

1 Transferring an analytical technique from ecology to the sport sciences

2

3 **Carl T. Woods^{1*}, Sam Robertson², Neil French Collier³, Anne L. Swinbourne⁴, Anthony S. Leicht¹**

4

5 ¹Discipline of Sport and Exercise Science, James Cook University, Queensland, Australia

6 ²Institute of Sport, Exercise & Activity Living (ISEAL), Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia

7 ³Faculty of Sustainability, Leuphana University Luneburg, Germany

8 ⁴Psychology, James Cook University, Queensland, Australia

9

10 *Corresponding Author

11 Carl Woods, Discipline of Sport and Exercise Science, James Cook University, Townsville, Queensland, Australia

12 Ph: +61 07 4781 6550 Mob: +61 421254329 Email: carl.woods@jcu.edu.au

13 **Abstract**

14 Background: Learning transfer is defined as an individual's capability to apply prior learnt perceptual, motor or
15 conceptual skills to a novel task or performance environment. In the sport sciences, learning transfers have been
16 investigated from an athlete-specific perspective. However, sport scientists should also consider the benefits of
17 cross-disciplinary learning to aid critical thinking and metacognitive skill gained through the interaction with
18 similar quantitative scientific disciplines.

19 Objective: Using team sports performance analysis as an example, this study aimed to demonstrate the utility of
20 a common analytical technique in ecology to the sports sciences; namely, non-metric multidimensional scaling.

21 Methods: To achieve this aim, three novel research examples using this technique are presented, each of which
22 enables the analysis and visualisation of athlete (organism), team (aggregation of organisms) and competition
23 (ecosystem) behaviours.

24 Results: The first example reveals the technical behaviours of Australian Football League Brownlow medallists
25 from the 2001 to 2016 seasons. The second example delineates dissimilarity in higher and lower ranked National
26 Rugby League teams within the 2016 season. Lastly, the third example shows the evolution of game-play in the
27 basketball tournaments between the 2004 to 2016 Olympic Games.

28 Conclusions: In addition to the novel findings of each example, the collective results demonstrate that by
29 embracing cross-disciplinary learning and drawing upon an analytical technique common to ecology, novel
30 solutions to pertinent research questions within sports performance analysis could be addressed in a practically
31 meaningful way. Cross-disciplinary learning may subsequently assist sport scientists in the analysis and
32 visualisation of multivariate datasets.

33 **Key points**

- 34 • The graphical outputs of non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) enable the recognition of non-
35 linear behavioural patterns at the athlete (example one), team (example two) and competition (example
36 three) levels.
- 37 • Accordingly, cross-disciplinary learning may assist sport scientists with the resolution of practically
38 meaningful questions in performance analysis.
- 39 • Sport scientists in other sub-disciplines are encouraged to 'think outside the box' when analysing and
40 visualising data.

41 **Key words:** Transfer of learning; cross-disciplinary learning; sports performance analysis; data visualisation

42 **1. Introduction**

43 An integral component of learning concerns an individual's capability to transfer its production from one
44 performance context to another [1]. This concept, referred to as a transfer of learning [2], typically extends to
45 motor, perceptual or conceptual tasks or variables. It suggests that tasks expressing a similar production, outcome
46 or performance environment may afford greater transference (i.e., a positive transfer of learning) [3, 4]. The
47 principle of learning transfer has been examined in and across a range of scientific disciplines, such as educational
48 science [5], health and medical science [6], rehabilitation science [7], and sport science [8]. With a focus on the
49 sport sciences, there has been a large quantity of work examining motor and perceptual learning transfers between
50 sports or performance environments [9-12]. In each of these studies, athletes have been the target population, with
51 their capability to transfer a prior learnt skill to a relatively novel sport being the outcome of interest.

52 However, learning transfers can also be encouraged from the sport scientist's perspective, in addition to the
53 athletes they interact with. Cross-disciplinary learning is likely to extend sport scientists critical thinking and
54 metacognitive skill through novel perspectives generated by the interaction with similar quantitative sciences [13].
55 For example, Duarte et al. [14] discussed how sporting teams could be viewed as 'superorganisms', in a similar
56 fashion to how ecologists view aggregated organisms, such as flocks of birds, given that athletes are likely to base
57 movement decisions on environmental information extracted from opponent (predator) and teammate (organism
58 aggregate) relative positioning. Considering players and sporting teams in such a nuanced way can provide novel
59 insights into collective behaviours and patterns in play [14]. However, extracting meaning from these often large,
60 longitudinal and multivariate datasets can represent an analytical challenge. Further, linear statistical approaches,
61 which are popular in the sport sciences, may not adequately reveal non-linear behavioural patterns [15]. Thus,
62 examination of this data may require alternative or 'outside of the box' approaches adopted from other disciplines.
63 One potential discipline of relevance to sport scientists is ecology, which often seeks to delineate non-linear
64 behavioural patterns across an organism type, an aggregation of organisms or an ecosystem [15, 16]. This
65 analytical cross-disciplinary learning transfer from ecology to the sport sciences may enable the emergence of
66 novel, data visualisation techniques, while simultaneously increasing the sophistication of research questions
67 regarding athlete and team behaviour. Ultimately, this may provide sports coaches or sporting administrators with
68 greater objectivity to support the decisional processes they commonly encounter.

69 One particular analytical and visualisation approach commonplace in ecology for the study of organism behaviour
70 is non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) [17]. Fundamentally, nMDS is an indirect gradient analysis,

71 producing an ordination based on a dissimilarity matrix [17]. This matrix is ascertained via isotopic regression,
72 which is a type of non-parametric regression that iteratively searches for a least squares fit based on ranks of the
73 dissimilarities [17, 18]. Accordingly, this is a ranked-based approach, where original distance data is substituted
74 with ranks. The output of this isotopic regression provides a measure of ‘stress’, which decreases as the rank-
75 order agreement between dissimilarities improves; lower ‘stress’ values (i.e., closer to ‘0’) represent a closer fit
76 [19]. In contrast to other ordination techniques, nMDS makes few assumptions about the data properties. For
77 example, a principal component analysis (PCA) assumes linear relationships between variables within datasets,
78 whereas nMDS does not, enabling its utility in multivariate datasets that contain diverse data properties [17].
79 Further, while other ordination techniques attempt to maximise the variance between objects in an ordination,
80 nMDS represents, as closely as possible, the pairwise dissimilarity between objects [18, 19]. Subsequently, the
81 graphical output of nMDS provides a map that spatially illustrates the relationships and patterns between samples
82 in a reduced two- or three-dimensional space [18] (Figure 1). Transferred to team sports performance analysis,
83 performance indicators (e.g. behaviours) may be coded as the samples within a multivariate dataset, with the
84 dissimilarity of these samples being analysed between players in a team or group (e.g. organisms in an aggregate),
85 teams in a competition (e.g. aggregates in an ecosystem) or competitions over time (e.g. ecosystem dynamics).

86 ****** INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE ******

87 Using team sports performance analysis as the sub-discipline, this study aims to demonstrate the applicability of
88 nMDS to sport science. To achieve this aim, three original research examples will be independently presented.
89 Each example was chosen to reflect player (organism), team (aggregation of organisms) and competition
90 (ecosystem) behaviours, complementing the ‘superorganism’ perspectives offered by Duarte et al. [14].

91 **2. Methodology**

92 The datasets used in each proceeding example originate from commercially accessible sources, with institutional
93 ethics declaration being acquired prior to data extraction. Despite nuanced methodologies being described in each
94 proceeding example, all analyses were performed using the ‘vegan’ package via the *metaMDS* function in *R*,
95 which is a commonly used package for nMDS in ecology [19]. Further, the *R* code used in each example is
96 presented as Supplementary Material.

97 **3. Results**

98 **Example 1 – Player Behaviour:** *Revealing technical skill behaviour in Brownlow Medal winning Australian*
99 *Football League players from the 2001 to 2016 seasons*

100 *Introduction:* Australian football (AF) is a team invasion sport that requires physical, technical and perceptual
101 skills [20-22]. At the elite level, the Australian Football League (AFL), game-play is contested between two teams
102 of 22 players, who field no more than 18 players at a time. Following the conclusion of each 23-week ‘home and
103 away’ game, the umpires award three votes to the player from either team whom they perceive exemplified the
104 ‘best and fairest’ on the ground. To assist with this ‘voting’ process, the umpires are provided with a range of
105 player technical skill involvements immediately following each game. At the conclusion of the season, the player
106 who accrues the greatest number of votes is then awarded the Brownlow Medal; or more colloquially, the
107 competition’s ‘best and fairest’ player. Understanding the technical characteristics of these winners would be of
108 scientific and practical interest by offering insight into the evolution of the performance of the best players in the
109 AFL. This example aims to reveal the technical skill characteristics of Brownlow medallists between the 2001 to
110 2016 AFL seasons using nMDS.

111 *Methodology:* Brownlow medallists from the 2001 to 2016 seasons were identified (n=19), with three separate
112 winners awarded in the 2003 season and two separate winners in the 2012 season. Fifteen individual performance
113 indicators were extracted for each player within the analysed period from a commercial source
114 (<http://www.afl.com.au/stats>). Using the individual performance indicators, a dissimilarity matrix was built with
115 the Bray-Curtis measure and plotted in two dimensions. The ordination surfaces were fitted using generalised
116 additive models that employed an isotopic smoother via thin-plate regression splines [18]. Further, ‘arrows’ were
117 used to denote the progression of profiles across the ordination surface using the *geom_point*, *geom_segment*, and
118 *geom_path* functions in the ‘ggplot2’ package [23].

119 *Results:* The dissimilarity matrix solution was reached after 20 iterations (stress = 0.15, rmse = 1.4×10^{-4} ,
120 maximum residual = 4.8×10^{-4}). The ordination plot of the matrix showed a high seasonal dissimilarity (Figure
121 2). Notably, the profile of the 2001 winner was markedly dissimilar to the 2002 winner. Further, despite two of
122 the three winners in the 2003 season possessing similar ordination positions, the third winner for that season
123 possessed a relatively dissimilar position (Figure 2). Following the 2003 season, the player profiles then
124 ‘zigzagged’ across the ordination surface, displaying large season-to-season dissimilarity. Relative to the seasonal
125 positioning of each player, the largest ranked dissimilarity was observed between the profiles of the 2014 and
126 2015 winners.

127 ****** INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE ******

128 *Conclusions:* Using nMDS, the results of this example showed high dissimilarity in the technical skill
129 characteristics of AFL Brownlow medallists between the 2001 to 2016 seasons; enabling three main conclusions
130 to be drawn. Firstly, the objective multivariate qualities that umpires deemed worthy of votes may have seasonally
131 changed. Secondly, the objective player profiles reflective of a dominant performance may be continually
132 evolving. Thirdly, changing rule interpretations throughout the analysed period may have influenced how players
133 obtained ball possession or interacted with their opponents, potentially impacting on an umpires' perceptions of
134 'best and fairest' play.

135 **Example 2 – Team Behaviour:** *Revealing dissimilarity in higher and lower ranked teams within the 2016*
136 *National Rugby League season*

137 *Introduction:* Rugby league (RL) is a team invasion sport characterised by a diverse set of multidimensional
138 performance qualities [24]. The elite competition in Australia and New Zealand is the National Rugby League
139 (NRL), which currently consists of 16 teams who compete in a 26-week 'premiership' season. Within this season,
140 teams are awarded two points for a win, with the accumulation of these points being used to rank teams on a
141 ladder (16 being the lowest rank and one being the highest rank). The eight highest ranked teams at the conclusion
142 of the premiership season then compete in a finals series for the opportunity to compete in the NRL grand final.
143 Resolving the technical dissimilarity of team's ranked high or low on the ladder may assist coaches with the design
144 of game-plans for prospective seasons. Additionally, objective insights into opponent dissimilarity would likely
145 assist with team selection strategies by enabling coaches to select rostered players to generate a (mis)match
146 between an opponent's characteristics. Using nMDS, this example aims to delineate the dissimilarity of teams
147 ranked high or low on the ladder at the conclusion of the 2016 NRL premiership season.

148 *Methodology:* Fifteen team performance indicators were extracted from a commercial source
149 (<http://www.nrl.com/stats>) for each of the 16 NRL teams following the 2016 season. Teams were *apriori* classified
150 into quartiles based upon their ladder ranking; these being the top four (1-4), upper middle four (5-8), lower middle
151 four (9-12) and bottom four (13-16). Using the team performance indicators, a dissimilarity matrix was built with
152 the Bray-Curtis measure and plotted in two dimensions. The ordination surfaces were fitted using generalised
153 additive models employing an isotopic smoother via thin-plate regression splines [18]. Accordingly, teams were
154 labelled and colour coded relative to their ladder position on the ordination using the *geom_label* and
155 *geom_segment* functions, while their progression across the ordination surface was illustrated using the
156 *geom_path* function [23].

157 *Results:* The dissimilarity matrix solution was reached after 20 runs (stress = 0.07, rmse = 3.6×10^{-6} , maximum
158 residual = 1.1×10^{-5}). The ordination plot shows a similarity in the positioning of teams relative to their quartile
159 (Figure 3). However, despite placing in quartile three, the West Tigers displayed a profile that expressed relative
160 similarity to the teams ranked in quartile two. Certain team profiles appeared more similar than others, with the
161 Raiders and Cowboys showing similarity relative to the other top four teams, while the Sea Eagles and Eels (who
162 are located below the Sea Eagles on Figure 3) possessed an almost identical positioning on the ordination surface.

163 ****** INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE ******

164 *Conclusions:* A high dissimilarity was observed between NRL teams grouped in different quartiles following the
165 2016 season. Specifically, teams in quartile one were located at the bottom left of the ordination surface, while
166 teams in quartile four located the top right of the ordination surface. This indicates that the top four teams
167 generated unique profiles relative to their lower performing opponents in the 2016 season. Further, the positioning
168 of certain teams on the ordination surface revealed similar profiles, which suggests similar game-plans and/or
169 player types.

170 **Example 3 – Competition Behaviour:** *The evolution of game-play in an Olympic basketball tournament from*
171 *2004 to 2016*

172 *Introduction:* Basketball is team court sport consisting of physical, technical and perceptual components [26, 27].
173 Arguably the most recognised international basketball tournament is within the summer Olympic Games. For
174 males, it was first introduced at the summer Olympics in 1936, with participating countries currently competing
175 against one another in two separate pools consisting of six teams. At the conclusion of this round robin ‘group
176 stage’, the four highest placed teams in each pool then compete in knockout quarterfinal, semi-final and ‘gold
177 medal’ games. Understanding how game-play in this tournament has evolved would be of interest to performance
178 analysts and coaches, as it would likely assist with the continued design of ‘contemporary’ game-plans.
179 Accordingly, this example examines the evolution of game-play in male Olympic basketball tournaments from
180 2004 to 2016.

181 *Methodology:* Twelve team performance indicators were collected from a commercially accessible source
182 (<http://www.eurobasket.com/Olympic-Games/basketball.asp>) for each male team participating in 2004, 2008,
183 2012 and 2016 summer Olympic Games. This resulted in 48 teams across the four Olympic Games. Using the
184 team performance indicators, a dissimilarity matrix was built with the Bray-Curtis measure and plotted in two
185 dimensions, with ordination surfaces being fit via generalised additive models employing an isotopic smoother

186 via thin-plate regression splines [18]. Additionally, convex hulls were overlaid on the ordination surface to
187 cluster each Olympic Games using the *geom_polygon* function [23], while teams were plotted on the ordination
188 surface using the *geom_point* function [23].

189 *Results:* The dissimilarity matrix solution was reached after 20 runs (stress = 0.21, rmse = 1.4×10^{-4} maximum
190 residual = 7.6×10^{-4}). Despite the 2004 and 2008 tournaments showing dissimilarity noted by the spread of teams
191 on the boundary of the convex hulls, team similarity progressively increases over the 12 years. Specifically, team
192 profiles are moving toward the top right corner of the ordination surface (Figure 4). Relative to the 2004, 2008
193 and 2012 tournaments, the 2016 tournament displayed the greatest similarity in the profiles of competing teams,
194 shown by their grouping within the purple convex hull (i.e., smaller surface area) (Figure 4).

195 ****** INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE ******

196 *Conclusions:* There was a distinctive progression in the positioning of team profiles on the ordination surface from
197 the 2004 tournament to the 2016 tournament. The 2016 season shows the highest relative similarity based on the
198 size of the convex hull, with teams clustering in the top right corner of the ordination surface. This indicates that
199 game-play in the Olympics has become more homogenised, with teams expressing similar profiles. It could be
200 speculated that the dominance shown by certain countries in this tournament may therefore be reducing, with the
201 team standards equalising as coaches become more strategically equipped to match the profiles of more dominant
202 countries. Beyond the confines of basketball, this example shows the power of nMDS to reveal the evolution of
203 competition dynamics both between teams and across multiple seasons.

204 **4. Discussion**

205 Using an analytical technique common to ecology, this study aimed to demonstrate the utility of nMDS in team
206 sport performance analysis. To achieve this aim, three original research examples were presented, each orienting
207 player (organism), team (aggregation of organisms) and competition (ecosystem) behaviours. Despite each
208 example yielding idiosyncratic findings, the collective results demonstrate the capability of nMDS to
209 simultaneously analyse and visualise non-linear behaviours extracted from multivariate datasets. Accordingly,
210 each example displays how coaches and competition administrators can obtain decisional support through the
211 interpretation of multivariate data signatures uncovered by nMDS, rather than generating inferences based upon
212 univariate model sets [25]. While it is known that sport scientists already engage in cross-disciplinary learning
213 (for an example, see Pion et al. [28]), this work offers a comprehensive basis for how they may wish to continually

214 draw upon analyses or theories ingrained in other quantitative sciences to assist with the resolution of questions
215 in their respective sub-discipline of sport science.

216 As briefly discussed in each example, the graphical output of nMDS is likely to be compelling for coaches or
217 sports administrators in numerous ways. Firstly, although example one shows the dissimilarity between AFL
218 Brownlow medallists, the methodology could be extended to inform team selection strategies by highlighting the
219 level of (dis)similarity between players on a roster or between players in a competition. This information, would
220 be critical when attempting to replicate certain player 'types' or when selecting players that generate a (mis)match
221 to an opponent in an effort to generate a competitive advantage. However, given the dyadic requirements of team
222 sports, it would be beneficial for coaches or analysts to consider player-to-player interactions when using nMDS
223 as a basis for team selection. The second example may assist coaches with the establishment of team profiles that
224 explicitly express (dis)similarity to an opposition, enabling them to establish both unique and innovative
225 multivariate profiles or to match the profile of a more dominant opponent. Lastly, the third example could be used
226 to show how environmental changes (such as rule changes) alter the dynamics of team profiles at the competition
227 level. Knowledge of this information is likely to offer sports administrators with an objective basis to assist with
228 decisions orienting how game-play may progress in prospective seasons.

229 This study offers a unique perspective of the transferability of analytical methods between scientific disciplines.
230 Indeed, it is possible that more common analyses within the sport sciences may have offered similar results by
231 observing magnitudinal changes between individual performance indicators across players, teams or competitions.
232 However, linear and univariate approaches are limited in what information they can extract from multivariate
233 datasets [25]. As shown, nMDS enables the analysis and visualisation of data in multiple dimensions
234 simultaneously, which is important within sports performance analysis when addressing questions that orient how
235 collective player, team or competition behaviours (dimension one) change over time (dimension two) [25].
236 Further, and perhaps practically most important for coaches and competition administrators, the graphical outputs
237 of nMDS enable the interpretation of object interactions, such as the similarity between players in a team, teams
238 in a competition or competitions over time [25].

239 Beyond team sports performance analysis and the three examples presented here, the authors perceive that nMDS
240 could yield implications for other areas of sport science. For example, it is common for strength and conditioning
241 specialists to record multiple metrics when quantifying training load [29]. The data properties of these metrics are
242 often diverse, with practitioners typically integrating continuous measures of external load such as distances run

243 above certain velocity thresholds with categorical measures of internal load such as perceived exertion [29].
244 Accordingly, given that nMDS is a rank-based approach, makes few assumptions about underlying data properties
245 and does not assume linear relationships between variables within a dataset [17], strength and conditioning
246 practitioners could use this ordination technique to simultaneously analyse and visualise multivariate training load
247 datasets to delineate relationships between athletes at different levels of experience (e.g. 1st year compared to +5
248 year athletes) or phases of a season(s). Concomitantly, it is common for talent identifiers to integrate both objective
249 and subjective measures to inform decisions surrounding player recruitment [30]. Given the likely diverse
250 properties of such data, nMDS may assist talent recruiters with the recognition of youngsters who express similar
251 multivariate qualities to elite senior (rostered) athletes. Specifically, the positioning of youngsters on an ordination
252 surface relative to their elite senior counterparts may enable the identification of similar player ‘types’, which
253 would be pertinent information when attempting to compensate weaknesses on a playing roster. However, despite
254 the promising utility of this analysis for the sports sciences, it does possess limitations that warrant resolution.
255 Primarily, it does not enable coaches to gain insights from qualitative skill qualities that would likely be of value
256 when basing decisions around factors such as player recruitment or team selection. Accordingly, while this
257 analysis is likely to offer quantitative support, coaches may wish to consider its use complementary to qualitative
258 sources to optimise its decisional support.

259 Analytical cross-disciplinary learning transfers have been discussed elsewhere [13]. Notably, Cutler et al. [31]
260 demonstrated the utility of the random forest algorithm (a machine learning technique used in computational
261 sciences) for classification and prediction in ecology. Additionally, Huang et al. [32] transferred analytical
262 knowledge from computational science to economics by using support vector machines to forecast stock market
263 variations. Coupled, these studies demonstrate the benefit of cross-disciplinary learning to address pertinent
264 research questions within their respective fields. Thus, while nMDS was the analytical technique discussed here,
265 a concomitant outcome of this work is to encourage sport scientists to ‘think outside the box’ when analysing
266 data. By doing so, it is conceivable that sport scientists can approach research questions with novel and informative
267 analyses, providing coaches with greater objective support.

268 **5. Acknowledgments**

269 Carl T. Woods, Sam Robertson, Neil French Collier, Anne L. Swinbourne and Anthony S. Leicht declare that
270 they have no conflict of interest. Furthermore, no funding was acquired or provided during the completion of this
271 work.

272 **References**

- 273 1. Magill RA, Anderson DI. Motor learning and control: concepts and applications. 10th ed. McGraw-Hill
274 Education; 2014.
- 275 2. Woodworth RS, Thorndike EL. The influence of improvement in one mental function upon the efficiency
276 of other functions. *Psychol. Rev.* 1901;8:247-61.
- 277 3. Causer J, Ford PR. “Decisions, decisions, decisions”: transfer and specificity of decision-making skill
278 between sports. *Cogn Process.* 2014;15:385-389.
- 279 4. Adolph KE. Learning in the development of infant locomotion. *Monogr Soc Res Child Dev.* 1997;62:1-158.
- 280 5. Lindeblad E, Nilsson S, Gustafson S, Svensson I. Assistive technology as reading interventions for children
281 with reading impairments with a one-year follow up. *Disabil Rehabil Assist Technol.* 2016; [Epub ahead of
282 print].
- 283 6. Breckwoldt J, Lingemann C, Wagner P. Resuscitation training for lay persons in first aid courses: transfer
284 of knowledge, skills and attitude. *Anaesthesist.* 2016;65:22-6.
- 285 7. Bonney E, Jelsma D, Ferguson G, Smits-Engelsman B. Variable training does not lead to better motor
286 learning compared to repetitive training in children with and without DCD when exposed to active video
287 games. *Res Dev Disabil.* 2017;62:124-36.
- 288 8. Rienhoff R, Hopwood MJ, Fischer L, Strauss B, Baker J, Schorer J. Transfer of motor and perceptual skills
289 from basketball to darts. *Front Psychol.* 2013;12:593.
- 290 9. Bullock N, Gulbin JP, Martin DT, Ross A, Holland T, Marino F. Talent identification and deliberate
291 programming in skeleton: ice novice to winter Olympian in 14 months. 2009; *J Sports Sci*;15:397-404.
- 292 10. Seifert L, Wattedled L, L’hermette M, Bideault G, Herault R, & Davids K. Skill transfer, affordances and
293 dexterity in different climbing environments. *Hum Mov Sci.* 2013;32:1339-52.
- 294 11. MacNamara A, Collins D. Second chances: investigating athletes’ experiences of talent transfer. *PLoS One.*
295 2015 doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0143592
- 296 12. Halson S, Martin DT, Gardner AS, Fallon K, Gulbin J. Persistent fatigue in a female sprint cyclist after a
297 talent-transfer initiative. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform.* 2006;1:65-9.
- 298 13. Ivanitskaya L, Clark D, Montgomery G, Primeau R. Interdisciplinary learning: process and outcomes.
299 *Innovative Higher Education.* 2002;27:95-11.

- 300 14. Duarte R, Araújo D, Correia V, Davids K. Sports teams as superorganisms: implications for sociobiological
301 models of behaviour for research and practice in team sports performance analysis. *Sports Med.*
302 2012;42:633-42.
- 303 15. De'arth G, Fabricius KE. Classification and regression trees: a powerful yet simple technique for ecological
304 data analysis. *Ecology.* 2000;81:3178-3192.
- 305 16. Stein M, Janetzko H, Seebacher D, et al. How to make sense of team sport data: from acquisition to data
306 modelling and research aspects. *Data.* 2017 doi: 10.3390/data2010002
- 307 17. Kenkel NC, Orloci L. Applying metric and nonmetric multidimensional scaling to ecological studies: some
308 new results. *Ecology.* 1986;67:919-928.
- 309 18. Hout MC, Goldinger SD, Brady KJ. *MM-MDS*: a multidimensional scaling database with similarity ratings
310 for 240 object categories from the massive memory picture database. *PLoS One.* 2014 doi:
311 org/10.1371/journal.pone.0112644
- 312 19. Oksanen J, Blanchet GF, Kindt R, et al. *Vegan*: community ecology package. 2015. [https://cran.r-](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/vegan)
313 [project.org/web/packages/vegan](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/vegan) of subordinate document. Accessed 22 Feb 2017.
- 314 20. Coutts AJ, Quinn J, Hocking J, Castagna C, Rampinini E. Match running performance in elite Australian
315 rules football. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2009;13:543-48.
- 316 21. Dawson B, Hopkinson R, Appleby B, Stewart G, Roberts C. Player movement patterns and game activities
317 in the Australian football league. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2004;7:278-91.
- 318 22. Woods CT, Raynor AJ, Bruce L, McDonald Z, Robertson S. The application of a multidimensional approach
319 to talent identification in Australian football. *J Sports Sci.* 2016;34:1340-5
- 320 23. Wickham H. Package 'ggplot2'. 2016. <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ggplot2> of subordinate
321 document. Accessed 22 Feb 2017.
- 322 24. Gabbett TJ. Effects of physical, technical, and tactical factors on final ladder position in semiprofessional
323 rugby league. *Int J Sports Physiol Perform.* 2014;9:680-88
- 324 25. Gauch HG. *Multivariate Analysis and Community Structure.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge;
325 1982.
- 326 26. Gomez MA, Lorenzo A, Sampaio J, Ibanez SJ, Ortega E. Game-related statistics that discriminant winning
327 and losing teams from the Spanish men's professional basketball teams. *Collegium Antropol.* 2008;32:315-
328 19.

- 329 27. Scanlan AT, Dascombe BJ, Reaburn P, Dalbo VJ. The physiological and activity demands experienced by
330 Australian female basketball players during competition. *J Sci Med Sport*. 2012;15:341-7.
- 331 28. Pion J, Hohmann A, Liu T, Lenoir M, Segers V. Predictive models reduce talent development costs in female
332 gymnastics. *J Sport Sci*. 2017;35:806-811.
- 333 29. Bourdon PC, Cardinale M, Murray A, et al. Monitoring athlete training loads: consensus statement. *Int J*
334 *Sports Physiol Perf*. 2017;12:161-70.
- 335 30. Mann D, Dehgansai N, Baker J. Searching for the elusive gift: advances in talent identification in sport. *Curr*
336 *Opin Psychol*. In-press. 2017 doi: 10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.04.016
- 337 31. Cutler DR, Edwards TC, Beard KH, Cutler A, Hess KT, Gibson J, Lawler JJ. Random forests for
338 classification in ecology. *Ecology*. 2007;88:2783-92.
- 339 32. Huang W, Nakamori Y, Wang SY. Forecasting stock market movement direction with support vector
340 machine. *Comput Oper Res*. 2005;32:2513-2522

341 **Figure 1.** An example of an ordination plot using nMDS of a dissimilarity matrix calculated from organism
342 behaviour in an ecosystem

343

344 **Figure 2.** The ordination plot using nMDS of a dissimilarity matrix calculated from individual performance
345 indicators of Brownlow medallists from 2001 to 2016

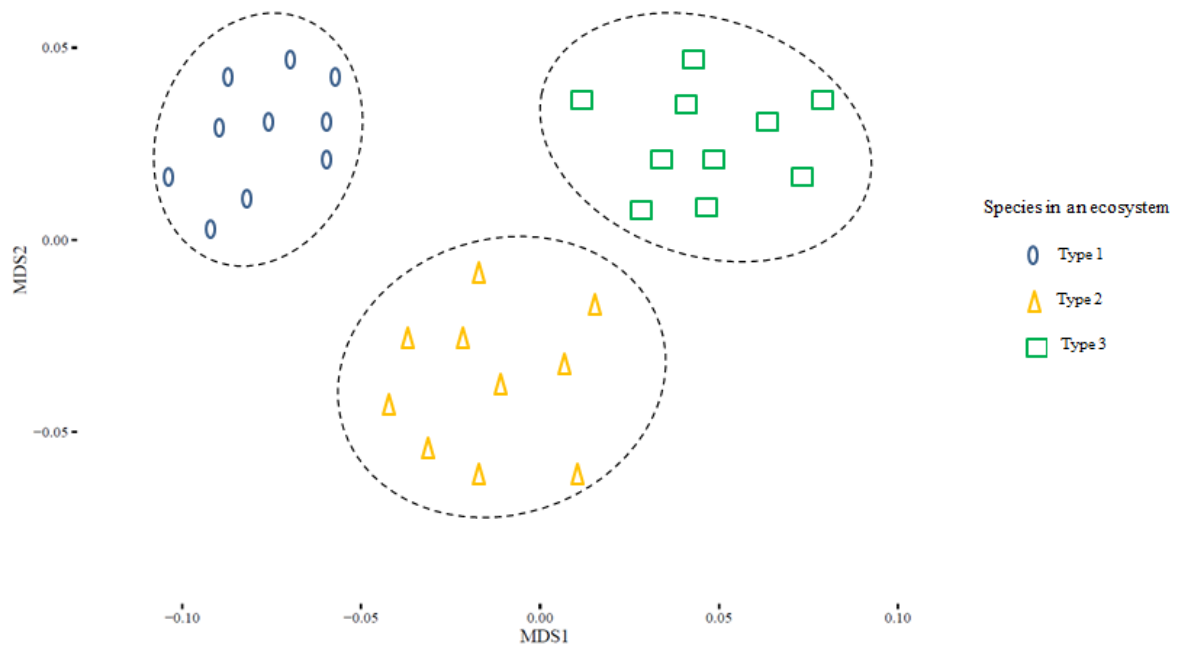
346

347 **Figure 3.** An ordination plot using nMDS of a dissimilarity matrix calculated from team performance indicators
348 of each NRL team in the 2016 season

349

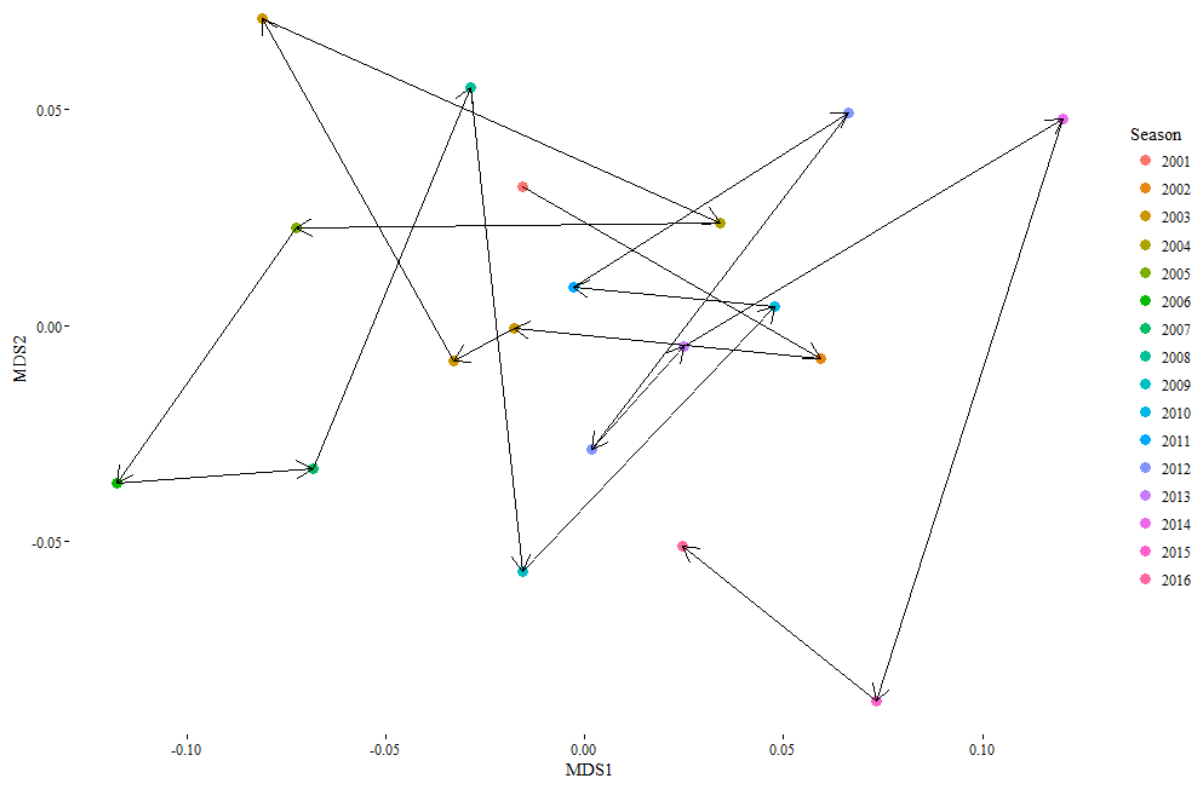
350 **Figure 4.** An ordination plot using nMDS of a dissimilarity matrix calculated from team performance indicators
351 for each country participating in the 2004, 2008, 2012 and 2016 male Olympic basketball tournaments

352



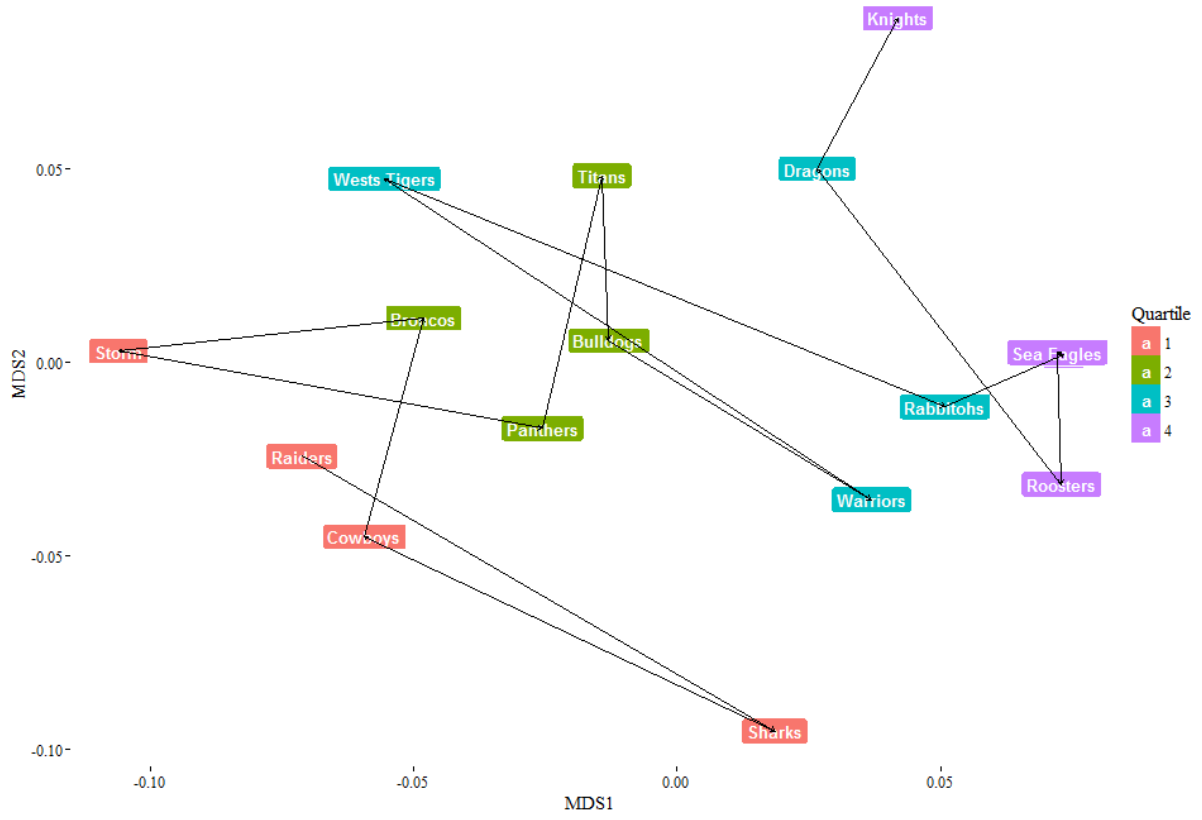
353

354



355

356



357

358

