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## 32 Abstract

33 Purpose: The aim of the study was to identify the association between several contextual match factors, technical performance and external movement demands on the subjective task 34 load of elite rugby league players. Methods: Individual subjective task load, quantified using 35 the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Task Load Index (NASA-TLX), was 36 collected from 29 professional rugby league players from one club competing in the European 37 Super League throughout the 2017 season. The sample consisted of 26 matches, culminating 38 in 441 individual data points. Linear mixed-modelling was adopted to analyze the data for 39 relationships and revealed that various combinations of contextual factors, technical 40 performance and movement demands were associated with subjective task load. Results: 41 Greater number of tackles (effect size correlation  $\pm$  90% CI;  $\eta^2 = 0.18 \pm 0.11$ ), errors ( $\eta^2 = 0.15$ 42  $\pm 0.08$ ) decelerations ( $\eta^2 = 0.12 \pm 0.08$ ), increased sprint distance ( $\eta^2 = 0.13 \pm 0.08$ ), losing 43 matches ( $\eta^2 = 0.36 \pm 0.08$ ) and increased perception of effort ( $\eta^2 = 0.27 \pm 0.08$ ) led to most likely 44 - very likely increases in subjective total task load. The independent variables included in the 45 final model for subjective mental demand (match outcome, time played and number of 46 accelerations) were *unclear*, excluding a *likely small* correlation with the number of technical 47 48 errors ( $\eta^2 = 0.10 \pm 0.08$ ). Conclusions: These data provide a greater understanding of the subjective task load and their association with several contextual factors, technical performance 49 and external movement demands during rugby league competition. Practitioners could use this 50 51 detailed quantification of internal loads to inform the prescription of recovery sessions and current training practices. 52 53 **Keywords:** team sport, match demands, mental demand, load, NASA-TLX. 54

## 71 Introduction

Rugby league match demands have been well reported due to advances in technology and a 72 growing interest in monitoring the 'load' that an athlete undergoes during training<sup>1</sup>, match-73 play<sup>2,3</sup>, or both<sup>4</sup>. While much of the research and current applied practice in rugby league 74 measures external loads derived from micro-technology (GPS and accelerometers etc<sup>2,5,6</sup>), 75 these measures simply describe the activity that a player has completed and might not 76 accurately reflect the physiological or perceptual demands imposed on the individual <sup>7</sup>. Internal 77 loads are adopted as a method of quantifying the response (physiological and perceptual) to 78 these external loads, with session rating of perceived exertion (sRPE) traditionally used as a 79 valid, non-invasive and inexpensive measurement tool<sup>8</sup> to determine the perceived exercise 80 intensity associated with rugby league training<sup>1</sup> and match-play<sup>2,5,9</sup>. 81

The widespread quantification of exercise intensity using sRPE combined with exercise 82 duration (i.e. sRPE-TL), is considered a global measure of internal load<sup>1,2</sup>. Differential RPE 83 (dRPE) has also been proposed to discriminate between the internal loads (perceived 84 breathlessness, leg and upper-body muscle exertion and cognitive demands) associated with 85 various rugby training practices (e.g. repeated high intensity efforts and skills training)<sup>10</sup>. 86 However, these global measures might oversimplify the multifactorial psychophysiological 87 construct of match-play<sup>11</sup>, whereby the reductionist method of gaining one (*s*RPE) or several 88 (dRPE) ratings of internal load might lack the sensitivity to measure unique loads associated 89 with rugby training and competition (e.g. collision)<sup>12</sup>. Other subjective measures exist, 90 including the NASA task load index (NASA-TLX)<sup>13</sup>, a multidimensional scale used to obtain 91 subjective workload estimates determined from six subscales (mental demand, physical 92 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 demands during aviation, the NASA-TLX has since been used in other non-aviation 95 disciplines, including endurance performance, to discriminate tasks with varying mental (e.g. 96 mental fatigue) and physical demands (e.g. 5 km running)<sup>14</sup>. To date, the NASA-TLX has not 97 been used to quantify the subjective task load during team sport performance. The reliability 98 and validity of the NASA-TLX is reported to be adequate to detect meaningful changes in 99 subjective task load across various industries including aviation, medical and military tasks<sup>15</sup>. 100

Numerous factors contribute to the task load (i.e. the cost of performing a task on the 101 individual<sup>13</sup>) experienced by players during team sport competition. Indeed, the dynamic 102 psychophysiological demands experienced by players are constructed from the task demands 103 (e.g. external demands of match-play), the contextual factors under which the task is performed 104 (e.g. playing home or away), and the skills, behaviour and perceptions of that individual<sup>16</sup>. The 105 technical and physical demands of rugby league competition are often considered 'important' 106 if they differentiate successful and less successful teams (i.e. match outcome and playing 107 standard)<sup>17,18</sup>, and it is plausible that these important task demands likely impact the mental 108 and physical cost (i.e. task load) experienced by players. Given that the NASA-TLX can 109 differentiate several sources of task load (e.g. mental and physical demands), the extent to 110 which these task loads are related to the task demands (e.g. technical and movement demands) 111 is worth exploring. Although external demands of match-play are well documented and the 112 113 effects of several contextual factors on movement demands have been explored (e.g. opposition quality alters the amount of high speed running)<sup>19</sup>, to the authors' knowledge no study has 114 described the effect contextual factors might have on a player's subjective task load during 115 team sport match-play. This is particularly important given that contextual factors likely alter 116 the experienced cognitive and physical demands experienced by players, that might well impact 117 player fatigue<sup>20</sup>. Such information on the subjective task load of matches (i.e. how the loads 118

experienced are perceived by the individual) would therefore be useful when prescribing training that acts to simulate not only movement and physiological demands, but also to elicit

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 factors, technical performance and movement demands on elite rugby league players' 128 subjective task load, quantified by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Task 129 Load Index (NASA-TLX)<sup>13</sup> and sRPE<sup>8</sup>. Subjective task load was collected from elite 130 professional rugby league players from one club competing in the European Super League 131 throughout the 2017 season (February – September). Data were collected during match-play 132 (GPS, performance analysis and contextual data) and during the subsequent 'recovery session' 133 the day after each match (subjective task load and perception of effort) at the same time of day 134 (9:00 - 11:00 am).135

136 Participants and Contextual Data

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

- 160 *Procedures*
- 161 *Movement Demands*

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

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

# 175 *Technical Demands*

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

## 185 Subjective Task Load and Perceptual Measures

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

## 209 Statistical Analyses

210 211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224 225 226 227 228 229 230	Eight separate two-level linear mixed models were constructed to determine the influence of skill performance, contextual factors and movement demands performed during match-play on each dependant variable (each subscale of the NASA-TLX; weighted rating, total subjective task load and <i>s</i> RPE; Table 1). Individual players were included as random factors. When creating the model (Table 1) a "step-up" approach was employed starting with an "unconditional" null-model, whereby only the level two random factors (player) were included <sup>27</sup> . Subsequently, each level one fixed effect (covariate) was introduced to the model and retained if the model was significantly altered ( <i>P</i> <0.05) as determined by the maximum likelihood ratio and $\chi^2$ statistic. As the intercept, derived from the convergence of all random slopes (individual players), resulted in a height of <i>x</i> = 0, and none of the continuous fixed factors were measured at 0 (e.g. 0 m distance), the data was mean centred to shift the origin of the intercept. The <i>t</i> -statistic, from the final model, was converted to an effect size correlation ( $\eta^2$ ) with 90% confidence intervals (90% CI) <sup>28</sup> . To supplement the interpretation of the analysis, the likelihood of the observed effect was determined using a pre-designed spreadsheet <sup>29</sup> and considered according to the quantitative chances of a true effect with following qualitative descriptors; <i>almost certainly not</i> (<1%), <i>very unlikely</i> (1-5%), <i>unlikely</i> (>99%) <sup>30</sup> . Effect size correlations were interpreted as < 0.1, <i>trivial</i> ; 0.1-0.3, <i>small</i> ; 0.3-0.5, <i>moderate</i> ; 0.5-0.7, <i>large</i> ; 0.7-0.9, <i>very large</i> ; 0.90-0.99, <i>almost perfect</i> ; 1.0, <i>perfect</i> <sup>30</sup> . Statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS, version 24; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to construct the linear mixed models.
231	
232	***** Insert Table 1 about here *****
233 234 235	Results 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 *****
241 242 243 244 245 246 247	As shown in Figure 1, average data for the NASA-TLX revealed relatively greater weighted ratings for the subscales of effort and physical demand compared to mental demand, temporal demand, performance and frustration. ***** Insert Figure 1 about here ****
248	
249 250 251 252 253 254	All independent variables included in the final model for subjective mental demand (match outcome, time played and number of accelerations) had an <i>unclear</i> relationship, excluding a <i>likely small</i> correlation with the number of errors ( $\eta^2 = 0.10 \pm 0.08$ ; Figure 2). Defensive tackling efforts ( $\eta^2 = 0.19 \pm 0.12$ ) resulted in <i>very likely small</i> increases in subjective physical demand (Figure 2). <i>Most likely small</i> increases were also observed in subjective physical demand after matches that were won ( $\eta^2 = 0.21 \pm 0.08$ ), with increased <i>s</i> RPE ( $\eta^2 = 0.34 \pm 0.08$ ) and with greater

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

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

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281 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 2 about here \*\*\*\*\*
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284
285 \*\*\*\*\* Insert Figure 3 about here \*\*\*\*\*
286

#### 287 Discussion

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

a match within a shorter period of time ( $\sim$ 50 min) than whole match players ( $\sim$ 80 min)<sup>31</sup>, culminating with an increased time pressure and perceived temporal demand. These data provide a greater understanding of the overall external loads and internal responses of rugby league match-play, beyond reporting the external loads (GPS) and a global measure of internal load (*s*RPE-TL).

The mental demand associated with rugby league competition has not been explored before. In 304 this study, no meaningful associations were observed between the reported match variables 305 (i.e. contextual, technical performance and movement demands) and subjective mental 306 demand, excluding a likely small increase in mental demand when players made more errors 307 (Figure 2). These findings are in contrast to Mashiko and colleagues  $3^{32}$ , whereby altered mental 308 loads and associated mental fatigue measured using profile of mood state were speculatively 309 attributed to changes in position-specific activity profiles during rugby union match-play, 310 despite not measuring the movement or technical demands. Whilst the number of errors made 311 during matches have been established as important determinants of team success and match 312 outcome (e.g. more successful teams commit fewer errors)<sup>33</sup>, it is unlikely that committing 313 technical errors will exclusively increase perceived mental demand. Rather, the situation 314 whereby 'errors' occur will likely inform a player's perception of mental demand. More 315 specifically, errors are likely to occur towards the latter stages of a match and after a peak 5 316 min period<sup>34</sup>, meaning that skilled actions in association with fatigue might increase the mental 317 demands on a player. Alternatively, given that correlations cannot establish causality, it is 318 possible that a greater mental demand in a match results in more errors. This is in agreement 319 with studies reporting that mentally demanding tasks before<sup>35</sup> and during<sup>36</sup> exercise can 320 increase the number of errors during laboratory-based (concomitant exercise and computer 321 based vigilance task)<sup>36</sup> and field-based accuracy tasks (sport-specific skill assessment, 322 LSPT)35. 323

Subjective ratings were similar between subscales of the NASA-TLX (62 - 78 AU), excluding 324 ratings of performance (~40 AU). However, when these ratings were multiplied by the 325 weighted score (i.e. weighted rating), effort, physical demand and mental demand were 326 increased relative to performance, temporal demand and frustration. Subjective physical 327 demand was associated with several contextual (match outcome), perceptual (sRPE) and 328 external load measures (tackles, accelerations and time spent at high metabolic power) during 329 match-play. Previously, the physical demands associated with rugby training and matches have 330 been reported using internal (i.e. sRPE and dRPE) and external (i.e. GPS and accelerometer) 331 load measures<sup>10,31</sup>. In the current study, completing more tackles was associated with an 332 increased subjective physical demand and overall task load (very likely small). This reaffirms 333 previous work describing the importance of the tackle within actual<sup>37</sup> and simulated<sup>38-40</sup> rugby 334 league match play. Specifically, previous research demonstrates that collisions will impact a 335 player's internal loads (perception of effort), external loads (sprint performance) and the fatigue 336 response (jump performance) to exercise $^{37-40}$ . Despite not quantifying the intensity or type of 337 tackle, our data suggests that the number of tackle involvements defined simply as a "player 338 attempting to halt the progress or dispossess an opponent in possession of the ball" (Opta 339 340 Sportsdata) will likely impact the overall task load perceived by the player.

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

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

## **365 Practical Applications**

These data reaffirm that varying combinations of match characteristics interact to inform an 366 individual's internal load associated with rugby league competition<sup>12</sup>. Indeed, this detailed 367 quantification of internal loads might enable practitioners to better understand the internal load 368 responses of their players, which could inform the prescription of recovery sessions and current 369 training practices. Given that training should prepare players for the specific demands of match 370 performance, these data could benefit coaches and practitioners when developing training 371 practices by replicating not only the external (physical demands) and internal loads 372 (physiological and perceptual) of rugby league matches, but also how these factors interact to 373 inform subjective task load. Training sessions could include combinations of technical 374 performance or movement variables to elicit specific subjective task loads. For example, based 375 on the findings of the current study, practitioners might manipulate the subjective physical 376 demands imposed on players by including varying number of tackles and time spent at high 377 metabolic power during training practices. Coaches might also consider imitating collisions, 378 ball carries and opportunities for players to make errors to better replicate match-play, given 379 their association with overall task load and subjective mental demand (i.e. errors) in the current 380 study. While these data offer insight to the contributors to total task load that might be used to 381 design appropriate training practices, it is unknown whether these findings would elicit similar 382 internal responses during training compared to match-play. For example, contextual factors 383 such as match outcome and opposition quality would be difficult to replicate. Future research 384 should consider quantifying the subjective task loads associated with current training practices. 385

In the current study, the NASA-TLX were conveniently reported during the recovery session 386 387 after match-play and took players <5 min to complete (non-digital version), highlighting the ease of its application. However, the effect of time between matches and reporting NASA-TLX 388 is currently unknown and could be considered a limitation of this investigation. Another 389 limitation of the current study is that the method of reporting accelerations (number of 390 391 accelerations  $>3ms^2$ ) will likely exclude those acceleration efforts that are performed at lower velocities (e.g. wrestling). Indeed, future studies might wish to explore the subjective task loads 392 of rugby league training and competition using more contemporary external load metrics to 393 quantify accelerations. 394

# 395 **Conclusions**

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

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409

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533 Table legends

Table 1. Technical performance analysis, contextual and movement demand covariatesincluded in the models.

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

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

Figure 2. Standardised effects (effect size correlation;  $\eta^2$ ,  $\pm$  90% confidence intervals) of individual, contextual, internal and external load measures on the six subscales of the NASA-TLX (weighted rating). \*=possibly, \*\*=likely, \*\*\*=very likely, \*\*\*=most likely. MD= mental demand, PD= physical demand, TD= temporal demand, P= performance, E= effort, F= frustration. HMP= high metabolic power (s). HUF= hit-up forwards. OB= outside backs. Figure 3. Standardised effects (effect size correlation;  $\eta^2$ ,  $\pm$  90% confidence intervals) of individual, contextual, internal and external load measures on; A=total task load (NASA-TLX), B=session RPE. \*=possibly, \*\*=likely, \*\*\*=very likely, \*\*\*\*=most likely. 

Level of data	Variable	Data	Classification
Level 2 (random factor)	Player		
Level 1			
(dependant variables)	NASA – Subjective Task I		
	Total	Continuous	
	Mental Demand	Continuous	
	Physical Demand	Continuous	
	Temporal Demand	Continuous	
	Performance	Continuous	
	Effort	Continuous	
	Frustration	Continuous	
	<i>s</i> RPE	Continuous	
Covariates			
(fixed factors)	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 <sup>·</sup> min <sup>-1</sup>
	Accelerations	Continuous	Number
	Decelerations	Continuous	Number
	Sprints	Continuous	Number
	Sprint distance	Continuous	Distance (m)
	High metabolic power	Continuous	Time (s)

Table 1. Technical performance analysis, contextual and movement demand covariatesincluded in the final models.

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

**Table 2.** Descriptive technical performance analysis, time played, number of interchanges and574movement demand match data for each positional group and match average (Mean  $\pm$  SD).

	Adjustables	Outside backs	Hit-up forwards	Match
	(n = 127)	( <i>n</i> = 130)	(n = 184)	( <i>n</i> = 441)
Technical demands				
Passes (n)	$40\pm37$	$5\pm5$	$3\pm4$	$14 \pm 26$
Tackles ( <i>n</i> )	$26\pm14$	$9\pm7$	$25\pm8$	$21 \pm 13$
Carries ( <i>n</i> )	$7\pm4$	$13 \pm 4$	$12 \pm 5$	$11 \pm 5$
Errors ( <i>n</i> )	$1 \pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$
Penalties $(n)$	$1 \pm 1$	$0\pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$
Movement demands				
Time played (min)	$73\pm24$	$91\pm 8$	$54 \pm 19$	$70\pm24$
Interchanges ( <i>n</i> )	$1 \pm 1$	$0\pm 0$	$2 \pm 1$	$1 \pm 1$
Distance (m)	$6735\pm2214$	$7792\pm919$	$4707 \pm 1597$	$6184\pm2116$
Distance (m <sup>-1</sup> )	$91\pm5$	$85 \pm 6$	$86 \pm 5$	$87 \pm 6$
Accelerations ( <i>n</i> )	$520\pm185$	$551 \pm 71$	$362\pm117$	$462 \pm 156$
Decelerations $(n)$	$503\pm179$	$513 \pm 70$	$349\pm109$	$441\pm147$
Sprints ( <i>n</i> )	$13 \pm 6$	$25\pm 6$	$11 \pm 7$	$16 \pm 9$
Sprint distance (m)	$238\pm117$	$482\pm135$	$195\pm132$	$291\pm178$
High metabolic power (s)	$480\pm180$	$480 \pm 60$	$300 \pm 120$	$420\pm120$







Figure 3.