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Manipulating field dimensions during small-sided games impacts the technical and physical profiles of Australian footballers

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- 1 Manipulating field dimensions during small-sided games impacts the technical and physical profiles of
- 2 Australian footballers

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 This study investigated the effect of manipulating field dimensions on the technical and physical
5 profiles of Australian football (AF) players during small-sided games (SSGs). A total of 40 male players
6 (23.9 ± 3.5 y) participated in three, five-a-side SSGs; defined as ‘small’ (20m x 30m; 600m²), ‘medium’
7 (30m x 40m; 1200m²), and ‘large’ (40m x 50m; 2000m²). Notational analyses enabled the quantification
8 of technical skill indicators, while physical activity profiles were measured using microtechnology,
9 resulting in 18 criterion variables. A multivariate analysis of variance modelled the main effect of field
10 dimension on the criterion variables. A significant main effect was observed ($V = 1.032$; $F_{38, 102} = 2.863$;
11 $P < 0.05$), with the ‘small’ and ‘medium’ SSGs generating more turnovers and ineffective handballs
12 relative to the ‘large’ SSG. Further, the ‘small’ SSG generated more tackles and fewer bounces
13 compared to the ‘large’ SSG. The ‘large’ SSG generated a greater absolute distance, relative distance,
14 maximum velocity, PlayerLoad[®] and distance > 4.16 m.s⁻¹ compared to the ‘small’ and ‘medium’ SSGs.
15 These results provide AF coaches with insights into how task constraint manipulation impacts the
16 technical and physical profiles of players during small-sided game-play. Thus, coaches and physical
17 performance specialists could use this information to assist with the tactical periodisation of technical
18 complexity and physical load at different phases of the AF season.

19 **Key words:** Notational analysis, team sport, constraints-led approach, skill acquisition, global
20 positioning system

21 INTRODUCTION

22 The multi-component, non-linear, and dynamic nature of team invasion sports often generates
23 challenges for practitioners when designing representative learning environments [1, 2]. A popular
24 strategy to account for this dynamic interaction between technical, physical, and perceptual-cognitive
25 requirements has been to utilise small-sided games (SSGs) [3-5]. Amongst other means, coaches
26 typically construct SSGs by manipulating the field dimensions and/or playing numbers [5, 6], with this
27 manipulation thought to shape the activity profiles of players. For example, Klusemann et al. [7]
28 demonstrated that increasing the number of players within a small-sided basketball game led to an
29 increased number of successful passes and a decreased number of dribbles. Timmerman et al. [5]
30 manipulated both pitch dimensions and player numbers within hockey games, noting the constrained
31 environments that forced greater player density saw the emergence of fewer successful passes, skilled
32 actions and a change in the physical activity profiles of players. Accordingly, manipulating features of
33 a performance environment could afford coaches with the capability to increase or decrease the
34 complexities associated with SSGs, information which would be of value for the periodization of skill
35 development in high performance sport [8].

36 A theoretical underpinning to assist coaches with the effective manipulation of SSGs may be the
37 constraints-led approach [9]. This theoretical approach considers organismic, environmental and task
38 constraints, and the role each play within skill acquisition [9, 10]. As each constraint class can be viewed
39 independently of one another, this approach offers coaches the relative flexibility in the manipulation
40 and control of certain constraints. Briefly, organismic constraints are defined by anthropometric (e.g.
41 limb length), physiological (e.g. $\dot{V}O_{2max}$) or psychological (e.g. resilience) capabilities, and are
42 categorised as either structural or functional [11]. Environmental constraints are those viewed external
43 to the human movement system, with examples including ambient temperature, light and altitude [11].
44 Task constraints are those which are specific to the task needing to be performed, and relate to its
45 outcome and/or rules [11]. Central to the present study, task constraint manipulation is likely to be of
46 most use to coaches given the relative control they are likely to possess over this constraint class during
47 SSGs [12].

48 The informed and strategic manipulation of the aforementioned constraint classes during SSGs is likely
49 to alter the perceptual information available to participants, potentially impacting upon the emergence
50 of idiosyncratic movement solutions [13]. For example, manipulating task constraints during SSGs,
51 such as the field dimensions, could influence the spatial and temporal pressures imposed upon
52 participants through an increased or decreased player density. The relative spatial and/or temporal
53 complexity generated by a reduction in playing space may result in the emergence of adaptive behaviour
54 [14], increase the difficulty of performing technical skills such as passing [5], and/or alter the physical
55 loads placed on the human movement system [6]. It is likely that field dimension manipulation would
56 also implicate the physical activity profiles of players during SSGs. When afforded with greater field
57 dimensions, it is likely that players will be afforded with a greater opportunity to reach higher running
58 velocities relative to SSGs played within smaller field dimensions [15]. Thus, this task manipulation is
59 likely to be important for coupling skill acquisition and physical conditioning in team sports, as it could
60 attune participants to pertinent environmental information to guide movement responses, while
61 affording them with opportunities to engage in differing physical activities.

62 Given multi-component nature of game-play, SSGs are a commonly used training modality within
63 Australian football (AF). Davies et al. [6] examined the influence of manipulating field dimension and
64 player numbers on the agility demands in elite senior AF. It was noted that a reduction in space via a
65 smaller field (increased player density) resulted in a small increase in agility manoeuvres, and a large
66 increase in two-dimensional (mediolateral and anterolateral) load [6]. While this information would be
67 of value for the physical conditioning of AF players, it remains unclear how the manipulation of field
68 dimension (task constraint) impacts upon the technical skill demands of SSGs in AF. The aim of this
69 work was to determine the effect of this task manipulation on the technical and physical profiles of AF
70 players. Given work conducted both in AF and other team invasion sports [5, 6], it was hypothesised
71 that this manipulation would alter the players technical and physical activity profiles given the changing
72 spatial and temporal constraints placed on players. Specifically, it was expected that smaller
73 dimensioned SSGs would incur greater erroneous technical activity and reduced total and relative
74 distances in contrast to larger dimensions SSGs.

75 **METHODS**

76 **Experimental Approach to the Problem**

77 To test the study hypothesis, an observational cross-sectional research design was used. All participants
78 competed within three different sized SSGs, defined as ‘small’, ‘medium’ and ‘large’ (Table 1). Each
79 SSG was completed on an outdoor regulation AF oval, with the dimensions being strategically
80 manipulated based upon prior work in AF [6]. Each SSG was contested between two teams of five
81 players (five-a-side), with both teams being quasi-randomized to ensure no team had a bias of a certain
82 playing position. Additionally, the players in each team were randomized each week, while a ‘small’,
83 ‘large’, and ‘medium’ design was followed to limit a potential SSG learning effect. To accommodate
84 four simultaneous SSG, field dimensions were set out so that the longest sides (i.e., 30m for the small
85 SSG) were adjacent to the longest side of the oval boundary.

86 ****** INSERT TABLE ONE ABOUT HERE ******

87 **Subjects**

88 Forty male participants competing within a state-based AF competition were recruited (23.9 ± 3.5 y;
89 185.2 ± 4.1 cm; 85 ± 8.4 kg; career games 52 ± 31.7). Participants provided full informed consent and
90 were free of injury at the time of all data collection. Ethics approval was granted by the relevant Human
91 Research Ethics Committee.

92 **Procedures**

93 *SSG Rules:* Regulation AF rules were imposed for each SSG (including full tackling), with accredited
94 coaches (level two AF coaches) possessing more than 10 years’ experience adjudicating each game. As
95 is common practice within AF SSGs and in accordance with prior SSG work in AF [6], disposal mode
96 was constrained, with participants only being eligible to handball. Participants ‘scored’ by handballing
97 the ball to a coach placed in the ‘goal zone’, with players being eligible to score at any stage throughout
98 the course of the SSG.

99 *SSG Procedures:* Each SSG was competed using an Australian Football League (AFL) match-day adult
100 sized football, with all participants wearing their football boots. Testing took place over the course of a

101 three-week block at the end of the preseason phase of training. Each SSG (small, medium or large) was
102 blocked into weeks one, two or three. Accordingly, week one consisted of two ‘small’ SSGs (performed
103 at the beginning of two training sessions), where game-play was contested over three 60 second playing
104 periods. Between each playing period, a passive recovery interval of 60 seconds was implemented,
105 during which players did not receive any coach driven augmented feedback. This protocol was repeated
106 for weeks two (medium) and three (large).

107 *Technical Involvements:* To enable the coding of technical involvements, each SSG was recorded using
108 a Casio Exilim EX-FH100 digital video camera (Casio, Australia), recording at 25 Hz. The cameras
109 were placed to enable a behind-the-goals aerial perspective, with pilot testing showing that this
110 perspective offered comprehensive insight into the participant’s movements. The technical skill
111 notations coded in this study, along with their subsequent description, are presented in Table 2. The
112 notational analysis was performed retrospectively via the use of SportsCode (Sportstec Limited,
113 Sydney, Australia). Given the subjective nature of this coding procedure, the inter-rater reliability of
114 the notational analysis was measured. The lead investigator coded all 11 technical variables for a
115 random 10% of the total number of SSGs. A co-investigator independently coded the same SSGs. Inter-
116 rater reliability was assessed using intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) statistics using SPSS
117 (version 21, SPSS Inc., USA). ICC range for the coded games was 0.926 – 0.997, showing excellent
118 reliability.

119 ****** INSERT TABLE TWO ABOUT HERE ******

120 *Physical Activity Profiles:* To ascertain the physical running demands of each SSG, players were fitted
121 with an OptimEye S4 global positioning system (GPS) unit (Catapult Innovations, Scoreby, Australia).
122 Each unit sampled at 10Hz and were positioned between each participant’s scapulae in a custom
123 designed harness provided by the manufacturer. The criterion variables extracted from these devices
124 included: total distance (m), relative distance ($\text{m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), maximum velocity ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), PlayerLoad[®] (AU;
125 extracted from the tri-axial accelerometers in each unit), and distances covered while light jogging (0 –
126 4.13 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), fast jogging (4.16 – 5.54 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and sprinting ($>5.55 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) [16].

127 **Statistical Analysis**

128 Descriptive statistics (mean \pm standard deviation) were calculated for each technical and physical
129 performance indicator relative to the SSG field dimensions. All analyses were conducted using SPSS
130 (version 21, SPSS Inc., USA), with the Type-I error rate being set at $P < 0.05$. To establish the inter-
131 rater reliability of the notational analysis, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated. Following
132 this, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) modelled the main effect of field dimension (Three
133 levels: small, medium and large) on the technical and physical criterion variables. Further, Cohen's d
134 effect size statistics were calculated according to the main effect, where $d < 0.10$ was considered trivial,
135 $d = 0.10 - 0.20$ small, $d = 0.21 - 0.50$ moderate, $d = 0.51 - 0.80$ large, and $d > 0.81$ very large [17].

136 **RESULTS**

137 The Pearson correlation coefficients for each technical skill indicator ranged between $r = 0.84 - 0.96$,
138 indicating strong inter-rater reliability for the notational analysis. There was a significant effect of field
139 dimension on the technical and physical skill performance criteria ($V = 1.032$; $F_{38, 102} = 2.863$; P
140 < 0.05). Thus, for brevity, the subsequent results have been partitioned into technical and physical
141 criterion variables.

142 *Technical Criterion Variables*

143 As displayed in Table 3, the number of turnovers decreased as the field dimensions increased, with the
144 'small' and 'medium' SSGs generating a significantly greater number of turnovers relative to the 'large'
145 dimension ($P < 0.05$; $d = 0.99$ and 0.82 , respectively). Further, the number of ineffective handballs
146 decreased with the concurrent increase in field dimension (Table 3). The 'large' SSG generated a
147 significantly fewer number of tackles ($P < 0.05$; $d = -0.79$) and greater number of bounces ($P < 0.05$; d
148 $= 0.75$) relative to the 'small' SSG. The remaining technical criterion variables did not yield a significant
149 effect.

150 ****** INSERT TABLE THREE ABOUT HERE ******

151 *Physical Criterion Variables*

152 Each physical criterion variable yielded a significant ‘large’ to ‘very large’ effect ($P < 0.05$; $d > 0.51$;
153 Table 3). Total distance, relative distance, maximum velocity, PlayerLoad®, fast jogging and sprinting
154 distances all significantly increased from ‘small’ to ‘large’ SSGs (Table 3). Conversely, the light
155 jogging distances significantly decreased as the SSG dimensions increased (Table 3).

156 **DISCUSSION**

157 The aim of this study was to determine the effect that field dimension manipulation during SSGs had
158 on the technical and physical profiles of Australian footballers. It was hypothesised that this
159 manipulation would result in observable changes in the participants technical and physical involvements
160 given the expected differing spatial and temporal complexities associated with each SSG. Supportive
161 of this hypothesis, and consistent with others [5,6], results demonstrated that a reduction in playing
162 space (increased player density) led to a greater count of turnovers, ineffective handballs, tackles, a
163 reduction in running bounces, and a considerable change in physical activity profile relative to larger
164 field dimensions (decreased player density). Accordingly, a reduction in field dimension may have
165 limited the participant’s capability to develop information-movement responses relative to their
166 functional capabilities (i.e., identify who to pass the ball to and then execute that response) [18]. These
167 results provide AF coaches with insights into how a relatively simple task constraint manipulation
168 within SSGs can alter the technical and physical involvements of players, with this potentially being of
169 use for both skill and conditioning periodization in AF [8].

170 It was apparent that the ‘small’ SSG generated the highest technical difficulty for participants relative
171 to the ‘medium’ and ‘large’ dimensions. The greater erroneous activity recorded in the ‘small’ SSG
172 could have arisen from temporal and spatial constraints generated between the attackers and defenders.
173 For example, the relatively greater count of turnovers and ineffective handballs could have stemmed
174 from the spatial pressure imposed upon the ball carrier from their opponent given the increased player
175 density. This spatial pressure is likely to have temporally constrained the attacker’s capability to
176 visually search for, and process, the necessary environmental information needed to inform their motor
177 response [7]. Concurrently, it is possible that the smaller field dimensions enabled greater dyadic
178 interactions between defenders and attackers [14]. Notably, the higher density in the ‘small’ SSG may

179 have afforded a defender with greater opportunity to impact the attacker. This is likely to place a greater
180 emphasis on the execution of the disposal, as the defender may have been afforded with a greater
181 capability to impact upon the pass, resulting in the higher count of turnovers and tackles recorded in the
182 ‘small’ SSG. Despite a regulation adult AF game being contested on playing fields with dimensions
183 between 130-150 m by 150-190 m [19], it is common for players to compete for ball possession in high
184 congestion, as they strive to gain a ‘clearance’ (the act of clearing the ball into space or to a teammate
185 in space). Pertinently, elite senior AF teams who accrue a greater count of clearances are more likely to
186 finish a season higher on the ladder [20]. Accordingly, despite the ‘small’ SSG incurring greater
187 erroneous passes, the temporal and spatial constraints imposed in this condition may assist AF players
188 to refine the perceptual and technical skills needed to manage congested scenarios experienced during
189 match-play.

190 As expected, the ‘large’ SSG resulted in greater total, relative, and high speed running distances as well
191 as PlayerLoad[®] and maximum velocities when compared to the ‘small’ and ‘medium’ SSGs. It is likely
192 that the greater field dimension and reduced player density in the ‘large’ SSG afforded participants with
193 the capability to utilise the space in an attempt to uncouple the attacker-defender dyad in order to
194 maintain possession. These observations are in general agreement with work conducted in youth hockey
195 [5], and soccer [21]. Casamichana and Castellano [21] found that a relatively larger pitch area resulted
196 in a higher physical and physiological workload in soccer, concluding that coaches could use this
197 information when designing practice conditions at different phases of a competitive season. Further, it
198 was of note that the ‘large’ SSG afforded participants with a greater capability to engage in running
199 bounces relative to the ‘small’ SSG. In AF, players must bounce the ball if they maintain possession
200 while running greater than 15 m. Thus, the greater space afforded to the players in the ‘large’ SSG
201 seemed to result in the emergence of an action (the bounce) that was not utilised by participants within
202 the ‘small’ or ‘medium’ SSGs. This observation is important for AF coaches, as it demonstrates that
203 SSG design is likely to shape the types of actions players perform.

204 In summary, the ‘large’ SSG generated fewer technical errors, tackles, more bounces, and a greater
205 physical activity profile relative to the ‘small’ and ‘medium’ dimensions. These observations were

206 likely driven by the increased spatial and temporal complexities associated with an increased player
207 density incurred by reducing the field dimensions. Despite these promising results, the study is not
208 without limitations that require acknowledgement. Firstly, given data availability, we were unable to
209 quantify the player's acceleration and deceleration profiles, information which is likely to be of use
210 when planning the conditioning of players throughout a football season. Secondly, it is possible that the
211 60 second duration of the SSGs limited a player's capability to fully engage in game-play, particularly
212 in the large dimension SSGs. Lastly, given the observational design of this work, it is difficult to
213 ascertain the exact causation of the increased erroneous technical activity in the 'small' SSGs (i.e.,
214 motor or perceptual). We hypothesise that errors were the resultant of both execution (motor) and
215 perceptual (passing to the 'wrong' player) misjudgements, but it would be an interesting avenue for
216 future research to empirically address given the implications the subsequent findings could yield for
217 skill periodization. Nonetheless, these limitations provide an enticing platform for future work, along
218 with the examination into other task constraint manipulation, such as understanding how player number
219 (in)equalities impact the technical and physical profiles of AF players during SSGs.

220 **PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS**

221 Two main practical applications stem from this work. Firstly, results demonstrate that strategic
222 manipulation of task constraints (field dimension) can result in behavioural changes in Australian
223 footballers. This could afford a coach with the capability to train players to attune their perceptions to
224 pertinent environmental information of use to inform motor responses, particularly in periods of high
225 player density. Secondly, coaches could use these results to assist with the periodization of the technical
226 and physical loads generated in their practice environments [8]. Specifically, in training phases that
227 require higher perceptual and technical complexity (perhaps 'in-season'), coaches may consider the use
228 of 'small' SSGs, while periods of the season requiring greater physical load (perhaps 'pre-season'),
229 coaches may consider the use of 'large' SSGs. Given these results, it would be of interest for future
230 work to ascertain how the manipulation of additional and interacting task constraints, such as player
231 numbers, impacts upon the technical and physical activity profiles of AF players.

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