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Compression enhances lower-limb somatosensation in individuals with poor somatosensation, but impairs performance in individuals with good somatosensation

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1 **Title:**

2 Compression enhances lower-limb somatosensation in individuals with poor somatosensation, but impairs
3 performance in individuals with good somatosensation.

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26 remaining authors no conflicts of interest were declared. 2XU had no input in study design, the collection, analysis
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28 authors have no financial or other interest in the production and/or distribution of 2XU products.

29 **Abstract**

30 While research suggests that somatosensation contributes to elite athletic performance, little is known regarding
31 the capacity of ergogenic aids (e.g., compression) to enhance somatosensation. This study assessed the effects of
32 compression socks on functional ankle somatosensory ability, and whether any effects depended on baseline
33 somatosensation or ankle instability. Forty-two participants performed somatosensation testing using the active
34 movement extent discrimination analysis (AMEDA) device, whereby the accuracy that participants could identify
35 repeated ankle inversion movements of different extents were measured. Participants performed the AMEDA test
36 on their ‘stabilising’ and ‘kicking’ legs, with (compression; COMP) and without (barefoot control; CON)
37 compression socks. AMEDA scores were also compared against ankle instability using the Cumberland Ankle
38 Instability Tool (CAIT). There were no condition ($P = 0.417$) or testing-leg ($P = 0.507$) effects for mean AMEDA
39 scores. When participants were ranked into tertiles based on barefoot AMEDA scores, COMP reduced ankle
40 somatosensation in the high tertile ($P \leq 0.003$), and increased ankle somatosensation in the low tertile ($P = 0.023$,
41 stabilising). Compression had no effect ($P > 0.05$) on AMEDA scores when participants were split into ‘low’ and
42 ‘high’ CAIT groups. Wearing compression may amplify sensory input in a way that enhances somatosensation
43 for individuals with poor somatosensation, but overloads input and impairs somatosensation of those with good
44 somatosensation. Screening of barefoot ankle somatosensation may be used to identify individuals who might
45 benefit from using compression to improve ankle somatosensation, such as individuals returning to weight-bearing
46 activity following injury, and/or individuals with diminished somatosensation (e.g., elderly).

47 **Key words:** Neuromuscular control, ankle injury, proprioception, injury prevention

48 **Introduction**

49 Somatosensation is the process of incorporating both proprioceptive and tactile information arising from
50 mechanoreceptors in our skin, muscles, and joints to provide feedback to the central nervous system regarding
51 body position and movements in space ¹. The ability to process this information is more important for skilful tasks
52 than normal activities ², suggesting that somatosensation may contribute to elite athletic performance.
53 Somatosensory sensitivity has been positively correlated with the level of elite athletic competition achieved (i.e.,
54 national ranking), which suggests athletes may have superior somatosensory ability compared with non-athletic
55 controls. In addition, training of the somatosensory system may yield meaningful improvements in somatosensory
56 and sensorimotor function ³, which in turn may aid athletic performance.

57 To date, limited research has directly investigated if compression garments can enhance somatosensation.
58 By applying external pressure to cutaneous surfaces and joint receptors, compression garments are hypothesised
59 to increase mechanoreceptor stimulation and subsequent afferent feedback ⁴. In support of this, the wearing of
60 compression socks ⁵ and arm sleeves ⁶ has been reported to reduce Hoffmann-reflex (H-reflex; a corticospinal
61 neurological examination) ⁷ amplitude following electrical stimulation to the sciatic and median nerves,
62 respectively. These findings indicate that compression garments can alter spinal cord excitability, which may be
63 the result of changes in pre-synaptic Ia afferent transmission, and/or post-synaptic motor-neuron excitability ^{5,6}.
64 As such, and considering tactile and muscle afferent feedback is most important to somatosensory sensitivity ⁸,
65 enhanced cutaneous input via compression may allow better muscle activation and motor control ⁹.

66 In support of the hypothesis that compression can enhance somatosensation, the use of compression
67 garments has been reported to improve performance during tasks or conditions that include a large somatosensory
68 component. For example, compression garments have been reported to enhance hip ¹⁰, knee ¹¹, and elbow ¹² joint
69 position sense, leg swing in participants with low neuromuscular control ¹³, and postural control/balance ¹⁴.
70 Performance benefits have also been reported whilst wearing compression garments, including kicking
71 performance ⁴, baseball pitching and golf shot accuracy ¹⁵, submaximal running economy ¹⁶, and jump
72 performance ¹⁰; these were improvements in which a compression-induced increase in somatosensation was
73 hypothesised to be at least partly responsible. In further support of the hypothesis that compression can enhance
74 somatosensation, Barss et al ⁶ reported an improvement in reaching accuracy when participants wore compression
75 sleeves, highlighting possible adaptations in sensorimotor control. It was hypothesised that compression may
76 “filter” irrelevant mechanoreceptor information, thereby allowing for optimal task-related sensory information to

77 enhance somatosensation⁶. However, compression garments may not enhance somatosensation in all instances.
78 There is data to suggest that individuals with superior somatosensory judgement may experience a reduction in
79 their ability to judge joint position sense when wearing compression garments¹³ or braces^{17,18}, potentially as a
80 result of additional and counterproductive afferent feedback or ‘noise’¹⁸. Currently, there is no research to directly
81 compare the effects of compression garments on somatosensory sensitivity in individuals with varying levels of
82 baseline somatosensation.

83 For activities requiring upright movement/locomotion, the plantar surface of the foot and the ankle joint
84 provide critical tactile afferent feedback regarding the body’s centre of mass, as well as changing underfoot surface
85 characteristics^{19,20}. Improved feedback from this surface (e.g., via compression) may improve foot and ankle
86 positioning, offset the detrimental effects of fatigue on technique and joint sense, and ultimately improve
87 movement efficiency and prevent injury²¹. However, research investigating the effects of compression garments
88 on ankle somatosensation is limited, particularly for ecologically valid movement patterns designed to replicate
89 functional movements. As such, the aim of this study was to assess the effects of commercially available sports
90 compression socks on somatosensory ability at the ankle joint, specifically inversion/eversion movement.
91 Considering ankle instability impairs sensory discrimination²² and active joint position sense²³, this study also
92 aims to compare the effects of compression socks on ankle somatosensation in individuals with and without
93 chronic ankle instability²⁴. Somatosensation was assessed using the active movement extent discrimination
94 apparatus (AMEDA), designed to replicate functional movement (i.e., active, weight-bearing and steady-paced
95 movements, without constraints to non-tested limbs)²⁵. It was hypothesised that compression socks would
96 improve somatosensation (as assessed by the AMEDA), as compared with a barefoot control, consistent with
97 previously-reported beneficial effects of compression on joint position sense and postural control/balance^{10-12,14}.
98 In addition, we hypothesise that compression would improve ankle somatosensation to a greater extent in
99 individuals with poor baseline somatosensation and chronic ankle instability, as compared with individuals with
100 good baseline somatosensation and without symptoms of chronic ankle instability, consistent with previous
101 suggestions^{6,18}.

102 **Materials and Methods**

103 *Participants*

104 Forty-two recreationally active participants (21 male and 21 female; age, 27 ± 4 y; height, 176.4 ± 10.5
105 cm; body mass, 73.8 ± 14.5 kg; physical activity levels, 247 ± 106 min of moderate-to-vigorous exercise per

106 week) completed the study. Both males and females were included in the study as previous research has reported
107 no sex differences in AMEDA-assessed ankle somatosensation ²⁶. Written informed consent was obtained prior
108 to participation. During the initial screening process, participants were asked the question; ‘Which leg would you
109 kick a ball with?’ The answer to this question was defined as the ‘kicking leg’, and the contralateral leg as the
110 ‘stabilising leg’. This has previously been reported as an effective method to determine leg dominance (i.e.,
111 preferred leg to kick a ball) during postural control ^{27,28}. Participants were also asked to complete the Cumberland
112 Ankle Instability Tool (CAIT) questionnaire to assess subjective ratings of ankle instability, and were
113 subsequently matched according to ‘low’ (0-27) and ‘high’ (28-30) CAIT scores ²⁴ for each foot (Table 1). All
114 procedures were approved by the Australian Institute of Sport’s Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval
115 Number 20160803).

116 *Overview*

117 The study followed a within-subject cross-over design, in which participants completed somatosensation
118 testing on both feet, with (compression socks; COMP) and without (barefoot control; CON). All four trials were
119 completed on the same day in a randomised and counter-balanced fashion, and, as such, participants reported to
120 the laboratory for a single day of testing only (Fig. 1). Participants were asked to refrain from strenuous exercise
121 (>24 h) and caffeine (>12 h) prior to the testing session, which was verified by a 24-h training and dietary recall.

122 *Somatosensation Testing*

123 Somatosensation testing was performed using active movement extent discrimination analysis
124 (AMEDA). The AMEDA device is a custom-made apparatus developed to test joint position sense ²¹ and is a
125 method of testing somatosensory ability at the ankle in a normal unconstrained stance (Fig. 2), without visual or
126 vestibular sensory input. The AMEDA device consists of a footplate on a platform that can be tilted by the
127 participant to five possible positions, resulting in ankle inversion movements between 10.5 and 14.5 degrees from
128 the horizontal. The participant is familiarised with the five movement ranges in an introductory sequence where
129 the different positions are set in order from smallest (position 1) to largest (position 5), and the sequence is
130 repeated 3 times (~5 min total). Participants are then asked to identify, by moving the platform from the horizontal
131 start position, which position number has been set. This is repeated for 50 trials, each time returning to the start
132 position (i.e., each position is presented 10 times in a randomised sequence). Each 50-repetition trial took ~10
133 min, and as such the entire study duration (including familiarisation and set-up time between conditions) was ~60
134 min. To prevent slipping whilst inverting/everting the ankle and wearing a compression sock, a segment of grip

135 tape (Anti-Slip Grit Strip, Croc Grip, Australia) was placed on the middle line of the footplate. This tape was in
136 place for both the CON and COMP conditions. Assessment of ankle somatosensation via the AMEDA has
137 previously been shown to have good test-retest reliability (ICC = 0.80) ²⁹ when testing the same ankle multiple
138 times. To assess the effects of compression on somatosensation in individuals with varying levels of baseline
139 somatosensation, participants were split into tertiles (lower third, 0.5-0.65; middle third, 0.65-0.70; higher third,
140 0.70-1.00) based on the CON score for each foot. Participant allocation into tertiles (and CAIT groups) are
141 reported in Table 1.

142 *Intervention*

143 Somatosensation testing was performed under two conditions (CON and COMP) for both the kicking
144 and stabilising leg. The barefoot control (CON) condition required participants to perform the AMEDA
145 somatosensation testing without shoes or socks, and the COMP condition required participants to wear a sports
146 compression sock (2XU Elite Compression Sock, Melbourne, Australia) on the leg being tested only. The
147 compression socks were fitted to manufacturer guidelines, which took into account foot size and calf girth.
148 Although not directly measured in the current study, these compression socks have previously been reported to
149 elicit compression of ~23 mmHg and ~20 mmHg at the calf and ankle, respectively ³⁰.

150 *Cumberland Ankle Instability Tool (CAIT)*

151 The CAIT is a valid and reliable questionnaire for discriminating and measuring the severity of functional
152 ankle instability ²⁴. It is a 9-item questionnaire in which participants are asked to rate ankle pain and instability
153 during different movements (i.e., walking/jogging/running, making sharp turns, walking down stairs, standing on
154 one leg, hopping, and rolling an ankle), for both feet. Each question has a range of 3-5 possible responses,
155 representing an increasing level of difficulty for the activity concerned. Scores are assigned based on the rank of
156 the chosen response and summated to generate a total score out of 30, with a low score indicating more severe
157 functional ankle instability ²⁴.

158 *Statistical Analyses*

159 The number of correctly identified settings were recorded for each trial. Following this, a response matrix
160 was constructed and an area under the response curve (AUC) determined to calculate how accurately the
161 participants were able to identify the correct setting, giving a number between 0.5 (random chance) and 1.0
162 (perfect ability to discriminate), as previously described ³¹. Mean scores obtained from the AMEDA (with 95%

163 confidence intervals) were calculated for each of the conditions. Comparisons of AMEDA scores were analysed
164 using a linear mixed model and IBM SPSS Statistics V19 (IBM Corporation, USA), with fixed effects for
165 condition (CON vs COMP), testing leg (kicking vs stabilising), and interaction (condition x testing leg). In
166 addition, AMEDA scores were split and aligned with 'low' (0-27) and 'high' (28-30) CAIT scores²⁴. This data
167 was analysed using a linear mixed model with fixed effects for condition (CON vs COMP), CAIT score (low vs
168 high), and interaction (condition x CAIT score). Considering athletic expertise has been implicated as a
169 determinant of AMEDA somatosensory scores³¹, additional analyses were performed on scores split into tertiles
170 (lower third, 0.5-0.65; middle third, 0.65-0.70; higher third, 0.70-1.00) based on the CON score (performed
171 separately for each leg; Table 1). For this analysis, individual *t-tests* were performed to compare CON vs COMP
172 for each tertile, on each leg, and multiple pairwise comparisons were corrected to the false discovery rate³². The
173 level of significance was set at $P < 0.05$. Data are presented as mean \pm 95% confidence intervals, unless otherwise
174 stated.

175 **Results**

176 *Kicking vs. Stabilising*

177 There were no condition ($P = 0.417$), testing leg ($P = 0.507$), or interaction ($P = 0.551$) effects for mean
178 AMEDA scores (Fig. 3).

179 *CAIT Scores*

180 There were no condition effects for the kicking ($P = 0.307$) or stabilising ($P = 0.873$) legs when
181 comparing AMEDA scores based on ankle instability (CAIT Questionnaire Scores). There was a significant effect
182 of CAIT score for the kicking leg ($P \leq 0.001$), but not the stabilising leg ($P = 0.724$). Specifically, AMEDA scores
183 were higher for the high CAIT group as compared with the low CAIT group ($7.6 \pm 1.8\%$). There were no
184 interaction effects for the kicking ($P = 0.332$) or stabilising ($P = 0.917$) legs (Fig. 4).

185 *Tertiles*

186 For the kicking leg, there was a significant condition effect for the higher tertile ($P \leq 0.001$), but not the
187 lower ($P = 0.319$) or middle ($P = 0.894$) tertiles (Fig. 5a). Specifically, COMP reduced ($6.7 \pm 2.8\%$) the AMEDA
188 score for the higher tertile, as compared with CON. For the stabilising leg, there were significant condition effects
189 for the lower ($P = 0.023$) and higher ($P = 0.003$) tertiles, but not the middle tertile ($P = 0.550$). Specifically, COMP

190 increased (6.5 ± 5.3 %) the AMEDA score for the lower tertile and reduced ($5.1 \pm 2.4\%$) the AMEDA score for
191 the higher tertile, as compared with CON (Fig. 5b).

192 **Discussion**

193 Wearing compression socks during a weight-bearing ankle inversion/eversion task had no effect on mean
194 ankle somatosensation scores derived from the AMEDA apparatus. However, when participants were split into
195 tertiles based on their control somatosensation scores, sports compression socks improved ankle somatosensation
196 in individuals with poor baseline somatosensation, and conversely reduced ankle somatosensation scores in
197 individuals with good baseline somatosensation. These effects were most evident for the stabilising leg. In
198 addition, participants in the high CAIT group (i.e., low severity of symptoms associated with chronic ankle
199 instability) had better ankle somatosensation scores in the kicking leg only.

200 This study provides the novel observation that compression socks improved the discrimination of ankle
201 inversion/eversion movement in individuals with poor baseline ankle somatosensation. This finding was evident
202 in the stabilising leg only, which plays an important role in the generation and maintenance of athletic stability
203 during tasks like kicking³³. It has been hypothesised that compression may aid the performance of tasks requiring
204 a large degree of stability (e.g., kicking, shooting, passing etc.), which is consistent with improvement in backward
205 leg swing discrimination in Australian footballers with comparatively low baseline joint position sense when
206 wearing compression shorts¹³. Other studies have also reported an improvement in joint position sense when
207 wearing an elastic support or a brace over multiple joints of the body^{17,34}.

208 It is possible compression may tighten the skin around the ankle joint, which results in relatively more
209 skin stretch during the inversion/eversion task; this in turn may increase cutaneous stimulation and afferent signals
210 to the somatosensory centres³⁴. Kinesiology taping has previously been used in an attempt to elicit a similar
211 somatosensory response; however, data to support its benefit for improving somatosensory sensitivity at the ankle
212 joint is lacking³⁵. A potential reason for this is apparent inter-study differences in taping procedures and/or the
213 smaller level of tactile feedback and cutaneous sense as compared with compression garments³⁵. Compression-
214 induced increases in skin stretch may be interpreted in the nervous system as a greater discharge of the appropriate
215 mechanoreceptors, which could alter excitability at multiple levels of the nervous system⁶. In support of this,
216 plantar cutaneous electrical stimulation has been reported to alter the excitability of the soleus stretch and H-
217 reflexes, most notably in the heel³⁶. Similarly, compression garments worn across the elbow joint have been
218 reported to reduce *flexor carpi radialis* H-reflex amplitude⁶, most likely due to an increase in presynaptic

219 inhibition of the Ia afferents³⁷. Considering this resulted in an increase in reaching performance, it is possible
220 that compression acts to filter irrelevant mechanoreceptor information, thereby allowing the nervous system to
221 obtain ‘enhanced’ sensory information related to somatosensation⁶ and to aid in subsequent motor output.
222 Compression may also stimulate deeper skin and muscle afferent receptors, consistent with an increase in
223 intramuscular pressure when wearing a knee brace³⁸.

224 Another important finding was that participants with a superior accuracy of judgment without
225 compression socks experienced a reduction in their ability to judge ankle inversion/eversion when wearing
226 compression socks. This is consistent with previous reports^{13,17,18}, which have proposed a number of mechanisms
227 to explain this occurrence. Most are related to compression adding additional and counterproductive afferent
228 feedback or ‘noise’ in individuals with an otherwise already good somatosensory sensitivity. For example, it has
229 been suggested there is a ‘physiologic normal value’ for somatosensation that has an upper limit, and any
230 additional afferent stimulation may be unhelpful and confusing to the control systems¹⁸. In this instance,
231 individuals with superior neuromuscular control may already be receiving sufficient feedback from internal
232 sources, and compression may provide excessive information that cannot be adequately processed. However, it is
233 unknown if such consequences are only short term, and future research is warranted to investigate whether this
234 response can be minimised or improved with repeated and/or longer duration exposures.

235 A novel component of this study was the additional assessment of the effect of compression on ankle
236 somatosensation relative to functional ankle instability. Functional ankle instability is characterised by episodes
237 of recurrent ankle sprains³⁹, which can lead to a wide spectrum of disabilities (e.g., osteoarthritis and articular
238 degeneration at the ankle)⁴⁰. In addition, ankle instability is often associated with perceptions of a weak, more
239 painful, and less functional ankle than pre-injury⁴¹, which may ultimately contribute to ankle injury recurrence
240 rates (in excess of 70% in some sports)⁴². As such, the current study aimed to investigate whether compression
241 garments could enhance somatosensation in individuals with ankle instability, thereby reducing their risk of ankle
242 injury or re-injury. We made the observation that participants with mild symptoms associated with chronic ankle
243 instability (i.e., larger CAIT score) performed better in the ankle inversion/eversion task (kicking leg only)
244 suggesting that ankle joint stability is important for ankle somatosensation. In support of this, functional ankle
245 instability is related to a reduction in the ability to control ankle muscle forces³⁹, as well as the inhibition of the
246 *peroneus longus* and *tibialis anterior* muscles during drop jumps⁴³. When individuals were grouped based on
247 ankle stability, compression had no effect on ankle control during the inversion/eversion task. Although contrary

248 to the data reporting alterations in neural excitability when wearing compression ⁶ and nylon stockings ⁴⁴, the
249 severity of underlying pathology in functional ankle instability (e.g., impaired sensory discrimination,
250 osteoarthritis, and/or articular degeneration at the ankle) may have masked any potential benefit of compression
251 on these processes. Furthermore, individuals with chronic ankle instability have been reported to improve repeat-
252 AMEDA testing at a slower rate than stable-ankle controls, suggesting chronic ankle instability affects learning
253 strategies in somatosensory control ²⁹.

254 A number of limitations with the current study must be acknowledged. Exercise-induced muscle damage
255 (EIMD) has been reported to alter knee joint position sense up to 3 days post exercise ⁴⁵, and markers of EIMD
256 muscle damage can last over 7 days post exercise ⁴⁶. Considering participants were asked to avoid strenuous
257 exercise for 24 h before the AMEDA testing protocol, the authors cannot discount that participants may have
258 performed damaging exercise in the preceding days, which may have influenced the somatosensory scores.
259 However, no participant reported acute muscle soreness in the pre-activity screening questionnaire, and as such
260 the authors are confident that any potential effect of EIMD on somatosensory scores was minimal. Another
261 limitation of the current study is the lack of a ‘regular’ sock (i.e., without compression) and/or footwear control
262 condition. The rationale to exclude such conditions was based on prior reports that ankle movement discrimination
263 is impaired with shoes and socks in netball ⁴⁷ and football ²⁰ athletes, as compared with a barefoot control.
264 Considering most people use regular socks and shoes/boots during exercise and/or sport, the inclusion of these
265 comparator conditions in future research would provide a more robust assessment of the effects of compression
266 on ankle somatosensation.

267 **Perspective:**

268 Results from this study suggest that wearing compression socks may amplify sensory input in a way that enhances
269 somatosensation for individuals with poor somatosensation, but overload input and impair somatosensation of
270 those with good somatosensation (as measured with a barefoot control). As such, screening of barefoot ankle
271 somatosensation may be used to identify individuals who might benefit from using compression to improve ankle
272 somatosensory ability. This may have important practical applications for athletes/individuals returning to weight-
273 bearing activity following injury (absent of chronic ankle instability), and/or individuals with diminished
274 somatosensory sensitivity (e.g., elderly). However, any positive effect may not be long lasting and/or may only
275 exist while compression is worn ¹³. As such, research investigating whether repeated compression sock use can
276 aid somatosensory sensitivity training is warranted.

277 **Data Availability**

278 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding
279 author on reasonable request.

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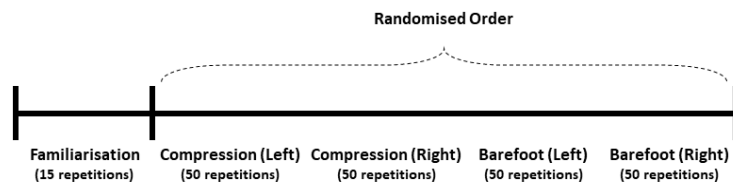
388 **Tables:**

389 **Table 1:** Participant sub-group allocations according to the Cumberland Ankle Instability Tool (CAIT) and active
 390 movement extent discrimination analysis (AMEDA) scores.

Kicking Leg					
	CAIT sub-group		AMEDA tertile sub-group		
	Low (<i>n</i> = 22)	High (<i>n</i> = 20)	Lower (<i>n</i> = 12)	Middle (<i>n</i> = 17)	Higher (<i>n</i> = 13)
Age (y)	27 ± 5	28 ± 4	27 ± 4	27 ± 5	28 ± 4
Height (cm)	174.6 ± 11.6	178.9 ± 8.9	174.9 ± 13.8	178.6 ± 8.7	176.0 ± 9.6
Mass (kg)	71.0 ± 15.8	76.3 ± 12.4	70.1 ± 15.6	74.0 ± 13.3	76.3 ± 14.8
Stabilising Leg					
	CAIT sub-group		Tertile sub-group		
	Low (<i>n</i> = 21)	High (<i>n</i> = 21)	Lower (<i>n</i> = 13)	Middle (<i>n</i> = 14)	Higher (<i>n</i> = 15)
Age (y)	27 ± 5	27 ± 4	26 ± 5	28 ± 5	28 ± 4
Height (cm)	175.9 ± 11.3	177.5 ± 9.7	177.0 ± 12.4	174.1 ± 6.5	179.0 ± 12.3
Mass (kg)	72.9 ± 16.1	74.3 ± 12.5	68.2 ± 12.2	72.2 ± 13.5	79.5 ± 15.6

391

392 **Figure Captions:**



393

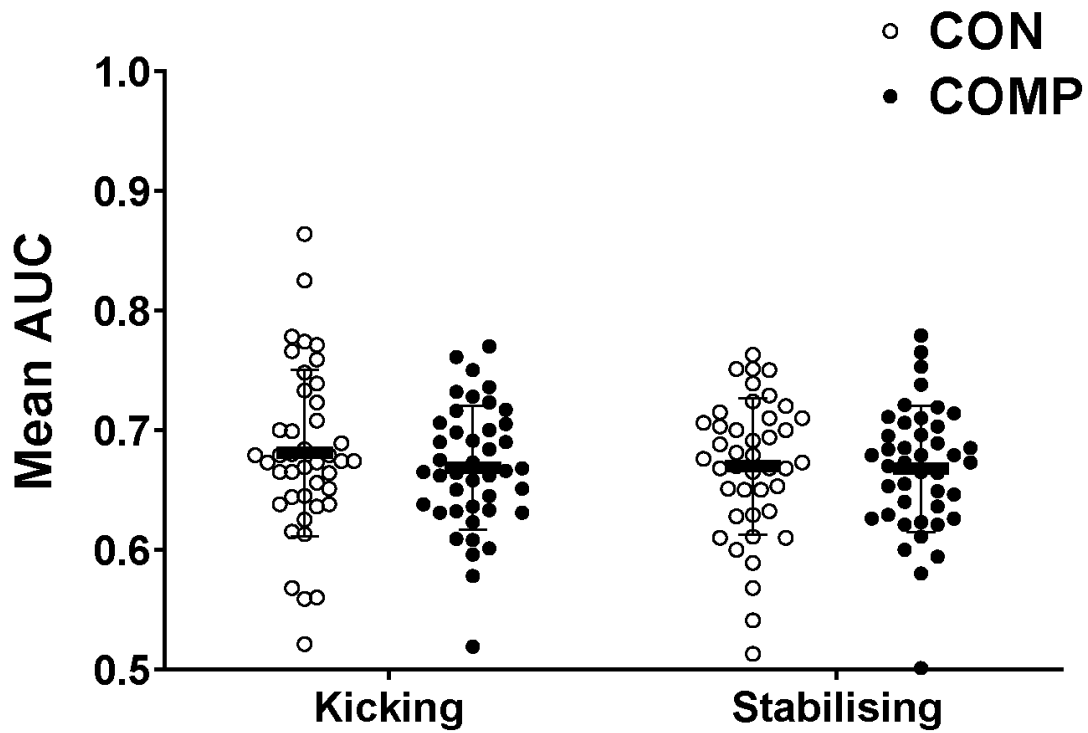
394 **Fig. 1** Experimental overview



395

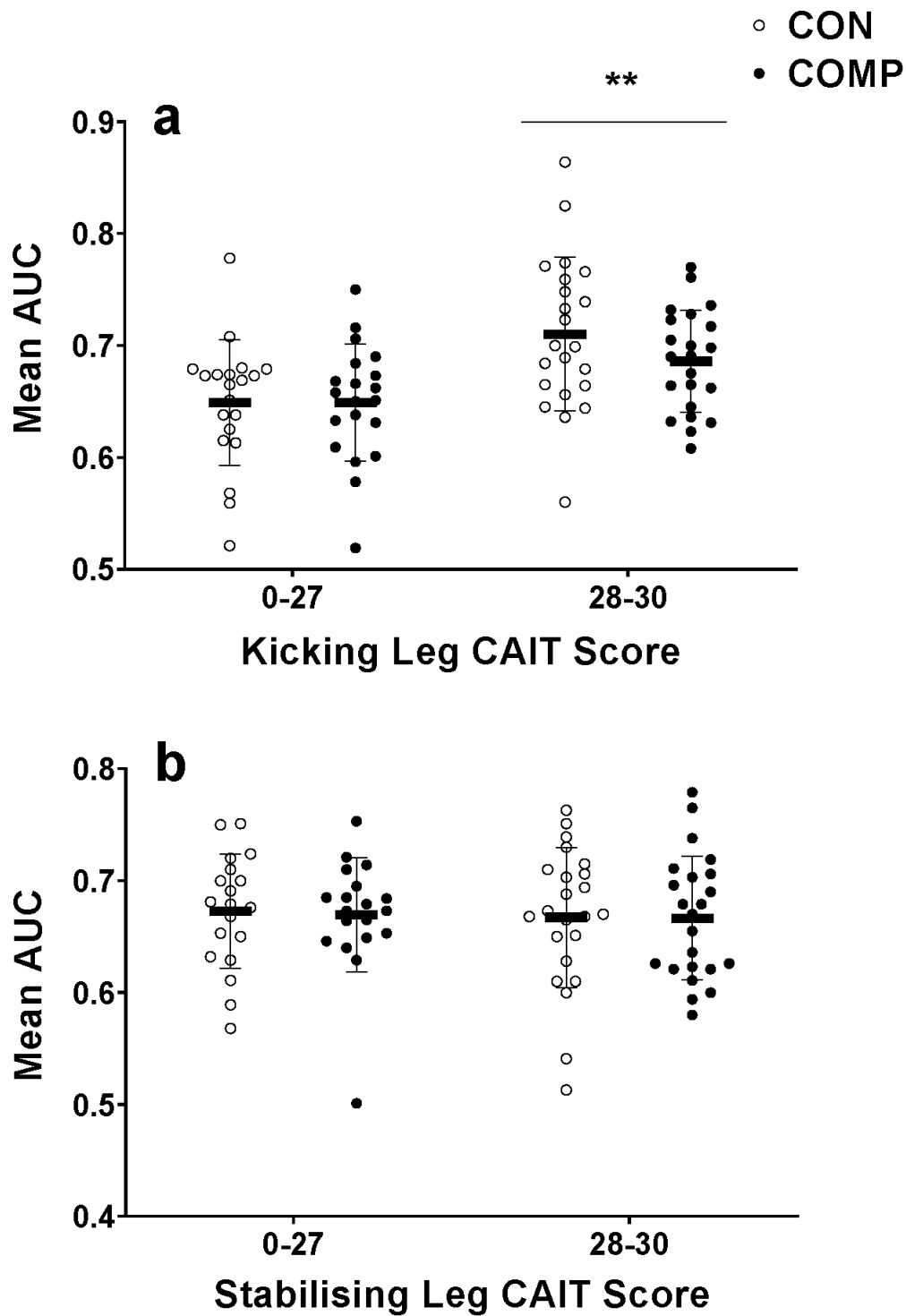
396 **Fig. 2** Active movement extent discrimination apparatus (AMEDA) for testing ankle inversion/eversion
 397 somatosensory ability (picture replicated with permission from Han et. al. ³¹)

398



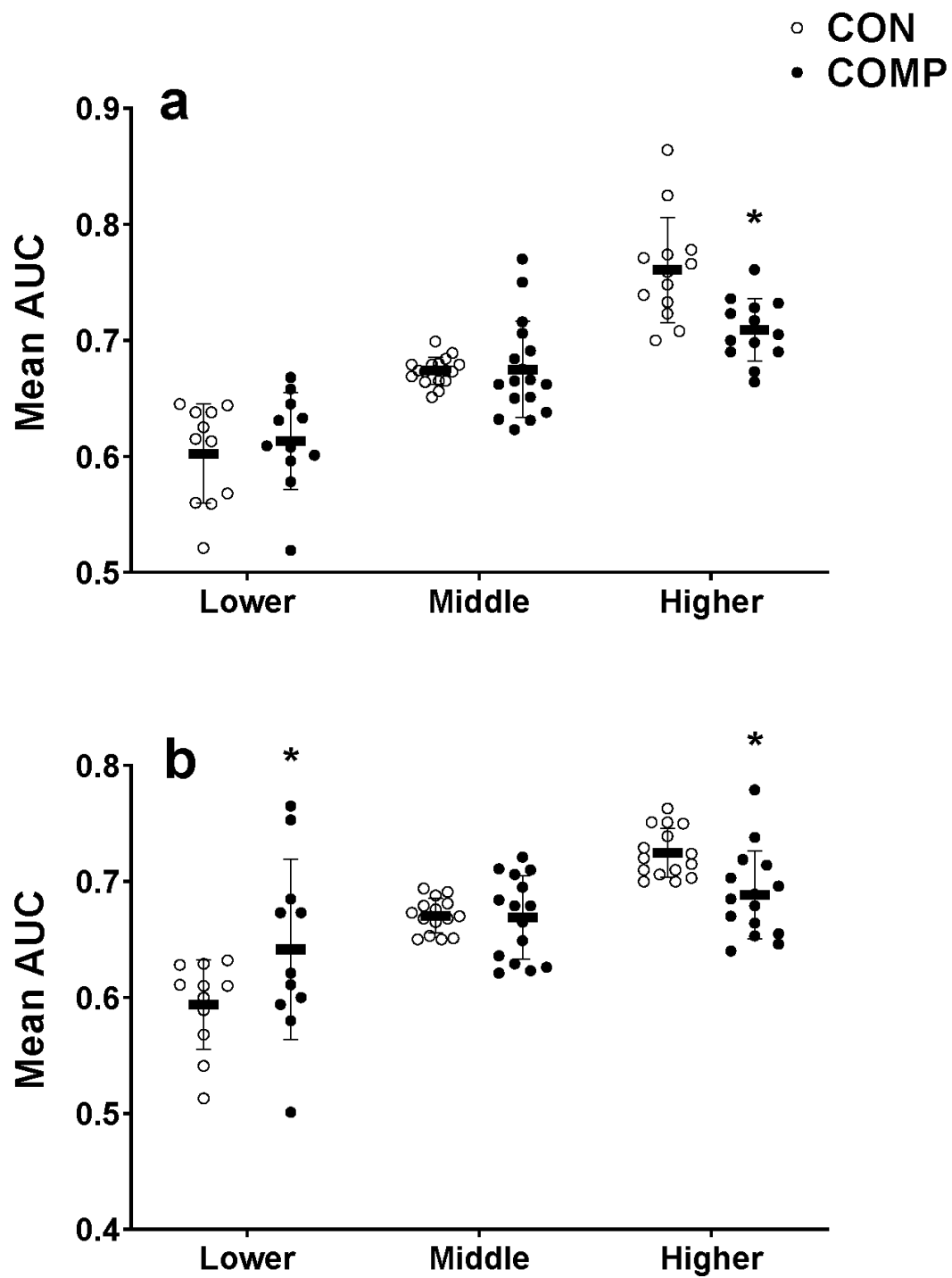
399

400 **Fig. 3** Ankle proprioception scores (mean \pm SD) for barefoot control (CON) and compression sock (COMP)
 401 conditions in the kicking and stabilising legs ($N = 42$). AUC, area under the curve. Data are presented as mean \pm
 402 SD



403

404 **Fig. 4** Mean proprioception scores from the ankle for the kicking (a) and stabilising (b) leg, based on ankle
 405 instability scores from the CAIT Questionnaire. Scores have been split into segments equal or higher than
 406 (kicking, $n = 20$; stabilising, $n = 21$), and lower than (kicking, $n = 22$; stabilising, $n = 21$), a CAIT score of 28. **
 407 significantly higher than 0-27; Data are presented as mean \pm SD



408

409 **Fig. 5** Ankle proprioception scores (mean \pm SD) for the kicking (a) and stabilising (b) legs, for barefoot control
 410 (CON) and compression sock (COMP) conditions. Scores have been split into a lower tertile (0.50 - 0.65; kicking,
 411 $n = 12$; stabilising, $n = 13$), middle tertile (0.65 - 0.70; kicking, $n = 17$; stabilising, $n = 14$), and a higher tertile
 412 (0.70 - 1.00; kicking, $n = 13$; stabilising, $n = 15$). AUC, area under the curve; * significantly different as compared
 413 with CON