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- 1 **Running head:** Peer presence and perceived exertion
- 2 Title: Peer presence increases session ratings of perceived
- 3 exertion
- 4
- 5 Authors: Geoffrey M Minett1, Valentin Fels-Camilleri2, Joshua
- 6 J Bon3,4, Franco M Impellizzeri5, David N Borg1,6,7
- 7

8 Affiliations

- 9 1Queensland University of Technology, School of Exercise and
- 10 Nutrition Sciences, Brisbane, Australia.
- 11 2University of Strasbourg, Faculty of Sports Sciences,
- 12 Strasbourg, France
- 13 3Queensland University of Technology, School of
- 14 Mathematical Sciences, Brisbane, Australia.
- 15 4Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence for
- 16 Mathematical and Statistical Frontiers, Brisbane, Australia.
- 17 5University of Technology Sydney, School of Sport, Exercise
- 18 and Rehabilitation, Sydney, Australia.
- 19 6Griffith University, Menzies Health Institute Queensland, The
- 20 Hopkins Centre, Brisbane, Australia.
- 21 7Griffith University, School of Allied Health Sciences,
- 22 Brisbane, Australia.
- 23

24 **Corresponding author:**

- 25 Geoffrey M Minett
- 26 Email: geoffrey.minett@qut.edu.au
- 27
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1 Abstract

2 Purpose: This study aimed to examine the effect of peer 3 presence on the session rating of perceived exertion (RPE) 4 responses. Method: Fourteen males, with mean (standard deviation) age 22.4 (3.9) years, peak oxygen uptake 48.0 (6.6) 5 mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹ and peak power output 330 (44) W, completed an 6 7 incremental cycling test and three identical experimental 8 sessions, in groups of four or five. Experimental sessions 9 involved 24 min of cycling, whereby the work rate alternated 10 between 40% and 70% peak power output every 3 min. During cycling, heart rate was collected every 3 min, and session-RPE 11 12 was recorded 10 min after cycling, in three communication 13 contexts: in written form unaccompanied (intrapersonal 14 communication); verbally by the researcher only (interpersonal 15 communication); and in the presence of the training group. Session-RPE was analysed using ordinal regression and heart 16 17 rate using a linear mixed-effects model, with models fit in a 18 Bayesian framework. Results: Session-RPE was voted higher when collected in the group's presence compared to when 19 20 written (odds ratio = 4.26, 95% credible interval = 1.27 to 14.73). 21 On average, the posterior probability that session-RPE was 22 higher in the group setting than when written was 0.53. Session-23 RPE was not different between the group and verbal, or verbal 24 and written collection contexts. Conclusions: This study 25 suggests contextual psychosocial inputs influence session-RPE, 26 and highlights the importance of session-RPE users controlling 27 the measurement environment when collecting votes.

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Keywords: Effort, exercise, load, monitoring, training load, bias

31 Introduction

32 Quantifying training load using the session rating of perceived exertion (RPE) method¹ has been widely adopted as a 33 simple approach to understanding the effects of training load on 34 athlete fitness, performance and fatigue.²⁻⁴ Many internal (e.g., 35 36 heart rate, HR), external (e.g., Global Positioning System and accelerometers) and indices (e.g., training impulse) of training 37 load exist.⁵ However, the ease (i.e., Training load = RPE x time 38 39 (min)), low cost and capacity of the session-RPE based approach 40 to accommodate differing exercise modes has seen widespread 41 uptake of the instrument.⁶

Although session-RPE has been correlated with 42 43 objective physiological measures of training load, including 44 variables of HR, oxygen uptake and lactate,⁷ other influencing factors might explain measurement variation. It has long been 45 46 evidenced that momentary RPE should be interpreted as the integration of physiological, psychological and experiential 47 48 influences.⁸ For example, anxiety, somatic perception, 49 depression and neuroticism directly correlate with momentary 50 RPE, while interestingly, inversely correlated with

extroversion.⁸ Further evidencing psychological contribution, 51 the dissociative attentional effects of music and video can reduce 52 momentary RPE scores during high-intensity exercise.⁹ 53 54 Understanding of the collective psychophysiological construct represented in the momentary RPE, and likely session-RPE 55 training load measurement, are important considerations when 56 57 reviewing the response to a given training impulse. Appreciation for the influences on the measure outside of the prescribed 58 59 training also highlights the need for vigilance in standardising 60 session-RPE collection to ensure data quality and targeted constructs. 61

62 Despite the popularity of the session-RPE approach to 63 training load measurement, methodological reports relating to best practice collection are lacking. The timing used to recall 64 session-RPE appears to have little effect.^{10,11} However, to the 65 authors' knowledge, the influence of the administration mode is 66 67 relatively unknown. Methods of session-RPE measurement 68 standardisation (e.g., questioner, face-to-face, electronic, anchoring, and privacy) are sporadically reported, and rarely, in 69 70 full. Such variables can introduce bias that greatly affects data 71 quality.¹² Risk of these biases may be highest in team sports like rugby union, where 89% of coaches surveyed collected session-72 RPE scores verbally,¹³ risking introducing effects of peer 73 74 influence.

75 Peer presence is known to have ranging effects on health and social decision making.¹⁴ Further, socio-environmental cues 76 may affect exercise and sports performance,^{15,16} potentially by 77 altering self-confidence¹⁷ and physical discomfort associated 78 with fatigue.¹⁸ Accordingly, it could be reasoned that the 79 company of others in a competitive team environment would 80 adjust session-RPE scores in a socially desirable way.¹³ This 81 82 study aimed to examine the effect of peer presence on session-83 RPE responses. It was hypothesised that participants would rate 84 session-RPE higher in the presence of an audience than when collected by a researcher, or via intra-personal communication, 85 86 in written form.

88 Methods

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89

<u>Participants</u>

90 A convenience sample of 14 adult males volunteered for the study. Participants were considered recreationally trained,¹⁹ 91 92 consistently partaking in team and/or individual sport training 93 and competition three or more times each week in the prior six 94 months. Their mean (standard deviation, SD) demographic and 95 fitness characteristics were: age 22.4 (3.9) years; height 180 (5) cm; nude body mass 79.7 (9.4) kg; peak oxygen uptake ($\dot{V}O_{2peak}$) 96 48.0 (6.6) mL·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹; peak power output 330 (44) W; 97 maximal HR 183 (9) b·min⁻¹. Participants were undergraduate 98 99 exercise science students and completed cycling activity as a part 100 of their training/cross-training activities. They were nonsmokers and free of any injury and illness (Exercise and Sports
Science Australia adult pre-exercise screening tool). Ethical
approval was granted by the University Human Research Ethics
Committee (#51165). After the experimental procedures and
associated risks were explained, all participants provided written
informed consent.

Procedures

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108 Participants visited the laboratory on four separate days. 109 The first visit involved familiarisation to the study procedures, 110 including perceptual scales, and an incremental cycling test. The session-RPE scale was discussed with participants, and recall 111 anchoring was performed.²⁰ The session-RPE scale ranges from 112 0 'Rest' to 10 'Maximal', increments of 1, with descriptors 113 assigned to most ratings: 1 'Very, Very, Easy', 2 'Easy', 3 114 115 'Moderate', 4 'Somewhat Hard', 5 'Hard' and 7 'Very Hard'.¹ As recommended,¹ participants were asked 'how was your 116 117 workout?'. This wording (verbal and written formats) was standardised across all conditions. Visits 2-4 comprised of three 118 identical experimental cycling trials. Ten min after cycling,¹⁰ 119 120 session-RPE votes were collected, in three communication 121 contexts, with session-RPE recorded: via intrapersonal 122 communication, unaccompanied in written form (written); via 123 interpersonal communication, verbally to the researcher only (verbal); and via verbal interpersonal communication in the 124 125 presence of the training group (group). These conditions were 126 completed in a random, cross-over manner. The block 127 randomisation sequence was computer-generated (Microsoft 128 Excel, Redmond, USA). Each experimental session was 129 conducted in groups of at least three, but no more than five participants. 130

131 Participants were blinded from the research question to 132 minimise the potential for bias in session-RPE responses. 133 Instead, participants were informed that the study aimed to 134 examine the effects of a new line of sports drinks on responses to the cycling task. The true study aim was disclosed after all 135 136 data collection. Fluid consumption and fan cooling were 137 restricted during exercise. Participants were asked to avoid 138 caffeine, alcohol and strenuous activity in the 24 hours before 139 testing. Adherence to these requests was visually assessed via 140 the inspection of diet and physical activity diaries. Experimental 141 cycling trials were separated by four or five days.

During the initial visit, participants completed an 142 143 incremental cycling test to determine their VO_{2peak}, PPO and maximal HR. The test commenced at 50 W, increasing by 25 144 W·min⁻¹ until voluntary exhaustion (Excalibur Sport; Lode, 145 146 Groningen, Netherlands). Expired gas and flow volumes were 147 collected during the test and were analysed by a calibrated 148 metabolic cart (TrueOne 2400, ParvoMedics, Salt Lake City, 149 USA). Values were taken as the average of the two highest consecutive 15-second epochs. Peak power output was 150

considered the value achieved during the final minute before 151 152 volitional exhaustion. The peak power output value used to 153 calculate the exercise intensity of intervals (i.e., 40% and 70% 154 peak power output) during the cycling trials.

155 Cycling trials were completed in groups of four or five participants, at a matched time of day (± 2 hours), in laboratory 156 157 conditions [24.2 (0.5) °C, 62 (7) % relative humidity]. In line with the deceptive study aim, 20 min before cycling, each 158 159 individual consumed 400 mL of an unidentified sports drink 160 solution (Gatorade, Chicago, USA) from an opaque, brand-free drink bottle. The exercise protocol involved 24 min of cycling 161 intervals, whereby the work rate alternated between 40% and 162 163 70% peak power output every 3 min. During trials, the cycle 164 ergometer (Keiser M3, Keiser Corporation, Fresno, USA), including settings, remained consistent within a participant, with 165 self-selected gearing identified during the familiarisation 166 167 session.

The Daily Analyses of Life-Demands for Athletes 168 169 (DALDA) questionnaire was completed on arrival for testing days.²¹ Responses for the 'Symptoms of stress' section were 170 summed (i.e., a = 1, b = 2, c = 3).²¹ Higher scores indicate fewer 171 symptoms. A mid-stream urine sample was collected on arrival 172 to assess hydration via specific gravity (PAL-10S, Atago Co. 173 Ltd., Tokyo, Japan).²² Nude body mass (WB-110AZ; Tanita 174 175 Corp., Tokyo, Japan) was recorded before cycling. Standard 176 athletic clothing was worn during trials (i.e., t-shirt, shorts, and 177 running shoes). A HR monitor chest strap and wrist-watch 178 receiver (F1, Polar, Electro-oy, Kempele, Finland) were fitted 179 before cycling, with HR recorded at baseline (i.e., 0 min) and every 3 min throughout cycling. Capillary blood lactate samples 180 181 were drawn from the finger before and within 1 min after cycling (Lactate Scout; SensLab GmbH, Leipzig, Germany). Finally, 10 182 min after cycling,10 a session-RPE was collected in the 183 prescribed communication format. 184 185

Statistical analysis

All analyses were performed in R (version 3.4.0). Models 186 were fit in a Bayesian framework, using Stan²³ with the *brms* 187 interface.²⁴ Missing data were visually inspected, with data 188 assumed missing at random (Supplement 1).²⁵ 189

190 Session-RPE was analysed using ordinal regression. The 191 model included Condition and Trial Order as a fixed factors, and 192 DALDA Symptoms of Stress scores and the absolute Change in 193 *Lactate* (i.e., $\Delta_i = \text{post}_i - \text{pre}_i$) as standardised covariates (mean 194 = 0, SD = 1). The mean (SD) DALDA Symptoms of Stress scores 195 for each condition were: written 49 (2), verbal 50 (3) and group 196 49 (2); and the mean (SD) Change in Lactate was: written 5.3 197 (3.8) mmol·L, verbal 4.6 (3.4) mmol·L and group 4.8 (3.6) 198 mmol·L. The session-RPE model also included a random 199 intercept for each participant in the study to account for the 200 correlation between repeated observations on an individual. A 201 Normal (mean = 0, SD = 1) prior distribution was used for the 202 regression coefficients and half *t*-distribution (df = 3, mean = 0, 203 scale = 2.5) prior for the SD of the random effects.

204 Urine specific gravity (logged), nude body mass, blood 205 lactate (Gamma response distribution), and HR were analysed using linear mixed-effects models. Urine specific gravity and 206 207 nude mass were modelled with Condition as a fixed factor. Blood lactate was fit with *Time* (i.e., pre- and post-cycling), 208 209 Condition, and Time by Condition, as fixed factors. Urine 210 specific gravity, nude body mass, and blood lactate models 211 included a random intercept term for Participant ID. The HR 212 model included Condition and Time (cubic smoothing spline, 213 with 5 knots) as fixed effects; and Interval and Participant ID as random effects (intercept only). Weakly informative prior 214 215 distributions were used for the regression coefficients and 216 variance parameters in these models.

217 Posterior estimates were generated using Markov chain 218 Monte Carlo methods, and are reported as the mean, mean 219 difference (MD) or odds ratio (OR) and 95% credible interval 220 (CrI) unless otherwise stated. Pairwise posterior probabilities 221 were computed to compare that on average, session-RPE votes 222 in condition 'k' were: greater than, and equal to, session-RPE 223 votes in condition 'l'. Posterior predictive checks were 224 performed to assess the suitability of all models. 225

226 **Results**

227 Session-RPE was four times more likely to be rated in a 228 higher category when collected in the group setting compared to 229 the written setting (OR = 4.26, 95% CrI = 1.27, 14.73). On 230 average, the posterior probability that participants would rate a 231 higher session-RPE category in the group compared to the 232 written setting was 0.53, and the posterior probability of equal 233 ratings between these two conditions was 0.29. Session-RPE 234 votes collected in the verbal setting were not different to the written setting (OR = 1.90, 95% CrI = 0.61, 5.99). On average, 235 236 the posterior probability that participants would rate a higher 237 session-RPE category in the verbal than the written setting was 238 0.41, and the posterior probability of equal ratings between these 239 two conditions was 0.34. There was no evidence for a difference 240 in Session-RPE votes collected in the group setting compared 241 with votes collected in the verbal setting (OR = 2.48, 95% CrI = 0.76, 8.25). On average, the posterior probability that 242 243 participants would rate a higher session-RPE category in the 244 group setting compared to the verbal setting was 0.45, and the 245 posterior probability of equal ratings between these two 246 conditions was 0.30.

247 There was no evidence that nude body mass, urine 248 specific gravity and pre-cycling lactate were different between 249 conditions (Table 1). Lactate increased over the task ($\beta = 4.7$, 250 95% CrI = 3.2, 6.6; Table 1), but was not different between 251 conditions. HR increased during cycling ($\beta = 7.6, 95\%$ CrI = 6.0, 252 9.4). There was evidence of a condition effect on HR ($\beta = 2.02$. 253 95% CrI = 0.04, 4.35), with HR responses higher in the verbal 254 condition compared to both the written (MD = $2.02 \text{ b} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, 95% 255 CrI = 0.04, 4.35) and group conditions (MD = 2.27 b·min⁻¹, 95%) CrI = 0.07, 4.42). The posterior probability that HR during 256 cycling was at least 2 b·min⁻¹ higher in the verbal condition 257 258 compared to the written and group settings was 0.56 and 0.60, 259 respectively.

260

261 **Discussion**

262 This study investigated the effect of peer presence on 263 session-RPE responses. While others have proposed that the 264 influence of peer presence on the rating of session-RPE is a 265 limitation of subjective training load monitoring²⁶, to our knowledge, this is the first study to address this issue directly. 266 267 As hypothesised, session-RPE was more likely to be rated higher 268 when collected in the group setting compared to when collected 269 in written form (Figure 1). Heart rate was 2 b min⁻¹ higher when 270 cycling in the verbal collection condition; however, this did not 271 appear to affect session-RPE responses. This study suggests that 272 contextual psychosocial inputs could influence session-RPE, and may highlight the importance of controlling the measurement 273 274 environment to reduce circumstantial variance in data that 275 informs training-related decisions.

276 Participants were more likely to provide higher session-RPEs in the presence of an audience (Figure 1). This finding 277 278 might be explained by participants wanting to communicate (to others) a high effort ethic.²⁷ Consciously or otherwise, social 279 contagion could also factor owing to concern and subsequent 280 influence on responses.²⁸ This notion goes towards the idea of 281 self-concept, and a sense of identity, that individuals were giving 282 an equal effort so to be valued by their peers.²⁹ Such a scenario 283 284 seems possible in team sports where winning coaches value hard-working athletes³⁰, and these expectations could influence 285 286 athletes' session-RPE responses. Concern regarding altered 287 training schedules (i.e., more or less sessions) and indirect 288 effects on team selection based on session-RPE responses also 289 cannot be dismissed. This line of thinking could arguably be 290 worse in emerging athletes where their age/maturity and career 291 ambitions lead them towards appraisal seeking behaviours.³¹

292 The effect of peer presence on session-RPE has 293 implications for training load monitoring, and in some instances could explain previous observations of a disconnect between 294 session-RPE and training prescriptions.³² Individuals working 295 296 with athletes or persons who use session-RPE as a training load 297 monitoring tool in team settings should be mindful of the 298 contexts in which responses are collected. Users of session-RPE 299 must have an awareness of the influence that peer presence may 300 have on ratings for some athletes. This thinking further reinforces the need for coaches, managers and team selectors, to
develop good, trustworthy relationships with athletes, so to
better understand how a certain individual or personality may, or
may not, be affected by responding to the presence of the wider
team.

306 While it would be convenient to suggest that collection 307 via a mobile application could be used to overcome the influence of peer presence, recent evidence suggests that face-to-face 308 collections may be more valid.³³ Under the assumptions, and 309 310 with the sample size, of the current study, session-RPE responses collected unaccompanied in written form were not different 311 312 compared to those collected in the presence of only the 313 researcher (Figure 1). The posterior probability that session-RPE 314 was higher when collected by the researcher compared to written 315 form was 0.41. Future work is required to investigate whether 316 the presence of a single individual influence's session-RPE 317 responses, as many of the discussions above hold for collection 318 via face-to-face-particularly if collected by a coach-319 compared to collection when unaccompanied (e.g., mobile 320 application or written form).

321 Despite the matched mechanical work, a higher HR was 322 observed in the verbal condition. Although this may be affected 323 by the measument sampling rate (i.e., every 3 min), the 324 physiological meaningfulness of this difference (2 $b \cdot min^{-1}$) is 325 most arguably negligible. The primary limitation of the study is 326 the sample size. Although we used estimation methods in a 327 Bayesian framework to quantify differences between conditions, 328 the small sample size was reflected in large uncertainty of some 329 of the estimates. For example, the large width of the 95% CrI of 330 the OR between the intra-individual and group setting 331 conditions. Future research should replicate this study with a larger sample size to confirm the generalisability of the findings; 332 333 and investigate other potential sources of bias for session-RPE 334 ratings, such as scale modifications (e.g., removing verbal 335 anchors, adding scale colourings). Exploring the associations 336 between witnessed session-RPE responses and 337 sociopsychological profiling may also be insightful. Similarly, 338 current perspectives may be advanced further by examining 339 responses to varying exercise intensities.

340

341 **Practical Applications**

The presence of other athletes and coaches seemingly affects the
session-RPE score. Standardising the session-RPE measurement
processes and environment is recommended to minimise the risk
of introducing error. Further, interpretation of session-RPE data
should occur through the lens of the collection context.

347

348 Conclusion

Findings from this study provided evidence supportingthe influence of contextual psychosocial inputs on session-RPE

351 responses. These outcomes highlight the importance of 352 controlling the measurement environment to reduce 353 circumstantial variance in data that informs training-related 354 decisions. Users of the session-RPE need to be consistent with 355 the environment in which session-RPE is collected and be aware 356 of the influence that peer presence may have on responses from 357 some individuals.

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	Communication context			
Variable	Written (intrapersonal)	Verbal (interpersonal)	Group	
Urine specific gravity	1.017 (1.012-1.022)	1.016 (1.011-1.020)	1.016 (1.011-1.021)	
Nude body mass, kg	79.9 (74.6-85.4)	79.8 (74.5-85.3)	79.8 (74.5-85.2)	
Lactate, mmol·L ⁻¹				
Precycling	1.5 (1.2–1.9)	1.3 (1.0-1.7)	1.4 (1.0-1.8)	
Postcycling	6.8 (5.2-8.8)*	5.9 (4.5-7.6)*	6.2 (4.8-8.0)*	

Effect of time ($\beta = 4.7, 95\%$ credible interval = 3.2–6.6)