

1 **Physical performance and perception of foot discomfort during a**
2 **soccer-specific match simulation. A comparison of football boots**

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6 **Running title:**

7 Performance and comfort in different football boot designs

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11 **Word count = 3,478**

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13 **Physical performance and perception of foot discomfort during a**
14 **soccer-specific match simulation. A comparison of football boots.**

15 Football boots are marketed with emphasis on a single key performance
16 characteristic (e.g. speed). Little is known on how design parameters impact
17 players' performance. This study investigated the impact of boot design on
18 performance maintenance and perceived foot comfort during a 90-minute period.
19 Eleven male university football players were tested in two commercially available
20 'sprint boots' known to generate significantly different plantar pressures
21 (high=Boot H and low=Boot L) in a random order. Players completed a modified
22 Soccer-specific Aerobic Field Test on a 3G pitch. Heart rate, rated perceived
23 exertion and perceived foot discomfort were assessed for each 15-min interval.
24 Power generation using counter movement jump height and Illinois agility sprint
25 test were assessed pre- and post-match simulation. A significantly higher mean
26 heart rate was seen for Boot L in the 60th–75th and 75th–90th minute intervals
27 ($P=0.017$, $P=0.012$ respectively). Perceived exertion did not differ between boots
28 ($P\geq 0.302$). Power generation significantly decreased in Boot H between pre- and
29 post-match ($P=0.042$). Both boots increased discomfort with significantly more
30 plantar discomfort felt in the last 30 min in Boot H (75th min: $P=0.037$; 90th min:
31 $P=0.048$). The results imply that a comfortable boot design may improve
32 maintenance of performance during match-play.

33 Keywords: soccer; footwear; shoes; lightweight; fatigue

34

35 **Introduction**

36 Technological innovations are frequently introduced by sporting goods companies to
37 distinguish themselves in a progressively dynamic and competitive market (Xerfi
38 2XDIS04, 2015). Football boots are commonly marketed with an emphasis on
39 highlighting a single performance characteristic (e.g. speed, touch/control or kicking
40 power). Despite the emphasis on football boot design when delivering advertised
41 performance benefits, little research is published on the impact of specific design
42 parameters on performance. An increased understanding of the impact of specific design
43 parameters on performance can support an evidence-based approach by the football boot
44 designers which can subsequently improve footwear for the consumer.

45 Speed boot designs are marketed to enhance sprint performance. Despite high-
46 speed activities only contributing for a small part the total distance covered, they are
47 essential for success in football. In particular, high-speed activities can create decisive
48 match instances such as obtaining ball possession and scoring goals (Kaplan et al., 2009;
49 Reilly et al., 2000). These activities are usually short (<10 m), last 2-4 s and take up 3-
50 5% of the total match-play time or 10% of the total distance covered in professional male
51 matches (Bloomfield et al., 2007; Osgnach et al., 2010). Thus, they primarily involve
52 rapid accelerations requiring high power generation, rather than the maintenance of
53 maximum speed. Speed generation is, therefore, a fundamental skill for football players.

54 The key feature of speed boots is their lightweight design, with the associated
55 claim that carrying less mass decreases a player's energy demands. However, running
56 shoe research has indicated that provided the shoe mass is less than 300 g, then shoe mass
57 does not impact running economy (Franz et al., 2012). Modern football boots typically
58 have a mass of ~250 g and for speed boots this drops to below 200 g, achieved through
59 minimising outsole thickness and removing upper padding and altering the material. For

60 football boots, Sterzing et al. (2009) found no change ($P = 0.98$) in sprinting/cutting time
61 when a 70 g rubber insole was added to a 200 g boot. However, this study focused on short-
62 term exposure effects with players completing only a 6 m acceleration sprint drill and a short
63 agility side cutting drill. In basketball, no relationship has been found between shoe mass and
64 sprinting, cutting or jumping performance (Mohr et al., 2016; Worobets and Wannop, 2015).
65 Additionally, research has shown that players find it difficult to perceive shoe mass; however
66 when the mass differences are explained, players will perceive their performance to improve
67 with a decrease in footwear mass despite no measured change in performance (Mohr et al.,
68 2016; Slade et al., 2014).

69 The tight fit of football boots allows players optimal ball control and
70 multidirectional motion (Hennig, 2014; Hennig and Sterzing, 2010; Sterzing et al., 2011).
71 The tighter fit has, however, shown to significantly increase plantar pressures in
72 comparison to running shoes (Santos et al., 2001). Concerns have been raised that low
73 football boot mass is likely to come at the cost of further increasing plantar pressures and
74 hence increased discomfort due to more centralised pressures around the stud locations.
75 Whilst short-term exposure to increased plantar pressure in football boots has shown no
76 correlation with increased discomfort (Okholm Kryger et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2007),
77 exposure to ‘excessive’ plantar pressures for longer periods has been shown to increase
78 foot discomfort (Che et al., 1994; Jordan and Bartlett, 1995). It must, however, be
79 acknowledged that shoe comfort has been shown to be influenced by multiple factors in
80 addition to insole plantar pressures including shoe size, shape, style, mass, flexibility,
81 inside climate (temperature, humidity), cushioning, materials, tread and aesthetics
82 (Goonetilleke and Luximon, 2001).

83 The connection between improved ability to maintain performance and
84 appropriate foot comfort is widely assumed in the field of sport (Miller et al., 2000; Nigg
85 et al., 1999; Schubert et al., 2011) and football specifically (Sterzing et al., 2009; Sterzing

86 and Hennig, 2008). Yet, the role of neurophysiology through neuromuscular responses
87 and pain inhibition as a factor of performance is still not well understood (Kinchington et
88 al., 2012). Whilst no evidence exist in football, long-term exposure to running shoe
89 related discomfort has, however, been linked to decreased running performance due to
90 increased energy expenditure, accelerated muscular fatigue and altered lower extremity
91 muscle loading (Luo et al., 2009; Nurse et al., 2005; Wakeling et al., 2002). Furthermore,
92 fatigue and disruption to the usual movement patterns may evoke compensatory
93 musculoskeletal mechanisms which compromise performance and increase the risk of
94 injury (Cheung et al., 2003; Weist et al., 2004). No research has yet been performed on
95 the impact of 90 min football match play exposure on foot discomfort or exertion.

96 Only a single study has assessed the impact of football boot related discomfort on
97 sprint time, with no difference between boots observed ($P = 0.98$; Sterzing et al., 2009).
98 However again, this study only focused on short-term exposure (6 m acceleration sprint
99 and short agility side cutting drills). The extension of these results to the longer-term
100 wear situation of match play remains open to question. Hence, the purpose of this study
101 was to investigate the impact of football boot design on maintenance of performance,
102 progression of exertion and progression of perceived foot comfort during a 90-minute
103 period. Two commercially available speed boots were chosen based on previously
104 collected data that demonstrated significantly different plantar pressures in the medial
105 and lateral forefoot and heel region (one demonstrating significantly higher pressures in
106 all areas; Okholm Kryger et al., 2016). Performance (countermovement jump height and
107 speed generation), measures of maintenance of intensity level (heart rate and Borg's rated
108 perceived exertion; RPE) and perceived foot comfort were assessed throughout a 90-min
109 match simulation drill completed in both boots. It was hypothesised that players would
110 be able to better maintain performance with higher evidence of maintenance of intensity

111 level and foot discomfort in the football boot previously demonstrating lower peak plantar
112 pressures in the forefoot region.

113 **Methods**

114 *Participants*

115 Eleven skilled male university football players (age 20.6 ± 2.2 years, stature 1.78 ± 0.05 m,
116 mass 70.1 ± 4.7 kg, UK shoe size 8–10) volunteered for this study. Players had 7.3 ± 2.9
117 years of experience playing club level football. None of the players had suffered from
118 match-preventive lower limb injuries in the six months prior to testing or suffered from
119 pathologies causing altered perception of mechanical stimuli. The investigation received
120 ethical clearance from the institutional ethics committee and each participant provided
121 written informed consent in accordance with the requirements of the Helsinki Declaration
122 for research using human participants.

123 *Football boots*

124 Two commercially available ‘sprint design’ football boot models were tested (Boot L and
125 Boot H). Both were firm ground stud models to match the artificial turf pitch used for
126 testing but with distinct differences in stud shape, upper material and boot mass. Boot L
127 had a synthetic upper, a mass of 160 g (size UK8), four heel studs, five studs on the
128 forefoot of which one was placed centrally and one stud under the hallux and 4th/5th toe.
129 Boot H had a leather upper, had a mass of 180 g (size UK8), four bladed heel studs, three
130 bladed studs under the forefoot, three bladed studs below hallux and one bladed stud at
131 the base of the 4th and 5th toe (Figure 1). Boot H had demonstrated significantly higher
132 plantar pressures in the heel and 1st and 5th metatarsal (MT) regions during sprinting, side
133 cutting and cross cutting movements (1st MT peak plantar pressure Boot L = 370 ± 77 kPa,

134 Boot H = 406±138 kPa, P<0.05; 5th MT peak plantar pressure Boot L = 270±112 kPa,
135 Boot H = 350±151 kPa, P<0.05; Okholm Kryger et al., 2016). All boots were dyed black
136 using shoe dye recommended for football boots to minimise the impact of the upper
137 design affecting the players' perception of the boots. During each test players were given
138 the same brand of new football socks to wear. Football boot size fit (length) and tying of
139 lace was checked by the assessor before each test session.

140

141 **** Figure 1 near here ****

142 *Experimental design*

143 The study involved a randomised crossover experimental design. Participants completed
144 two sessions, one for each boot in a randomized order, separated by at least 7 days.
145 Participants performed the test together to increase motivation and competitiveness
146 throughout the test. Each session was 3 h in duration and was performed at the same time
147 of the day. All tests were performed on the same outdoor third generation artificial turf
148 pitch (LigaTurf RS+ 265, Polytan, Burgheim, Germany). In brief, the pitch had a Polytan
149 EL 25 shockpad, the carpet fibres were 65 mm monofilament polyethylene and infill
150 comprised of sand and rubber crumb. The surface was FIFA Two Star accredited two
151 months prior to testing (Fédération Internationale de Football Association, 2015). Pitch
152 testing using the FIFA Quality Concept methodologies (Fédération Internationale de
153 Football Association, 2015) demonstrated shock absorption of 70±4%, vertical
154 deformation of 11±2 mm and rotational resistance of 45±1 Nm. Tests were only
155 performed under dry conditions to minimise the impact of varying surface conditions on
156 the outcome.

157 ***Experimental procedures***

158 Prior to each test session, players completed a questionnaire comprising three sections
159 designed to confirm whether or not they were fit to complete the test on that day. Firstly,
160 readiness to complete the test was assessed though the Hooper’s index (Haddad et al.,
161 2013), secondly muscle soreness in the main lower limb muscle groups was assessed
162 using the muscle map suggested by Thompson et al. (1999), and thirdly overall perceived
163 foot comfort was assessed using a novel 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = unbearable
164 discomfort to 7 = extremely comfortable together with foot comfort maps to identify and
165 score the location of any discomforts felt (Figure 2). Any player that rated any measure
166 on the Hooper’s index below “neither good nor bad”, or rated muscle soreness ≥ 3 on the
167 muscle map, or rated overall perceived foot comfort below “neither comfortable nor
168 uncomfortable”, or marked any discomfort locations on the foot map was excluded from
169 testing on that day.

170

171 **** Figure 2 near here ****

172

173 Each session commenced with a standardised warm up (Figure 3). This was
174 followed by each player completing two repetitions of the Illinois agility speed test
175 (Getchell, 1979), which has been validated for test-retest assessment of speed (Hachana
176 et al., 2013, 2014; Lockie et al., 2013; Stewart et al., 2014). A visual and verbal
177 demonstration of the drill was performed prior to the first test in each session. Sprint times
178 were recorded using a GoPro HERO4 Black camera (240 Hz, 1280x720 pixels, maximum
179 barrel distortion = 2.1%) placed on the start/finish line. Time was measured in accordance
180 to the chest passing the start and finish lines. The best performance of the two trials was
181 used for statistical analyses. The players were offered a minimum of 3 minutes recovery

182 between sprints. Directly after, three repetitions of maximal countermovement jump
183 height (with hands on hips) were completed. The countermovement jump height protocol
184 has previously been validated for test-retest assessment of lower limb power generation
185 (Bosco and Komi, 1979; Markovic et al., 2004; Slinde et al., 2008). Jump height was
186 assessed using the Quattro Jump (Type 9290AD; Kistler Group, Winterthur,
187 Switzerland), a portable uniaxial force platform (500 Hz) and associated software
188 (Quattro Jump V1.1.1.4; Kistler Group, Winterthur, Switzerland) which calculates jump
189 height using double integration of the force signal using Simpson's rule of integration
190 (Cheney and Kincaid, 2003). The platform was positioned on a hard level surface next to
191 the football pitch and the players completed the jumps with boots off, i.e. in socks. Players
192 performed the jumps in sock to assess the players' power generation rather than the
193 impact of the football boot. The researcher visually observed all jumps and jumps were
194 repeated if the player landed at a different location to take-off or altered landing
195 technique. The best performance of the three trials was used for statistical analyses.

196 Players then completed the match simulation drill. This comprised of two 45 min
197 match simulation halves separated by a 15 min break and followed the official
198 instructions for the Soccer-specific Aerobic Field Test (SAFT90; Lovell et al., 2008) but
199 with a modified length of 22 m (original was 20 m) to obtain appropriate match-related
200 heart rate (Figure 4). Previous studies using the SAFT90 have failed to achieve match
201 related heart rates or RPE (e.g. Nédélec et al., 2013) and, based on this, pilot work
202 demonstrated that match related heart rates similar to those reported in the literature
203 (Edwards and Clark, 2006; Los Arcos et al., 2016; Lovell et al., 2008) could be achieved
204 by extending the length of the SAFT90 drill from 20 m to 22 m. Heart rate was measured
205 continuously during the SAFT90 using a Polar Team Pro system (Polar Electronic,
206 Kempele, Finland) and assessed using mean and maximum heart rate for each 15 min

207 SAFT90 interval. Whilst maintenance of intensity level assessment via mean heart rate
208 measures is well accepted in endurance sports, this method is debateable in team sports
209 since the overall load often comprises of anaerobic and mental elements that do not
210 include a significant cardiorespiratory component (Borresen and Lambert, 2009;
211 Buchheit et al., 2013). Therefore, both maximum heart rate and RPE were used as
212 additional measures.

213

214 **** Figure 4 near here ****

215

216 Before, during and after the match simulation drill each player was asked to
217 complete a questionnaire assessing the player's perceived levels of exertion and foot
218 comfort. The match simulation drill was paused every 15th minute for <2 min to allow
219 players to fill in the questionnaire (Figure 2). This method has previously been performed
220 (e.g. Azidin et al., 2015; Nédélec et al., 2013; Small et al., 2009). Perceived exertion was
221 assessed using RPE rating; players were asked to report an RPE score (Borg, 1970) which
222 has been shown to be a reliable tool to assess perceived exertion in football (Impellizzeri
223 et al., 2004). To assess the perceived foot comfort the same novel 7-point Likert scale and
224 foot comfort maps as used in the pre-test questionnaire were used (Figure 2). The use of
225 a novel Likert scale was rationalised as any score placed between the two defined extrema
226 using visual analogue scales like previously validated for foot comfort scales (Mills et al.,
227 2010; Mündermann et al., 2002) can be challenging to quantify. Using a similar
228 population and test setup, test-retest reliability of the novel scale demonstrated intraclass
229 correlation coefficients (ICC_{2,1}) scores of 0.311-0.746 and standard error of measurement
230 (SEM) $\leq \pm 1$ and the count of discomforts per foot region ICC_{2,1} scores of 0.704-0.709 and
231 SEM $\leq \pm 4$. Finally, immediately following the SAFT90 and final questionnaire, each

232 player completed a further two repetitions of the Illinois agility speed test (Getchell, 1979)
233 and three maximal countermovement jumps following the same protocols as at the start.

234 *Statistical analysis*

235 Repeated measures analyses of variance (boot*time) were performed to analyse the effect
236 of boot design and time on heart rate, RPE, overall foot comfort, countermovement jump
237 height and Illinois agility speed test outcomes variables. Where Mauchly's test for
238 sphericity was violated a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was performed. Effect size was
239 assessed using partial eta squared (η_p^2). For a significant main effect of time, polynomial
240 contrasts were performed. To determine the timepoints following an interaction effect,
241 dependent t-tests were performed at each level of time; corrections for multiple
242 comparisons were not performed as the post hoc t-tests were only used to indicate the
243 source of the interaction effects. To assess the potential differing effects of the two boots
244 on the occurrence of discomfort using a foot map, a Chi² analysis was performed in
245 addition to relative risks (RR) with confidence interval (CI) calculations following Morris
246 and Gardner (1988). An RR greater than one suggests a greater occurrence of discomfort
247 within Boot H, with an RR lower than one suggesting the opposite. Statistical analysis
248 was carried out using Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, WA) and SPSS software (Version
249 23.0; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) with significance set at $P \leq 0.05$ throughout.

250 **Results**

251 *Maintenance of performance*

252 There was a main effect of mean heart rate for both boot and time (boot $F_{(1,10)}=5.0$,
253 $P=0.049$, $\eta_p^2=0.001$; time $F_{(2.4,23.6)}=5.4$, $P=0.009$, $\eta_p^2=0.207$, Greenhouse-Geisser
254 corrected) demonstrating a higher heart rate in Boot L and a significant negative linear

255 trend over time (polynomial contrast; $P=0.015$; Figure 5A). Following Greenhouse-
256 Geisser correction a close to significant interaction (boot*time) was reported
257 ($F_{(1.9,19.1)}=3.4$, $P=0.056$, $\eta_p^2=0.073$, Greenhouse-Geisser corrected). The post-hoc
258 assessment demonstrated higher mean heart rates for Boot L for 60-75th min (160 ± 9 bpm
259 versus 152 ± 4 bpm, $P=0.017$; Figure 5A) and 75-90th min (159 ± 7 bpm versus 151 ± 6 bpm,
260 $P=0.012$; Figure 5A). However, for maximum heart rate there was no main effect of boot
261 ($F_{(1,10)}=0.008$, $P=0.928$, $\eta_p^2=0.283$) or time ($F_{(2.0,19.9)}=2.6$, $P=0.098$, $\eta_p^2=0.343$;
262 Greenhouse-Geisser corrected; Figure 5B). Despite the observation of a difference in
263 mean heart rate between boots, no main effect of boot condition was observed for RPE
264 ($F_{(1,10)}=0.007$, $P=0.933$, $\eta_p^2=0.001$). A main effect of time was, however, observed for
265 RPE ($F_{(5,50)}=38.1$, $P<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.792$) demonstrating a positive linear trend with time
266 (polynomial contrast; $P<0.001$; Figure 5C).

267

268 ***** Figure 5 near here *****

269

270 Maintenance of performance was assessed through countermovement jump height
271 and Illinois Agility Sprint completion time. There was a main effect of jump height for
272 both boot and time (boot $F_{(3.6,10.0)}=7.3$, $P=0.022$, $\eta_p^2=0.472$; time $F_{(15.5,5.0)}=5.6$, $P=0.040$,
273 $\eta_p^2=0.357$; Table 1) demonstrating a higher jump height in Boot L and a significant
274 negative trend over time. A non-significant interaction (boot*time) was also reported
275 ($F_{(3.3,5.0)}=2.2$, $P=0.052$, $\eta_p^2=0.183$). The Illinois Agility Sprint tests demonstrated no
276 significant effect of boot or time on completion time (boot $F_{(1,10)}=0.3$, $P=0.570$,
277 $\eta_p^2=0.033$; time $F_{(1,10)}=0.3$, $P=0.570$, $\eta_p^2=0.33$; Table 1).

278

279 ***** Table 1 near here *****

280

281 ***Foot comfort***

282 A potential main effect for overall comfort between the two boots was reported
283 ($F_{(1,10)}=3.6$, $P=0.087$, $\eta_p^2=0.265$) with tendencies of higher discomforts in Boot H
284 compared to Boot L. A main effect was, however, observed for time ($F_{(6,60)}=18.4$,
285 $P<0.001$, $\eta_p^2=0.648$; Figure 6A). The polynomial contrast suggested a negative linear
286 trend of discomfort increasing with time ($P=0.021$). Analysis of the interaction effect
287 (overall comfort*time) suggests this increase in discomfort is similar between boots
288 ($F_{(2,6,26,1)}=2.2$, $P=0.115$, $\eta_p^2=0.183$). From the foot map, the overall count of discomforts
289 demonstrated no significant difference between Boot L and Boot H ($P\geq 0.371$ with RR
290 CIs including a RR of one; Figure 6B; Table 2).

291 Of the five foot regions assessed, the plantar and dorsal regions had the highest
292 rates of reported discomfort (Figure 6C). For plantar discomfort a relative risk greater
293 than one, with confidence intervals supporting this and significant p-values (indicating
294 higher presence of discomfort in Boot H), were observed at timepoints 15, 75 and 90 min
295 (Figure 6D; Table 2). For dorsal discomforts no significance was observed apart from
296 pre-testing, which is likely due to no reported discomforts in Boot H (i.e. cell count of
297 zero in Chi^2 tabulation).

298

299 **** Table 2 near here ****

300

301 **** Figure 6 near here ****

302 **Discussion**

303 The purpose of this study was to assess changes in performance and perceived foot
304 comfort throughout a match simulation session for two commercially available speed
305 category football boot designs. Despite the use of a consistent and controlled match
306 simulation drill, differences between boots were observed in jump power generation
307 changes, foot comfort measures and mean heart rate. Specifically, players experienced
308 significantly lower mean heart rates in the last 30 minutes of the match simulation when
309 wearing Boot H compared to Boot L, despite players experiencing similar levels of
310 exertion seen by consistent RPE scores. This may indicate that maintenance of intensity
311 level was higher and better tolerated in Boot L over the duration of the match simulation
312 drill. Also, there was a decrease in jump height between pre- and post-session jumps when
313 wearing Boot H, whilst no decrease was seen when wearing Boot L. This suggests that
314 players were better able to maintain their power generation in Boot L throughout the 90-
315 min match simulation drill. Yet, no effect of boots or time was observed on sprint times
316 between using the Illinois Agility test. However, pilot test-retest reliability of the setup
317 demonstrated ICC scores ranging from 0.206 to 0.451 and corresponding smallest real
318 different scores of 1.1 to 3.7 s, indicating a poor setup or test sensitivity to detect changes
319 in performance.

320 Although there were no significant differences in overall perceived foot comfort,
321 there was a tendency ($P = 0.087$) towards a greater discomfort in Boot H, which may have
322 been impacted by the relatively small sample size used. Yet, a significantly higher count
323 of plantar discomforts for Boot H during the last 30 min of the match simulation drill was
324 also observed. This is the same period where a lower mean heart rate was observed and
325 further directly followed by a decrease in jump performance. In combination, the results
326 suggest an association between an increase in foot discomfort, a decreased ability to

327 maintain intensity level and a decrease in power generation throughout a 90-min match
328 simulation drill when wearing Boot H. Based on these results, future research is needed
329 to investigate whether this relationship is caused by the increased plantar pressures, by
330 using boot designs with higher design similarities to minimise the impact of additional
331 design variations.

332 The progressive drop in mean heart rate between each 15-minute interval of the
333 modified SAFT90 match simulation drill may appear surprising due to the controlled
334 movements and distances covered. Previous application of the SAFT90 protocol has
335 presented similar tendencies (Nédélec et al., 2013) as have other match simulation drills
336 with controlled running distances per time interval (e.g. Bendiksen et al., 2013; Funnell
337 et al., 2017; Russell et al., 2011). Russell et al. (2011) visually presented the decrease in
338 both maximum and minimum heart rate throughout a match simulation drill, and
339 suggested this to indicate that players were less able to generate high intensity movements
340 towards the end of the drill, likely to be the result of exertion. A decrease in performance
341 of high intensity movements towards the end of games has also been reported for real
342 match-play (Mohr et al., 2005). Thus, despite the decrease in mean heart rate, it can be
343 argued that players performed the match-simulation drill at the desired high level of effort
344 and that players did, as supported by the increase in RPE scores, experience increased
345 levels of exertion as the modified SAFT90 match simulation drill progressed.

346 The foot comfort results also demonstrated a significant increase in discomfort
347 throughout the duration of the match simulation. This highlights the need to complete
348 both short- and long- term wear trials as the two can give quite different results and both
349 are relevant to the football boot industry. The initial try-on perception of foot comfort is
350 important when players buy products in the store, whilst assessing foot ‘comfort
351 throughout match-play’ may be an indicator of performance and injury risk (Kinchington

352 et al., 2010a, 2012). The results indicated a continual increase in foot discomfort
353 throughout the 90 minutes, indicating comfort assessments should be performed for the
354 full 90 minutes to obtain an understanding of foot ‘comfort throughout match-play’.

355 ***Limitations***

356 The methodological setup of the study included some limitations. No power calculation
357 was performed prior to the study due to its novelty and hence no appropriate data set
358 available. However, sample size was similar to that used in many studies (Lovell et al.,
359 2013; Nédélec et al., 2013; Russell et al., 2011). With p-values close to significant for
360 ANOVA (boot*time) and overall foot comfort, it is likely that a higher sample size would
361 have demonstrated significant differences. Close to significant results ($p=0.056$) were,
362 therefore, post hoc assessed. It is recommended that future studies use the results
363 presented herein to inform the power calculation for sample size. The SAFT90 is not a
364 true representation of match play and although mimicking movements and intensities
365 (Lovell et al., 2008), e.g. elements of ball interaction are lacking. For players to complete
366 the questionnaire, short breaks of up to 2 minutes were required, which will have
367 decreased the ecological validity of the match play simulation effect.

368 **Conclusion**

369 Differences between football boots were seen in heart rate, foot comfort and ability to
370 maintain jump power over the match simulation drill. The boot (Boot H) with the greater
371 count of foot discomforts over the latter stages of the drill also demonstrated higher levels
372 of discomfort and reduced performance. These results may indicate the importance of
373 football boot design to obtaining optimal foot comfort and highlighting the importance of
374 assessing foot comfort over different wear timescales. More research is needed to
375 understand the underlying cause(s) behind the measured trends in foot discomfort and to

376 assess the impact of foot discomfort on exertion and performance including assessment
377 of plantar pressures.

378

379 **Disclosure statement.** No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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571 Figure text.

572

573 Figure 1. Soleplate image of Boot L (left) and Boot H (right).

574

575 **Figure 2. Likert scales used for assessment of overall perceived foot comfort (left) and foot**
576 **comfort map (right).**

577

578 **Figure 3. Schematic of the test session design.**

579 A = complete questionnaire, B = agility sprint and counter movement jump assessments.

580 **Figure 4. Diagram of the modified 22m SAFT90 field course adapted from original**

581 **SAFT90 by Lovell et al. (2008)**

582 Stippled line = alternating utility movement; Dense line = forwards running; Triangle = cone

583 **Figure 5A-C. Mean heart rate (A), maximum heart rate (B) and rating of perceived**

584 **exertion (C) for each of the 15 min match simulation intervals.**

585 bpm = beats per minute; RPE = rating of perceived exertion; $\alpha = p \leq 0.05$ for boot conditions; β

586 = $p \leq 0.01$ for boot conditions; $\gamma = p \leq 0.001$ for boot conditions, T_x = significance level

587 demonstrated higher than x = timepoint order, e.g. 1 = 0-15 and 6 = 75-90; B = significance

588 level assessed between boots.

589

590 **Figure 6A-E. Likert scale rated overall perceived foot comfort (A), count of discomfort on**

591 **the foot map over time (B) and for each foot region (C) and count of plantar (D) and**

592 **dorsal (E) discomforts over time.**

593 PB = post break; Pre = when trying on football boot prior to warm up; Likert score of 1 =

594 Unbearable discomfort; Likert score of 7 = Extremely comfortable.