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The influence of pre-season training loads on in-season match activities in professional Australian football players Johnston, Rich D., Murray, Nicholas B. and Austin, Damien J.

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1 ORIGINAL INVESTIGATION

3	TITLE: The influence of pre-season training loads on in-season match activities in					
4	professional Australian football players					
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22 Abstract

23 **Objectives:** To determine the impact of pre-season training loads on in-season match activity 24 profiles in professional Australian football (AF) players. Methods: Forty-four professional AF 25 players participated in this study. Sixty-nine pre-season training and in-season match profiles 26 were monitored using global positioning system (GPS) microtechnology and technical 27 statistics across two seasons. Technical performance was measured as the Player Rank score 28 provided by Champion Data. Players were matched for position and playing experience and 29 divided into three equal training load groups based on total distance accumulated during preseason. **Results:** Players in the high training load (HTL) group performed more relative total 30 31 and high-speed distance in matches compared with the moderate (MTL; ES = 0.73-0.86) and 32 low (LTL; ES = 0.68-1.31) training load groups, with the differences becoming greater as the 33 season progressed. There were no clear differences in Player Rank score between groups. There 34 were positive relationships between pre-season high-speed running and match relative distance $(p = 0.001; r = 0.417; r^2 = 0.174)$ and match relative high-speed running (p = 0.001; r = 0.561; r = 0.561)35 $r^2 = 0.314$), which were greatest in the HTL group. **Conclusions:** High pre-season training 36 37 loads are associated with increased physical match activities, but do not appear to impact technical performance. 38

39 KEY WORDS: team sport, training, activity profiles, performance, workloads

41 Introduction

42 Australian football (AF) is an intermittent team sport played on a large oval field with players 43 performing frequent technical actions throughout the game (Johnston et al. 2018). Over the 44 course of a game, players will typically cover between 11000-13500 metres at an average speed of 110-130 mmin⁻¹ (Varley et al. 2014). However, there are periods in a game where players 45 46 may be required to cover over 220 mmin⁻¹, with up to 50% of this distance being high-speed 47 running (Delaney et al. 2017). With this in mind, well-developed high-intensity running ability (Mooney et al. 2011) and maximal aerobic speed is vital (Dillon et al. 2017). Furthermore, 48 49 whilst match running profiles are not directly linked to match outcome (Sullivan et al. 2014b), 50 players who cover greater distances per minute and distance at high-speed, have more 51 involvements with the football across a game (Mooney et al. 2011; Hiscock et al. 2012; Dillon 52 et al. 2017).

53

54 Technical actions, such as, disposals, marks, effective kicks per minute of play and goal 55 conversion rate are vital to success in AF (Sullivan et al. 2014b). Champion Data, the official statistical provider to the Australian Football League (AFL), provides a Player Rank score 56 57 which is based on the number of effective and ineffective possessions for each player and 58 shares a relationship with individual metrics: disposals (r = 0.511), pressure points (r = 0.250), effective kicks (r = 0.190) and marks (r = 0.151) per minute of match-play (Sullivan et al. 59 60 2014b). Player Rank shares small negative correlations with a number of GPS variables (Sullivan et al. 2014b), although this is dependent on position, with high speed movements 61 62 appearing to have a positive effect on Player Rank in nomadic players (Bauer et al. 2015). 63 While the relationship between technical performance and physical output during match-play 64 is complex, it appears evident that well-developed physical and technical qualities are required 65 to be successful in AF.

66

67 Due to the demanding nature of AF match-play, players engage in a pre-season period, lasting 68 approximately 3 months, where high chronic training loads and practice matches are used to 69 develop the physical and technical abilities required (Murray, Gabbett, Townshend, et al. 70 2017). Previous research has shown that with sufficient, but not excessive chronic loads, 71 players can improve physical fitness and reduce injuries over the course of the pre-season 72 period (Harrison and Johnston 2017; Murray, Gabbett, Townshend, et al. 2017). In addition to 73 this, higher pre-season workloads reduce injury risk and increases player availability across the 74 competitive season in professional AF players (Murray, Gabbett, Townshend 2016; Colby et 75 al. 2017). Some players may exhibit reductions in physical capacities as the season progresses 76 (Hrysomallis and Buttifant 2012), which could have detrimental effects on injury and 77 performance, particularly towards the latter stages of the season, when the most important 78 games occur (Argus et al. 2009; Colby et al. 2017). Taken together, it appears important that 79 players are able to complete as many scheduled pre-season training sessions and accumulate 80 moderate-to-high chronic workloads over this period in order to improve physical qualities, 81 reduce injury risk and maintain performance over the course of the competitive season 82 (Johnston et al. 2018).

83

Despite the positive effect pre-season training has on reduced in-season injury incidence, the effect pre-season training loads have on match activity profiles across a season is unclear. It would seem likely that based on the positive relationship between training load and changes in aerobic fitness (Harrison and Johnston 2017) and performance (Mooney et al. 2011), that higher pre-season loads would lead to increased match activity profiles and technical performance, but this is yet to be elucidated. Given the importance of activity profiles on 90 increasing technical actions in AF players during competition (Mooney et al. 2011; Hiscock et 91 al. 2012), it would appear important to see the effect pre-season loads have on match 92 performance. The aim of this study was to determine the impact pre-season training loads have 93 on in-season match activity profiles in professional AF players. It was hypothesised that higher 94 workloads over the pre-season, would lead to increased match activity profiles over the 95 competitive season.

96

97 Methods

98 Subjects

99 Forty-four professional AF players (Table 1), competing for the same AFL club participated in 100 this study. Twenty-five players completed both the 2016 and 2017 seasons with 19 players only 101 completing one season (2016 n = 10; 2017 n = 9), providing a total sample of 69 (2016 n = 35; 102 2017 n = 34) player pre-season and match workloads. In total, 3172 pre-season sessions and 103 910 match files were analysed. Players were required to play at least three senior AFL games 104 to be included in the analysis, the average number of games played was 13 ± 6 in 2016 (range = 4-22) and 14 \pm 6 in 2017 (range = 3-22). The 2016 pre-season commenced on the 7th 105 November 2015 until the 19th March 2016; the 2017 pre-season commenced on 9th November 106 107 2016 until the 15th March 2017. In the 2016 season, the team won 3 and lost 19 games; in the 2017 season, the team won 5 and lost 17 games. All procedures were approved by the 108 Australian Catholic University Human Research Ethics Committee, conforming to the *Code of* 109 110 Ethics of the World Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki).

111 ***TABLE 1 NEAR HERE***

112 Design

To determine the impact of pre-season training on in-season match performance, a 113 114 retrospective cohort design was used. Pre-season training and in-season match profiles were 115 monitored using global positioning system (GPS) microtechnology and technical statistics in 116 professional AF players across the 2016 and 2017 seasons. Both pre-season periods lasted for 117 21 weeks, including a 2-week break over the Christmas period; the in-season periods lasted for 118 23 weeks. Players were grouped into positions (fixed and nomadic) before being divided into low (LTL; n = 22; AFL games = 50 ± 54; match files = 265), moderate (MTL; n = 23; AFL 119 120 games = 47 ± 49 ; match files = 321) and high (HTL; n = 23; AFL games = 47 ± 54 ; match files 121 = 324) training load groups based on total distance accumulated over the pre-season. Pre-122 season training involved all field-based training sessions and trial matches up to the Monday 123 prior to the first competitive fixture.

124

125 Methodology

126 Training and match workloads were assessed using microtechnology devices containing a 10 127 Hz GPS chip and a 100 Hz tri-axial accelerometer and gyroscope (Optimeye S5, Catapult 128 Innovations, Melbourne, Australia). Prior to each training session and match, players were 129 fitted with a microtechnology device. Players were allocated a unit at the start of the season 130 which remained consistent across all matches and training sessions. Units were turned on 131 approximately 20 minutes prior to the start of each training session or match warm-up. During 132 training, the units were worn in a vest provided by the manufacturer, worn under the players 133 training jersey. In matches, the unit was placed within a specifically designed pouch on the 134 playing jerseys. In both training and competition, the unit was positioned on the centre of the back between the shoulder blades. After each session, the GPS files were downloaded to a 135 136 computer using proprietary software (Openfield v1.15.0, Catapult Innovations, Melbourne, 137 Australia). Only movements that formed the scheduled, field-based training sessions were 138 included in the analysis. During matches, non-playing minutes (i.e. bench time) were omitted from the analysis. Data were categorised into low- (0-4.9 m·s⁻¹), and high-speed (\geq 5.0 m·s⁻¹) 139 140 movement bands (Wisbey et al. 2010; Murray, Gabbett, Townshend 2017). PlayerLoad[™] per 141 metre was also used in the analysis, which is the square root of the sum of instantaneous 142 accelerations in all three vectors (Boyd et al. 2011) divided by total distance, as a measure of 143 movement efficiency (Barrett et al. 2016). All variables were also considered relative to match 144 or training time. The units utilised in this study have been shown to have acceptable accuracy 145 for reporting total distances and high-speed distances in team sport players (Varley et al. 2012).

146

Player Rank scores were gathered for each game over the 2016 and 2017 seasons using Champion Data (Champion Data, Victoria, Australia), the official statistical partner for the AFL. The ranking score is calculated based on the effectiveness of an individual's skill involvements over the course of a game, with each involvement assigned a positive or negative score depending on the outcome. The score provides an objective, global ranking for each player's skill involvements over the course of the game and has been previously used in the literature (Sullivan et al. 2014b; Graham et al. 2017).

154

155 Statistical Analysis

To determine the impact of pre-season load on match activity profiles, traditional null hypothesis testing and magnitude based inferences were used. A MANOVA (SPSS 22.0, SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL, USA) was used to determine the differences in pre-season training loads between groups. Differences between training load groups and match activities were assessed by linear mixed models with fixed effects of stage of season (early: matches 1-8; mid: matches 161 9-15; late: matches 17-22) and training load group (high, moderate and low) and random effects 162 of player identity included in each model. Separate models were built for selected GPS metrics: relative distance, relative high-speed distance, PlayerLoadTM per metre per minute, and Player 163 164 Rank. In addition, magnitude based inferences were used to assess the meaningfulness of any differences (Hopkins et al. 2009). Firstly, the likelihood that changes in the dependent variables 165 166 were greater than the smallest worthwhile change was calculated as a small effect size of 0.20 167 x between subject standard deviation. Based on 90% confidence intervals, the thresholds used for assigning qualitative terms to chances were as follows: <1% almost certainly not; <5% very 168 169 unlikely; <25% unlikely; <50% possibly not; >50% possibly; >75% likely; >95% very likely; 170 >99% almost certain. The magnitude of difference was considered practically meaningful when 171 the likelihood was \geq 75%. Secondly, magnitudes of change in the dependent variables were 172 assessed using Cohen's effect size (ES) statistic and their 90% confidence intervals. Effect 173 sizes (ES) of 0.20-0.59, 0.60-1.19, and \geq 1.20 were considered small, moderate and large 174 respectively (Hopkins et al. 2009).

175

176 To assess the relationships between pre-season loads and in-season match activities, multiple 177 linear regressions were used. Firstly, Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) were used to 178 determine the relationship between variables and to determine collinearity of independent 179 variables. Correlations of 0.10-0.29, 0.30-0.49, 0.50-0.69, 0.70-0.89 and ≥ 0.90 were 180 considered small, moderate, large, very large, and nearly perfect (Hopkins et al. 2009). 181 Hierarchical linear regressions were performed for each training load group using the most closely related predictor variables to match activities (m⁻min⁻¹, high-speed m⁻min⁻¹, and 182 183 PlayerLoadTM/m) from the correlation matrix. Predictor variables with a relationship of >0.9 184 were removed from the regression due to collinearity. The strongest correlated variable was 185 entered into the first block and subsequent variables entered into the second block. For each 186 model, the Durbin-Watson statistic was used to determine the assumption that errors are 187 independent and variance inflation factor was used to further detect collinearity between 188 predictor variables (Field 2009). Data are reported as means \pm standard deviation (SD); the 189 significance level was set at p<0.05.

190

191 **Results**

192 Training loads

There were no significant differences in match experience between groups (p = 0.887; ES = -0.09 to 0.07). There were significantly greater pre-season training loads in the HTL group compared with the LTL (p = 0.001; ES = 1.14-1.67) and MTL (p = 0.001; ES = 0.75-1.32) groups for all training load variables. There were moderate to large differences in training load variables between MTL and LTL groups (p = 0.001; ES = 0.65-1.48; Table 2).

198 ***TABLE 2 NEAR HERE***

199 Match profiles

200 Across the season, greater relative distance was seen in the HTL group compared with the MTL 201 $(p = 0.029; ES = moderate; 0.78 \pm 0.50)$ and LTL groups $(p = 0.053; ES = moderate; 0.99 \pm 0.000)$ 202 0.51). Relative high-speed distance was also greater in the HTL group compared to the MTL 203 $(p = 0.122; ES = moderate; 0.93 \pm 0.50)$ and LTL groups $(p = 0.064; ES = moderate; 1.03 \pm 0.50)$ 204 (0.52) during matches. There were unclear differences in relative distance (p = 0.998 ES = small 205 0.34 ± 0.49) and high-speed distance (p = 0.593; ES = small; 0.25 ± 0.49) between MTL and LTL groups. Despite greater relative distances, the HTL group accumulated less relative 206 207 PlayerLoadTM per metre compared to the MTL (p = 0.04; ES = moderate; -0.89 ± 0.46) and 208 LTL groups (p = 0.01; ES = moderate; -0.96 \pm 0.47). There was no clear difference in Player 209 Rank scores (p = 0.445; ES = -0.15 to 0.32) between groups.

210

211 ***FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE***

212 Across each stage of the season, the HTL group had *moderately* greater relative distance (ES 213 = 0.70-0.75) and high-speed distance (ES = 0.83-0.91) compared with the MTL group (Figure 214 1A). Compared to the LTL group, the HTL group showed *moderate* to *large* greater relative 215 distance (ES = 0.68-1.02) and high-speed running (ES = 0.91-1.31; Figure 1B). The HTL group 216 had lower (*small* to *moderate*) relative PlayerLoadTM per metre in the early (ES: LTL = -0.72) ± 0.56 ; MTL = -0.54 ± 0.54), middle (ES: LTL -1.02 ± 0.54 ; MTL -0.48 ± 0.50), and late 217 218 (ES: LTL -1.03 \pm 0.60; MTL -0.49 \pm 0.53) stages of the season (Figure 1A and 1B). There 219 were little differences in match profiles between the MTL and LTL groups at any stage of the 220 season (Figure 1C), other than, greater relative high-speed distance in the late stage of the 221 season in the MTL group (ES = small; 0.53 ± 0.57).

222

Changes in relative distance, high-speed distance, PlayerLoad[™] per metre and Player Ranking 223 224 over the early, middle and late stages of the season are shown in Figure 2. There was little 225 change in relative distance (Figure 2A) from early season in any group, with *small* but unclear 226 increases in relative distance from early to middle (ES = 0.28 ± 0.50 ; Possibly, 60%) and early 227 to late season (ES = 0.24 ± 0.53 ; Possibly, 55%) in the HTL group, *trivial* differences in the 228 LTL (ES = 0.02 and -0.07) and *small* and *trivial* differences in the MTL (ES = 0.26 and 0.14) 229 group (Figure 1A). In the HTL group, relative high-speed distance showed *small* increases in 230 the middle (ES = 0.34 ± 0.51 ; Possibly, 67%) and *moderate* increases in the late (ES = $0.62 \pm$ 231 0.51; Likely, 91%) stages of the season. There were only *trivial* and *small* unclear changes in 232 relative high-speed distance in the LTL (ES = -0.06 to 0.11) or MTL (ES = 0.14 to 0.26) groups 233 across the season (Figure 1B). There was also no change in PlayerLoadTM per metre from early 234 season in the HTL (ES = 0.13 ± 0.52 ; 0.25 ± 0.55) or MTL groups (ES = 0.08 ± 0.55 ; $-0.12 \pm$ 235 0.56). There was however a *small* reduction in middle (ES = -0.35 ± 0.61 ; Possibly ,67%) and 236 late (ES = -0.47 ± 0.57 ; Likely, 79%) season in the LTL group (Figure 1D). There were no 237 clear changes in Player Ranking other than a *small* increase in the HTL group in the middle 238 stage of the season compared to the early stage (Figure 1D: HTL ES: Middle = 0.42; Late = 239 0.10; MTL ES: Middle = 0.06; Late = 0.03; LTL ES: Middle = 0.13, Late = -0.14).

240

241 ***FIGURE 2 NEAR HERE***

242

243 Pre-season and in-season relationships

Across all players, high-speed distance was the only predictor of match relative distance (r = 0.417; p = 0.001) and relative high-speed distance (r = 0.560; p = 0.001), explaining 17% and 31% of these match variables, respectively.

For match relative high-speed distance, there was a significant effect of pre-season high-speed distance for the HTL group, explaining 35% (r = 0.591; p = 0.001); but non-significant associations for the MTL (r = 0.322; p = 0.013) and LTL groups (r = 0.355; p = 0.011), explaining 10% and 12% of match high-speed running respectively. For relative match distance, pre-season high-speed distance was only a significant predictor for the HTL group (r = 0.374; p = 0.003), explaining 14% of match relative distance.

254 **Discussion**

255 This study aimed to investigate the influence of pre-season load on match activities in a group 256 of professional AF players. The results of this study show that players who accumulate more 257 pre-season training load have greater physical match activities, but no difference in skill related match performance compared to players with lower pre-season loads. The relationships 258 259 between pre-season load and match high-speed running is greatest in players who accumulated 260 high pre-season workloads, highlighting the need for players to complete the majority of pre-261 season (>90%). In addition, players with higher training load showed increases in physical 262 match activities as the season progressed. Collectively, to maximise player work-rates during 263 match-play that can be sustained across the competitive season, players must accumulate high 264 chronic loads during the pre-season period.

265

This study shows that high pre-season loads lead to increased physical match activity profiles 266 267 through relative total and high-speed distance. Previously, AF studies have shown that players 268 who accumulate high pre-season loads have fewer in-season injuries (Colby et al. 2017) and 269 are available for more games and training sessions (Murray, Gabbett, Townshend 2016). 270 Higher pre-season loads are associated with greater increases in fitness across the pre-season 271 period (Harrison and Johnston 2017), leading to increased high-speed running during match-272 play (Mooney et al. 2011; Mooney, Cormack, O'Brien, et al. 2013). Although increased match 273 activity profiles are not directly linked to team success, they do appear to play a role. Increases 274 in high-speed running results in more technical involvements (Mooney et al. 2011; Hiscock et 275 al. 2012; Dillon et al. 2017) and in some (Mooney et al. 2011; Bauer et al. 2015), but not all 276 instances (Sullivan et al. 2014b), increased coaches ratings of performance. Some studies have 277 shown that relative distance is greater during matches won and against stronger opposition 278 (Black et al. 2017; Ryan et al. 2017), although this is not always the case (Sullivan et al. 2014a).

During a winning quarter, players have higher work-rates when not in possession of the football (Sullivan et al. 2014a). Therefore, having the capacity to elevate work rates is important. Maximising participation in pre-season training, through gradual increases in workloads, is likely to minimise injury risk (Murray, Gabbett, Townshend, et al. 2016; Colby et al. 2017), increase fitness (Harrison and Johnston 2017), and increase player work-rates during competition.

285

286 The influence of pre-season load on match activities was greatest in the HTL group, with very 287 large relationships shared between match activities and pre-season high-speed distances. Given 288 that only very large associations were seen in the HTL group suggests that players need a high 289 volume of training, in order to see the benefits of pre-season across the entire 7-month 290 competitive period. Although large volumes are required to induce improvements in fitness, 291 the only significant predictor of in-game match activities was the proportion of pre-season 292 loads accumulated at high-speeds demonstrates the need for a certain amount of training at 293 high intensities (Castagna et al. 2013). Due to collinearity, there were a number of training load 294 variables that were not included in the model, although they are likely to have had some effect 295 on match activities. In addition, internal load was not assessed in the current study and is clearly 296 vital in determining the training response and adaptations (Delaney et al. 2018), this warrant 297 further investigation. Based on the current findings, players should be exposed to an adequate 298 amount of training volume and intensity. In the present study, ~19% of total pre-season distance 299 was spent at high-speeds in the high training load group, with a range of 25-18%.

301 The greatest changes in match activities as the season progressed were seen in the HTL group 302 with smaller increases in the MTL group, and no change in the LTL group (Figure 2). This

303 suggests a minimum amount of training is required to see a positive effect of pre-season across 304 the prolonged competitive period. Whilst fitness was not assessed in the current study, pre-305 season fitness has been shown to positively influence performance (Gastin et al. 2013) and 306 players with lower pre-season training load likely had smaller changes in fitness (Harrison and 307 Johnston 2017), which were not high enough to sustain performance across a 7 month 308 competitive period. Firstly, lower fitness levels are associated with higher post-match fatigue 309 and muscle damage (Hunkin et al. 2014; Johnston, Gabbett, Jenkins, et al. 2015); over a season, 310 this may cause increased cumulative fatigue which can reduce activity profiles (Johnston et al. 311 2013; Mooney, Cormack, O'Brien B, et al. 2013; Johnston, Gabbett, Jenkins 2015). Secondly, 312 reductions in physical qualities have been observed over the season (Hrysomallis and Buttifant 313 2012); therefore, commencing the season with a lower chronic load may mean players are 314 unable to cope with increased match demands as the season progresses (Ryan et al. 2017), or 315 during finals matches (Aughey 2011). Collectively, these results show that pre-season 316 influences match activity profiles, which becomes more important as the season progresses. 317 Players who only accumulate moderate or low training loads do not see positive effects on 318 match activity profiles; these players may benefit from additional physical training in the early 319 stages of the competitive season.

320

The higher relative PlayerLoadTM per metre values seen in the MTL and LTL groups during matches, may suggest lower locomotor efficiency (or a disparity in how they accumulate load), with these players potentially becoming more fatigued during matches (Barrett et al. 2016). Whilst speculative, this increase may be due to reductions in stride length and concomitant increases in stride frequency and mediolateral (Le Bris et al. 2006) movement as players become fatigued. However, inferences of lower limb activity from an accelerometer positioned at the shoulders should be made with caution (Barrett et al. 2014). Further research should be conducted to ascertain the relationship between movement efficiency, physical capacity and
 PlayerLoadTM. Potentially, high training loads result in improved movement efficiency seen
 through reductions in accelerometer load per metre.

331

332 The influence of pre-season loads explains a large proportion of match high-speed running, 333 with increases in the HTL group as the season progresses. Players need to accumulate high 334 loads to see the benefit of pre-season across the entire season. Despite this, there are some 335 limitations to this study that are worth noting and areas for future research. There was no 336 consistent measure of fitness between the two seasons that could be included in the analysis, 337 so it is difficult to determine the true positive effect of training between groups. Only field 338 based sessions were used as pre-season load and players may have accumulated large load 339 during off-feet conditioning that could have influenced the findings. In addition, the reason for 340 different loads between players was not considered; some players missed training through 341 injury, whereas others were managed due to age. Notwithstanding this, the clear difference in 342 match profiles between groups, highlights the positive impact pre-season can have. The study 343 was conducted in just one club who finished towards the bottom of the ladder in both seasons, 344 meaning the results may not reflect more successful teams. The lack of relationship between 345 skill profiles and pre-season loads warrants further research. Quantifying the nature of skills 346 training and skill involvements in players and the impact that has on in-match skill profiles.

347

348 **Practical Implications**

In order to increase high-speed running during matches, players must accumulate high training
loads during pre-season training. Coaching staff must develop training programs that maximise
a player's ability to participate in as much of pre-season training as possible through careful

352	planning of loads and monitoring of individual responses to training. Players who miss large							
353	amounts of pre-season may need to have their pre-season extended into the in-season period							
354	until comparable running loads compared to the rest of the squad during the pre-season period.							
355 356	What are the main findings?Players with higher pre-season training loads cover more distance and high-speed							
357	distance per minute of play during in-season matches							
358	• The greatest increases in match intensities are seen in players with the greatest pre-							
359	season workloads							
360	• Pre-season training has a positive influence on match activities throughout the season							
361	which is greatest in players with high pre-season training loads							
362	Disclosure Statement							
363	The authors would like to thank the players and club for participating in this study. The							
364	authors report no conflicts of interest with the findings of this study.							

365

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469 **Figure Legends**

Figure 1. Effect size differences and 90% confidence intervals for differences in match physical and technical profiles for (A) high *vs.* moderate training load groups; (B) high *vs.* low training load groups and (C) moderate *vs.* low training load groups. ES of 0.20-0.59, 0.60-1.19, and \geq 1.20 were considered small, moderate and large, respectively. Early season = matches 1-8, mid-season = matches 9-15, and late season = matches 17-22. All variables are expressed relative to playing time.

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Figure 2. Physical activity profiles for (A) relative distance (B) relative high-speed distance (C) PlayerLoadTM per metre and (D) relative Player Ranking score in the three training load groups during the early, middle, and late stages of the season. M = Moderate, S = Small effect size differences; subscript letters, $_e$ = early season. ES of 0.20-0.59, 0.60-1.19, and \geq 1.20 were considered small, moderate and large, respectively. Early season = matches 1-8, mid-season = matches 9-15, and late season = matches 17-22.

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Tables

Table 1. Player characteristics of all players at the beginning of the 2016 and 2017 seasons.

Season	AFL matches	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)
2016	53.9 ± 47.4	22.5 ± 3.2	189.3 ± 7.9	89.5 ± 8.4
2017	48.1 ± 46.7	22.8 ± 3.1	189.4 ± 7.4	89.1 ± 8.0

Table 2. Total pre-season loads for high, moderate and low training load groups based on total pre-season distance.									
	AFL matches	Training time (min)	Sessions trained (%)	Distance (km)	HSR (km)	HSR (%)	PlayerLoad TM (AU)		
High Load	47 ± 54	$3545 \pm 482^{Ll,Mm}$	$90\pm 6^{Ll,\ Lm}$	$365\pm38^{Ll,\ Lm}$	$69\pm14^{Ll,Mm}$	$19 \pm 3^{Ml,Mm}$	32981 ± 4063 ^{Ll, Mm}		
Moderate Load	47 ± 49	3070 ± 623^{Ll}	81 ± 7^{Ml}	307 ± 63^{Ll}	53 ± 16^{Ll}	17 ± 4	28251 ± 6010^{Ll}		
Low Load	50 ± 54	2145 ± 588	67 ± 15	224 ± 55	35 ± 12	15 ± 3	20105 ± 5292		

All data are mean \pm SD. AFL = Australian Football League HSR = high-speed running. Mm = moderate effect size (ES) difference to moderate group; Ln = large ES difference to moderate group; Ml = moderate ES difference to low group; Ll = large effect size difference to low group. ES of 0.20-0.59, 0.60-1.19, and \geq 1.20 were considered small, moderate and large, respectively.







Figure 2