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Journal article

**The association between visual exploration and passing performance in high-level U13 and U23 football players**

**McGuckian, Thomas B., Beavan, Adam, Mayer, Jan, Chalkley, Daniel and Pepping, Gert-Jan**

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1 **The association between visual exploration and passing perfor-**  
2 **mance in high-level U13 and U23 football players**

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4 Thomas B. McGuckian<sup>1\*</sup>, Adam Beavan<sup>2</sup>, Jan Mayer<sup>3</sup>, Daniel Chalkley<sup>1</sup>, Gert-Jan  
5 Pepping<sup>1</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup> School of Behavioural and Health Sciences, Australian Catholic University, Bris-  
7 bane, Australia

8 <sup>2</sup> Institute of Sports and Preventive Medicine, Saarland University, Saarbrücken,  
9 Germany.

10 <sup>3</sup> TSG 1899 Hoffenheim, Zuzenhausen, Germany

11  
12 \* Corresponding author: [Thomas.mcguckian@acu.edu.au](mailto:Thomas.mcguckian@acu.edu.au)

13  
14 ORCID:

15 Thomas B. McGuckian: 0000-0002-5490-0042

16 Adam Beavan: 0000-0001-5186-2426

17 Daniel Chalkley: 0000-0002-5243-0251

18 Gert-Jan Pepping: 0000-0002-5926-2000

19  
20 Twitter handles:

21 Thomas B. McGuckian: @TBMcGuckian

22 Adam Beavan: @BeavanAdam

23 Daniel Chalkley: @danchalk

24 Gert-Jan Pepping: @gjpepping

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27        **The association between visual exploration and passing perfor-**  
28                    **mance in high-level U13 and U23 football players**

29    **Abstract**

30    The visual exploratory actions (i.e. scanning head movements) used by football players to  
31    perceive their surrounding environment have recently gained interest. While this has result-  
32    ed in important findings relating to visual exploration during natural match-play, often the  
33    study designs lacked the experimental control of laboratory-based experimental settings. We  
34    aimed to investigate whether visual exploratory action is associated with passing perfor-  
35    mance for high-level U13 and U23 players in a controlled skill assessment setting. Fourteen  
36    U13 and 13 U23 football players from a Bundesliga club completed a standardised 32-trial  
37    sequence in the Footbonaut. Exploratory head movements were recorded with a head-worn  
38    inertial sensor, from which the count, frequency and excursion of head movements were ex-  
39    tracted before and during ball possession. Ball reception and disposal were coded for each  
40    trial, and performance was operationalised as the time taken to complete each trial. Across  
41    all players, visual exploratory action was associated with passing performance. The variables  
42    that best explained faster performance were 1) a higher number of head turns before receiv-  
43    ing the ball, 2) a lower number of head turns when in possession of the ball, and 3) being an  
44    U23 player. However, different combinations of variables explained performance for U13  
45    and U23 players. The findings demonstrate the value of scanning before receiving the ball to  
46    prospectively control passing actions in the Footbonaut. Future research should investigate  
47    the shared and contrasting characteristics of scanning actions, as they are observed by play-  
48    ers in skill assessment tasks such as the Footbonaut, during training and during match-play.

49    **Keywords**

50    Scanning; performance; decision-making; soccer; situation awareness; Footbonaut

51

52    **1. Introduction**

53        Football (Association Football) performance is determined by the interaction between tech-  
54    nical, tactical, physical and psychological components of play (Brink & Lemmink, 2018; Hughes et  
55    al., 2012; Lovell, Bocking, Fransen, Kempton, & Coutts, 2018). While each of these components of  
56    play have been investigated, technical skills such as passing ability have received significant atten-  
57    tion, particularly from performance analysis (Liu et al., 2015, 2016; Loxston, Lawson, & Unnithan,  
58    2019; Rein, Raabe, & Memmert, 2017; Varley et al., 2017) and talent identification (Bennett et al.,  
59    2017; Sarmiento, Anguera, Pereira, & Araújo, 2018; Vaeyens et al., 2006) perspectives. Further,  
60    coaches consider technical attributes to be highly important across various playing positions  
61    (Roberts, McRobert, Lewis, & Reeves, 2019), whilst attributes related to an athletes perceptual-  
62    motor abilities, such as perception of affordances, calibration and attunement (Dicks, Button,  
63    Davids, Chow, & Van der Kamp, 2017; Pacheco, Lafe, & Newell, 2019; van Andel, Cole, & Pepping,

64 2017), have received considerably less attention. Importantly, the perceptual-motor abilities of play-  
65 ers are intimately linked with the performance of technical actions (Dunton, O'Neill, & Coughlan,  
66 2019; McGuckian, Cole, Jordet, Chalkley, & Pepping, 2018b). Given the above, when investigating  
67 the successful performance of technical actions, related perceptual-motor factors should also be  
68 considered.

69 One perceptual-motor factor that has been shown to be related to successful passing perfor-  
70 mance are the visual exploratory actions (VEA) which precede gaining possession of the ball (Jordet,  
71 2005; McGuckian, Cole, & Pepping, 2018c). These VEA, characterised by turning of the head about  
72 the longitudinal axis, provide players with information about their surrounding environment. Re-  
73 search has defined a range of VEA variables in attempts to understand different qualities of explora-  
74 tory movement and its relation to performance. Typically, there are three main variables that are  
75 extracted. The count of head turns represents the total number of head movements completed in a  
76 predetermined time, head turn frequency (HTF) represents the number of head movements per sec-  
77 ond, and head turn excursion (HTE) represents the total size (in degrees) of head movements per  
78 second (Chalkley, Shepherd, McGuckian, & Pepping, 2018; McGuckian, Cole, Chalkley, Jordet, &  
79 Pepping, 2019; McGuckian et al., 2018b). An important aspect of VEA is whether a player is in pos-  
80 session of the ball or not, as VEA *before* ball possession (i.e. action orientation) may relate to pro-  
81 spective regulation of movement with the ball differently than VEA *during* ball possession (i.e.  
82 action specification, see van Andel, McGuckian, Chalkley, Cole, & Pepping, 2019). Therefore, re-  
83 search has also typically quantified the count, HTF and HTE separately for the time before ball pos-  
84 session (termed the exploration phase) and while a player is in ball possession (termed the  
85 possession phase) (McGuckian et al., 2019; McGuckian, Cole, Chalkley, Jordet, & Pepping, 2020).  
86 The count and HTF of VEA give an indication of *how often* a player is changing their visual orienta-  
87 tion to perceive their environment, while the HTE gives an indication of *how much* of the environ-  
88 ment a player is exploring (Chalkley et al., 2018; Freedman, 2008; McGuckian et al., 2018b).

89 The information gained from VEA has been shown to be used to prospectively guide actions  
90 leading up to and during possession of the ball, with more extensive VEA (i.e. higher count, HTF or  
91 HTE) being related to higher pass success (Jordet, Bloomfield, & Heijmerikx, 2013), higher likeli-  
92 hood of turning with the ball and playing attacking passes (Eldridge, Pulling, & Robins, 2013;  
93 McGuckian et al., 2018b), and quicker passing responses (McGuckian et al., 2019). However, con-  
94 straining factors, such as playing role, pitch position and phase of play have been shown to influence  
95 VEA (McGuckian et al., 2020), which demonstrates the complex relationship between VEA and per-  
96 formance. Still, the value of VEA for performance is clear. What's more, highly experienced football  
97 coaches perceive VEA to be a particularly important skill, and they are more likely to prioritise the  
98 development of VEA in their training programs (Pulling, Kearney, Eldridge, & Dicks, 2018).

99 The Footbonaut (CGoal GmbH, Berlin, Germany) is a skill assessment and training tool that  
100 consists of an artificial turf surface surrounded by eight ball dispensing machines and 64 square tar-

101 get gates. The machine can be custom programmed to dispense balls at various speeds, at various  
102 angles and with various ball spin, and the target gates can be custom timed to indicate the location  
103 that balls should be kicked to. Performance is automatically measured according to the accuracy and  
104 speed of passing. The test-retest reliability and discriminant validity of the Footbonaut has recently  
105 been demonstrated in high-level football players aged U12 to U23 (Beavan et al., 2019a). The Foot-  
106 bonaut demonstrated acceptable test-retest reliability across all age groups and was able to discrim-  
107 inate between younger (U12-U14) and older (U15-U23) players. Due to the vast combinations of ball  
108 dispensing and target locations, the Footbonaut has been used as an assessment tool for technical  
109 control, passing and shooting ability in an unpredictable and 360-degree environment. Despite be-  
110 ing able to discriminate between younger and older players, the factors that contribute to these dif-  
111 ferences in perceptual-motor performance in the Footbonaut are unclear. In order to better  
112 understand perceptual and passing performance in the Footbonaut, and to facilitate transfer of per-  
113 ceptual and passing performance from skill assessment (the Footbonaut) to training and match-play  
114 scenarios, there is a need to quantify the perceptual aspects that relate to improved passing perfor-  
115 mance in the Footbonaut.

116 The current study aimed to address a gap in the current literature by investigating the rela-  
117 tive influence of VEA variables on passing performance in the Footbonaut. High-level U13 and U23  
118 football players were recruited in order to test i) the difference in VEA used by the two age groups;  
119 and ii) the relative role of VEA on passing performance for players at different developmental stages.  
120 Given the influence of playing position on VEA during match-play (McGuckian et al., 2020), playing  
121 position was also investigated as a factor of interest. Following previous research (Eldridge et al.,  
122 2013; Jordet et al., 2013; McGuckian et al., 2019, 2018b), it was expected that older players would  
123 complete passes more quickly and use more extensive VEA before receiving possession of the ball  
124 than younger players, and that more extensive VEA before receiving the ball would contribute to  
125 better performance on the football passing task.

126

## 127 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 128 **2.1 Participants**

129 Twenty-seven male football players representing a high-level club in the top German league  
130 (i.e. Bundesliga) participated in this study (Beavan et al., 2019b). The sample consisted of two co-  
131 horts: U13 (n = 14,  $1.56 \pm 0.07$  m,  $45.9 \pm 6.8$  kg,  $7.8 \pm 1.7$  years of experience playing football) and  
132 U23 (n = 13,  $1.84 \pm 0.08$  m,  $76.1 \pm 8.0$  kg,  $12.7 \pm 3.5$  years of experience playing football). Prior to  
133 commencement of this study, informed consent for all participants was received, and the Institu-  
134 tional Ethics Committee approved this study.

### 135 **2.2 Procedure**

136 Data collection followed a standardised testing procedure for all participants. All participants  
137 were familiar with using the Footbonaut prior to completing the testing procedure. Head movement  
138 data were collected with a 9-DOF Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU; IMeasureU Blue Thunder, Vi-  
139 con, Oxford, UK) at 500 Hz. Following similar investigations (McGuckian et al., 2019, 2020, 2018b),  
140 the IMU was mounted in an elastic headband, and worn such that the device sat at the external oc-  
141 cipital protuberance. A video camera (GoPro, San Mateo, USA) was mounted to the Footbonaut at a  
142 height of 1.5 m and sessions were recorded at 50 Hz.

143 Upon arriving at the facility, participants were briefed on the Footbonaut testing procedure.  
144 Participants were instructed to “complete the testing procedure as fast and accurately as possible”.  
145 The testing procedure consisted of a standardised combination of 32 trials as described by (Beavan  
146 et al., 2019a). To begin each trial, a ball dispenser gate lit up red as a visual signal accompanied by  
147 an auditory signal to indicate where the ball would be dispensed from. This was immediately fol-  
148 lowed by a target gate lighting up green as a visual signal accompanied by an auditory signal to indi-  
149 cate where the participant should pass the ball to. The ball was dispensed at 50 km/h. After the  
150 participant had passed the ball through the target, the next trial would start. The dispensing order,  
151 speed of balls and delay between signal and ball dispensing were consistent for all participants.

152

### 153 **2.3 Data analysis**

154 Following the completion of testing sessions, IMU and video data were downloaded for anal-  
155 ysis. A summary of the variables used for analysis is presented in Table 1. SportsCode v11.2.15 (Hudl,  
156 Lincoln, USA) was used to determine exploration and possession phases for each trial. The explora-  
157 tion phase was defined as the period from the red visual signal (i.e. trial start) until the participants  
158 made first contact with the ball. The possession phase was defined as the period between first con-  
159 tact with the ball and final contact with the ball. Performance for each trial was assessed using the  
160 total time that was taken to complete the trial. This value is calculated automatically by the Foot-  
161 bonaut and was defined as the duration between the ball being dispensed and the ball entering the  
162 target gate. Therefore, performance was assessed by the total time taken to receive, control and pass  
163 the ball to the target.

164 Head turns were automatically detected and analysed from the IMU data using a previously  
165 validated custom-made algorithm (Chalkley et al., 2018). A head turn was defined as a distinct  
166 movement of the head about the longitudinal axis that resulted in an angular velocity exceeding 125  
167 degrees/second (Chalkley et al., 2018; McGuckian, Chalkley, Shepherd, & Pepping, 2018a;  
168 McGuckian et al., 2019, 2020, 2018b). Head turn excursion was defined as the total angular distance  
169 of each head turn event.

170

171 \*\*\*Insert Table 1 around here\*\*\*

172

## 173 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

174 Following previous research (McGuckian et al., 2019), the current study aimed to under-  
175 stand what exploratory variables influenced the speed of completion of a *successful* pass, which, in  
176 the Footbonaut, was defined as a pass that ended in the target gate. Speed and accuracy of trials  
177 were highly correlated (-0.48). In total, 77.1% of the trials were successful across the whole dataset,  
178 therefore leaving the working sample to 651 trials (U13 n = 310, U23 n= 341) from the original 864  
179 trials.

180 To investigate which variables (as listed in Table 1) were most associated with time to com-  
181 pletion of each trial, a best subset regression model was used (Atkinson & Nevill, 2001). The best  
182 subset model ran a linear model for every combination of variables to identify what combination of  
183 variables were best associated with time to completion of each trial. Using RStudio (Version 1.1.419),  
184 the best subset selection model demonstrated how many variables were optimal to produce the best  
185 outcome, and which factors made up that combination. The best subset models were determined  
186 based on four criteria: i) the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ); ii) the adjusted coefficient of determi-  
187 nation (adjusted  $R^2$ ); iii) the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC); and iv) the estimate of predic-  
188 tion of errors ( $C_p$ ). Upon visual inspection of scatterplots of the relationship between the number of  
189 head turns in the exploration and possession phases and time to completion, it appeared that a pol-  
190 ynomial model could improve the model fit. Therefore, both HTC:E and HTC:P were transformed  
191 into a second order polynomial model and compared against the linear models (Figure 1). HTC:P<sup>2</sup>  
192 significantly improved the model fit (0.005), whereas HTC:E<sup>2</sup> did not sufficiently improve the model  
193 fit (0.09). Therefore, HTC:P<sup>2</sup> was retained in the analysis alongside HTC:P. Collectively, both linear  
194 and non-linear regression models analysed the effect of various head movement variables on the  
195 time to complete a successful pass in the Footbonaut. The significance level was set at  $p < 0.05$ , and  
196 an estimate precision was provided using Wald-based 95 % confidence intervals.

197 \*\*\*Insert Figure 1 around here\*\*\*

## 198 **3. Results**

199 As expected, the U23 group were faster on average across all trials in the Footbonaut. Table 2  
200 displays both the performance in the skills assessment task in addition to the overall head move-  
201 ment means (SD) across the entire session (i.e. 32 trials). The results indicate that, although the old-  
202 er players used less extensive head movements per second compared to the younger age group  
203 across an entire trial, the U23's demonstrated more extensive head movements per second during  
204 the exploration phase but less extensive head movements per second during the possession phase  
205 compared to the U13's.

206 \*\*\*Insert Table 2 around here\*\*\*

207

### 208 **3.1 Overall**

209 With all players analysed together, the results indicated that a three-variable model provided  
210 the best fit (Table 3). The model indicated that HTC:E (-0.020, 95% CI [-0.034, -0.005],  $p < 0.01$ ),  
211 HTC:P<sup>2</sup> (0.006, 95% CI [0.003, 0.008],  $p < 0.001$ ), and age group (-0.282, 95% CI [-0.339, -0.226],  
212  $p < 0.001$ ) collectively best explained time to completion. Specifically, more head turns before ball  
213 possession, less head turns during ball possession, and being an older player best predicted the  
214 speed of passing performance. As one of the variables that influenced time to completion was age  
215 group, a further investigation to what contributing variables within each age group was warranted.

216

217 \*\*\*Insert Table 3 around here\*\*\*

218

### 219 **3.2 U13 Group**

220 The results indicated that a three-variable model provided the best fit (Table 3), with HTC:E  
221 (-0.027, 95% CI [-0.053, 0.000],  $p = 0.05$ ), HTC:P<sup>2</sup> (0.007, 95% CI [0.004, 0.010],  $< 0.001$ ) and play-  
222 ing the midfielder position (-0.136, 95% CI [-0.264, -0.009],  $p = 0.037$ ) collectively explaining time  
223 to completion. Specifically, more head turns during the before ball possession, less head turns dur-  
224 ing ball possession, and being a midfielder player best predicted the speed of passing performance.

225

### 226 **3.3 U23 Group**

227 The results indicated that a two-variable model provided the best fit (Table 3), with HTE:E (-  
228 0.0004, 95% CI [-0.0008, -0.00008],  $p = 0.015$ ) and HTE:P (0.0007, 95% CI [0.0001, 0.0013],  
229  $p = 0.019$ ) collectively explaining time to completion. Specifically, larger head turn excursion before  
230 ball possession and smaller head turn excursion during possession best predicted the speed of pass-  
231 ing performance.

232

## 233 **4. Discussion**

234 With the aim of understanding the role of visual exploration on football passing perfor-  
235 mance, the current study measured head movements and passing performance of high-level football  
236 players while they completed a standardised set of trials in the Footbonaut. Following previous re-  
237 search, VEA was determined both before the player had possession of the ball and while the player  
238 had possession of the ball. Further, analyses were conducted for U13 and U23 players together and  
239 separately. As expected, the older players completed passing actions more quickly than younger  
240 players. This finding is in line with previous investigations of performance in the Footbonaut  
241 (Beavan et al., 2019a), and is assumed to reflect the vast difference in playing experience between



242 the two samples. Of greater interest to this investigation is the factors that contributed to this differ-  
243 ence in performance, in particular the VEA variables that explained performance.

244 Overall, a higher head turn count before a player received the ball was associated with a re-  
245 duced time to complete trials, whereas a higher head turn count after a player received the ball was  
246 associated with an increased time to complete trials. This finding supports the finding of McGuckian  
247 et al. (2019), who also found that more exploration prior to ball possession and less exploration  
248 when in ball possession, resulted in faster passing responses. Further, the differences in VEA with  
249 and without possession of the ball between U13 and U23 players (Table 2) suggests that older play-  
250 ers explored their surroundings more extensively before gaining possession of the ball, which might  
251 have resulted in a reduced requirement to explore once they had gained possession of the ball. To-  
252 gether, these findings add support to the value of VEA as an important perceptual-motor ability and  
253 its role in the prospective guidance – i.e. *ahead* of time (Adolph, Eppler, Marin, Weise, & Wechsler  
254 Clearfield, 2000; McGuckian et al., 2019) - of passing actions in football.

255 The analysis of only the U13 players also supports the importance of VEA before ball posses-  
256 sion for successful prospective passing actions with the ball. Interestingly, playing position also sig-  
257 nificantly contributed to the speed of passing actions, with midfield players being able to complete  
258 passes more quickly than other playing positions. This finding was not replicated with the U23  
259 group, which may suggest important implications from a perspective of talent identification and de-  
260 velopment of younger players. One explanation may be that the midfield players have developed this  
261 ability to complete passes more quickly due to the constraints they have been exposed to during  
262 their short playing career. That is, because their midfield role has higher pressure from opponents  
263 and a higher degree of 360-degree play during games than other positions, the midfield players have  
264 developed the ability to deal with these constraints with close ball control, high situation awareness  
265 and fast passing actions (Oppici, Panchuk, Serpiello, & Farrow, 2019). If this is the case, gaining a  
266 deeper understanding of how to develop this perceptual-motor attunement in younger players of all  
267 positions appears a worthy endeavour.

268 For the U23 group, the VEA variables that explained faster passing responses were larger  
269 head turns before gaining possession and smaller head turns when in possession of the ball. While  
270 these were the variables that contributed to faster performance within the U23 group, these players  
271 exhibited less extensive VEA than the U13 group (see HTF and HTE, Table 2). This finding suggests  
272 that the older players may be more attuned to the perceptual information required for future pass-  
273 ing actions and are able to make better use of the information gained by their VEA. It might also be  
274 the case that the older players have developed strategies to make better use of this information, such  
275 as more efficient body orientation for the upcoming passing actions. This is in line with previous re-  
276 search demonstrating that highly experienced football players have the perceptual-motor coordina-  
277 tion that allows them to orientate their attention towards player-directed areas during the reception

278 phase of possession and only attend to the ball when performing the first touch (Oppici, Panchuk,  
279 Serpiello, & Farrow, 2017).

280 While the current study adds support to previous work relating to the value of VEA for foot-  
281 ball performance, there were limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. It  
282 is possible that the current investigation did not quantify potentially relevant exploration between  
283 trials. Between the end of one trial and the beginning of the next, players likely engaged in explora-  
284 tion for action orientation (see van Andel et al., 2019), however this data was excluded from the cur-  
285 rent analysis, and it is suggested that future studies take this into account. Additionally, it needs  
286 mentioning that the current study did not control for exposure to the Footbonaut assessment envi-  
287 ronment. However, with consideration of these limitations, the current study has strength in the  
288 standardised and repeatable nature of the football passing task and extends the understanding of  
289 perceptual-motor performance in the Footbonaut.

290 Common across both controlled and representative studies is the finding that more extensive  
291 VEA is related to improved performance, and the rates of VEA between these studies appear to have  
292 some similarity (McGuckian et al., 2019, 2018b). However, it is important to emphasize that, while  
293 the Footbonaut offers experimental control, the perceptual information that is needed for perfor-  
294 mance in the Footbonaut may be different to the information that is available to a player during  
295 match-play (Dicks, Davids, & Button, 2009; Pinder, Davids, Renshaw, & Araújo, 2011; Travassos et  
296 al., 2013). In these scenarios, players attune themselves to perceptual information from many more  
297 relevant sources than are presented in the Footbonaut, and it needs to be established how this influ-  
298 ences the contribution of VEA variables to passing performance between these scenarios. Further,  
299 passing performance during match-play is more complex than solely speed of responses. While the  
300 ability to complete passes quickly is certainly valuable, the accuracy and pass choice within the con-  
301 text of the game are also important aspects to performance.

302 The current study adds to the growing body of evidence for the value of VEA prior to ball  
303 possession in football. Here, the specific VEA variables that have the greatest contribution to the  
304 speed of passing responses in the Footbonaut were identified, and differences were shown between  
305 U13 and U23 players. Whilst the findings further our understanding of perceptual and passing per-  
306 formance in the Footbonaut, it is important to take note of the limitations in regard to generalising  
307 the findings to representative football training and match-play. It is therefore recommended that  
308 future research investigates the (shared and contrasting) exploration characteristics in standardised  
309 (i.e. Footbonaut-like) training drills, more representative training and match-play. Such research  
310 will also further promote our understanding of whether and how exploration behaviour transfers  
311 from standardised training scenarios to representative on-field settings.

312

## 313 **5. Practical Implications**

314           Given the apparent value of VEA before ball possession as shown in various studies, and the  
315 observed passing speed reduction related to VEA when in possession of the ball, coaches should en-  
316 deavour to develop training situations that encourage players to visually scan their environment be-  
317 fore ball possession is gained. In doing so, coaches should aim to capture quantitative measure of  
318 VEA in training and games to ensure their training situations are representative of match-play.  
319 While this is important at all levels of football performance, particular emphasis should be placed on  
320 the development of VEA in younger players, as the development of optimal exploratory actions at  
321 younger ages will likely aid the performance of technical, tactical and physical aspects of perfor-  
322 mance.

323

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328

## 329 **7. Declaration of Interest Statement**

330           The authors report no conflict of interest.

331

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451 **9. Tables**

452

453 Table 1. Operational definition of each variable used in analysis.

Variable	Definition
Head turn count: exploration phase (HTC:E)	The total number of head turns during the exploration phase.
Head turn count: possession phase (HTC:P)	The total number of head turns during the possession phase.
Head turn count: possession phase polynomial (HTC:P <sup>2</sup> )	A polynomial of HTC:P. See Figure 1 for a comparison, and statistical analysis for more details.
Head turn excursion: exploration phase (HTE:E)	The total size (in degrees) of head turns during the exploration phase.
Head turn excursion: possession phase (HTE:P)	The total size (in degrees) of head turns during the possession phase.
Head turn frequency (HTF)	The total number of head turns divided by the total duration of the trial. Presented as head turns/second
Head turn excursion (HTE)	The total size of head turns divided by the total duration of the trial. Presented as degrees/second.
Playing position	The preferred playing position of the players, either goalkeeper, defender, midfielder or forward.
Age group	The age group of the players, either U13 or U23.

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455

456 Table 2. Mean (SD) of the between group differences of head movements in the Footbonaut.

	Footbonaut		Head Movements					
	Score (%)	Avg. Speed (s)	Total Head Turns	HTF	Total Excursion	HTE	HTC:E	HTC:P
U13	70.00 (6.59)	2.48 (0.13)	278.57 (54.48)	1.81 (0.30)	9628.13 (2152.31)	62.55 (12.77)	3.20 (1.74)	2.62 (1.86)
U23	83.31 (8.47)	2.13 (0.09)	250.38 (58.06)	1.70 (0.40)	8625.62 (1982.81)	58.37 (12.78)	4.13 (2.01)	2.02 (1.54)

457 Note: HTF = Head Turn Frequency, HTE = Head Turn Excursion.





459 Table 3. Retained best subset selection model parameters that explain the largest effect of various visual exploratory actions, age and playing  
 460 position on time to completion of each trial in the Footbonaut.

	Variable				Regression Model					
	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	P value	Std. Error	DF	R2	Adj. R2	F value	P Value
<i>Overall</i>										
Intercept	2.368	0.032	73.677	<0.001						
HTC:E	-0.020	0.007	-2.693	0.007	0.349	3, 647	0.206	0.202	55.81	<0.001
HTC:P <sup>2</sup>	0.006	0.001	4.846	<0.001						
Age Group: U23	-0.282	0.029	-9.835	<0.001						
<i>U13</i>										
Intercept	2.419	0.055	44.222	<0.001						
HTC:E	-0.027	0.014	-1.963	0.05	0.393	5, 304	0.105	0.090	7.136	<0.001
HTC:P <sup>2</sup>	0.007	0.002	4.270	<0.001						
Playing Position: Mid-fielder	-0.136	0.065	-2.099	0.037						
<i>U23</i>										
Intercept	2.176	0.103	21.084	<0.001						
HTE:E	-0.0004	0.0002	-2.441	0.015	0.295	4, 336	0.026	0.014	2.221	0.07
HTE:P	0.0007	0.0003	2.357	0.019						

461 Note: HTC:E = Head Turn Count: Exploration Phase, HTC:P<sup>2</sup> = Head Turn Count: Possession Phase Polynomial, HTE:E = Head Turn Excur-  
 462 sion: Exploration Phase, HTE:P = Head Turn Excursion: Possession Phase

463



## 10. Figures

Figure 1. Observable scatterplots of relationship between number of head movements and time of completion in the exploration phase (A & B) and possession phase (C & D) with linear and exponential models used to investigate best fit.

