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- 1 Article title: Reliability of 5km running performance in a competitive environment
- **Running head:** Reliability of a competitive 5 km time-trial

3 Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the reliability of a 5 km time-trial during a competitive 4 5 outdoor running event. Fifteen endurance runners (age = 29.5 ± 4.3 years, height = $1.75 \pm$ 0.08 m, body mass = 71.0 ± 7.1 kg, 5 km lifetime personal best = $19:13 \pm 1:13$ minutes) 6 7 completed two competitive, 5 km time-trials over two weeks. No systematic differences in 8 run time between Trial 1 and Trial 2 were reported (Trial 1; 1217 ± 85 s, 95% CI [1170, 9 1264] and Trial 2; 1216 \pm 79 s, [1172 to 1260], p =.855). Absolute reliability, expressed as 10 the typical error (TE; 14.7s, 95% CI = 11.3 to 21.4 s) and coefficient of variation (CV; $0.95 \pm$ 0.65%, [0.59 to 1.31]) confirms the reliability of 5 km running performance in a competitive 11 time trial. 12 Key words 13

14 Ecological validity, reproducibility, time-trial, competition, performance

15 Researchers investigating the efficacy of an intervention must use a test that has high reliability (Currell & Jeukendrup, 2008). For this reason, numerous studies have examined 16 17 the reliability of running time-trial performance in the laboratory. Laursen, Francis, Abbiss, 18 Newton and Nosaka (2007) reported coefficient of variations (CV) of 3.3 and 2.0%, for 1500 m and 5 km running trials on a motorised treadmill respectively and Stevens et al. (2015) 19 20 reported a similar CV of 1.2% during 5 km running on a non-motorised treadmill. The low 21 CV for these measurements provides the researcher with confidence that any observed 22 change in performance is attributed to the intervention and not to other extraneous variables 23 (e.g. measurement error and inter-individual variation). However, the ecological validity of these performance measures are questionable, as performance tests conducted within the 24 25 controlled laboratory environment are artificial and may not provide a true reflection of real-26 world outdoor events. If a performance measurement fails to adequately represent the target 27 environment, then scientific experimental outcomes may not translate into practice and may lack true relevance and impact (Araújo & Davids, 2009). 28

29 The differences in performance between artificial (e.g. laboratory) and natural (e.g. 30 outdoor) environments has been extensively investigated. Higher running velocities have 31 been reported during field-based running at fixed blood lactate concentrations in comparison to laboratory based trials (Kunduracioglu, Guner, Ulkar, & Erdogan, 2007), and higher blood 32 33 lactate concentrations have been reported during treadmill running compared to running on 34 synthetic surfaces (Di Michele, Di Renzo, Ammazzalorso, & Merni, 2009). Others have reported different energetic/metabolic costs (Jones & Doust, 1996) and biomechanical 35 differences (Ali, Caine, & Snow, 2007) between treadmill and outdoor environments. While 36 37 more recent laboratory investigations have attempted to replicate the outdoor environment with the use of non-motorised treadmills (Stevens et al., 2015). Although authors have 38 39 attempted to stimulate outdoor running performance in the laboratory with specialised

40 equipment, the use of such protocols have shown differences in performance of 22% (Stevens 41 et al., 2015) and suggest that the use of actual outdoor time-trials may be a more pragmatic 42 and cheaper alternative. Furthermore, and from a psychological perspective, Terry, 43 Karageorghis, Saha, and D'Auria (2012) proposed that the lack of visual stimulation within the laboratory environment may increase the tedium of the task compared to the outdoor 44 45 external environment, whereas McAuley, Mihalko, and Bane (1997) purported the 46 unfamiliarity and perceived threat of the laboratory environment, and/or testing equipment, 47 may negatively influence anxiety and arousal. It is possible that these factors may negatively 48 influence levels of athlete motivation, effort and perceived exertion, which may consequently 49 influence performance and the inferences that can be made from interventions using these 50 protocols.

51 Collectively, current research suggests that performance measured in the laboratory 52 may not be an adequate representation of actual performance. Some studies have therefore 53 investigated the reliability of time-trials outdoors. Hodges, Hancock, Currell, Hamilton, and 54 Bruce (2006) and O'Rourke, Obrien, Knez, and Paton (2007) measured the reliability of 1500 m and 5000 m running and reported CVs of 0.8 and 1.4%, respectively. These results are 55 similar, if not better, to the equivalent running time-trials performed in the laboratory (e.g. 56 Laursen et al., 2007) and are more representative of actual running performance. However, 57 58 the studies highlighted above did not investigate the effects of direct competition during 59 performance and, like the laboratory protocols, may lack ecological validity. The effect of competition can have a significant impact on the physiology of the athlete and subsequently 60 the performance. Pierce, Kuppart, and Hardy (1976) reported that adrenaline is significantly 61 62 higher during competitions in comparisons to training for basketball and track and field athletes, whereas Viru et al. (2010) reported differences in the peak oxygen consumption 63 $(\dot{V}O_{2peak})$ and performance between competitive and non-competitive situations in treadmill 64

running. These studies highlight the physiological differences competitive and noncompetitive environments can have, which can have a significant impact on the performance
of the athlete. This illustrates the argument that for researchers to truly elucidate the efficacy
of an intervention, the methods employed have to replicate the athletes' actual performance.
That is, moving away from laboratory based measures to assessing actual performance in the
field, and where possible, in a competitive environment.

Since 2004, weekly, open entry, free and timed 5 km road race events (parkrun®), have become increasingly popular throughout the United Kingdom (UK) and offer the opportunity for researchers to understand the efficacy of running interventions on a heterogeneous sample in a competitive environment. However, the reliability of these events has not been established. The aim of this study was therefore to assess the reliability of running performance during an outdoor running event in a competitive environment in trained athletes.

78 Method

79 Participants

Institutional ethical approval was obtained from the University of Sunderland. Fifteen, 80 81 competitive, male, endurance runners (mean \pm standard deviation [SD]; age = 29.5 \pm 4.3 years, height = 1.75 ± 0.08 m, body mass = 71.0 ± 7.1 kg, 5 km personal best = $19:13 \pm 1:13$ 82 83 minutes) were recruited following a call out for participants made through social media to Newcastle-upon-Tyne parkrunners. Participants trained regularly (>5 d week⁻¹) during the 6 84 85 months prior to the study and regularly participated in 5 km competitive races. All 86 participants were habituated with the selected course and event, having each completed >10 parkruns® in Newcastle-upon-Tyne prior to the study. Written informed consent was 87 88 obtained from all participants prior to participation. Participants were informed that they 89 could withdraw from the study at any point in time should they wish to do so without reprisal. Procedure 90

91 A within-participant study design was adopted. Participants completed two 5 km 92 time-trial runs (Trial 1 and Trial 2) in a competitive environment within a 7-21 day period. The 5 km parkrun® trials took place in Newcastle upon-Tyne, UK. The Newcastle-upon-93 Tyne parkrun® is run on tarmac and has been accurately measured using a professional 94 measuring wheel. The course is officially certified and is located 61-75 m above sea level. 95 96 Approximately 500 runners compete weekly. For this reason, participants were asked to 97 begin the trial at the front of the mass start to ensure times were not hindered by other 98 runners. Participants were asked to prepare for and treat each run as they would for a 99 competition. They were asked to maintain a similar diet for 48 hours, rest adequately (>8 100 hours of sleep) and maintain their pre-competition training routines before each trial. 101 Participants performed individual warm up routines and were asked to keep this the same for subsequent trials. The 5 km runs started promptly at 09:00 and participants were instructed to 102

103 complete the distance as fast as possible. Environmental conditions, wind speed (m/s),

104 temperature (°C), relative humidity (%) and wind chill (°C) were recorded weekly using the

105 Pasco weather sensor (PS-2174, Pasco, Roseville CA, USA) attached to the Xplorer GLX

106 graphing data-logger (PS-2002, Pasco, Roseville CA, USA). Measures were taken at various

107 points around the course and a mean value recorded. Time trials were not recorded on days

108 when the wind speed exceeded ± 2 m/s. Weather conditions remained stable (cool and dry)

across all trials, with wind speed ranging from 0.9 to 1.8 m/s, temperature from 4 to 7 °C,

relative humidity from 82 to 92% and wind chill from 3 to 4 °C.

111 Statistical analysis

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD) and 95% confidence intervals 112 113 (95% CI) in brackets. Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. 114 Paired samples t-tests were conducted to determine any systematic difference in performance time between the two runs (Trial 1 - Trial 2). Cohen's d was calculated to determine the 115 effect size (d) of the mean differences (Cohen, 1977) and interpreted using the modified scale 116 117 proposed by Hopkins (2002): trivial ≤ 0.2 ; small 0.2-0.6; moderate, 0.6-1.2; and large, >1.2. Absolute reliability of 5 km performance time was determined using the within-participant 118 coefficient of variation (CV) and typical error (TE) expressed in seconds. A CV $\leq 1.5\%$ was 119 set as a criterion for absolute reliability (Hopkins & Hewson, 2001). Within-participant CV's 120 121 were calculated for individual participants by dividing the standard deviation of their Trial 1 122 and Trial 2 performances by their mean performance and multiplying by 100 (SD [Trial 1 and Trial 2] / mean [Trial 1 and Trial 2]*100). The mean CV is reported. Relative reliability was 123 established using the intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC). TE and ICC were calculated 124 125 using an online statistical spreadsheet (Hopkins, 2009). The precision of the ICC (95% CI) was established using the McGraw and Wong (1996) formula. The ICC was interpreted as 126 follows: ICC <0.80 low reliability; ICC 0.80 to 0.90 moderate reliability; ICC >0.9 high 127

- 128 reliability (Vincent & Weir, 2005). Statistical analyses were conducted using Microsoft Excel
- and SPSS for windows version 20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA) software packages.
- 130 Significance was accepted at p <.05.

131 **Results**

132 Twenty participants completed the first initial trial. Five participants withdrew from the study before completing the second trial (injury, n = 2; no reason provided, n = 2; non-133 134 availability, n = 1). Data analysis is based on the 15 participants who successfully completed both time-trials. No differences existed between participants who withdrew and the 135 136 participants who remained for the demographic variables (i.e. age, height, weight, PB; p > .05). 137 Individual performances are presented in table 1. Performance times for the two 5 km 138 139 time-trials were highly reproducible (mean \pm standard deviation [SD]; 1217 \pm 85 s, 95% CI

140 [1170, 1264] and 1216 \pm 79 s, [1172 to 1260] for Trial 1 and Trial 2 respectively). The mean

141 difference in running performance between Trial 1 and Trial 2 was 1.0 ± 20.8 s [-10.5, 12.5].

142 A paired samples t-test revealed no differences between the two trials ($t_{(14)}$, p = .855, d <

143 0.01). The coefficient of variation (CV) was $0.95 \pm 0.65\%$ [0.59, 1.31], typical error (TE) =

144 14.7 s [11.3, 21.4] equating to approximately 1.2% of mean performance, and Intra-class

145 correlation = 0.97 [0.93, 0.99].

146 **Discussion**

The aim of this present study was to evaluate the reproducibility of an outdoor, 147 competitive time-trial. To our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the reproducibility of 148 149 this type of measure. Results suggest that an outdoor 5 km time-trial within a competitive 150 environment is highly reproducible in a population of trained athletes. Results have implications for future research that seek to understand the effects of interventions on 151 152 endurance running performance. The use of a reliable competitive, outdoor time-trial could provide researchers with greater confidence that results of intervention studies can be 153 154 extrapolated to real world environments.

155 The use of an indoor, laboratory based time-trial to distinguish the effects of an intervention for endurance performance has been frequently used within sport and exercise 156 157 science (Stevens & Dascombe, 2015). This is commonly perceived to be a more reliable 158 method compared to outdoor time-trials (Reilly, Morris, & Whyte, 2009). However, results 159 from this study suggest that this may not be entirely accurate. The coefficient of variation 160 (CV) of $0.95 \pm 0.65\%$, 95% CI [0.59, 1.31] reported in this study is similar, if not better than indoor laboratory based time-trials. Russell, Redmann, Ravussin, Hunter, and Larson-Meyer 161 162 (2004) reported CV of 1.0% for 10 km treadmill based time-trials and Laursen et al. (2007) reported CV of 3.3 and 2.0%, for 1500 m and 5 km treadmill based time-trials, respectively. 163 164 In addition, the results of Stevens et al. (2015) who attempted to better simulate the outdoor 165 environment with a non-motorised treadmill, reported a similar CV of 1.2% for 5 km timetrials. The use of an outdoor competitive time-trial is therefore comparable, if not more 166 reliable than an indoor, laboratory based time-trial. This holds important implications and 167 168 considerations for researchers aiming to establish the effectiveness of an intervention on running performance. For inferences to be extrapolated to performance, the use of a protocol 169 that holds high reliability and validity should be used. If this isn't achieved, the inferences 170

reported may not be translated accurately to actual performance. We therefore encourage the
use of the 5 km outdoor, competitive time-trial (i.e. parkrun®) as a means of confidently
assessing the efficacy of running interventions.

174 The typical error (TE; 1.2% or 14.7 s) reported is also lower compared to previously 175 reported variability in non-elite distance runners and corroborates a similar TE (1.3%) 176 observed in trained endurance athletes over a 3000 m indoor time-trial (Durussel et al., 2013) 177 and a 1.4% TE for distances between 3000 m and 10000 m in elite athletes (Hopkins & 178 Hewson, 2001). The low values for TE and CV in the current study may be attributed to the 179 level of participant familiarisation with the competitive, parkrun® time-trial adopted for the study. Stevens et al. (2015) emphasised that to minimise the test-retest variation, running 180 181 time-trials should include participants that are familiar with the testing procedures. For this 182 study, prior to their recruitment, participants had completed on average 51 ± 385 km 183 parkrun® time-trials (range = 14 to 144). This highlights a strength of the current study and 184 of parkrun®, as it ensures that the participants were well versed and familiar with the course 185 and distance. The parkrun® events can provide a unique advantage for future research, as it allows the researcher the opportunity to access a population of athlete that are experienced 186 187 with the running protocol already, without having to include familiarisation trials prior to the study. In short, this would save time and resources during repeated measure, cross-over 188 design studies. 189

The results of this study should take into consideration a number of potential limitations. First, the use of pacing and drafting practices were not fully explored during this study. We acknowledge that time-trials by design, permit athletes to alter their pace, which may influence reproducibility of performance. However, we, like others (Hampson, Gibson, Lambert, & Noakes, 2001; Laursen et al., 2007), argue pacing strategies are an integral component of real-life, competitive performance. To maximise ecological validity, athletes in

this study were permitted to alter their race-pace to suit the interactions between their
perceptions of fatigue and external motivational cues (Hampson et al., 2001). Secondly, it
may be argued the 'competitive' environment in this study would be better described as semicompetitive as it does not mimic the atmosphere, pressures and demands, arousal or anxiety
experienced by elite level athletes competing for podium status at international athletic
competitions.

These limitations notwithstanding, the results provide valuable information for researchers wishing to ascertain the effect of interventions on outdoor endurance running performance. Empirical investigations establishing ecologically valid research protocols, in a competitive environment, have been difficult to design. The timing of competition events often differs between venues and are rarely held at the same time of the day. The parkrun® event used in this research eliminates such confounds as parkrun® events are scheduled weekly at the same time of day.

To conclude, mean performance time was found to be highly reproducible over repeated competitive, outdoor-based 5 km time-trials. Results are similar, if not better, than indoor based, treadmill and outdoor, track based time-trials. Results provide a useful platform from which to measure the magnitude of performance changes following future interventions.

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Table captions

292 Note: CV = coefficient of variation

Participant	Trial 1 (s)	Trial 2 (s)	Differences (s)	Percentage Change in Performance	CV (%)
1	1173	1170	3	0.26%	0.18
2	1157	1150	7	0.61%	0.43
3	1328	1289	39	3.03%	2.11
4	1363	1343	20	1.49%	1.05
5	1121	1154	-33	-2.86%	2.05
6	1180	1176	4	0.34%	0.24
7	1070	1078	-8	-0.74%	0.53
8	1127	1111	16	1.44%	1.01
9	1152	1156	-4	-0.35%	0.25
10	1212	1227	-15	-1.22%	0.87
11	1286	1254	32	2.55%	1.78
12	1261	1250	11	0.88%	0.62
13	1282	1296	-14	-1.08%	0.77
14	1271	1301	-30	-2.31%	1.65
15	1270	1283	-13	-1.01%	0.72
Mean \pm SD	1216.9 ± 84.7	1215.9 ± 79.2	-1.0 ± 20.8	0.08 ± 0.02	0.95 ± 0.65

 Table 1. Individual differences for outdoor competitive 5km time-trial