

Manuscript Title: Knowledge of task end-point influences pacing and performance during simulated rugby league match-play

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Purpose:** To examine the influence of knowledge of exercise duration on pacing and
3 performance during simulated rugby league match-play. **Methods:** Thirteen male university
4 rugby players completed three simulated rugby league matches (RLMSP-i) on separate days in
5 a random order. In a control trial, participants were informed that they would be performing 2
6 x 23 min bouts (separated by 20 min) of the RLMSP-i (CON). In a second trial, participants
7 were informed that they would be performing 1 x 23 min bout of the protocol, but were then
8 asked to perform another 23 min bout (DEC). In a third trial, participants were not informed of
9 the exercise duration and performed 2 x 23 min bouts (UN). **Results:** Distance covered and
10 high intensity running was higher in CON (4813 ± 167 m; 26 ± 4.1 m·min⁻¹) than DEC (4764
11 ± 112 m; 25.2 ± 2.8 m·min⁻¹) and UN (4744 ± 131 m; 24.4 m·min⁻¹). Compared to CON, high
12 intensity running and peak speed was typically higher for DEC in bout 1 and lower in bout 2
13 of the RLMSP-i, whilst UN was generally lower throughout. Similarly, DEC resulted in an
14 increased heart rate, blood lactate and rating of perceived exertion than CON in bout 1, whereas
15 these variables were lower throughout the protocol in UN. **Conclusions:** Pacing and
16 performance during simulated rugby league match-play is dependent on an accurate
17 understanding of the exercise end-point. Applied practitioners should consider informing
18 players of their likely exercise duration to maximise running.

19

20 **Key Words:** Deception. Team Sports. Fatigue. Rating of Perceived Exertion.

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26 **Introduction**

27 Pacing, defined as the distribution of energy expenditure during athletic competition, has been
28 well-defined in continuous ‘closed-loop’ exercise¹. Indeed, an athlete’s pacing strategy is
29 fundamental to success in events where maintaining the highest average speed is the goal².
30 However, in team sports that comprise different actions such as standing, walking, jogging,
31 sprinting and tackling, pacing is less well understood.

32

33 In rugby league, the amount and type of work that athletes complete appears to be related to
34 playing position³, playing standard⁴, nature of the opposition⁵, playing home or away⁵ and
35 whether the player is playing for the whole match or part of it⁶. Furthermore, running intensity
36 fluctuates during a match more stochastically than ‘continuous’ exercise⁷, but in a predictable
37 enough manner such that common traits are apparent. That is, there is often a gradual reduction
38 in total and high-intensity running over the course of a game, and a period of repeated high-
39 intensity efforts is followed by a transient reduction in energy expenditure relative to the match
40 average⁸.

41

42 Accordingly, it appears that several different variables influence an athlete’s movement
43 characteristics such that they ‘pace’ their efforts during exercise. However, the precise way in
44 which athletes do this is unclear. During continuous exercise, it is thought that athletes regulate
45 their exercise in accordance with the principle of teleoanticipation⁹, whereby work is
46 distributed based on a complex interplay between a feed-forward template developed for the
47 exercise and feedback from peripheral and central physiological systems. For this model of
48 exercise regulation, the athlete must know the exercise duration to adopt an appropriate pacing
49 strategy that enables safe completion^{10,11}. Interestingly, deception of the exercise end-point

50 affects performance during both continuous exercise¹² and repeated sprints¹³, such that more
51 work is completed in the early stages of exercise.

52

53 However, only one study has studied this phenomenon when athletes are required to perform
54 intermittent activity specific to team sports. Gabbett et al.¹⁴ examined the performance effects
55 of accurately informing participants of the duration of a small sided game (~12 min) compared
56 to deceiving them (players were informed that it would last for 6 min). They reported that
57 players covered greater distance when they were deceived about the exercise duration (130.6
58 m·min⁻¹) rather than informed of it accurately (123.3 m·min⁻¹), whilst they also performed ~2
59 m·min⁻¹ more high-intensity running in the initial 6 min of the game. Thus, an athlete's pacing
60 strategy is seemingly influenced by a manipulated understanding of exercise duration in
61 stochastic and intermittent sports. However, Gabbett and colleagues' use of short duration
62 training activities limits the extrapolation of their findings to match play, given that an
63 individual's pacing strategy is clearly influenced by exercise duration¹. Furthermore, match
64 play includes physical contacts and collisions, which are known to add a significant
65 physiological cost to exercise¹⁵, and influence work done via running¹⁶. Finally, Gabbett et al.¹⁴
66 did not include any physiological measurements, thus mechanistic insight on changes in
67 running during team sports are limited. Whilst this work provided valuable information on
68 pacing during training, it remains unclear whether an individual's understanding of exercise
69 duration influences work during activity more closely aligned to the demands of rugby.
70 Accordingly, the aim of this study was to examine the influence of knowledge of exercise
71 duration on pacing strategy and physiological responses during simulated rugby league match
72 play. It was hypothesised that participants would perform optimally (i.e. increase their running
73 speed and distance) when they were accurately informed of the exercise duration.

74

75 **Methods**

76 Participants

77 After approval from the Faculty of Life Sciences Research Ethics Committee, 13 male
78 university standard rugby league and union players volunteered to participate in the study (age
79 = 22 ± 3 years, stature = 1.77 ± 0.02 m, body mass = 82.7 ± 8.0 kg, predicted $\dot{V}O_{2\max} = 54 \pm 4$
80 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$). All participants provided written informed consent and completed a health
81 questionnaire before starting the study. Participants engaged in rugby related training for
82 approximately 4 hours and participated in one competitive match per week.

83

84 Design

85 Participants completed four visits in a repeated measures design. On the initial visit,
86 participants completed a multi-stage fitness test¹⁷ before familiarisation with an isokinetic
87 dynamometer and the rugby league movement simulation protocol (RLMSP-i). For the
88 RLMSP-i, familiarisation required the participants to complete two cycles of activity. In the
89 following three visits, in a random order, participants completed the same RLMSP-i where
90 they were: a) accurately informed of the exercise duration (CON); b) deceived of the exercise
91 duration (DEC); c) not told how long the exercise duration would be (UN). Each visit was
92 separated by between three and seven days and performed at the same time of day. Participants
93 were instructed to refrain from strenuous exercise in the 48 h before each trial, and completed
94 a food diary in the 48 h before the first visit, which they were then asked to replicate before
95 subsequent trials.

96

97 Methodology

98 On an artificial 3G playing surface, participants completed the RLMSP-i, which accurately
99 replicates the average speed, distance and playing time of elite interchange rugby league

100 players¹⁸. Before the protocol, participants performed a 10 min standardised warm-up
101 consisting of varied running intensities and dynamic stretches. Environmental conditions were
102 recorded for each trial. CON, DEC and UN were performed at a similar temperature ($25.1^{\circ}\text{C} \pm$
103 4.7°C , $24.1^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2.4^{\circ}\text{C}$, $22.6^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2.9^{\circ}\text{C}$) and relative humidity ($32.2\% \pm 10\%$, $30.3\% \pm 7.1\%$,
104 $33.8\% \pm 7.9\%$).

105

106 The simulation protocol consists of 2 x 23 min bouts of intermittent exercise separated by 20
107 min. Running alone, participants were instructed to perform various activities in time with an
108 audio signal from a CD, with distances demarcated by cones positioned on a 28.5 m track,
109 details for which have been described in detail elsewhere¹⁸. Before the protocol, participants
110 were given standardised instructions that were specific to each trial. Briefly, in CON,
111 participants were instructed that they would be performing 2 x 23 min exercise bouts. In DEC,
112 participants were told that they would be performing 1 x 23 min bout, but upon completion of
113 this bout were asked to complete a further 23 min. In UN, participants were told that they would
114 be exercising for an unknown period of time up to 80 min, but again performed 2 x 23 min
115 bouts. Thus, participants completed the same exercise protocol in each trial, but received
116 different instructions on the exercise duration. In each trial a clock was made visible to the
117 participants to gauge the duration of the exercise bout. Participants were informed that they
118 could view this clock at any point to gauge their remaining exercise time. However, we did not
119 prompt participants to view the clock, or their remaining time, throughout the protocol.

120

121 During the protocol, movement speeds and heart rate (HR) were recorded using a global
122 positioning system (GPS) positioned in a custom made vest positioned between the
123 participant's scapulae (MinimaxX S5, firmware 6.75, Catapult Innovations, Melbourne,
124 Australia). Total distance, high-intensity running ($> 14 \text{ km}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) sprint speed and average HR

125 were calculated and analysed per quartile of each 23 min exercise bout (~ 5.75 min). These
126 variables possess adequate reliability to detect a meaningful change in performance (CV% =
127 1.1-2.9%¹⁸). Satellite availability during experimental trials was 12-19. A rating of perceived
128 exertion (RPE) was provided at the end of each quartile, while blood lactate was recorded from
129 a fingertip capillary blood sample (Lactate Pro, Arkray, Kyoto, Japan) ~ 5 min before the
130 protocol and immediately after each 23 min bout. Measured RPE was subsequently used to
131 calculate a 'hazard score'¹⁹, which is a product of multiplying the given RPE by the remaining
132 duration of exercise (for example, an RPE measured half way through the protocol was
133 multiplied by 0.5).

134

135 Peak isokinetic knee extension torque at 60 deg·s⁻¹ (Biodex Multi-Joint Sytem 3, Biodex
136 Medical, USA) was also recorded ~ 1 h before and ~ 30 min after exercise, with the peak value
137 from five repetitions of the dominant limb taken for analysis. Participants were restrained to
138 minimise any extraneous movement, with the dynamometer lever arm positioned at the
139 participants' malleoli. The mass of the limb was recorded to allow for gravitational correction
140 of recorded torque, and participants received visual feedback of their torque production to
141 encourage maximal effort. The reliability of peak torque measured in our laboratory is CV% =
142 4.2%.

143

144 Statistical analysis

145 All data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Changes in movement, physiological
146 and perceptual responses to the RLMSP-i were analysed using qualitative inferences based on
147 effect sizes and associated 90% confidence intervals²⁰. Effects were classified as small (mean
148 difference greater than 0.3 x pooled SD), moderate (0.9 x pooled SD) or large (1.6 x pooled
149 SD), with the following thresholds for likelihood based on confidence intervals; <0.5% most

150 unlikely, 0.5-5% very unlikely, 5-25% unlikely, 25-75% possibly, 75-95% likely, 95-99.5%
151 very likely, >99.5% most likely. Statements based on the size and likelihood of an observed
152 effect are made in italics for clarity, whilst differences are presented as the change; $\pm 90\%$
153 confidence interval.

154

155 **Results**

156 There was no trial order effect observed for the measured dependent variables (effects were
157 either *trivial* or *unclear*).

158

159

160 Movement characteristics during the RMPSP-i

161 From the first to the second exercise bout, there was a *most likely moderate* decline in distance
162 covered in CON ($-2.6; \pm 1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), with a *most likely large* and *very large* decline in UN ($-$
163 $3.8; \pm 1.3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and DEC ($-4.0; \pm 1.4 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), respectively. For high intensity running,
164 there was a *most likely small, moderate, and large* decline between bouts for CON ($-2.5 ; \pm 0.7$
165 $\text{m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), UN ($-2.7; \pm 1.1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and DEC ($-3.4; \pm 1.1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), respectively.

166

167 There was a *possible small* decrease in the total distance covered in the RLMSP-i during the
168 DEC trial compared to CON ($-49.1; \pm 56.9 \text{ m}$), but no difference between CON and UN or
169 DEC and UN (Figure 1a). However, for high intensity running, the difference between CON
170 and UN was *possibly moderate* ($-1.6; \pm 2.0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$), and *possibly small* ($-0.8; \pm 1.2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$)
171 between CON and DEC and DEC and UN, respectively (Figure 1).

172

173 *****Insert Figure 1 about here*****

174

175 Specific meaningful differences in pacing during the RLMSP-i are shown in Figure 2. Most
176 notably, DEC resulted in participants covering a *moderately lower* (-3.4; ± 2.2 m·min⁻¹)
177 distance in the initial quartile of the second bout of exercise, and generally less high intensity
178 running over the second bout (but most notably in the final quartile). In the UN trial, there was
179 a general *small* decline in distance covered and high intensity running compared to CON in
180 each quartile, with a larger difference observed in the final quartile of the protocol (-3.2; ± 2.6
181 m·min⁻¹). The peak speed that participants achieved in each quartile was *possibly* higher in
182 DEC for bout 1, but lower for bout 2, particularly in the final quartile (-1.3; ± 1 km·h⁻¹). Much
183 like HIR, UN resulted in a *possible* reduction in peak speed across quartiles, but especially in
184 the final quartile of the protocol (-1.8; ± 1.1 km·h⁻¹).

185

186 *****Insert Figure 2 about here*****

187

188

189 Physiological and perceptual responses

190 Heart rate and RPE was *possibly* higher in in the final quartile of bout 1 in DEC compared to
191 CON (3.8; ± 5.8 b·min⁻¹). In UN, heart rate was *possibly* lower than CON in the final quartile
192 of bout 2 (-4.1; ± 7.4 b·min⁻¹), whilst RPE was *likely* lower for most of the quartiles of the
193 RLMSP-i. The calculated hazard score was *likely/very likely* lower in all quartiles of the
194 protocol in UN compared to CON. DEC resulted in a *possible* and *very likely* increase in the
195 hazard score in quartiles 3 (0.2; ± 0.4 au) and 4 (0.4; ± 0.3 au) of bout 1, respectively (see Table
196 1).

197

198 At the end of bout 1, blood lactate concentration was *possibly* higher in DEC compared to CON
199 (1; ± 1 mmol·l⁻¹), and lower in UN compared to CON (1.8; ± 1.4 mmol·l⁻¹). At the end of bout

200 2, there was a *likely moderately* higher blood lactate concentration in CON compared to UN
201 and DEC (Table 1). *Small* decrements in isokinetic peak torque of the knee extensors after the
202 RLMSP-i were apparent in the CON and DEC trials only (Table 2).

203

204 *****Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here*****

205

206 **Discussion**

207 This is the first study to examine the influence of knowledge of the task end-point on pacing
208 during exercise designed to simulate the match demands of a contact team sport. Our data
209 indicate that an individual's understanding of the exercise duration is a key determinant of
210 pacing strategy and performance during this type of exercise. Specifically, participants covered
211 the greatest distance and performed more high intensity running when they were correctly
212 informed of their exercise duration, whilst the opposite was true when participants were
213 unaware of the exercise duration. With regard to the pacing strategy adopted during the
214 RLMSP-i, participants covered less distance, performed less high intensity running and
215 attained a lower peak sprint speed in most bout quartiles compared to when they were correctly
216 informed of the exercise duration. Contemporaneous changes in the physiological and
217 perceptual responses to movement tended to reflect the change in external load observed in
218 each condition.

219

220 The general reduction in exercise intensity in UN was also associated with a reduced RPE and
221 blood lactate concentration throughout the RLMSP-i compared to CON. Our observation that
222 individuals voluntarily lower their exercise intensity and physiological exertion when they are
223 unaware of the exercise duration is consistent with previous research in continuous²¹ and
224 repeated-sprint exercise¹³. This down regulation of pacing strategy is thought to be the

225 consequence of participants maintaining a metabolic reserve to reach the unknown exercise
226 end-point without premature exhaustion or severe disturbance to homeostasis²². According to
227 contemporary pacing theories^{9,10,11,23,24}, individuals are thought to undertake exercise with a
228 pre-set template of their exercise intensity, which is a function of their understanding of the
229 exercise duration and previous experience. However, during exercise this template undergoes
230 dynamic alterations based on feedback to the central nervous system from peripheral structures
231 regarding the amount of homeostatic disturbance²⁵. The sum of these afferent signals is thought
232 to be reflected in an individual's RPE, which can then be continually compared to the
233 'template' RPE set before exercise¹¹. As such, it is unsurprising that participants adopted a
234 lower RPE – and indeed attained an average RPE of only 14 at the end of the RLMSP-i - in the
235 face of an unknown exercise duration in the present study. We propose that this would ensure
236 a sufficient metabolic reserve was maintained to complete upcoming unknown events with
237 minimal risk of a severe disturbance to homeostasis. Indeed, that participants' isokinetic
238 muscle function remained unchanged after completing the RLMSP-i in the UN condition
239 indicates minimal fatigue was present. This seemingly resulted in a sub-optimal performance
240 given that participants completed 1.4% less distance, 6.2% less high-intensity running, and
241 produced a maximal sprint that was 4.8% lower than when they were correctly informed of the
242 exercise duration.

243

244 Further evidence that participants maintained a significant metabolic reserve in the UN trial is
245 the lack of an end-spurt. That is, participants failed to increase their running speed towards the
246 end of the protocol, as is commonly observed during several types of self-paced exercise²⁶. An
247 end-spurt results from a reduced uncertainty of the remaining exercise duration, and thus no
248 metabolic reserve needs to be maintained and motor unit recruitment and RPE increases with
249 a reduced threat of homeostatic failure¹¹. This relationship between exercise intensity, RPE and

250 remaining exercise time has been described using a ‘hazard score’, which is the product of
251 remaining exercise duration and momentary RPE¹⁹. Whilst in events of known duration
252 individuals are willing to increase exercise intensity when the end-point approaches (as the
253 hazard score will be low – see Table 1), it seems that when participants are unaware of the
254 exercise duration during simulated team sport exercise, the possibility of an extended exercise
255 duration results in a hazard score which cannot be calculated and thus an end-spurt does not
256 occur. Our results support this assertion, as the calculated hazard score was consistently lower
257 in the UN trial.

258

259 Interestingly, an end-spurt was evident in the CON and DEC trials, but this occurred at different
260 times. More specifically, participants increased their peak speed in the final quartile of bout 1
261 in DEC (the time they believed the protocol would finish), whereas this occurred at the end of
262 bout 2 in CON. The end-spurt in DEC coincided with participants exhibiting a higher hazard
263 score than CON, presumably because the deception created a mismatch between the perceived
264 and actual time remaining. Participants also seemed to increase their exercise intensity across
265 bout 1 in DEC compared to CON, whilst this condition produced the highest peak sprint speed
266 of all trials. However, much like UN, deception of the exercise end-point seemed to result in a
267 pacing strategy that was sub-optimal across the two exercise bouts of the RLMSP-i, as peak
268 speed was reduced in bout 2, and participants completed 1.1% and 4% less distance covered
269 and high-intensity running, respectively.

270

271 Whilst our findings are consistent with others who have examined knowledge of the exercise
272 end-point on endurance^{21,26,27}, repeated-sprint performance¹³ and repeated maximal voluntary
273 contractions²⁸, they are different to the only study to investigate the effect of knowledge of task
274 end-point in team sport athletes. Gabbett et al.¹⁴ reported that rugby players covered a greater

275 total distance and high intensity running during small-sided games when they were deceived
276 compared to when the duration of exercise was known. Participants also increased relative
277 distance during the unknown compared to known condition, although the unknown condition
278 comprised more low intensity activity. The reason for the discrepant findings of Gabbett et al.¹⁴
279 are not clear, although it was proposed that their participants were likely to have a prior
280 knowledge of the usual duration of training games, and thus an ‘unknown’ and ‘deception’ trial
281 might have had limited influence on participants’ pacing strategy. Furthermore, the shorter
282 exercise duration (~6-12 min) employed by Gabbett et al.¹⁴ might have encouraged a different
283 pacing strategy to that observed in the present study. Indeed, shorter exercise durations are
284 typically associated with an ‘all-out’ pacing strategy¹, rather than the even pacing observed
285 here.

286

287 Practical Applications

288 For the first time we provide evidence that contact team sport players regulate their movement
289 activity based on an understanding of the match end-point, adopting a pacing strategy similar
290 to other forms of closed-looped exercise. We believe this has potential applied implications for
291 team sports athletes. Most importantly, to maximise running, team sport players who have the
292 potential to be interchanged should be informed of their likely exercise duration. This might
293 include telling an interchange player how long their bout will be (or indeed how many bouts
294 they are likely to be involved with) or accurately informing players that they will be playing a
295 whole match. Where possible, practitioners might also consider providing players with regular
296 information on how far away they are from being interchanged to allow an end-spurt in exercise
297 intensity to occur. Interestingly, if increased exercise intensity in a single bout is desirable, this
298 can potentially be achieved by telling the athlete they are exercising for a shorter duration.

299 However, this is likely to have implications for any subsequent exercise bout if they are to be
300 repeatedly interchanged.

301

302 The present study did not include an analysis of participants' contact intensity, which is likely
303 to have important implications for pacing during rugby league matches¹⁶. As such, future
304 studies may wish to examine the influence of knowledge of task end-point on individuals
305 pacing of contact intensity in addition to energy expenditure associated with running.
306 Furthermore, the implications of knowledge of task end-point on pacing during repeated
307 training sessions warrants attention, as this study would indicate that intensity - and therefore
308 potential training stimulus - can be altered based on an individual's understanding of the
309 exercise duration. Finally, further mechanistic insight into the changes in performance
310 observed with altered pacing strategies is required. Future studies may wish to investigate
311 electromyographic activity or voluntary activation to determine motor unit recruitment patterns
312 associated with altered pacing.

313

314 Conclusions

315 This study has demonstrated that knowledge of task end-point influences performance, pacing
316 and physiological and perceptual responses to simulated rugby league match-play. To ensure
317 an optimal pacing strategy, players should be accurately informed of their likely exercise
318 duration.

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397

398 **Figure Legends**

399 **Figure 1.** Total (a) and high intensity (b) distance over the whole RLMSP-i

400

401 **Figure 2.** Changes in (a) distance covered, (b) High intensity distance, and (c) Peak speed
402 during the RLMSP-i. Q = quartile for a given bout. ▲ Denotes a meaningful difference between
403 CON and UN. ○ Denotes a meaningful difference between CON and DEC.

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409

410 **Table 1.** Physiological and perceptual measurements throughout the RLMSP-i during different trials. Data are mean \pm SD.

		Bout 1				Bout 2			
		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Heart Rate (b·min ⁻¹)	CON	159 \pm 24	167 \pm 23	169 \pm 21	167 \pm 22	160 \pm 23	166 \pm 21	166 \pm 21	167 \pm 22
	UN	158 \pm 11	166 \pm 11	166 \pm 11	165 \pm 12	159 \pm 10	164 \pm 12	163 \pm 12	162 \pm 13*
	DEC	162 \pm 15	171 \pm 12	171 \pm 12	172 \pm 12*	160 \pm 11	166 \pm 12	167 \pm 13	167 \pm 12
RPE (6-20)	CON	12.5 \pm 1.2	14 \pm 1.8	14.7 \pm 1.5	15.4 \pm 1.6	12.9 \pm 1.4	13.8 \pm 1.5	14.6 \pm 1.8	15.3 \pm 1.6
	UN	11.8 \pm 1.6 [#]	13 \pm 1.7 [#]	13.8 \pm 1.8 [#]	14.1 \pm 1.5 [#]	12.3 \pm 1.2*	13.2 \pm 1.7*	13.7 \pm 1.8 [#]	14 \pm 1.5 [#]
	DEC	12.6 \pm 1.6	14 \pm 1.2	15.1 \pm 1.6*	16.2 \pm 1.6*	12.8 \pm 2.1	14.1 \pm 2*	14.7 \pm 1.6	14.7 \pm 1.8*
Hazard Score (AU)	CON	10.97 \pm 1.1	10.56 \pm 1.4	9.23 \pm 1.0	7.73 \pm 0.8	4.85 \pm 0.5	3.46 \pm 0.4	1.84 \pm 0.2	0 \pm 0
	UN	10.37 \pm 1.5 [#]	9.81 \pm 1.3 [^]	8.65 \pm 1.1 [#]	7.08 \pm 0.8 [#]	4.62 \pm 0.5 [#]	3.31 \pm 0.5 [#]	1.72 \pm 0.2 [#]	0 \pm 0
	DEC	11.04 \pm 1.4	10.5 \pm 0.9	9.47 \pm 1.0*	8.12 \pm 0.8 [^]	4.82 \pm 0.8	3.54 \pm 0.5	1.85 \pm 0.2	0 \pm 0
Blood Lactate (mmol·l ⁻¹)	CON	3 \pm 1.6	-	-	4.7 \pm 3.2	-	-	-	5.6 \pm 3.9
	UN	2.6 \pm 0.8	-	-	2.9 \pm 1.3 [#]	-	-	-	2.8 \pm 1.7 [#]
	DEC	2.7 \pm 1	-	-	5.7 \pm 2.6*	-	-	-	3 \pm 1.8 [#]

411 Q= bout quartile. CON = control trial, UN = unknown duration trial and DEC = deception trial. * *possible* difference to CON, # *likely* difference
 412 to CON, ^ *very likely* difference to CON. All effects were *small*, with the exception of post measurements of blood lactate compared to CON, and
 413 the hazard score in bout 4 in UN compared to CON, which were *moderate*.

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421 **Table 2.** Changes in isokinetic peak torque at 60 deg·s⁻¹ in the knee extensors

	Pre	Post
CON (N·m)	239.3 ± 48.6	224.2 ± 50.7*
UN (N·m)	236.3 ± 49.8	235.2 ± 51.9
DEC (N·m)	236.9 ± 37.2	225.6 ± 40.4 [#]

422 * *possible small* difference to Pre. [#] *likely small* difference to Pre.