

Fundamental movement skills and physical fitness are key correlates of tactical soccer skill in grassroots soccer players aged 8-14 years of age

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1 **Fundamental movement skills and physical fitness are key correlates of tactical**
2 **soccer skill in grassroots soccer players aged 8-14 years of age**

3
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8
9 **Running Head: Correlates of tactical soccer skill**

10
11
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18 One hundred and twenty-one children (58 boys, 63 girls) aged 8-14 years of age (Mean \pm SD
19 = 12 \pm 1 years) who were regularly engaged in grassroots soccer participated in this study.
20 Participants undertook assessments of FMS using the Test of Gross Motor Development-3,
21 perceived ability using the Perceived Physical Ability Scale for Children, physical fitness via
22 15m sprint time and standing long jump distance and technical skill using the university of
23 Ghent dribbling test. The Procedural Tactical Knowledge Test (KORA) was employed as a
24 measure of tactical skill from which metrics for positioning and movement and recognising
25 spaces were derived. Maturation was determined from anthropometric measures. Analysis of
26 covariance examined gender differences in tactical skills accounting for FMS, fitness,
27 perceived ability, technical skill, maturation and age. Results indicated no significant
28 differences in tactical skills between boys and girls ($p > .05$). For recognising spaces 56% of
29 the variance was explained with FMS ($p = .001$), physical fitness ($p = .02$) and technical skill (p
30 = .02) contributing to the model. For positioning and movement, a significant model explained
31 55% of the variance in this element of tactical behaviour with FMS ($p = .002$) and technical skill
32 ($p = .02$) significantly contributing to the model.

33

34 Keywords: Motor Competence; Motor Skill; Youth; Children; Grassroots; Talent Development;
35 Tactics

36

37

38 Introduction

39 Recreational soccer is played by over 3.3 million children in England alone (The FA, 2015)
40 and can provide health enhancing physical activity for children but also provides a path to
41 more specialised sport performance through talent development programmes employed by
42 national governing bodies in various countries (The FA, 2016; North et al., 2014). The
43 development of soccer related motor and tactical ability is considered essential for success in
44 soccer (Rampinini, et al., 2009), and there have been considerable efforts placed in
45 understanding antecedents of soccer specific skill and tactical awareness in children as part
46 of long-term athlete development (LTAD) models. By far the majority of the extant literature
47 related to LTAD in children has focused on physical fitness as key indicators of game
48 performance in elite and recreational youth players (Meylan et al., 2010; Unnithan et al., 2012;
49 Höner et al., 2017; Serrano et al., 2017), with recent data demonstrating that physical fitness
50 is a key driver of selection or deselection in junior academy football (Noon et al. 2020).

51 However, it has been recognised that scientists and coaches need to consider
52 multidimensional characteristics of potential talent in soccer (Seighartsleitner, et al., 2019).
53 Recently, there has been an emerging focus on the role that fundamental movement skills
54 (FMS) play in the development of soccer related talent in children (Duncan, et al., 2021a;
55 Jukic, et al., 2019; Kokstejn, et al., 2019; Rommers et al., 2018). FMS refer to the basic motor
56 skills that form the foundation of specialized skills needed to engage successfully in sports,
57 games, dance and other contexts of physical activity and are considered as the foundation for
58 subsequent sports skills (Utesch and Bardid, 2019). Despite the theoretical basis suggesting
59 that children with better FMS will perform better in sports and that developing FMS is a feature
60 of governing body coaching awards in soccer (The FA, 2015, North, et al., 2014), there
61 remains a lack of research examining how FMS influence soccer skills and performance in
62 children.

63 Research by Jukic et al (2019) has documented those children classified as first team
64 players had better FMS, but similar physiological fitness, than those classed as second team
65 players in a relatively small sample (N=23) of 9–10-year-olds. Work by Kokstejn et al. (2019)
66 has also demonstrated that the relationship between physical fitness and soccer dribbling
67 skills was mediated by FMS in a sample of 40 elite Czech youth players. More recently,
68 Duncan et al. (2021a) examined influences of physical fitness, perceived ability, and FMS on
69 technical soccer skills (dribbling, passing, shooting) in 70, 7–12-year-old boys. Using path
70 analysis Duncan et al. demonstrated that both FMS and perceived ability mediated the effect
71 of fitness on technical skill in soccer. They subsequently suggested that focusing on physical

72 fitness (as previously documented, Vaeyens et al., 2006), without an emphasis on FMS and
73 enhancing a child's perceived ability in FMS, is likely to be less effective in the development
74 of technical ability in grassroots soccer players. Such findings align with theoretical models in
75 LTAD such as the athletic skills model (Wormhoudt et al., 2017) and the Youth Physical
76 Development Model (Lloyd et al., 2012). Despite this, there remain several gaps in current
77 understanding of the potential importance of FMS and perceived ability in FMS in relation to
78 soccer performance in children. The extant literature to date has only focused on boys and,
79 with girls' football considered the fastest growing recreational sport in the world (Valenti et al.,
80 2018), understanding how FMS might influence (or not) football performance in females is
81 needed. This is particularly because boys have commonly been found to demonstrate better
82 FMS than Girls (Barnett, et al., 2008, Cohen, et al., 2015) Secondly, prior work to date has
83 tended to focus on examining soccer specific motor skills and the extent to which fitness, FMS,
84 and other factors relate to it (Kokstejn, et al., 2019, Jukic, et al., 2019, Duncan, et al., 2021a).
85 Duncan et al (2021a) noted a needed next step was to establish how FMS link to tactical, as
86 well as technical ability in youth soccer. Given the prior work of Duncan et al. (2021a) which
87 identified the role of FMS, physical fitness and perception of ability as important contributors
88 of technical skill performance in boys, and the work of Duarte et al. (2012) which identified that
89 children's tactical performance was underpinned by technical skill and physical ability, the
90 present study sought to examine the role of FMS, perceived ability and physical fitness in
91 tactical performance in male and female youth soccer players. We hypothesised that FMS,
92 fitness, technical skill and perceived ability would explain the variance in tactical performance
93 in children who play grassroots soccer and that tactical performance would differ between
94 boys and girls (Kokstejn, et al., 2019, Jukic, et al., 2019, Duncan, et al., 2021a).

95

96 **Methods**

97

98 *Participants*

99 One hundred and twenty-one children (58 boys, 63 girls) aged 8-14 years of age (Mean \pm SD
100 = 12 \pm 1 years, 154.8 \pm 11.9cm, 47.1 \pm 11.9kg) who were regularly engaged in grassroots
101 soccer participated in the study following institutional ethics approval. Informed parental
102 consent and child assent was sought prior to data collection in line with the Declaration of
103 Helsinki (1964). The Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA, 2011) define
104 grassroots soccer as recreational soccer taking place, predominantly in children from the age
105 of 6 years on to promote mass participation in soccer. This definition of grassroots soccer was
106 employed in the current study to adhere to the FIFA (2011) definition as well as the structure

107 of grassroots soccer in England. Participant response rate was 92% based on the total number
108 of children who were approached to take part (n=132) compared to those giving consent to
109 participate.

110 To be eligible to participate, children had to be registered (and playing) with a
111 grassroots soccer club with at least one year playing experience prior to taking part and
112 including participation in training and organised fixtures against other grassroots teams within
113 the County FA structure in England. Mean \pm SD of years playing experience for the sample
114 was 4.2 ± 1.8 years. All participants in the current study were engaged in two-three grassroots
115 football sessions per week, including one organised fixture against another grassroots soccer
116 club within the same County FA. Participants were recruited from junior grassroots clubs (n=4)
117 within Birmingham County FA and Leicestershire County FA, via contact with club secretaries
118 who disseminated the opportunity to take part. Players then volunteered to participate,
119 providing they were eligible.

120

121 **Procedures**

122 All assessments took place over two days. On the first day of assessment measures of
123 perceived ability were completed first, followed by anthropometric assessment, assessment
124 of FMS and fitness. This was followed on the second day by technical and tactical skill
125 assessment. All assessment was conducted by trained researchers and the participants'
126 soccer club coaches were not involved in any way. Each testing session took approximately
127 60 minutes.

128

129 *Anthropometry and Maturity Offset*

130 Stature (cm), sitting height (cm) and body mass (kg) were assessed to the nearest 0.1cm and
131 0.1 kg using a SECA anthropometer and weighing scales (SECA Instruments Ltd, Hamburg,
132 Germany), respectively. The Moore et al (2015) prediction equation was used to determine
133 maturity offset as a marker of biological maturation. Research has consistently suggested that
134 studies examining performance related variables in team sports, and soccer particularly,
135 should attempt to control for biological maturation (Kozziel and Malina, 2018). Direct
136 assessment of biological maturation in children can be difficult and poses ethical implications
137 and, as a consequence non-invasive prediction equations have been developed, often using
138 combinations of height, mass and sitting height to predict maturity offset. The Moore et al.
139 (2015) equation has been validated as an appropriate measure of biological maturation in
140 children and adolescents and has greater validity in assessing maturity offset to within \pm one

141 year in external samples compared to other similar anthropometric prediction equations such
142 as the Mirwald et al. (2002) equation.

143

144 *Fundamental Movement Skills*

145 Fundamental movement skills (FMS) were assessed using the Test of Gross Motor
146 Development-3 (TGMD-3, Ulrich, 2019). The following skills were selected: run, jump, hop,
147 overhand throw, underhand throw, and catch to reflect a balance of locomotor and object
148 control skills, without the inclusion of kick to avoid confounding the assessment of FMS and
149 technical soccer skills. This is congruent with recent research examining the utility of FMS in
150 soccer (Duncan, et al., 2021a). Each skill is comprised of 3-4 components, and skill mastery
151 on the TGMD-3 requires each component to be present. While the TGMD-3 is comprised of
152 13 different skills, shortened versions of the TGMD are common in the literature (Bandeira, et
153 al., 2020; Valentini, et al., 2018, Issartel et al., 2017) with different compositions of skills that
154 are assessed, often due to cultural sensitivity, for example where in Brazil the kick has been
155 removed as children typically score highly as children in this country have more advanced skill
156 in that movement due to mass participation in soccer (Bandeira, et al., 2020). The six skills
157 assessed in the present study were chosen to reflect both locomotor and object control skills
158 and to include the FMS explicitly identified by the National Curriculum for Physical Education
159 in England as those children should develop for lifelong physical activity and Sports
160 Participation (Department for Education, 2013). Pilot data from our laboratory, in a sample of
161 32, 9-14 year olds, also demonstrated acceptable concurrent validity ($r = .9$) for the sum of all
162 six skills assessed in the present study with product measures of FMS (via combined z-scores
163 for sprint speed, standing long jump performance and throwing velocity).

164 Trials of each skill were video recorded (Sony Handicam CX405b, Sony, UK) and
165 subsequently edited recordings into single film clips of individual skills with Quintic
166 Biomechanics analysis software v21 (Quintic Consultancy Ltd., UK). Scores from two trials
167 were summed to create a total FMS score (scored 0-50) following recommended TGMD-3 test
168 administration guidelines (Ulrich, 2019). Two experienced FMS researchers analyzed the
169 video clips after training in two separate 2–3-hour sessions by watching videoed skills of
170 children's skill performances and rating these against a previously rated 'gold standard' rating.
171 Congruent with prior research (Barnett, et al., 2014), training was considered complete when
172 each observer's scores for the two trials differed by no more than one component per trial from
173 the instructor score for each skill (>80% agreement) (Barnett, et al., 2014). We performed
174 inter- and intra-rater reliability analysis for all skills between the two raters on 10% of all the

175 videos. Intraclass correlation coefficients for inter and intra-rater reliability were .92 and .98
176 respectively.

177

178 *Perceived Physical Ability*

179 The Perceived Physical Ability Scale for Children (PPASC, Colella, et al., 2008) was used to
180 assess perceived ability. The PPASC is a valid and reliable tool for children of the ages taking
181 part in this study which assesses perceived physical ability (Colella, et al., 2008). It is a 6-item
182 measure comprising questions reflecting strength, speed and coordinative abilities. Items are
183 structured in response scales with a 1 to 4 format. Labels are attached to each point of the
184 response scales to assist giving meaning to the items for the children. For example, scores
185 for the first item range from 1 (I run very slowly) to 4 (I run very fast). The children were asked
186 to think of themselves when playing/training in soccer and were asked to choose one of the
187 four sentences that best represented their perceived ability. Administration followed
188 recommended guidelines (Colella et al., 2008) with a potential score of 6-24 and higher scores
189 represented a high self-perception of physical competence.

190

191 *Physical Fitness*

192 Two measures of physical fitness were employed; 15m sprint time and standing long
193 jump. Each participant's 15-meter sprint time was assessed using infra-red timing gates
194 (Fusion Sport, Coopers Plains, Australia) with sprint time converted to speed in m/s. Standing
195 long jump was determined as distance from take-off line, to the back of the closest heel on
196 landing and assessed using a tape measure. All testing took place on a grass surface. For
197 sprint speed and long jump, the best of two trials (fastest speed in m/s; longest jump in
198 centimetres) was selected for analysis. Intraclass correlation coefficients for the two measures
199 of fitness were .9 for the 15m sprint, .94 and for the standing long jump, indicating good
200 reliability. Testing was completed individually, and we calculated a Z-score for each of our
201 measures of fitness and summed these Z-scores to create a composite product measure of
202 physical fitness. Recognising that for sprint time a lower score represents better performance,
203 whereas for standing long jump larger scores represent better performance, we inverted sprint
204 time prior to calculating the Z-score to ensure it appropriately reflected performance.

205

206 *Technical Skills*

207 The Ghent University dribbling test (UGent) was employed as a measure of technical
208 soccer skills in this study as previously described by Vandendriessche et al. (2012). This test
209 was chosen given its documented reliability in children (Duncan et al., 2021b), where the
210 reliability of other available soccer skill tests has not been demonstrated in children (Ali, 2011).
211 This is in addition to its recognition as a valid measure of dribbling skill in children and youth
212 (McCalman, et al., 2021). All testing took place on a grass surface with participants wearing
213 soccer boots and was completed with the official ball size for age band (Size 3 for U8-U9, Size
214 4 for U10-14) as recommended by the Football Association. Testing was completed
215 individually by the participants to minimise any peer pressure to perform. Participants
216 completed a set circuit with four left and four right turns at different angles with a distance
217 between cones ranging between 1 and 2.2 metres (Vandendriessche et al., 2012). Following
218 familiarisation and a practice trial each participant undertook two attempts at the test. Each
219 attempt was performed as quickly as possible in two steps per test: the first step was made
220 without the ball and the second step with the ball. The time of each attempt was measured to
221 the nearest 0.01 seconds with a handheld stopwatch. The time taken to complete the dribbling
222 course without the ball was deducted from the time with the ball to give a skill differential
223 reflecting dribbling skill. Lower values indicate better performance. This test has a good
224 reliability, shown by an intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) of $R = .870$ ($CV = 3.9\%$) for the
225 running component and $R = .923$ ($CV = 4.5\%$) for the dribbling with the ball component in
226 children (Duncan, et al., 2021b). In addition, the UGent dribbling with the ball component
227 demonstrates good concurrent validity ($r = .92$) with performance on the Bangsbo and Mohr
228 (2011) short dribble test based on pilot data from our lab in a sample of 32, 9-14 year olds.

229

230 *Tactical skills*

231 The Procedural Tactical Knowledge Test (KORA, Kröger and Roth 2002; Memmert,
232 2002) was employed as a measure of tactical skill in the current study. The KORA allows for
233 the evaluation of tactical performance in collective sports games and reflects two key
234 parameters inherent in tactical abilities for soccer: Positioning and movement and recognising
235 spaces. Administration followed recognised guidelines (Memmert, 2002; Gonzalez-Villoara et
236 al., 2015) for running the KORA. Children were videoed in a series of three vs three games
237 on a 9m X 9m space. Each game lasted three minutes and participants are informed to pass
238 to their teammates without a defender intercepting. When a defender intercepts a pass the
239 game started over from the centre of play but with the defending and attacking team swapping
240 roles. Three games were undertaken and were video-recorded (Sony Handicam CX405b,
241 Sony, UK) and subsequently scored by two trained raters on a scale of 0-10, with 10

242 representing better tactical performance. Scores were derived for off the ball movement
243 (positioning and movement) and finding gaps (recognising spaces) as per guidelines for
244 administration of the KORA (Memmert, 2002; Gonzalez-Villoara et al., 2015). The KORA has
245 previously been reported as a reliable measure which demonstrates low levels of bias in junior
246 grassroots football players (Pattinson, et al., 2021). Scores from each game were averaged
247 to provide a measure of tactical skill for the two outcome measures: Positioning and movement
248 and; Recognising spaces. As with FMS analysis, we performed inter- and intra-rater reliability
249 analysis for all skills between the two raters on 10% of all the videos. Intraclass correlation
250 coefficients for inter and intra-rater reliability were .94 and .98 respectively for positioning and
251 movement and .92 and .96 for recognising spaces respectively.

252

253 *Statistical Analysis*

254 Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to examine any difference in tactical skills
255 between boys and girls, accounting for confounders. ANCOVA analysis is regarded as a form
256 of multiple regression analysis where categorical variables (in this case sex) are of particular
257 interest and where continuous covariates can be included within the model (See Cohen, 1968
258 and Hoyt, Leierer, & Millington, 2006). As a consequence, the use of ANCOVA is reported
259 similarly to that of multiple regression where the amount of variance in the model is explained
260 using adjusted R^2 values and beta values are used to express the association between
261 covariates and the dependent variable (See Field, 2017). In the case of the present study,
262 ANCOVA analysis would therefore be considered appropriate to explore the role of FMS,
263 perceived ability and physical fitness on tactical performance in male and female youth soccer
264 players and may be more appropriate than multiple regression due to the focus on potential
265 sex differences, where ANCOVA is considered the appropriate technique, and where
266 mediation analysis is not a focus of the research question (Hoyt, Imel, & Chan, 2008). Tactical
267 skills (positioning and movement and recognising spaces) were used as the dependent
268 variables. Sex was used as a categorical between groups factor and age, maturity offset, total
269 FMS, perceived ability, physical fitness and technical skill were employed as covariates. This
270 enabled any differences in tactical skills between boys and girls to be examined whilst at the
271 same time exploring the contribution of covariates in explaining the variance in tactical skills.
272 Pearson's product moment correlations between variables were also determined and prior to
273 analysis data were inspected to ensure the assumptions for ANCOVA were met including lack
274 of multicollinearity on the data, that values of residuals were independent, and the variance of
275 the residuals was constant and were normally distributed. The Statistical Package for Social
276 Sciences (SPSS version 25) was used for all analysis.

277

278 **Results**

279 Mean \pm SD and 95% confidence intervals for all variables for the whole sample and for boys
280 and girls separately are presented in Table 1.

281

282

Table 1 Here

283

284

285 Pearson's product moment relationships split by sex are presented in Table 2 for boys and
286 Table 3 for girls. For boys, relationships were significant between all variables ($p < .01$, See
287 Table 2). However, for girls, the pattern of relationships was different to that of boys where
288 there were significant relationships between variables, with the exception of age, where there
289 were no significant relationships between age and any of the other variables (See Table 3, p
290 $> .05$). In addition, maturation was only significantly related with physical fitness and total FMS
291 (both $p < .05$). To illustrate results for tactical performance stratified by age, scatterplots for
292 recognising spaces are presented for boys and girls in Figure 1a and b respectively and for
293 positioning and movement in Figure 2a and 2b respectively.

294

295

Table 2 and 3 Here

296

Figure 1 and 2 Here

297

298

299 Results from ANCOVA indicated a model which explained 56% of the variance (Adj $R^2 = .567$)
300 for the recognising spaces element of the KORA. There was no significant sex difference in
301 recognising space ($p > .05$) and the covariates of age, maturity offset and perceived ability
302 were not significant ($p > .05$). However, total FMS ($F_{1,113} = 11.1$, $\beta = .114$, $p = .001$, $P\eta^2 = .08$),
303 physical fitness ($F_{1,113} = 7.3$, $\beta = .258$, $p = .02$, $P\eta^2 = .04$), and technical skill ($F_{1,113} = 6.1$, $\beta = -.09$,
304 $p = .02$, $P\eta^2 = .05$) significantly contributed to the model. Of note, beta values indicated that total
305 FMS and physical fitness were more important contributors in the model than technical skill,
306 with a one unit change in FMS and physical fitness being associated with a .114 and .258 unit
307 change in scores for recognising space.

308 Results for the positioning and movement aspect of the KORA similarly demonstrated
309 a significant model which explained 55% of the variance ($\text{Adj } R^2 = .55$) in this element of
310 tactical behaviour. There was no significant sex difference in recognising space ($p > .05$) and
311 the covariates of age, maturity offset, perceived ability and technical skill were not significant
312 ($p > .05$). However, total FMS ($F_{1,113} = 10.5$, $\beta = .117$, $p = .002$, $\text{Pr}^2 = .08$), and physical fitness
313 ($F_{1,113} = 5.7$, $\beta = .29$, $p = .02$, $\text{Pr}^2 = .05$) significantly contributed to the model.

314

315 Discussion

316 The present study examined the role of FMS, perceived ability, and physical fitness in tactical
317 performance in male and female youth soccer players. The findings of the current study
318 suggest that, in youth recreational grassroots soccer players, competence in FMS, technical
319 skill and physical fitness are key in explaining tactical skills. FMS, technical skill and physical
320 fitness are particularly important in the tactical skill of recognising spaces (i.e., findings gaps
321 to play through/in) while only FMS and physical fitness were significant in explaining tactical
322 skills for movement off the ball (i.e., positioning and movement). This is the first study to date
323 to examine the potential importance of FMS and perceived ability alongside other relevant
324 factors such as technical skill, fitness, and maturation in explaining tactical soccer skill in youth
325 players. As a consequence, the results of the present study extends understanding of
326 contributors to soccer performance in children and adolescents. Importantly, the current study
327 examined both male and female players, where prior work has almost entirely focused on
328 males. Of note, there were no significant differences in tactical skills demonstrated between
329 boys and girls in the current study. Prior research does not appear to have examined any
330 differences in tactical performance between boys and girls, although there is evidence in elite
331 adult players that there are gender differences in champions league match play (Bradley, et
332 al., 2014) and in technical-tactical behaviour in La Liga matches (Casal, et al., 2021).

333 The results of the current study reinforce that the historical over reliance on physical
334 attributes and body size in coach decisions relating to soccer talent in children (Vaeyens et
335 al., 2006) or that solely emphasising physical fitness development (e.g., Deprez, et al., 2015)
336 for success in soccer is misguided. The results of the present study align with assertions made
337 by Duncan et al. (2021a) that FMS is key in youth soccer skill development. However, the
338 work of the current study extends that of Duncan et al. (2021a) by examining tactical skill via
339 small-sided game performance. This should be considered a novel aspect of the present
340 study. The results of the present study also reinforce the assertions made by key theoretical
341 models such as the Athletic Skills Model (Wormhoudt et al., 2017), which position the
342 development of FMS as the foundation for more specialised sport performance.

343 It is important to note that both aspects of tactical performance examined in the current
344 study (recognising spaces and positioning and movement) were significantly related to
345 technical skill, physical fitness, FMS, perceived ability, age and maturation offset in boys but
346 only with technical skill, physical fitness, FMS, and perceived ability in girls. The reason for
347 the difference in pattern of relationships between boys and girls is not known. However, it is
348 possible that playing experience would also have influenced the impact of the dependent
349 variables, particularly technical skill, on tactical performance. This is on the basis that greater
350 experience in grassroots football might translate to greater time practising in skill development.
351 Recent work by De Waelle et al. (2021) has highlighted that visual cognition, a variable related
352 to tactical performance, was related to age in youth volleyball players, but that this relationship
353 was mediated by playing experience. In the present study, although data relating to playing
354 experience was collected, the variation in experience was not sufficient in our sample to
355 examine the potentially mediating role of experience, over age, on tactical performance.
356 Likewise, there remains considerable unexplained variance in the models arising from the
357 results of the present study. In addition, to the variables included in the current study, other
358 technical skills, such as passing and dribbling, cognition, and potentially other aspects of
359 physical fitness might be useful in further illuminating the multidimensional contributors to
360 tactical performance in youth soccer.

361 Recent work has also suggested that perception of competence is key in
362 understanding the effect of physical fitness on soccer skill (Duncan et al., 2021a) as well as
363 perceived ability being a key driver of children's FMS (Barnett, et al., 2011) and being
364 suggested as important in the development of children's soccer skills (Kokstejn, et al., 2019).
365 The results of the present study are contrary to the prior work of Duncan et al. (2021), which
366 examined technical soccer skills and suggested coaches should promote positive perception
367 of ability for the benefit of actual soccer skills. We agree that children's soccer coaches should
368 seek to promote a positive perception of competence in those they coach. However, the
369 results of the present study suggest that perceived ability is not associated with tactical soccer
370 skill in the same manner that has been reported for technical soccer skills.

371 A key question which also needs to be considered is what the potential mechanism for
372 physical fitness, FMS and technical skill is, in explaining the variance in tactical performance
373 in soccer. Within team sport, particularly soccer, it is recognised that performance does not
374 manifest itself as separate components, but rather as a whole where different components,
375 including those assessed in the present study, interact with each other to produce overall
376 soccer performance (Duarte, et al., 2012). The assessment of tactical skill in the present study,
377 via the KORA, comprised an assessment of two key aspects of tactical behaviour, recognising
378 spaces and positioning and movement, determined through small sided game activity. In this

379 context children's tactical performance (i.e., understanding 'what to do') is underpinned by
380 their ability to solve in-game problems (i.e. knowing and being able to execute 'how to do it')
381 (Duarte, et al., 2012). In such circumstances the performer should select the most optimal
382 motor response in an intelligent or creative manner for the given situation on the pitch for
383 success (Duarte, et al., 2012). As a consequence, tactical performance where movement is
384 required, such as that used in the present study, is underpinned by technical skills where the
385 tactical decisions taken (i.e., the what to do) are influenced by the performers ability technically
386 to execute skills, such as passing, dribbling, etc in the given situation. Similarly, greater levels
387 of FMS underpin execution of more specific sports skills and greater physical fitness enables
388 execution of sport specific skills more effectively with skill preservation due to increased
389 resistance to fatigue. Tactical performance is therefore associated with technical skill, FMS
390 and physical fitness in an integrative manner where the optimal automation of technical skills,
391 via competence in FMS and higher physical fitness, entails better possibilities for a player to
392 recognise and execute tactical strategies as this automation frees up attentional resource that
393 can be devoted to tactical and other objectives in soccer situations (Kannekens, et al., 2011).
394 This suggestion is not new and has featured in recent systematic review data examining talent
395 development in youth athletes (Koopman, et al., 2020) and empirical work examining talent
396 development in soccer specifically (Kannekens, et al., 2011) and sport more broadly (Lidor, et
397 al., 2009).

398 The participants in the present study were grassroots soccer players, engaged in
399 regular training and fixtures against other teams. We recruited participants using FIFA's (2011)
400 definition of grassroots soccer for the present study and the results of the present study should
401 be considered in the context of that group, rather than children already recruited into
402 professional soccer academies. The participants in the current study were all drawn from
403 English grassroots soccer clubs and are thus reflective of the development system at
404 grassroots level employed by the English FA. It is possible there are cross cultural differences
405 in practices of coaches at grassroots levels in their philosophy related to developing FMS and
406 perceived ability through their football coaching. The importance of fitness, FMS, perceived
407 ability and technical skill on tactical performance may therefore differ depending which country
408 the participants are drawn from. We are also cognisant that we employed a measure of
409 dribbling skill as an indicator of overall technical ability and tactical skills may relate different
410 to other aspects of technical ability, such as shooting and passing. In the current study we
411 followed guidelines for selection of tactical skill assessments suggested by Gonzalez-Villoara
412 et al. (2015). The KORA was employed as a measure of tactical soccer performance in the
413 current study and has been recommended by prior authors for the assessment of tactical skill
414 in children of the ages recruited in the present study (Gonzalez-Villoara et al., 2015). However,

415 the KORA is considered an 'intermediate' tactical assessment (Gonzalez-Villoara et al., 2015),
416 which provides information of high enough fidelity to grade tactical skill (Kröger and Roth 2002;
417 Memmert, 2002). The quantification of recognising spaces and positioning and movement, via
418 the KORA, are purported to relate to a player's ability to get to the optimum position at the
419 right time and to identify opportunities to score a goal respectively (Kröger and Roth 2002).
420 However, there are more in-depth analysis of tactical skill that can be undertaken via in-game
421 video assessment (Clemente, et al., 2013) or more labour-intensive methods such as the
422 Game Performance Evaluation Tool (Garcia-Lopez, et al., 2013). It may therefore be useful
423 for future research to examine how the variables assessed in the present study relate to actual
424 match based tactical performance. Such an undertaking would however be time and labour
425 intensive and is one of the main reasons cited in the literature why tactical assessments are
426 often overlooked (Gonzalez-Villoara et al., 2015). There are some additional limitations that
427 also should be acknowledged, the sample is relatively small given the age range employed in
428 the present study. Physical fitness was also assessed using two fitness tests, combined into
429 one z-score. While we conceptualise this to reflect physical fitness and our ability to assess
430 multiple aspects of fitness was not possible due to time and other constraints, it is important
431 to note that assessing a larger number of fitness tests (such as cardiovascular endurance or
432 flexibility) would have enabled a broader conception of physical fitness than is the case in the
433 current study. In addition, maturity was estimated based on anthropometric measurements,
434 due to the ethical considerations associated with direct assessment of maturation in children.
435 However, anthropometric estimation of maturity status is not without error, particularly for
436 individuals further away from age at peak height velocity. Future research should therefore
437 seek to use direct determination of maturation status where this is feasible.

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439

440 **Conclusion**

441 The current study suggests that, in youth recreational grassroots soccer players, competence
442 in FMS, technical skill and physical fitness, and not perceived ability or maturation, are key in
443 explaining tactical skills. For coaches and those working with young players, focusing on
444 development of FMS alongside technical skills and fitness may therefore be beneficial for
445 holistic soccer development.

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	Whole Sample (n=121)			Boys (n=58)			Girls (n=63)		
	Mean	SD	95% CI	Mean	SD	95% CI	Mean	SD	95% CI
Age (Years)	12.0	1.6	11.7-12.3	12.4	1.7	11.9-12.9	11.59	1.4	11.2-12.00
Maturation Offset (years from PHV)	-0.83	1.5	-1.1- -.54	-1.6	1.4	-2.0 - -1.2	-0.78	1.3	-4.4-0.3
Technical Skill (secs)	29.2	4.0	28.4-29.9	27.9 ^a	4.3	26.8-29.2	30.3 ^a	3.4	29.4-31.1
Physical Fitness (z-score)	-.01	1.9	-.35-.33	0.5 ^b	2.3	-.08-1.14	-.51 ^b	1.5	-.82- -.20
Total FMS (0-48)	35.7	6.1	34.5-36.7	38.8 ^c	5.6	37.4-40.3	32.7 ^c	4.9	31.5-33.9
Perceived ability (6-24)	17.7	2.8	17.2-18.3	18.6 ^d	3.2	17.8-19.5	16.9 ^d	2.2	16.4-17.5
Positioning and Movement (0-10)	4.6	1.8	4.2-4.9	5.0	1.8	4.5-5.5	4.1	3.1	3.7-4.6
Recognising Space (0-10)	4.4	1.8	4.1-4.7	4.8	1.9	4.3-5.3	4.0	1.7	3.6-4.4

Table 1. Mean \pm SD and 95% confidence intervals of age, maturation offset, technical skill, physical fitness z-score, total FMS, perceived physical competence and scores for positioning and movement and recognising space (^ap=.01, boys = better performance, ^bp=.02, boys = better performance, ^cp=.001, boys = better performance, ^dp=.0001 boys = better performance).

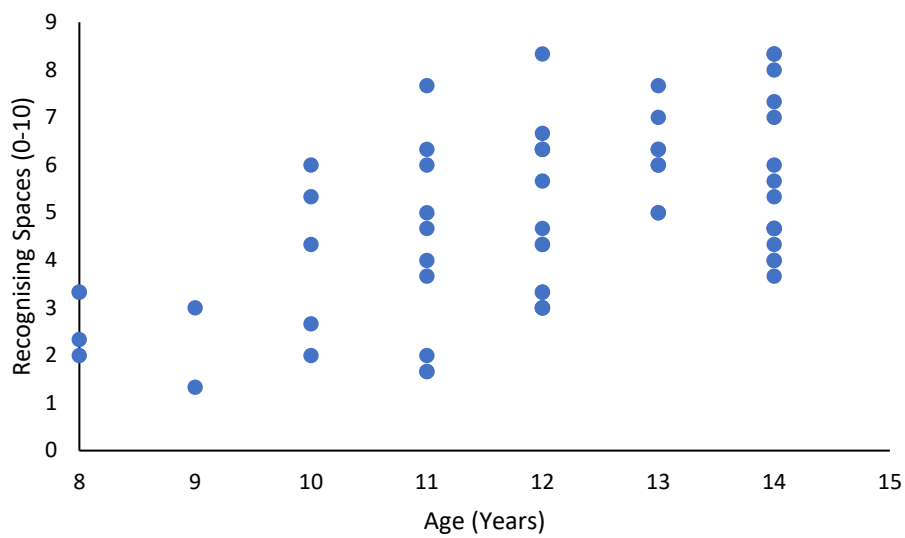
	Maturation Offset	Technical Skill	Physical Fitness	Total FMS	Perceived ability	Positioning and Movement	Recognising Space
Age	$r=.79^{**}$	$r=-.46^{**}$	$r=.78^{**}$	$r=.65^{**}$	$r=.45^{**}$	$r=.49^{**}$	$r=.51^{**}$
Maturation Offset		$r=-.41^{**}$	$r=.59^{**}$	$r=.55^{**}$	$r=.34^{**}$	$r=.37^{**}$	$r=.36^{**}$
Technical Skill			$r=-.68^{**}$	$r=-.59^{**}$	$r=-.61^{**}$	$r=-.71^{**}$	$r=-.72^{**}$
Physical Fitness				$r=.80^{**}$	$r=.63^{**}$	$r=.72^{**}$	$r=.73^{**}$
Total FMS					$r=.629^{**}$	$r=.75^{**}$	$r=.74^{**}$
Perceived ability						$r=.66^{**}$	$r=.63^{**}$
Positioning and Movement							$r=.95^{**}$

Table 2. Pearson's product moment correlations between variables for boys (** $P<.01$, * $P<.05$).

	Maturation Offset	Technical Skill	Physical Fitness	Total FMS	Perceived ability	Positioning and Movement	Recognising Space
Age	$r=.97^{**}$	$r=-.07$	$r=.21$	$r=.21$	$r=-.06$	$r=.18$	$r=.16$
Maturation Offset		$r=-.12$	$r=.25^*$	$r=.24^*$	$r=-.06$	$r=.21$	$r=.19$
Technical Skill			$r=-.38^{**}$	$r=-.45^{**}$	$r=-.35^{**}$	$r=-.29^{**}$	$r=-.38^{**}$
Physical Fitness				$r=.80^{**}$	$r=.43^{**}$	$r=.67^{**}$	$r=.68^{**}$
Total FMS					$r=.34^{**}$	$r=.60^{**}$	$r=.62^{**}$
Perceived ability						$r=.37^{**}$	$r=.38^{**}$
Positioning and Movement							$r=.94^{**}$

Table 3. Pearson's product moment correlations between variables for girls (** $P<.01$, * $P<.05$).

1a



1b

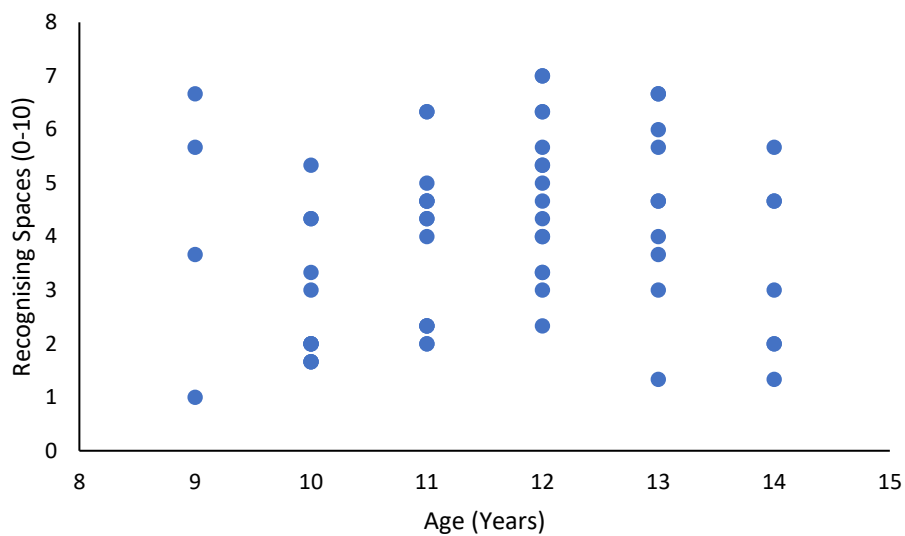
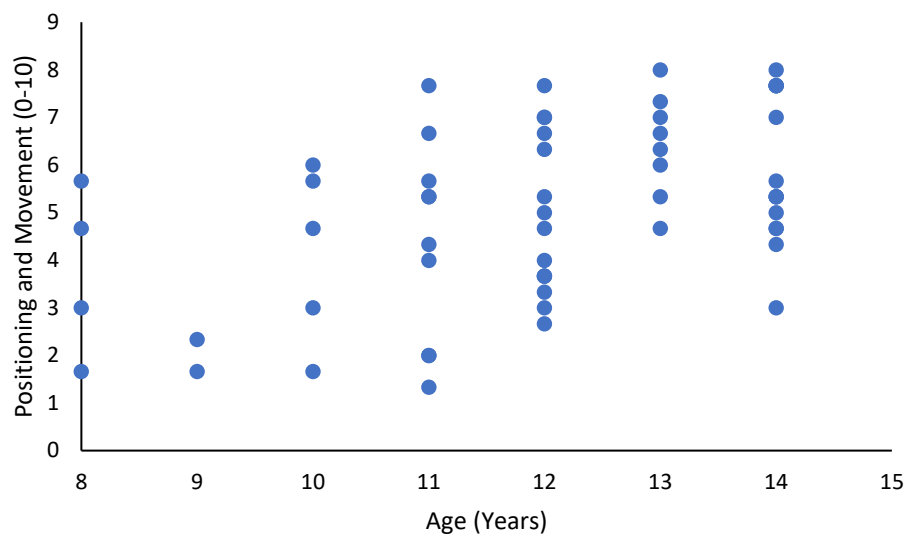


Figure 1. Scatterplot illustrating the results for tactical performance (recognising spaces) for a) boys and b) girls

2a



2b

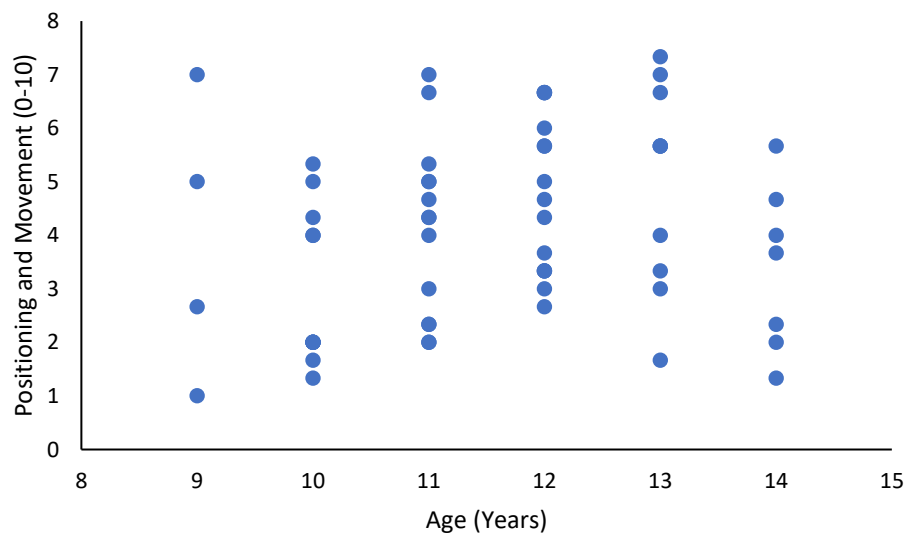


Figure 2. Scatterplot illustrating the results for tactical performance (positioning and movement) for a) boys and b) girls