

The Utility of Mixed Models in Sport Science: A Call for Further Adoption in Longitudinal Data Sets

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- 7 **Title:** The utility of mixed models in sports science: A call for further adoption in longitudinal 8 datasets
- Purpose: Sports science research consistently contains repeated measures and imbalanced 9 datasets. This study calls for further adoption of mixed models when analysing longitudinal 10 sports-science datasets. Mixed models were used to understand whether the level of 11 competition affected the intensity of women's rugby league match play.
- 12
- **Methods:** A total of 472 observations were used to compare the mean speed of female rugby 13
- league athletes recorded during club-, state-, and international-level competition. As athletes 14 featured in all three levels of competition and there were multiple matches within each 15
- competition (i.e., repeated measures), we demonstrated that mixed models are the appropriate 16
- statistical approach for these data. 17
- Results: We determined that if a repeated-measures ANOVA were used for the statistical 18 19 analysis in the present study, at least 48.7% of the data would have been omitted to meet ANOVA assumptions. Using a mixed model, we determined that mean speed recorded during 20 Test matches was 73.4 m·min⁻¹, while the mean speed for NRLW and Origin matches were 21
- 77.6 and 81.6 m·min⁻¹, respectively. Random effects of team, athlete, and match all accounted
- 22 23 for variations in mean speed, that otherwise could have concealed the main effects of position
- and level of competition had less-flexible ANOVAs been used. 24
- **Conclusion:** These data clearly demonstrate the appropriateness of applying mixed models to 25
- 26 typical datasets acquired in the professional sports setting. Mixed models should be more
- readily used within sports science, especially in observational, longitudinal datasets such as 27
- 28 movement pattern analyses.
- 29

30 Introduction

31 Highly-controlled, longitudinal, or cross-over designed research experiments are difficult to conduct in the high-performance sport environment. Researchers are regularly met with 32 hesitation from both coaching staff and the athletes due to the potential disruption 'best-33 34 practice' research methodology poses to competition and their carefully configured training programs. Nonetheless, to advance the understanding of performance and adaptation in elite 35 athletes, sports scientists, and researchers often interrogate routinely collected health¹⁻³, 36 wellbeing^{4–6}, physical and physiological performance metrics, and locomotive movement data 37 (i.e., movement patterns)⁷⁻¹⁰ over multiple days, weeks, and years. Indeed, these observational 38 studies have played a critical role in the understanding and development of sports performance 39 40 and related disciplines over the last 20 years. However, these datasets are often characterized 41 by multiple dependent observations (not only across matches and competitions, but within each athlete) and imbalanced data (e.g., athletes missing due to injuries, team selections, and/or 42 rescheduling) that pose a significant challenge for this type of research. Nonetheless, the 43 nuisances associated with dependent observations and imbalanced data are among the least 44 45 acknowledged when conducting sports-science research.

46

47 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures has dominated as the most frequently utilized statistical method with which to analyse repeated measures datasets. However, 48 49 ANOVA requires every participant to have a value in every observation and within a condition (e.g., position) every participant must have contributed an equal number of observations to 50 avoid violating the relatively stringent assumptions¹¹. Despite these assumptions, ANOVAs 51 are still readily used within longitudinal sports science research^{12–16}. A systematic review of 52 contextual factors on match running in rugby league¹⁷ reported that only seven of fifteen studies 53 using the Global Navigational Satellite System (GNSS) to quantify movement patterns in 54 55 athletes during match-play accounted for repeated measures within athletes (i.e., dependent observations). Of these seven, two studies eliminated data to run their ANOVA, while another 56 57 study did not account for the athletes' natural variation in performance, leaving only four studies utilising their full dataset. Clearly, the characteristics of routinely collected health, 58 wellbeing, and performance datasets in the high-performance sport environment can involve 59 the manipulation of data, and depending on its severity, can undermine the confidence of 60 analysis. 61

62

Obvious to the statistician and data analyst is that mixed models are likely a more appropriate 63 statistical methodology for routinely collected health, wellbeing, and performance data such as 64 the data in the present study. Indeed, within statistics literature, McElreath argues that mixed 65 models deserve to be the default form of regression and that experiments that do not use a 66 mixed model should justify not using this approach¹⁸. In his argument, he lists four reasons to 67 use mixed models: i. To adjust estimates for repeat sampling, ii. To adjust estimates for 68 imbalance in sampling, iii. To model variation among individuals or other groups, and iv. To 69 avoid averaging, as some researchers pre-average data before running analyses¹⁸. Therefore, it 70 71 is reasonable to suggest that mixed models are the most appropriate statistical methodology to 72 analyse longitudinal datasets often acquired by sports scientists. This aligns with previous guidance by Hopkins and colleagues (2009) in encouraging sports science researchers to utilise 73 mixed models rather than a repeated-measures ANOVA¹⁹. While mixed models have become 74 more popular within sport-science research^{4,7,8}, the use of mixed models are often perceived as 75 technical and requiring statistical expertise. Thus, the aim of this study was to make sports 76 77 scientists aware of the utility of mixed models when analysing longitudinal datasets. To 78 illustrate this, we described and compared the movement patterns of female rugby league athletes across three levels of competition. We hypothesised that match intensity, as determined
by the mean speed, would be higher in Origin matches due to the higher quality players

compared to NRLW matches and shorter duration compared to Test matches.

83 Methods

84 Subjects

85 Over the 2018-2019 seasons, we were provided access to athlete positioning and timing data (i.e., movement patterns) transmitted by the GNSS for Australian female rugby league athletes 86 including: club- (i.e., National Rugby League Women's; NRLW), state- (i.e., State of Origin; 87 Origin), and international-level (i.e., Trans-Tasman Test; Test) competition. These data 88 provided a unique opportunity to identify differences in movement patterns across three levels 89 of rugby league competition previously observed in female athletes of other football $codes^{9,20}$. 90 91 Importantly, the rugby-league data examined in the present study included repeated match data for multiple athletes which varied in number and level of competition. That is, some athletes 92 playing NRLW played more matches than others, and some also played Origin and Test 93 94 matches. This created a data set of repeated and dependent measures as well as an imbalance in sampling among athletes and competition level. Therefore, careful consideration of the 95 96 statistical approach was paramount to derive meaningful conclusions.

97

Figure 1 shows the sample dataset that contained 109 athletes in 12 NRLW matches during the 2018 and 2019 seasons, 49 athletes in the 2018 and 2019 Origin matches (2 matches), and 26 Australian 'Jillaroos' athletes in 2018 and 2019 Trans-Tasman Test matches (2 matches). Collectively, the present study included 115 unique athletes (age = 26.8 ± 5.4 yr; height = 1.68 ± 0.07 m; body mass = 76.7 ± 11.9 kg) and 472 match entries.

- 103
- 104 [INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]
- 105
- 106 Design

107 The present study was a retrospective, observational, cohort analysis using GNSS-derived data 108 routinely collected by each team's sport scientists. The National Rugby League coordinated 109 the distribution of receivers, amalgamation of the data, and provision of the datasets to the 110 authors.

- 111
- 112 *Methodology*

The movement patterns of athletes competing in NRLW matches were collected using 10 Hz 113 Optimeye S5 receivers (Catapult Sports, Victoria, Australia), while the Origin and Test 114 movement pattern data were collected using 10 Hz GPSports EVO receivers (Catapult Sports). 115 To measure match intensity, the mean speed (i.e., total distance divided by the time spent on 116 the field) of each athlete was recorded. While it was not ideal that units by different 117 manufacturers were used, only the total distance was required for this analysis which has been 118 found to differ by 1.8% between these two devices²¹. As the mean speed of NRLW athletes has 119 been found to decrease as function of the minutes played, a minimum threshold of 20 min of 120 game time was applied to ensure the athlete spent an adequate time on the field. Additionally, 121 this filter removed athletes playing for a short duration and therefore recording a high mean 122 123 speed (i.e., metres/minute) if there were no stoppages in the short time they were on the field. Consequently, of the 472 match files, 380 were deemed eligible for analysis. The Griffith 124 University Human Ethics Committee approved this study (GU Ref No: 2019/359). 125

126

127 Statistical Analysis

To compare the differences in analysis, both a repeated-measures ANOVA and a mixed model 128 were fitted to the present study dataset. In both analyses, the effect of a player's position and 129 level of competition on mean speed was assessed. For the ANOVA to be performed, we 130 restructured the data to achieve a 'complete-case analysis'22. The mixed models were built 131 using the *lme4*²³ package in R version 4.0.2²⁴, while the *emmeans*²⁵ and *sjPlot*²⁶ packages were 132 used for pairwise comparisons and model diagnostics respectively. The see^{27} and 133 *performance*²⁸ packages were used to determine which model was the best performing model. 134 The associated R script is attached as an appendix to this manuscript. 135

The dataset was arranged in 'long form' with each observation for each athlete on a new row.
After loading in the *lme4* packages, the first model was built as seen in line 15 in Appendix 1.
The following components were outlined:

Dependent Variable; the metric we were interested in explaining. In this case, mean
 speed which as expressed as a continuous variable.

Fixed Effects; the variables of interest that could explain variation in the dependent
variables. Here, we are looking at 'level of competition' and 'playing position'. An interaction
effect was also assessed, which would determine whether the difference in mean speed because
of level of competition was uniform across all positions or whether the difference in mean
speed because of level of competition is different for each position.

Random Effects: the variables that contain variation purely from the random sampling 3. 146 147 which could hide the influence of the fixed effects and would vary if the study were to be replicated²⁹. Here, they are: i) 'athlete' as an individual athlete could have played up to 12 148 matches, ii) 'team' as the team that an athlete plays for (e.g., Broncos, Roosters, QLD Maroons, 149 150 etc.) could have a confounding effect and is nested within the levels of competition, and iii) 'match' as there is variation match-to-match in the intensity of play, perhaps due to weather, 151 for example. These can be included as random intercepts and/or as random slopes, in this 152 example, all three variables were included as random intercepts. By including these random 153 effects, we can account for the variability associated with these effects to reveal the underlying 154 effect of 'level of competition' and 'position' on the dependent variable. 155

Distribution Shape; in this case, the data adequately met the assumptions for a normal 156 4. (Gaussian) mixed model. This example used a dependent variable (mean speed) that met the 157 assumptions of a normal (Gaussian) distribution which meant that a simpler linear mixed model 158 could be used in this case. However, this may not always be the case and, therefore the 159 dependent variable may need to be expressed as a factor or percent, or log-transformed to 160 reduce non-normality of the data¹⁹. Alternatively, if there was frequency data (e.g., tackle 161 count) or probability data, a Poisson distribution or binomial distribution respectively can be 162 163 specified as the distribution family in the mixed model (using the *glmer* function rather than the simpler *lmer* function). 164

165

Once the full model (i.e., all fixed and random effects included, see line 15 in Appendix 1) was 166 established, the full model was compared to models without the fixed and random effects to 167 assess the different model fits (see Line 23 in Appendix 1). When comparing models using the 168 Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), it was determined that the full model was the preferred 169 model as it displayed the lowest AIC. AIC was chosen as it includes a model complexity term 170 (twice the number of model parameters) to penalise models containing variables that did not 171 contribute to the model. The R² and Root-Mean-Square Error (RMSE) were also reported for 172 the reader but were not used for model selection. As the models were nested, a likelihood ratio 173 test could also have been used. 174

175

To meet the assumptions of a mixed model, a histogram of the residuals was generated to assessthe normality of the residuals, Q-Q plots for each random effect were generated to assess the

normality of the random effects, and the model's residuals were plotted against its fitted value
to assess homoscedasticity (see Line 25 in Appendix 1). None of these assumptions were

violated so, therefore, it was deemed appropriate to proceed with the analysis.

182 **Results**

In order to meet the assumptions of a repeated-measures ANOVA, we restructured the data to 183 achieve a 'complete-case analysis'²², which eliminated any athlete that did not feature in all 184 three levels of competition. This initial filter eliminated 48.7% of the available data. Of the 185 remaining data, each athlete varied from one to seven observations within each level of 186 competition which continued to threaten the validity of the analysis as multiple observations 187 of one athlete could bias the results. Secondly, it would not be suitable to answer the hypothesis 188 as eliminating any athlete that did not play in the Test matches would result in the average 189 NRLW mean speed being compiled of only athletes that had played in both Origin and Test 190 matches, rather than the collective NRLW cohort. Alternatively, if we used the mean for each 191 athlete in each level of competition, this reduced the number of observations to 157 (i.e., 192 eliminated 58.7% of the available data). However, when averaging each athlete's values, it 193 would not account for the fact that there is less uncertainty in the mean speed of an athlete that 194 had seven observations compared to an athlete that only has one observation. Therefore, it was 195 determined that it was not appropriate to run an ANOVA across this dataset. Due to the use of 196 197 ANOVA being deemed inappropriate to adequately analyse these data, only the results of the 198 mixed model are presented here.

199

200 Model Comparisons

Seven mixed models were assessed: the full model (i.e., containing all fixed and random effects), three models with each model removing one random effect, and three models removing the interaction effect, the competition level, and position respectively. The full model displayed the lowest AIC, the equal-highest R^2 , and the lowest RMSE and, therefore, was chosen as the preferred model. The results are displayed in Table 1. We can write the selected model in short form as:

207

208 MeanSpeed_{pmti}

- 209 210
- $= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{Competition}_{pmti} + \beta_2 \times \text{Position}_{pmti}$ $+ \beta_3 \times \text{Competition}_{pmti} \times \text{Position}_{pmti} + \gamma_p^{\text{player}} + \gamma_m^{\text{match}} + \gamma_t^{\text{team}} + \epsilon_{pmti},$
- 211

where $\gamma_p^{\text{player}} \sim N(0, \sigma_p^2), \gamma_m^{\text{match}} \sim N(0, \sigma_m^2), \gamma_t^{\text{team}} \sim N(0, \sigma_t^2)$ are the random intercepts for 212 player, match and team respectively, and $\epsilon_{pmti} \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ is the residual term. All these terms 213 are normally distributed with zero mean and variance given by the second term in the 214 parentheses. The random effects are crossed (i.e., not nested) since, for example, a player can 215 play for multiple teams. The model is parameterised so that the intercept term β_0 corresponds 216 to Test level of competition and the Adjustable position. Since there are three competitions 217 and four positions in the data, the number of elements in β_1 , β_2 and β_3 is two, three and six, 218 respectively, and are to be interpreted relative to the baseline categories in β_0 . 219 Correspondingly, Competition_{*pmti*} \in {"Origin", "NRL"} and 220 Position_{*pmti*} \in {"Backs", "Forwards", "Interchange". Here the subscripts p, m, t and i refer to the pth player, mth match, 221 tth team, and the *i*th observation for each combination of player, match and team. 222

- 223
- 224 [INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]
- 225

226 Random Effects

When considering the model comparison, the full model with player, team, and match random 227 effects was preferred over the reduced models that removed each of the random effects, as 228 evidenced by the full model having the lowest AIC value. Similarly, when assessing the 229 variance explained by each of the random effects, it was determined that all three random 230 effects should remain in the model. The estimated random effects variances are displayed in 231 Table 2, together with the estimated residual variance. The conditional means for each level of 232 random effect are displayed in Figure 2. The player conditional means differed between -6.9 233 to 5.9 m \cdot min⁻¹ from the marginal mean, the team conditional means differed between -2.7 to 234 2.1 m·min⁻¹, and the match conditional means differed between -8.7 to 5.8 m·min⁻¹ from the 235 marginal mean. 236

237

238 [INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]239

- 240 [INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE]
- 241
- 242 Fixed Effects

Table 3 displays the additive interaction effects to calculate each permutation within the 243 dataset. The intercept (i.e., 74.5 m·min⁻¹) represents the mean speed for a Test adjustable player 244 on average. From here, the coefficients can be added or subtracted depending on what level of 245 competition and what position was being played. For example, for the mean speed of an Origin 246 forward athlete, you would start with the intercept of 75.0 m·min⁻¹. From here, you will add 247 8.7 m min⁻¹ for an Origin-level athlete, then add another 1.9 m min⁻¹ for a forward, and then 248 subtract 2.2 m·min⁻¹ for the interaction effect of an Origin-level forward, resulting in an 249 estimated mean of 83.4 m⋅min⁻¹. 250

- 251
- 252 [INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]
- 253

Figure 3 presents the estimated marginal means for mean speed recorded during NRLW, 254 Origin, and Test matches. Origin matches recorded, on average the highest mean speed, 255 followed by NRLW matches, and then Test matches. When considering position, in both 256 NRLW and Origin matches, adjustables recorded the highest mean speed; however, forwards 257 recorded the highest mean speed in Test matches. Meanwhile, backs recorded the lowest mean 258 speed in NRLW matches, with interchange recording the lowest mean speed in both Origin and 259 Test matches. As the changes in mean speed across competitions were not uniform across all 260 261 competition, this confirmed the presence of an interaction effect.

262

263 [INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE]

264

265 **Discussion**

The present study displayed why mixed models should be the more heavily-adopted when 266 analysing sport science field-based datasets with repeated measures, like the rugby league 267 women's dataset used in this study. Mixed models were able to account for multiple 268 observations of the same individuals in the dataset, players changing positions between 269 270 matches, and account for inter-player, inter-match, and inter-team dependencies to extract the true effects of position and level of competition on mean speed and the appropriate 271 quantification of the uncertainty of these estimates. One strength of the mixed model in 272 analysing data was its ability to account for the differing number of observations of athletes. 273 In the dataset, athletes ranged between one and nine matches played with 24 athletes playing 274

only one match, while five athletes played nine matches each. This is not ideal when applying 275 repeated-measures ANOVA as either some athletes or some time points (i.e., games) would 276 need to be excluded from the analysis. While removing an athlete if they do not have an 277 observation in every time point or removing a time point if many athletes are missing is 278 statistically appropriate if the missing data points are proved to be missing completely at 279 random (i.e., no bias in missing data)³⁰, this method can cause unnecessary deletion of large 280 amounts of data. If there are many participants and many time points, it can sometimes 281 eliminate so much data that no analysis can be performed on the remaining dataset; for 282 example, 48.7% of the data collected for the present study would have been omitted when 283 filtering out players that did not participate in Origin or Test matches. However, mixed models 284 can attribute a level of uncertainty to each athlete dependent on their sample size and, therefore, 285 the model can more accurately quantify the true mean speed of a player with nine observations 286 287 compared to a single observation of another athlete. In doing so, mixed models create flexibility in the datasets that can be utilised that more closely align to datasets seen in sports due to 288 injuries, squad selection, and access to athletes on a given day. The mixed model provided an 289 analysis that could retain all available data points and did not require the elimination of data 290 points to retain a 'complete case analysis' dataset²², nor did it require data imputation to 291 estimate missing data³⁰. 292

294 Another strength of the mixed model was its ability to use the dependency within the dataset 295 to increase the power of the statistics, rather than detract like in general linear model applications. For example, in the present study, since there were only two matches at an 296 297 international level and only two matches at Origin level, these sample sizes would be underpowered when using a linear model; however, when merged with the twelve NRLW 298 matches, the model can draw on the variance attributed to players and positions to estimate the 299 300 effects of level of competition more robustly. Similarly, two players played in three of the different positional groups which would typically require the athlete to have matches in which 301 they were not in their 'primary' position to run parametric general linear models. However, 302 this information is actually very useful as it enables the model to observe the same athlete, in 303 the same team, in the same level of competition but in a different position which provides more 304 information than if the two positional groups were completely independent of each other. That 305 is, by enabling players to be their own control group, they can more accurately interrogate the 306 between-position differences in mean speed. As a result, mixed models can more accurately 307 and more robustly determine the variation attributable to athletes, time points, and conditions 308 (e.g., position) much more than any general linear model. Additionally, by using a mixed 309 310 model, it was evident that the random effect for player is larger than the fixed effect of position, which would not be able to be established when using a repeated-measures ANOVA. 311 Therefore, this reinforces that individualised training for an athlete, rather than the position, is 312 313 more important from a training prescription perspective.

314

293

When considering the findings of this study, the reduced overall mean speed recorded for the 315 Test (80 min), compared with the Origin (60 min) and NRLW (60 min) matches in the present 316 study could be explained by the longer Test-match duration. We have previously reported that 317 the mean speed when travelling >12 km \cdot h⁻¹ of athletes recorded during international matches 318 declines by $\sim 40\%$ within the first half of the match⁸. We also previously demonstrated that 319 there were no significant differences in the relative distances covered in any of the speed zones, 320 as well as the overall mean speed when comparing the first and second half of NRLW matches⁷. 321 322 These results contrast with those seen in other codes, with significantly increased total distance and high-speed running in international football compared to domestic football⁹. On closer 323 examination of mean speed in the present study, it was evident that the position contributed to 324

the model with forwards recording the highest intensity and the interchange athletes delivering

the lowest intensity. This could be due to a disparity in playing ability between the startingforwards and the interchange replacements. We previously established that the mean speed of

interchange athletes significantly reduced as their playing duration increased⁷, which could explain why at the international level, when interchange athletes are required to play increased minutes due to the longer format, they cannot sustain the same intensity as the starting

- 331 forwards.
- 332

333 Conclusion

The requirement to account for repeated measures and imbalanced data is pertinent in longitudinal sports science datasets. As previous studies have demonstrated a lack of statistical literacy to correctly understand dependency within datasets and the consequent violations of parametric statistical assumptions, the present study provides a more thorough account of the process, the associated R script, and the resultant interpretations to inform sports scientists on mixed models. It is anticipated that the present study will empower sports scientists to assess the various dependencies more critically within their datasets.

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342 **Practical Applications**

- Mixed models should be a more-heavily adopted statistical method for analysing sports
 science datasets with repeated measures as they are more flexible than repeated measures ANOVA
 - Mixed models can accommodate differing frequency of observations of athletes and players swapping positions in between matches
- If Test matches continue to be 80 min in duration, the physical and physiological capacity of athletes should be improved to maintain running intensity at the international level
- NRLW matches should be increased to 70 min in 2022 to gradually bridge the gap
 between domestic- and international-level competition

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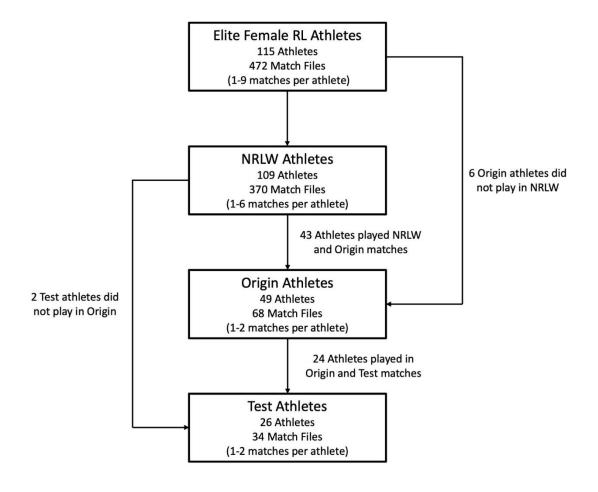
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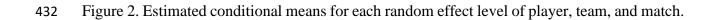
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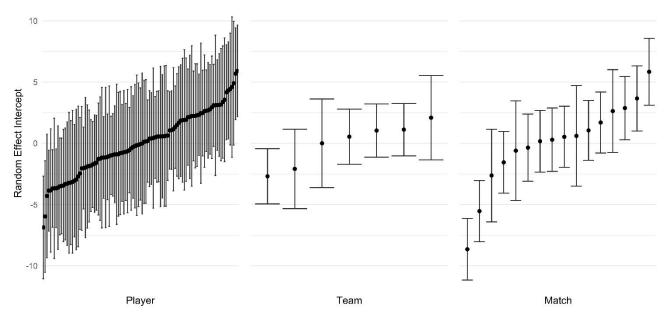
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428

- 429 Figure 1. Flowchart of women's rugby league athletes playing at various competition levels
- 430 indicating the levels of dependency within the dataset. N.B. NRLW = National Rugby League
- 431 Women's; Origin = State of Origin; Test = Trans-Tasman Test.



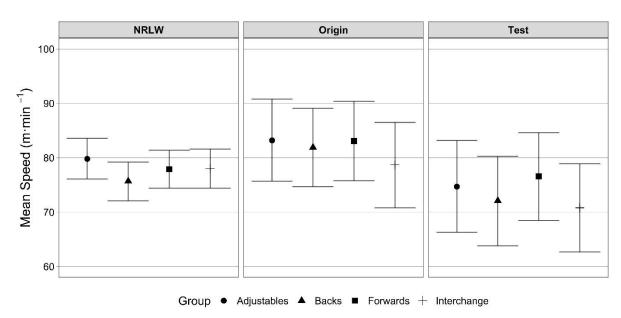




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Figure 3. Mean speed of women's rugby league athletes by competition level and position.
N.B. NRLW = National Rugby League Women's; Origin = State of Origin; Test = Trans-

- 436 Tasman Test.
- 437



438