PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ELITE YOUTH FEMALE SOCCER PLAYERS CHARACTERISED BY MATURITY STATUS

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6 Running Head: Female Soccer Physical Characteristics

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- 9 **ABSTRACT**
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12 The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of maturity status on the 13 physical characteristics of youth female soccer players. 157 players from 3 elite soccer 14 academies In England completed assessments of anthropometry, strength (isometric 15 mid-thigh pull; IMTP), lower body power (countermovement jump; CMJ), aerobic 16 capacity (YYIRL1), change of direction (CoD: 505-left/right), and speed (10 and 30 m). 17 Each player was classified into 1 of 6 maturity groups based on their estimated years 18 from peak height velocity (YPHV). Magnitude based-inferences were used to assess for 19 practical significance between consecutive groups. Speed, CoD time, CMJ and aerobic 20 capacity were all *possibly-most likely* better in more mature players. However, there was 21 a *likely* difference in relative peak force (PF) between maturity groups -0.5 YPHV (27.13 22 \pm 4.24 N·Kg⁻¹) and 0.5 YPHV (24.62 \pm 3.70 N·Kg⁻¹), which was associated with a *likely* difference in 10 m sprint time (-0.5 YPHV: 2.00 ± 0.12 s vs. 0.5 YPHV 2.08 ± 0.16 s) and 23 24 *unclear* changes in CMJ and CoD time. Findings provide novel comparative data for this 25 cohort relative to maturity status and can be used by strength and conditioning coaches 26 to inform the design of training programs for youth female soccer players. Strength and 27 conditioning coaches should be aware that youth female soccer players may experience a decrease in relative strength around PHV, which may impact upon the speed, CoD time 28 29 and CMJ of players.

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31 Key words: maturation, talent development, fitness testing

33 INTRODUCTION

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35 In recent years female soccer has grown rapidly, with an exponential rise in the number 36 of opportunities to play professionally and also increased youth participation 37 worldwide (33). To support this growth in female soccer, the Football Association (FA) 38 in England have created elite Regional Talent Centre's (RTC's) for the identification and 39 development of talented youth female soccer players, similar to the processes in the men's game (e.g., English Player Performance Plan; EPPP; 29). The RTC's operate within 40 41 youth age categories (i.e., Under 10 [U10], U12, U14 and U16), whereby girls are selected to train and compete within an academy environment. The aim is to develop 42 43 youth female players technically, tactically, psychologically and physically to prepare 44 them for the elite senior game (6).

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46 Currently there is limited research describing the physical characteristics of youth 47 female soccer players, thus comparative data are limited for S&C coaches working with 48 youth players to subsequently profile players against players beyond those within their 49 club (10). To the authors' knowledge only three studies have explored the physical 50 characteristics of youth female soccer players in England (10, 33, 36). However, the 51 studies by Taylor et al. (33) and Wright et al. (36) and were conducted prior to the 52 restructuring of the girls' soccer academies in England and therefore do not reflect the 53 current age group structuring, making comparisons difficult for current practitioners in 54 the field. Furthermore, these data were based on one academy with a small sample size 55 (U13; n=10 and U15; n=9 (33) n=14 players (36)) and one study only reported data by 56 chronological age (33). Emmonds et al. (10) did consider the influence of both age and 57 maturation on the strength characteristics of youth female soccer players, however little is known about the influence of maturation on other physical qualities such as lower
body power, change of direction and aerobic capacity, which are all important for soccer
performance (6).

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62 Research in male youth soccer (26, 31) has demonstrated the influence of maturation 63 status on physical performance of youth players, suggesting that it may be more 64 appropriate to consider youth athletes by maturity status instead of traditional chronological annual-age groupings (17). If S&C coaches working with elite youth 65 66 female soccer players are to use physical testing data to make informed decisions about 67 the 'athleticism' of players and to inform training program design, it is important that 68 S&C coaches are aware of the impact maturation may have on the development of 69 specific physical qualities. While there has been a large body of research exploring the 70 influence of maturation on the physical development of youth male soccer players (4, 71 18, 19, 26, 31) extrapolating male youth data and applying it to females may be 72 erroneous given the different physiological and morphological changes that occur in 73 males and females during maturation (3). Therefore, there is a need for further research 74 specific to female youth soccer players that considers the influence of maturity status on 75 physical qualities. This will allow S&C coaches and other practitioners working with 76 youth female players to make more informed decisions about a player's physical performance in relation to their stage of development. Therefore, the purpose of the 77 78 study was to evaluate the influence of maturity status on the physical characteristics of 79 elite youth female soccer players. Such findings will help S&C coaches better understand 80 the influence of maturation on the development of physical characteristics in young 81 female athletes. Such findings can be then used to inform the design of individualised 82 S&C program that are relevant to the individual stages of biological development, rather

83 than based on the chronological age.

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85 **METHODS**

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87 Experimental Approach to the Problem

88 A cross-sectional study design was conducted to investigate the influence of maturity 89 status on the physical characteristics of elite youth female soccer players. All subjects 90 undertook assessments of anthropometry and completed a physical testing battery at 91 the start of the 2016-2017 season (i.e., September, at the end of preseason). Testing was 92 conducted a minimum of 48 hours post competitive match play or training at each 93 respective RTC. A standardised warm-up, including jogging and dynamic movements 94 for 10-mins followed by jumps and sprints of progressive intensity for 5-mins were 95 undertaken prior to testing. This was then followed by full instruction and 96 demonstrations of the assessments. The lead researcher undertook all testing. 97 98 Anthropometry assessments included stature, sitting height and body mass. The testing 99 battery included assessments of strength (isometric mid-thigh pull; IMTP) on a portable 100 force plate, lower body power (countermovement jump; CMJ), aerobic capacity (Yo-Yo 101 intermittent recovery test level 1 (YYIRL1)), speed (10 and 30 m) and change of 102 direction (CoD 505 test left and right). The YYIRL1 was not conducted at the U10 age 103 category, as this was not current practice at the RTC's. 104

105 Subjects

106 157 female soccer players (U10, *n*=30; U12, *n*=38, U14, *n*=43, U16, *n*=46) were recruited
107 from three elite Tier 1 female soccer RTC's in England. Age categories were defined by

108 chronological age on the 1st September 2016, which established their status for
109 competition. All subjects were free from injury at the time of the study. U10 and U12 age
110 categories trained twice per week (2 x 90 min pitch based sessions and 1 x 60-min S&C
111 session, which included gym and field based sessions) and U14 and U16 age categories
112 trained three times per week (3 x 90 min based sessions and 2 x 60-min S&C sessions),
113 with each age group having on average 20 matches over a 35-week season.

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115 U10 and U12 age categories trained twice per week (2 x 90 min pitched based sessions 116 and 1 x 30-min strength and conditioning session) and U14 and U16 age categories trained three times per week (3 x 90 min based sessions and 2 x 60-min strength and 117 118 conditioning session), with each age group having on average 20 matches over a 35-119 week season. The maturation groups were determined by the predicted years from 120 peak height velocity (PHV) derived from anthropometric assessments (27). Prior to 121 participating in the study, institutional ethics approval was granted from the Research 122 Ethics Committee. Parental consent and subject ascent were obtained prior to 123 commencing the study.

124

125 Procedures

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127 Anthropometric Measurements and Maturity Status:

128 Standing height, sitting height and leg length were determined using previous methods

descried by Malina and Koziel (21). For the assessment of standing height, subjects

130 were stood in an erect posture with weight evenly distributed between both feet, heels

131 together, arms hanging relaxed at the sides and the head in the Frankfurt horizontal

plane. Standing height was measured to the nearest 0.1cm. Sitting height was also
measured to the nearest 0.1cm with the distance from a flat sitting surface (40 cm high)
to the top of the head taken as the measurement. Subjects sat in standard erect posture
with the head in the Frankfurt horizontal plane; knees were together and directed
straight ahead. Subjects were dressed in shorts and t-shirt with trainers removed for
the assessment of body mass. Body mass was measured to the neared 0.1 kg.

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Maturity was estimated from anthropometric measurements using the protocol 139 140 proposed by Mirwald et al. (27) equation (Equation 1) in which stature, sitting height, 141 leg length, chronological age and the interaction between these variables are used in 142 order to predict the number of years from PHV (YPHV, maturity offset). While some 143 studies have questioned the use of this method (20, 22), this method was chosen due to 144 the non-invasive nature of the assessment and the satisfactory levels of measurement 145 accuracy (27). The equation has been reported to be a reliable (R^2 = 0.91, SEE=0.50), 146 non-invasive practical solution for the measure of biological maturity for matching 147 adolescent athletes (27) and has previously used for the assessment of maturation in youth female soccer in previous research (36). YPHV was calculated for each subject by 148 149 subtracting the age at PHV from chronological age.

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Maturity Offset = -16.364 + 0.0002309 x leg length and sitting height interaction + 0.006277 x age and sitting height interaction + 0.179 x leg by height ratio + 0.0009428 x age and weight interaction.
Equation 1.
Each subject was categorized into 1 of 6 maturity-offset groups (i.e., -2.5 YPHV [≤ 2.0], -

1.5 YPHV [-1.99 to -1.0], -0.5 YPHV [-0.99 to 0.0], 0.5 YPHV [0.01 to 1.0], 1.5 YPHV [1.01

to 2.0], and 2.5 YPHV [\geq 2.01]). These categories were consistent with previous categories used in the literature to define maturity status (23).

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161 Strength:

162 The IMTP was performed on a commercially available portable force platform (AMTI, 163 ACP, Watertown, MA) with a sampling rate of 1000Hz, which is consistent with previous 164 methodologies (9). Subjects performed the IMTP on a customized pull rack, using a self-165 selected position similar to that of the second pull of a power clean, with a flat trunk 166 position and their shoulders in line with the bar (12). The self-selected mid-thigh 167 position was preferred, as differences in knee and hip joint angles during the IMTP have 168 previously been shown to have no influence on kinetic variables (5). Subjects were 169 given two practice trials prior to testing commencing. Subjects were instructed to pull 170 as "fast and hard" as possible, and received loud, verbal encouragement (9). Each 171 subject completed two trials lasting five seconds, with five mins rest between each trial. The highest PF achieved over the two trials was considered the subjects 'best trial.' PF 172 was identified as the maximum force value obtained during the best trial of the IMTP. 173 PF intraclass correlation (ICC) and coefficient of variation (CV) PF were r = 0.93, CV = 174 175 3.6%. In addition to highest PF, relative PF was calculated using the ratio scaling 176 method (i.e. PF / body mass) (14).

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178 Lower Body Power:

Lower body power was assessed using a CMJ in an indoor gym facility that provided a
consistent stable flooring to minimize the influence of external factors (e.g., weather,
foot-surface interaction) and were allowed 2-mins recovery between jumps. The CMJs
were performed according to previously described methods (30) using a portable

183 photoelectric cell system (Optojump; Microgate, Bolzano, Italy). This equipment has 184 been reported as both reliable and valid (CV = 6%, SEE = 1%) for vertical jump 185 assessment compared with a biomechanical force plate (11). Jump height was 186 calculated using the cell system software (Optojump Next v1.7.9; Microgate). Subjects 187 completed 3 submaximal CMJ efforts prior to testing commencing. The CMJ started from 188 an upright position. When given a verbal command, the subjects made the downward 189 countermovement to their preferred depth and then jumped as high as possible. 190 Subjects were required to keep their legs straight during the airborne phase of the 191 jump. The highest jump was selected for analysis. ICC and CV for CMJ were r = 0.96, CV 192 = 4.5%.

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194 *Aerobic Capacity*:

195 Aerobic capacity was assessed using the YYIR1. The YYIR1 was selected as it has been 196 reported as a valid and reliable test (r = 0.98, CV = 4.9%) for the assessment of soccer 197 specific fitness (15). The test consisted of repeated 20 m shuttle runs at progressively 198 increasing speeds dictated by an audio bleep emitted from a CD player. Between each 199 shuttle a recovery period of 10 seconds is allowed involving walking around a marker placed 5 m behind the finishing line. Failure to achieve the shuttle run in time on two 200 201 occasions resulted in termination of the test. The final level achieved and total running 202 distances were recorded.

203

204 Change of Direction (CoD) Time:

CoD was assessed using the 505 test, whereby the subjects were positioned 15 m from a
turning point. Timing gates (Brower Timing Systems, IR Emit, USA). were placed 10 m
from the start point and 5 m from the turn point. Subjects accelerated from the start

through the timing gates, turning 180° at the 15 m mark and sprinted back through the
timing gates. Subjects completed 3 alternate attempts on each foot (i.e., right and left
leg), separated by a 2–3 minute rest period. Only attempts whereby the subjects' foot
crossed the 15 m mark were included. Times were recorded to the nearest 0.01 sec with
the quickest of the 3 attempts used as the final score. Data are presented as dominant
(D) or non-dominant (ND) foot based on preferred kicking foot. ICC and CV for the 505
test were r = 0.995, CV = 2.2%.

215

216 Sprint time:

Sprint times were assessed over 10 m and 30 m using timing gates (Brower Timing
Systems, IR Emit, USA). Subjects started 0.5 m behind the initial timing gate and were
instructed to set off in their own time and run maximally past the 30 m timing gate.
Each subject had 3 attempts, separated by a 3-minute rest period. Times were recorded
to the nearest 0.01 seconds with the quickest of the three attempts used for the sprint
score. ICC and CV's for 10 and 30 m sprint time were r = 0.76, CV = 4.8% and r = 0.78, CV
= 3.9%, respectively.

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225 Statistical Analyses

226 Data are presented as mean \pm SDs by maturity status. All data were log transformed to 227 reduce bias as a result of non-uniformity error. Magnitude based-inferences were used 228 to assess for practical significance between consecutive maturity groups for each 229 variable (13). The threshold for a difference to be considered practically important (the 230 smallest worthwhile difference; SWD) was set at 0.2 x between subject SD for the 231 comparison groups, based on Cohen's *d* effect size (ES) principle. The probability that 232 the magnitude of difference was greater than the SWD was rated as <0.5%, *almost* 233 *certainly not*; 0.5-5%, *very unlikely*; 5-25%, *unlikely*; 25-75%, *possibly*; 75-95%, *likely*; 95-99.5%, very likely; >99.5%, almost certainly (16). ES were rated as trivial (<0.2), 234 235 *small* (0.2<0.6), *moderate* (0.6<1.2) *large* (1.2<2.0) or *very large* (2.0<4.0) (14). Where 236 the 90% Confidence Interval (CI) crossed both the upper and lower boundaries of the 237 SWD (ES±0.2), the magnitude of difference was described as *unclear* (13). 238 239 RESULTS 240 241 The anthropometric and physical characteristics of elite youth female soccer players by maturity status are presented in Table 1 and the standardized differences for 242 243 anthropometric and physical characteristics between consecutive maturation groups 244 are shown in Table 2. Stature and sitting height were very likely to most likely greater in 245 more mature players. *Likely to most likely* differences in leg length were observed in 246 consecutive maturity groups until 0.5 YPHV, with only *possibly* differences observed 247 between consecutive maturity groups post-PHV. Likely to most likely differences in body 248 mass were observed between consecutive maturity groups, with more mature players 249 being heavier than less mature players 250 ***Insert Table 1 Near Here**** 251

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PF was *likely to most likely* greater for more mature players. However, differences in
relative PF between consecutive maturity groups were *possibly small to possibly trivial*,
except for between maturity groups -0.5 YPHV and 0.5 YPHV, where a *likely* difference
was observed. There were *likely* differences in CMJ between consecutive maturity
groups -2.5 to -0.5 YPHV but only *possibly small* differences between groups -0.5 and 0.5

| 258 | YPHV were observed. <i>Most likely</i> differences in CMJ height were observed in maturity |
|-----|---|
| 259 | groups 1.5 YPHV – 2.5 YPHV. Both 10 and 30 m sprint times were lower in more mature |
| 260 | players, with <i>possibly</i> to <i>most likely</i> differences observed between consecutive maturity |
| 261 | groups until 1.5 YPHV. Differences in 10 and 30 m sprint times between the maturity |
| 262 | groups 1.5 YPHV – 2.5 YPHV were <i>possibly trivial to possibly small</i> , respectively. |
| 263 | |
| 264 | CoD time was less in more mature players with possibly to very likely differences |
| 265 | observed between maturity groups, except for between maturity groups -0.5 YPHV – 0.5 |
| 266 | YPHV, where differences between groups were <i>possibly trivial. Likely small</i> differences |
| 267 | in distance covered on the YYIRL1 were observed between maturity groups 0.5 YPHV – |
| 268 | -0.5 YPHV. All other differences between consecutive maturity groups were <i>possibly</i> |
| 269 | trivial. |
| 270 | |
| 271 | ***Insert Table 2 Near Here**** |
| 272 | |
| 273 | DISCUSSION |
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| 275 | The aim of this study was to investigate the influence of maturation on the physical |
| 276 | characteristics of youth female soccer players. Findings demonstrate that speed, CoD, |
| 277 | lower body power and aerobic fitness were improved in more mature players. |
| 278 | However, the development of physical characteristics was non-linear between |
| 279 | consecutive maturation groups. S&C coaches need to consider the maturity status of |
| 280 | youth female soccer players when evaluating physical testing data and consider the |
| 281 | non-linear development of physical qualities. Such data can also be used as comparative |

data by S&C coaches working in youth female soccer when assessing the performance oftheir own players.

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Differences in leg length between consecutive maturity groups were greatest between
groups -2.5 - -0.5 YPHV. These findings are consistent with normal somatic growth,
whereby peak leg length growth occurs just before PHV (17). The development of
anthropometric characteristics with advancing maturity likely accounts for a number of
observed changes in physical characteristics between consecutive maturity groups (19),
therefore highlighting the importance of regularly assessing maturity status

291 (approximately every 3 months, (17)).

292

293 PF was greater in more mature female soccer players, which may be attributed to 294 biological changes associated with advanced maturity, including increased body mass 295 (3). Furthermore, given more mature players were typically older, the greater PF may 296 also be explained by an increased exposure to a structured S&C program within the 297 academies at the older age groups (i.e. structured gym based resistance training at the 298 U14 and U16 age categories twice per week for 60-mins). However, when made relative 299 to body mass, relative PF did not increase linearly between consecutive maturity groups, 300 highlighting the importance of considering relative versus absolute measures of PF. 301 Greatest relative PF was observed in the maturity group -0.5 YPHV (0.99 to 0.0 YPHV), 302 which may be related to hormonal and morphological changes (i.e. increase in muscle 303 mass) reported to occur around PHV (3). These findings are consistent with previous 304 longitudinal (7) and cross-sectional (2) strength assessment research for non-elite 305 female athletes. A likely moderate difference in relative PF was observed between maturity groups -0.5 YPHV and 0.5 YPHV, with lower relative PF in the more mature 306

307 players (0.5 YPHV). In line with this finding, there were also unclear changes in lower body power (CMJ height) between these respective maturity groups. Together these 308 309 findings suggest that female soccer players may experience a reduction in relative PF and 310 consequently lower body power at 0.5 YPHV [0.01 to 1.0 YPHV]. This may be explained 311 by a potential increase in fat mass associated with peak weight velocity (PWV), that 312 occurs in females 3.5 to 10.5 months after PHV (3), which has a non-functional role for 313 athletic performance. However, a limitation of this study was that it was not possible to 314 obtain body composition data for players, therefore the reason for the observed 315 differences is speculative and requires further research. Nonetheless, S&C coaches should be aware of this possible reduction in relative PF after PHV in youth female soccer 316 317 players, given the known relationship between strength and athletic performance (32) 318 and the relationship between low relative strength and increased risk of injury in 319 children (8). Findings support the need for youth female soccer players to regularly 320 undertake structured strength training as part of their training program, particularly 321 after PHV.

322

323 Both 10 and 30 m sprint times were less in more mature players, indicating faster sprint 324 times with advanced maturity. However, findings demonstrate that acceleration ability 325 (10 m) and maximum speed (30 m) are unique physical qualities, which do not develop 326 at the same rate between consecutive maturity groups. Greatest differences in 30 m 327 sprint time between consecutive maturity groups was observed between -2.5 – 0.5 YPHV, 328 with very likely-likely differences observed. This may be explained by the very likely -329 *most likely* differences in leg length between these respective groups, which has been 330 reported in male youth athletes to account for improvements in stride length and thus sprint time (23). In contrast, 10 m sprint time may be influenced more by relative 331

332 strength, improved running mechanics and neuromuscular control (24). Players -0.5 333 YPHV had faster 10 m sprint times than players 0.5 YPHV. As previously discussed, this 334 was in line with a *likely moderate* difference in relative PF between these consecutive 335 maturity groups, which may have had a negative influence on force production 336 capabilities (25). Again, this supports the need for youth female soccer players to 337 regularly undertake strength training as part of their weekly training schedule as 338 strength development in addition to the development of correct movement patterns and 339 neuromuscular control, underpins the development of other physical qualities (31).

340

This finding is in contrast to the findings of youth male soccer players who have been 341 342 reported to display an improvement in sprint times after PHV (23). These differences may 343 be due to the different physiological changes that occur in males and females with the 344 onset of maturation, with males experiencing a greater increase in lean muscle mass 345 which results in improved expression of both concentric strength and power (16). As 346 previously discussed, an increase in body mass and fat mass in females after PHV may 347 possibly explain why 10 m sprint times increased in the maturity group 0.5 YPHV. 348 Therefore, coaches working with youth female soccer players who are -0.5 - 0.5 YPHV need to be aware that players may experience increases in sprint times during this period 349 350 of development and consider this when evaluating the physical performance of players.

351

CoD times were less in more mature players, indicating more efficient CoD ability, however greatest differences between consecutive maturation groups were observed -2.5 - -1.0 YPHV (*likely – very likely*). Improvements in CoD time in players at this stage of maturation may be explained by improvements in neuromuscular control and coordination (8). Players at the U10 and U12 age groups included in this study, were 357 regularly taking part in a structured S&C session each week, in addition to two field based soccer training sessions. Given that previous research has shown CoD time can be 358 359 improved in less mature players using neuromuscular training (8), potentially this may 360 have also facilitated improvements in neuromuscular control beyond the natural 361 development of this physical attribute at this stage of development. Differences in CoD 362 time between maturity groups circa-PHV (-0.5 – 0.5 YPHV) were unclear. Given that 363 relative strength has previously been reported to be strongly correlated with CoD time in female athletes, the lower relative PF observed in females 0.5 YPHV in this study may 364 365 explain why differences in CoD time at these maturity groups were *unclear*.

366

367 Distance covered on the YYIRL1 was greater for more mature players. *Likely* differences 368 were observed between maturity groups -0.5 – 0.5 YPHV. This is consistent with findings 369 for 8-16-year-old untrained youth females, where aerobic fitness was observed to be 370 greatest around circa-PHV and decrease post-PHV (28). Previous research has reported 371 that growth-related changes to the central and peripheral cardiovascular system, 372 including increases in stroke volume and cardiac output, as well as changes in muscular 373 function and metabolic capability occur around the onset of PHV (3). This may explain 374 the *likely* differences in aerobic capacity observed between maturity groups -0.5 – 0.5 375 YPHV. Furthermore, research has shown that percentage body fat is an important factor in the variation of aerobic fitness of youth females (1, 28). Therefore, *unclear* differences 376 377 in distance covered on the YYIRL1 test between maturity groups post-PHV in this study 378 may be explained by a possible increase in fat mass at this stage of development. As such 379 it is important that S&C coaches working with this cohort actively look to develop the 380 aerobic capacity of youth female players post-PHV.

382 While this study provides S&C coaches with a better understanding of the influence of 383 maturity status on the physical development of youth female athletes, it must be noted 384 that this study is not without its limitations. Firstly, the estimation of maturation from 385 somatic measures and predictive equations rather than using a measure of biological 386 maturation likely results in some degree of error (20, 22), which coaches must consider 387 when interpreting the data. Analysis of such data is further complicated by the different 388 categories used in the literature to define maturity status. Given that players may not 389 have all entered the RTC at the same age, a second limitation of the study was that it was 390 not possible to obtain information on the training age of the players which may influence physical performance. Therefore, future research should also look to consider the 391 392 training age of players in addition to other variables not evaluated in this study which 393 may impact on physical performance (i.e. menstrual cycle, training loads). Finally, this 394 study adopted a cross-sectional design, thus future studies should look to employ 395 longitudinal designs to infer development trajectories as opposed to differences by 396 maturation status.

397

398 Practical Applications

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It is recommended that S&C coaches regularly monitor anthropometric variables to detect periods of rapid growth and maturation, which may impact upon the physical characteristics of youth female soccer players. S&C coaches need to be aware that relative PF may decrease following PHV, which may impact upon players lower body power, 10 m acceleration and CoD time. Therefore, coaches should consider a players' stage of biological age when evaluating physical testing scores or designing S&C programs in addition to other factors such as training age. Given the importance of strength for athletic performance (32), it is recommended that S&C coaches should look to improve neuromuscular strength and fundamental movement skills in players pre-PHV. These qualities can be developed by working on correct running mechanics, multi-planer jumping and landing tasks and sprinting as part of fun and engaging pitch based warm ups (35). Players circa-PHV may experience decreases in relative PF, therefore it is important S&C coaches focus on the development of strength during this period of development. However, it is important that coaches are aware that players at this stage may also experience a reduction in co-ordination, therefore the focus of resistance based exercises must first be on technique (35), which can be developed as part of structured gym based training sessions as well as continuing to develop running mechanics and jumping technique as part of pitch based training sessions. Players post-PHV may benefit from individualised gym and pitch based conditioning programmes. Furthermore, findings of this study suggest the coaches should look to actively develop the aerobic system in player's post-PHV. Manipulation of small-sided games combined with short duration intermittent high-intensity running drills may provide an efficient training stimulus whilst concurrently developing technical/tactical skills within the same session.

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| | Maturity Offset Groups (YPHV) | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | -2.5 (n = 24) | -1.5 (n = 30) | -0.5 (n = 19) | 0.5 (<i>n</i> = 22) | 1.5 (n = 36) | 2.5 (n = 27) |
| Age (y) | 9.16 ± 0.61 | 10.70 ± 0.62 | 11.87 ± 0.31 | 12.83 ± 0.67 | 14.01 ± 0.65 | 15.19 ± 0.67 |
| Height (cm) | 131.9 ± 6.3 | 142.4 ± 4.4 | 151.1 ± 4.5 | 157.4 ± 4.8 | 162.2 ± 4.4 | 165.8 ± 6.9 |
| Sitting Height (cm) | 67.3 ± 3.2 | 70.9 ± 2.9 | 74.8 ± 2.8 | 78.7 ± 2.9 | 82.2 ± 2.6 | 84.4 ± 3.9 |
| Leg Length (cm) | 64.6 ± 4.4 | 71.5 ± 3.6 | 76.4 ± 3.5 | 78.8 ± 2.8 | 80.0 ± 3.8 | 81.4 ± 4.1 |
| Body Mass (kg) | 28.3 ± 4.5 | 33.4 ± 3.8 | 40.5 ± 4.9 | 49.0 ± 5.0 | 54.9 ± 5.1 | 57.5 ± 7.5 |
| Peak Force (N) | 729 ± 105 | 880 ± 112 | 1093 ± 171 | 1206 ± 223 | 1391 ± 196 | 1523 ± 207 |
| Relative Peak Force (N·Kg ⁻¹) | 26.16 ± 4.22 | 26.44 ± 2.89 | 27.13 ± 4.24 | 24.62 ± 3.70 | 25.36 ± 2.73 | 26.68 ± 3.66 |
| CMJ (cm) | 23.46 ± 4.86 | 25.96 ± 4.44 | 28.64 ± 3.84 | 29.61 ± 3.52 | 28.63 ± 3.87 | 33.42 ± 4.33 |
| 10 m Sprint (s) | 2.22 ± 0.13 | 2.21 ± 0.17 | 2.00 ± 0.12 | 2.08 ± 0.16 | 1.99 ± 0.14 | 1.98 ± 0.15 |
| 30 m Sprint (s) | 5.75 ± 0.34 | 5.40 ± 0.64 | 5.09 ± 0.21 | 4.98 ± 0.47 | 4.90 ± 0.26 | 4.81 ± 0.27 |
| 505 CoD Dominant (s) | 2.99 ± 0.39 | 2.73 ± 0.19 | 2.69 ± 0.15 | 2.69 ± 0.20 | 2.61 ± 0.15 | 2.54 ± 0.11 |
| 505 CoD N-Dominant (s) | 3.03 ± 0.41 | 2.76 ± 0.19 | 2.71 ± 0.12 | 2.71 ± 0.17 | 2.64 ± 0.16 | 2.53 ± 0.08 |
| YYIRL (m) | | 668 ± 284 | 716 ± 234 | 897 ± 404 | 888 ± 288 | 952 ± 320 |

Table 1: Anthropometric and physical characteristics of youth female soccer players by maturity offset group

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviations

| able 2: Standardis | ed differences and effect s | sizes betwee |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| | | Mat |
| | -2.5 <i>vs.</i> -1.5 | -1.5 <i>vs.</i> |
| ve (v) | Most Likely | Very Lii |

| 3 | Table 2: Standardised differences and effect sizes between consecutive maturity offset group in youth female soccer players |
|---|---|
| | Maturity Offset Groups (YPHV) comparisons |

| | -2.5 <i>vs.</i> -1.5 | -1.5 <i>vs.</i> -0.5 | -0.5 <i>vs.</i> 0.5 | 0.5 <i>vs.</i> 1.5 | 1.5 <i>vs.</i> 2.5 |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Age (y) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Very Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> |
| | (-2.50 ± 0.62) | (-2.39 ± 0.65) | (-1.84 ± 0.64) | (-1.79 ± 0.54) | (-1.79 ± 0.50) |
| Height (cm) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | Very Likely |
| | (-1.92 ± 0.56) | (-1.96 ± 0.60) | (-1.36 ± 0.59) | (-1.04 ± 0.49) | (-0.62 ± 0.44) |
| Sitting Height (cm) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | Very Likely |
| | (-1.17 ± 0.50) | (-1.35 ± 0.55) | (-1.36 ± 0.59) | (-1.29 ± 0.50) | (-0.68 ± 0.44) |
| Leg Length (cm) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Very Likely</i> | <i>Likely</i> | <i>Possibly</i> | <i>Possibly</i> |
| | (-1.71 ± 0.54) | (-1.37 ± 0.55) | (-0.77 ± 0.55) | (-0.37 ± 0.46) | (-0.34 ± 0.43) |
| Body Mass (kg) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Very Likely</i> | <i>Likely</i> |
| | (-1.23 ± 0.50) | (-1.61 ± 0.57) | (-1.71 ± 0.62) | (-1.17 ± 0.50) | (-0.41 ± 0.43) |
| Peak Force (N) | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Likely</i> | Very Likely | Very Likely |
| | (-1.39 ± 0.51) | (-1.47 ± 0.56) | (-0.57 ± 0.55) | (-0.88 ± 0.48) | (-0.66 ± 0.44) |
| Relative Peak Force | Unclear | <i>Unclear</i> | <i>Likely</i> | Unclear | <i>Possibly</i> |
| (N·Kg ⁻¹) | (-0.08 ± 0.46) | (-0.19 ± 0.50) | (0.63 ± 0.55) | (-0.23 ± 0.46) | (-0.41 ± 0.43) |
| CMJ (cm) | <i>Likely</i> (-0.54 ± 0.47) | <i>Likely</i> (-0.65 ± 0.51) | Unclear (-0.26 ± 0.54) | Possibly (0.26 ± 0.46) | <i>Most Likely</i> (-1.17 ± 0.46) |
| 10 m Sprint (s) | Unclear | <i>Most Likely</i> | <i>Likely</i> | <i>Likely</i> | Unclear |
| | (0.07 ± 0.46) | (1.43 ± 0.56) | (-0.57 ± 0.54) | (0.60 ± 0.47) | (0.07 ± 0.43) |
| 30 m Sprint (s) | Very Likely | <i>Likely</i> | <i>Possibly</i> | Unclear | <i>Possibly</i> |
| | (0.68 ± 0.47) | (0.65 ± 0.51) | (0.30 ± 0.54) | (0.21 ± 0.46) | (0.34 ± 0.43) |
| 505 CoD Dominant (s) | <i>Likely</i> (0.85 ± 0.48) | Unclear (0.23 ± 0.50) | Unclear (0.00 ± 0.53) | <i>Possibly</i> (0.45 ± 0.47) | <i>Likely</i> (0.53 ± 0.43) |
| 505 CoD N-Dominant | Very Likely | <i>Possibly</i> | Unclear | Possibly Trivial | <i>Very Likely</i> |
| (s) | (0.84 ± 0.48) | (0.31 ± 0.50) | (0.00 ± 0.53) | (0.42 ± 0.47) | (0.87 ± 0.45) |
| YYIRL (m) | | Unclear (-0.18 ± 0.50) | <i>Likely</i> (-0.55 ± 0.54) | Unclear (0.03 ± 0.46) | Unclear (-0.21 ± 0.43) |

Magnitude based inferences and effect sizes (ES ± 90 Confidence Intervals)