

Beyond the Pitch: Unveiling the Concave Hull as Soccer's Ecological Niche in Practice Design.

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1 **Beyond the Pitch: Unveiling the Concave Hull as Soccer's Ecological Niche in Practice Design**

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32 **ABSTRACT**

33 An ecological niche is a field in a landscape of affordances, rich in information that invites its inhabitants
34 to develop functionality and effectiveness of their behavior. This idea means that, in sports like soccer,
35 the playing area encapsulates an ecological niche, replete with affordances available to invite collective
36 and individual technical-tactical actions, contextualized with associated psychological and physical
37 demands. To examine the co-adaptive relationships that frame players actions in their ecological niche,
38 the present study employed a crossover design with repeated measures to compare the players
39 transactions within 11vs.11 training games across four different field dimensions (from official size to a
40 small-sided game). Player transactions with the performance environment were analyzed across 40 game
41 sequences, using 10 Hz GPS to collect positional data. Metrics such as convex hull dimensions, field
42 occupancy, and proximity to opponents were derived. Repeated-measures ANOVA revealed significant
43 differences between tendencies for forming synergies constrained by field dimension scaling. When
44 field size was reduced, the convex hull dimension significantly decreased. Additionally, values of
45 relative field occupancy, and distance to nearest opponent exhibited significant changes, especially when
46 contrasted with performance transactions emerging on the official size field. These observations
47 underline the essential functional relationship between playing field dimension and emergent player
48 actions. Such findings are relevant for understanding of soccer coaches and training designers,
49 underscoring the need to integrate specificity of field dimension scaling in training designs to represent
50 competitive performance contexts. Focusing on values of spatial constraints, derived from data analytics
51 of competitive matches, may help researchers and coaches/practitioners improve task representativeness
52 in practice and performance preparation, supporting optimality of training niches in soccer.

53 **Keywords:** soccer training, ecological niche, representative design, playing area dimension scaling,
54 synergy formation, collective system dynamics

55

56 **INTRODUCTION**

57 *“A species of animal is said to utilize or occupy a certain niche in the environment. This is not*
58 *quite the same as the habitat of the species; a niche refers more to how an animal lives than to*
59 *where it lives. I suggest that a niche is a set of affordances.”* (Gibson, 1979, p. 120)

60 In James Gibson's theory of direct perception, an ecological niche refers to the behavioral transactions
61 that emerge between an individual and their environment during performance. In these transactions, an
62 important concept is an *affordance*, referring to the opportunities for or invitations for action that a
63 particular performance environment offers an individual. An affordance encompasses what the
64 environment provides or furnishes, in terms of possibilities for an individual's behavioral transactions
65 with their surroundings (Gibson, 1979). With development, learning and experience, a complementary
66 relationship can emerge between an individual and their performance environment. A competitive
67 performance landscape presents opportunities that a performer can perceive and act upon (Vilar et al.,
68 2012). The inherent relationship between an environment and its inhabitants is vital when observing
69 behaviors within a particular ecological niche. Clearly, an individual's 'ecological niche' profoundly
70 influences the behavior of its inhabitants and vice versa.

71 This concept has clear implications for understanding skill adaptation in talent development programs
72 in sports, such as soccer (association football), where daily tasks, customs, beliefs, behaviors, and
73 attitudes influence the evolution of an athlete's capabilities (Rothwell et al., 2023). In the context of skill
74 development in sport, an 'ecological niche' is typically discussed when framing a broader training
75 environment (Rothwell et al., 2020). This perspective often focuses on the macro-level aspects of
76 training, where various contextual factors such as athlete development practices (skill and psychology),
77 coaching and training methodologies (physiology and pedagogy), and attitudes (social, cultural and
78 historical concepts) collectively influence the 'form of life' (Wittgenstein, 1989) underpinning the skill
79 adaptation process of the athletes involved. For example, in soccer, a club director might establish a rule
80 mandating that all youth teams engage in 20 minutes of 'rondo' per practice session, with the aim of
81 cultivating a possession-oriented playing style (Vaughan et al., 2021).

82 In this regard, a soccer organisation can be understood as a complex, non-linear system in perpetual
83 interaction with its environment (Gréhaigne et al., 1997). Within this dynamic setting, players grapple
84 with the challenges of adapting to opponents, synchronizing actions with teammates (synergy
85 formation), and handling competitive pressures of performance. The present study sought to evaluate
86 how a soccer team's 'ecological niche' impacted on practice designs at the micro-level of training,
87 focusing on the influence of immediate contextual constraints influencing players during games and
88 practices.

89 This study's hypotheses and interpretations are anchored in the 'Ecological Dynamics' theory (Vilar et
90 al., 2012). According to this theory, individual and collective behaviors are co-adapted to the distinct
91 ecological niche of performance (Araújo & Davids, 2016). In soccer, this translates to player-player
92 transactions that emerge under a collective, self-organization process, when forming synergies in order

93 to achieve intended performance outcomes (Araújo et al., 2016). Self-organization tendencies are
94 manifest nonlinear systems, for example during soccer performance, in the continuous adaptations and
95 adjustments at an individual level (Orth et al., 2014), within sub-groups (Silva et al., 2016), such as
96 defensive pairings or midfield units, and macro-level strategies across the entire team (Duarte et al.,
97 2013). Collectively, evidence suggests how individuals and groups coordinate and co-adapt their
98 movements and co-positioning to achieve a functional solution to challenges emerging during
99 competitive performance. For instance, four defenders in a team can collectively, coordinate their actions
100 to establish a stable defensive grid, seeking to thwart the opposing team's offensive maneuvers,
101 preventing goal-scoring opportunities (Silva et al., 2014). Players' adaptive skills and collective
102 strategies, in the performance context, are expressed dynamically, aligning with the evolving demands
103 and changing objectives in a match (Fradua et al., 2013). Consequently, it is paramount that training
104 contexts (i.e., the ecological niche of practice design) closely represent contexts which may emerge in
105 competition (i.e., the ecological niche of the official soccer match). Representative practice designs
106 ensure that skills are practiced in scenarios which are transferable to the competitive performance
107 environment (Pinder et al., 2011). These ideas emphasize the need for coaches to design performance
108 preparation environments that incorporate affordances that are available in competitive matches (Dhami
109 et al., 2004).

110 In this design process, niche construction theory helps to sharpen the focus on task representativeness
111 in soccer. As, the niche in training determines which opportunities or invitations for action (i.e., set of
112 affordances) are available for players in practice contexts. For instance, a 'maximum two-touch'
113 constraint affords (invites quick passing and movement off the ball), but does *not* invite dribbling
114 opportunities. Therefore, practice involves the exploration of niches that allow players to develop a
115 tightly knit relationship with the environment they face in competition (QUELLE). However, due to the
116 frequent engagement in decomposed rehearsing drills (QUELLE trains as you play DEUKER), and the
117 high involvement in small-sided and games (SSG), it is possible that a scaling problem may emerge in
118 soccer practice designs. Consequently, through the lens of niche construction, the present study aims to
119 provide insights on the role of spatial affordances made available in contemporary practice designs in
120 ecological niche of soccer. These insights could support the achievement of a smoother fit between the
121 ecological niches constructed in training and those which become available in competition.

122 **Th scaling challenge in soccer training**

123 In soccer training, coaches face the daily challenge of determining which aspects of competitive
124 performance warrant immediate attention. Their choices may be shaped by augmented information from
125 performance analysts, inevitably shaped by the available affordances, such as player numbers, their
126 current physical performance capacities and the competitive scheduling. To address these environmental
127 constraints, many turn to small-sided games (SSG), which present an invaluable tool (Almeida et al.,
128 2012). SSG, characterized by their reduced player count and smaller playing areas (Davids et al., 2013),
129 allow coaches to design a practice context where players engage in game-oriented movement tasks,

130 facilitating increased action frequencies. There are numerous ways to manipulate SSG to adjust physical
131 and tactical challenges for players. One might reduce the number of players involved or introduce
132 overload contexts (Castellano et al., 2013; Nunes et al., 2020). The most frequent adjustment in daily
133 training involves modifying the playing area dimension per player (APP) (Clemente et al., 2023).
134 Diminishing this area increases the possibility of immediate pressure from opponents (Andrienko, 2017)
135 due to close proximity of participants, reduces the time available for decisions, and amplifies the
136 frequency of in-game actions (Dellal et al., 2012; Katis & Kellis, 2009).
137 Smaller field dimensions also serve to manage training intensity (Clemente et al., 2023). For example,
138 Owen et al. (2014) observed fewer high-intensity runs and shorter sprint distances in SSG compared to
139 scenarios with larger field dimensions. The dynamic interplay between the field dimensions and the
140 number of players involved in practice might mean that altering one variable contextualizes both
141 individual and collective team behaviors (Clemente et al., 2021). Research has tied field dimension
142 scaling to the APP, a measure derived by dividing the total field size by number of participants (Silva et
143 al., 2014; Silva et al., 2015). Adaptations in players' tactical behaviors resulting from these modifications
144 can be quantified for analysis through various metrics. Notably, the APP affects player-player
145 transactions, leading to observable changes in several parameters of synergies formed under competitive
146 performance constraints, including changing distance values between competing sub-groups (e.g., the
147 back four versus attackers) and inter-team distances (Araújo & Davids, 2016; Passos et al., 2016).
148 In the literature on scaling playing areas in soccer training designs, two major concerns emerge. First,
149 in investigation and comparison of different game formats, the number of players involved is often
150 reduced, along with a reduction in field dimensions (Clemente et al., 2023). However, when
151 modifications to both the number of players and the field dimensions occur simultaneously, it becomes
152 challenging to interpret which specific change is driving the observed behavioral adaptations or training
153 effects. Therefore, in our study, we exclusively altered the *playing area dimensions*, while keeping the
154 number of involved players constant, enabling us to examine player behaviors under this specific task
155 constraint. Our approach, involving a full 11vs.11 player setup, has been relatively rare in research
156 compared to use of SSG. This research approach to studying SSG as a complex adaptive system seeks
157 to attribute observed effects to the empirical manipulation of playing area.

158

159 *** Please insert **Figure 1** about here ***

160

161 Second, an underestimated parameter when scrutinizing the design of soccer training formats may be
162 the 'convex hull' (**Figure 1, A**). The 'convex hull' defines the smallest convex shape that encompasses a
163 given set of 2D points (Bueno et al., 2021). In sport, the 'convex hull' value estimates the effective
164 playing area of both teams, effectively representing the "outline" or spatial boundary of team formations
165 (Bueno et al., 2021; Ötting & Karlis, 2023). In the literature on soccer training designs, the concept of
166 the 'convex hull' plays a pivotal role, forming the structural foundation for estimating team spatial

167 boundaries in SSG (Fradua et al., 2013). The effective playing area observed in full-scale matches is
168 believed to serve as an authentic relational model to replicate collective tactical characteristics of soccer
169 performance in SSG designs. Thus, by extrapolating the individual playing area from the convex hull
170 representation of full-size matches, it can be argued that researchers and coaches can design SSG formats
171 that offer players representative action spaces for learning and performance preparation. These spaces
172 may provide players with affordances available for engaging in focused, game-related contexts during
173 training, ultimately enhancing training effects and outcomes (Clemente et al., 2021). However, for
174 enriching representative design in practice, it is important to consider the task constraints shaping
175 emergent player behaviors in competitive full-size matches. A key observation is that in full-size
176 matches, the emerging effective playing space occupied by the two competing teams is much smaller
177 than the total available playing area. These tendencies in field usage may be primarily attributed to the
178 official offside law, acting as a fundamental task constraint, shaping a more compact, effective playing
179 area. Players also tend to self-regulate in synergy formation, seeking optimal distances from teammates
180 and opponents for participating in combination play or defensive strategies. Consequently, the effective
181 playing space – the 'convex hull' – occupied by both teams emerges in response to the affordances of
182 the full-size field. This point emphasizes the need to contextualize (the task constraints of) practice at
183 all times, raising a significant question: when coaches employ task changes to afford their players less
184 space in training, do the spatiotemporal conditions accurately represent those of (specific contexts in) a
185 competitive match? As a result, training sessions based on the dimensions of the 'convex hull' might
186 actually take place in much tighter spaces compared to those that become available in competitive
187 matches. These theoretical considerations are supported by findings of a study from Clemente et al.
188 (2018), which indicated that in a half-field setting, inter-player distance values diminish markedly. This
189 alteration in space leads to players, and consequently teams, being positioned closer to each other in
190 practice, than may be representative of competitive matches. This discrepancy becomes an imposition
191 when the vacant space encircling both teams considerably regulates player behavioral tendencies that
192 emerge. We conceptualize this spatial envelope, surrounding the effective playing area, as the 'concave
193 hull' (**Figure 1, B**), which serves as the counterpart to the 'convex hull'.

194 To summarise so far, practice scenarios confined to a surface derived from the 'convex hull' area (**Figure**
195 **1, A**) may not be representative of the way that spatiotemporal constraints emerge in competitive
196 performance contexts. These playing area-scaling issues in soccer training designs form the crux of the
197 present study. Considering that current soccer training designs, particularly SSG, tend to employ more
198 compact field dimensional constraints, compared to those which are experienced in full-size competitive
199 11vs.11 matches, this investigation sought to understand how team spatiotemporal dynamics change
200 with alterations in playing area scaling in an 11vs.11 performance setup. The following hypotheses are
201 posited: (I) Reducing the playing area per player within the training design will lead to a contraction of
202 the 'convex hull's area'. (II) A reduced area per player in the training design will cause a significant
203 decrease in values of inter-player distance. Furthermore, it is conjectured that (III), a constriction of area

204 per player will reduce the size of the 'concave hull', equivalent to an increase in players' 'relative field
205 occupancy'.

206 MATERIAL AND METHODS

207 Participants

208 22 male players from an amateur soccer club participated in this study (age: 21 ± 3 years, height: 181 ± 8
209 cm, mass: 76 ± 7 kg). These players, active in the top German amateur league (5th division), trained thrice
210 weekly, in addition to competing in one regular match. The study took place during the pre-season after
211 the winter break. All participants gave written consent after confirming their understanding of the study
212 procedure. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the German Sport University Cologne
213 (184/2022).

214

215 *** Please insert **Figure 2** about here ***

216

217 Study design

218 The analysis of collective performance was undertaken on a natural grass pitch, following official laws
219 of the game. After a 20-minute warm-up, the head coach divided the players into two balanced teams,
220 based on their regular playing positions. The composition of both teams remained unchanged throughout
221 the entire data collection process. The design was a crossover, controlled, trial-based approach (Low et
222 al., 2021), comparing performance in 11vs.11 games across four field sizes (**Figure 2**). The initial
223 playing area dimensions mirrored a standard competitive game (**Figure 2, a.**), halving by the third
224 condition (**Figure 2, c.**). The other two playing dimensions were informed by research designs of Owen
225 et al. (2014) (**Figure 2, b.**) and Frencken et al. (2012) (**Figure 2, d.**), adjusting the area per player
226 accordingly.

227

228 Experimental Units

229 Each team undertook five offensive trials, consistently in a 4-4-2 formation, against a defending team
230 using a 4-4-2 midfield pressing strategy, across all conditions (Low et al., 2021; Low et al., 2022),
231 totaling $N=40$ trials (10 per condition), with each trial being independent and defined as an experimental
232 unit (Lazic et al., 2018). Trials commenced in a standardized way, with an initiating build-up pass from
233 the goalkeeper and concluded with the emergence of a goal, change of possession, interruption in play
234 (e.g., from offside, defensive fouls, or the ball going out of play), or termination after 60 seconds.
235 Defenders claimed possession either by a successful pass or two consecutive ball touches. After each
236 attempt, players resumed their starting positions for the next trial. Following five trials and a break
237 period, the roles of offense and defense were swapped between teams.

238

239 Data collection

240 Player positioning was tracked using the Catapult© global positioning system (GPS), which determines
241 each player's global location via a tracking device, worn in the pocket of a lycra vest (proximal of
242 cervical spine C7 i.e., 'cervicothoracic junction'). The system recorded latitude and longitude at a

243 frequency of 10 Hz. Additionally, a GoPro Hero 6 Black© camera documented the entire pitch from an
244 elevated perspective (height about 5m), offering a 30 Hz video documentation to verify and double
245 check GPS measurements.

246

247 **Data processing**

248 The positional data obtained from player movements were converted into data on collective system
249 tactical performance variables (Low et al., 2020). This analysis was carried out across two specific
250 systematic organizational levels. At the game level, the main metrics were associated with the 'convex
251 hull'. The 'convex hull' represents the smallest possible area that encloses all players from both the
252 attacking and defending teams (Ötting & Karlis, 2023). For each trial, an average 'convex hull' area was
253 computed to provide a consistent measure of space occupation by a team during performance. Another
254 primary metric of performance is 'relative field occupancy', which quantifies the proportion of the pitch
255 that all 20 outfield players actively use during play. Accordingly, this metric represents the portion of
256 the total field area covered by the 'convex hull' (Alexander et al., 2019). An average field occupancy
257 was determined for every trial in our study to offer a comparative measure of spatial distribution and
258 effective occupation by participants across varying conditions. Simultaneously, at the team level, the
259 'distance to nearest opponent' value for the attacking team was calculated to quantify opposition pressure
260 across varying conditions. This value was determined for every attacking player (relative to the nearest
261 opponent) and then averaged for the entire team per trial. The entire data processing was performed with
262 RStudio (version 1.4.1564).

263

264 **Statistical analysis**

265 Before analysis, data quality was assessed. Missing values spanning less than two consecutive seconds
266 were imputed using the 'approx' function from the 'zoo' package using linear interpolation. The dataset
267 was subjected to tests for normality of distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk test and homogeneity of
268 variances using the Levene Test.

269 For each trial, the mean values for the convex hull, relative field occupancy of all 20 outfield players,
270 and 'distance to nearest opponent' for the attacking team were calculated. Resulting values underwent
271 analysis through a repeated-measures ANOVA using RStudio (version 1.4.1564). An alpha level of $\alpha =$
272 0.05 was set as the threshold for statistical significance. Following the ANOVA, effect size values were
273 calculated using Eta-squared values. Effect sizes were categorized as: small ($\eta^2 < 0.06$), moderate (0.06
274 $\leq \eta^2 < 0.15$), and large ($\eta^2 \geq 0.15$) (Cohen, 2013). Where ANOVA results indicated statistical significance
275 levels, post hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's pairwise-testing to ascertain
276 differences between specific manipulations of the independent variable.

277

278

279 **RESULTS**

280

281 *** Please insert **Table 1** about here ***

282

283

284 *** Please insert **Figure 3** about here ***

285

286 **Convex hull**

287 Decreasing the playing area consistently resulted in a smaller 'convex hull' across all manipulated
288 conditions (**Figure 3**). Statistical analysis using a repeated measures ANOVA indicated a statistically
289 significant main effect, $F(3,27) = 135.7, p < .0001$. The effect size, measured using Eta-squared, was
290 found to be $\eta^2 = 0.94$, indicating a large effect. Subsequent post-hoc testing indicated statistically
291 significant differences between all conditions. On the pitch, we observed that the smaller the playing
292 area spatial dimensions, the closer the players co-positioned to each other in attack. In defense, we
293 observed a strong tendency for player-marking, especially in the 'Small' area condition. This finding is
294 illustrated in **Figure 4**. Descriptive statistics and post-hoc results are shown in **Table 1**.

295

296 **Relative field occupancy**

297 Statistical analysis for relative pitch occupancy indicated a statistically significant outcome $F(3,27) =$
298 $45.5, p < .0001, \eta^2 = 0.84$, suggesting a large effect. As depicted in **Figure 3**, relative pitch occupancy
299 increased with decreasing APP. On the 'Competitive' field, players occupy roughly 20% of the entire
300 area. But as the field dimensions diminishes, this proportion increases, peaking at 30% for the smallest
301 area condition. This trend is further highlighted in **Figure 4**, which demonstrates that, in practical terms,
302 the smaller the playing area, the more that space behind the back line is reduced. While the 'Competitive'
303 condition allows ample space for through-ball opportunities, the 'Small' area condition offers much
304 fewer opportunities for attacking actions behind the back four, resulting in more inter-individual duels.
305 Descriptive statistics and post-hoc results are shown in **Table 1**.

306

307 **Distance to nearest opponent**

308 Analysis of the value of distance to nearest opponent via a repeated measures ANOVA indicated a
309 statistically significant effect for playing area condition, $F(3, 27) = 51.5, p < .0001$, with a large effect
310 size, $\eta^2 = 0.83$. Distance to nearest opponent values decreased with decreasing APP, although post-hoc
311 testing revealed that only the 'Half' and 'Small' playing area conditions yielded statistically significant
312 reductions (**Table 1**). In a trend similar to that observed with the 'convex hull' variable, reducing the
313 field dimensions consistently led to a decrease in the 'distance to nearest opponent' in every subsequent
314 condition (**Figure 3**). For example, the average distance to nearest opponent in the smallest condition
315 was roughly 70% of that observed in the initial condition, equating to an average distance of about 4.5

316 meters. Practically, this observation indicates a very tight player-marking strategy, leading to more duels
317 in the 'Small' playing area condition, compared to the 'Competitive' field.

318

319

320

*** Please insert **Figure 4** about here ***

321

322

323 **DISCUSSION**

324 In this study, we utilized digital player positioning data to examine the constraining influence of reducing
325 a soccer playing area (i.e., APP) on the dynamics of the convex hull variable between competing teams.
326 From the resulting x-y coordinates of the 20 outfield players, we assessed values of inter-player distances
327 and the overall spatial occupation on field (Low et al., 2020).

328

329 **Proportionality between playing area and the convex hull area**

330 Our statistical analyses revealed significant differences in the convex hull across all conditions ($p <$
331 $.0001$; $\eta^2 = 0.94$, Large). As the playing area reduced, the convex hulls of the 20 outfield players also
332 diminished. On a standard 'Competitive' size field, the convex hull averaged over 1400 m², reducing to
333 about 1200 m² under the 'Large' area condition, about 980 m² under the 'Half' field condition, and further
334 to 670 m² in the 'Small' condition (**Figure 3**). This observation of emergent player adaptations to
335 constraints was not explicitly directed by coaches and supports hypothesis (I), which posits that reducing
336 the APP in training design leads to a contraction of the convex hull area. A similar observation of player
337 interactions has been reported by Clemente et al. (2018), who found that under half-field conditions,
338 players co-positioned closer to each other, with the reported stretch index value being lower than
339 reported in full-pitch conditions. This observation indicates more compact, effective playing transactions
340 between players in the half-field setting, aligning with the current study's results. The reduced size of
341 the convex hull value also indicated that players positioned themselves closer to their nearest opponents
342 ($p < .0001$; $\eta^2 = 0.83$, Large), thereby substantiating the second hypothesis, (II): 6.47 ± 0.57 m on the
343 'Competitive' field, 6.16 ± 0.55 m on the 'Large' field, 4.97 ± 0.25 on the 'Half' field, and 4.49 ± 0.28 on the
344 'Small' field. This co-adaptation process between players could lead to intensified opponent pressure,
345 supporting findings from the SSG literature, evidencing that smaller spaces result in increased opponent
346 pressure (Clemente et al., 2023). This co-adaptation, in turn, elevates the frequency of actions, thereby
347 enhancing players' capacity to cope with such pressure. Therefore, we may conclude that player actions
348 are closely constrained by surrounding spatial conditions. These constraints act as information which
349 facilitates adaptive responses in players to available spatial affordances emerging in a performance
350 landscape (Clemente, Owen, et al., 2018; Clemente et al., 2023). These findings make it clear that the
351 available playing space is a crucial task constraint on emergent player behaviors when designing training
352 sessions in team sports like soccer.

353

354 **Increased field occupancy, reduced concave hull**

355 Remarkably, although the convex hull value became smaller with decreasing APP, the decline was
356 disproportionate to the available total playing area. For example, in the 'Half' dimensions condition,
357 where the total playing area was reduced by 50%, the convex hull occupied nearly 70% of the area seen
358 in the baseline 'Competitive' condition. In contrast, when the total field area was reduced by 31% in the
359 'Large', and 69% in the 'Small' conditions, the convex hull decreased to about 48%, and 86% respectively

360 **(Figure 3)**. These findings suggest that reductions in convex hulls of players may not be directly
361 proportional to reductions in playing areas, giving rise to the interpretation that players attempt to
362 maintain representative distances for combination plays (synergy formation), counteracting the re-
363 scaling of playing area. It is plausible to suggest that, this type of modification needs to be carefully
364 considered by coaches, since it may create an artificial situation for the players, if they encounter spatial
365 conditions that do not accurately represent typical competitive performance conditions. In particular,
366 from a practical performance preparation perspective, training in soccer should allow players
367 opportunities to attune to changes in spatial information. Coaches' sensitivity to players' needs for
368 attunement to surrounding information may help them learn to utilize the affordances representative of
369 those available in a competitive performance landscape (Pinder et al., 2011). This practice adaptation
370 necessitates that the informational constraints presented during training sessions should closely
371 represent (simulate) those to be encountered in specific performance context (Dhami et al., 2004). This
372 is a most important observation given that competitive playing field areas can diverge (governed by
373 realistic values within the laws of the game).

374 To follow our interpretation of the data, for instance, one could consider the fundamental offensive skill
375 of a 'one-two' (also known as 'give-and-go' (wall pass), 'um-fois', 'Doppelpass', or 'una pared') expressed
376 within a dyad during a competitive match. This maneuver involves two players bypassing opponents
377 through a rapid exchange of passes. However, the affordance of realizing a 'one-two' varies significantly
378 between the performance contexts of futsal and soccer due to differences in the available spatial
379 constraints. In futsal, where the APP is approximately 80 m², players often face immediate pressure from
380 opponents in tight dyadic spaces. This specific task constraint necessitates early scanning of the
381 environment before receiving the ball (Jordet et al., 2020), allowing players to orient their bodies to
382 effectively 'address the performance environment' to create immediate passing angles to teammates
383 (Otte & Davids, 2023). The exchange here is typically a swift, direct sequence of passes, with players
384 using their body orientation to hide their passing intentions from opponents. In contrast, soccer, with a
385 larger APP of around 320m² and greater inter-team distances, presents a different set of spatial
386 constraints to its players. Here, the dyads are part of a defensive collective sub system that needs to
387 cover a more substantial amount of space. This contextual constraint provides attackers in soccer with
388 more space to receive the ball away from opponents (seen in the values of the variable 'distance to
389 nearest opponent' across conditions **Figure 3**). To effectively realize a 'one-two' in this context, a player
390 might initiate a dribble towards the direct opponent while scanning for a nearby teammate who adopts
391 a position to offer a passing option. The player in possession of the ball aims to engage and bind an
392 immediate defender, creating an opportunity for an attacking teammate to participate in the 'one-two' to
393 shake off their marker. This maneuver requires precise timing; the attacker must be just close enough to
394 the defender (but not too close) to ensure that the pass and subsequent run are performed at a moment
395 when the defender is committed to move forward and intercept the ball and cannot quickly turn, thus
396 being successfully bypassed. This example highlights the continual need for players to attune to spatio-

397 temporal constraints and information sources in their environment. The effectiveness and intentionality
398 behind skill performance and practice, such as the 'one-two combination', are intrinsically linked to these
399 spatio-temporal performance features.

400 **Based on this consideration, an exploration of the third hypothesis reveals another practically-relevant**
401 **observation.** . As the APP is reduced, a notable change is observed in the surrounding unoccupied space
402 of the two teams. Specifically, when the field area shrinks, players end up occupying a larger proportion
403 of the available space. This phenomenon is reflected in the 'relative field occupancy' metric (Alexander
404 et al., 2019); as field dimensions decrease, the team's 'relative field occupancy' increases significantly
405 across different area values ($p < .0001$; $\eta^2 = 0.84$, Large). The increased 'relative field occupancy' value
406 that emerges under constraints of smaller fields leads to a marked contraction of the unoccupied area
407 outside the convex hull, termed 'the concave hull' (**Figure 1**). This observation confirms hypothesis III,
408 which posits that a constricted APP reduces the size of the concave envelope.

409 As an example, the area of the convex hull in the smallest condition was approximately half of that in
410 the 'Competitive' field condition ('convex hull': 'Small': 672 ± 71 m², and 'Competitive': 1412 ± 12 m²).
411 However, the average concave hull, 1551 m² in the 'Small' area condition, was nearly four times smaller
412 than on the competition field ('concave hull': 'Competitive' field: 5728 m²). From a practical application
413 viewpoint, it has become clear that modifying the field conditions may inherently restrict the players'
414 scope of action (this shift in field occupation dynamics is evident in **Figure 4**). With about a 70%
415 reduction in the concave hull, the representativeness of both offensive and defensive strategies that
416 emerge from cooperating players likely diminishes. Offensively, exploiting space becomes markedly
417 more challenging as the attacking team has less space to invade, while defensively, the constricted space
418 oversimplifies the covering task in a manner that may not be useful in practice because it does not
419 realistically represent competitive match conditions.

420 Furthermore, these spatial manipulations could also extend to affecting the athletic demands placed on
421 players. Given the diminished playing area, one might infer fewer high-speed runs and overall sprints
422 in highly restricted spatial conditions, inadvertently ensuring that players are exposed to a potentially
423 unrepresentative training context. This concern aligns with the findings of Savoia et al. (2021), who
424 monitored an elite Italian soccer team in both official matches and training sessions over four months.
425 Their kinematic data analysis revealed that the metabolic power data recorded during training sessions
426 do not accurately represent the dynamics of competitive performance contexts. Consequently, they
427 suggested that there may be an ill-considered emphasis on SSG in current training practices, when
428 coaches use a 'copy and paste' approach to performance preparation (O'Sullivan et al., 2023). They
429 recommend that coaches should instead, place a greater attention to detail in designing sessions that
430 closely represent the athletic conditions encountered in official matches. From a practical standpoint:
431 context means everything. The findings of our study suggest that when designing spatial dimensions of
432 playing areas in practice, sport practitioners need to carefully consider what specific outcomes may be
433 needed from players with regards to skill adaptation aligning with conditioning effects. The major

434 finding of the present study underscores the adaptable nature of players' behavior and the close
435 dependence of their interactions with their surroundings (Vilar et al., 2012; Vilar et al., 2014). In other
436 words, players are highly adaptive and context means everything! When restricted to a markedly smaller
437 field, players adjusted their individual and collective tactical behaviors to counterbalance the
438 modifications to spatial constraints. Consequently, they tend to maximize the use of the available space,
439 striving to maintain playable distances from opponents and teammates, ensuring that their performance
440 remains functional.

441

442 **Limitations and future directions**

443 The primary limitation of the current study is that the trials involved only two competing teams, raising
444 questions about the generalization of these findings for other teams (Lazic et al., 2018). Clearly, further
445 research that dissects athletic parameters across different field sizes, while maintaining a constant
446 number of players, would provide further valuable insights for coaches. Future investigations should
447 address this issue and provide more evidence about what might happen in other 11vs.11 balanced teams
448 when the spatial conditions are heavily modified.

449 Similarly, incorporating the ball-position parameter into future investigations would enable a greater
450 focus on variables such as opponent pressure or spatial control. This approach would further clarify the
451 effects of adjusting the APP in soccer. The current results raise the serious issue that practitioners should
452 judiciously determine when and why to drastically adjust field dimensions, given the potential side
453 effects that could inadvertently subvert defensive actions, impede offensive actions, and thereby
454 diminish game representativeness.

455 More specifically, future research might consider varying the number of players involved, such as using
456 a 4vs.4 setup to create an SSG-like scenario or a 7vs.7 format, which aligns with competition scenarios
457 in certain child age groups, to explore these effects in youth soccer. Additionally, utilizing a more diverse
458 sample could strengthen the conclusions of future studies. Nonetheless, due to the large effects observed
459 across the calculated parameters, it is likely that similar trends will be observed in many experiments.
460 This implication aligns with the general objective of our study, suggesting that researchers and
461 practitioners should be more sensitive to spatial constraints within their intervention designs.
462 Intervention studies could reveal the consequences of training designs with different spatial constraints
463 on the skill adaptation process. To address this issue, future research should not only compare changes
464 between SSG (small-sided games) formats (e.g., how floaters/jokers or rule changes influence player
465 behaviors within one SSG compared to another), but also explore how specific practice regimes affect
466 transfer effects in full-sized matches. While tracing a specific behavior in a match back to the practice
467 environment may be challenging due to various interferences, for a comprehensive understanding of
468 skill acquisition research should avoid the limitation of examining training and competition separately
469 (i.e., different 'forms of life'). Therefore, it is worth looking beyond the pitch at the ecological niche in
470 both training and competition environments.

471 **The Concave Hull: An Ecological Niche within Soccer's Practice Design**

472 Our findings suggest that the 'concave hull' may be considered as an 'ecological niche' within the formats
473 of soccer's practice designs. Rothwell et al. (2023) extensively explored the macro perspective of talent
474 development in sports, they particularly highlighted the role of the performance environment,
475 sociocultural contexts, and developmental practices as comprising an ecological niche which shapes an
476 athlete's trajectory. Just as the 'ecological niche', on a macro scale, underscores the interplay between
477 performers and their surroundings (Rothwell et al., 2020; Rothwell et al., 2023), our findings encourage
478 viewing this concept on a micro scale as well. In this context, the soccer field, may be seen as an organic
479 setting where collective actions emerge, emphasizing the importance of the design and scaling of the
480 concave envelope. This perspective frames the soccer field as an 'ecological niche'. The visual
481 representation, particularly of the 'concave hull', further highlights the significance of its structure and
482 merits heightened attention and awareness in sport science research.

483 For coaches, the concept of the 'concave hull' provides valuable information that can enhance action
484 fidelity in practice. Our data reveal that a reduced APP value leads to closer player-player positioning,
485 which practically translates to a tighter marking strategy. Additionally, previous studies investigating
486 midfield pressing or high-press strategies have shown that defensive backlines tend to position
487 themselves at varying distances from the goal line, depending on their pressing strategy (QUELLE).
488 Therefore, this vacant space behind defenders can be considered for therepresentative design of practice
489 tasks, not only when setting up large-sided training scenarios (e.g., 8vs.8 to 11vs.11) but also in sub-task
490 designs, with fewer players in SSG. For instance, when coaches want to develop the co-adaptation of
491 players in a defensive dyad (e.g., two central defenders), they often start near the penalty box, where the
492 space behind the defenders is approximately 16-18 meters. This is a simple setup, typically done to focus
493 the defenders' attention, as beside dribbling, and combination play, the attackers have good shooting
494 opportunities. However, considering the ecological niche within soccer's practice design, the data
495 reported here suggest the need to take into account potential benefits when positioning the defensive
496 dyad 37 to 40 m from the goal (QUELLE) which creates a different affordance landscape. In a 2 vs.2
497 scenario near the goal, attackers are constantly presented with available shooting affordances, which
498 forces defenders to stay close to block shots. On the other hand, at 37 to 40 m from the goal, shooting
499 becomes less likely, while affordances for playing through-balls become more prominent. With more
500 space at the back to cover, a tight marking strategy is less effective, as attackers can easily knock the
501 ball into space or perform a one-two (as mentioned earlier in the futsal example). In this case, the
502 defenders must attune their (co-)positioning to the pace of the attackers (higher dribbling pace due to
503 greater distance to goal), co-adapting with their partner to limit through-ball opportunities. These
504 practice design modifications can also help the dyad partners to keep in mind, that when attackers
505 approach the goal, shooting affordances become more and more available. This example for setting up
506 a representative 2 vs.2 practice design suggests how coaches could become more conscious of spatio-

507 temporal task representativeness to effectively channel each player's action readiness for full-sized
508 matches (competition).

509

510 Considering the 'concave hull' as an ecological niche within soccer practice design helps coaches
511 become increasingly aware of the actual affordances that emerge and disappear in a full-sized match.
512 Representative spatial conditions in training ensure that, when players return to the competitive
513 performance environment, they will be able to find similar information sources which they have attuned
514 to during practice (i.e., skill transfer). Conversely, when the ecological niche in practice does not provide
515 the relevant information sources that players will face in competition, the practice environment may not
516 provide adequate support for them to prepare for demands of competitive performance. Therefore, to
517 design practice formats with a high sensitivity to spatial task representativeness, coaches conceptualised
518 as sport ecology designers may ask (WOODS): Where and how does a situation emerge in competitive
519 performance? and, What are the spatial affordances (concave hull) surrounding the players?

520 **CONCLUSION**

521 The 'concave hull', which signifies the space around the outfield players, forms a critical spatial
522 constraint influencing the emerging interpersonal distance values among the players. Consequently, this
523 space remains highly significant for ensuring the representativeness of actions within training designs.
524 However, particularly in SSG training, this space is often situated beyond the playing area, potentially
525 resulting in an artificial and non-representative training environment where players may struggle to find
526 relevant information to attune to and available affordances of an intended performance context.

527 As a result, the findings of our study emphasize that the 'concave hull' represents an 'ecological niche'
528 at the micro level, a niche that directly constrains players' behaviors within the designs of soccer training
529 activities. By defining the field size, positioning the goals, and manipulating task constraints, coaches
530 are actually creating an 'ecological niche' for adaptation of player actions on a micro level. Consequently,
531 for a seamless and effective skill transfer of performance from training to actual games, the 'ecological
532 niche' established in training should seek to contextualize the dynamics and intricacies of specific
533 performance environments. Given the prevalent focus on smaller spaces in training, particularly in SSG,
534 future research should delve into the potential of representative scaling to enhance action fidelity,
535 especially within sub-task designs. For instance, a 4vs.4 setup – such as the back-four against the
536 attacking line – is often played in a space double the size of the penalty area for convenience's sake
537 (Olthof et al., 2018), but to improve learning effects, it may be arranged with representative spatial
538 conditions that mirror actual gameplay. Investigating and establishing more representative ecological
539 niches in training may offer a promising avenue for nurturing player and team development, ensuring a
540 more seamless performance transfer aligned with authentic competitive demands. Looking beyond the
541 conventional wisdom of soccer practice design helps coaches and researchers avoid treating training and
542 competition as two distinct 'forms of life'. Hence, the concave hull as soccer's ecological niche in practice
543 design is an approach that facilitates improved task representativeness in practice and intervention
544 designs, creating a more vital set of affordances for players that align with their natural habitat – the
545 full-sized soccer field.

546

547

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552

553 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

554 JW was responsible for data collection and comprehensive analysis of the dataset. YD played a
555 supervisory role in data collection and actively participated in the process. BB and RR both contributed
556 to conceptualizing the study's methodology, with BB focusing on supervising the data collection and
557 RR providing support in data analysis. KD critically reviewed and improved the manuscript, ensuring
558 the accuracy and appropriateness of content, particularly in relation to the Ecological Dynamics
559 framework. TV provided considerable revisions to the manuscript, contributing scientifically valuable
560 insights and improvements. AD was pivotal in conceptualizing the study's idea, overseeing both data
561 collection and analysis. AD also drafted the initial manuscript and coordinated the integration of
562 feedback from co-authors.

563

564 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST DISCLOSURE**

565 The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

566

567 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

568 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, AD, upon
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570

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575 All authors declare no conflict of interest.

576

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720 **APPENDICES**721 **TABLES**722 **Table 1:**

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Contrasted Conditions	Descriptive Statistics		Multiple Comparison Test (Tukey)				
	mean±sd	mean±sd	Estimate	SE	95%CI	t	p
Convex hull [m²]							
'Competitive' vs. 'Large'	1412±12	1210±14	202	38.60	(96, 31)	5.23	.0001
'Competitive' vs. 'Half'	1412±12	978±67	434	38.60	(328, 539)	11.24	<.0001
'Competitive' vs. 'Small'	1412±12	672±71	740	38.60	(634, 846)	19.16	<.0001
Relative pitch occ. [%]							
'Competitive' vs. 'Large'	19.78±1.73	25.24±3.02	-5.46	0.93	(-8.01, 2.91)	-5.86	<.0001
'Competitive' vs. 'Half'	19.78±1.73	27.41±1.90	-7.63	0.93	(-10.18, 5.08)	-8.19	<.0001
'Competitive' vs. 'Small'	19.78±1.73	30.30±3.21	-10.52	0.93	(-13.07, 7.97)	-11.29	<.0001
Dist. to nearest opp. [m]							
'Competitive' vs. 'Large'	6.47±0.57	6.16±0.55	0.31	0.19	(-0.20, 0.82)	1.69	.3497
'Competitive' vs. 'Half'	6.47±0.57	4.97±0.25	1.50	0.19	(0.99, 2.01)	8.06	<.0001
'Competitive' vs. 'Small'	6.47±0.57	4.49±0.28	1.98	0.19	(1.47, 2.49)	10.65	<.0001

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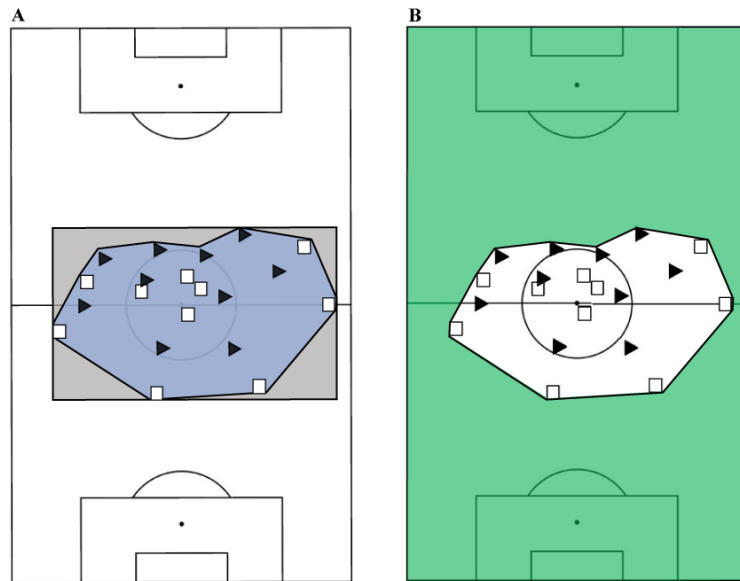
726 **TABLE CAPTIONS**

727 **Table 1:** Statistical results are derived from Tukey's post-hoc pairwise comparisons. The 'Competitive'
728 field serves as the reference condition against which the other three field conditions – 'Large', 'Half', and
729 'Small' – are compared.

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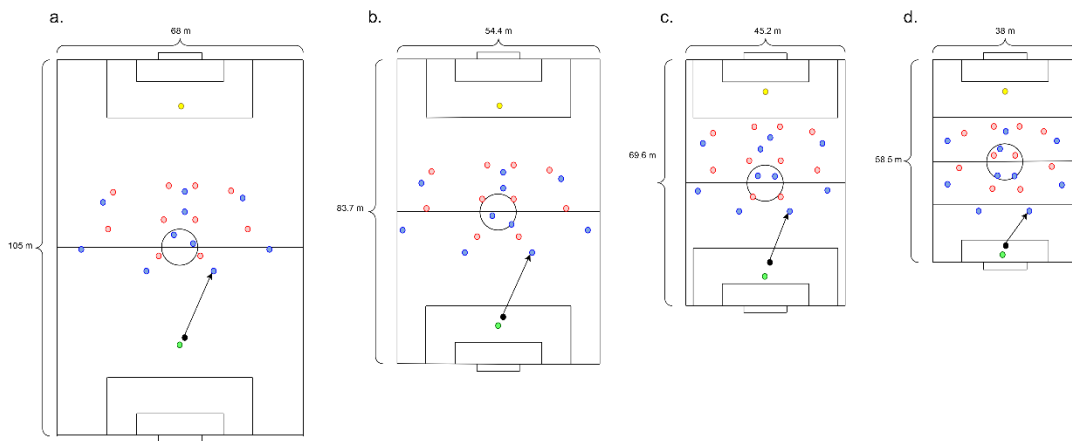
731 **FIGURES**

732 **Figure 1:**

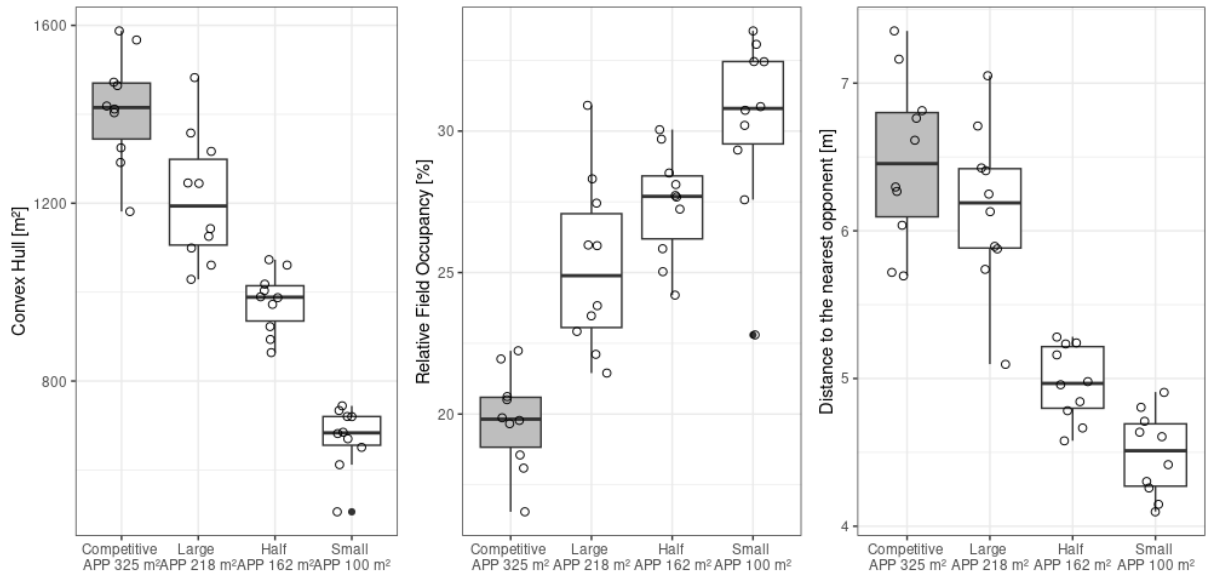


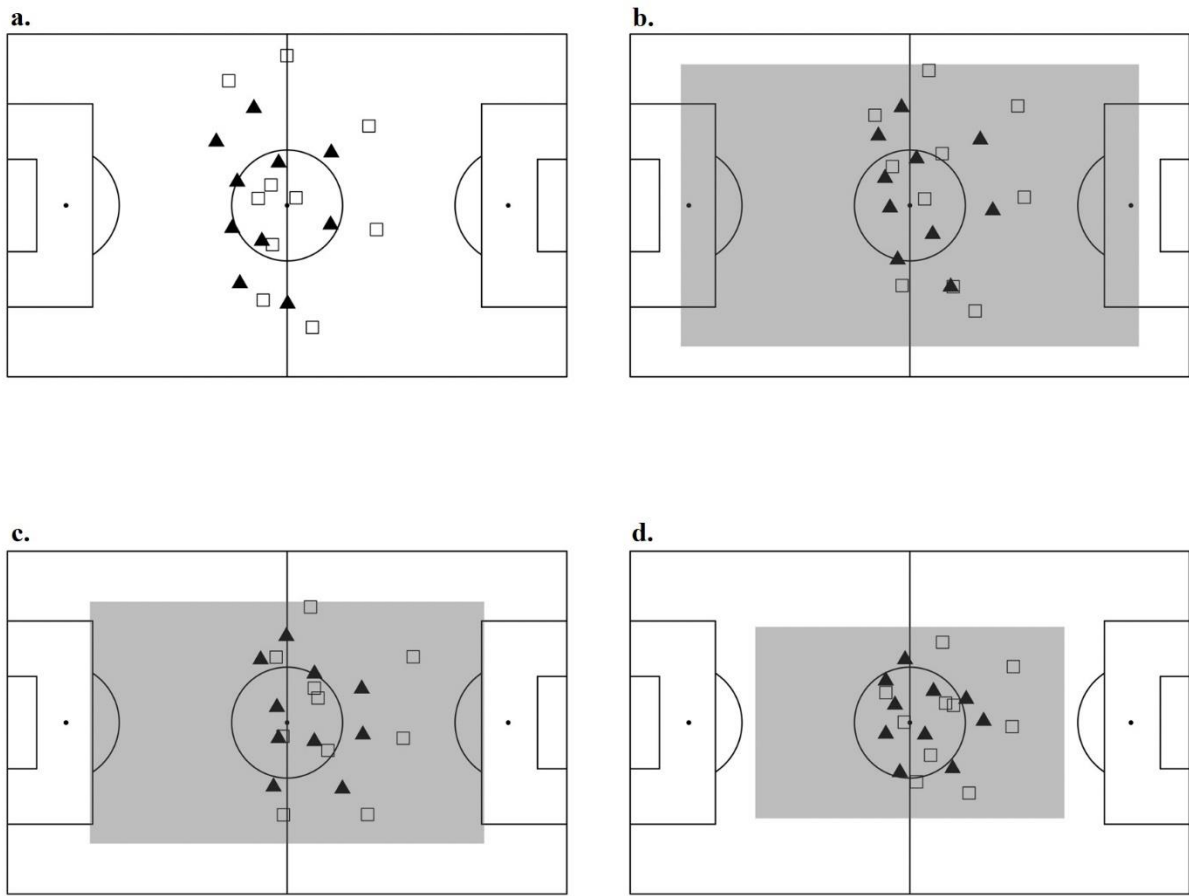
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734 **Figure 2:**



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743 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

744 **Figure 1:** Exemplary tactical setups of two soccer teams. On the left (A), the 'convex hull', representing
745 the effective playing surface, is delineated by the blue polygon. The derived pitch area from this 'convex
746 hull' (shown as a gray rectangle) is notably smaller than the full field (Fradua et al., 2013). On the right
747 (B), the 'concave hull', highlighted in green, reveals an 'ecological niche' within soccer's practice design.

748
749 **Figure 2:** Scaled representation of the different field sizes: a. 'Competitive': area per player (APP) of
750 324.55 m²; b. 'Large': Based on Owen et al. (2014), APP of 218.00 m²; c. 'Half': Half field size, APP of
751 162.27 m²; d. 'Small': Based on Frencken et al. (2012), APP of 100.85 m².

752
753 **Figure 3:** Boxplots illustrating the 'convex hull', 'distance to the nearest opponent', and the 'relative field
754 occupation' across all field conditions. Note that in all three dependent variables, there is a clear
755 difference between the four field conditions, indicating that the players' actions are closely constrained
756 by the surrounding spatial conditions.

757
758 **Figure 4:** Average positions of players (squares indicating attacking positions) across the conditions: a.
759 'Competitive', b. 'Large', c. 'Half', and d. 'Small' (from top left to bottom right). It can be observed that
760 the less field space is available, the more the co-positioning of players in attack and defense contracts,
761 while the unoccupied space surrounding the players decreases.