast surgery. *Byouki ga mieru*
- 333 Hujinka · Nyuusengeka (in Japanese), 4th edition, 9: 20, Medic Media Co., Ltd., Tokyo,
- 334 Japan.
- 15) Hagiwara Y, Kasai J, Nakanishi S, Saigusa Y, Miyagi E, Aoki S. 2018. Should the
- 336 IADPSG criteria be applied when diagnosing early-onset gestational diabetes? *Diabetes*
- 337 *Res Clin Pract* 140, 154-161, doi: 10.1016/j.diabres.2018.03.048.
- 16) Nakanishi S, Aoki S, Kasai J, Shindo R, Obata S, Hasegawa Y, Mochimaru A, Miyagi
- 339 E. High probability of false-positive gestational diabetes mellitus diagnosis during early
- 340 pregnancy. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care* 8: e001234, doi: 10.1136/bmjdrc-2020-001234.
- 17) Ceriello A and Genovese S. 2016. Atherogenicity of postprandial hyperglycemia and

- 342 lipotoxicity. *Rev Endocr Metab Disord* 17: 111-116. doi: 10.1007/s11154-016-9341-8.
- 18) Haxhi J, Scotto di Palumbo A and Sacchetti M. 2013. Exercising for metabolic
- 344 control: Is timing important? Ann Nutr Metab 62: 14-25. doi: 10.1159/000343788.
- 345 19) Monnier L, Colette C and Owens DR. 2008. Glycemic variability: The third
- 346 component of the dysglycemia in diabetes. Is it important? How to measure it? J Diabetes
- 347 *Sci Technol* 2: 1094-1100. doi: 10.1177/193229680800200618.
- 20) Richter EA and Hargreaves M. 2013. Exercise, GLUT4, and skeletal muscle glucose
- 349 uptake. *Physiol Rev* 93: 993-1017. doi: 10.1152/physrev.00038.2012.
- 21) Park SH. 2015. Effects of passive static stretching on blood glucose levels in patients
- 351 with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Phys Ther Sci* 27: 1463-1465. doi: 10.1589/jpts.27.1463.
- 352 22) translation Suzuki and Onose. 1999. The Adrenocortical hormones. UNIT XIV
- 353 Chapter 77 In: Guyton & Hall : Textbook of Medical Physiology, 9th edition, Japanese
- 354 edition, 967-979, Igaku-Syoin Ltd., Tokyo, Japan.
- 23) Inoue-Hirakawa T, Ito A, Iguchi S, Watanabe H, Kato C, Sugiura H and Suzuki S.
- 356 2021. The effect of simulated gestational weight gain on balance, gait, and fear of falling.
- 357 Nagoya J Med Sci 83: 41-49. doi: 10.18999/nagjms.83.1.41.
- 358 24) Farinatti PT, Brandão C, Soares PP and Duarte AF. 2011. Acute effects of stretching
- 359 exercise on the heart rate variability in subjects with low flexibility levels. J Strength

- 360 *Cond Res* 25: 1579-1585. doi: 10.1519/JSC.0b013e3181e06ce1.
- 361 25) Michael S, Jay O, Graham KS and Davis GM. 2017. Higher exercise intensity delays
- 362 postexercise recovery of impedance-derived cardiac sympathetic activity. Appl Physiol
- 363 Nutr Metab 42: 834-840. doi: 10.1139/apnm-2017-0049.

364 Figure Legends

- 365 Fig. 1: Study details and protocols.
- 366 Fig. 2: The maternity simulation jacket.
- 367 Fig. 3: Blood glucose level measurements from immediately before glucose loading
- 368 to 120 min after the start of glucose loading.
- 369 Blood glucose levels in the bed-stretching (BSt) condition is significantly lower than
- those of the control (C) condition at 30, 45, and 60 min after glucose loading.

371 Fig. 4: Area under the elevated blood glucose concentration curve 120 min after

- 372 glucose loading.
- 373 Blood glucose levels in the bed-stretching (BSt) and walking (W) conditions are
- 374 significantly lower than those of the C conditions.

Fig. 5: Changes in visual analog scale (VAS) scores from baseline back pain levels.

- 376 (A) showed intervention phase. (B) showed after intervention phase. The bed-stretching
- 377 (BSt) condition shows a decreasing trend, but is not significantly different than the other
- 378 conditions.
- 379
- 380

381

382 Tables

383 **Table 1. Characteristics of participants under each condition.**

Number of Participants	11
Age (years old)	22.4 ± 1.0
Height (cm)	159.7 ± 5.4
Body Weight (kg)	$52.6 {\pm} 5.2$
Body Mass Index (kg/m²)	20.6 ± 1.6
Fasting Blood Glucose (mg/dL)	91.1 ± 7.4
Peak Blood Glucose after Glucose Load (mg/dL)	171.6 ± 21.0
Walking Speed (km/h)	3.9 ± 1.0
Walking Slope Angle (%)	1.3 ± 0.8

384

(Mean ± Standard Deviation)

Fig. 1: Study details and protocols



Fig. 2: The maternity simulation jacket







Fig. 4: Blood glucose level measurements from immediately before glucose loading to 120 min after the start of glucose loading



Fig. 5: Area under the elevated blood glucose concentration curve 120 min after glucose loading.



Fig. 6: Changes in visual analog scale (VAS) scores from baseline back pain levels.

