



Quantifying High-Speed Running in Rugby League: Are Current Methods Appropriate?

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Narrative Review: Quantifying High-Speed Running in Rugby League

Quantifying High-Speed Running in Rugby League: Are Current Methods Appropriate?

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Abstract:

High-speed running (HSR) has been documented within rugby league to differentiate playing standard, position and often precedes pivotal match events. Practitioners and researchers place importance on HSR due to its inclusion in assessing the demands of training and match-play to help prescribe accurate training loads and recovery methods. High-speed running can be quantified in absolute terms whereby the same threshold speed is applied to all players (e.g., $5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). However, within rugby league, differences in tactical demand, anthropometric and physical fitness characteristics exist between the 'backs' and 'forwards' playing positions, suggesting that the absolute approach to quantifying HSR may not be appropriate due to under and over estimations of HSR data. Alternatively, practitioners may choose to quantify HSR by individualising the threshold speed to individual players physical fitness characteristics such as peak sprint speed, maximal aerobic speed (MAS) or the speed at which the anaerobic threshold occurs. Individualising HSR warrants the practitioner to select a valid and practical test to quantify the HSR threshold speed. However, it is suggested that using peak sprint speed to quantify HSR can produce erroneous interpretation of HSR data whilst the practicality of specific physiological derived thresholds can be questioned. Implementing MAS to quantify HSR using a set time/distance trial may be the most appropriate approach for rugby league practitioners.

Key Words: Global Positioning Systems, Individualised, Maximal Aerobic Speed, Metabolic Power

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1. Introduction

Rugby league is a collision-based team sport involving intermittent bouts of high intensity activities such as collisions, accelerations and high-speed running (HSR) ¹. Micro-electromechanical systems (MEMS) encompassing gyroscopes, accelerometers, magnetometers and global position systems (GPS) ² have been used to monitor match and training physical activity metrics, such as HSR which often characterises the positional demands of the ‘forwards’ and ‘backs’ within rugby league^{3,4}. Forwards tend to be in proximity to the centre of play, running short distances at high-speed and are involved in tasks such as tackling and carrying, whereas backs are often positioned in greater space and cover greater distances at high-speed due to kick return and kick chase activities⁵. Given the importance placed on HSR running metrics within rugby league, practitioners (e.g. technical/physical coaches and scientific support staff) often prescribe HSR in training^{6,7}, whilst attempting to minimise the risk of injury occurrence ⁸⁻¹⁰. The measurement of HSR has become an important metric which can distinguish differences between playing standards and positions, as well as it often preceding pivotal match events (e.g., try scoring) ^{11,12}. The HSR accumulated by players during match-play tends to be higher for ‘backs’ (481m ± 262m) than ‘forwards’ (307m ± 194m)¹³, due to ‘backs’ having greater space to accelerate into (>21m) and ‘forwards’ being involved in acceleration-based contacts over shorter distances (6-10m)^{11,14}.

However, the thresholds utilised to characterise HSR tend to be arbitrary and do not account for the very specific anthropometric and physical fitness attributes of the two distinct playing positions¹¹. Regardless of playing position, absolute thresholds in rugby league are based on one given speed (e.g. 5.0m·s⁻¹ for HSR) which is applied to all players ¹⁵. Differences in anthropometric characteristics can characterise different playing positions such as ‘backs’ and ‘forwards’ ¹⁶, with such discrete differences resulting in differences in tactical roles between these positions¹¹. These differences represent ‘forwards’ having generally heavier body mass than the ‘backs’ playing group (‘forwards’: 83.7 to 102.2kg; ‘backs’: 81.1 to 91.2kg) ¹⁷. Physical fitness characteristics establish ‘backs’ have a faster 40m sprint time than ‘forwards’ (5.08s v 5.27s) with ‘backs’ also covering greater distance during a 5-minute time trial to determine maximal aerobic fitness (1318.5m v 1263.8m)¹⁶. This likely implies it is more achievable for ‘backs’ to reach an arbitrary threshold in comparison to the ‘forwards’,

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89 resulting in ‘backs’ accumulating greater HSR distances and subsequently inhibiting accurate training
90 and recovery prescription^{11, 18}.

91 Individualised thresholds provide each player with a speed zone (see Appendix 1) often
92 anchored to a physiological ‘landmark’ which may enhance the prescription of training loads and
93 recovery methods on an individual basis^{11, 18}. Previous studies have implemented approaches including
94 the ventilatory threshold^{18, 19}, velocity at maximal oxygen consumption ($\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$) and maximal aerobic
95 speed (MAS)^{2, 18, 20}. Physical characteristics such as peak sprint speed have also been implemented^{21, 22}.
96 Consequently, given the anthropometrical and physical playing positional differences between rugby
97 league players^{16, 17, 21}, different HSR threshold approaches exist amongst team sports, questioning
98 which one would be most appropriate for professional rugby league. Therefore, the purpose of this
99 review is two-fold: 1) To consider the current approaches and associated methods that exist in
100 determining HSR thresholds and 2) evaluate their appropriateness for their application within
101 professional rugby league to quantify key match-play running activities.

102 103 **2. Absolute Thresholds**

104 Absolute running threshold approaches enable practitioners to examine the locomotor profiles
105 of player activity based on speed classification zones such as jogging ($1.6 - 2.7\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), cruising ($2.7 -$
106 $3.8\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), striding ($3.8 - 5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), high-intensity running (HIR) ($5.0 - 5.5\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and sprinting ($>5.5\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
107 ^{5, 24, 25}. Practitioners may apply this approach to compare between-player and playing position physical
108 outputs during training and match-play^{7, 26}. However, despite its popularity amongst rugby league
109 researchers (see Table 1.), variation in the absolute HSR threshold speed exists, with speeds ranging
110 from $3.7\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ to $5.7\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ^{4, 8, 27-33}. That said, these variations stem from modifications from original
111 work conducted by Sirotic et al³⁴ who combined video analysis and computer-based tracking systems
112 to analyse physical match-play activities within rugby league. However, McLellan et al²⁵ implemented
113 MEMS devices within rugby league to quantify the absolute running speed zones by modifying previous
114 zones generated for use within rugby union match-play³⁵. These zones proceeded to quantify the HSR
115 threshold as $5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, which has advanced to become the most applied speed within rugby league
116 research^{3-5, 9, 10, 13, 24, 25, 30, 36-49}. Moreover, $5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ may exceed individualised HSR threshold speeds,

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117 suggesting that $5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ may physiologically underestimate HSR distance for all playing positions.
118 Consequently, this likely infers that absolute thresholds within rugby league research are inconsistent⁵⁰.
119 Currently, it is unknown which absolute HSR threshold is favoured amongst practitioners, with GPS
120 manufacturer's default thresholds being an option for practitioners or alternatively applying an absolute
121 threshold reported in published research.

122 Despite the broad utilisation of HSR thresholds amongst rugby league practitioners and
123 researchers, the large between playing position differences ('forwards': 83.7 to 102.2kg; 'backs': 81.1
124 to 91.2 kg)¹⁷ in body-mass likely contribute to the interpretation and practical usability of the data
125 collected. For instance, an absolute threshold ($5.0\text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) being applied for players at either end of the
126 this body-mass continuum could be suggested as inappropriate, with heavier players having reduced
127 ability to achieve the set speed and lighter players having increased ability to do so¹¹. Anecdotal
128 evidence suggests that if prescribed HSR loads are not achieved within training, heavier players (likely
129 'forwards') may be prescribed 'top up sessions' to achieve the desired training stimulus, therefore
130 unachievable thresholds may inhibit the effectiveness of recovery and athletic development strategies.
131 However, further research is required to formalise such theory.

132 In rugby league, it is likely that a heavier player may have a lower peak speed, whereas a lighter
133 player may have a higher peak speed¹⁴. Hypothetically, applying an absolute running speed threshold
134 of $5.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ could result in a 'forward' (likely heavier) needing to achieve 75% of their peak speed to
135 register HSR and a 'back' (lighter) only needing to achieve 55%. Therefore, it could be suggested that
136 the application of an absolute high-speed threshold can actually underestimate HSR for players with
137 lower peak speeds and overestimate HSR for players with higher peak speeds¹¹. Subsequent
138 misinterpretation may lead to incorrect training load and recovery prescription, potentially resulting in
139 an elevated risk of injury^{10,40}. Nonetheless, practitioners can implement an absolute threshold if their
140 players speeds, and/or fitness levels are more uniformed whereby the absolute HSR threshold applied
141 represents the included players MAS⁵¹, therefore demonstrating a greater relative contribution will
142 have been interpreted. Given the aforementioned considerations, it could be recommended that the
143 application of an absolute threshold may not be the most appropriate method for measuring HSR within
144 rugby league (see included schematic).

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***** Table 1 about here *****

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148 3. Individualised Thresholds

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169 3.1 .Peak Sprint Speed Derived Thresholds

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The integration of player characteristics to individualise HSR formalises an individual specific locomotor profile ². Applying an individualised threshold may provide alternative analysis of a players running performance, as it identifies the speed at which individual players begin to run at ‘high-speed’, particularly when its determined based on individual physical fitness characteristics (e.g. % of peak sprint speed) ²¹ (see Appendix 1). Additionally, a perhaps superior evaluation of external load is generated which likely enables practitioners to prescribe individual training loads and recovery methods,^{11, 52, 53}, whilst enhancing the maintenance of player fitness and minimising the risk of injury and illness occurrence ²⁰. Individualised speed threshold approaches are often anchored to player speed and fitness properties, whereby a theoretical framework is utilized to better evaluate training and game demands, in an attempt to maximise player fitness ². For instance, the highly variable reported range of absolute speeds to determine HSR, may in fact include the relative speeds at which physiological transitions occur when reaching aerobic and anaerobic thresholds, which can distinguish the difference between different locomotor categories ¹¹. Although individualised approaches exist amongst rugby league literature (see Table 2.), their popularity amongst rugby league practitioners is unknown. Nonetheless, given the obvious between playing position differences in anthropometric and physical fitness characteristics, it could be inferred that application of individualised approaches to HSR, (such as peak sprint speed, MAS or implementing a method to determine the speed at the anaerobic threshold) is of practical relevance and importance to rugby league practitioners in order to enhance training prescription, load management and recovery strategies (see included schematic).

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3 173 a more justified approach due to increasing the HSR attributed to slower players and reducing the HSR
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5 174 attributed to faster players^{15, 22}. To apply the percentage, practitioners would likely instruct players to
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7 175 perform a linear peak sprint speed test, often using a timed maximal sprint assessment over a distance
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9 176 of 30-40 m using either a dual beam timing gates ^{21, 22} or radar gun⁵⁴. However, during rugby league
10
11 177 match-play only 17% of the total sprints are between 30m and 40m with the most common between 6m
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13 178 and 20m¹⁴. Therefore, perhaps questioning the practical relevance of using speeds achieved at distances
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15 179 greater than 20m to individualise HSR.

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18 180 Peak sprint speed could also be identified from GPS derived time-motion analysis data
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20 181 collected during training and matches ^{15, 52}. However, these speeds tend to be lower than those derived
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22 182 from digital timing gates (GPS: 7.7 m·s⁻¹, 40 m Sprint using Timing Gates: 9.1 m·s⁻¹) ¹⁴ due to peak
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24 183 sprint speed during match-play being determined by tactical and positional demands ⁵². Implementing
25
26 184 10 HZ GPS to assess peak speed during a 40 m sprint has been validated within rugby union, whereby
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28 185 practitioners use the same GPS unit and software for each player ⁵⁵ to capture players peak running
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30 186 speeds. Therefore, it may be more appropriate to determine peak speed using GPS during rugby specific
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32 187 speed training. Dempsey et al ²¹ examined differences in match demands between junior and senior
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34 188 international rugby league players using the individual peak sprint speed approach to HIR, with the
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36 189 threshold set at 65%. The findings reported ‘backs’ covered more distance at high-intensity than
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38 190 ‘forwards’ both at senior (358 ± 204 m v 253 ± 164 m) and junior level (279 ± 112.m v 246 m ±181
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40 191 m). This approach helped compare relative intensities and suggested that ‘backs’ accumulate greater
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42 192 HIR due to on-field position, with defences being less compact out wide, allowing ‘backs’ to achieve
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44 193 greater running speeds²¹. Similarly, Gabbett et al ²² also monitored junior rugby league players however,
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46 194 the HSR threshold was set at 50% of peak sprint speed ^{18, 23}. Players were grouped according to
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48 195 chronological playing age and standard, with mean threshold speeds increasing with advancing age and
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50 196 were greater within the age groups if playing standard was higher. However, it was speculated that two
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52 197 players could perform the same amount of absolute HSR but due to differences in peak sprint speed,
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54 198 the slower player accumulates greater relative stress, consequently inhibiting training prescription and
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56 199 recovery requirements of individual players. Implementing both absolute and relative terms may better
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200 examine the demands of competition²², although this could overcomplicate analysis and suggest to
201 proceed with just the one approach longitudinally.

202 In addition to rugby league, other team sports (e.g., soccer, hockey, Australian rules football,
203 rugby union) have implemented peak sprint speed to determine HSR^{15, 18, 23, 26, 52}. Hunter et al¹⁸ applied
204 50% of peak sprint speed to determine HSR during 22 academy soccer matches. This study suggested
205 using peak sprint speed would be inappropriate in both the applied and research settings due to
206 meaningful interpretation errors in HSR data. In addition, Scott and Lovell²³ also applied 50% of peak
207 sprint speed (range: 3.7 m·s⁻¹ – 4.7 m·s⁻¹) to examine if it enhanced the internal dose-response. Their
208 findings identified that the peak sprint speed approach had an impaired ability to determine the internal
209 dose response of the player and supported previous findings which result in interpretation errors due to
210 under and over-estimations of HSR^{18, 22}. However, Murray et al¹⁵ applied 55% of peak sprint speed (4.5
211 m·s⁻¹) within professional Australian rules football and reported slower players with higher relative
212 chronic high-speed running loads, resulted in a practically decreased likelihood of injury (93% likely)
213 when compared to lower chronic loads¹⁵. This may suggest that an individualised approach to threshold
214 prescription may have a protective effect for injury occurring and support studies^{11, 18, 20, 26, 52}, suggesting
215 that practitioners should consider the running demands of each individual player. Consequently,
216 differences in the threshold percentage exist amongst studies, suggesting the application of this
217 individualised speed threshold approach to be questionable.

218 For example, applying a 65% threshold, player A is a 'back' with a peak speed of 9.5 m·s⁻¹ and
219 a HSR threshold of 6.2 m·s⁻¹, whereas player B is a 'forward' with a peak speed of 8.4m·s⁻¹ and a HSR
220 threshold of 5.5m·s⁻¹ (Figure 1). However, players B's fitness level is considerably more efficient than
221 player A which is demonstrated by the greater intermittent fitness test score in Figure 1, allowing player
222 B to enter their HSR zone more frequently and aiding in an accelerated recovery process¹⁸. Moreover,
223 it could be proposed that two players have the same peak sprint speeds and therefore the same threshold
224 speeds, but a difference in aerobic fitness⁵⁶ can result in contrasting performances. This suggests the
225 fitter player has an increased running economy enabling them to recover more quickly between bouts
226 and accumulate greater HSR distance⁵⁷. These considerations compel individualising HSR using this

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227 approach more complex, especially if variations in fitness levels are apparent amongst rugby league
228 players.

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230 ***** **Figure 1 about here** *****

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232 *3.2. Physiological Derived Thresholds*

233 Practitioners may consider fitness-based approaches to quantify HSR with them stemming from
234 sound physiological rationale. These approaches apply the individual speed which materialised at the
235 same time point in which a subsequent physiological transition occurred¹⁸ (see Appendix 1).
236 Implementing a fitness-based approach to determine HSR may not only provide an individualised
237 approach to training prescription and match analysis, but could potentially give the practitioner an
238 insight into distance and time spent above a physiological threshold²⁰. Therefore, it is important for
239 practitioners to consider which is the most appropriate approach to take to ensure the chosen
240 physiological test is suitable and can be practically scheduled within a professional rugby league
241 training timetable² (see included schematic).

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243 *3.3. Laboratory Based Anaerobic Threshold*

244 A potential approach to identify accurate running speed thresholds is for rugby league
245 practitioners to base HSR thresholds on objective physiological measures which represent the transition
246 in intensity domains such as the 2nd ventilatory threshold (VT²)^{18,19}. This threshold is identified as the
247 speed which corresponds to the inflection in the ventilatory equivalents for both oxygen and carbon
248 dioxide, whilst a corresponding reduction in the end tidal partial pressure of carbon dioxide also
249 occurs¹⁸. The traditional method for quantifying VT² would be for players to complete an incremental
250 laboratory-based test until exhaustion. Hunter et al¹⁸ proposed deriving VT² speeds using laboratory-
251 based assessments better represent the dose-response relationship due to representation of changes
252 amongst running intensity domains⁵⁸. However, the ecological validity of linear, continuous,
253 incremental (exhaustive) treadmill tests to test players participating within multi-directional,
254 intermittent team-sports is questionable, coupled with the requirement for systematic re-testing and a

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3 255 finite number of opportunities to schedule testing during the in-season period ⁵⁹. Furthermore, only one
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5 256 player at a time can be tested proposing that this approach is not feasible within a typical squad (≈ 20)
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7 257 players. The requirement to retest proposes high cost relating to specialised equipment and expertise
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9 258 needed for this to be conducted effectively and frequently. Confirmation of these complexities acting
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11 259 as a barrier for implementing this method are currently unknown and further research examining
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13 260 practitioners' perspectives on the situational and environmental factors that influence their decision
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15 261 making is required. Consequently, only one rugby league study has used this approach for threshold
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17 262 determination, however this was a case study design using one participant ⁵⁸.

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20 263 Despite the complexities, other team sports such as soccer have applied this approach to
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22 264 individualise HIR during professional soccer matches ¹⁹. The VT² approach applied by Abt and Lovell
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24 265 ¹⁹ quantified HIR using the laboratory based incremental treadmill test. The resulting thresholds ($4.0\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
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26 266 $^1 - 4.6\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) were applied to match-play data to calculate individualised HIR, showing that less
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28 267 aerobically fit players performed greater HIR distances than their more aerobically counterparts ($r = -$
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30 268 0.68). A proposed reasoning was not included, however differences in positional anthropometric,
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32 269 physical fitness and match demands could have contributed ^{11, 52}. Less aerobically fit players with
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34 270 increased HIR match demands would have a lower threshold speed to achieve HIR, whereas players
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36 271 with higher aerobic fitness and lower HIR match demands have a higher threshold speed to achieve
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38 272 HIR. This could result in implications for both the practitioner and players when prescribing
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40 273 individualised recovery methods and training prescription based on variations existing amongst aerobic
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42 274 fitness and HIR demand between position. However, implementing this evidence based approach may
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44 275 improve training and performance, and help to reduce injury and incorrect training load prescription ⁶⁰.
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46 276 It could be suggested that future research is directed towards investigating the speed at VT² derived
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48 277 from a laboratory-based assessment to individualise HSR in rugby league.

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52 279 *3.4. Field Based Anaerobic Threshold*

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54 280 Previous suggestions express specific field-based assessments can also produce an estimation
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56 281 as to the speed at which VT² occurs. The 30:15 Intermittent Fitness Test (30:15IFT) is an incremental
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58 282 and intermittent test requiring players to work for 30s and recover for 15s. Players perform shuttle runs

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283 between two 40 m lines starting at a speed of $8 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, which increases $0.5 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ after every 45s
284 stage⁶¹. A recent study by Scott et al ¹¹ incorporated the 30:15IFT to individualise HSR thresholds
285 amongst professional rugby league players^{61, 62}. The players completed the 30:15IFT to estimate the
286 velocity of the last completed stage within the test which was applied to previous work by Buchheit et
287 al ⁶³, whereby the estimated velocity achieved at VT^2 was generated as 87% of the final velocity (see
288 Appendix 1). It was suggested that this may provide practitioners with a greater insight into players
289 running load, as it better represents HIR compared to an absolute threshold ^{18, 64} and is more practical
290 than a laboratory-based assessment ¹¹ (see included schematic). This method may allow practitioners to
291 prescribe training loads and implement recovery strategies more precisely. The 30:15IFT has also been
292 prescribed to determine the speed achieved at the 1st ventilatory threshold (VT^1) within rugby league,
293 with this speed calculated as 68% of the final velocity ^{11, 63} and applied as the HSR threshold⁶⁵ (see
294 Appendix 1). The findings suggest exposing players to greater HSR loads during the pre-season period
295 may contribute to maximising high-speed activities within competitive matches ⁶⁵. Furthermore, this
296 field-based test includes a change of direction (subsequent metabolic cost) and is intermittent in nature
297 which better represents the demands of team sport and enhances the ecological validity. It is also
298 suggested that the 30:15IFT can help to prescribe different formats of conditioning ⁶¹. However, the
299 frequent retesting and exhaustive nature of the test may likely interfere with training sessions dedicated
300 to recovery and match preparation strategies (see included schematic). For instance, match frequency
301 within rugby league varies between 3 and 9 days, whereby longer rest periods elicit higher training
302 loads and shorter rest periods intensify the training schedule resulting in practitioners reducing training
303 loads and focusing on recovery processes ^{10, 66}. This implies the 30:15IFT may be prescribed to assess
304 VT^2 during training periods of the season with low match frequency, although practitioners may
305 consider other approaches which implement the associated internal responses during continuous
306 running tests which may be deemed more appropriate (see included schematic).

307

308 *3.5.Heart Rate Deflection Point*

309 In addition to the speed at VT^2 , there are internal responses which concurrently onset such as
310 the heart rate deflection point ²³. The deflection point is defined as the downward or upward change

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3 311 from the linear heart rate/load relationship⁶⁷ which is evident during incremental exercise testing and
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5 312 is heavily associated to VT^2 and the anaerobic threshold²³. Although likely identified during
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7 313 laboratory-based testing^{11, 18, 23}, it can also be identified during continuous running field-based
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9 314 assessments^{23, 67}. Using a modified version of the University of Montreal Track test⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰ (see Scott and
10
11 315 Lovell et al²³ for full methods), the VAM-EVAL^{23, 70} test which is an incremental and continuous
12
13 316 running test (to exhaustion) has been used to identify the heart rate deflection. This approach has been
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15 317 used within women's international soccer and identified HSR as the speed at which the heart rate
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17 318 deflection point occurs. The heart rate deflection point occurred on average at 82% of the final running
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19 319 speed however, applying 80% of the final running speed has previously been shown to determine HSR
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21 320 incorrectly¹⁸. Although the VAM-EVAL has been used to determine the heart rate deflection point, this
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23 321 method failed to identify this for 23% of the initial player sample²³. Accordingly, it could be suggested
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25 322 that attempting to implement the speed at which the heart rate deflection point occurs during a field-
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27 323 based test may not be the most reliable approach to quantifying HSR in rugby league players (see
28
29 324 included schematic).

325 326 *3.6. Maximal Aerobic Speed*

327 The identification of MAS has become more apparent within team sports, likely due to it being
328 a more practical, field-based test that can be implemented at a training facility without specialised
329 equipment⁷¹. Determination of MAS allows practitioners to install an alternative method for measuring
330 running performance and maximising fitness, whilst generating a simple and effective way of
331 prescribing formats of conditioning^{20, 72}. Typically, MAS is defined as the lowest running speed ($m \cdot s^{-1}$)
332 at which VO_{2max} occurs⁷³. The theoretical basis where MAS is established, can suggest that MAS may
333 be a suitable tool for identifying the transition into HSR. It is well documented that aerobic capacity is
334 a crucial property of rugby league players^{72, 74}, suggesting that MAS could be an appropriate metric for
335 determining HSR thresholds within rugby league (see included schematic). Currently only one rugby
336 league study implements MAS to quantify HSR, however the included players mean MAS equated to
337 $5.0 m \cdot s^{-1}$ which was applied to all players rather than providing an individualised approach³⁰.

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3 338 It is evident MAS has been utilised differently within the literature to identify transitions in
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5 339 intensity domains. The true MAS speed (100% MAS) may be modified to determine HSR, whereby
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7 340 100% MAS may be applied or a higher or lower percentage may be considered ^{18, 20, 53} (see Appendix
8
9 341 1) although 80% of MAS has been suggested to quantify HSR erroneously¹⁸. Alternatively, MAS may
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11 342 be interpreted with its association to peak sprint speed and the resulting anaerobic speed reserve which
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13 343 is the difference in speed between MAS and the peak sprint speed ⁵³. This approach was conducted by
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15 344 Mendez-Villanueva et al ⁷⁰, who applied MAS as the HSR threshold and identified the anaerobic speed
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17 345 reserve to better establish a player's transition from HSR into sprinting. Furthermore, it has been
18
19 346 suggested that using MAS, in combination with peak sprint speed and the anaerobic speed reserve is a
20
21 347 more ecologically valid approach, due to normalising players speed thresholds with sprinting capacity,
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23 348 based on players achieving a high percentage of their peak sprint speed during match play^{18, 20}. However,
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25 349 this approach is yet to be applied within rugby league.

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28 350 For the practitioner, it is worth considering which field-based test is deemed the most
29
30 351 appropriate to practically determine MAS. A range of field-based tests can determine MAS (see
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32 352 Appendix 1 and included schematic), and when working with a full squad of players (□30-40) it is
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34 353 warranted for practitioners to select a valid and reliable test which does not impede other aspects of
35
36 354 training and potentially inhibit performance ¹¹. It is also worth considering the appropriateness of the
37
38 355 tests available as they can be categorised as continuous, linear (Time Trial, Set Distance Trial⁷⁵) or
39
40 356 shuttle based (Multi-Stage Fitness Test⁷⁶, 1200m Shuttle Test⁷⁷) as well as continuous, incremental
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42 357 (Montreal Track Test⁶⁸, VAM-EVAL⁷⁸), or even intermittent and incremental in nature (YOYO IRL1⁷⁹,
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44 358 30:15IFT⁶¹). It could be argued that shuttle-based tests maybe more rugby league specific, especially if
45
46 359 they are intermittent in nature. However, shuttle field-based tests may estimate MAS inaccurately, due
47
48 360 to not being continuous in nature and causing greater metabolic cost due to the inclusion of accelerations
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50 361 and decelerations. Previous work by Berthoin et al⁸⁰ corroborates this with the Multi-Stage Fitness Test
51
52 362 underestimating MAS ($13.1 \pm 1.0 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) when compared to the University of Montreal Track Test
53
54 363 ($15.8 \pm 1.9 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) and the incremental treadmill test ($15.9 \pm 2.6 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) suggesting accelerations,
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56 364 decelerations, stops, turns and starts constrain running rhythms as speed increases⁸¹. This could deem
57
58 365 these tests questionable, as a corrective equation is usually applied to estimate MAS⁸², perhaps raising

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1
2
3 366 doubt over its practical relevance for use within rugby league. Continuous and incremental tests^{78, 83}
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5 367 could be deemed more appropriate for MAS determination than those previously mentioned. However,
6
7 368 these tests along with some shuttle-based tests may prove difficult to frequently periodise within a rugby
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9 369 league training schedule. Nevertheless, it could be suggested that a set time trial or a set distance trial
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11 370 such as a 5-minute run, or a 1.5km time trial, could be a more appropriate test for rugby league
12
13 371 application due to their practicality and simplification to determine MAS, albeit linear and continuous
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15 372 ^{20, 71} (see Appendix 1 and included schematic). That said, a range of approaches to individualise HSR
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17 373 could be considered by rugby league practitioners, with some approaches being proposed to be more
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19 374 appropriate than others ^{18, 23}. However, individualised speed thresholds do not consider the transition
20
21 375 between zones in the form of acceleration and focus on speed alone¹¹. Alternatively, metabolic power
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23 376 combines both speed and acceleration properties which if individualised, may be suggested to be more
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25 377 applicable for quantifying HSR in rugby league.
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31 379 **4. Metabolic Power Thresholds**

32
33 380 Rugby league running performance combines both speed and acceleration properties which
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35 381 elicits an associated metabolic cost ($W \cdot kg^{-1}$)⁸⁴. The metabolic cost of accelerations is generally greater
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37 382 than the cost of running at a constant speed. While high-intensity accelerations can occur during lower
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39 383 speeds whereby the metabolic cost is high⁸⁴, both absolute and individualised speed zones do not
40
41 384 consider this. A recent approach proposed that accelerating on a flat surface is metabolically equivalent
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43 385 to running on an incline at a constant speed^{85, 86}. The resultant equivalent slope can be implemented to
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45 386 estimate the energetic cost of exercise, and specifically for team sports, practitioners can quantify the
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47 387 distance accumulated within different metabolic power zones⁸⁷. The distance covered at high-power
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49 388 may allow practitioners to better understand the running demands of rugby league match-play, due to
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51 389 providing a better reference for metabolic load¹¹ by combining the cost of both speed and acceleration,
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53 390 rather than just focusing on HSR derived from speed zones⁸⁷.
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58 392 *4.1. Absolute Metabolic Power Thresholds*

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3 393 Studies incorporating high-power distance using metabolic power currently exist within rugby
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5 394 league research^{29, 30, 51, 84, 87-89}. However, the majority of these studies quantify this using an arbitrary
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7 395 threshold ranging between 18 W·kg⁻¹-20 W·kg⁻¹. Kempton et al⁸⁴, applied 20 W·kg⁻¹ and identified both
8
9 396 high-power distance and HSR resulted in similar reductions throughout match-play, despite high-power
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11 397 distance demonstrating greater values. Other studies using this threshold have also reported high-power
12
13 398 distance to be higher than absolute HSR distance and have suggested HSR underestimates the running
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15 399 demand of rugby league when compared to high-power^{87,89}. Applying 20 W·kg⁻¹ has associated training
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17 400 load to injury, however this is primarily dependent on playing position⁸⁸. Although 20 W·kg⁻¹ is the
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19 401 more profound threshold within the literature, Cummins et al,^{30, 51} applied a threshold of 18 W·kg⁻¹ and
20
21 402 established metabolic power provides a more enhanced and meaningful evaluation of rugby league
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23 403 match demands. Alike HSR thresholds, players work capacities, anthropometric characteristics and
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25 404 positional demands vary, proposing the metabolic cost of running will vary for individual players,
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27 405 suggesting that deriving high-power using an arbitrary threshold may misinterpret the relative stress
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29 406 imposed on players^{11,90}.

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34 40735 408 *4.2. Individualised Metabolic Power Thresholds*

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37 409 Consequently, Scott et al¹¹ individualised high-power within rugby league and quantified the
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39 410 thresholds by manipulating the 30:15IFT. The threshold was derived by inputting the speed at 87% of
40
41 411 the final velocity achieved into the metabolic power calculation ('Forwards': 21.4 W·kg⁻¹, 'Backs': 21.6
42
43 412 W·kg⁻¹) and distances were then compared with distances above 20 W·kg⁻¹. Relative high-power
44
45 413 distances were lower when compared to absolute distances ('Forwards': 1047 m v 1169 m, 'Backs':
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47 414 1257 m v 1392 m), and absolute high-power thresholds may overestimate high metabolic running
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49 415 performance dependant on position. For players with lower levels of fitness, absolute high-power
50
51 416 thresholds may underestimate high metabolic running performance¹¹. Quantifying the speed at VT² as
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53 417 a physiological marker for high-power activity, may provide a better reference for individual player
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55 418 high-power running load and may be considered by practitioners.

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58 419 Research within hockey by Polglaze et al⁹⁰ has integrated critical power which is defined as the
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60 420 boundary between steady state and non-steady state exercise⁹¹. This concept proposes individuals can

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3 421 exercise indefinitely below their critical power threshold but when above the threshold, only a fixed
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5 422 amount of work can be performed⁹². However, with rugby league being intermittent in nature, the
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7 423 power output at critical power, will be lower than traditional exercise modalities which incorporate
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9 424 continuous exercise⁹³. Therefore, Polglaze et al⁹⁰ proposed the use of a 3-minute all-out hockey specific
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11 425 field-based test to quantify the metabolic power at critical power, as this may provide a more appropriate
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13 426 and comprehensive assessment. The mean metabolic power over the last 30s of the tests was quantified
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15 427 as the high-power threshold ($10.5 \text{ W}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), which is considerably lower than the absolute and relative
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17 428 high-power thresholds previously mentioned within rugby league^{11, 29, 30, 51, 84, 87}. However, the power
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19 429 thresholds within these studies have equated to estimations of physiological landmarks such as VT^2 and
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21 430 $\text{VO}_{2\text{max}}$ which constitute greater physiological thresholds⁹⁰. Moreover, these thresholds may be
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23 431 excessive and can lead to underestimations in the amount of high-intensity work performed in team
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25 432 sports⁹⁰. This study further suggested that the critical metabolic power approach is more appropriate to
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27 433 classifying intensity, which incorporates continual changes in speed and direction and deemed it useful
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29 434 for team sport practitioners⁹⁰. It could be proposed that this approach may be more appropriate for
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31 435 quantifying the high-power running activity within rugby league, although a 3-minute all-out rugby
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33 436 league specific field-based test is currently undefined, and practitioners may consider this approach if
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35 437 a test is established.

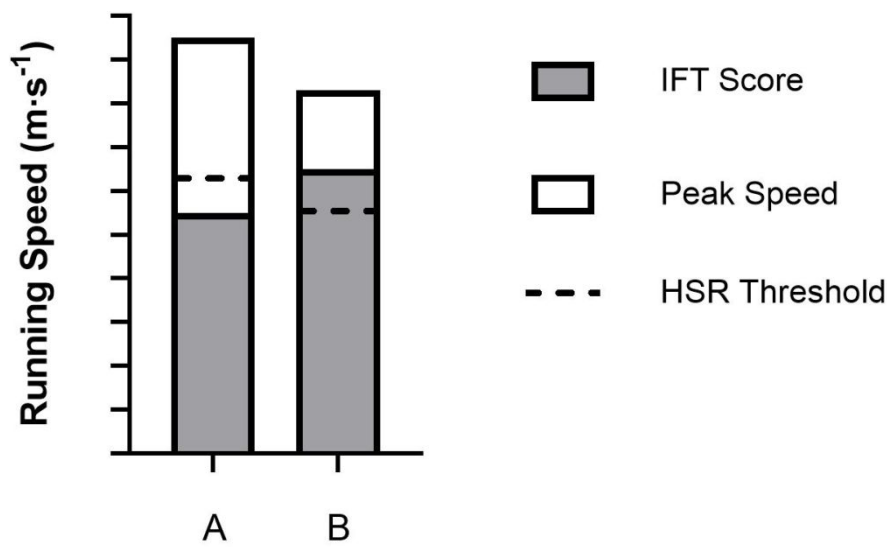
36
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39 438 ***** Table 2 about here *****

40 41 42 43 440 **5. Conclusion**

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45 441 Current research highlights different approaches to quantifying HSR although it doesn't
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47 442 consider how appropriate specific approaches and testing procedures are for administering within a
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49 443 professional rugby league training and match schedule. Based on the evidence within this review, it is
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51 444 proposed that the absolute threshold approaches to quantifying HSR within rugby league are not
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53 445 appropriate. Individualised approaches such a peak sprint speed can produce erroneous interpretations,
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55 446 whilst the practicality of specific physiological derived thresholds can be questioned. Therefore, it could
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57 447 be suggested that incorporating MAS to quantify HSR using a set time/distance trial may be the most
58
59 448 appropriate approach for rugby league practitioners (see included schematic). Evidently, practitioners

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449 require approaches to determine HSR which are deemed appropriate and practical whilst containing a
 450 sound rationale stemming from existing research. Necessarily, rugby league practitioners not only need
 451 to utilize a more theoretical approach but also utilise a more practical approach, which is appropriate
 452 for aspects of performance they deem important.



465 **Figure 1.** Demonstration of how the use of peak speed to derive HSR can result in erroneous
 466 interpretations for Player A and Player B. Intermittent Fitness Test Speed is the final stage speed
 467 achieved during a 'hypothetical' intermittent fitness test.

469 **Table 1.** Rugby League studies using GPS and absolute thresholds to quantify HSR

Study	Absolute HSR Thresholds
Sirotic et al ²⁷	3.7 m·s ⁻¹
Waldron et al ^{94,28} , Thornton et al ^{95, 96} , Norris et al ⁹⁷	4.0 m·s ⁻¹
Weaving et al ⁸⁹	3.9 m·s ⁻¹
Kempton et al ^{84, 87, 29} , Kempton & Coutts ^{98, 57} , Waldron et al ⁹⁹ , Duffield et al ¹⁰⁰	4.1 m·s ⁻¹
Kempton et al ¹⁰¹ , Weaving et al ⁶ , Cummins et al ⁴	4.3 m·s ⁻¹
Hausler et al ³¹	4.7 m·s ⁻¹
Johnston et al ¹⁰²	4.9 m·s ⁻¹
McLellan et al ^{25, 103, 5} , Gabbett ^{14, 43, 42, 104, 105, 47, 45, 22} , Gabbett et al ^{39, 106, 44} , Gabbett & Ullah ⁴⁰ , Austin & Kelly ^{3, 36} , Murray et al ⁹ , Twist et al ⁴⁸ , Black & Gabbett ^{37, 49} , Evans et al ²⁴ , Hulin et al ¹⁰⁷ , Cummins et al ^{30, 51} , Oxendale et al ¹³ , Thornton et al ⁸⁸ , Windt et al ¹⁰ , Weaving et al ¹⁰⁸ , Hulin & Gabbett ¹⁰⁹ , Johnston et al ^{110, 32}	5.0 m·s ⁻¹
Scott et al ¹¹	5.2 m·s ⁻¹
Varley et al ¹¹¹ , Twist et al ⁶⁶	5.5 m·s ⁻¹
Cummins et al ⁸ , Mclean et al ³³	5.7 m·s ⁻¹
Key: High-speed running (HSR); Meters per second (m·s ⁻¹)	

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479 **Table 2.** Rugby League studies using GPS and relative threshold approaches to quantify HSR.

Study	Player Status	Country	Competition	HSR Threshold Method	Test
Dempsey et al ²¹	Elite & Junior	England	INT	65% Peak Sprint Speed	40m Sprint
Scott et al ¹¹	Elite	Australia	NRL	87% Final Velocity	30:15IFT
Crang et al ⁶⁵	Elite	Australia	NRL	68% Final Velocity	30:15IFT
Weaving et al ⁷	Semi-Professional	England	KPC	100% Final Velocity	30:15IFT
Towilson et al ⁵⁸	Semi-Professional	England	KPC	VT ² Speed	Incremental Treadmill Test
Gabbett ²²	Junior	Australia	N/A	50% Peak Sprint Speed	40m Sprint

480 Key: High-speed Running (HSR); Ventilatory Threshold 2 (VT²); 30:15 Intermittent Fitness Test (30:15IFT); National Rugby League (NRL); International
481 (INT); Kingstone Press Championship (KPC)

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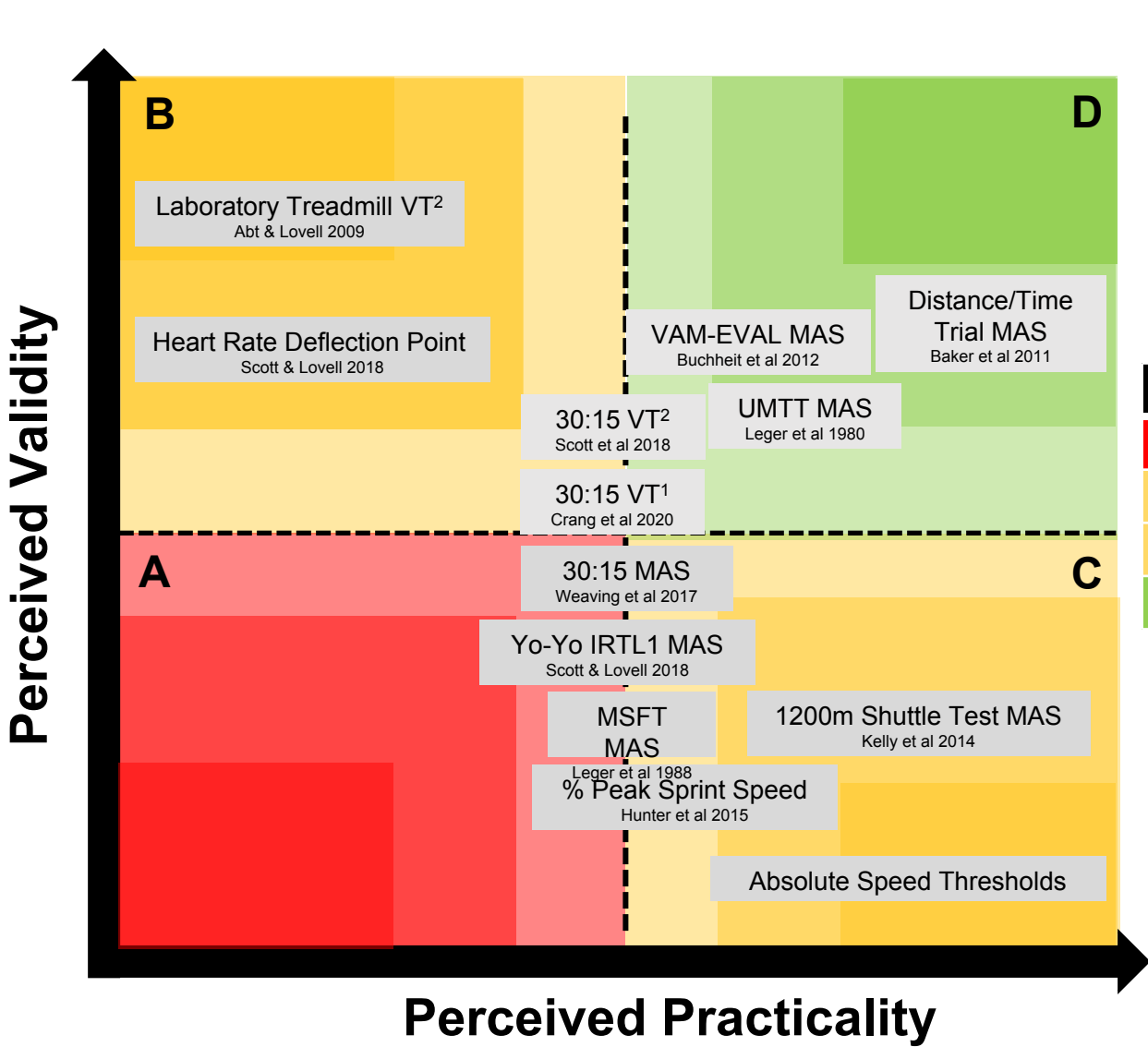
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Summary Schematic: Quantifying High-Speed Running in Rugby League: Are Current Methods Appropriate?

A	Low Validity & Low Practicality
B	High Validity & Low Practicality
C	Low Validity & High Practicality
D	High Validity & High Practicality

Figure 1. A summary schematic to represent the suggested perceived validity and practicality of methods to determine absolute and individualised high-speed running thresholds for use within professional Rugby League. The placement of methods are a visual aid only and are justified based on the discussion within the accompanying review. The schematic illustrates the difficulties practitioners face when deciding which method to implement to analyse high speed running performance of players.