

Adaptive Athlete Training Plan Generation: An intelligent control systems approach.

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1 **Adaptive Athlete Training Plan Generation: An Intelligent Control Systems**

2 **Approach.**

3 **ABSTRACT**

4 *Objectives:* The planning and control of team sport training activities is an extremely important
5 aspect of athletic development and team performance. This research introduces a novel system
6 which leverages techniques from the fields of control systems theory and artificial intelligence
7 (AI) to construct optimal future training plans when unexpected disturbances and deviations
8 from a training plan goal occur.

9 *Design:* Simulation-based experimental design

10 *Methods:* The adaptation of training load prescriptions was formulated as an optimal control
11 problem where we seek to minimize the difference between a desired training plan goal and an
12 observed training outcome. To determine the most suitable approach to optimise future training
13 loads the performance of an AI based feedback controller was compared to random and
14 proportional controllers. Robust computational simulations (N=1800) were conducted using a
15 non-linear training plan spanning 60 days over a 12-week period, the control strategies were
16 assessed on their ability to adapt future training loads when disturbances and deviations from an
17 optimal planning policy have occurred. Statistical analysis was conducted to determine if
18 significant difference existed between the three control strategies.

19 *Results:* The results of a repeated measures analysis of variance demonstrated that an intelligent
20 feedback controller significantly outperforms the random ($p < .001$, $ES = 7.41$, very large) and
21 proportional control ($p < .001$, $ES = 7.41$, very large) strategies at reducing the deviations from a
22 training plan goal.

23 *Conclusions:* This system can be used to support the decision making of practitioners across
24 several areas considered important for the effective planning and adaption of athletic training.

25 **KEYWORDS**

26 Training Load; Planning; Decision Support; Evolutionary Computation; Artificial Intelligence;
27 Control Systems

28 **Practical Implications**

- 29 • Practitioners can use the novel control system presented in this study
30 to support key decisions concerned with the planning and adaption
31 of athlete training loads.
- 32 • Training loads are automatically generated from higher level training
33 goals over medium to long term horizons.
- 34 • The model introduced in this study is responsive to feedback and
35 adapts future training to ensure that athletes are only exposed to
36 highly controlled and feasible loads.
- 37 • Intelligent control-based approaches are more effective at reducing
38 the effect of unplanned disturbances compared to proportional and
39 random methods.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The planning and control of team sports training is an important aspect in the development of
42 athletes and the enhancement of performance.¹ Team sports typically present a greater
43 challenge than individual sports for coaches, scientists and support staff, as multiple training
44 goals need to be accounted for and satisfied.² The quantity or volume of training load
45 accumulated during a training session is a primary variable that requires considered
46 manipulation to achieve long-term adaptations and reduce the risk of injury.³ The prescription
47 of training load is therefore prioritised as a higher level goal in the preparation and
48 development of athletes by coaches and support staff. Training load has also shown to be a
49 key factor in the regulation of fatigue⁴ and is routinely manipulated in a training plan to
50 achieve desired adaptations across a training phase. The construction of training plans and
51 prescription of training loads across a training phase has largely been guided by instinct and
52 experience.⁵ While this is suitable for simple higher level goals, research has shown that when
53 the complexity of a planning task starts to increase, our performance at constructing an

54 optimal policy over a medium to long term duration exponentially decreases.⁶ It is also
55 common for planned training goals to not be realised during a training session, week or phase.
56 These unplanned deviations can accumulate disrupting the complex balance between fatigue,
57 adaption and athlete performance.

58

59 Previous work has sought to address the problem of planning training prescriptions and
60 several contributions have been made which have leveraged the utility of mathematical
61 optimization to produce optimal training plans.^{7,8} Whilst the methods detailed in previous
62 research have contributed to addressing the problem of optimally planning training sessions,
63 these approaches do not include any provisions to account for disturbances and deviations
64 away from an optimal or desired planning policy. In control system theory this approach is
65 described as an open-loop control system, where the system does not adapt its control actions
66 based on the system's outputs. In an open-loop control system, once an optimal training plan
67 has been designed it cannot be adjusted based on an athletes response or external factors,
68 which disrupt the realisation of a training plan goal.⁹ This type of approach may be suitable
69 to prescribe training loads to athletes when there is limited feedback available. However,
70 currently, it is common practice in elite sport to have extensive athlete monitoring data
71 available pre, during and post-training.^{10,11} This information can be effectively utilized to
72 dynamically inform the future training plans and load prescriptions of athletes. To utilise the
73 vast quantity of athlete training data currently available and address the problem of
74 minimising deviations from optimal training plans, we have sought to design and implement
75 an intelligent control system. Intelligent control refers to approaches that use artificial
76 intelligence techniques such as fuzzy logic, neural networks and genetic algorithms in the
77 design and operation of a control system.¹² The aim of these systems is to produce rational
78 control actions to achieve a goal or maintain a goal state, typically in an autonomous fashion

79 or as part of a man-machine interface. Intelligent control systems have shown to be more
80 effective at controlling complex dynamical systems compared to conventional methods and
81 have been deployed in several real world applications including autonomous driving, utility
82 power and health care.¹³

83 This paper introduces a new method to assist coaches, scientists and support staff in the
84 planning and control of training load prescriptions to their athletes. This new method seeks
85 to address the problem of constructing optimal training plans over medium to long term
86 durations and the requirement to adapt those plans when real world disturbances force a
87 deviation away from the optimal policy. We hypothesise that an intelligent controller (IC)
88 will be superior to both a random controller (RC) and a proportional controller (PC) when
89 applied to the task of prescribing and adapting training loads to realise a higher level training
90 plan policy goal. The specific control strategies of the IC, RC and PC will be discussed in
91 more detail in the proceeding sections.

92 **2. Methods**

93 This section will detail the intelligent control model (Figure 1), how a training plan is initially
94 formulated using a hierarchical training goal and the structure of the controller which is used
95 to adapt training loads in response to feedback. The model is then subject to robustness testing
96 using a traditional training plan incorporating both linear increases in training load and a
97 nonlinear taper. The purposed method consists of a hierarchical policy goal (U), which is
98 expected to be achieved at the mesocycle level, and realised through the optimization and
99 adaptive control of training loads (OPL) at the microcycle level using a closed-loop feedback
100 control model (Figure 1).

101

102 **Please Insert Figure 1 Here.**

103 A training plan goal can be explicitly defined by a coach in a hierarchical fashion, for
104 example, a coach may plan a linear increase in the total weekly training load over X number
105 of weeks which is then realised through the accumulation of training sessions during those
106 weekly periods.

107 A training plan goal can also be implicitly defined using the following variables and
108 mathematical formulation:

$$109 \qquad \qquad \qquad G = B \times R \qquad \qquad \qquad (1)$$

110 Where G is the desired goal load, B is a base load and R is a ramp rate or uplift factor. For
111 example, a coach may want to increase the current weekly base training load by an uplift
112 factor of 15%.¹⁴ We can further define sub goals in a similar manner whereby an overall goal
113 G is a linear combination of subgoals as per equation 2.

$$114 \qquad \qquad \qquad G = G_1 + G_2 \dots G_n \qquad \qquad \qquad (2)$$

115 Numerous sub goals can also be combined in a piecewise style to form a combination of both
116 linear and non-linear loading strategies. A sub goal will then consist of a number of variables
117 $x \in u_i$ that are representative of the training session load values which when aggregated should
118 equal the overall sub goal load. The training session load x can then be intelligently prescribed
119 and subsequently adapted using mathematical optimization and feedback control so that a
120 hierarchical goal set by the coach can be fully realised.

121 The process of mathematical optimization consists of finding a set of variables that either
122 minimize or maximizes a defined goal commonly referred to as an objective or fitness
123 function. In control problems, the goal is typically to minimize the difference between an
124 observed trajectory and the planned or preferred trajectory. In this instance, we define our

125 objective function as a minimization of the root mean squared difference between the optimal
126 or desired training plan goal G and an observed training outcome O , where the manipulated
127 variables are the set U of future daily training session load values.

$$128 \quad \min f(G, O) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n (G_i - O_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

129 Constraints can also be added such that for any training session $x \in u_i \subset U$ an upper and lower
130 bound can be placed on the possible value it can take to ensure it is feasible and realistic. For
131 example $0 < x < 1000$.

132 In order to perform the minimization we need to find some set of optimal inputs U subject to
133 constraints, to do this we utilize an algorithm from a branch of artificial intelligence known
134 as evolutionary computation to search the space of possible solutions. The field of
135 evolutionary computing utilizes biologically inspired population based heuristic search
136 algorithms to find solutions to complex problems in a time efficient manner.^{12,15} In this
137 experiment we have utilized the differential evolution (DE) algorithm. DE operates by
138 generating an initial population of solutions to a problem and then proceeds to iteratively find
139 better solutions by traversing a search space of all potential solutions through the use of
140 mutation, recombination and selection based operators. Once a globally optimal solution is
141 found, or the algorithm can not improve on the current solution after a set number of attempts,
142 the best solution thus far is returned.^{15,16} DE has shown to be a simple and effective
143 optimization method across a number of different domains and applications,¹⁷ thus we have
144 chosen it to perform the intelligent adaptation/prescription of future training loads in the IC.
145 The RC consists of generating random future training load values from a discrete uniform
146 distribution with the same upper and lower bounds as the IC. Finally, the PC uses a
147 proportional strategy to adapt future training loads by calculating the difference between an

148 optimal session load and the realised/ observed load, the difference is then added (subtracted)
149 to the next sessions optimal value, if the future session value is negative a zero value is applied
150 to indicate no training should be conducted.

151 To test the robustness of the IC, and compare it to an RC and PC, we design a set of simulation
152 experiments that replicate a real world training scenario. A training goal is defined consisting
153 of several linear increases in weekly training load followed by a nonlinear taper. The training
154 plan consisted of 60 training session over a 12-week period. This goal was chosen as it is
155 thought to be representative of a typical athlete training plan.¹⁸⁻²⁰ The simulation experiment
156 was conducted using a custom program written in the python programming language. To
157 simulate a deviation away from an optimal training plan, individual training session load
158 values were subject to added random noise generated from a Gaussian distribution with a
159 mean of zero and a standard deviation equal to 50% of the original optimal training session
160 load value. This process was designed to replicate unforeseen over and under accumulations
161 of training session load as a result of several real world factors, such as the inclusion of extra
162 training drills mid-session, a higher than expected training intensity or a within session
163 change in training activities due to environmental conditions. In this experiment training load
164 was quantified in arbitrary units, however the system will accept values in any unit of
165 measurement the user prefers (Watts, Metres, TRIMP, etc). The system can also be easily
166 adapted to accept multiple inputs and produce multiple training load values by adapting the
167 fitness function to be compatible with multivariate optimal control procedures.

168 In order to quantify and compare the performance of each control strategy two quantitative
169 outcome measures were used, first, the average of the root mean squared errors (RMSE)
170 between the optimal planning policy and the adapted planning policy at every updated time
171 step was calculated, this measure represents how close an adapted plan is to the desired or

172 optimal planning policy, a score of zero indicates no difference [14]. The second outcome
173 measure used was the average of the change in control signal power $P_{\Delta v}$, this measure
174 represents the average change in the control signal [7], which in this experiment equates to
175 the change in training load values between consecutive training sessions. Thirty experimental
176 runs were conducted totalling $N=1800$ training plan simulations, the outcome measures were
177 then collated and compiled for further analysis. The computational experiments were
178 constructed using a bespoke program written in the Python 3.8 programming language and
179 run on a high-performance computing cluster running a Linux operating system. The Storn
180 and Price version of the differential evolution was implemented using the SciPy open-source
181 software for mathematics, science, and engineering with the following custom parameters:
182 $\text{maxiter}=100$, $\text{popsize}=30$, $\text{tol}=.001$. A repeated measures analysis of variance (RMANOVA)
183 was used to test for significant differences between the IC, RC and PC training plan control
184 strategies, significance was set at an alpha of 5%. If the assumption of superiority was violated
185 Greenhouse-Geisser corrections were applied. Where applicable Bonferroni post hoc analysis
186 was conducted. Results are reported using p-values, omega squared (ω^2) and absolute
187 Cohen's d effect sizes. Cohen's d values, interpreted by Hopkins, are as follows: *trivial* <
188 0.2; $0.2 \leq \textit{small} < 0.6$; $0.6 \leq \textit{moderate} < 1.2$; $1.2 \leq \textit{large} < 2.0$; *very large* > 2.0.²¹ Descriptive
189 statistics are reported using mean \pm 95% confidence intervals (CI) unless otherwise stated.
190 All statistical analysis was conducted using the JASP software (Version 0.14, Amsterdam,
191 The Netherlands).

192 **3. Results**

193 The results of the RMANOVA indicated significant differences between the IC, RC and PC
194 control strategies for the RMSE outcome measure ($p < .001$, $ES = 0.71$, *moderate*). Bonferroni
195 post hoc analysis revealed significant mean differences between the IC and RC plans (p

196 <.001, ES = 7.41, *very large*), the IC and PC plans (p <.001, ES = 2.38, *very large*) in addition
197 to the RC and PC plans (p <.001, ES = 1.18, *large*). Significant differences were also found
198 between the control strategies for the second outcome measure $P_{\Delta v}$ (p <.001, ES = 0.79,
199 *moderate*). Post hoc analysis revealed significant differences between the IC and RC plans (p
200 <.001, ES = 1.43, *large*) and the IC and PC plans (p <.01, ES = 0.70, *moderate*), and the RC
201 and PC plans (p <.001, ES = 9.34, *very large*). Figure 3 displays the distribution of the RMSE
202 score values, for each control protocol, over the thirty experimental simulations employing
203 the specified planning policy. Figure 4 displays the second outcome measure $P_{\Delta v}$.

204

205 **Please Insert Figure 2 Here**

206 **Please Insert Figure 3 Here**

207 **Please Insert Figure 4 Here**

208

209 **4. Discussion**

210 In agreement with the authors' hypothesis, the results demonstrate that an IC was superior to
211 both an RC and an PC when applied to the task of prescribing and adapting training loads to
212 realise a higher-level training plan policy goal. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first
213 objective method introduced to adjust future training loads when subjected to real world
214 unplanned deviations and disturbances, thereby minimizing the difference between a realised
215 training plan and a specified or optimal plan. The novel method which we have introduced
216 utilizes established theory from the fields of intelligent control and artificial intelligence to
217 provide an initial solution to an important problem in sport and exercise science. The results
218 of our simulation experiment have shown that feeding back and intelligently adapting training

219 plan variables, can reduce future deviations from an optimal planning policy caused by
220 unplanned disturbances. We have also highlighted the relatively poor performance of the
221 naive control strategies such as randomly prescribing future loads or adapting future loads by
222 adding or subtracting load values proportional to previous deviations. These findings make
223 an important contribution to the current body of research concerning the planning and
224 realization of athletic training. We have shown that even small training session deviations can
225 accumulate over the length of a training plan and cause an overall significant deviation away
226 from an initial optimal planning policy or higher level goal. This research has demonstrated
227 that even for a simple planning policy with linear goals, deviations can accumulate which
228 require some form of intelligent correction. Previous research has established the positive
229 physiological adaptations that can be achieved from appropriately planned or 'periodized'
230 training.^{22,23} Therefore the rationale for adhering to a training plan is well understood,
231 however to date no method has been purposed to reduce the impact of deviations away from
232 a training plan. In this work, we have demonstrated that an intelligent feedback controller is
233 a feasible and effective method for adapting training plans to achieve higher level linear or
234 non-linear training goals.

235 The results of this experiment have demonstrated that the intelligent adaptive control of
236 training load variables can reduce the overall deviation from a desired or optimal training
237 plan policy quantified using the RMSE outcome measure. The significant differences and
238 moderate to very large effect sizes found between the three control strategies for the $P_{\Delta v}$
239 outcome measure suggest that the magnitude of the control signal may be a strong
240 discriminating factor when evaluating the quality of an adaptive planning method, e.g. if a
241 large unplanned deviation occurs it can not simply be corrected by a large deviation of an
242 equal and opposite magnitude. The significant RMSE and $P_{\Delta v}$ differences found between the
243 performance of control strategies adds further support to this argument. The RC has shown

244 to perform worse than the IC whilst demonstrating similar magnitudes of corrective action.
245 This would suggest that an optimal set of training load variables exists which when realised
246 results in the achievement of a higher level hierarchical goal and that to achieve that goal
247 subject to forced/unforced deviations from the optimal policy an intelligent search of the
248 solution space needs to be conducted to update future training plan variables, such that the
249 residual negative effects of any distributive deviations are minimized reducing the risk of
250 potential illnesses, injuries and or performance reductions. This work is the first of its kind to
251 be applied to the problem of training plan design and control in the field of sport and exercise
252 science. A limitation of this study is the lack of comparison between the corrective action
253 which would have been implemented by a human coach both with and without the support of
254 this system to make a decision. Ultimately this system is intended to support decision makers
255 in their choice of corrective action. The authors recognise that constructing an optimal or
256 effective training plan goal is also currently an open area of research and comprises of several
257 complex considerations which need to be specified as inputs to this system. However, we feel
258 that the design of the system is such that it allows the user to leverage their own knowledge
259 and experience to devise goals which are specific and sufficient for them, or which
260 incorporate other techniques previously reported in the literature.^{7,8}

261 Future work will seek to advance the initial work presented in this study to develop the
262 capabilities of the feedback controller to consider multiple inputs in the control process and
263 be guided by model based predictions. We will seek to address other considerations such as
264 the relationship between deviations from a training plan and the subsequent effect on
265 measured performance at various time points using intelligent model-based control strategies.
266 Finally, we will seek to robustly test the performance of this system and its iterations using
267 from real world environments.

268 The practical applications of this work are numerous, the importance of refined control in the
269 training process is heightened during the rehabilitation and return to play process.²⁴ Athletes
270 exhibit extremely non-linear responses to, and deviations from, training activities during
271 rehab but are required to follow training plans stringently in order to make a timely return to
272 competition. Practitioners can use the novel control system presented in this study to support
273 the planning and adaption of training during the rehabilitation process to achieve their goals
274 in the most time efficient way. Similarly, the application of this system can be extended to
275 any type of higher level goal or planning policy which can be quantified and controlled by a
276 set of training load variables. Another strength of the control system which we have designed
277 is its flexibility, the system is training variable agnostic and the training variable inputs that
278 represent a higher level goal or sub-goal can be in any unit (e.g., RPE, TRIMP and Distance).
279 The systems' flexibility allows it to be highly versatile, a user can make trivial adjustments
280 adapting it to different goals, and training scenarios, such as gym based resistance training or
281 field based conditioning.

282 **5. Conclusion**

283 This study has shown that an intelligent closed-loop feedback controller consistently
284 outperforms a random controller and proportional controller when adapting the future training
285 loads of athletes when subjected to real world disturbances and deviations from a non-linear
286 higher level training plan goal. This work is the first of its kind to apply techniques from the
287 fields of control systems theory and artificial intelligence to the problem of training plan
288 design and adaption in athletic populations.

289

290 The system proposed in this study can be used to support coaches and practitioners to realise
291 higher level training plan goals when subject to forced/unforced deviations away from a

292 desired or optimal planning policy. Therefore this system has numerous practical applications
293 in various areas considered important for the effective planning, maintenance and control of
294 athletic training.

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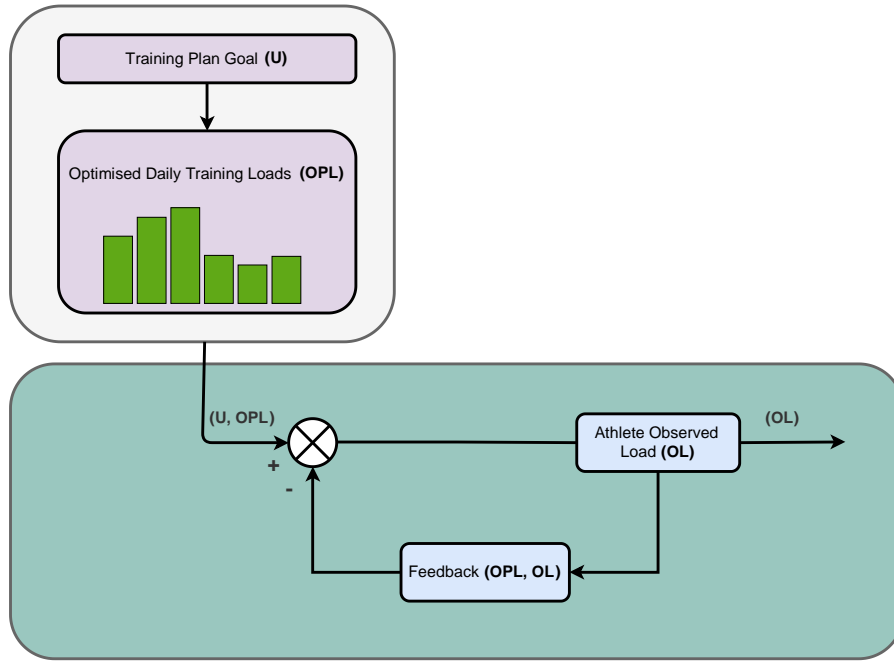
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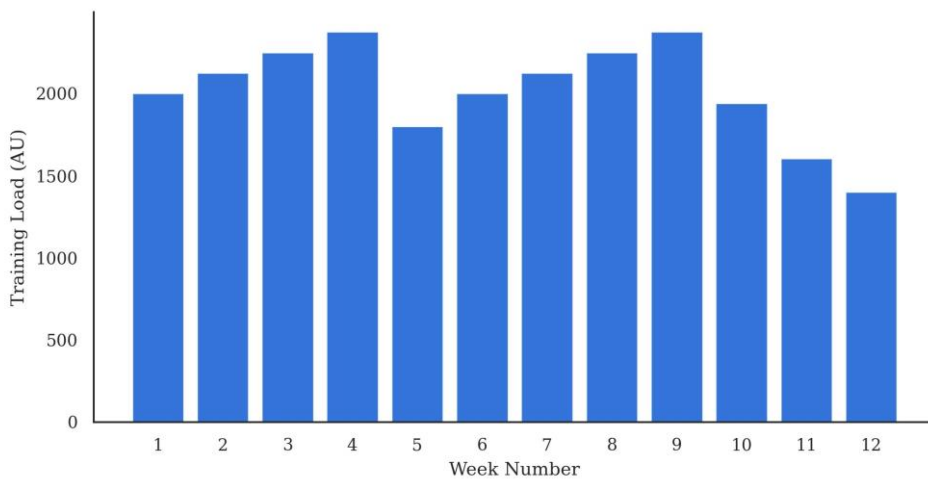
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Figure 1. Adaptive training load control model.

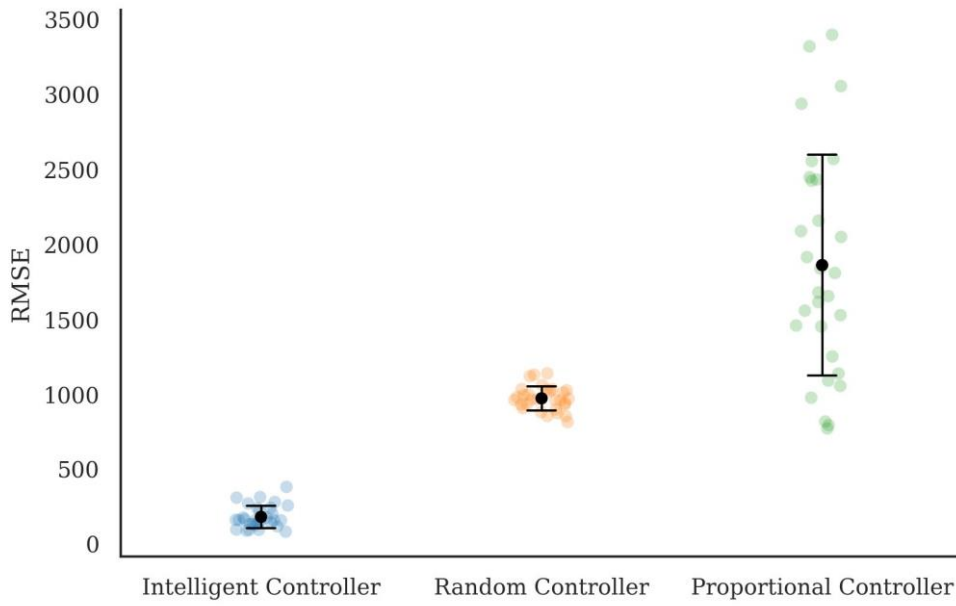
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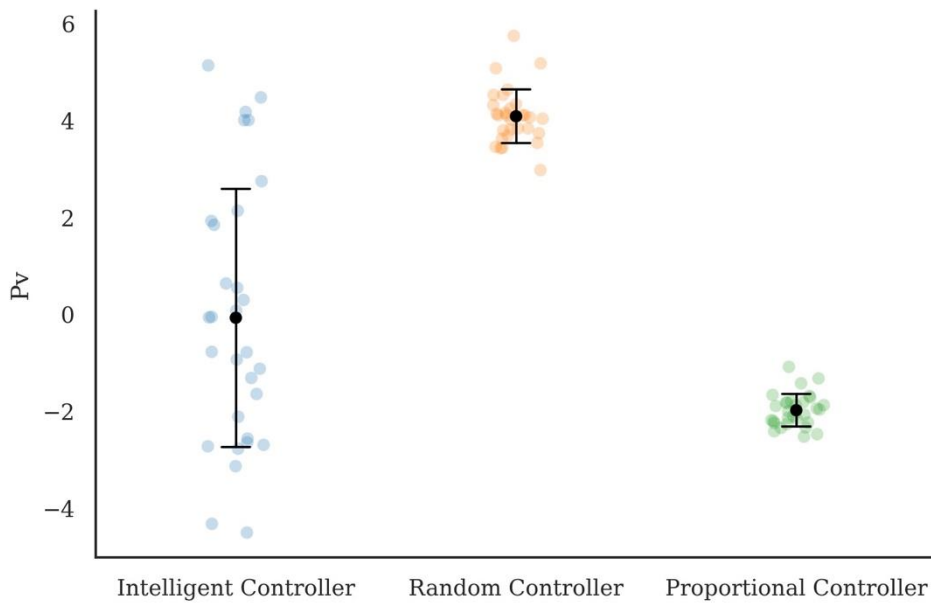
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Figure 2. Training plan policy.



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388 Figure 3. RMSE controller values over thirty experimental simulations.



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Figure 4. $P_{\Delta v}$ controller values over thirty experimental simulations.

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Conflict of interest

All authors declare no potential conflicts of interests.

Ethics

Due to the computational nature of this research and the absence of human subjects in the experimental procedures, ethics was not sought.