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1 **Manuscript title:** Influence of contextual factors, technical performance and movement
2 demands on the subjective task load associated with professional rugby league match-play

3

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32 **Abstract**

33 **Purpose:** The aim of the study was to identify the association between several contextual
34 match factors, technical performance and external movement demands on the subjective task
35 load of elite rugby league players. **Methods:** Individual subjective task load, quantified using
36 the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Task Load Index (NASA-TLX), was
37 collected from 29 professional rugby league players from one club competing in the European
38 Super League throughout the 2017 season. The sample consisted of 26 matches, culminating
39 in 441 individual data points. Linear mixed-modelling was adopted to analyze the data for
40 relationships and revealed that various combinations of contextual factors, technical
41 performance and movement demands were associated with subjective task load. **Results:**
42 Greater number of tackles (effect size correlation \pm 90% CI; $\eta^2= 0.18 \pm 0.11$), errors ($\eta^2= 0.15$
43 ± 0.08) decelerations ($\eta^2= 0.12 \pm 0.08$), increased sprint distance ($\eta^2= 0.13 \pm 0.08$), losing
44 matches ($\eta^2= 0.36 \pm 0.08$) and increased perception of effort ($\eta^2= 0.27 \pm 0.08$) led to *most likely*
45 – *very likely* increases in subjective total task load. The independent variables included in the
46 final model for subjective mental demand (match outcome, time played and number of
47 accelerations) were *unclear*, excluding a *likely small* correlation with the number of technical
48 errors ($\eta^2= 0.10 \pm 0.08$). **Conclusions:** These data provide a greater understanding of the
49 subjective task load and their association with several contextual factors, technical performance
50 and external movement demands during rugby league competition. Practitioners could use this
51 detailed quantification of internal loads to inform the prescription of recovery sessions and
52 current training practices.

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54 **Keywords:** *team sport, match demands, mental demand, load, NASA-TLX.*

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71 Introduction

72 Rugby league match demands have been well reported due to advances in technology and a
73 growing interest in monitoring the ‘load’ that an athlete undergoes during training¹, match-
74 play^{2,3}, or both⁴. While much of the research and current applied practice in rugby league
75 measures external loads derived from micro-technology (GPS and accelerometers etc^{2,5,6}),
76 these measures simply describe the activity that a player has completed and might not
77 accurately reflect the physiological or perceptual demands imposed on the individual⁷. Internal
78 loads are adopted as a method of quantifying the response (physiological and perceptual) to
79 these external loads, with session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE) traditionally used as a
80 valid, non-invasive and inexpensive measurement tool⁸ to determine the perceived exercise
81 intensity associated with rugby league training¹ and match-play^{2,5,9}.

82 The widespread quantification of exercise intensity using sRPE combined with exercise
83 duration (i.e. sRPE-TL), is considered a global measure of internal load^{1,2}. Differential RPE
84 (dRPE) has also been proposed to discriminate between the internal loads (perceived
85 breathlessness, leg and upper-body muscle exertion and cognitive demands) associated with
86 various rugby training practices (e.g. repeated high intensity efforts and skills training)¹⁰.
87 However, these global measures might oversimplify the multifactorial psychophysiological
88 construct of match-play¹¹, whereby the reductionist method of gaining one (sRPE) or several
89 (dRPE) ratings of internal load might lack the sensitivity to measure unique loads associated
90 with rugby training and competition (e.g. collision)¹². Other subjective measures exist,
91 including the NASA task load index (NASA-TLX)¹³, a multidimensional scale used to obtain
92 subjective workload estimates determined from six subscales (mental demand, physical
93 demand, temporal demand, performance, effort and frustration) thought to contribute to ‘global
94 load’ during all tasks. Originally designed to discriminate tasks of varying mental and physical
95 demands during aviation, the NASA-TLX has since been used in other non-aviation
96 disciplines, including endurance performance, to discriminate tasks with varying mental (e.g.
97 mental fatigue) and physical demands (e.g. 5 km running)¹⁴. To date, the NASA-TLX has not
98 been used to quantify the subjective task load during team sport performance. The reliability
99 and validity of the NASA-TLX is reported to be adequate to detect meaningful changes in
100 subjective task load across various industries including aviation, medical and military tasks¹⁵.

101 Numerous factors contribute to the task load (i.e. the cost of performing a task on the
102 individual¹³) experienced by players during team sport competition. Indeed, the dynamic
103 psychophysiological demands experienced by players are constructed from the task demands
104 (e.g. external demands of match-play), the contextual factors under which the task is performed
105 (e.g. playing home or away), and the skills, behaviour and perceptions of that individual¹⁶. The
106 technical and physical demands of rugby league competition are often considered ‘important’
107 if they differentiate successful and less successful teams (i.e. match outcome and playing
108 standard)^{17,18}, and it is plausible that these important task demands likely impact the mental
109 and physical cost (i.e. task load) experienced by players. Given that the NASA-TLX can
110 differentiate several sources of task load (e.g. mental and physical demands), the extent to
111 which these task loads are related to the task demands (e.g. technical and movement demands)
112 is worth exploring. Although external demands of match-play are well documented and the
113 effects of several contextual factors on movement demands have been explored (e.g. opposition
114 quality alters the amount of high speed running)¹⁹, to the authors’ knowledge no study has
115 described the effect contextual factors might have on a player’s subjective task load during
116 team sport match-play. This is particularly important given that contextual factors likely alter
117 the experienced cognitive and physical demands experienced by players, that might well impact
118 player fatigue²⁰. Such information on the subjective task load of matches (i.e. how the loads

119 experienced are perceived by the individual) would therefore be useful when prescribing
120 training that acts to simulate not only movement and physiological demands, but also to elicit
121 a particular construct of subjective task load (e.g. mental demand). The aims of this study were
122 twofold: (i) to describe the subjective task load of rugby league match-play using the NASA-
123 TLX and (ii), to determine the association between subjective task load and several contextual
124 match factors, technical performance and external movement demands.

125 **Methods**

126 *Study Design*

127 A longitudinal observational study design was used to examine the effect of selected contextual
128 factors, technical performance and movement demands on elite rugby league players'
129 subjective task load, quantified by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Task
130 Load Index (NASA-TLX)¹³ and sRPE⁸. Subjective task load was collected from elite
131 professional rugby league players from one club competing in the European Super League
132 throughout the 2017 season (February – September). Data were collected during match-play
133 (GPS, performance analysis and contextual data) and during the subsequent 'recovery session'
134 the day after each match (subjective task load and perception of effort) at the same time of day
135 (9:00 – 11:00 am).

136 *Participants and Contextual Data*

137 With ethics approval from the Faculty of Medicine, Dentistry and Life Sciences Ethics
138 Committee [1278/17/TM/SES] and written informed consent from the club and players, 29
139 professional rugby league players (age= 26 ± 4 years; body mass= 94 ± 10 kg; stature= 182 ±
140 6 cm) were recruited for the study. Players were from the same club competing in the European
141 Super League and were categorized according to playing positions as adjustables (half-back,
142 hooker, stand-off and loose forward, $n=8$), outside backs (fullback, winger and centre, $n=11$)
143 and hit-up forwards (prop and second row, $n=10$). The inclusion criteria required players to
144 have entered the field of play during a match and to have attended the subsequent recovery
145 session at the club's training ground 13-15 hours afterwards. Individual data were excluded
146 when players were unable to attend the recovery session the day after a match ($n=18$), due to
147 concussion ($n=8$), musculoskeletal injury ($n=3$) or non-injury related reasons ($n=7$). Whole
148 match data were excluded when a recovery session was not provided within 24 hours after the
149 match ($n=4$). Therefore, data were collected from 26 matches (league, $n=19$; play-offs, $n=7$),
150 involving 29 players, culminating in 441 individual data points. Throughout the competitive
151 season, 16 matches were won, 13 were lost, with one draw. Match data were subcategorised
152 according to season phase; early (February - April; $n=9$), mid (April - July; $n=10$) and late (July
153 - September; $n=7$). Opposition quality was determined as 'high' ($n=11$) or 'low' ($n=15$),
154 depending on league position at the end of both the ordinary season and play-offs using a
155 median split. This method created an uneven split of teams, given that opposition could be
156 considered as both "high" and "low" quality at different times of the year. Data were reported
157 on 13 home and 13 away fixtures. Most matches took place on Thursday and Friday evenings
158 (8:00 pm; $n=22$), with the remaining fixtures on Saturday and Sunday afternoons (3:00 pm;
159 $n=4$).

160 *Procedures*

161 *Movement Demands*

162 Players were pre-fitted with a playing jersey that housed a 10 Hz GPS unit between the scapulae
163 (Viper pod, STATSports, Co. Down, Ireland). GPS units were activated before the pre-match

164 warm-up (~40 min before kick-off). The same units were worn by players for each match to
165 avoid inter-unit variation. Data were ‘split’ live by the same individual into playing halves and
166 individual interchange bouts during the match. The reliability and validity of these GPS units
167 are described elsewhere^{21,22}. Previously reported thresholds were used for low intensity activity
168 (<14 km·h⁻¹) and high speed running (≥14 km·h⁻¹)²³, sprint distance (>20 km·h⁻¹)² and high
169 metabolic power (>20 W·kg⁻¹)²⁴. Data were later downloaded and analyzed using STATSports
170 software (Viper PSA software, STATSports, Co. Down, Ireland), to calculate mean speed
171 covered in total, low intensity activity and high speed running (m·min⁻¹), sprints (*n*), sprint
172 distance (distance covered >20 km·h⁻¹), total accelerations and decelerations (*n*; >3m·s⁻² for at
173 least 0.5 s – automatically calculated by the GPS software) and time spent at high metabolic
174 power >20 W·kg⁻¹ (s).

175 *Technical Demands*

176 Performance analysis was conducted and supplied with permission by Opta Sports (Opta
177 Sportsdata Limited, Leeds, UK) using video footage of each match. Performance analysis data
178 were provided in spreadsheets (Excel v2013, Microsoft Inc., Redmond, U.S.A). Data were
179 subsequently reported on several key performance indicators as suggested by the coaching staff
180 at the club, which were: number of passes, tackles, missed tackles, carries, metres and errors
181 made. Video footage were coded according to specific Opta rugby league operational
182 definitions. Previously published data demonstrated high levels of inter-operator reliability of
183 independent Opta operators (kappa values 0.92 and 0.94; intra-class correlation coefficients =
184 0.88-1.00, and standardised typical errors = 0.00-0.37)²⁵.

185 *Subjective Task Load and Perceptual Measures*

186 Players were instructed to reflect on the entire time spent “on-field” during the match played
187 the day before and to complete the non-digital version of the NASA-TLX¹³ without consulting
188 teammates. These perceptual measures were recorded under the same conditions during the
189 recovery session the morning after each match (13-15 h post-match). The delay in reporting
190 these subjective measures was due to limited access to these players immediately after match
191 play. Previous research suggests that a 24 h recall is an accurate method of gaining perceptual
192 measures (e.g. sRPE), with similar ratings regardless of the time after exercise (30 min *cf.* 24
193 h)²⁶. Players rated six subscales of task load (mental demand, physical demand, temporal
194 demand, performance, effort and frustration), with written definitions of the subscales available
195 throughout. The original definitions were modified to include language familiar to the players
196 (e.g. the word ‘task’ was replaced with ‘match’). Each subscale was presented as a 10 cm line
197 with visual anchors at either end (e.g. low/high). Numerical values were not displayed, but the
198 scale ranged from 0-100 AU. Data were recorded to the nearest 5 AU. A weighted scoring of
199 the six subscales was also performed using 15 pairwise comparisons between each subscale
200 (e.g. mental demand *cf.* effort). Participants were instructed to circle the descriptor that
201 represents the most important contributor to task load during the match. The weighted score
202 corresponds to the number of times each subscale is selected as being the most important
203 contributor to global task load. A task load (weighted rating) score was then calculated by
204 multiplying the weighted score by the rated score for each individual subscale. Finally, a global
205 task load score was then produced by summing the weighted rating for each descriptor, and
206 dividing by the total weights (*n*=15). During the same recovery session and immediately before
207 completing the NASA-TLX, players were required to report sRPE (0-10 scale)⁸ relating to the
208 match.

209 *Statistical Analyses*

210 Eight separate two-level linear mixed models were constructed to determine the influence of
211 skill performance, contextual factors and movement demands performed during match-play on
212 each dependant variable (each subscale of the NASA-TLX; weighted rating, total subjective
213 task load and sRPE; Table 1). Individual players were included as random factors. When
214 creating the model (Table 1) a “step-up” approach was employed starting with an
215 “unconditional” null-model, whereby only the level two random factors (player) were
216 included²⁷. Subsequently, each level one fixed effect (covariate) was introduced to the model
217 and retained if the model was significantly altered ($P < 0.05$) as determined by the maximum
218 likelihood ratio and χ^2 statistic. As the intercept, derived from the convergence of all random
219 slopes (individual players), resulted in a height of $x = 0$, and none of the continuous fixed
220 factors were measured at 0 (e.g. 0 m distance), the data was mean centred to shift the origin of
221 the intercept. The t -statistic, from the final model, was converted to an effect size correlation
222 (η^2) with 90% confidence intervals (90% CI)²⁸. To supplement the interpretation of the
223 analysis, the likelihood of the observed effect was determined using a pre-designed
224 spreadsheet²⁹ and considered according to the quantitative chances of a true effect with
225 following qualitative descriptors; *almost certainly not* (<1%), *very unlikely* (1-5%), *unlikely*
226 (5-25%), *possibly* (25-75%), *likely* (75-97.5%), *very likely* (97.5-99%), *almost certainly*
227 (>99%)³⁰. Effect size correlations were interpreted as < 0.1, *trivial*; 0.1-0.3, *small*; 0.3-0.5,
228 *moderate*; 0.5-0.7, *large*; 0.7-0.9, *very large*; 0.90-0.99, *almost perfect*; 1.0, *perfect*³⁰.
229 Statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS, version 24; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was
230 used to construct the linear mixed models.

231

232 ***** Insert Table 1 about here *****

233

234

235 Results

236 Positional comparisons of the performance analysis and movement demands were averaged
237 and described for contextual purposes (Table 2).

238

239 ***** Insert Table 2 about here *****

240

241

242 As shown in Figure 1, average data for the NASA-TLX revealed relatively greater weighted
243 ratings for the subscales of effort and physical demand compared to mental demand, temporal
244 demand, performance and frustration.

245

246

247 ***** Insert Figure 1 about here *****

248

249 All independent variables included in the final model for subjective mental demand (match
250 outcome, time played and number of accelerations) had an *unclear* relationship, excluding a
251 *likely small* correlation with the number of errors ($\eta^2 = 0.10 \pm 0.08$; Figure 2). Defensive tackling
252 efforts ($\eta^2 = 0.19 \pm 0.12$) resulted in *very likely small* increases in subjective physical demand
253 (Figure 2). *Most likely small* increases were also observed in subjective physical demand after
254 matches that were won ($\eta^2 = 0.21 \pm 0.08$), with increased sRPE ($\eta^2 = 0.34 \pm 0.08$) and with greater

255 time spent at high metabolic power (>20 W/kg; $\eta^2= 0.16 \pm 0.06$). Time spent on the field during
256 matches resulted in a *likely small* increase in subjective temporal demand ($\eta^2= 0.11 \pm 0.08$),
257 with hit-up forwards reporting a *very likely small* decrease in temporal demand compared to
258 adjustables ($\eta^2= 0.21 \pm 0.13$; Figure 2). Players reported performance as being better (lower
259 rating = better performance) with *very likely small* decreases in subjective performance when
260 matches were won ($\eta^2= -0.12 \pm 0.09$) and perception of effort was higher ($\eta^2= -0.13 \pm 0.09$).
261 Effort was *most likely* higher when matches were won (*small*; $\eta^2= 0.28 \pm 0.08$), playing against
262 higher quality opposition (*small*; $\eta^2= 0.19 \pm 0.08$) and when players perception of effort was
263 higher (*moderate*; $\eta^2= 0.38 \pm 0.07$). Players performing more interchange bouts reported a small
264 but *very likely* increase in effort ($\eta^2= 0.13 \pm 0.08$; Figure 2). Winning matches (*moderate*; $\eta^2=$
265 -0.48 ± 0.07) and increased sRPE (*small*; $\eta^2= -0.21 \pm 0.09$) resulted in a *most likely* decrease in
266 subjective frustration. Conversely, an increase in the number of errors during the match resulted
267 in a *very likely small* increase in frustration ($\eta^2= 0.15 \pm 0.08$; Figure 2).
268

269 Greater number of tackles ($\eta^2= 0.18 \pm 0.11$), errors ($\eta^2= 0.15 \pm 0.08$) decelerations ($\eta^2= 0.12$
270 ± 0.08) and increased sprint distance ($\eta^2= 0.13 \pm 0.08$) during matches resulted in *very likely*
271 *small* increases in total task load (Figure 3). Losing matches ($\eta^2= 0.36 \pm 0.08$) and increased
272 perception of effort ($\eta^2= 0.27 \pm 0.08$) led to *most likely moderate* and *small* increases in total
273 task load, respectively. Conversely, fewer carries ($\eta^2= -0.18 \pm 0.09$) and accelerations ($\eta^2= -$
274 0.14 ± 0.08) during match-play was associated with a *most likely* and *very likely small* increase
275 in total subjective task load, respectively. Finally, greater number of tackles ($\eta^2= 0.24 \pm 0.09$),
276 carries ($\eta^2= 0.11 \pm 0.08$), increased time spent on the field ($\eta^2= 0.27 \pm 0.09$) and when players
277 covered more relative distance ($\eta^2= 0.15 \pm 0.08$) meant *very likely* and *most likely small*
278 increases in sRPE (Figure 3).

279

280

281 ***** Insert Figure 2 about here *****

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284

285 ***** Insert Figure 3 about here *****

286

287 Discussion

288 This study is the first to describe the external loads and internal responses associated with elite
289 rugby league match-play using a multidimensional rating technique (NASA-TLX), whilst
290 attempting to describe the specific contextual, performance and movement characteristics
291 associated with the subjective ratings of the NASA-TLX. Positional differences in the technical
292 performance characteristics, such as number of tackles (outside backs ~ 10 cf. hit-up forwards
293 and adjustables ~ 25) and number of passes (adjustables ~ 40 cf. hit-up forwards ~ 3 and outside
294 backs ~ 5), reflect the specific role requirements of these positions. However, positional
295 differences were only significantly related with the perceived temporal demand of matches;
296 that is, hit-up forwards perceived temporal demand to be greater (*very likely small*) than other
297 positional groups (outside backs and adjustables). Such positional differences likely reflect the
298 tactical decisions of the coach, where hit-up forwards are required to ‘impact’ the outcome of

299 a match within a shorter period of time (~50 min) than whole match players (~80 min)³¹,
300 culminating with an increased time pressure and perceived temporal demand. These data
301 provide a greater understanding of the overall external loads and internal responses of rugby
302 league match-play, beyond reporting the external loads (GPS) and a global measure of internal
303 load (sRPE-TL).

304 The mental demand associated with rugby league competition has not been explored before. In
305 this study, no meaningful associations were observed between the reported match variables
306 (i.e. contextual, technical performance and movement demands) and subjective mental
307 demand, excluding a *likely small* increase in mental demand when players made more errors
308 (Figure 2). These findings are in contrast to Mashiko and colleagues³², whereby altered mental
309 loads and associated mental fatigue measured using profile of mood state were speculatively
310 attributed to changes in position-specific activity profiles during rugby union match-play,
311 despite not measuring the movement or technical demands. Whilst the number of errors made
312 during matches have been established as important determinants of team success and match
313 outcome (e.g. more successful teams commit fewer errors)³³, it is unlikely that committing
314 technical errors will exclusively increase perceived mental demand. Rather, the situation
315 whereby ‘errors’ occur will likely inform a player’s perception of mental demand. More
316 specifically, errors are likely to occur towards the latter stages of a match and after a peak 5
317 min period³⁴, meaning that skilled actions in association with fatigue might increase the mental
318 demands on a player. Alternatively, given that correlations cannot establish causality, it is
319 possible that a greater mental demand in a match results in more errors. This is in agreement
320 with studies reporting that mentally demanding tasks before³⁵ and during³⁶ exercise can
321 increase the number of errors during laboratory-based (concomitant exercise and computer
322 based vigilance task)³⁶ and field-based accuracy tasks (sport-specific skill assessment,
323 LSPT)³⁵.

324 Subjective ratings were similar between subscales of the NASA-TLX (62 - 78 AU), excluding
325 ratings of performance (~40 AU). However, when these ratings were multiplied by the
326 weighted score (i.e. weighted rating), effort, physical demand and mental demand were
327 increased relative to performance, temporal demand and frustration. Subjective physical
328 demand was associated with several contextual (match outcome), perceptual (sRPE) and
329 external load measures (tackles, accelerations and time spent at high metabolic power) during
330 match-play. Previously, the physical demands associated with rugby training and matches have
331 been reported using internal (i.e. sRPE and dRPE) and external (i.e. GPS and accelerometer)
332 load measures^{10,31}. In the current study, completing more tackles was associated with an
333 increased subjective physical demand and overall task load (*very likely small*). This reaffirms
334 previous work describing the importance of the tackle within actual³⁷ and simulated³⁸⁻⁴⁰ rugby
335 league match play. Specifically, previous research demonstrates that collisions will impact a
336 player’s internal loads (perception of effort), external loads (sprint performance) and the fatigue
337 response (jump performance) to exercise³⁷⁻⁴⁰. Despite not quantifying the intensity or type of
338 tackle, our data suggests that the number of tackle involvements defined simply as a “player
339 attempting to halt the progress or dispossess an opponent in possession of the ball” (Opta
340 Sportsdata) will likely impact the overall task load perceived by the player.

341 This study is the first to apply the NASA-TLX to explore the ‘load’ placed on rugby league
342 players. Various combinations of contextual factors, technical performance and movement
343 demands were associated with subjective overall task load (NASA-TLX) and rating of
344 perceived exertion (sRPE). For example, subjective total task load was informed by the number
345 of tackles, carries and errors made, match outcome, perception of effort, number of
346 accelerations and decelerations and total sprint distance. Session RPE, in contrast, was related

347 to fewer match variables, including the number of tackles and carries made, playing time and
348 total distance covered. Conversely, the subjective ratings of effort derived from the NASA-
349 TLX were not informed by movement or physical demands but rather several contextual
350 (quality of opposition, match outcome, number of interchanges; *small*) and perceptual (*sRPE*;
351 *moderate*) factors. For example, when matches were won and played against better quality
352 opposition, subjective effort was *most likely* higher (*small* standardised effects). These data
353 suggest that the global NASA-TLX and *sRPE* reflect different loads associated with rugby
354 league match-play. The NASA-TLX is a measure that provides greater detail when determining
355 specific and subjective overall task load associated with rugby league competition, beyond the
356 conventional method of reporting a single measure of perceived exertion. As such, this study
357 supports the use of a NASA-TLX to explore the multifaceted demands on rugby league players,
358 which might further enhance our understanding of match demands beyond RPE. Furthermore,
359 these data suggest that global load measures (*sRPE* and NASA-TLX) are not just a ‘response’
360 to the external loads (i.e. movement and technical demands), but are also dependant on the
361 context of performance (e.g. opposition quality and match outcome). Therefore, coaches and
362 practitioners should consider the contextual scenarios under which the match loads are
363 performed, and wherever possible should incorporate a player-centred approach to load
364 monitoring.

365 **Practical Applications**

366 These data reaffirm that varying combinations of match characteristics interact to inform an
367 individual’s internal load associated with rugby league competition¹². Indeed, this detailed
368 quantification of internal loads might enable practitioners to better understand the internal load
369 responses of their players, which could inform the prescription of recovery sessions and current
370 training practices. Given that training should prepare players for the specific demands of match
371 performance, these data could benefit coaches and practitioners when developing training
372 practices by replicating not only the external (physical demands) and internal loads
373 (physiological and perceptual) of rugby league matches, but also how these factors interact to
374 inform subjective task load. Training sessions could include combinations of technical
375 performance or movement variables to elicit specific subjective task loads. For example, based
376 on the findings of the current study, practitioners might manipulate the subjective physical
377 demands imposed on players by including varying number of tackles and time spent at high
378 metabolic power during training practices. Coaches might also consider imitating collisions,
379 ball carries and opportunities for players to make errors to better replicate match-play, given
380 their association with overall task load and subjective mental demand (i.e. errors) in the current
381 study. While these data offer insight to the contributors to total task load that might be used to
382 design appropriate training practices, it is unknown whether these findings would elicit similar
383 internal responses during training compared to match-play. For example, contextual factors
384 such as match outcome and opposition quality would be difficult to replicate. Future research
385 should consider quantifying the subjective task loads associated with current training practices.

386 In the current study, the NASA-TLX were conveniently reported during the recovery session
387 after match-play and took players <5 min to complete (non-digital version), highlighting the
388 ease of its application. However, the effect of time between matches and reporting NASA-TLX
389 is currently unknown and could be considered a limitation of this investigation. Another
390 limitation of the current study is that the method of reporting accelerations (number of
391 accelerations >3m/s²) will likely exclude those acceleration efforts that are performed at lower
392 velocities (e.g. wrestling). Indeed, future studies might wish to explore the subjective task loads
393 of rugby league training and competition using more contemporary external load metrics to
394 quantify accelerations.

395 **Conclusions**

396 This study is the first to describe the external loads and internal responses associated with elite
397 rugby league match-play using a multidimensional rating technique (NASA-TLX), whilst
398 attempting to describe the specific contextual, performance and movement characteristics
399 associated with the subjective ratings of the NASA-TLX. These findings suggest that the
400 NASA-TLX is a worthwhile measure that provides greater detail when determining specific
401 subjective loads and overall task load associated with rugby league competition, beyond the
402 conventional method of reporting a single measure of perceived exertion. Taken together, these
403 data support the use of NASA-TLX as a practical measure of internal global load. These data
404 also highlight the complexity of rugby league competition, with several match related factors
405 informing and comprising a player's global subjective task load.

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409

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533 **Table legends**

534 **Table 1.** Technical performance analysis, contextual and movement demand covariates
535 included in the models.

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537 **Table 2.** Descriptive technical performance analysis, time played, number of interchanges and
538 movement demand match data for each positional group and match average (Mean \pm SD).

539

540 **Figure legends**

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542 **Figure 1.** NASA- Task Load Index rating and weighted rating of the six subscales. Mean (black
543 line) with individual plots (grey circles).

544

545 **Figure 2.** Standardised effects (effect size correlation; η^2 , \pm 90% confidence intervals) of
546 individual, contextual, internal and external load measures on the six subscales of the NASA-
547 TLX (weighted rating). *=*possibly*, **=*likely*, ***=*very likely*, ****=*most likely*. MD= mental
548 demand, PD= physical demand, TD= temporal demand, P= performance, E= effort, F=
549 frustration. HMP= high metabolic power (s). HUF= hit-up forwards. OB= outside backs.

550

551 **Figure 3.** Standardised effects (effect size correlation; η^2 , \pm 90% confidence intervals) of
552 individual, contextual, internal and external load measures on; A=total task load (NASA-TLX),
553 B=session RPE. *=*possibly*, **=*likely*, ***=*very likely*, ****=*most likely*.

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568 **Table 1.** Technical performance analysis, contextual and movement demand covariates
 569 included in the final models.

Level of data	Variable	Data	Classification
Level 2 (<i>random factor</i>)	Player		
Level 1 (<i>dependant variables</i>)	<i>NASA – Subjective Task Load Index</i>		
	Total	Continuous	
	Mental Demand	Continuous	
	Physical Demand	Continuous	
	Temporal Demand	Continuous	
	Performance	Continuous	
	Effort	Continuous	
	Frustration	Continuous	
	sRPE	Continuous	
Covariates (<i>fixed factors</i>)	Tackles	Continuous	Number
	Carries	Continuous	Number
	Errors	Continuous	Number
	Position	Dummy	OB [0], A [1], HUF [2]
	Opposition quality	Dummy	High [0], low [1]
	Season phase	Dummy	Early [0], mid [1], late [2]
	Match location	Dummy	Home [0], away [1]
	Match Outcome	Dummy	Win [0], loss [1]
	sRPE	Continuous	AU
	Total time	Continuous	Time (min)
	Interchanges	Continuous	Number
	Distance per min	Continuous	m min ⁻¹
	Accelerations	Continuous	Number
	Decelerations	Continuous	Number
	Sprints	Continuous	Number
	Sprint distance	Continuous	Distance (m)
	High metabolic power	Continuous	Time (s)

570 sRPE = session rating of perceived exertion; OB= outside backs; A = adjustables; HUF = hit-
 571 up forwards.

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573 **Table 2.** Descriptive technical performance analysis, time played, number of interchanges and
 574 movement demand match data for each positional group and match average (Mean \pm SD).

	Adjustables (<i>n</i> = 127)	Outside backs (<i>n</i> = 130)	Hit-up forwards (<i>n</i> = 184)	Match (<i>n</i> = 441)
<i>Technical demands</i>				
Passes (<i>n</i>)	40 \pm 37	5 \pm 5	3 \pm 4	14 \pm 26
Tackles (<i>n</i>)	26 \pm 14	9 \pm 7	25 \pm 8	21 \pm 13
Carries (<i>n</i>)	7 \pm 4	13 \pm 4	12 \pm 5	11 \pm 5
Errors (<i>n</i>)	1 \pm 1	1 \pm 1	1 \pm 1	1 \pm 1
Penalties (<i>n</i>)	1 \pm 1	0 \pm 1	1 \pm 1	1 \pm 1
<i>Movement demands</i>				
Time played (min)	73 \pm 24	91 \pm 8	54 \pm 19	70 \pm 24
Interchanges (<i>n</i>)	1 \pm 1	0 \pm 0	2 \pm 1	1 \pm 1
Distance (m)	6735 \pm 2214	7792 \pm 919	4707 \pm 1597	6184 \pm 2116
Distance (m·min ⁻¹)	91 \pm 5	85 \pm 6	86 \pm 5	87 \pm 6
Accelerations (<i>n</i>)	520 \pm 185	551 \pm 71	362 \pm 117	462 \pm 156
Decelerations (<i>n</i>)	503 \pm 179	513 \pm 70	349 \pm 109	441 \pm 147
Sprints (<i>n</i>)	13 \pm 6	25 \pm 6	11 \pm 7	16 \pm 9
Sprint distance (m)	238 \pm 117	482 \pm 135	195 \pm 132	291 \pm 178
High metabolic power (s)	480 \pm 180	480 \pm 60	300 \pm 120	420 \pm 120

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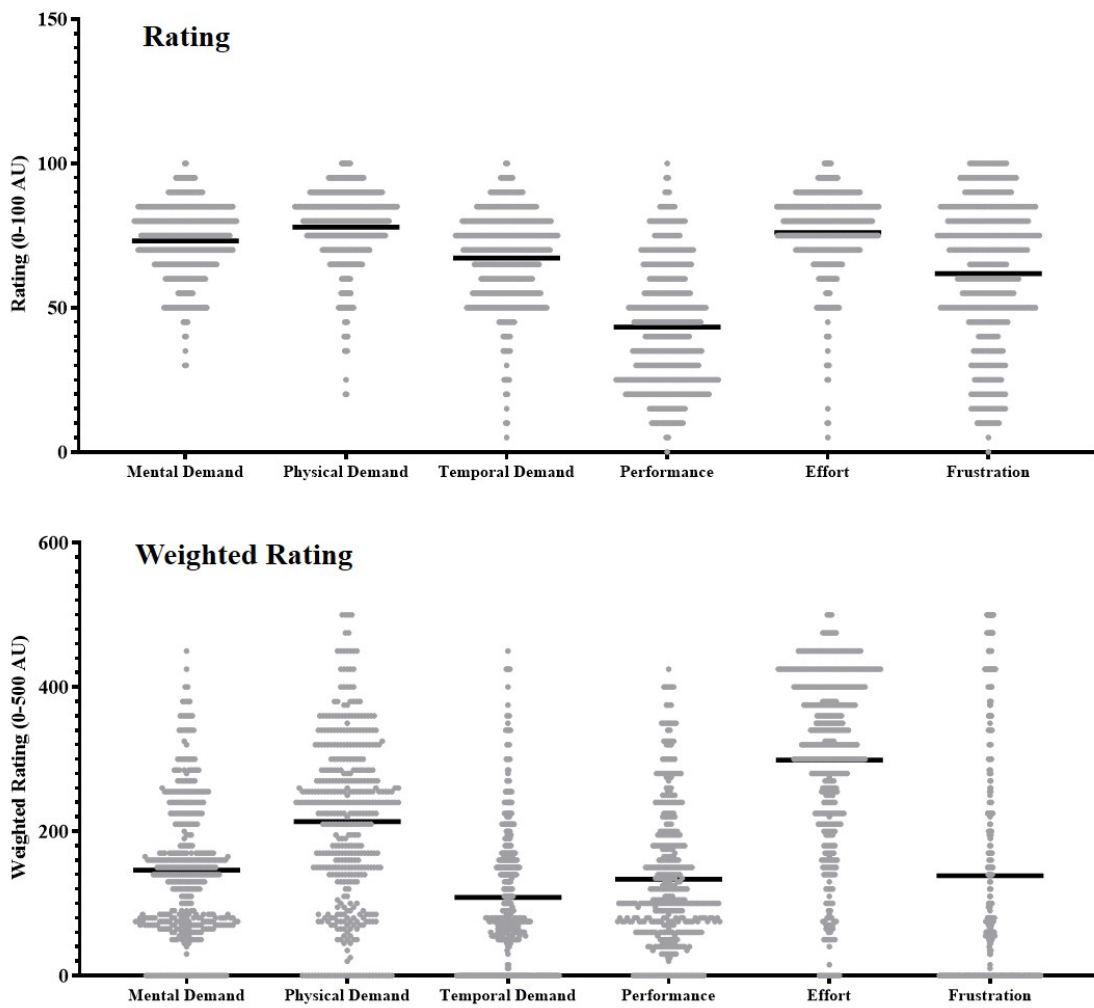


Figure 1.

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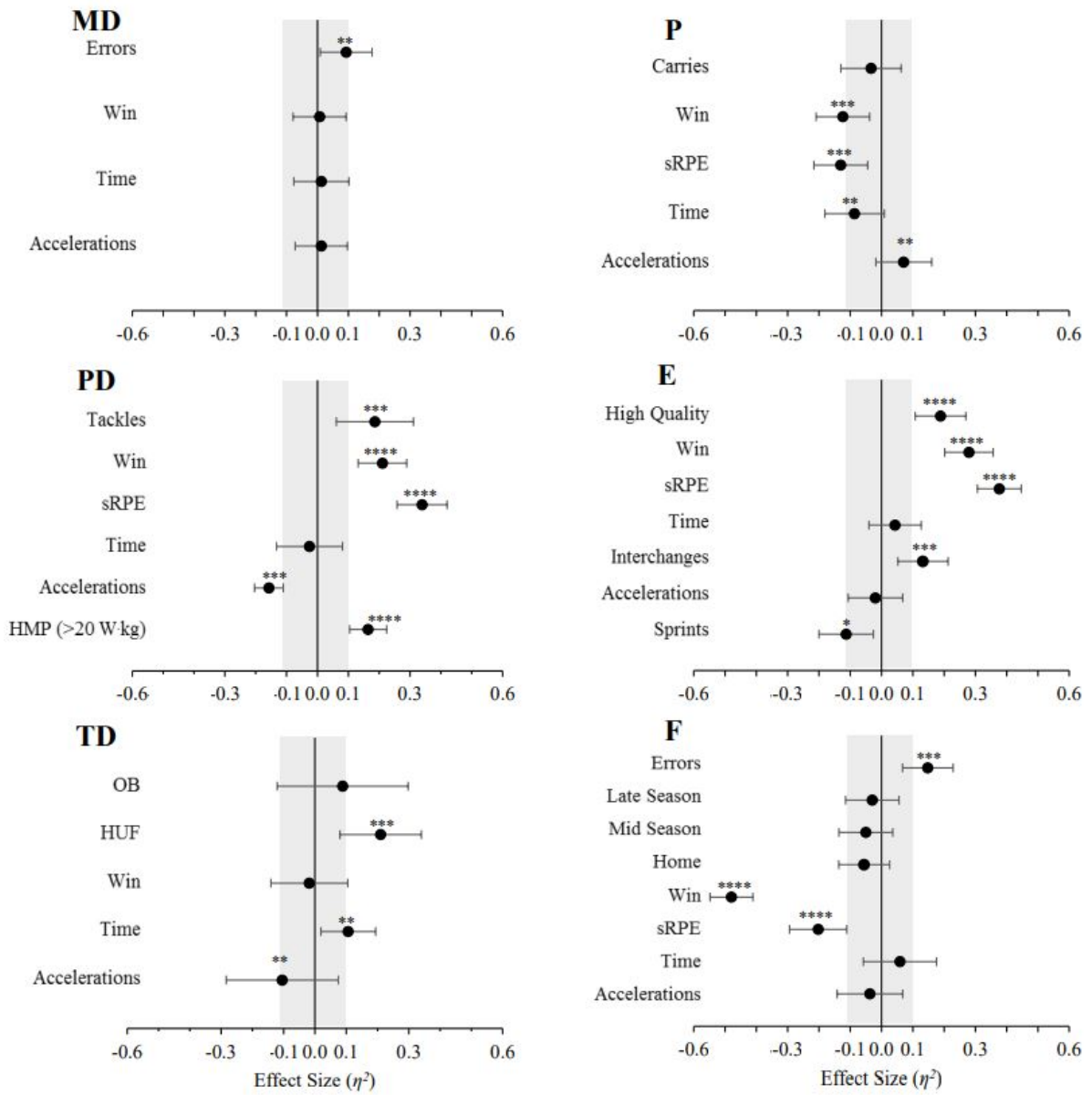
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592 Figure 2.

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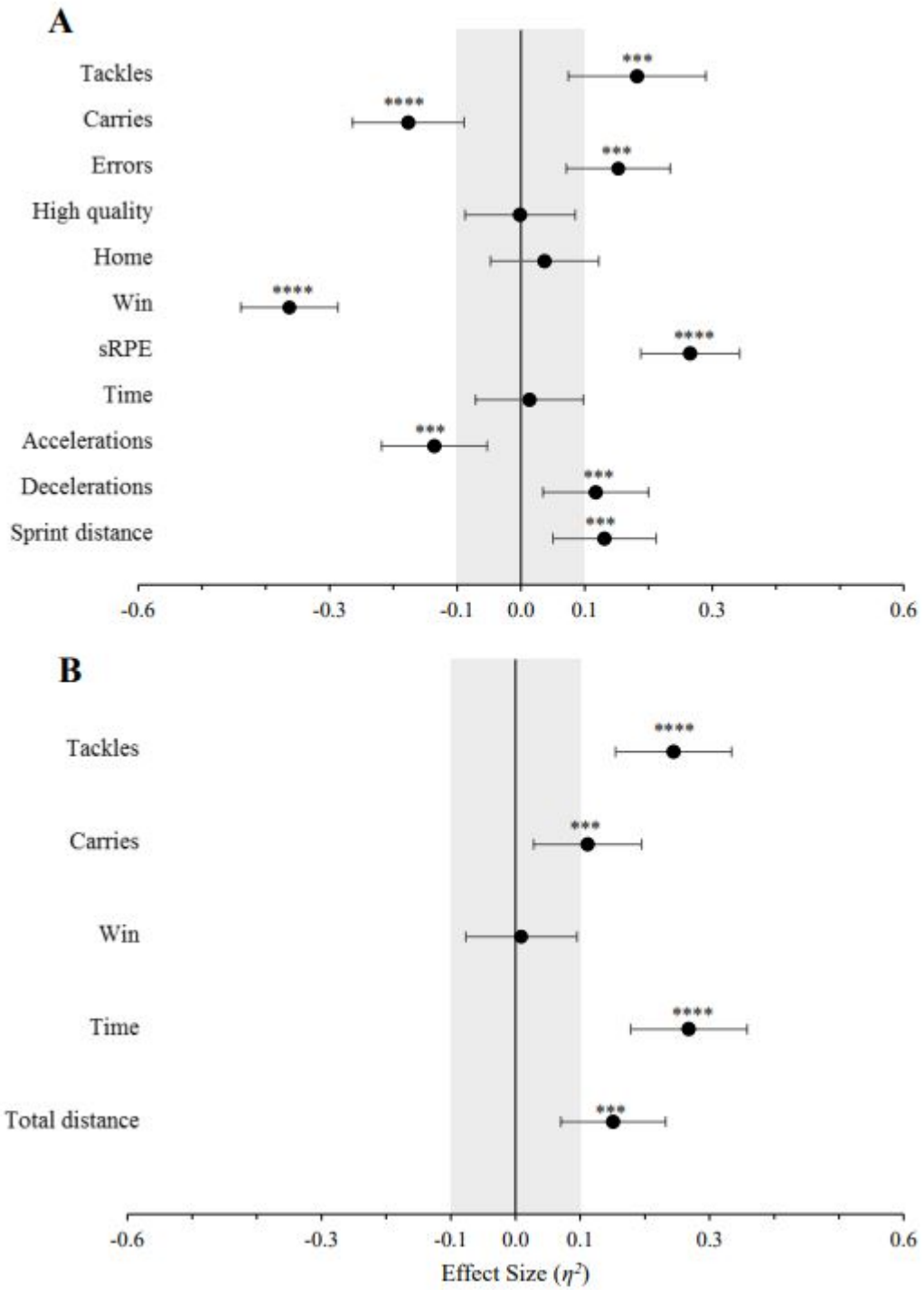
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Figure 3.