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A novel approach to assessing validity in sports performance research: integrating expert practitioner opinion into the statistical analysis

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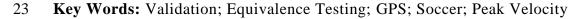
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### 1 Abstract

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3 **Purpose**: Maximal sprinting speed is decisive in soccer, placing great importance on the 4 valid measurement of this variable. Through equivalence testing, we used expert practitioner 5 opinion to evaluate 10-Hz Global Positioning System (GPS) validity for measuring maximal 6 sprinting speed. Methods: We surveyed practitioners on issues related to the measurement 7 of maximal sprinting speed and also assessed twelve elite youth soccer players performing 8 two maximal 40 m sprints, measured by 10-Hz GPS units and a criterion measure (100-Hz 9 Laser). Setting equivalence bounds as practitioner opinion of the practically acceptable 10 amount of measurement error for maximal sprinting speed, we assessed agreement between 11 GPS and Laser. Results: Survey respondents (n=50) reported using a combination of 12 methods for deriving maximal sprinting speed (tests, training, match) but the majority did 13 not assess system validity. The median value of practically acceptable amount of 14 measurement error for maximal sprinting speed was 0.20 m/s. Maximal sprinting speed was 15  $8.79 \pm 0.33$  m/s (Laser) and  $8.75 \pm 0.32$  m/s (GPS) and the mean difference was 0.04 (90%) 16 confidence interval -0.03 to 0.11) m/s. Equivalence testing using 0.2 m/s as lower (-0.2 m/s) 17 and upper (+0.2 m/s) thresholds, or as a range (-0.1 to +0.1 m/s), showed Radar Gun and GPS as most likely and likely equivalent measures, respectively. Conclusions: Assessed 18 19 against our expert-informed equivalence thresholds, GPS-measured maximal sprinting 20 speed is equivalent to that recorded by a criterion. When measuring maximal sprinting speed 21 over 40 m, GPS can be used with confidence.

22



# 24 Introduction

25 In soccer, maximal sprinting represents the most infrequent match activity recorded by elite male youth soccer players.<sup>1,2</sup> Despite this, the practical importance of sprinting is shown via 26 straight-line sprints preceding a high percentage of goals scored and match sprint distance 27 being greater for successful compared to unsuccessful teams.<sup>3</sup> As such, players' ability to sprint 28 29 at high velocities is decisive and therefore practitioners regularly use sprint tests to inform 30 training prescription and manage player physical preparation.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, the measurement and 31 interpretation of training and match distances in speed zones defined relative to players' maximal 32 sprinting speed, opposed to arbitrary zone classification, could help practitioners prescribe an 33 appropriate training stimulus that minimises negative consequences of an inaccurate prescription and quantification of workload.<sup>5-7</sup> 34

35 Fully automatic timing systems, laser guns and high-speed video are considered to be gold standards for measuring sprinting speed,<sup>8</sup> yet Global Positioning Systems (GPS) are more 36 accessible and easier to use in daily practice. As such, GPS are now frequently used in team sports 37 to measure and monitor player running velocities during training and matches.<sup>9</sup> However, it is 38 important that practitioners have confidence in systems used to measure maximal sprinting speed, 39 especially when systems are noncriterion measures.<sup>6</sup> Validity studies are therefore fundamental 40 41 in the development of alternate measures that save costs, facilitate analyses, and enable data fieldbased collection.<sup>10</sup> 42

43 Validity studies compare a new, or more practically feasible measure against a gold standard 44 (criterion), and if the difference in measures is sufficiently small, validity is assumed. For 45 example, the difference in 40 m maximal sprinting speed measured via 10-Hz GPS and a radar gun was trivial (-0.8%; 90% confidence interval -1.1 to -0.4%) and so GPS was 46 concluded to provide a valid measure of maximal sprinting speed.<sup>6</sup> While this study and 47 others<sup>11</sup> clearly represent a valued additions to the literature, between-system differences 48 were interpreted against standardised thresholds which are influenced by heterogeneity.<sup>12-</sup> 49 <sup>14</sup> Furthermore, effect (e.g., difference) magnitude should be evaluated according to its 50 51 practical relevance and a standardised scale may not be relevant to the research question.<sup>14</sup> 52 Indeed, team sport researchers and practitioners should not be constrained by interpreting 53 practical relevance via standardised thresholds. An alternate approach here could be the 54 gathering of information on what constitutes the smallest important difference through 55 gauging expert/end-user opinion<sup>15</sup> as practitioner insight can represent a catalyst for external 56 validity.<sup>16</sup>

57 Recently, equivalence testing has been suggested to have potential for advancing measurement research in exercise science.<sup>10</sup> This approach assesses whether two 58 59 measurement systems are statistically equivalent by comparing the differences against a pre-60 determined 'area of equivalence'. The concept of statistical equivalence is, however, heavily influenced by the choice of the equivalence region<sup>10</sup> and here the use of standardised 61 thresholds as benchmarks is considered a last resort.<sup>17</sup> Relying on standardised effect sizes 62 as justification from the smallest effect size of interest should therefore be avoided. What 63 may be of more<sup>13</sup> relevance to practitioners and researchers in sport and exercise science is 64 setting equivalence thresholds around the smallest numerical value, in raw units, that 65 66 experts perceive practically relevant. As such, the aims of the present study were twofold, 1) to survey expert opinion on issues surrounding the measurement of maximal sprinting speed 67 68 in elite soccer, and 2) to assess the validity of GPS as a measure of maximal sprinting speed 69 using equivalence testing informed by surveyed expert opinion.

## 70 Methods

# 71 Maximal Sprinting Speed Survey

72 To obtain information on issues related to the maximal sprinting speed measurement, we 73 conducted a short cross-sectional survey. Here, practitioners (sport scientists, strength and 74 conditioning coaches, and fitness coaches) currently working in elite soccer, were asked 75 about perception and practices of their teams maximal sprinting speed measurement. The 76 survey was circulated privately to known contacts with data collected using an online survey 77 platform (Online Surveys, formerly Bristol Online Surveys [BOS]). The survey consisted 78 of ten questions, covering two main areas: 1) introduction/ informed consent and 79 background information (Questions 1 to 5), and 2) issues related to the measurement of 80 maximal sprinting speed (Questions 6 to 10), of which all were multiple choice questions.

#### 81 Participants and Study Design for the Maximal Sprinting Speed Assessment

Twelve full-time male youth soccer players (age  $16.3 \pm 0.8$  years, body mass  $54.5 \pm 1.2$  kg, height  $173.9 \pm 6.2$ cm) were recruited from an elite academy. All players were participating in ~8 training sessions per week, combining soccer, strength and conditioning training, and competitive play. This observational study conformed to the Declaration of Helsinki and received ethics approval from the Aspire Zone Research Committee and the Anti-Doping Laboratory Institutional Review Board, Qatar (approval number E20140000012).

#### 88 Methodology

89 Validity of 10-Hz global positioning systems (GPS) units against a criterion measure (100-90 Hz Laser) was tested for maximal sprinting speed. All testing was undertaken on an outdoor 91 natural grass pitch and all players wore their regular soccer boots. Participants performed 92 two maximal 40-m sprints (Trial 1, Trial 2) with three minutes rest between efforts. Typical 93 errors for the between-trial differences were 0.13 (90% confidence interval 0.10 to 0.20) 94 m/s for Laser and 0.07 (0.06 to 0.11) m/s for GPS, and intraclass correlation coeffcients 95 were 0.85 (0.64 to 0.95) and 0.95 (0.88 to 0.98), respectively. Maximal sprinting speed was 96 assessed simultaneously via 10-Hz GPS (Catapult Optimeye S5, version 7.32) and Laser 97 (Laveg LDM 300C, Jenoptik, Germany). Each sprint was recorded using a hand-held digital 98 video recorder (SONY AX53 4K) to allow precise time alignment between GPS and Laser. 99 Each GPS unit was inserted into the manufacturer provided vest that was fitted tightly to 100 the players, holding the receiver between the scapulae. All devices were activated 15 min before data collection to allow acquisition of satellite signals in accordance with the 101 manufacturer's instructions.<sup>18</sup> The average horizontal dilution was  $0.68 \pm 0.04$  and the 102 103 average number of satellites per unit was  $12.0 \pm 0.0$ . Laser was calibrated with zero showing 104 the start of the 40 m measured sprint and was centred on the middle of the running lane. Laser 105 height was 1.2 m and all measurements were taken from the centre of the lens which was 3.1 m 106 behind the starting line. The laser beam was directed at the lower part of the players back. After 107 recording, GPS data were downloaded to a computer and analyzed using the manufacture's 108 software (Catapult Openfield Software, version 1.21.1).<sup>6</sup> The raw GPS velocity data are calculated using the Doppler-shift method.<sup>19</sup> Laser data were processed using the software 109 110 associated with the device (das3e). Displacement-time data were captured at 100-Hz and analyzed 111 with a 51-point moving average, and from this an instantaneous velocity trace was derived. The

velocity trace was used to establish the maximal velocity that occurred within the 40 m measuredsprint.

# 114 Statistical Analysis

115 All survey data are presented as response frequency (expressed as a percentage) or where 116 appropriate, the median and interquartile range (IQR). The peak value attained from either 117 Trial 1 or Trial 2 was used as the maximal sprinting speed recorded by the two different measurement systems. Using the *TOSTER* package,<sup>13</sup> we assessed for statistical equivalence 118 119 between our two measurement systems using two one-sided tests (TOST), as per the 120 guidelines for assessing agreement between a surrogate measure (GPS) with a known criterion measure (Laser).<sup>10</sup> For equivalence testing, users need to define the targeted 121 region.<sup>10</sup> so we set the lower and upper equivalence bounds from the median value that 122 123 experts surveyed perceived as the acceptable amount of measurement error. Here, the 124 median value of 0.20 m/s was represented by the upper end of the response category given 125 that question on the acceptable amount of measurement error contained categories 126 encompassing a range of measurement error (e.g., 0.15 - 0.20 m/s). As such, our equivalence bounds were specified before results are known.<sup>13</sup> Given that measurement error is random 127 (i.e., + or -), we acknowledge the potential for ambiguity when asking survey respondents 128 129 on the practically acceptable amount of measurement error. As such, we assessed for 130 equivalence using the median value as the lower and upper equivalence bounds (-0.20 m/s, 131 +0.20 m/s) and also as a range spanning 0.2 m/s, giving lower and upper equivalence bounds of -0.10 m/s and +0.10 m/s, respectively. Results of equivalence tests can be obtained by 132 133 mere visual inspection of the confidence interval,<sup>13</sup> with statistical equivalence between the 134 two measures concluded when the 90% confidence interval around the mean difference excludes the lower and upper equivalence bounds.<sup>13</sup> However, to avoid test interpretation 135 via the dichotomy of null hypothesis significance testing,<sup>20,21</sup> we assessed equivalence on a 136 continuous scale. This was done via conversion of the t statistics from both one-sided tests 137 138 to a probability (via the t-distribution), with subsequent equivalence probability interpreted using a one-sided calibrated Bayes.<sup>22-24</sup> Here, probabilities were interpreted using the 139 140 following scale: 75–95%, likely; 95-99.5%, very likely; >99.5%, most likely,<sup>25</sup> and equivalence was indicated by the lower probability.<sup>10,13</sup> Analyses were performed in R 141

(version 3.4.1, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Uncertainty in all
estimates is presented as 90% confidence intervals.

144

# 145 **Results**

146 Median time (min:sec) to complete the survey was 02:57 (02:08,4:27) and of 50 147 respondents, 60% were sports scientists, 32% fitness coaches, and 8% strength and 148 conditioning coaches (Question two). Respondents had a median of 8 (5,12) years' 149 experience working in elite soccer (Question three) and worked at predominantly European 150 soccer clubs (76%) (Question five). Where respondents selected a combination of methods 151 for deriving maximal sprinting speed (Question nine), the majority of responses were for 152 the combination of match and training (55%). The median value for the practically 153 acceptable amount of measurement error for maximal sprinting speed (Question ten) was 154 0.20 (0.10, 0.25) m/s. For this question, two respondents chose 'Other' and provided exact 155 values of 5% and 0.6 km/h, respectively; the latter of these values was included in the 156 appropriate answer category giving a total of 49 answers for this question (Figure 1).

Sprint times were  $8.72 \pm 0.34$  m/s (Trial 1) and  $8.71 \pm 0.28$  m/s (Trial 2) for Laser, and  $8.69 \pm 0.32$  m/s (Trial 1) and  $8.72 \pm 0.29$  m/s (Trial 2) for GPS. The mean of the players' fastest sprint from either Trial was  $8.79 \pm 0.33$  m/s (Laser) and  $8.75 \pm 0.32$  m/s (GPS) and the mean difference was 0.04 (90% confidence interval -0.03 to 0.11) m/s. Equivalence of maximal sprinting speeds measured by Laser and GPS was most likely (probability 100%) when using 0.2 m/s as the lower and upper thresholds (Figure 2a), and likely (probability 93.7%) when using 0.2 m/s as a range (Figure 2b).

#### 164 **Discussion**

Maximal sprinting speed is key in soccer, so measurement validity is needed, especially when systems are not a gold standard measure. Therefore, in this study we employed a novel approach for assessing GPS validity as a measure of maximal sprinting speed by using equivalence testing informed by expert practitioner opinion. We found that GPS-measured maximal sprinting speed was likely to very likely equivalent to a criterion, gold standard measure and therefore practitioners should have confidence in GPS as a measure maximal sprinting speed. Additionally, our survey results provide valuable insights into current practices surrounding the
measurement of maximal sprinting speed in elite soccer.

173 While previous work has shown validity of 10-Hz GPS for measuring maximal sprinting speed,<sup>6</sup> criterion comparison was made via standardisation. Standardised scales, however, 174 lack practical context and may therefore not be relevant to the research question.<sup>14</sup> This is 175 176 by no means a criciticism as establishing externally valid minimum important differences 177 represents a huge challenge to sport and exercise science as changes in one variable need to 178 be assessed against subsequent changes in a relevant anchor such as performance.<sup>15</sup> Use of 179 expert opinion therefore represents a credible approach to informing the definition of 180 practically important differences or, in the context of our study, an acceptable amount of 181 measurement error for measures relevant to sports performance.<sup>26</sup> Generally, reliability studies in this research domain have entailed, to a great extent, the indiscriminate 182 calculation of Pearson's correlation coefficients,<sup>27</sup> or the definition of the typical error of 183 the estimate expressed in percentage points whose magnitude assessment may be irrelevant 184 for both the researcher and practitioner.<sup>28</sup> Notwithstanding the deceptive simplicity and 185 specious practicality of calculating these common statistics, failure to express the actual 186 187 amount of measurement error adopting a meaningful metric may limit practitioner definition 188 of what represents a true population increase in the response of interest deemed substantially greater than a predefined practically important difference.<sup>26</sup> Further, tests of mean 189 190 difference are common in agreement research but may not neccessarily represent the best statistical approach.<sup>10</sup> Equivalence testing has been proposed as a more appropriate method 191 for evaluating agreement among measures than mean difference tests; however, choosing 192 and justifying equivalence regions is a difficult aspect of this approach.<sup>10</sup> Indeed, previous 193 194 studies using equivalence testing have reported, yet not justified the smallest effect size of interest for the equivalence bounds.<sup>13</sup> Therefore, we attempted to overcome these 195 196 methological concerns by setting our equivalence bounds on what a relatively large sample 197 of experienced practitioners perceived to be an acceptable amount of measurement error 198 when measuring maximal sprinting speed. This novel and rigourous approach enabled us to 199 conclude that the GPS-measured maximal sprinting speed is likely to most likely equivalent 200 to the speed recorded by a gold standard measure (Laser).

201 For accurate assessment of maximal sprint speed, fully automatic timing systems represent the 202 gold standard with dual-beamed photocells, laser guns and high-speed video timing representing cheaper, more practical tools with acceptable accuracy.<sup>8</sup> The results presented in this study lend 203 204 the first empricial support of this observation given that 84% of survey respondents perceived 205 either laser/radar guns, fully automatic timing systems and timing gates as gold standard measures. 206 Only 16% of respondents regarded GPS as gold standard despite these systems being the most 207 frequent system (34%) used to measure maximal sprinting speed in the field. Our findings help to 208 address this apparent disconnect as practitioners can be assured of the validity of maximal sprinting 209 speeds recorded by 10-Hz GPS. The infrequent nature of system validity checks observed in our 210 study possibly reflects a lack of available time given that practitioners are indeed cognisant of the 211 need for validity assessments.<sup>29</sup>

212 The most common single method to derive maximal sprinting speed in our survey was fitness tests. 213 The need for sprint testing was recently questioned as peak speeds recorded during matches were 214 faster than when recorded during a 40-m maximal running test, albeit in semi-professional senior 215 players.<sup>9</sup> These findings contrast with previous work whereby highly trained youth footballers' 216 maximal match speeds were ~90% of the speed attained on a 40-m sprint test.<sup>30 31</sup> In light of these 217 equivocal findings, it is encouraging that survey respondents derived maximal sprinting speeds 218 from a variety of scenarios (e.g., tests, training, matches). Such an approach will help to ensure an 219 on-going calibration of maximal speeds, which is of vital importance if these speeds are used to 220 inform the classification of relative speed zones.<sup>6</sup>

# 221 **Practical Applications and Conclusion**

222 Despite not being perceived as a gold standard measure of maximal sprinting speed by the 223 experts we surveyed, speeds recorded by 10-Hz GPS were equivalent to a gold standard 224 measure, thereby supporting validity. Utilising an approach that overcomes methodological 225 concerns with traditional validation studies, our data therefore strengthen the confidence<sup>6</sup> 226 practitioners can take from using GPS to assess maximal sprinting speed. Furthermore, 227 using GPS to measure maximal sprinting speed during fitness tests negates the need for 228 more expensive and less accessible testing equipment, resulting in less time burdensome 229 tests. Whether or not practitioners continue to use dedicated sprint tests to assess maximal 230 sprinting speeds may well depend on the purpose of the test. For example, dedicated

231 sprinting tests clearly have worth if used to benchmark physical progression but may well 232 be unnecessary if the sole purpose is to establish maximal speeds to inform relative training 233 and match activity zones. Indeed, our survey shows that fitness tests are no longer the sole 234 method used by practitioners for measuring maximal sprinting speeds. As training and 235 match data are now used by practitioners to assess maximal speeds, future research should 236 build on our findings by examining the whether maximal speeds are more frequently 237 occuring during training or matches. Such research would have important implications for 238 informing player preparation and performance evaluation strategies.

#### 239 Acknowledgments

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#### 243 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Responses (n=49) for the practically acceptable amount of measurement error for
 maximal sprinting speed (Question ten)

Figure 2a. Mean difference (m/s) and uncertainty for the difference (90% confidence interval) in maximal sprinting speed measured by Laser and GPS. The black vertical dashed lines represents the expert-informed statistical equivalence region of 0.2 m/s, expressed as the lower and upper threshold.

Figure 2b. Mean difference (m/s) and uncertainty for the difference (90% confidence interval) in maximal sprinting speed measured by Laser and GPS. The black vertical dashed lines represents the expert-informed statistical equivalence region of 0.2 m/s, expressed as a range.

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