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# 1 **Workload monitoring in top-level soccer players during congested fixture** 2 **periods**

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## 5 6 **Abstract**

7 The aim of this study was to assess the internal and external workload of starters and non-starters in  
8 a professional top-level soccer team during a congested fixture period. Twenty Serie A soccer  
9 players were monitored in this study during two mesocycles of 21 days each. Starters and non-  
10 starters were divided based on the match time played in each mesocycle. The following metrics  
11 were recorded: exposure time, total distance, relative total distance, high-speed running distance  
12 over 20 km·h<sup>-1</sup>, very high-speed running distance over 25 km·h<sup>-1</sup>, individual very high-speed  
13 distance over 80% of maximum peak speed. Players' internal workload was quantified using the  
14 rating of perceived exertion. Substantial differences between starters and non-starters were found  
15 for: exposure time (effect size = *large* to *very large*), rating of perceived exertion (*large* to *very*  
16 *large*), total distance (*large* to *very large*), and individual very high-speed distance over 80% of  
17 maximum peak speed (*moderate* to *large*). Furthermore, differences for relative total distance, high-  
18 speed running distance over 20 km·h<sup>-1</sup> and very high-speed running distance over 25 km·h<sup>-1</sup> were  
19 *small* to *moderate*, but not significant. This study reports that during congested fixture periods,  
20 starters had higher exposure time, rating of perceived exertion, total distance, and individual very  
21 high-speed distance over 80% of maximum peak speed than non-starters. Practitioners should  
22 compensate the non-starters for the missing workload derived from the soccer match.

23  
24 **Keywords:** training, football, team sports, GPS, high speed running

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## 30 **Introduction**

31 During a soccer game, players who start games (starters) typically cover distances between 10–13  
32 km, performing a variety of intense activities such as sprints, accelerations, decelerations, and  
33 changes of direction [1]. Players who do not start games (non-starters) need to compensate for this  
34 lack of workload (WL) with additional training that can be planned at the end of a game or during  
35 the next training sessions to maintain an adequate fitness level throughout the season. The  
36 individual quantification of total WL, which is the combination of training and match load, has  
37 critical importance for professional soccer coaches and sports scientists aiming to obtain physical  
38 adaptations and reduce the risk of injury [2]. The most common technology utilized to quantify  
39 external WL parameters are global navigation satellite systems (GNSS) [3]. GNSS are used to  
40 monitor sport-specific metrics, such as total distance covered (TD) and high-speed running, during  
41 training sessions and matches [3,4]. Additionally, external WL can be integrated with internal load  
42 (*e.g.*, rating of perceived exertion [RPE]) that might guarantee a better comprehension of the  
43 players' WL in soccer [2–4].

44

45 Recent research, conducted over an entire season on English Premier League players, reported that  
46 non-starters have a similar total exposure time and TD (considering both match and training time),  
47 but lower high-speed running and very high-speed running than starters [1]. Therefore, in order to  
48 compensate for different WL between starters and non-starters, practitioners should implement  
49 additional WL during training - with a focus on high-speed activities. However, proposing higher  
50 WL, in particular high-speed running and very high-speed running, may be complicated during  
51 congested fixture periods due to uncertainty regarding player selection and availability. Sports  
52 scientists have to manage the WL with the dual purpose of training and ensuring players are  
53 available for selection. The rationale for this approach is supported by the fact that long-term

54 inadequate or excessive WL may undermine the players' physical sport-specific capacities and  
55 increase injury likelihood [5].

56

57 To date, information related to in-season internal and external WL in professional top-level soccer  
58 players during congested fixture periods is very limited. Therefore, the aim of this study was to  
59 assess the internal and external WL of professional Serie A starters and non-starters during  
60 congested fixture periods in-season. The authors' hypothesis was that during congested fixture  
61 periods starters may have higher internal and external WL compared to non-starters.

62

## 63 **Materials and Methods**

### 64 **Participants**

65 Twenty professional Serie A soccer players were monitored in this study (age  $28.4 \pm 4.3$  years; body  
66 mass  $81.8 \pm 6.5$  kg; height  $184.2 \pm 5.5$  cm; maximum speed  $34.1 \pm 1.2$  km·h<sup>-1</sup>; 80% of peak speed  
67  $27.3 \pm 0.9$  km·h<sup>-1</sup>). Inclusive criteria were the absence during the whole monitoring period of any  
68 medical contraindication (injury or illness) and regular participation in all the team's training  
69 sessions. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The Institutional  
70 Ethics Board of the University [REDACTED] approved the study. Informed consent was  
71 obtained from the players involved in this study. Authors confirm that this study meets the ethical  
72 standards of the journal [6].

73

### 74 **Experimental Design**

75 External and internal WL data were recorded as part of the daily monitoring routine. Two  
76 mesocycles of 21 days (MC1 and MC2), each with 6 matches, were analysed in this study. The two  
77 mesocycles were divided by 2 weeks of the international break, during which players were involved  
78 with their national teams: during the last days of the second week, WL was partially individualized  
79 after players returned to the club after the international break. In both mesocycles the training,  
80 match, and total WL (sum of training and match load) were calculated. Starters and non-starters

81 were defined according to the match time played with the club during each mesocycle using a  
82 median-split approach.

83

#### 84 **Procedures**

85 During all the training sessions, Apex 10 Hz GNSS (STATSports, Northern Ireland) units were  
86 used to collect data [4]. Apex units validity and reliability were previously reported both for team  
87 sports and peak speed monitoring [4]. The Apex units were turned on 15 minutes before the  
88 beginning of the data recording to guarantee synchronisation between the Apex units and GNSS  
89 [4]. GNSS data recorded by the units were downloaded and further analysed with STATSports  
90 Software (Apex version 3.0.02011). During matches, external WL metrics were evaluated by a  
91 video tracking system (STATS, USA). Reliability of this type of apparatuses and its  
92 interchangeability with GNSS for measures of positional tracking metrics to monitoring of training  
93 and competitions were previously reported [7].

94

95 The external load variables considered in this study were: Exposure time, TD measured in metres,  
96 relative total distance (RD) calculated as the ratio between TD and the total time of the session,  
97 distance covered above 20 km·h<sup>-1</sup> (D>20) and distance covered above 25 km·h<sup>-1</sup> (D>25) [8].  
98 Individual very high-speed distance (D>80% Vmax) was calculated as 80% of the maximum peak  
99 speed of each player previously recorded by the club using the same GNSS technology and video  
100 tracking system for training sessions and matches respectively. Players' internal load was quantified  
101 in arbitrary units (AU) using the rating of perceived exertion (RPE, Borg's CR10-scale), which  
102 construct validity in soccer was previously reported [9]. Session training load (sRPE-TL) was  
103 assessed multiplying the RPE value by training or match duration.

104

#### 105 **Statistical analysis**

106 Data were presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Shapiro-Wilk test was used for checking  
107 the normality (assumption). Independent t-test comparing starters and non-starters was used to

108 detect between-groups differences. Statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ . Estimates of 95%  
109 confidence interval (CI) were also calculated. Threshold values for meaningful benefit effects were  
110 evaluated based on the smallest worthwhile change (SWC) calculated as 0.2 multiplied by the  
111 between-subjects SD. Effect size calculated as Hedges'  $g$  was interpreted as *trivial*  $< 0.2$ , *small* 0.2-  
112 0.6, *moderate* 0.6-1.2, *large* 1.2-2.0, *very large*  $> 2.0$  [10]. Statistical analyses were performed by  
113 JASP software version 0.10.2 (Amsterdam, Netherland) for MAC.

114

## 115 **Results**

116 The total WL (sum of training and match load) recorded during MC1 and MC2 for starters and non-  
117 starters are reported in Table 1.

118

119 **\*\*\*Table 1 here, please\*\*\***

120

121 Figure 1 reports the WL subdivision between training sessions and matches for both starters and  
122 non-starters. Considering only training sessions, WL values were higher for non-starters, but during  
123 MC1 the differences were not meaningful for RPE (3.3 vs 3.0 AU,  $p=0.08$ ),  $D > 20$  (2697 vs 1788 m,  
124  $p=0.08$ ),  $D > 25$  (498 vs 213 m,  $p=0.120$ ) and  $D > 80\%$   $V_{max}$  (151 vs 59 m,  $p=0.175$ ), while in MC2  
125 all the differences were significant apart for the RD (72 vs 69 m/min,  $p=0.270$ ).

126 Conversely, considering only WL performed during matches, significantly higher load was found  
127 for starters except for RD (MC1: 118 vs 121 m/min,  $p=0.525$ ; MC2: 114 vs 115 m/min,  $p=0.810$ )  
128 and RPE in MC2 (7.7 vs 6.8 AU,  $p=0.109$ ).

129

130 **\*\*\*Figure 1 here, please\*\*\***

131

## 132 **Discussion**

133 This study supports the authors' hypothesis that starters have higher internal and external WL  
134 compared to non-starters during congested fixture periods when both training and match load were  
135 included.

136

137 Contrary to previously published data about a seasonal-long analysis [1], starters produced higher  
138 total exposure and TD, but non-significant between groups differences were found for  $D > 20$  in  
139 MC2 and  $D > 25$  in both MC. A definitive explanation for these findings is not possible, however,  
140 the training strategies implemented by the club may have partially compensated the differences in  
141 WL between starters and non-starters. Furthermore, these conflicting results may suggest the  
142 existence of data variability from team to team, which should not be generalized as Serie A vs.  
143 Premier League [1]. Future studies involving larger sample size (*e.g.*, more than one team) could  
144 further investigate the existing differences between soccer leagues. However, when  $D > 80\%$   $V_{max}$   
145 was analysed, the differences between the two groups were *moderate* to *large* in MC1 and in MC2,  
146 respectively. This finding underlines the importance of individualising very high-speed running  
147 thresholds to optimise soccer WL analysis. These findings have high relevance in soccer because of  
148 the growing evidence on the importance of very high-speed running for performance and injuries  
149 prevention purposes [1,11]. Therefore, further attention should be paid, in congested fixture  
150 periods, to this training metric for starter and non-starters.

151

152 This study confirms that soccer matches are a critical training component of the week, where  
153 players can perform more very high-speed running and soccer-specific activities, which can be  
154 difficulty recreated during a congested fixture micro-cycle [1,12]. During the training sessions,  
155 coaches may find difficult to replicate the equivalent match running intensity demands, as well as to  
156 compensate for the missing match-load for non-starters. This is particularly true during congested  
157 fixture periods since the available training time may be limited (*e.g.*, at the end of the game or the  
158 day after the game). Moreover, the current research has added evidence of a higher sRPE-TL for

159 starters, which is not only explained by the higher exposure time, but also by the impact of the high  
160 RPE values recorded during matches that are hardly replicable during training sessions.

161

162 The non-significant differences in RD is explained by the fact that non-starters usually perform  
163 additional shorter duration high-intensity aerobic training with no very high-speed running at the  
164 end of the game or during the first available training session, raising average values of RD for non-  
165 starters in comparison to starters. Moreover, two days after the match, training prescription was  
166 differentiated for starters and non-starters, with the objective of reducing high intensity training for  
167 starters and properly conditioning non-starters, in line with team objectives and literature  
168 recommendations [12]. In the described mesocycles, the most common strategy utilized to reduce  
169 the gap between starters and non-starters occurred between the end of the game and the second day  
170 after the match. After the game, low-volume high-intensity aerobic training with no very high-  
171 speed running was proposed for non-starters, while the day after the game these players performed  
172 a combination of small-sided games and power training in the gym. Two days after the game,  
173 following a first part of the session in which low-intensity tactical drills were performed for all the  
174 team players, non-starters continued their additional training with low-intensity technical-tactical  
175 drills. Practitioners should take advantage of all the windows of opportunity to train non-starters in  
176 the 48 hours following a game. This is particularly important during congested fixture periods to  
177 avoid the presence of long de-training periods for non-starters.

178

179 A limitation related to this study is the sample utilized, which is relatively small and limited to just  
180 one team. Ideally, the sample size enrolment should be based on an *a priori* estimation, however  
181 this option was not feasible due to the limited number of top-level soccer players available, which  
182 represents an ecological condition in team sports such as soccer. As reported by Harriss et al. [6],  
183 studies involving a very specific population (such as in this investigation) can have a very high  
184 impact on real-world practise, even with a small sample size. A further limitation that should be



185 considered was the utilisation of GNSS and video tracking system for the monitoring of training  
186 sessions and matches, respectively [7].

187

188 In conclusion, this study has reported that starters and non-starters were exposed to significantly  
189 different volumes of internal and external load during congested fixture periods. This difference  
190 was mainly ascribable to the different total exposure time of the two groups and to the unique WL  
191 demands of the match. Players' individualised thresholds for very high-speed running distance  
192 ( $D > 80\% V_{max}$ ) may help to identify the WL needs of non-starters during congested fixture  
193 periods. This external load metric might be necessary for sport scientists and coaches to optimally  
194 prepare players for the most demanding phases of the match and to avoid de-training for non-  
195 starters. For all the reasons reported, the monitoring of external and internal WL metrics should be  
196 utilized to manage the training sessions and to plan compensation drills between starters and non-  
197 starters.

198

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201

### 202 **Conflict of interests**

203 [REDACTED] was employed at the time of the study by Juventus FC. All other authors declare  
204 no competing interests.

205

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242

243 **Figure 1.** Summary of training and match workload for starters and non-starters during two 21  
244 days-congested fixture mesocycles. Data are presented in mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). S\_MC1  
245 and S\_MC2 = starters during 1st and 2nd mesocycle respectively; NS\_MC1 and NS\_MC2 = non-  
246 starters during 1st and 2nd mesocycle respectively; sRPE-TL = session Rate of Perceived Exertion  
247 Training Load; AU = Arbitrary Units; m = meters; Distance >80% Vmax = Total distance above  
248 80% of maximum peak speed; \*training load significantly higher than starters ( $p<.05$ ); #match load  
249 significantly lower than starters ( $p<0.05$ ); †total workload lower than starters.  
250